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The Impact of European Union Enlargement in 2004 on Primary Education

by

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is entirely my own work. It has not been submitted for a degree to any other university or published in any form.

Ian Harrison Jones

Abstract

The European Union increased from 15 to 25 Member States in 2004. The UK government permitted unrestricted access to these new EU citizens, resulting in large-scale immigration from Eastern and Central Europe. The unplanned arrival of large numbers of pupils from these new Member States challenged schools. Neither the magnitude nor the impact on schools of these migration flows was understood. It was against this background of a dearth of knowledge and increasing professional uncertainty in a complex and sensitive area of education that the research programme was developed. Its purpose was to provide a better understanding of migration flows and their impact on primary education.

This migration inflow confusion dictated that a broad, exploratory approach, employing a multi-method process, be adopted. Methods ranged from the analysis of 27 million pupil registrations to gathering information from individual teachers and parents through interviews and questionnaires. A principal theme provided cohesion and coherence to the five distinct stages of study. Questions relevant to each stage encompassed international, national, LA, school, parent and pupil-level perspectives.

The research findings show that the UK government intended to encourage large-scale EU immigration, resulting in Britain's largest and fastest peacetime inward migration. The migration measuring systems employed were shown to be unfit for purpose. Confusion over ethnic categorisation undermining the accuracy of school census enumerations was discovered. The studies indicated that the WEEU pupil population increased at a faster rate than any other major category and that schools were ill-equipped to cope with the scale and professional demands of these arrivals. Furthermore, WEEU pupils reduced the average performance of case study schools. The thesis suggests the need for improvements to the national and school census systems. A review of educational procedures for managing unplanned EU migrant flows is also indicated, as is better training for teachers in EAL.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces a research programme that tracks a political decision, made by the UK government in 2003, through to its eventual impact upon the education services of schools in the UK and the EU A8¹ Member States. The government decision related to border controls, immigration and economics, but not to education. The chapter considers the motivation for the research, its context and scope, together with its relevance for education and further research. The nature of the study's theme is discussed in the context of the research aims and questions. An outline of the thesis provides an overview of its structure and the aims of each chapter.

1.2 Context and Motivation

The Treaty of Accession (2003)² enabled the European Union to increase its membership from 15 to 25 Member States in 2004. The ten accession countries were

¹ EU A8 Member States: The eastern and central European states of: Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

² Ref: Treaty of Accession, 2003.

referred to as the EUA10³. However, this thesis is concerned with eight of these countries, known as the EUA8, that are spread geographically across eastern and central Europe and were formally under the influence of the USSR either as Soviet Socialist Republics of the USSR, such as Estonia and Latvia, or Soviet Bloc countries, such as Poland and Hungary.

Membership of the European Union bestows many rights on the nationals of Member States, including EU citizenship and the freedom of movement. These are important founding principles of the European Union. However, the Treaty of Accession incorporated transitional arrangements, which in essence meant that the existing EU15⁴ countries could restrict and manage the free access of EUA8 nationals for up to seven years. All EU15 enacted transitional arrangements with the exceptions of Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The latter gave all A8 nationals uncontrolled access to the UK from 2004. In principle, the politically-anticipated inflow of A8 nationals to the UK did not represent a totally new phenomenon, for such movements of peoples had been an important and ever-present feature of Britain's history.

At the commencement of the research, the European Union A8 migration was in its infancy. Indeed, the borders of the United Kingdom had been fully open to A8 citizens for barely three years. Conflicting views on the size and character of the migration varied dramatically. Official migration figures were challenged and seen as contrary to reality, particularly by schools. Moreover, no effective systems were in place to measure the A8 inflow either nationally or at school level. Schools were not required to

³ EU A10 Member States: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

⁴ EU 15 Member States: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom

collect data on WEEU⁵ pupils, resulting in a total lack of understanding at national level about the number and distribution of these pupils in English schools or of the need for supportive action.

From the researcher's extensive experience of managing, monitoring and leading school inspections nationally, it became evident that some schools were facing new and demanding challenges from the unexpected inflow of EU pupils who on arrival could not communicate effectively in English. Opinions based on anecdotal and parochial perceptions simply added to the confused picture. Schools and politicians were generally unaware of the true nature and character of the A8 inflows, the potential impact of such flows upon teaching and management strategies and the ethnic composition of the school population.

Consequently, there was a general lack of understanding of the true situation at school, LA and national level and the wider and far-reaching implications for the education services, particularly for pedagogic and management practices and procedures. It was against this background of a dearth of knowledge, combined with ever-increasing professional uncertainty, that the research programme was developed.

The main purpose or aim of this research was to enhance understanding of the open border policy, the resulting A8 migration and the consequences of these developments for education at national and school level. By contributing new knowledge to a rather confused, complex and sensitive area, the research was intended to highlight strategies

⁵ WEEU: White Eastern European Union is a subsidiary ethnic group in the school census for pupils originating from the A8 Member States.

and policies that might support schools in managing future unplanned and uncontrolled EU immigration flows. European Union migration flows are, by EU statute, beyond the control of the UK government.

1.3 Research Rationale and Methodology

The lack of knowledge about the A8 migration and its consequences stretched across many areas of study and dictated that the research programme should be broad at its inception, but flexible in its enactment, enabling it to become more focussed in response to emerging issues and findings. To facilitate this strategy, an exploratory research approach, that employed the gathering and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data at international, national, local, school and pupil levels, was adopted.

The principal theme or thread running through the whole research programme provided cohesion and coherence and centred on the systematic audit or tracking of the political border decision through five distinct stages of study to the educational consequences at school and pupil level. The theme provided a clear structure and direction for the research and enabled five discrete research questions, each linked to a separate stage along the thematic path underpinning the research, to be developed. The knowledge gained from each question combined to provide a greater understanding of the principal over-arching research question.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions were designed to address specific study areas and are set in a logically sequential order, although the evidence for each was gathered simultaneously over the research period.

Question 1: *What motivated the UK government in 2004 to open its borders fully to A8 nationals without implementing transitional arrangements, and was any consideration given to the implications of this decision for the education service?*

The first question focuses on the reasons for the government's decision and the factors influencing it. This question is important as the decision represents the single trigger that released an unstoppable set of consequences that rolled out across the nation's schools.

Question 2:

(i) *What systems were employed to produce estimates of the UK population and its changing ethnic characteristics and to calculate the magnitude and flow rate of immigration, particularly in respect of A8 nationals?*

(ii) *What systems were employed nationally and locally to calculate the character and ethnic composition of the school population, particularly those of WEEU pupils?*

(iii) *Additionally, how credible were the school and population enumerations and the migration figures that were produced and what impact did their validity have upon education services, especially schools and pupils?*

This question focuses on two areas of study. The first concerns the official estimates of population and migration figures and characteristics. The second concerns the school census enumeration. Population data sources provide crucial information to guide major policy decisions and projections, informing such aspects as the financing of regions and authorities, which in turn impact on education budgets. The school census was designed to provide an accurate picture of the pupil population and its characteristics at individual school and pupil level. In turn, this provides an overview of all schools nationally. Clearly the issues raised by Question 2 have relevance across the whole field of education.

Question 3: Did the A8 migration vary from previous migration flows and what impact did any variations have upon the education services?

There was nothing new about schools in the United Kingdom admitting foreign-born pupils who had little or no command of the English language. However, personal experience during 2004 and 2005 indicated that the inflow of WEEU pupils exhibited characteristics and trends that varied from those of other ethnic group arrivals and these differences were placing new demands on schools. Question 3 was designed to focus studies on these issues so that the validity of the initial perceptions could be confirmed or rejected. Through this process, the A8 migration in general, and more specifically the arrival of WEEU pupils, could be placed in the context of all other previous major immigration flows to the United Kingdom.

Question 4: *What were the variations in the ethnic composition of the school population between 2003 and 2010 and what impact did the A8 migration have upon these variations?*

Official data⁶ indicated that the ethnic composition of schools was constantly changing. The contribution of the WEEU post-2004 pupil population was not known because the data were not collected or analysed nationally. Through Question 4, these issues were addressed within a time frame of eight successive years, commencing a year prior to the A8 accession date and the removal of border controls. Furthermore, research studies were designed to provide an insight into the magnitude and arrival pace of WEEU pupils.

Question 5: *What was the impact of the A8 migration upon the education services of the A8 Member States and English primary schools and how did this impact upon education compare with previous migration flows?*

The importance of Question 5 is that it was the final stage in the research audit trail and focused on individual schools, teachers, pupils and their parents and the changes they experienced because of a political decision ostensibly unconnected with education. This question broadened the field of study to include the impact of the UK border policy decision upon the education service of the A8 Member States.

⁶ DfE school census publication (DfE 2010f)

1.5 The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis comprises a total of 18 chapters. Chapters 2 to 7 contain a review of literature that forms a broad contextual framework for the research. Chapter 2 explores the concept of migration and reviews in detail Britain's historical migration patterns, enabling the post-2004 A8 migration to be seen in context and calibrated against previous immigration flows. Chapter 3 develops the migration concept by describing the relationship between immigration and education. Within this chapter, the effect of immigrant children upon the education service is considered, along with education acts designed to manage the challenges presented by such inflows. This again provides a comparator against which the official responses to the arrival of WEEU pupils can be quantified.

The opacity that engulfed migration information impacted directly upon the management of education and its provision. To investigate these issues, Chapter 4 reports on the findings from the forensic interrogation of the systems employed to measure and record the characteristics of the UK population and migration, including ethnicity. In particular, the systems employed to measure A8 migration are scrutinised. Chapter 5 takes this interrogation further and explores the probity of the school census, particularly the values required relating to individual pupils, such as ethnicity, SEN and Gifted and Talented. Chapter 6 recounts the open borders, freedom of movement and citizenship principles of the EU in the context of UK immigration controls, together with the potential impact of these legally binding developments upon the UK education service. Chapter 7 summarises Chapters 2 to 6, drawing out particularly pertinent issues.

Chapter 8 discusses the research methodology and procedures in preparation for Chapters 9 to 17, which report the findings of the research studies. Chapters 9 to 11 report the findings from the analysis of existing national school census enumerations (Chapter 9) and research-gathered LA data, including that for WEEU pupils (Chapters 10 and 11). Chapter 12 presents the findings from the further analyses of the school census datasets undertaken to establish their reliability and credibility.

Chapters 13 to 16 describe the findings from studies of case study schools and set out their changing ethnic composition (Chapter 13) and the relationship between the attendance, attainment and progress of WEEU pupils (Chapter 14). The findings from interviews with teachers and parents are reported in Chapters 15 and 16 respectively.

Chapter 17 describes the findings from meetings, interviews and discussions with politicians, senior officials, political advisers and experts in the field of migration. This chapter places many of the issues studied in the research in a new and highly revealing context. Finally, Chapter 18 discusses the strengths and limitations of the research and the research findings and conclusions linked to the research questions. Recommendations for further research are presented, as are areas for action.

1.6 Conclusion

This research was motivated by personal experience of the new and demanding challenges faced by English primary schools as a result of the unexpected A8 inflow. Accurate information about the inflow was shrouded in ignorance and hindered the

development of a structured and effective response by the education service at all levels. During the course of the research many important and unexpected issues emerged and required considered and intuitive adjustments. The research findings raise a number of salient issues for politicians and the education service.

Chapter 2

Migration

2.1 Introduction and Overview

Migration is a simple concept: people merely move from one place to another. However, in reality, migration is extremely complex and multi-faceted, seldom trouble-free and straightforward, and touches upon the work of all disciplines. It is made all the more diverse and challenging by 'globalization'. International migration is rarely, if ever, a simple action of leaving a place of origin, followed by a swift and uncomplicated transit and a quick assimilation into a new country (Ballard, 1994; Castles & Miller, 2009; Zimmermann, 2005).

In their discussions on the theories of migration, Castles and Miller (2009) stated that "Much more often migration and settlement are a long-drawn-out process that will be played out for the rest of the immigrant's life, and affect subsequent generations too" (p. 20). Indeed, migration has significant implications for governments and migrants alike in both the short and long-term. (Freeman, 2006; Hernandez, Denton & Macartney, 2010; Sales, 2007). It is claimed by Castles & Miller (2009) that "no government ever sets out to build an ethnically diverse society through immigration,

yet labour recruitment policies often lead to the formation of ethnic minorities, with far-reaching consequences for social relations, public policies, national identity and international relations” (p.20).

Even the seemingly easy task of defining an immigrant is fraught with difficulties and makes any study of international migration challenging. This challenge of defining an immigrant is well explored by Papademetriou (2006). He reflected upon the United Nations’ definition of an immigrant: that an immigrant is a person living outside the country of birth for a minimum of one year. His studies in ‘Europe and its Immigrants in the 21st Century’ (2006), provide an informative account of the ways in which different countries interpret and record the one year minimum of residence and, consequently, immigrant status. In one example, he recounted how 30 million people in the Soviet Union classed as internal migrants, became reclassified as international migrants when the Soviet Union collapsed in the early 1990s (Papademetriou, 2006). The study by Bover and Velilla recorded in ‘Migrations in Spain’ (2005), provided yet another example, this time involving Spain, of why great caution is required when interpreting migration data. They stated “Until 1971 an emigrant (or immigrant) was defined as a passenger travelling third class from (or to) a Spanish port. From 1972, only emigrants ‘assisted’ by the ‘Instituto Espanol de Emigracion’ (IEE) (or estimated to be an immigrant by the IEE) were counted as emigrants (or immigrants) (p. 391).

Zimmermann in ‘European Migration’ (2005) explored the complexities of definitions. He discussed the variable links between immigration and nationality. He argued that “The measurement of migration in Europe reflects rather different concepts of nationality” (2005. p. 3). He pointed out that some European states, such as Germany

and those in Southern Europe, define citizenship by the 'jus sanguinis' principle. This is where all people who are descendants of the same ethnic group as the host country are automatically granted citizenship. On the other hand, the 'jus soli' principle, employed in France and Great Britain, grants citizenship to all people born within the country. As a consequence, he concludes that "...second generation migrants will disappear in the population in one country, while they are still counted as foreigners in the other" (Zimmermann, 2005. p. 3).

Messina and Lahav discussed in detail the issues of determining nationality and defining an immigrant in 'Concepts and Trends: Exploring Politics and Policies' (2006a). They raised the issue of immigrants automatically holding national citizenship even before they enter their new country. This is particularly the case for non-Israeli Jews entering Israel and ethnic Germans (Aussiedler) entering Germany. As stated by Messina and Lahav (2006a), "Perhaps not surprisingly, these varied and frequently fluid practices complicate the task of drawing inter-country comparisons" (p. 9). Moreover, international comparisons become more complex when the effect of asylum seekers, illegal immigrants and over-stayers are included. These are issues to be taken into account when endeavouring to compare empirical findings based on international data.

Migration, in its myriad forms, has historically been a highly contentious issue for governments to manage. The wide range of vested interests, the often diverse reactions of the populace and changing political and economic circumstances, both national and international, make migration, particularly immigration, a major issue for governments of all persuasions to manage (Sales, 2007). Cohen (2006) commented that "...measures to 'manage' migration have been of enormous ideological and

political importance, but they are rarely successful in actually stopping migration when wider social, environmental and economic forces continue to fuel the movement of peoples” (p. 1). Moreover, a policy decision to encourage or enforce immigration to solve a short-term labour shortage can produce major social and economic strife for future generations. Messina and Lahav (2006b) argued that “...in every major immigration-receiving country the experience of mass immigration has eventually precipitated a nativist backlash expressed and aggregated politically by anti-immigration groups” (p. 373).

The political determinants of this complex balancing act for politicians are made all the more difficult as each immigrant and each immigration flow has a unique set of characteristics (Boyle, Halfacree and Robinson 1998; Nandy, 1972). The challenge of predicting the approximate scale of a migration flow, or its nature, can prove difficult for governments. This is well illustrated by the UK government in 2003, when it announced that the A8 Treaty of Accession (2004) would not significantly increase overall immigration from Eastern Europe (Dustman, Casanova, Fertig, Preston and Schmidt, 2003). Events have shown this prediction to be completely flawed (BBC, 2005; Denham, 2010; DWP, 2010; Finch and Goodhart, 2010; PSC, 2008). Kershen (2009) stated that the Treaty of Accession “precipitated an unanticipated and unprecedented influx of immigrants to Britain” (p. xvii). The consequences of open borders within the European Union should not have been a surprise. Parsons and Smeeding (2006), for example, concluded from their detailed examination of European migration, documented in ‘Immigration and the Transformation of Europe’ (2006), that as far back as the 1990s the effects of the abolition of internal EU border controls on movement (the Schengen Agreement) effectively created a common European frontier.

The European Union, therefore, clearly does not have a common policy for the granting of citizenship by individual Member State. As a right, a new citizen of a Member State automatically becomes a full citizen of the European Union, with all the rights enshrined in the EU 'freedom of movement' principle. In addition, the European Union does not have an agreed definition of an 'immigrant', which complicates the interpretation of EU migration data. This is further complicated by internal EU secondary migration and, additionally, raises the question of whether a citizen of the EU moving residence from one EU state to another is classed as an internal migrant or an international immigrant. This situation of classification is in many ways the opposite of that experienced by the Soviet Union at the time of its collapse, as discussed above.

2.2 Immigration to Britain – A Contextual Framework

This section explores major British immigration flows, particularly focusing on demographic aspects such as size, growth rate, density and distribution, and on the impact that these had upon the provision of education. The information gathered and analysed is designed to create a contextual framework in which to compare and evaluate recent European immigration to Britain, particularly resulting from the accession of the eight countries (A8) from Central and Eastern Europe in 2004. Additionally, the contextual framework provides a basis on which to evaluate the possible effects upon educational services of future EU migrations to Britain. This includes potential immigration flows from Bulgaria and Romania with their large Roma/Gypsy ethnic population, and countries such as Turkey, the Ukraine and those in the Balkan Peninsula.

International migration has been a significant and ceaseless aspect of the long history of the British Isles. The complex and diverse heritage of its people is a testament to and permanent reminder of these migration flows (Bryant, 2006; Trevelyan, 1948; Winder, 2008;). As long ago as 1867, The Times of London summed up the mixed pedigree of the English with succinct directness:

...there is hardly such a thing as a pure Englishman in this island. In place of the rather vulgarized and very inaccurate phrase, Anglo-Saxon, our national denomination, to be strictly correct, would be a composite of a dozen national titles. (source: Walvin, 1984, p. 19)

Britain's long history of migration is well described by Winder (2008) when he painted a telling and imaginative picture of the events that formed the Britain of today.

Imagine for a moment that we could watch, from some all-seeing camera high in space, the long history of the British Isles unfolding before our eyes. ...the most striking sight would be the astounding traffic into and out of our ports. Thousands of ships and planes, millions of people, year after year, century after century - our country would seem defined by ceaseless comings and goings. We would not see that some of the arrivals never leave, or that some of the departures never return. We might not detect the endless mixing and stirring of the population. But as the centuries flew past, we would witness the slow advance and steady transformation of a country and a people. It would seem an epic story. (Winder, 2008, p. 1)

The motivation, character and nature of migration flows to Britain have varied over the centuries. In earlier times, the Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Vikings and Normans were motivated by the desire to invade, conquer and settle. The nature of these migrations was often most violent. More recently, individuals and populations have migrated for a multitude of conflicting and complex reasons, which were often driven by imperative situations in their native countries that were frequently dominated by persecution, economics, politics, race or religion (Bryant, 2006; Churchill, 1956; Duvell, 2007; Lahav & Messina, 2006; Miles, 2006).

However, the effect of more recent migration to Britain, particularly since World War Two, has raised many concerns, including those relating to Britain's national identity. Ward (2004) argued that "...being British is no longer seen as innate, static and permanent. Indeed, it is seen as under threat" (p.1). On the other hand, a political view of migration and identity was proffered by Brown in January 2006 when, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, in his speech entitled 'The Future of Britain', he commented:

And take the most recent illustration of what challenges us to be more explicit about Britishness: the debate about asylum and immigration and about multiculturalism and inclusion, issues that are particularly potent because in a fast changing world people who are insecure need to be rooted. ...Britain's uniquely rich, open and outward looking culture is a direct consequence of its history of successive waves of invasion, immigration, assimilation and trading partnerships. (Brown, 2006).

Over the last 350 years, Britain has been both a country of emigration and immigration. It has witnessed the arrival of the Huguenots from France, the Jews from across Europe, particularly the east, the Irish from the west and from southern Europe the Italians, Spanish and Portuguese. The Second World War brought people from troubled Europe, including many Poles. Following the war, the Caribbean, the Asian sub-continent, Africa, particularly East Africa, and China (Hong Kong) became the source of immigrants. Each flow has possessed its own specific characteristics, defined by such elements as motivation, numbers, rate of arrival, settlement pattern, age and gender profiles, education (skilled, unskilled, professional), and immigrants' command of the English language.

2.2.1 The French Huguenots

Religious and political persecution in Catholic France in the latter part of the seventeenth century resulted in the Protestant Huguenots fleeing for their lives (Miles, 2006). They arrived in England in large numbers as refugees (Walvin, 1984). The scale of this migration is difficult to ascertain. Trevelyan (1948) estimated that "In the course of years, some hundreds of thousands succeeded in escaping, mostly to England, Holland or Prussia " (p.469). Walvin (1984) was more cautious with his estimation "The actual number is difficult to assess, but it has been calculated that upwards of 50,000 arrived, thus swelling the ranks of English Protestantism against the dwindling support for Catholicism" (p 28). By 1700, Miles (2006) recorded that there were 23,000 Huguenots in London alone. This represented about 5 per cent of the 500,000 population of London at that time. It is clear that they came in their tens of thousands (Winder, 2008, p. 80). As Feiling (1970) wrote: "...Huguenot refugees were swarming to England" (p.

570). Indeed, their arrival in England had a very pronounced effect upon the country's commerce and industry – “a dynamic injection of fresh blood” (Winder, 2008, p. 82), and “A large proportion were artisans and merchants of high character, who brought to the lands of their adoption trade secrets and new industrial methods” (Trevelyan, 1948, p. 469). Overall, the Huguenots were made welcome in Britain and the Church of England raised money to assist the destitute immigrants from France. Charles II offered them free denizenship (Hinde, 2003; Winder, 2008).

The Huguenots settled throughout the south of England, although as Winder (2008) stated, “The most important Huguenot colonies were in central London, in Spitalfields and Westminster” (p. 83). Walvin (1984) claimed that, “By 1718 there were no fewer than thirty-five Huguenot churches in London alone” (p. 28). Although language was an initial barrier to assimilation, the Huguenots were quick to join and blend into society at large (Hinde, 2003; Winder, 2008). Indeed, Winder stated: “Genealogists have suggested that Huguenot blood now flows in the veins of three-quarters of Englishmen and women” (p. 88).

2.2.2 The migration of the Jews

The experiences of the Huguenots and the Jews were quite different. The Jews had a long historical relationship with Britain, which stretched back as least as far as the Domesday Book (Hinde, 2003; JHSE, 2010; Vallely, 2006). However, over the centuries their migration to and settlement in Britain was not always welcomed and was often met with resentment, animosity, violence and expulsion. Their changing fortunes are exemplified by their forced removal from England by Edward I and his Edict of Expulsion

in 1290, yet their cautious welcome back in the mid seventeenth century by Oliver Cromwell.

Since the eighteen century the Jewish community in Britain had progressively increased, sometimes at a cautious pace, at other times as an unyielding flow. In the mid-eighteenth century there were about 8,000 Jews residing in England (Hinde, 2003). During the eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century, the rate of Jewish immigration increased. Many arrived from Germany, Poland and Russia, mainly as refugees fleeing persecution, famine, warfare and revolution (Miles, 2006; Walvin, 1984). In the early nineteenth century it is estimated that there were about 18,000 Jews living in London (Miles, 2006). According to Graham, Schmool and Waterman (2007), the number had increased to around 60,000 by 1881. The numbers arriving grew rapidly, according to Miles, by some 150,000 Jews fleeing Russia following the assassination of Alexander II in 1881 (Miles, 2006). Between 1880 and 1914, Feldman (1994) more modestly estimated that over 120,000 Jews came to Britain, half settling in the East End of London. A higher estimate of the Jewish population is offered by Cohen (2006) who considered there were around 70,000 Jews in Britain in 1880, and that by 1914 this had increased by 200,000 to a total of 270,000.

Walvin (1984) provided further data using different time periods. He indicated that 59,000 Jews arrived between 1891 and 1901, 67,000 during the next five years, but just 30,000 for the subsequent eleven years. He attributed the decline after 1906 to the effect of The Alien Act of 1905. He calculated that the British Jewish community had grown to 250,000 by 1919.

The population estimates by Walvin (1984), Graham et al. (2007), Hinde (2003), and Miles (2006) vary. However, when considered together these estimates do reveal a clear demographic profile of the Jewish community in Britain spanning the last 250 years.

The 2001 Census provides the most recent national data on the numbers and distribution of Jews in Britain. The number of Jews identified by religion, ethnicity and upbringing in the census totalled 270,499. The census calculated that 267,340 people stated that they were Jewish by religion. The census figures were considered by Graham and Waterman (2005) in 'Underenumeration of the Jewish Population in the UK 2001 Census' to be an 'undercount' within the region of 10 to 15 per cent.

These figures are very close to those of the early twentieth century as indicated by Cohen (2006) and Walvin (1984) and could be interpreted to show that the number of Jews in Britain remained constant for nearly one hundred years. However, the Jewish community in Britain is claimed to have peaked in the mid twentieth century when some estimates were as high as 450,000, although other sources considered these numbers to be too high (Graham, Schmool and Waterman, 2007).

Throughout the whole period of Jewish settlement in Britain, the vast majority of Jews lived in specific areas of London, with smaller, but significant, settlements in cities across the country, particularly in Manchester and Liverpool (Feldman, 1994; Julios, 2008; Miles, 2006; Waterman and Kosmin, 1986).

The 2001 Census confirmed the historical demographic settlement patterns of the Jewish community in Britain. It showed that nearly a quarter of British Jews lived in the two London Boroughs of Barnet and Redbridge. In 2001, over 65 per cent of British Jews lived in Greater London. Two-thirds of the Jewish population of Greater Manchester lived in ten neighbouring wards (Graham, Schmool, and Waterman, 2007; ONS, 2003a,b,c, / 2004a,b). The concentration pattern within specific areas of cities has had important implications for the provision of facilities for religion and education.

The arrival of large numbers of Jews in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century provoked considerable disquiet amongst the general populace and resulted in the introduction of the Alien Act of 1905. This Act is important as it was the first of a long line of Parliamentary acts designed to control immigration flows into Britain and represented a significant step in the management and control of immigration (Julios, 2008; Walvin, 1984). Tranter (1996) concluded that:

...no attempt was made to curb immigration until the Aliens Act of 1905, an essentially racist measure designed to reduce the influx of poor Jews from Russia and Eastern Europe in response to native working-class resentment over rising unemployment and housing shortages in the East End of London where most of these immigrants had settled (p.32).

Moreover, Julios stated in 'Contemporary British Identity' (2008) that "...the *Alien Act 1905* was passed to prevent mainly Jewish and gypsy refugees from seeking asylum in Britain..." and he concluded "The Act represented a first attempt by the British state to manage alien intake by labelling different groups of immigrants according to their perceived desirability; a trend that has lasted to this day" (p. 82).

The comment by Julios (2008) that the trend set in place by the Alien Act 1905 has lasted until today is only partially correct. When Britain became part of the European Union, it relinquished its right to manage and control its own borders in respect of EU citizens. (Galgoczi, Leschke and Watt, 2009; Handoll, 1995). Therefore, state management of migration flows are restricted to non-European Union citizens.

2.2.3. Eight hundred years of Irish migration

Like the Jews, the Irish had a long and sometimes troubled association with Britain. The geographical proximity of the two countries was a fundamental element in linking and intertwining their histories. Bryant (2006) held that the relationship was “...the culmination of more than eight hundred years of contact...” (p 239).

It was this long shared history and geographical closeness that made possible the constant migration flows and the first mass migration to Britain following the Irish famines of the 1840s (Duvell, 2007; Hickman & Walter, 1997; Miles, 2006). Indeed, the words ‘Irish’ and ‘emigration’ could well be viewed as synonymous. Swift (2002) considered “Emigration was perhaps the most notable feature of Irish social history during the nineteenth century” (p. 3).

Establishing the size of the Irish migration flows, as with all migrations, is challenged by the lack of accurate statistics. This is well illustrated by Swift in ‘Irish Migrants in Britain: 1815 – 1914’ when he stated:

...it was almost impossible to enumerate the actual number of Irish men, women and children who emigrated during this period, in part due to the inaccuracy of official emigration statistics (which invariably represent an undercount), but it has been suggested that at least eight million people migrated from Ireland between 1801 and 1921 (Swift, 2002. p. 3).

Some of these eight million Irish emigrants formed part of the 50 million people who migrated from Europe between the early 1800s and the 1930s (Delaney, 2007; MacRaild, 2000). MacRaild (2000) claimed this to be "...one of the most striking population movements in human history" and concluded, "Within this migratory drift, no sub-current was more powerful than that of the Irish" (p. 2). Delaney (2007) in 'The Irish in Post-War Britain' concurred with the writings of both MacRaild (2000) and Fitzpatrick (1989) when she stated that this Irish migration represented an "...enormous outflow by any international standard. No other European country experienced emigration on such a scale, relative to the size of the population" (p. 11).

By 1841 the number of Irish-born had risen to around 418,000 in Britain. The massive Irish emigration that characterised the second half of the nineteenth century more than halved the population of Ireland from 6,529,000 in 1841. The decline continued and by 1961 the population of Ireland was as low as 2,818,000 (Barrett, 2005).

Irish migration had a profound impact upon the British ethnic composition. For example, the emigration flow between 1841 and 1851 increased the Irish-born population in Britain by 73 per cent to over 700,000 (Castles and Miller, 2009; Swift, 2002), or about 3.5 per cent of the total British population. However, its uneven

distribution meant that in Scotland the Irish-born population constituted more than 7 per cent of the total population by 1851, compared with 2.9 per cent in England and Wales (Swift, 2002).

The numbers of Irish-born in Britain peaked at over 800,000 in 1861 and then progressively declined throughout the remaining years of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century (Davis, 2000; MacRaild, 2006; Swift, 2002). However, O'Connor (1972) referring to the 'ethnic Irish' as opposed to 'Irish-born' in Britain stated, "By the end of the nineteenth century, they had become a settled community of nearly a million among a population of thirty million" (p. 48). The Census of 1921 recorded just over 500,000 Irish-born in Britain, but from the 1930s the number of Irish immigrants increased (Delaney, 2000, 2007; Fitzpatrick, 1989; MacRaild, 2006).

By the time of the 1951 Census, there were nearly 700,000 Irish-born people in Britain (Delaney, 2007. p.17). After 1951, all border controls were removed between Ireland and Britain by the formal implementation of the CTA (Common Travel Area). This meant that Britain could be entered freely without any documentation by Irish citizens as of right. The freedom of movement principle in the CTA was similar to that enshrined in the 'Schengen Agreement' of the European Union signed more than thirty years later in 1985. The 'Schengen Agreement' is discussed in detail in Chapter 6.5.

The 2001 Census revealed that there were just under one million Irish born, from both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, resident in Britain (Duvell, 2007; Source Census 2001).

MacRaild (2000) considered that the Irish were the most significant ethnic group in Britain prior to the 'New Commonwealth' immigration following the Second World War. However, Delaney (2007) held that the Irish remained the largest 'foreign-born' group, but were less obvious because they were white and spoke English.

Throughout the twentieth century the Irish were the single largest foreign-born population in Britain. During the second half of the century more than one million Irish people travelled 'across the water' in search of a better life. By the mid-1960s, when public concern about levels of Caribbean and South Asian immigrants reached its height, Britain's Irish population at just under one million was by a long stretch still the largest immigrant group (Delaney 2007. P.2).

The geographical settlement pattern of Irish immigrants over the last two centuries had many similarities with other immigration flows, particularly the Jews. Detailed analysis of Irish settlement and assimilation in Britain is presented by Connolly (2000), Halpin (2000), MacRaild (2006), O'Connor (1972), and Swift (2002). Their works investigated a broad spectrum of settlement issues, but it is clear that the Irish immigrants generally changed from being rural peasants in Ireland to urban dwellers in Britain, seeking work in specific industrial towns.

Once disembarked, most of these newcomers settled in the ports of entry, notably Glasgow and Liverpool, in London, in the industrial towns of South Wales, the Midlands, South Lancashire and the North East, and in Scotland, where there were notable concentrations in Edinburgh and Dundee (Swift, 2002. p.28).

The distribution of the Irish in Britain was quite complex. The newcomers identified themselves more with their home county, or even a particular parish, than with Ireland as a whole. Consequently, Irish 'ghettos' developed through a chain migration process. O'Connor (1972) explained:

In some areas of the town, whole streets are not only Irish, but are occupied by immigrants from particular towns in Ireland, so that an intensely clannish air pervades these areas. To the extent that, as one resident put it, 'If somebody comes over from the west of Ireland looking for a job, he only has to mention what town he comes from and I'll know what street to direct him to' (p. 105).

This pattern of chain migration and 'clannish' settlement is replicated by many of the immigrant flows that followed after the Second World War, such as from Europe, the Caribbean and South Asia.

2.2.4. The Europeans before 2004

Post-Second World War European migration to Britain was driven by two imperatives. The first was created by war displacement, the second by Britain's need for more workers to help in the reconstruction of Britain and its economy (Burrell, 2006; Holmes, 1994). In 'John Bull's Island', Holmes (1994) included a revealing quotation that captured the official attitude towards immigration during this period:

...when the Royal Commission on Population reported in 1949 it stated that immigration could be welcomed 'without reserve' only if 'the migrants were of good human stock and were not prevented by their religion or race from

intermarrying with the host population and becoming merged into it' (Holmes, 1994. p. 210).

European immigrants came from the east, from Poland, and from the south, mainly from Italy, Spain, Portugal, Malta and Cyprus. In truth, they probably fitted the 'specifications' of the 1949 Royal Commission on Population, as quoted above, quite well.

The numbers arriving from Southern Europe were comparatively small, especially when compared with those that eventually arrived from the Asian sub-continent and the Caribbean. Duvell (2007) stated, "Labour migration from Southern Europe (Italy, Spain and Portugal) or the Mediterranean (Cyprus) was comparably small in number" (p. 347).

Whilst Britain was a destination for some Southern European migrants, it was not their main draw. In fact, in 1966 over 360,000 people migrated from Italy, Spain and Portugal, but only 2.7 per cent came to Britain. The 1961 Census enumerations produced a total resident population from these countries in England and Wales to be in the region of 136,000, with the vast majority living in London and the south east. An interesting feature of this migration was its age and gender profile. The Home Office Statistics for 1965 show that 12,184 workers, male and female, were admitted from these three countries. However, in addition to the workers, 1,372 wives and 1,428 children were admitted. Moreover, in stark contrast with Caribbean and Asian immigrants who were initially overwhelmingly men, a very high percentage of immigrants from Southern Europe were women. Indeed, throughout the 1960s, more

women migrated to Britain from Portugal than did men (Burrell, 2006; Holmes, 1994; MacDonald and MacDonald, 1972).

In 1972, MacDonald and MacDonald undertook a detailed examination of the migration patterns of Southern Europeans for the Runnymede Industrial Unit. This informative work was entitled 'The Invisible Immigrants' - an apt title, which well describes their arrival and presence in Britain.

The long relationship between the Poles and Britain is traced in detail by Sword, Davies and Ciechanowski (1989) in 'The Formation of the Polish Community in Great Britain'. This account catalogued the chronology of Polish arrivals and departures, culminating in the movements that led to the post-Second World War Polish Community in Britain. However, this migration flow was not always a one way process. As Miles (2006) confirmed "Not all migration headed west, however. As many as 30,000 to 40,000 Scots lived in Poland during the seventeenth century, where the word Scot ('Szkot') meant a pedlar or commercial traveller" (p. 330).

The Second World War was the main stimulus for Polish migration in the twentieth century. In 1946, the Poles serving under British Command were able to settle in Britain; 144,000 chose to remain. (Davies, 2001. p.86). Their numbers increased as they were joined by their families and refugees, many from war-torn Germany. However, unlike the Asians from the Indian sub-continent and the West Indians, the Poles did not choose to leave their homeland, but fled the invasion of their nation by Hitler's Germany and then by Stalin's Russia, quickly followed by the final annexation and

subjugation by the Soviet Union (Davies, 2001; Holmes1994; Sword, 1989; Walvin, 1984; Winder, 2008).

The post-war Polish-born population in Britain peaked in 1951 at 162,000, but then steadily declined to 73,000 by 1991 (Burrell, 2006; Holmes, 1994; Walvin, 1984). Although Winder (2008) described the Poles as having “arrived *en masse*, if not all at once” (p. 318), the research reveals that these numbers paled into insignificance when compared with the Polish migrations following the A8 EU enlargement in 2004.

Like so many immigrants before them, the Poles settled predominantly in close city communities. London became the principal destination, followed by Birmingham and Manchester. Other urban areas such as Bradford, Nottingham and Coventry developed settled communities (Burrell, 2006; Walvin, 1984). The many studies undertaken by such scholars as Keith Sword, Norman Davies and Kathy Burrell have made a valuable contribution to the understanding of the demographics of the post-war Polish settlement patterns and the endeavours by the Polish immigrants to create a social structure to preserve their heritage and language. It is this social structure that helped to support the new EU Polish immigrants in the 2000s.

2.2.5. The Black West Indians and Black Africans

In contrast with the Irish and Europeans, including the Jews, immigration from the Caribbean had been negligible before the Second World War (Tranter, 1996). The experience of wartime service in Britain resulted in many West Indians remaining, although the majority were required to return to their home territories in the Caribbean

for demobilization. However, they were entitled to return to Britain as they had a legal right of entry. Indeed, this right was not ended until the 1962 Commonwealth Immigrants Act (Duvell, 2007; Walvin, 1984).

Following the Second World War, Britain had a serious shortage of labour to support post-war development and to help rebuild the country. The British government's Economic Survey for 1947 stated "... foreign labour can make a useful contribution to our needs ... This need to increase the working population is not temporary; it is a permanent feature of our national life." (source: Kushner, 1994. p.412)

The government actively promoted the recruitment of West Indians living in the Caribbean. Enoch Powell, famed for his 'Rivers of Blood' speech' in 1968, as Health Minister travelled to the Caribbean in the early 1950s to encourage West Indians to migrate to Britain. Some migrants were sponsored by the British government and some received loans to help pay for their travel. At the end of the 1940s and the beginning of the 1950s, immigrants from the Caribbean came often at the behest of the British government (Kushner, 1994; Legrain, 2006; Miles, 2006; Nagel and Staeheli, 2008; Phillips and Phillips, 1999; Winder, 2008).

The arrival of the ship the 'Empire Windrush' at Tilbury Dock in 1948 carrying 492 passengers, mostly men from the Caribbean, drew much attention and created considerable disquiet in Britain (Julios, 2008; Phillips and Phillips, 1999). Clement Attlee, the Prime Minister of the time, responded to these concerns about Black Caribbean immigration in a letter to Members of Parliament in which he wrote:

... I think it would be a great mistake to take this party of Jamaicans immigrating to the United Kingdom too seriously ... It is traditional that British subjects, whether of Dominion or Colonial origin (and of whatever race or colour), should be freely admissible to the United Kingdom (Clement Attlee, 1948: source: Phillips and Phillips, 1999. p.70; Winder, 2008. p. 341).

However, history was to show that the Windrush was to become an iconic symbol that represented the beginning of a new immigration epoch (Julios, 2008). Phillips and Phillips (1999) spoke of the Windrush “sailing through a gateway in history, on the other side of which was the end of Empire and a wholesale reassessment of what it meant to be British” (p.6.). The symbolic impact of the Windrush was well made by Winder (2008) when he wrote:

In the decade that followed the voyage of the *Windrush*, nearly a quarter of a million migrants, first from the Caribbean, then from partitioned India, Africa and Hong Kong, made their way to the country whose authority they were at last shrugging off (Winder, 2008. p.345).

The arrival of the Windrush did not prime the pump for an immediate mass immigration from the Caribbean. Until 1951, fewer than one thousand West Indian immigrants arrived in any one year. “In the whole of 1950, only a few hundred took the leap” (Winder 2008. p. 341). The 1951 Census showed there to be around 15,000 Black Caribbean residents in Britain. Nearly a third of these immigrants lived in specific areas of London. During the early 1950s, the Caribbean presence in Britain was relatively insignificant (Phillips and Phillips, 1999).

Most Caribbean immigration to Britain took place between 1955 and 1962. The restrictions placed on Immigrants from the Caribbean to the USA in 1952 resulted in an increase of migration to Britain (Phillips and Phillips, 1999). By the late 1950s, West Indian immigration was running at about 15,000 – 30,000 per year. London Transport alone employed almost 4,000 black workers by 1958, a quarter of whom were recruited directly from the Caribbean (Hinde, 2003; Julios, 2008; Walvin, 1984). At the time of the Notting Hill race riots in 1958, the non-white population of Britain was under 200,000, including 125,000 West Indians (Kushner, 1994). Caribbean Immigration peaked at 66,000 in 1961, but declined following the implementation of the 1962 Commonwealth Immigration Act (Hinde, 2003).

The 1971 Census recorded approximately 302,000 Caribbean immigrants resident in Britain. Interestingly, Walvin (1984) found that between 1971 and 1973 about 9,000 West Indians arrived and some 14,000 left, and that in 1974, 2,000 more departed than arrived. However, the West Indian population continued to rise. The 1981 Census showed that there were 422,522 Black Caribbean residents in Britain. This number grew by 23 per cent to 522,242 during the ten years to the 1991 Census. This population increased again by the time of the 2001 Census to 566,000, representing an increase of about 8 per cent. It should be noted that of this 566,000 population, less than half, 260,926, were born in the Caribbean. (Hatton and Wheatley Price, 2005; ONS, 2003 / 2004; Poulsen and Johnston, 2008; Ratcliffe, 1996). Great caution is needed though in interpreting these enumerations. For example, Walvin, (1984) stated: “By 1976, Britain was home to the following numbers of people: 604,000 West Indians, ...” (p.182). Unfortunately, he does not elaborate on how he arrived at this number.

The settlement pattern of Caribbean immigrants became quite predictable by the late 1950s. Like the Irish before them, the West Indians settled in close communities composed of people from the same local home territory. The Jamaicans, for example, settled in Clapham and Brixton and the Trinidadians in Notting Hill. Phillips and Phillips (1999) quoted an interview with Professor Ceri Peach in their book 'Windrush: The Irresistible Rise of Multi-Racial Britain', which encapsulated the Caribbean settlement pattern:

Chain migration and differentials in time of arrival produced this sort of differentiation within the Caribbean pattern. High Wycombe, for example, had a high proportion of Saint Vincentians. People from Nevis particularly concentrated in Leicester and also in Leeds. You can pick out these effects of family connections, island connections, village connections quite strongly ... people knew where they were going, and so essentially what you had is a sort of recreation of the family and village and island patterns (Interview with Professor Ceri Peach. Source: Phillips and Phillips, 1999. pp. 124 – 125).

The 1981 and 1991 Census data reflected these settlement patterns. The 1991 Census showed that approximately 58 per cent of West Indians lived in London. Greater London and Birmingham contained over two thirds of the Black-Caribbean population. In 'Ethnicity in the 1991 Census' (Ratcliffe, 1996) published by ONS (The Office for National Statistics) 1996, a detailed examination of Black Caribbean settlement and changing patterns confirms that West Indians have settled and broadly remain in industrial urban areas in well defined close communities.

The distinction between Black Caribbean and Black African immigrants was often blurred, with the generic term 'Black' being used for both groups. The ethnic descriptor 'Black African' is one that includes people from a multitude of countries set in a vast continent and, like the Asian category, included a diverse population with many different backgrounds, languages and national characteristics. Most came from Nigeria, Ghana, Somalia and Zimbabwe with the principal motivation being economic advancement, education or asylum seeking (Dobbs, Green and Zealey, 2006).

Like the Chinese, many Black Africans were sailors and settled in small communities in the ports of Cardiff, Liverpool and London from the late 1940s. Their numbers remained small and were estimated by the Home Office in 1958 to be about 25,000. (Dobbs, Green and Zealey, 2006; Winder, 2008).

The Black Africans did not start to arrive in any significant numbers until the 1970s and 1980s; much later than the West Indians and the Asians. The Census enumerations for 1981 showed a Black African population in Britain of 141,400, which increased to 219,200 by the 1991 and to 484,783 by the 2001 Census. This was an increase of over 240 per cent during these two decades. The ONS Neighbourhood Statistics (2004b), calculated from the 2001 Census data, showed that they settled predominantly in London in close national 'ghettos'. 378,933 or 78 per cent of all Black Africans lived in London in April 2001 (Dobbs, Green and Zealey, 2006; ONS, 2003a / 2004b,c; Peach and Rossiter, 1996; Rees and Phillips, 1996).

2.2.6 Asians from the Indian sub-continent and Africa

The West Indian migration was closely followed by Asians from the Indian sub-continent seeking the same economic advancement. Moreover, there was a great similarity between the migration characteristics of the South Asians and the West Indians: British citizenship, a right of entry to Britain, an encouraging British government and economic advancement. Whilst the term West Indian was a generic ethnic label that included people from different communities such as Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados and Guyana, the ethnic terminology Asian or South Asian also blurred the differences of this even larger and far more diverse population. It was this diversity that profoundly influenced the South Asian demographical settlement patterns in Britain.

The Asians were Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Sinhalese, Tamil, to name but a few, yet divided further into regional groups and then still further into provincial communities, each with a distinct identity and complex social character. They were followers of many different religions and speakers of many languages, made more complex by a myriad of local dialects, unintelligible one to another. To complicate matters further, Asians were not only resident on the Indian sub-continent by the early twentieth century, but also in Africa in large numbers. Their migration to Africa was the consequence of British colonial policies during the nineteenth and early twentieth century; policies that would come to haunt British politicians during the 1960s and 1970s (Ballard, 1994; Duvell, 2007; Heath, 1998; Holmes, 1994; Parekh, 2000).

Prior to the 1950s, the Asian presence in Britain was small. "In 1949 there were not more than 8000 Indians and Pakistanis. About one thousand of these were in the

medical profession and the others were lascars, pedlars and students” (Chandan, 1986, p. 28). The migration of South Asians to Britain commenced at a rather gentle pace and took a few years to gather momentum. Indeed, Duvell (2007) claimed that “Asian mass migration ... began ten years after West Indian migration, namely around the late 1950s ...it soon outnumbered West Indian immigration” (p. 348). These slow beginnings were recorded by Winder (2008) who estimated that just over 5,000 migrated in 1955, 5,600 in 1956 and 6,000 in 1957. Chandan (1986) calculated there were about 55,000 Indians and Pakistanis in Britain by the end of 1958.

Prior to the implementation of the Commonwealth Immigrants Act in 1962, there was a large influx of South Asians endeavouring to beat the new immigration restrictions. Nearly 92,000 people arrived from the Indian sub-continent within six months (Chandan, 1986). Net immigration from India and Pakistan – including Bangladesh – between 1955 and 1968 was calculated by Anwar (1985) to total 346,090. By 1971, the South Asian population in Britain, including those from East Africa, had increased to over 413,000 and continued to rise throughout the next 30 years. (Ballard, 1994; Duvell, 2007; ONS, 2004c; Shaw, 1988; Simpson et al., 2006; Tranter, 1996).

The 2001 Census enumerations revealed a total population of 2,331,423 ethnic Asians, representing more than half the ethnic minority population of Britain at the time (Duvell, 2007; ONS, 2003a,c; Simpson et al., 2006). Importantly though, these enumerations were not solely for Asian immigrants, i.e. people born outside the UK, but for those of Asian ethnicity, including second and subsequent immigrant generations (ONS, 2004b,c; Simpson et al., 2006).

Whilst the Asians from the Indian sub-continent migrated by choice for economic advancement, the motivation for the migration of the African Asians was quite different. In the 1960s, the expulsion of Asians from the newly independent East African states presented many political challenges for successive British governments, particularly as it reversed the declining immigration numbers. The 1962 Immigrants Act was powerless to restrict this immigration flow. Harold Wilson, the then Prime Minister, commented:

When Kenya gained independence in December 1963, the very large number of Kenyan residents of Asian – mainly Indian – origin who held Britain passports were given the choice of becoming Kenyans or continuing to be reckoned as British Citizens ... Scores of thousands took the ‘British’ option ... In the three months ending January 1968, seven thousand had arrived – more than in the whole of 1966 (Wilson, 1971. p. 504).

Roy Jenkins as Home Secretary initially calculated that about 200,000 might arrive in Britain. However, this was later reassessed and increased to 360,000 (Callaghan, 1987). The influx caused major alarm, with housing and education authorities reported to be unable to cope. “Thirteen thousand arrived in the first two months of 1968 – twice as many as in the whole of 1965 ... The number of immigrants arriving at London airport reached 2-300 every day” (Callaghan, 1987, p. 265). By 1971, just over 44,000 had arrived.

African Asian immigration continued through to the 1970s when Edward Heath was Prime Minister. “On 4 August 1972, the President of Uganda, General Idi Amin, announced that he was going to expel all 57,000 Asians from his country and gave them

a month to leave” (Heath, 1998. p.456). The style of Idi Amin and his intentions were eminently clear when he stated: “Asians came to Uganda to build the railway. The railway is finished. They must leave now ...” (Mamdai, 1973. p. 13).

The 1981 Census indicated that there were 181,321 East African Asians living in Britain, half the number originally estimated by the Home Office (Ballard, 1994).

Like the Irish and the West Indians before them, the Asians principally followed the tradition of ‘chain migration’, a migration process based on a social structure. This process of migration had a profound impact on the eventual settlement pattern of each of the diverse Asian groups that travelled to Britain.

During the 1980s, Shaw (1988) studied a Pakistani community living in East Oxford, which was composed of some 2000 individuals. Like the vast majority of Asian communities in Britain, its individuals originated from just a few very specific areas in their home country. Shaw was able to trace the community to just two ‘chains’ of migration. Interestingly, the 2001 Census showed that there were 2,625 Pakistanis living in Oxford, an increase since the 1980s of about 30 per cent (ONS, 2004b).

Most South Asian immigrants came from very rural areas, but were drawn to the industrial centres and settled in large urban conurbations and cities. Here they formed close knit communities (Freeman, 2006). Although these communities gradually spread to other cities and larger towns, the main settlement areas remained and included London, Birmingham, the West Midlands, Leicester, Manchester, Leeds, Bradford and Lancashire (Ballard, 1994; Chandan, 1986; ONS, 2004b; Shaw, 1988; Winder, 2008). The

ONS Neighbourhood Statistics derived from the 2001 Census confirmed that the early settlement patterns established in the 1950s and 1960s still predominated (ONS, 2004b).

2.2.7 The Chinese

The Chinese, however, eventually shunned concentrated settlement patterns. Like the South Asians, the Chinese migrated to Britain from an extensive geographical area. However, their overall numbers were much smaller and their pace of arrival was much slower. The settlement characteristics of the Chinese were, though, quite unique among British immigrants until the arrival of migrants from the EU A8 countries from 2004 (Dobbs, Green and Zealey, 2006).

The British Chinese community grew from the early settlers in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century. These were mainly seamen who settled in the port areas of London and Liverpool (Walvin, 1984; Winder, 2008). Throughout the 1800s the Chinese population in Britain remained very small, reaching a peak of 665 in 1881. By 1911 their numbers had grown to 1,319, most being seamen or working in laundries; only 35 were involved in catering (British Museum, 2008). Walvin (1984) noted that “Chinese seamen formed the largest single occupation group in Britain according to the 1911 census.” (p. 69).

During the first half of the twentieth century their number very slowly increased from 2,419 in 1921 to just over 12,000 by the 1951 Census. During this period, the main Chinese occupation changed from working on ships or in laundries to catering. Indeed,

by 1951, 90 per cent worked in catering. This was the start of the Chinese 'takeaway' phenomenon. Slowly and quietly the Chinese spread across Britain opening 'takeaways' and taking over the traditional British fish and chip shops (Parker, 1995; Walvin, 1984; Winder, 2008).

From the 1960s their numbers grew at a much faster rate, although at a much slower rate than the South Asians, from 38,000 in 1961 to 154,000 in 1981 (SACU, 2006). The 2001 Census enumerations showed there to be 243,258 ethnic Chinese resident in Britain or 0.4 per cent of the population (Dodds, Green and Zealey, 2006; ONS, 2003a).

The main Chinese economic activity was based in the catering business. This had a profound effect upon their demographic distribution with a wide dispersion of establishments across the country (Rees and Phillips, 1996). The studies based on the 1991 Census by Storkey and Lewis (1996) recorded the wide-spread Chinese settlement patterns in London, together with information about their diverse geographical origins, dialects, social circumstances and integration characteristics. The increase of 82,000 in the British Chinese population during the ten years to 2001 did not significantly change the settlement pattern established for 1991 by Rees and Phillips (1996) and Storkey and Lewis (1996).

In summing up the nature of the Chinese immigration and their distribution in Britain, Winder (2008) stated:

The Chinese were unique among those who have made landfall in Britain by spreading themselves across the Kingdom. In some towns and villages, they were

not just the only Chinese family in the area, but the only foreigners of any stripe. They were discreet, unassertive to the point of being uncommunicative, and never expressed anything like racial or cultural solidarity: there were no Chinese marches through London, no running battles between English and Chinese youths outside the school gates (p. 396)

The Chinese then came quietly and broadly unnoticed and spread in small numbers, often in close family groups, throughout Britain unlike any previous immigration flow. Their main interaction with the general British population was through their routine customer and catering staff relationships (Parker, 1995). Whilst there was at times much disquiet and unrest in Britain over immigrants, particularly Black and South Asian ethnic groups, the Chinese drew little or no attention.

2.3 Conclusion

This Chapter confirms that British migration is not a new phenomenon. The inflows and outflows of people have been an important and ever-present feature of Britain's history. Over the centuries, the characteristics of migration have changed. The Chapter reveals some of the more dominant migration characteristics that have developed during the twentieth century. The process of 'chain' migration and 'clannish' settlement patterns emerge as prime features, with the Chinese being the only main exception before 2004. In addition, the motivation for the migration and the number, rate and age characteristics together form an overall immigration profile for each of the main ethnic groups. It can be concluded that the rate of immigration that commenced from the 1950s was at first most tentative, but gradually increased in its pace. Initially immigration was predominantly a young male activity. However, wives and prospective

wives gradually joined their men folk and eventually their children were sent for to complete the family. This was principally a progressive process. Those fleeing wars or expelled from their home countries, such as the Huguenots, the Jews and the East African Asians, form the main exceptions. Each immigration flow from the 1950s had a profound influence upon the development of education policy, both nationally and locally.

Chapter 3

Immigration and Education

3.1 Introduction and overview

The changing nature of individual migration flows and the unreliability of basic migration estimates and census enumerations presented a challenge to those responsible for planning and delivering support services, especially education. For example, many of the estimates for the number and rate of immigrant arrivals did not identify with any accuracy, if at all, the proportion or number of migrant children. Moreover, the proportion of children arriving varied with different ethnic groups at different phases in each migration flow. This is well illustrated by the migrants from the Caribbean in the late 1940s and early 1950s who were predominantly men arriving voluntarily as economic migrants, often with the longer-term intention of returning to their home country. It was only after these migrant workers had settled more permanently, that they were joined by wives and children. Phillips and Phillips wrote from personal experience:

In 1960, or thereabouts, children began arriving with their migrant parents or with friends and relatives to join their parents. ...During the run up to the

Immigration Bill in 1961, (*sic*) and immediately afterwards, most of the migrants who had families waiting in the Caribbean made the decision to send for them, whatever their circumstances were.... sending for the children became the only thing to do (Phillips and Phillips, 1999. p. 201).

This pattern of immigration was replicated by Asians arriving from the Asian sub-continent. Unaccompanied men chose to migrate to Britain temporarily with the intention of working to support their families in Asia (Chandler, 1986). However, like the West Indians, their plans of returning home changed and they were eventually joined by their dependents. Hawkes (1966) reported that in 1962 "... 8,000 children of Asians already in the country arrived, and the effect of the extra numbers was felt immediately" (p. 22).

Conversely, the Asians expelled en masse from East African in the 1960s and 1970s came as complete extended family groups from the youngest babies to the very old. They were in broad terms refugees (Ballard, 1994; Shaw, 1988; Winder, 2008). On the other hand, the Southern European immigrants in the 1960s, who were economic migrants, were only permitted to be accompanied by immediate family, which is to say their wives and children. Indeed, the 12,184 immigrant workers admitted in 1965 were accompanied by 1,428 children, increasing the immigrant group by 12 per cent (MacDonald and MacDonald, 1972).

Prior to 1991, information was not required in census forms about the ethnicity of each household member. The ethnic group information gained from the 1991 and 2001 Census enumerations therefore aided the compilation of more accurate information

about the age profiles of the main ethnic groups. Dobbs et al (2006) in 'Focus on Ethnicity and Religion' used the 2001 Census enumerations for England, Wales and Scotland to present information about the religious diversity and socio-economic and age profiles of ethnic groups. The study revealed that ethnic minority populations had a much younger age profile than the White population. The Pakistani and Bangladeshi populations had the youngest age profile, whilst the White Irish had the oldest. Interestingly, the Black African population had a much younger age profile than the Black Caribbean. The report stated "In 2001, the median age of men and women in the White population was 38 years and 40 years respectively. The median age of Bangladeshi men and women, by comparison, was just over half that, at 21 years for both men and women" (Dobbs et al, 2006. p. 23).

The ethnic group age profiles provide important information for population projections and information for guiding the planning of longer-term educational provision. Indeed, the ethnic group enumerations from the 2001 Census formed the starting point for Wohland, Rees, Norman, Boden and Jasinska (2010) in their project to produce projections of ethnic group populations for the UK and local areas from 2001 to 2051.

The very unpredictable nature of immigration flows during most of the 1960s challenged educational providers (Hawkes, 1966). It was the responsibility of the Government, through local authorities, to provide each immigrant child with an appropriate education. This legal responsibility dated back to the Elementary Education Act of 1880, which required all children to attend school (Hansard, 1881). The 1902 Education Act created Local Education Authorities with responsibility for the

administration of education at local level. It was to these authorities that the responsibility for educating immigrant children fell (Parliament, UK., 2010).

3.2 The Impact of Settlement Patterns upon educational services

However, the responsibility for educating immigrant children did not fall evenly across the country. Some authorities found they had become the magnets for immigrant settlement and struggled to cope with the largely unexpected influx into their schools, whilst others were hardly affected (Balen, 1994; Callaghan, 1987; Howe, 1994; Major, 1999).

The study of settlement patterns relating specifically to spatial concentration and segregation of ethnic minority populations has been a major feature of research in the USA, fundamentally because of the importance that immigration and ethnic minority groups played in American life (Peach and Rossiter, 1996). To measure these features, the index of dissimilarity (ID), the index of segregation (IS), and Location Quotients (LQ) were extensively employed. These measures provided a valuable picture of the ethnic group demographic composition, but were reliant on reasonably accurate and relevant population statistics. On this issue, Peach and Rossiter (1996) stated “...Britain differs from the United States both in the nature and length of its immigration history and also lacks the long run of statistics which informs American analysis” (p. 112).

These measures have been used widely in Britain, particularly for interrogating and reporting census data and for assisting in the formulation of population projections. For example, Rees and Phillips (1996) and Peach and Rossiter (1996) employed ID, IS and LQ

to good effect when analysing the 1991 Census enumerations to determine the spatial concentration, segregation and geographical spread of the major ethnic populations of Britain. In addition, they were also used extensively by Wohland et al (2010) to help predict population change.

A valuable insight into the settlement concentrations of major ethnic communities in Britain was provided through the use of these measures. However, for the latter to form part of a national and regional conceptual framework within which to compare and contrast the post 2004 EU A8 immigrants, it would require the equivalent of the ONS Ethnic Neighbourhood data (ONS, 2004b) for all EU immigrants, recorded by country of origin. Currently, all 'White' EU immigrants are categorised as 'White Other' and cannot generally be separated from other white immigrant groups such as those originating from America, Australia, South Africa or Russia.

Over time, studies of spatial concentration and segregation of ethnic groups in Britain have contributed to a valuable body of knowledge about settlement patterns. Back in 1979 Jones published 'Ethnic Areas in British Cities'. In the mid 1990s, Peach and Rossiter (1996) published 'Level and nature of special concentration and segregation of minority ethnic populations in Great Britain, 1991'. More recently produced works include Nagel and Staeheli (2008) 'Integration and the Politics of Visibility and Invisibility in Britain', and Poulsen and Johnston (2008) 'The New Geography of Ethnicity in England and Wales.

The importance of immigration settlement concentrations upon the provision of education is well documented by Hawkes (1966) in his report for the Institute of Race Relations entitled 'Immigrant Children in British Schools'. He stated:

The only thing which does stand out clearly is that a heavy concentration of non-English-speaking immigrants, not merely in a town but in one particular part of a town, leads to some kind of special action being taken by the education authorities. This is particularly marked when the concentration is of one national group. ... the policy of dispersal has also been adopted ... directed towards immigrants as immigrants. ... Less is learned about the significance of immigration concentrations by considering the overall number or proportion in a town than by noticing how such numbers are distributed within it (Hawkes, 1966. pp. 17 – 19).

The relationship, therefore, between the number of immigrant children with similar characteristics such as place of origin, language and religion and their distribution across Britain had a direct impact upon the management and form of their education. Here the Jews provide a good 'case example' of the link between settlement patterns and educational provision.

From their earliest times in Britain, the Jews formed communities bonded by tradition that held that their religion and education were intrinsically linked. As described above, the Jews tended to form close communities concentrated in specific areas of cities, with the vast majority settled in a few areas of London. (Dobbs et al, 2006; Graham, Schmool, and Waterman, 2007; ONS, 2003c / 2004a,b,c). This concentrated settlement pattern within specific districts made possible the establishment of Jewish day schools.

These schools, normally known as Free Jewish Schools or Hebrew Schools, can be traced back to the 1700s. They were formed to fulfil both the religious and secular educational needs of Jewish children. This geographical concentration of Jewish children is well illustrated by the fact that during the 1990s, London on average accounted for 75 per cent of all British Jewish births (Hart, Cohen and Schmool, 2006).

A study entitled 'Jewish Education at the Crossroads' produced for the Board of Deputies of British Jews by Hart, Cohen and Schmool in 2001 provided a revealing insight into Jewish education during the 1990s and the history of Jewish education in Britain. The study showed that, when compared with the total British school population, Jewish pupil numbers were very small. In 1992, there were 41,730 Jews of school age. The number rose to 42,160 in 1995, but then declined to 40,270 in 1999. The general decline was directly attributed to a fall in the birth rate of Jewish children born in Britain and not to migration flows. The annual birth rate in 1974 was recorded as 3,253, but declined to a low in 1999 of 2,509. However, the 2008 report 'Britain's Jewish Community Statistics 2007' estimated that overall the Jewish birth rate was increasing and stood at 3,314 in 2006 (Graham and Vulkan, 2008).

Whilst Hart et al (2001) reported a decline in the number of Jewish children, the study showed that the number attending Jewish day schools was increasing. For example, in 1992, just over 30 per cent of Jewish children attended a Jewish school, but this percentage increased to over 51 per cent in 1999. To facilitate this increase in demand for places at Jewish schools, more schools were opened. In 1992 there were 96 Jewish day schools, including nurseries, and by 1999 there were 135. These day schools were divided into the three distinct categories of Strictly Orthodox, Mainstream Orthodox

and Progressive, each designed to fulfil the different religious requirements of the Jewish community. An interesting twist in the development of Jewish schools took place in Birmingham. The Jewish King David School, founded in 1865 as the Hebrew School, had 100 per cent Jewish pupils until the late 1950s. In 2007, 50 per cent of its school population were reported to be Muslims. The Muslim parents were reported to be attracted to the school because of its ethos and high moral values (Independent, 01.02, 2007).

The Jews, therefore, were able to establish Jewish day schools partly because of their settlement concentrations. The Asians and Caribbean immigrants also settled into 'clannish' concentrations following 'chain' migration, but their children predominantly attended local schools. In an interview in 2010, Hannah Ashleigh, Education Policy and Projects Manager, The Board of Deputies of British Jews⁷, provided a number of reasons for this difference. They included the long history of free Jewish schools in Britain, dating back to 1732; a well established and professional infrastructure and management system; sponsors committed to Jewish education, and a close and co-operative relationship with successive governments. The professional infrastructure and management system was well illustrated in 2008 when the Jewish Leadership Council (JLC) published a report on the future of Jewish schools. The report included a comprehensive analysis of Jewish birth rates, demographic trends and curriculum needs, invaluable information for long-term strategic planning.

⁷Ashleigh, H. (2010). Interview: ref: IHJ/ED.Jewish/Education/06910a).

Unlike the Jews, later immigration flows in the mid 1990s from the Caribbean, Asia and Africa lacked the established professional infrastructure necessary to manage the complexities of a school system. The impact, therefore, of their arrival was felt immediately in the schools in 'settlement' cities and towns across Britain.

Hawkes (1966) provided a number of examples of the effects of immigrant concentrations in cities and towns. In one example, he cited the city of Leeds where two and a half per cent of the population were estimated to be immigrants, but reported that in one school over 70 per cent of the pupils were immigrants. In the London Borough of Southall in 1963, Hawkes (1966) recorded how white parents "raised a mighty cry" (p. 30) at the high percentage of largely Asian children in the Borough's schools. The minister for education, Sir Edward Boyle, visited Southall and declared that the proportion of immigrant children in any one school was to be limited to 33 per cent. Later the ratio was endorsed by the Department of Education and Science. In consequence, Bradford with over 10,000 Asians imposed a 25 per cent immigrant limit in its schools. Hawkes (1966) observed that in areas of immigrant concentrations, often in the older areas of towns, the local white residents departed rapidly, increasing further the ratio of immigrants to white pupils in the schools. This movement of the white population later became known as 'white flight'.

Hawkes (1966) found that in the early 1960s authorities were introducing a range of solutions in an effort to cope with the rapid growth of immigrant pupils. The dispersal or redistribution of these pupils was introduced to spread them more evenly across an authority's schools. Hawkes (1966) stated:

Buses have been provided to effect the redistribution (which now operates over the new London Borough of Ealing), ... West Bromwich, where the overall immigrant ratio is only 1 in 14 of the population, about three-quarters of the 'decanted' children are Infants. It need hardly be said that the moving about of such young children, in some cases for distances of up to three miles, is particularly unfortunate ... Hitherto, three of the city's [Bradford] 150 schools have been over 40 per cent immigrant ... the transition to the desired ration [see above] is again to be gradual, and transport will soon be provided, though initially the redirected pupils were either within walking distance of the new school or were considered old enough to travel by bus (Hawkes, 1966. pp.30 - 31).

Other measures were introduced instead of or as well as redistribution. These included the withdrawal of immigrant pupils from mainstream classes or schools, with their education taking place in special schools or classrooms or separate reception centres, a form of segregation. There was, however, a concern by authorities that separate facilities might look like racial or national discrimination (Hawkes, 1966).

The Chinese are one of the main ethnic group exceptions to the educational challenges of concentration settlements. Initially they did form close 'clannish' communities in port cities, but the imperative to earn money resulted in a wide spread settlement pattern. A form of economic 'step' migration took place (White and Woods, 1980). They scattered across Britain in small communities, often composed of one family, and their children attracted little attention in otherwise all white populated schools (ONS, 2004b).

3.3 Government Policy and Actions

The Department of Education and Science (DfES) helped by permitting the employment of extra teachers in areas with high immigrant concentrations. It published Circular 7/65 in an attempt to address some of the pressing issues of immigrant pupils. The circular was later confirmed in a White Paper. However, it contained recommendations that Hawkes (1966) stated were “more concerned to allay the fears of British parents for their own children’s education than to make an all-round assessment of the situation ... The main hindrance to public concern has been the unwillingness of national and local authorities alike to reveal the extent of the ‘immigrant problem’ at all” (p. 18).

In the mid-1960s, the government, in recognition of the fact that the immigrant concentration settlement patterns were affecting the provision of schooling, introduced the Local Government Act 1966. Section 11 of this Act gave powers to the Home Secretary to provide grants to local authorities to assist in the costs of employing extra staff to support minority ethnic groups overcome difficulties, particularly linguistic, that stopped them from taking a full part in mainstream education. Section 11 was reviewed in 1990. As a consequence, all existing Section 11 posts were cancelled and the Home Office required new bids that specified the specific needs of identifiable groups of minority ethnic children (Ofsted, 1994).

The teaching of English as a second language has been a focus of many studies from the mid 1990s. The Commission for Racial Equality, for example, produced a statement in the early 1980s entitled ‘Ethnic Minority Community Languages’, which summarised many of the studies and reports published on the subject and provided a good overview

of developments that far. 'A Language for Life' better known as the 'Bullock Report', was published in 1975 and included a Chapter on 'Children from Families of Overseas Origin'. In 1981, the Home Affairs Select Committee produced a report concerned with racial disadvantage. It is interesting to note, however, that the European Economic Community (EEC) produced a Directive in 1977 concerned with migrant children and mother-tongue teaching:

Member states shall, in accordance with their national circumstances and legal systems, and in co-operation with states of origin, take appropriate measures to promote, in co-operation with normal education, teaching of the mother-tongue and culture of the country of origin for the children referred to in Article one [member states] (EEC Directive 77/486. Article 3).

However, in 1981, the Home Affairs Select Committee was strident in its view that there was no suggestion that there was a legal obligation upon the UK to provide mother-tongue teaching. The Government reply (Fifth Report) to this point came as a recommendation:

Recommendation 40

We are not convinced either that a local education authority is under any obligation to provide mother tongue teaching or that it is necessarily in the general interest that they should so do (Parliamentary Home Affairs Committee, 1982, p. 23).

3.4 Conclusion

It has been shown in this Chapter that immigration flows from the late 1950s were very unpredictable in their nature. The picture was made all the more confusing by unreliable immigration estimates, ethnic enumerations, and the effects of “chain” migration and “clannish” settlement patterns. Together, these factors made planning for the education of immigrant pupils difficult. In consequence, schools in areas of high immigration struggled to cope with the unexpected influx.

However, different immigration flows presented different challenges for the education services. For example, the Jewish immigrants eventually developed their own professional educational infrastructure that was capable of establishing and managing its own Jewish schools. Conversely, the later arrivals, such as the West Indians and Asians, relied solely upon a totally unprepared state system.

The government endeavoured to find solutions to the growing challenge of educating immigrant children, but simultaneously fought to calm public hostility and the effects of ‘white flight’. The early immigrant education initiatives introduced by a worried government included limits on the percentage of immigrant pupils in a school, and bussing immigrant pupils to ‘white schools’ or segregating them in special immigrant classes or schools. The Section 11 grant system is seen to be one of the most acceptable and enduring of these initiatives. Likewise, the teaching of English as a second language became a high profile development area, whilst mother-tongue teaching gained little serious support.

Chapter 4

Measuring population and immigration

4.1 Introduction:

Measuring populations has always been fraught with difficulties. In consequence, resulting enumerations and estimates have often been criticised for their inaccuracies. Graham and Waterman (2005), for example, provided compelling evidence that the 2001 Census enumerations undercounted the Jewish population by up to 15 per cent. Likewise, Swift (2002) writing about the Irish migrations, commented on the “inaccuracy of official emigration statistics” (p. 3), and suggested that they invariably represented an undercount.

The census process becomes even more complex and problematic when additional aspects such as ethnicity, migration flows and trend analysis are included. One recent example was that of the Labour Government’s inability to provide credible estimates for the numbers of A8 immigrants arriving in the UK after 2004. Finch (2010) held that poor official estimates of A8 immigration resulted in the public losing trust in the government’s pronouncements about the scale of Eastern European immigration.

Moszczynski (2010), when discussing this issue at the Polish Embassy in September, 2010, supported the general view of Finch when he stated “We need more statistics, need more clarity, more transparency from government about how many people there are here and what they are doing”. It was not only at national level that counting populations had presented difficulties. Data collected by schools about the ethnic composition of their populations have frequently produced highly inaccurate returns (Chapter 12).

In the UK, a range of methods was employed to estimate the population and its characteristics. The methods widely used to calculate ethnicity, immigration figures and trends have included the decennial census, International Passenger Survey, Labour Force Survey and the Worker Registration Scheme. First amongst these was the decennial census, which has taken place in different forms since 1801. The only exception occurred in 1941 when the Second World War resulted in its cancellation (ONS, 2008c).

4.2 The Decennial Census

The Office for National Statistics (ONS), which is responsible for the decennial census process in England and Wales, stated:

A census is a count of all people and households in the country. It provides population statistics from a national to neighbourhood level for government, local authorities, business and communities... Every effort is made to include everyone, and that is why the census is so important. It is the only survey which provides a detailed picture of the entire population, and is unique because it

covers everyone at the same time and asks the same core questions everywhere (ONS, 2008b).

Over the years, a great reliance was placed upon decennial census enumerations. They were used to track developing demographic trends, including changes in the ethnic composition, and as a basis for population projections (Burrell, 2006; Phillimore and Goodson, 2008; Ratcliffe, 1996; Van Tubergen, 2006; Walvin, 1984; Winder, 2008; Wohland et al, 2010). It is, therefore, important that the enumerations are reliable, robust and above all credible (Dobbs et al, 2006; Finch, 2010; Moszczynski, 2010; Rees and Phillips, 1996). In 2006, the ONS produced a publication entitled 'Census 2001 - Accuracy and Quality', which included some realistic, yet cautionary, statements about published estimates:

No large scale data collection exercise will be 100 per cent accurate and we would expect some variability in the final published results. This means that there might be small differences between 'true' counts in a population and the estimated counts that are published (ONS, 2006a, p. 2).

The ONS recognised the potential variability of final published results, which was, on occasions, exacerbated by the process of recalculating, retrospectively, previously published final census estimates. For example, the 1991 Census identified 800,000 fewer young men than had been predicted by the ONS based on previous trends. However, the census estimates were adjusted so that they maintained the expected population pattern and projections. In other words, the actual 1991 Census results were not published, but the anticipated ones, which replaced them, were. Ten years later the 2001 Census corroborated the 1991 Census findings, identifying that there were fewer

young men in the population than predicted. As a consequence, the population estimates were 'rebased' and recalculated right back to 1982 (ONS, 2006a). In consequence, studies based on the original 1991 Census publications involving young men in the population, prior to the 'rebasing', would, potentially, have produced conclusions that conflicted with studies undertaken following the 2001 'rebasing'. Examples of work affected by the recalculated enumerations included the 1991 Census study by Ratcliffe published before 'rebasing' in 1996, and that of Dobbs et al in 2006, whose work was focussed on the 2001 Census enumerations.

The vagaries derived from adjusting actual census enumeration with annual mid-year estimates was highlighted by Coleman in 2008 when providing evidence to the Parliamentary Select Committee of the treasury:

The census of 1991 generated a population over one million fewer than that expected from the 1991 population estimates updated from the 1982 census ... the so-called missing million ... the census, not the estimates, was deemed to be in error, and various upward adjustments were made. ... Both the censuses of 1991 and 2001 deviated considerably from the corresponding population estimates and, despite every effort, each has turned out to be in error ... In 1991 the estimates rolled forward from 1981 were preferred (erroneously) over the census. In 2001, the census was preferred (only partly erroneously) over the estimates rolled forward from 1991 (Coleman, 2008).

The Statistics Commission undertook an inquiry into the reliability of the 2001 Census, with a particular focus on the City of Westminster. The inquiry concluded "The results of the 2001 Census in Westminster City Council's area are substantially less reliable

than implied by the published confidence intervals” (Statistics Commission, 2003, p. iii). An example of the impact of adjusting census enumerations through estimates was provided by the Statistics Commission. The example published is reproduced in Table 4:1.

Table 4:1

Calculation of the Census Estimates for Westminster	
2001 Census estimates of the population of Westminster (29 April 2001)	181,286
Number actually counted in the Census as usually resident in Westminster	134,212
The number of people missed but added through estimation	47,074

Source: Statistics Commission Report No 15 (Statistics Commission, 2003, p. 11)

The Statistics Commission concluded that the best methodology available for a conventional census was used, but that the method failed to cope adequately with the most extreme circumstances, adding that the quality of migration data should be addressed with urgency (Statistics Commission, 2003).

The concern about undercounts in census estimates was made by Woodbridge, 2005, when endeavouring to estimate the illegal population of the UK:

Although the UK census (2001) was adjusted for undercount by geographical area, age, sex and ethnicity, there are no explicit undercount estimates available for the foreign-born population, either authorised or unauthorised (Woodbridge, 2005, p.11).

The 1991 Census was the first one to include a question about an individual's ethnicity (Question 11, p. 3). Prior to 1991, estimates for ethnic groups were extrapolated from census returns using such information as country of birth and name. The 1991 Census ethnic group information was used to provide a picture of the ethnic composition of the population in Britain in 1991, but also to reassess previous census estimates. Ratcliffe (1996) in 'Ethnicity in the 1991 Census', produced for the ONS, outlined the complex process used for calculating these ethnic estimates:

These data [1991 Census] can be used to compute conditional probabilities of ethnic group given country of birth for each of the 459 local authorities. The 1991 Census conditional probabilities can be applied to the 1981 Census country of birth counts for the districts..., but this assumes that the probabilities found in 1991 apply equally in 1981. ... it is likely that the probabilities of persons born in the UK being non-White were higher in 1991 than in 1981, so that the method is likely to lead to an overestimate. This can be rectified by adjusting the resulting minority ethnic group estimates to minority ethnic estimates for control areas derived from the 1979-1981-1983 Labour Force Survey ... In addition, the minority ethnic group estimates in 1981 and 1991 were both adjusted to sum to the revised mid-year population series based on the backcasting from the 1991 mid-year final revised rebased population estimates for districts, with an allowance in 1991 for differential under-enumeration of the different ethnic groups (p. 25).

The calculations described above by Radcliffe et al in 1996 were completed before the 'rebasing' in 2001 to allow for the 800,000 young men incorrectly removed from the 1991 Census enumerations. Consequently, the precision of their estimates was

compromised. As these examples illustrate, determining Britain's ethnic composition was not simply a matter of counting people and noting their ethnicity. The inconsistency of questions from one census to another further challenged the process of drawing secure comparisons and defining population trends. An example is provided by the changes made to the 1991 ethnicity question for the 2001 Census.

The 1991 Census limited the ethnic choice to nine possible categories. For people of mixed ethnic heritage the census requirements stated: "If you are descended from more than one ethnic or racial group, please tick the group to which you considers (*sic*) you belong or tick the 'Any other ethnic group' box..." (Census Form, 1991, Q.11, p. 3). Therefore people of mixed heritage self-selected their ethnic or racial group. Information gained about the 'White' ethnic group was also restricted in its scope as there were no sub-category options. This limitation made it impossible to determine with any certainty whether, for example, a 'White' person born in Poland was Polish, English, Russian or even South African.

The 2001 Census addressed some of the limitations of the 1991 Census. The ethnic category options were increased from nine to sixteen. The 'White' category was expanded and required individuals to state whether they were 'White British', White Irish' or 'Any other White background' and to specify the other white background. A category for 'Any other Asian background' was also added. A completely new section was included for 'Mixed' ethnic groups. This included four new sub-categories: Mixed White and Black Caribbean, Mixed White and Black African, Mixed White and Asian, and Any Other Mixed Background (Census Form 2001, p. 6; ONS, 2008a). The introduction of new ethnic categories had the effect of redistributing the population across the

expanded range of categories. Indeed, 677,117 people, or 14.6 per cent of the UK ethnic minority population, identified themselves as belonging to one of the new Mixed categories (ONS, 2003a). However, the 2001 Census did not provide information about the nature of the redistribution to 'Mixed'. The ONS was careful to note the possible effects of these ethnicity question changes upon comparative data:

The [ethnicity] question asked in 2001 was more extensive than that asked in 1991, so that people could tick "Mixed" for the first time. This change in answer category may account for a small part of the observed increase in the minority ethnic population over the period (ONS, 2003a). ... The proportion of minority ethnic groups in England rose from six per cent to nine per cent – partly as a result of the addition of Mixed ethnic groups in 2001 ... However, the proportion in the Black Other Category fell. Some of these people in 2001 may have ticked Mixed White and Black Caribbean or Mixed White and African ... The numbers of people in Other ethnic groups fell – some people may have classified themselves as Mixed in 2001" (ONS, 2003c).

The difficulties of comparing two datasets with different boundaries were well exemplified by Poulsen and Johnston (2008) in 'The New Geographies of Ethnicity in England and Wales?' (Table 12.1, p. 162). For example, the 'Black Caribbean' population of England and Wales was shown in 1991 as 502,728, increasing by 61,333 to 564,061 in 2001. This Black Caribbean population increase of 12.2 percent was stated to be the smallest of the six major categories examined. However, no obvious allowance was made for the possible effect of the inclusion in the 2001 Census of the new category of 'Mixed White and Black Caribbean'. The 2001 Census enumerations showed 237,468 individuals self selected the new category of 'Mixed White and Black Caribbean'. In

1991, these individuals resident in England or Wales could not have selected the 'Mixed' group, as it was not an option, but may have self-selected the Black Caribbean or Black Other category. If this was the case, even in part, the true percentage increase in the Black Caribbean population could, in an extreme case, be as high as 59.44 per cent, moving its percentage increase from the smallest to the second largest of the six major categories examined by Poulsen and Johnston (2008).

A different method of managing the change in ethnic categories was employed by Simpson et al (2006) in their report for the Department of Works and Pensions entitled 'Ethnic minority populations and the labour market: an analysis of the 1991 and 2001 Census'. Here they were not only challenged by the changes in the ethnicity question, but also by the inclusion of Scottish Census data, which used different categories. Their awareness of the variation in the boundaries of the different datasets was clearly considered and taken into account when they stated:

As different census questions were used, a number of decisions have been made to ensure accurate comparison over time between 1991 and 2001 ... Our discussion is often limited to seven ethnic minority group categories and the White population. The other categories are not comparable over time; although presented in tables for 2001, they are too diverse both in concept and in reality to bear useful explanation with these data (p. 3). ... The 'mixed' and 'other' categories identified in the census are difficult to characterise as they include diverse origins. These categories are not comparable with those used in the 1991 census. They are reported throughout this study but not discussed in detail. Complementary data sources would be required to understand the smaller

populations within these categories and the new ethnicities emerging (p. 13). ... In the analyses we tend not to interpret the residual categories ... because their composition in each case is an unknown mixture of those who did not find the specific census categories helpful. ... The residual 'Other' category comprises varied backgrounds of different natures in 1991 and 2001, and is therefore not comparable over the decade and is not shown in tables of this report (Simpson et al., 2006, p. 28).

Simpson et al, when commenting about the reliability and precision of aspects of their data for migration and population changes, stated, "While the detailed figures are approximate, these broad trends are clear and reliable" (Simpson et al, 2006. p. 39)

The decennial census has been used widely to monitor migration flows and the changing ethnic composition of Britain. However, it does not measure transient migration movements that take place in the ten years between censuses. A unfolding example of this is the recent immigration to the UK by A8 Eastern and Central European immigrants who started arriving in large numbers after 2004. This migration flow was described by Finch at a seminar in 2010 as "the largest single movement of people between countries in peace time Europe's history". However, during 2008 and 2009, the British public was encouraged to believe that the Poles were returning home (IPPR, 2008a; Mostrous and Seib, 2008). Finch (2010), referring to the Polish immigrants going home, commented, "Ministers, officials and people like me have stressed it partly to sooth the fevered brow of the public debate on this issue". This statement is reinforced by Spencer (2007) writing in 'Blair's Britain: 1997 - 2007' when she proffered, "Blair's overriding objective was to convince the public that migration was under control and to

neutralise immigration as a political issue” (p. 360). If correct and the Poles had indeed gone home, it would have meant that this massive immigration flow was not captured by the 2001 Census and equally would not be captured by the 2011 Census. In terms of UK decennial census history, the acclaimed largest mass movement of people in peace time Europe never took place.

The census process was reliant upon individuals within the population answering the questions accurately. The ONS has worked with unusual responses to census questions, which have frustrated the process of calculating secure and meaningful enumerations. In the 2001 Census, for example, a question was asked about an individual’s religion. This was a new question in 2001 and was voluntary. The ONS commented that “At the time the Census was carried out, there was an internet campaign that encouraged people to answer the religious question ‘Jedi Knight’. The number of people who stated Jedi was 390,000 (0.7 per cent of the population)” (ONS, 2003c, p. 3). Interestingly, the report by Dobbs et al (2006) on ethnicity and religion used the enumeration from the 2001 Census to determine numbers and percentages of religious groups in the population, but failed to mention ‘Jedi Knights’ or its effect upon the enumerations even though the ‘Jedi’ claimed more followers in England and Wales than the Buddhists, Jews or Sikhs (pp. 21-23).

Over time, the reliability of population counts has been compromised by people who have avoided involvement in the process. The returns from the 1991 Census indicated that an estimated 1 million people were missed from the count. One explanation provided was the ‘poll tax factor’, whereby people believed that they would not pay

poll tax if they avoided the Census. However, the 1991 estimates were recalculated to take account of the possible undercount (Waterhouse, 1992).

Illegal or unauthorised immigrants also avoided being identified and counted by censuses or surveys. This presented a challenge for those tasked with measuring the population, especially its ethnic composition. Prior to the 2005 British general election, Blair, as Prime Minister, refused to estimate the number of illegal immigrants in Britain. During an interview on BBC television with Jeremy Paxman, he commented “You cannot determine specifically how many people are here illegally” (Blair, A.C., 2005). However, before the end of the year, Woodbridge (2005) had published a report for the Home Office entitled ‘Sizing the unauthorised (illegal) migrant population in the United Kingdom in 2001’, in which the illegal immigrant population was estimated. To calculate the illegal population, the report had rejected ‘direct’ measures such as the ‘Delphi’ method and ‘indirect’ measures such as the ‘Capture-Recapture’ method, in favour of the ‘Residual Method’ devised in the United States (Woodbridge, 2005). This method calculated the illegal population by estimating the total foreign-born population in the UK, subtracting the estimated total legal foreign-born population, which then left the estimated illegal immigrant population. The report concluded that the number of illegal immigrants ranged between 310,000 and 570,000, with a central estimate of 430,000. The Home Office Minister, Tony McNulty, described the estimate as the government’s ‘best guess’ (BBC, 30.06.2005).

However, the Home Office estimates were seen as an undercount and out of date. The think-tank Migration Watch produced its own report claiming that the Home Office estimates did not include the UK-born children of illegal immigrants, and pointed out

that the figures were four years out of date and therefore did not include the record levels of failed asylum seekers who had significantly increased the illegal immigrant stock. The report updated the Home Office figures and produced estimates of between 515,000 and 870,000 with a central figure of 670,000 illegal immigrants in the UK (Migration Watch, 2005). This central figure of 670,000 was equivalent to just under 70 per cent of the population of Birmingham (Birmingham City Council, 2009).

Hjarno (2003) in 'Illegal Immigrants and Developments in Employment in the Labour Markets of the EU' found that the phenomenon of illegal labour migration was present across the EU with the exception of the Nordic countries of Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Finland, where there were hardly any illegal labour immigrants. His study showed that the lack of illegal immigrant workers in the Nordic countries was due in the most part to the strong employees' unions and the employers' organisations and the relationship between the two. The lack of a 'hidden' illegal population in the Nordic countries made the task of measuring their populations more straightforward and less problematic.

It is estimated that before 2004 there were many Eastern and Central European immigrants illegally in the UK. But, as the examples above indicate, the numbers were not known. As Spencer (2007) suggested:

Free movement for EU nationals nevertheless had one effect on migrants which passed unnoticed. For those who had been working in the UK illegally before 1 May 2004, the decision to allow free movement was in effect an amnesty,

transforming them overnight into EU citizens with a right to live and work in the UK (p. 353).

Census estimates were further compromised when published as evidence in studies. Some of the problems arose through attributing a set of census enumerations to the wrong country or group of countries within the UK. Walvin (1984), for example, stated that the 1841 Census “... calculated in that year that there were 400,000 Irish in England, Scotland and Wales ... The 1851 census showed an increase of 314,610 Irish people in England and Wales in the previous decade” (p. 49). These are in fact the census estimates for Great Britain, composed of England, Wales, Scotland and Islands in the British Seas, not England and Wales as stated for 1851. Moreover, Winder (2008) stated “The 1841 census listed 289,404 Irish-born in Britain; by 1851 there were nearly twice as many; and by 1861 there were over 600,000” (p. 196). The census estimates quoted by Winder for 1841, 1851 and 1861 were those, in broad terms, for England and Wales only and not for Britain as stated. The correct enumerations taken directly from the original census documents are set out in table 4:2 below and clearly illustrate the problem:

Table 4:2

Irish-born in the population of Great Britain - copied from the 1841, 1851 and 1861 Census							
Census Date	England	Wales	England and Wales	Scotland	Islands in British Seas	Total for Great Britain	
1841	284,128	5,248	289,376	126,321		415,697	
1851			519,959	207,367	6,540	733,866	
1861			601,634	204,003	5,534	811,171	

Sourced by IHJ (2010) from the original census documents 1841, 1851 and 1861 – ONS Archives.

The 1851 Census reported the increase in Irish born, as discussed by Walvin (1984) above, when it stated:

The number of persons in Great Britain, who were born in Ireland, was 419,256 in 1841, and 733,866 in 1851; the increase in the ten years has therefore been 314,610; and to supply the place of those of them who have died, and to constitute the increase, probably about 400,000 of the Irish population entered Great Britain in the 10 years 1841 – 1851 (Census, 1851).

The variation of 3,559 between the original 1841 British total of Irish born and that quoted in the 1851 Census above was due to the later recalculation of the estimates to include the population of the Islands in the British Seas.

Yet another complication comes from mistakes during secondary calculations of census enumerations. Poulsen and Johnston (2008) provided an example of this in a table comparing the 1991 and 2001 Census ethnic population estimates for England and Wales (Table 12.1. p. 162). However, the percentage change shown for each ethnic group was incorrectly calculated. For example, the 'Other' ethnic category was calculated to have increased by 68.5 per cent, whereas it actually increased by 217.6 per cent; the 'Bangladeshi' were shown to have increased by 42.1 per cent, but in fact increased by 72.7 per cent; and the 'Black Other' were calculated to have decreased by 85.1 per cent, rather than the correct 46 per cent. These miscalculations were compounded by the direct comparisons drawn between the 1991 and 2001 ethnic enumerations with no allowance for the difference in the datasets as described above.

Concerns over the reliability of census estimates led the government in June 2000 to set up the Statistics Commission as an independent public body to "help ensure that official statistics are trustworthy and responsive to public needs, to give independent, reliable

and relevant advice and by so doing to provide an additional safeguard on the quality and integrity of official statistics” (Statistics Commission, 2003, p. 5).

In an interim report to Parliament in 2003, the Commission raised concerns about the accuracy of the 2001 Census and the estimates that derived from it. In respect of migration it commented:

We know that methods currently used for measuring migration into and out of the UK, and between local authority areas, are unreliable. Particularly unreliable are the estimates of international emigration and immigration into and out of Central London. Without improved methods, up-dating population census figures is liable to error (Statistics Commission, 2003, p. 12).

The commission recommended, “The quality of migration data should be addressed with urgency” (Statistics Commission, 2003, p. 5). The Statistics Commission was disbanded by the government on 31st March, 2008 (Statistics Commission, 2008. p. 1).

4.3 Worker Registration Scheme

In 2004, the government introduced the Worker Registration Scheme (WRS), as a transitional measure permitted under the Treaty of Accession 2003. This scheme specifically targeted immigrants from the A8 accession countries wishing to work as employees in the UK for more than one month. Data from the WRS were used by the government to monitor aspects of A8 migrants’ impact on the UK labour market (MAC, 2009). Although not designed for the purpose, the WRS was also employed by the

government to provide estimates for calculating the number of A8 nationals resident in the UK.

Spencer (2007) suggested that the introduction of the WRS was a response to media pressure over possible A8 immigrant numbers and their rights under EU law to UK benefits. The government's fear of an A8 benefit free-for-all was compounded by the belated realisation that it had seriously underestimated the number of A8 migrants that were likely to arrive in the UK. This resulted in some last minute policy changes, including the hasty implementation of the WRS. Spencer, (2007) provided an illuminating slant on the timing and reason for the introduction of the WRS:

Only in the weeks leading up to 1 May [2004] did media anticipation that a significant number of Roma might come, and that migrants might choose to live on benefits rather than work, lead Blair to focus on the issue. Blunkett [Home Secretary] stood firm, insisting that the migrants were needed for low-skilled jobs which would otherwise be taken by illegal immigrants. A compromise was reached: a Worker Registration Scheme, recording the immigrants' employment and monitoring their highly restricted access to benefits – a scheme which had the downside of recording those arriving but not those returning home, thus inflating figures (Spencer, 2007. p. 352).

In 2009, the Association of Labour Providers (ALP) challenged the official purpose of the WRS: 'To monitor citizens of A8 countries joining the UK labour market, the type of work they were doing, and the impact upon the UK's economy'. ALP stated, "The real reason for the scheme has been more to do with denying A8 workers access to benefits.

This was clear from a Cabinet Office paper, dated 21 September 2005, on the extension for the scheme beyond the initial two years” (ALP, 2009, p. 2)

The unexpected problem posed by the potentially large influx of A8 immigrants sprang from the government’s underestimation of the numbers likely to arrive in the UK following accession. Its estimates were based on a report by Dustmann, Casanova, Fertig, Preston and Schmidt (2003) entitled ‘The impact of EU enlargement on migration flows’, which had been commissioned by the UK Home Office. Referring to A8 immigration, the report concluded:

Estimates for the UK range between 5,000 and 13,000 net immigration per year ... even in the worst case scenario, migration to the UK as a result of Eastern enlargement of the EU is not likely to be overly large. The evidence brought together indicates that net migration from AC-10 [A8 plus Malta and Cyprus] will be broadly in line with current migration movements (Dustmann et al, 2003, p. 8).

With the possibility of large numbers arriving from Eastern and Central Europe, the WRS ensured that A8 immigrants could not arrive and immediately claim benefits, overwhelming the benefits system. However, registering with the WRS, together with the completion of twelve months continuous employment, provided A8 immigrants with access to employment and social security rights and to some means-tested income-related social security benefits.

Although used as such, the WRS did not provide a complete, reliable or secure set of data for estimating A8 immigration. Indeed, the Migration Advisory Committee (MAC),

set up to advise the government on immigration issues (Home Office, 2009b), stated “Because of exemptions and non-registration, the record of WRS registrations does not provide a complete picture of the flow of A8 nationals into the UK. Nor does it indicate the stock of those nationals remaining in the UK” (MAC, 2009).

The exemptions to registration referred to by MAC were many. The WRS only required those A8 immigrants working as employees to register. The WRS did not require the registration of A8 immigrants who were unemployed, students or volunteer workers, those who were self employed or ‘posted workers’, or a family member of an A8 citizen who had permission to stay and work or was subject to the WRS. For clarification, a family member was defined by Regulation 7 of the Immigration (EEA) Regulations 2006, and can be summarised as: the citizen’s husband, wife or civil partner; direct descendants of the citizen (or of their husband, wife or civil partner), if they are dependents of the citizen (or of their husband, wife or civil partner); the parents and grandparents of the citizen (or of their husband, wife or civil partner), if they are dependants of the citizen (or their husband, wife or civil partner); or extended family members, in some circumstances (Home Office, 2007). The limitations of the WRS as a tool for measuring the A8 population were well exemplified by these exemptions, as their numbers are not recorded or, in truth, known.

The WRS data were additionally undermined as an immigration measuring tool by A8 employed immigrants not registering with the WRS. In its report to the Home office, MAC stressed the point:

In practice, not all of those who are required to register on the scheme do so. The extent of non-registration (i.e. those who are not in compliance with the regulations) is difficult to measure and registration is difficult to enforce. ... There is no employee offence in respect of A8 workers, which means that immigrants are not penalised for non-compliance. It is therefore not possible to assess the level of non-compliance of immigrants with the scheme through enforcement actions. UKBA [UK Border Agency] told us that there are no powers that allow active enforcement of employers' compliance with the scheme. ... No prosecutions are recorded for employer offences specifically relating to employing immigrants who are not registered on the WRS (MAC, 2009).

The Centre for Research on Nationalism, Ethnicity and Multiculturalism (CRONEM) undertook a survey of Polish immigrants and reported that only "64 per cent of respondents declared that they had registered on the Worker Registration Scheme" (CRONEM, 2006, p.2). At the time of the survey, Polish migrants made up over half of the A8 group of immigrants (Sales, 2007). The survey findings confirm the concerns of MAC, 2009, and provide some indication of the magnitude of the non-compliance.

The WRS was scheduled to cease under EU transitional arrangements in April 2009. It could only be extended for a maximum of two more years: "if there are serious disturbances (or threat thereof) to the labour market, [EU member states] may prolong national measures for a further two years after notifying the Commission" (European Commission, 2004, quoted by MAC, 2009, p. 8). However, Jacqui Smith as Home Secretary announced in a television interview on 22nd February, 2009 "There are fewer of those [A8 nationals] coming to the UK. Now of course we know that because we have

a Workers Registration Scheme ... I think it's important we know actually what's happening within Europe and that's why I'm intending to keep it" (Smith, 2009: Source: ALP, 2009).

The statement by Smith, 2009, well illustrated how the government used the data from the WRS for the purpose of determining the numbers of A8 immigrants arriving in the UK and to support estimates of the total UK A8 population. Interestingly, the UK Border Agency (UKBA), responsible for the WRS and a section of the Home Office for which Jacqui Smith was responsible as Home Secretary, strongly challenged the use of the WRS as a way of measuring the number of A8 immigrants:

The number of applicants to the WRS does **not** represent a measurement of the net immigration to the UK (inflows minus outflows). Rather, it is a gross (cumulative) figure for the number of workers applying to the WRS. The figures are not current ... Figures for net migration to the UK are published by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) (Home Office: UKBA, 2009a).

The health warning by the UKBA about the use of the WRS, and stressed by its emboldening of the 'not' in the first sentence, was clearly echoed by MAC in 2009 in its report to the government (MAC, 2009). Earlier in 2007, Sales, had stressed the incompleteness of WRS as a source for determining the number of A8 nationals in the UK when she stated:

It is known, for example, how many A8 citizens have registered with the Workers' Registration Scheme but not how many of those who have not registered are working, either informally or as self-employed, and how many others are out of

the labour force. The headline figure represents a cumulative total ... rather than the number registered at any one time, since people are not required to de-register when they leave. Migrant labour tends to be disproportionately concentrated in the informal sector, so that its contribution does not find its way into the official data (p. 224).

4.4 The International Passenger Survey

The WRS and the International Passenger Survey (IPS) are both used to estimate A8 migrations. However, they are different in significant ways. The WRS was specifically introduced by a concerned government to address the potential political implications of a large influx of A8 migrants from 2004 and only recorded legally employed immigrants. On the other hand, the IPS has a long history dating back to 1961 with a clear mandate to provide information about tourism and business travel. It was not designed to capture data about migration numbers and trends or to function as the principal source of data for estimating all migration into and out of the UK (ONS, 2008d; PSC, 2008).

The IPS is a survey of a random sample of passengers entering or leaving the UK by the major air, sea and tunnel routes. Participation is voluntary and the Office for National Statistics (ONS) reported that in the 2008 calendar year 17 per cent of those approached refused to take part. Additionally, the ONS reported that only 2.2 per cent of those in the total interview sample were migrants, which amounted to 5,117 individuals (Migration Watch, 2007; ONS, 2008d / 2009a/b). The ONS recognised the limitations of the IPS as a migration data source: “The IPS has some limitations with respect to measuring immigration and emigration...” (ONS, 2009a, p.7); “The

International Passenger Survey works well, but it captures travellers' intentions at the time of departure [and arrival]. These may be prone to change ... " (ONS, 2006a, p. 1) and "The IPS is a sample survey and is, therefore, subject to some uncertainty. Figures obtained from the IPS are subject to both sampling and non-sampling errors" (ONS, 2009a, p. 20).

Despite these recognised limitations, the IPS became the principal source of data for estimating migration into and out of the UK (ONS, 2008d; PSC, 2008). However, the ONS was clear about the difficulties of estimating migration flows from the available systems:

There is no single, all-inclusive system in place to measure all movements of people into and out of the UK. Therefore it is necessary to use a combination of data from different sources, which have different characteristics and attributes, in order to produce estimates of international migration. None of the data sources used, while offering the best data currently available, are specifically designed to capture information solely on international migration (ONS, 2009a, p. 3).

The ONS has regularly stated that the IPS provided the main component in estimating long and short-term migration and represented about 90 per cent of final estimates (ONS, 2009d / 2010d). The remaining 10 per cent was principally gained through a weighting formula designed to account for unknown asylum seekers, for 'switchers' (migrants who changed their mind) and estimates for the possible migrants who travelled between the UK and the Irish Republic, where the IPS did not operate. This last element in the equation was added in 2008 (ONS, 2010a). However,

provisional migration estimates released to the press through the regular ONS news releases were, in most cases, based solely on the IPS data. For example, on 27th August 2009, the ONS published two news releases, which stated:

This report includes provisional estimates of international migration based on the International Passenger Survey. (ONS, 2009c, p. 1). These are not final figures and have not yet been adjusted to account for asylum seekers, people migrating to and from the Republic of Ireland and people whose length of stay changes from their original intentions (ONS, 2009e, p.1).

Although the ONS stated that the estimates were early indications of the latest patterns of international migration, the news releases were picked up by most national newspapers, TV news broadcasts and internet news organisations. For example, the Independent newspaper used the news releases to produce a headline story and quoted the estimates provided by the ONS. The Independent stated:

The vast wave of immigrants who came here from Eastern Europe after the EU expanded in 2004 has slowed to a trickle, as the recession took hold, the figures showed [ONS News Release]. Arrivals from the A8 countries of Eastern Europe fell by more than a quarter – 28% - from 109,000 to 79,000 in the year to December last year [2008]. More Eastern European immigrants went home in the same period – up by more than 50% to 66,000. ... The surge in Eastern Europeans returning home and the decline in arrivals meant they added only 13,000 to the total population last year (Independent, 27.08.2009).

It is very clear from the ONS statement that the provisional estimates for the 2008 calendar year for A8 inflow and outflow migrants were based solely on the IPS. Table

4:3 is compiled from ONS datasets (ONS, 2010a) and record the actual number of IPS interviews conducted with all migrant passengers and all A8 migrants from 2003 to 2008.

Table 4:3: IPS A8 interviews 2003- 2008 compared with all IPS interviews

Number of International Passenger Survey (contacts) interviews - conducted between 2003 and 2008 showing inflow and outflow totals for all citizens interviewed compared with A8 citizens interviewed							
Year	All citizens interviews	- Inflow	A8 interviews Inflow	All citizens interviews	- Outflow	A8 interviews Outflow	
2003	2394		0	706		0	
2004	2801		56	755		3	
2005	2965		79	781		15	
2006	3005		81	789		21	
2007	3091		101	2362		36	
2008	2886		115	2231		91	

Data source: ONS, 2010a. Figures and headings in table confirmed correct by ONS (ONS, 2010c)

The ONS stated “Over a quarter of [a] million face-to-face interviews are conducted each year with passengers entering and leaving the UK through the main airports, seaports and the Channel Tunnel” (ONS, 2008d). However, the vast majority of individuals interviewed were tourist, short-term visitors or business travellers. As Table 4:3 shows, just 2,886 inflow and 2,231 outflow migrants were interviewed during the whole of the 2008 calendar year. It was from these interviews that the ONS calculated its provisional estimates of all migration from and to the UK for the 2008 year. Even more interesting is the fact that the comparison estimates used to determine overall A8 trends for the 2008 news releases were based on just 56 arrival and 3 departure IPS interviews in 2004 and 79 and 15 interviews respectively for 2005.

Migration Watch has long raised concerns about the small sample size of the IPS and the inevitable problems of the statistical uncertainties produced. This, it claimed, prevented detailed analysis of migrants’ characteristics and was further compounded

by the voluntary nature of the interviews (Migration Watch, 2007). Migration Watch published a number of examples to demonstrate the problematic nature of the small random sampling:

The estimates for Pakistan, quite an important source country, were based upon 231 interviews of immigrants and 6 interviews of emigrants. The estimate of a net 3,000 inflow from the Caribbean was based on the difference between 28 interviews in and 6 interviews out (Migration Watch, 2007, p.2).

Migration Watch asserted that actual estimates based upon the IPS were adjusted to suit predicted patterns. “To avoid the possibility that migration from A8 accession countries might distort underlying trends, A8 migration flows for 2003 to 2005 were excluded from the IPS modelling” (Migration Watch, 2009).

The significant migration flows of A8 citizens commenced after enlargement of the EU in April 2004. IPS data for 2004 do not, therefore, represent a full calendar year. Table 4:3 shows that the ONS estimates for the complete period of the acclaimed largest mass migration in peace-time Europe (Finch, 2010), covering the crucial five years between 2004 and 2008, were overwhelmingly, and sometimes fully, based on a total of just 432 inflow and 166 outflow IPS A8 interviews. Interview data were adjusted, weighted and grossed up to produce official short and long-term estimates. Indeed, the news releases in August 2009 concerning the estimates for 2008, which were so well reported, were based solely on 115 inflow and 91 outflow interviews (ONS, 2010a). On this matter, the ONS stated: “These sample contacts [interviews] need to be grossed to represent total estimates. This is done by using a complex weighting system”, and added “Even where the sample size allows individual country estimates to be produced,

it is often not possible to say that a change in the estimate from one year to the next is real or not.” (ONS, 2009a, pp. 19 - 20)

The UK Treasury Parliamentary Select Committee (PSC) raised many concerns about the IPS sample size in its inquiry report into ‘Counting the Population’. For example, it stated:

... the IPS statistics on migration were based on interviews with 2,965 people who entered the United Kingdom and 781 people who left [2005 calendar year]. This was a very small sample and suggests why there were large uncertainties surrounding the official migration numbers. In addition, it is difficult for the survey to keep pace with the dramatic change in the pattern of arrivals seen in recent years, for example in the change in movements between the UK and A8 countries. In 2005, only 94 citizens of the A8 countries were interviewed (PSC, 2008. para. 63).

The ONS stated that the IPS is a random survey and as such “the estimates are subject to a degree of uncertainty” (ONS, 2009a, p. 7). In addition, the surveys took place at “United Kingdom air and sea ports and the Channel Tunnel” (ONS, 2009a, p. 4). However, the international terminals used for conducting the IPS were considered by Migration Watch to be unrepresentative and resulted in inaccurate estimates, particularly in respect of Eastern Europeans. This contention was based on the understanding that the IPS interviews were not conducted at airports used by budget airlines and excluded passengers arriving by coach; both methods of transit were seen to be heavily used by A8 migrants (Migration Watch, 2007).

The ONS datasets (ONS, 2010a) recorded the IPS flow figures by route and, in the main, confirmed the concerns expressed by Migration Watch. For example, during the 1990s and well before the A8 accession date, on average 87 per cent of all IPS inflow interviews were conducted at Heathrow airport. However, the percentage of IPS interviews at Heathrow increase to an average of 92 per cent of all IPS interviews during the four years following the A8 accession in 2004. In 2008, the percentage of interviews conducted at Heathrow fell to 86 per cent, due principally to an increase in the number of IPS interviews at Stansted and Luton airports. As an example of IPS interview flow routes, Table 4:4 sets out the IPS flow figures and percentages for 2005, the first complete year following A8 accession (ONS, 2010a).

Table 4:4: IPS interviews by route for 2005

Number of International Passenger Interviews by Route for 2005					
Route	Inflow	%	Outflow	%	Total IPS
All Routes	2965	100.0	781	100	3746
Heathrow	2740	92.4	608	77.8	3348
Gatwick	67	2.3	39	5.0	106
Manchester	27	0.9	33	4.2	60
Stansted & Luton	37	1.3	18	2.3	55
Other Airports	51	1.7	39	5.0	90
Sea and Channel Tunnel	43	1.5	44	5.6	87

Data source: ONS, 2010a.

It is very clear from Table 4:4 that Heathrow airport was overwhelmingly the main venue for IPS interviews. According to the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA, 2010) Heathrow is the largest international UK airport and well suited to fulfilling the original tourism and business purpose of the IPS system. An analysis of British Airports Authority (BAA) data (2010) revealed that it was possible to fly by direct scheduled flights from Heathrow airport to 176 international and 7 domestic destinations. Importantly for IPS random sampling, only three of these Heathrow destinations are in

A8 countries, namely Hungary (Budapest), The Czech Republic (Prague) and Poland (Warsaw) (BAA Heathrow, 2010).

The major economy air carriers servicing routes between the UK and A8 Eastern European countries, such as Ryanair and Wizzair, did not fly from Heathrow (Ryanair, 2010b; Wizzair, 2010). Again this tends to support the concerns of Migration Watch (2007) that the wrong international terminals were used for IPS interviews to monitor A8 migration. Data from the Department for Transport UK (DfT, 2009) showed that Ryanair handled more international traffic than any other carrier flying from or to the UK. It operated solely to European destinations, with the exception of a few holiday locations in Morocco and the Canary Islands. It is interesting to note that in 2008 Ryanair carried 57.6 million passengers, whilst British Airways totalled 27.6 million worldwide. Indeed, Ryanair increased its year-on-year European traffic flow to 72.5 million by the twelve months to October, 2010 (DfT, 2009; Ryanair, 2010a).

Ryanair became, by far, the largest carrier of air passengers between the UK and the A8 countries. It was the most significant aviation player in the A8 migration flows that commenced following the 2004 EU enlargement (CAA, 2010). Ryanair flew from 10 UK airports to 15 destinations servicing all A8 countries. Seven of these UK airports were grouped together by the ONS (2010a) and classed as 'Other Airports'. During 2008, a total of 3.54 million international passengers flew to or from A8 countries to these 'Other Airports' (CAA, 2010). The ONS undertook just 30 inflow and 9 outflow IPS migrant interviews at these airports in 2008.

The ONS combined the IPS interview data from Stansted and Luton airports for reporting purposes (ONS, 2010a). These two airports handled just under 4 million A8 passengers in 2008. A total of 62 inflow and 39 outflow migrant passengers completed IPS interviews at these airports (ONS, 2010f). This relatively small number represented 49 per cent of all IPS A8 migrant interviews undertaken in 2008 by air passengers.

A detailed examination of Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) datasets (2010) and the Department for Transport (DfT) aviation statistics, 2009, revealed comparative figures for all international air passenger traffic between the UK and the A8 countries. Table 4:5 sets out the combined CAA (2010) and DfT (2009) data to provide a full account of A8 air passenger traffic during the 2008 calendar year, reorganised under the airport headings employed by the IPS (ONS 2010a).

Table 4:5

Air Passenger Scheduled Traffic for A8 Countries in 2008 (UK)										
A8 Countries	Heathrow	%	Gatwick	%	Stansted & Luton	%	Other Airports	%	Total	% all A8
Czech Rep.	425,644	23.49	214,187	11.82	425,826	23.50	746,043	41.18	1,811,700	18.55
Estonia	0	0	63,750	40.65	93,077	59.35	0	0	156,827	1.61
Hungary	255,524	23.34	229,890	21.00	386,260	35.29	222,902	20.36	1,094,576	11.21
Latvia	0	0	82,558	17.78	208,214	44.85	173,460	37.36	464,232	4.75
Lithuania	0	0	124,949	34.91	204,162	57.05	28,768	8.04	357,879	3.66
Poland	249,067	4.97	419,278	8.36	2,240,357	44.66	2,107,364	42.01	5,016,066	51.35
Slovak Rep.	0	0	145,885	20.74	303,142	43.10	254,317	36.16	703,344	7.20
Slovenia	0	0	56,853	34.84	96,679	59.25	9,635	5.90	163,167	1.67
Total	930,235	9.52	1,337,350	13.69	3,957,717	40.52	3,542,489	36.27	9,767,791	100

Table and calculations by IHJ, 2010. Original source data from: CAA, 2010 and DfT, 2009.

The figures in Table 4:5 were based on actual passenger numbers, not estimates, (CAA, 2010; DfT, 2009) and were reorganised to reveal their correlation with the IPS interview

airport and A8 country of destination or origination. The concerns of Migration Watch (2007) are generally supported by the fact that in 2008, of the 9.76 million A8 air passengers, over 40 per cent passed through Stansted or Luton airports compared with 9.5 per cent through Heathrow (CAA, 2010; DfT, 2009). However, 86 per cent of IPS inflow interviews and 85 per cent of outflow interviews took place at Heathrow. This compared with 5.68 per cent inflow and 4.75 per cent outflow IPS interviews at Stansted and Luton in 2008 (ONS, 2010a).

Table 4:5 also reveals that in 2008 more than half of all A8 air passengers were individuals travelling from or to destinations within Poland; a total of over 5 million passengers. From this total, 2.24 million travelled through Stansted or Luton airport. However, only 29 outflow and 44 inflow IPS migrant interviews were conducted (Table 4:7).

The PSC was critical of the IPS and stated that it had been difficult for it to keep pace with the changes in immigration patterns, particularly for movements between the UK and A8 countries (PSC, 2008). The 'dramatic change' in immigration referred to by the PSC is well illustrated by the international air passenger movements published by the Department for Transport (DfT, 2009). For example, it can be seen from Table 4:6 that during the six years before the 2004 EU enlargement the number of air passenger movements between the UK and Poland remained relatively constant and averaged 475,000 per year. From 2004, the number increased significantly year-on-year so that by 2008 there were in excess of 5 million passengers travelling these routes. This represents over a 1,000 per cent increase in air passenger movements between the UK and Poland from 1998 to 2008. During the same period the air passenger movements between the UK and all A8 countries increased from 1.5 million in 1998 to 9.8 million by

2008. The comparison between the rapid growth in A8 air passenger movements, as reported by the DfT (2009) and exemplified in Table 4:6, and the IPS data set out in Table 4:3 and Table 4:4, substantiate the concerns expressed by the PSC inquiry (PSC, 2008) and Migration Watch (2007).

Table 4:6

Passenger Movements - UK and Poland by Air											
1998 – 2008											
Year	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Thousands	419	499	498	453	467	516	998	1,845	3,328	4,352	5,023

Source data: Department for Transport – Aviation 2009

Migration Watch also raised serious concerns about the exclusion from IPS interviews of migrants travelling to or from the UK by coach. Migration Watch held that A8 migrants relied heavily upon the international coach system, but were not recorded or surveyed (Migration Watch 2007). The DfT confirmed that it does not collect data on A8 citizens travelling by international coach routes (DfT, 2010). Although, therefore, no national data are available, it is interesting to note the example of just one of the many international coach companies operating routes to Eastern and Central Europe. Eurolines, a part of National Express, runs many daily coach services to Eastern Europe. Just from Victoria Coach Station in London, it operates daily services to 44 destinations in Poland (Eurolines, 2010).

To examine the concerns raised by Migration Watch, the PSC and, to some extent, the ONS about the reliability and effectiveness of the IPS as a tool for measuring migration flows, Table 4:7 was produced from unpublished ONS primary data (ONS, 2010f). It records the airport and citizenship of each IPS A8 migrant interviewee entering or leaving the UK during the 2008 calendar year.

Table 4:7

International Passenger Survey (IPS) Interviews with A8 Citizens by Route for 2008														
		Air Routes					Totals		Other Routes		Totals All Routes			
		Heathrow	Gatwick	Stansted Luton	Other Airports	Total by Air		All Sea Routes	Channel Tunnel	Total All Routes	% of In/Out	Country Total	Country	
						In	Out							
Czech Rep.	In	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0			
	Out	0	0	2	1		3	0	0		3	03.3	3	01.5
Estonia	In	0	0	1	1	2		0	0	2		01.7		
	Out	1	0	0	0		1	0	0		1	01.1	3	01.5
Hungary	In	3	4	6	1	14		0	0	14		12.2		
	Out	2	1	2	0		5	0	0		5	05.5	19	09.2
Latvia	In	0	2	4	2	8		0	0	8		07.0		
	Out	1	0	0	0		1	0	0		1	01.1	9	04.4
Lithuania	In	2	0	4	1	7		1	0	8		07.0		
	Out	0	0	1	1		2	0	0		2	02.2	10	04.8
Poland	In	1	2	44	23	70		4	2	76		66.1		
	Out	6	3	29	4		42	13	12		67	73.6	143	69.4
Slovak Rep	In	1	0	3	2	6		1	0	7		06.1		
	Out	0	0	5	3		8	1	2		11	12.1	18	08.7
Slovenia	In	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0		0		
	Out	0	0	0	0		0	0	1		1	01.1	1	00.5
Total In		7	8	62	30	107		6	2	115		100		
Total Out		10	4	39	9		62	14	15	91		100		
% of A8 IPS	In	06.1	07.0	53.9	26.1	93.0		05.2	01.7	100				
	Out	11.0	04.4	42.9	09.9	68.1		15.4	16.5	100				
A8 IPS	All	17	12	101	39	169		20	17	206			206	
% A8 IPS	All	08.3	05.8	49.0	18.9	82.0		09.7	08.3	100			100	

Table data calculated by IHJ from ONS (2010f) Primary Data MigStatsUnit.

The very small number of IPS interviews conducted, especially in respect of individual A8 countries, supports the contention of the ONS that the small sample sizes often meant that it was not possible to determine whether a change in estimates from one year to the next was real or not (ONS, 2009a). This is the case for A8 countries,

especially the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovenia with three or less IPS migrant interviews conducted during the whole of 2008. The IPS interviews at country level (Table 4:7) bring into sharp focus many of the issues raised about the effectiveness of the IPS as a measuring tool for international migration. For instance, there were 1.8 million air passenger movements between the UK and the Czech Republic in 2008, yet no IPS inflow and only three outflow interviews of migrants were conducted. At Heathrow airport in 2008 there were 425,644 A8 passenger traffic movements to or from the Czech Republic (Table 4.5), but no IPS migrant interviews were conducted (Table 4:7). Moreover during 2008, the CAA recorded 930,235 passengers arriving or departing from Heathrow airport from or to destinations in A8 countries (Table 4:5), yet just 7 inflow and 10 outflow IPS migration interviews were conducted.

In summary, the ONS grosses these small number of IPS interviews by employing a recondite weighting system to produce national immigration and emigration estimates and migration trends.

The UK Treasury Parliamentary Select Committee (PSC) inquiry into 'Counting the Population' was motivated by concerns raised in the House of Commons, by Local Authorities and others about the adequacy of population statistics. In its recommendation, it stated "We are seriously concerned about the reliability and validity of ONS estimates of short-term international migrants"(PSC, 2008, par. 84) and summarised its specific concerns about the IPS:

We raise concern about use of the International Passenger Survey in estimating international migration. We conclude that the Survey is not fit for this new

purpose and recommend that the Statistics Authority replace the International Passenger Survey with a new Survey that is more comprehensive and more suited to the accurate measurement of international movements affecting the size of the resident population of the United Kingdom (PSC, 2008, Summary).

4.5 Labour Force Survey and National Insurance Registration

Neither the Labour Force Survey (LFS) nor the National Insurance Number registrations (NINo) was conceived as or designed for producing data suitable for informing national ethnicity and international migration estimates. The data produced were captured to form part of the “combination of data from different sources ... in order to produce estimates of international migration (ONS, 2009a, p.3).

The LFS was defined by EU Regulations and the findings were required to be submitted each quarter to the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat) (ONS, 2006b). The ONS was invested with the responsibility for conducting the LFS. The main purpose of the LFS was described by the ONS as “to provide the information needed to help the Government decide its economic (especially labour market) policy” (ONS, 2006b, p.7). This was to be achieved by “... a survey of households in the UK that provides information about people’s employment status and condition” (ONS, 2003d). The ONS described nine other significant users of the LFS data. Only one touched on ethnic issues, but none on immigration or emigration:

Equal opportunities – we can use the survey to analyse people’s position in the labour market for different age, sex, ethnic, religious and disability groups. This can help identify groups experiencing discrimination (ONS, 2006b, p. 8).

The LFS was a survey based on a large random sample of private households throughout the UK. Involvement in the LFS was voluntary and between 25 and 30 per cent of households refused to take part. Of those households taking part, about 30 per cent of the LFS data was collected by proxy (ONS, 2006b). As the LFS only surveyed private addresses:

It excludes most of those living in communal establishments (local authority homes, housing association homes / hostels, hotels, boarding houses, hostels amongst others) – this was 802,000 adults in 1991. ... [it] excludes just over one per cent of the GB population (Woodbridge, 2005, p. 9).

A weighting process was employed to account for those who refused to take part or where interviewers were unable to make contact with the selected household.

The ONS undertook three revision exercises to improve the weighting process and explained:

LFS data were 're-weighted,' so that the survey reflects more up to date information on the socio-demographic characteristics of the UK population. The third of these re-weighted estimates took on board estimates for the 2001 Census and resulting revisions to earlier years (ONS, 2006b, p. 12).

In essence, the weighting process was recalibrated to reflect the 2001 Census estimates. The reliability of the census estimates is discussed above.

As part of the LFS, information was collected from participants about their nationality, citizenship and ethnicity. The LFS questionnaires for 2005, 2006 and 2007 required

specific information about the interviewee's nationality, country of birth and year of arrival in the UK (ONS, 2005 / 2006c / 2007). The questionnaire for 2008 was more complex, requiring additional information about the year of first arrival in the UK, the year and month of last arrival and the continuity of residence. It further asked for details about the country of birth of both parents (ONS, 2008e). By 2009, the questions about the parents' country of birth had been dropped, but in 2010 a section was introduced that required details of the reasons for coming to the UK (ONS, 2010e). The scope of the questions in the nationality, citizenship and ethnicity section had broadened since 2007 to elicit more information about international migrants. The ONS used the more detailed migration data to compare the IPS data with that gained from the LFS. This, it claimed, revealed:

There are some immigrants who will live at their intended destination for only a short period of time before moving elsewhere. In particular, IPS data show a greater proportion of immigrants stating London as their destination compared with either the LFS or Census data. ... The geographical distribution of immigrants who were recorded entering the UK by the IPS can therefore be improved with the use of the LFS (ONS, 2009a).

The Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) in 2009 also used evidence from the LFS to inform its inquiry, requested by the government, concerning the extension of the WRS. It reported that from the second quarter of 2005 to the end of 2008, immigrants from the A8 countries were more likely to be employed than UK-born workers or other immigrants. Unlike the WRS, the LFS data included the self-employed (MAC, 2009). The MAC report did not provide information about the sample size or the number of households that refused to take part.

Unlike the LFS and the IPS, which were based on sample surveys, National Insurance numbers are generally required by all individuals over the age of 16. The National Insurance registers record an individual's National Insurance contributions and social security benefit transactions.

The Parliamentary Select Committee (PSC) drew attention to the National Insurance requirements concerning non-UK born individuals and provided a full but succinct account of the regulations in its report to the House of Commons. It stated:

New numbers are issued to all non-UK born nationals aged 16 or over working, planning to work or claiming benefits legally in the UK, regardless of how long the individuals intend to stay. The following are excluded: *Dependants of National Insurance Number applicants, unless they work or claim benefits; * Individuals from overseas not working, planning to work, or claim benefits – for example, this will include many students; * Migrants who are not of working age if not claiming benefits; and *Those with an existing National Insurance Number, for example returning UK nationals. ... There is no requirement to de-register on leaving the country. Therefore the figures do not show the number of foreign nationals working or claiming benefit at any given point nor do they distinguish between long and short term migrants (PSC, 2008, para. 40 – 42).

It is evident from the PSC statement above that the NINo register has limitations as a tool for measuring the actual number of A8 migrants in the country at any one time. However, it does provide another source of migration information that can be employed to compare with or modify estimates from other sources. For example, MAC, 2009, drew a comparison between the A8 WRS applicants from April 2004 to December

2008 and the total of National Insurance numbers allocated to A8 nationals between April, 2004 and September, 2008. For the periods specified, MAC reported that 926,000 WRS applications were approved, whilst 1.24 million National Insurance numbers were allocated (MAC, 2009).

The Bank of England, when giving evidence to the PSC inquiry, raised concerns about the risk of population estimates under-recording the true population (PSC, 2008). The PSC reflected the views of MAC (2009) when it compared the A8 National Insurance registrations with those of the IPS and the WRS for the period between mid-2004 and mid-2006. The PSC reported:

Official population data suggested [IPS]... there was a gross inflow of 151,000 A8 citizens into the UK ... a net inflow of 131,000. However, 433,000 A8 nationals registered for work under the Worker Registration Scheme (WRS) and had their applications approved. Over the same period, just over 400,000 National Insurance Numbers were issued to people from A8 countries (PSC, 2008, para. 65).

The PSC commented that the IPS estimates appeared to many users “to be implausibly low when contrasted with administrative data such as National Insurance Numbers” (PSC, 2008, para. 79).

The National Insurance registration system is conducted by the Department of Works and Pensions (DWP). Its registers document the actual number of individuals allocated a unique National Insurance number. The records show that between April 2004 and March 2010 over 1.48 million A8 nationals applied for and received a National

Insurance number. This represented 39 per cent of all registration by adult overseas nationals entering the UK, the largest percentage of any group of countries. For the same period, the number of registrations for all immigrants from Asia and the Middle East totalled 891,040, which represented 24 per cent of all overseas national registrations and was the second most numerous for a group of countries (DWP, 2010). For the financial years from 2004/05 until 2008/09, Poland recorded the most registrations of any overseas country. From April, 2004 until March, 2010, 867,590 citizens of Poland registered. This was the largest number for any country, with India following in second position with 311,750 registrations for the same period (DWP, 2010)

The National Insurance numbers taken from the DWP datasets (DWP, 2010) represent a minimum total of A8 immigrants, as they clearly do not include A8 nationals exempt from registration. However, analysis of DWP datasets do provide support for the concerns of the PSC (2008), MAC (2009), Coleman (2008) and the Bank of England (2008) about the reliability of official immigration and emigration estimates.

4.6 Conclusion

The Decennial Census, the International Passenger Survey and the Labour Force Survey collected data which were then adjusted, weighted and grossed-up to produce population and migration estimates. The main and sometimes sole data informing very precise migration estimates were based on an indefensibly small number of unrepresentative International Passenger Surveys. It is not surprising to find that the Parliamentary Select Committee found the system 'unfit for the new purpose'.

The National Insurance Register and the Worker Registration Scheme recorded and published actual registration figures, not estimates. However, registration relied on the motivation and willingness of individuals to participate and only those who wished to work within the legal system or claim benefits were compelled to register. The questionable accuracy and reliability of these systems for producing migration estimates and trends reflects the fact that each was designed to fulfil a different task that was unrelated to migration data collecting.

Chapter 5

School census and ethnicity

5.1 School census and pupil characteristics

The School Census, however, was quite different. Maintained schools in England were required by law to conduct the Census and to include every pupil. The subjects of the Census, the pupils and those with parental responsibility, had no control over what information was collected, its accuracy or how it was used (Education Act 1996: § 537A). The School Census therefore was compulsory and conducted with a ‘captive’ population. The Census recorded information about each individual child, including their characteristics, ethnicity, periods in-care, special needs status, entitlement to free school meals, academic development and socio-economic circumstances. The published data were presented as actual numbers or facts, not estimates (DfE, 2010a / 2010b; Monaghan, 2007; Morris, 2001; ONS, 2003b)

The Unique Pupil Number (UPN), which was assigned to each pupil on commencing schooling, enabled the School Census information and the individual pupil academic records held on the National Pupil Database (NPD) to be linked. It was intended that

these national datasets would contain a complete and accurate body of information about each individual pupil attending a maintained school in England. (DfE, 2010a; Gorard, See, and Smith 2008; Morris, 2001; Royal Society, 2008).

In theory at least, the Census datasets contained full and accurate information about the ethnic background and first language of every individual pupil. Potentially, this provided a complete record for tracking individual pupil migrants from the A8 countries. Moreover, each pupil was identifiable by both name and UPN, together with the school attended and home postcode (DfE, 2010a; DfES, 2003).

The DfE expected the School Census returns to be complete, totally error free and with no missing cases. It pronounced:

Both LAs and the DfE expect there to be zero errors on the Census return. The only exception to this is where a software bug generates an error that cannot be fixed or circumvented and an agreement has been reached between the LAs and the DfE that the error is acceptable (DfE, 2010a, p. 17).

School Census guidance from the Department for Education was very clear. As a statutory requirement, schools did not need to obtain parental or pupil consent to the provision of information and the Act ensured schools were protected from any legal challenge that they were breaching a duty of confidence to pupils. Additionally, its statutory nature ensured that returns were completed by schools (DfE 2010a, p.7). The Data Protection Act (1998), a complex area of law, did not restrict the collection of data, but gave some rights to those about whom the data was held. This included the right to

know the type of data recorded, why it was being held and to whom it might be communicated (DfE, 2010b).

It was the eventual plan that all individual pupil information would be automatically obtained from the schools' own databases without any teacher involvement. In February 2001, the Secretary of State for education, Estelle Morris, responded to a written parliamentary question that was seeking clarification about the introduction of the UPN and its relationship with the School Census. Morris stated:

The Department intends to create a central pupil database containing statistical profiles for all pupils in the maintained schools sector in England. Information relating to each pupil will be collated mainly by means of a "unique pupil number" (UPN) allocated to them when they first enter school. This database will track pupils' progress from Key Stage to Key Stage and relate this to contextual information about them. The information that it provides ... will make a major contribution to the drive to raise standards, and to monitoring the achievements of ethnic minority and other potentially vulnerable groups. ... The backbone of the database will be the "pupil level Annual Schools' Census" (PLASC) to be conducted in January of each year and providing information for each pupil individually referenced by their UPN ... It is expected that all maintained primary, middle, secondary and special schools in England will be making PLASC returns from January 2002 onwards. (Morris, 2001)

Prior to 2002, schools completed an Annual Schools' Census (or "Form 7") that simply required school totals, not individual pupil information. Form 7 was replaced in 2002 by the Pupil Level Annual Schools' Census (PLASC). This evolved into the School Census

(pupil level) that was conducted three times per year (DfE, 2010a; Morris, 2001; ONS, 2003b; Royal Society, 2008).

The legislation enabling a school census was enacted under the Education Act of 1996 and gave considerable powers to the Secretary of State for Education. The Act required schools “to provide to the relevant person such individual pupil information as may be prescribed” (§ 537A / 1). The ‘relevant person’ was defined in the Act as the Secretary of State, and any prescribed person. The Secretary of State took powers to enable any individual pupil information to be provided to any information collator, to any prescribed person, or to any person falling within a prescribed category. Additionally, any information collator could provide individual pupil information to the governing body of the school attended by the pupil. The Act defined ‘individual pupil information’ as information relating to and identifying individual pupils or former pupils at any school covered by the Act, irrespective of the methods used to collect the information. The Act did not define the ‘individual pupil information that may be prescribed’ (Education Act 1996: § 537A).

The School Census, however, did not include all schools. The guidance from the Department for Education in 2010 stated:

In 2010 the arrangements for School Census will include nursery, primary, middle deemed primary, secondary, including middle deemed secondary, CTCs, academies and special schools (including non-maintained special schools) and hospital special schools and, on a voluntary basis, Service Children’s Education

schools. The maintained sector covers England only ... There are no plans for independent school participation in the 2010 School Census (DfE 2010a. p. 6).

It is clear from this statement that independent schools were exempt from the Census. The Independent Schools Council (ISC) commissioned its own Census in 2010 and revealed that over 7 per cent of all school children in England attended an independent school. Moreover, the figure rose to more than 18 per cent of all pupils in England over 16 years of age (ICS, 2010). The Education Act (1996) made it possible to require “the proprietor of every independent school to provide to the relevant person such individual pupil information as may be prescribed” (§ 537A / 1b). By 2010, no Secretary of State for education had invoked this subsection of the Act (DfE, 2010a). This action, therefore, meant that the School Census datasets did not represent a complete picture of pupils in England.

In addition to pupils attending independent schools, other groups of pupils were exempt from the School Census. To make the Census more inclusive, the original 1996 Act was amended. For example, the Education and Inspections Act (2006) added individual pupil information for “children receiving publicly-funded education outside school” (§ 164), and the Education and Skills Act (2008) further extended the potential scope of the Census to include “relevant part-time educational institutions as they apply in relation to an independent school” (§ 537AA).

The provision for collecting, providing and storing individual pupil information resulted in specific exception, which increased further the cases of missing data. One example related to the adoption of children. The Children, Schools and Families (CSF) Act (2010)

placed restrictions on the publication of adoption information. The CSF Act defined this to mean “information the publication of which is likely to lead one or more persons to identify a person as (i) a prospective adopter of a child, (ii) a person who has adopted a child, or (iii) a person who has been, or may be, adopted, or to identify the whereabouts of a person identified as a person within sub-paragraphs (i), (ii) or (iii)” (Ch. 26 § 2).

The DfE School Census guidance on adopted children was unambiguous: “Please note that adopted pupils should have new UPNs and no link to their former UPNs” (DfE, 2010a, p. 27). This break in the individual pupil information chain made any tracking of an adopted child throughout the whole period of their schooling impossible. Estimates derived from the ONS (2010g) Adopted Children Register indicated that in 2010 there were over 61,000 adopted children between the ages of 5 and 16 years within the education system.

The CSF Act also placed similar publication restrictions on ‘affected persons’ resulting from ‘parental orders’. This referred to a parental order under the Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act 1990 and 2008 (CSF Act, 2010). Other categories excluded from the School Census included private, voluntary and independent (PVI) Early Years settings, Alternative Provision and Pupil Referral Units (DfE, 2010a).

The scale of missing cases in the data was discussed by Gorard, 2010, in ‘Serious doubts about school effectiveness’. He contended:

There are missing cases in the data, some by design, such as those 7% of pupils attending private schools and those educated at home. In addition, there will be a small number of cases in transition between schools or who may otherwise not be in, or registered for, a school. Further, although both the PLASC and NPD databases ostensibly contain records for all other pupils, in some years around 10% of the individual records are unmatched across two databases (Gorard, 2010, pp. 748 - 749).

Gorard, 2010, provided examples where nearly 10 per cent of Key Stage 4 cohort records could not be matched to the same pupils' Key Stage 2 PLASC/NPD records. He drew attention to cases where there was a high proportion of missing values. For example, 80,278 values, which should have recorded whether a pupil was in-care, were missing, and 75,944 were missing a code for free school meal (FSM) eligibility, representing more than 11 per cent of cases. Gorard concluded:

If we delete from the 2007 PLASC/NPD all cases missing data on FSM, in-care, special needs, sex and/or ethnicity data, then the database drops in size to 577,115 pupils (or 85% of its apparent size, which was already itself incomplete ... it is probable that less than 50% of the children of England in any cohort have a record in all relevant databases that is complete in terms of all key variables ... It is clear that missing data are a huge problem for any analysis of PLASC/NPD. ... In practice, missing cases are simply ignored and missing values are replaced with a default substitute – usually the mean score or modal category (and male for sex of pupil) (Gorard, 2010, pp. 749 – 750).

It is evident that missing School Census and NPD data and errors reduced the overall robustness of the enumerations published by the DfE and compromised any calculations derived from them. Indeed, Gorard (2010) held that in some cases these errors propagate through the computation processes and make calculations derived from them rather meaningless (Gorard, 2010).

Clearly, the School Census was not a reliable and straightforward head count, combined with accurate and factual individual pupil information. The DfE School Census guidance (2010a) states “Accuracy of data is therefore paramount” (p. 17) and the principle was “that the data is collected once and used many times” (p. 7). The DfE therefore presumed that accurate data would be collected, recorded and submitted, the data would be collected once and used many times and that the data would be collected automatically. These presumptions were considered to be the “business drivers behind the School Census 2010” and that “the data should be kept up to date on an event driven basis ...” (DfE, 2010a, p. 7).

However, incorrect information recorded once and used many times simply propagated the error indefinitely and contaminated all additional information added over time and undermined all subsequent calculations and research. Gorard (2010) called this never ending process ‘error propagation’. In 2008, Gorard et al. had drawn attention to the questionable reliability of the PLASC/NPD when they stated:

The growing NPD/PLASC dataset is probably the best single source, and most of its drawbacks are inherent in research of this kind. However much care is taken in assembling the datasets, not all cases are included, not all included cases have

values for all variables, and their collection depends on the actions of thousands of individuals at classroom, school and authority level. Not all cases can be matched across NPD and PLASC” (Gorard et al., 2008, p. 12).

There was here expressed a clear variance between the legal intention, supported by the uncompromising directives of the DfES (2003a) and the DfE (2010a), and the reality as perceived by Gorard et al. (2008) and Gorard (2010). Were Gorard et al. (2008) proved correct, then, by implication, the credibility of all enumerations, calculations and research based on the Census data would be brought into question. Concerns over the validity of the School Census statistics were particularly evident in such areas as Gifted and Talented (G&T), Special Educational Needs (SEN) and ethnicity.

5.2 Gifted and Talented

In June 2010 the introduction to the DfE publication ‘Schools, Pupils, and their Characteristics’ stated, “Figures presented in this commentary are based upon final information collected in the School Census in January 2010” (DfE, 2010f). The report summarised the Census returns for Gifted and Talented:

In maintained primary schools there were 365,870 pupils in the Gifted and Talented cohort, an increase from 353,210 in 2009, and representing 8.9 per cent of the school population ... In state-funded secondary schools there were 477,240 pupils in the Gifted and Talented cohort, an increase from 466,820 in 2009, and representing 14.7 per cent of the school population (DfE, 2010f).

The commentary by the DfE presented these statistics as meaningful facts, sufficient to be used to calculate the precise percentage of Gifted and Talented pupils in both

primary and secondary schools and to measure year-on-year variations. However, Monaghan (2007) in 'Gifted and Talented statistics: PLASC data and EAL' raised concerns about the veracity of the Census returns and made particularly poignant comments about the identification of Gifted and Talented pupils:

We have to build in some large caveats about the validity of the [G&T] statistics: judgments are made by individual schools and relate to their particular students being compared with each other as opposed to a set of specific, agreed and coherent criteria applied uniformly and reliably across all schools. Some schools identify students as G&T on the basis of quantifiable exam scores and/or performance level (e.g. membership of a national sports team or orchestra), others use more qualitative judgments (e.g. leadership, perseverance) Some schools adopt a policy of identifying 10% of the student body as a whole, some schools identify 10% of students from each ethnic group (Monaghan, 2007, p. 1).

In addition to the concerns over missing and erroneous Census returns, Gorard et al. (2008), like Monaghan, expressed disquiet about the integrity of Gifted and Talented statistics:

Whether a student is flagged as gifted and talented is a far from rigorous procedure. Not all schools have identified any students (believing the scheme to be elitist), and those participating have used different approaches to identification. The identification is relative to the intake to each school (perhaps the most able 5% to 10% as suggested by prior attainment scores) and so a student might be deemed gifted and talented at one school but not at another (Gorard et al., 2008, p.10).

The government provided guidance for schools and parents to assist them in interpreting Gifted and Talented. The guidance offered very general definitions without clear criteria. For example, it suggested “ ‘Gifted and talented’ describes children and young people with an ability to develop to a level significantly ahead of their year group (or with the potential to develop those abilities)” (Directgov, 2010). The DfE confirmed many of the opinions of Gorard et al. and Monaghan that it was for individual schools to determine criteria for identifying Gifted and Talented pupils (DfE, 2010h).

The DfE expected there to be zero errors in the Census returns and stated that the accuracy of data is paramount (DfE, 2010a). In technical terms, the Census software might not have identified any validation errors in a school’s return, principally because the school ensured that all values for Gifted and Talented were appropriately completed. However, as Monaghan and Gorard et al. indicated, the information recorded, whilst not generating a validation error or query, had no logical meaning beyond the bounds of each individual school. In consequence, combining these parochial returns to produce precise national enumerations and calculations was, as proffered by Gorard, ‘somewhat meaningless’.

5.3 Special Educational Needs

Like those for Gifted and talented, the Census statistics for special educational needs were also an area of concern. In 2005, the DfES published ‘Data Collection by Type of Special Educational Need’. This publication was designed to provide support to schools

and local authorities for recording pupils' needs in the Pupil Level Annual School Census. The publication stated:

Since January 2004 we have collected information about the numbers of pupils in the country with different types of special educational need (SEN) as part of PLASC. The data is used to help with planning, to study trends and to monitor the outcomes of initiatives and interventions for pupils with different types of SEN (DfES, 2005a, p. 2).

The guidance provided descriptions of the four main areas of SEN and their subdivisions as defined by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). Where a pupil had more than one need, schools were required to record in the Census the primary need followed by the secondary need. However, for pupils at the 'School Action' stage it was only necessary to record that a pupil had a special educational need. (DfES, 2005a; DfE, 2010g). Gorard, 2010, expressed reservations over SEN assessment statistics:

Special educational needs, for example, are represented by a variable having three possible sources (School Action, Action Plus, or a statement). Some of these are the responsibility of the school and some are sensitive to the actions of parents motivated to gain extra time in examinations for their children. The number of pupils with recorded SEN shows huge variation over years in the same schools and appears in very different proportions in different parts of England (Gorard, 2010, p. 751: quoting Gorard et al, 2003).

The audit Commission report 'Special Educational Needs, 2002', was concerned that "... most needs are not 'clear cut': for a significant majority of special needs there are no medical tests and different professionals may reach differing conclusions as to the

underlying cause for SEN” (p. 8). Ofsted (2010) considered that as many as half of all pupils identified for SEN School Action were only identified because schools had not focussed sufficiently on improving teaching and learning. Indeed, one of the key findings of the report recommended that the system should concentrate on “ensuring that schools do not identify pupils as having special educational needs when they simply need better teaching” (Ofsted, 2010). In 2010, Ofsted published a report ‘Special Educational Needs and Disability Review’ in which it drew attention to the inconsistency in SEN assessment:

At present [2010], the term ‘special educational needs’ is used too widely. ... Inspectors saw schools that identified pupils as having special educational needs when, in fact, their needs were no different from those of most other pupils. ... A conclusion that may be drawn from this is that some pupils are being wrongly identified as having special educational needs and that relatively expensive additional provision is being used to make up for poor day-to-day teaching and pastoral support. ... we should not only move away from the current system of categories of needs but also start to think critically about the way terms are used. ... Beyond the children with the most severe needs, assessment of special educational needs were found to be inconsistent both within and between local areas. Children with similar needs were being assessed as requiring different levels of additional support (Ofsted, 2010, pp. 9 – 10).

These clear statements by Ofsted in 2010 raised serious doubts about the accuracy of special educational needs assessments. The inaccuracies outlined had implications for School Census enumeration and calculation, and research based on them. Moreover,

these concerns were not new. In 2004, Ofsted published 'Special educational needs and disability: towards inclusion', which stated:

There are wide variations in the number of pupils defined as having SEN in different schools and LEAs. The criteria used by schools in the more general identification of pupils with SEN – that is, those assessed as requiring 'school action' or 'school action plus' ... vary considerably, as does the application of criteria for determining eligibility for a statement ... The inconsistency with which pupils are defined as having SEN continues to be a concern. Some schools use the term to cover all who are low-attaining, or simply below average, on entry, whether or not the cause is learning difficulty (Ofsted, 2004, p. 10).

Ofsted's long-term concerns over the inconsistency and inaccuracy of SEN assessments, dating back at least to 2004, had major implications for the validity of School Census returns and enumerations, which were totally based on these compromised assessments.

5.4 Ethnicity and the school population

Maintained schools in England are required to collect data on the ethnic background of all pupils of compulsory school age and above, and record the information in the individual pupil section of the School Census (DfE, 2010a/c/e/f; DfES, 2003a).

In 2002, the DfE outlined the reasons for collecting ethnic data in a reassuring manner, "The information gathered will be used solely to compile statistics on the school careers and experiences of children from different ethnic backgrounds, to help ensure all

children have the opportunity to fulfil their potential” (DfE, 2010d, Sect 5). However, when the rationale for collecting ethnic data was communicated to schools by the DfE in ‘Ethnic Monitoring’ (2010), there was a change in emphasis. Terms such as ‘required’ and ‘monitor’ were introduced, whilst ‘solely’ was removed. It stated, “All schools are required to collect data on pupils’ ethnic backgrounds, to monitor the school careers and experiences of children from different backgrounds ...” (DfE, 2010i, p. 1).

The ethnic categories used by schools are determined by the DfE and were optional from January 2002, but obligatory from January 2003. In its guidance to schools in 2010, the DfE stated:

The codeset reflects categories used in the 2001 National Population Census [Decennial Census], with additional categories for Travellers of Irish heritage, pupils of Gypsy/Roma heritage and Sri Lankan Other (DfE, 2010a, p. 28).

Schools are required to use six main ethnic groups or categories: White, Mixed, Asian, Black, Chinese and Any other ethnic group. These main groups were sub-divided into 17 sub-categories, plus Unclassified. For example, under the main category of White, there were five sub-categories: White British, White Irish, Traveller of Irish heritage, Gypsy/Roma and Any other White background. Those pupils classified as other than ‘White British’ were defined as being of minority ethnic origin (DfE, 2010a; 2010f; 2010j; DfES, 2003a). Individual local authorities were able to add ethnic groups from the ‘Approved Extended Categories’. The DfE explained to schools:

If the National Population Census categories do not meet the needs of local monitoring, LAs may use the DfE approved list of extended categories. Your LA

will have decided which of the ethnic codes to use ... (DfE, 2010a, p. 28) ... It is recommended authorities avoid an unduly long list of local categories, which may over-complicate the collection process. ... For guidance purposes it is recommended that authorities do not define ethnic categories likely to contain fewer than 100 pupils within the authority as a whole across all year groups. (DfE, 2010d, Sect. 3).

Pupils originating from the A8 countries were grouped together in one ethnic category called White Eastern European (WEEU). The WEEU pupils formed one of the Approved Extended Categories. The WEEU category was subsumed within the 'Any other White background' sub-category of the main 'White' group. As a consequence, any data collected by authorities about WEEU pupils were not collated or reported by the Department for Education (DfE, 2010a; 2010d; 2010i). In 2002, there were 150 local authorities in England. Of these, 32 elected to use the Approved Extended Category of White Eastern European (DfES, 2003b).

When in 2002 the new ethnic categories were introduced, the DfES stated "All pupils must have the opportunity to define their ethnic background under the new categories" (DfE, 2010d, p. 2). It became clear that a pupil's ethnic category was not an 'indisputable fact' or based on objective criteria, such as used in the United States before 1970 (Harris and Sims, 2000), but upon pupil choice. The guidance from the DfE was quite clear:

Schools must accept the responses provided by parents or pupils. A pupil's ethnicity is personal to that pupil and the individual's decision should not be questioned. ... Ethnic background data is [*sic*] regarded as sensitive personal data

and any parent or pupil has the right to refuse to provide this information. If a parent or pupil has actively refused to provide this information schools must not record an ethnic background for that pupil. ... We recommend those with parental responsibility determine the ethnic background for children at primary school. ... The Information Commissioner (formerly the Data Protection Registrar) has advised that pupils aged 11 to 15 are sufficiently mature to determine their own ethnic background. ... The decision of a pupil aged 11 to 15 who is looked after by the LA overrides that of the authority. ... The Information Commissioner advises that pupils aged 16 and over should make their own decisions” (DfE, 2010d, Sect. 5)

Where a school anticipates that the response rate from parents or pupils would be too low for ethnic monitoring to be effective, the school can ascribe an ethnic background to an individual pupil (DfE, 2010d, Sect. 6). The school, therefore, can determine a pupil’s ethnicity, which is then recorded in the School Census and, through the use of the UPN, included in the NPD. The questionable reliability of this process is discussed above (Gorard, 2010).

The DfE considered it essential that ethnic information provided by parents and pupils should be distinguished from information ascribed by a school (DfE, 2010a). In consequence, schools were required to record the source of the ethnic background information in the School Census. There were five permitted ethnic source options for schools to use: i. Parent, ii. Pupil, iii. Ascribed by present school, iv. Ascribed by previous school, or v. ‘other or not known’ (DfE, 2010d)

In conclusion, the process endeavoured to ensure that the wishes of each pupil were paramount in determining their ethnic background and that they were entitled to change their ethnic category as and when they wished. Where a pupil or parent did not respond, the school could 'guess' the ethnic group and ascribe this to a pupil.

However, the choice of ethnic group was restricted to categories prescribed by the DfE, which inevitably presented anomalies. For example, in the 'Approved Extended Categories', White Cornish, White English, White Scottish, White Welsh and White Irish were approved as separate ethnic groups. Whilst the multifarious ethnic groups that inhabited the A8 countries, stretching from the Baltic in the north to the Adriatic in the south, were categorised as one ethnic group (WEEU). The complexities of ethnic categorization were well illustrated by Jenkins (2008) who claimed a mix of English, Irish and Welsh blood and, to complicate it further, was born in England, brought up in Ireland and made his home in Wales. His wife was Dutch-Indonesian. His children classified themselves as Irish "by dint of birth and sentiment" (p. 1), but Wales was their home country.

The requirement to determine the ethnic category of each pupil for the School Census (DfE, 2010d) raised issues about the concept of ethnicity, its relationship with racial identification, the identification process itself (particularly self-identification), and the inherent complexities of mixed ethnic heritage. These issues raised questions about the validity of the responses and the credibility of the resulting data (Perez, 2006; Root, 2008).

The term 'ethnicity' acquired different meanings and characteristics at different times and in different places. For instance, Barth saw it as "essentially a political phenomenon" (1996, p. 84), Root considered it to be "dynamic over time" (1996, p. 9), and Denton and Dean wrote about its fluid boundaries using terms such as "fluidity of identity" (2010, p.73). Indeed the word 'ethnic' was reputed to have derived from the ancient Greek 'ethnos', generally translated to mean 'people' or 'nation' (Eriksen, 2010; Jenkins, 2008). Eriksen held that ethnos originated from 'ethnikos', which meant heathen or pagan. He expounded that from the mid-fourteenth century in England, 'ethnic' referred to 'racial' characteristics, but, from the 1940s in the United States, the word 'ethnic' denoted "a polite term referring to Jews, Italians, Irish and other people considered inferior to the dominant group of largely British descent" (Eriksen, 2010, p. 46). Ethnic and ethnicity arguably had derogatory connotations and a perceived association with 'minority issues' and 'race relations' (Eriksen, 2010; Healey, 2010).

However, the concept of ethnicity or ethnic group was considered to be highly complex. Consequently, establishing an agreed definition presented considerable challenges (Field, 1996; Lindsay et al., 2006; Root, 2008; Thornton, 1996). In 1996, Field proffered "Racial / ethnic identity is a complex construct that many theorists and researchers struggle to operationalize" (p. 220). In summing up her research findings, Field stated, "If anything can be concluded from these results, it is that the relationship between various components of racial / ethnic identity is extremely complex" (p. 221). Lindsay, Pather and Strand (2006) writing about ethnicity stated, "It is made further complex by the increase in the number, and range, of children of mixed parentage. Hence, especially over generations, the notion of 'ethnicity' becomes increasingly complex" (p.18).

To compound further the challenges presented by this conceptual complexity, Hutchinson and Smith added a warning note in their preface to 'Ethnicity' (1996), "The field of ethnic phenomena, like that of nationalism, is rapidly expanding and diversifying, and it is impossible to keep up with the vast literature on every aspect of ethnicity".

A common descent and cultural heritage, whether real or imaginary, have been viewed by many theorists and researchers as essential components of ethnicity (De Vos, 1996; Jenkins, 2008; Premdas, 2010; Rossens, 1989; Smith, 2010; Webber, 2010). Thornton in 1996 contested that ethnic identity involved an "understanding and awareness of one's own and other groups", together with "symbolic elements" such as "a common ancestry and a shared history" (pp.115-116). He also considered that language, religion and political ideology, as well as friends and neighbours, played an important part in determining ethnicity. De Vos (1996) paraphrased the common elements of origin, beliefs and values as "a common cause" (p.15) in ethnicity. However, in 2008, Jenkins explored the 'basic social anthropological model of ethnicity' and commented, "ethnic identities are negotiable and the boundaries of ethnic groups imprecise ..." (p. 3).

One of the challenges concerns the distinction between race and ethnicity. Fenton, writing in 2003, discussed definitions of both race and ethnicity, "The meanings which 'race' and 'ethnic group' have had in English-language discourses are context-dependent and certainly change within the same society in response to changing social condition" (p. 50).

The difference between race and ethnicity is not clear. Race is often perceived as having biological origins, whilst ethnicity pointed to cultural origins, with ethnicity subsumed within race (Denton and Deane, 2010). In 2005, Perlmann and Waters claimed that many researchers considered race to be a subset of ethnicity. On the other hand, Winant, 2000, argued that race was the key element. Thornton (1996) separated race from ethnicity when he contended that “... ethnicity is not biologically defined, it and race are not synonymous, nor do they measure the same things” (p.104). However, Lindsay et al. (2006), whilst recognising the complexity of defining ethnicity, took a different view, “[ethnicity] concerns not only inherited biological elements, but also elements of culture” (p. 18). In 2010, Healey recorded that in the United States cultural characteristics defined ethnic groups, whilst [inherited] physical characteristics defined racial groups.

The relationship between racial and ethnic groupings has been further complicated by the main categories used for ethnicity in England (as described above: DfE, 2010a; 2010f; DfES, 2003a). These categories, in many ways, reflect the racial categories used in the United States to enforce segregation prior to the *Brown v Board of Education* (1954) legal case (Brown, 1954; Kymlicka, 2010), and in South Africa as a result of ‘The Population Registration Act’ (1950). This South African Act classified people by their racial characteristics. Initially there were three basic racial groups: ‘White’, ‘Black’, and ‘Mixed (Coloured)’, with an Indian (South Asian) group added later. Interestingly, under the act, the Chinese in general were classed as ‘Other Asians, and therefore ‘Non-White’, whilst Chinese from Taiwan and the Japanese were classed as ‘Honorary White’. The vagaries of political imperatives dictating racial and ethnic categorisation, as discussed by Barth in 1996, were clearly evident.

The self-identification of race and/or ethnicity was not a new phenomenon when it became a requirement for the English School Census. Indeed, there had been considerable research on the subject in countries such as the United States, New Zealand and Canada.

In the United States in 1970, the racial and ethnic measurements changed. The Census enumerators no longer determined and ascribed the race and ethnicity of each citizen. Instead, each respondent was entitled to select one racial/ethnic category from a prescribed list. After 2002, all respondents were permitted to indicate one or more racial or ethnic group (Denton and Deane, 2010; Hahn et al., 1992; Perez, 2006; Perlmann and Waters, 2005; Root, 2008).

Research drew attention to a variance between self-identification and official observer identification (Denton and Dean, 2010; Hahn et al. 1992; Harris and Sim, 2002). In 2002, Harris and Sim found that multiracial adolescents tended to adopt fluid racial and ethnic identities, with 10 per cent providing inconsistent responses. Research, such as that undertaken by Field (1996), Funderburg (1994), and Thornton, (1996), consistently showed that racial and ethnic identity was dictated by school peer-groups and neighbourhood. Harris and Sim found that children of interracial couples tended to identify with just one race, whilst Kukutai and Callister (2009) revealed that ethnic identity changed with different contexts. Similarly, Root (2008) concluded that ethnicity was not a permanent characteristic, but fluid with a person's ethnic identity varying depending on why, who and where the question was asked.

The studies of people with mixed ethnic backgrounds conducted by Rocha (2010) provide some interesting examples of the complexities of self-identification. For instance, a woman, born in England of an English/Irish father and a Malaysian/Indian mother, self-identified her ethnicity as English. She lived in England. This case was by no means an exceptional one, as is shown by Jenkins (2008) above.

A seminal and much referenced piece of research concerning racial and ethnic identification was published by Hahn et al. in 1992. The research objective was “to ascertain the consistency of racial and ethnic classification of US infants between birth and death ...” (p.259). The research compared the racial / ethnic category recorded at birth and that recorded at death for all infants born from 1983 to 1985 who died within one year. During this period, the race and ethnicity of an infant at birth was determined by an algorithm (p. 260). Hahn et al. quoted an example from the algorithm:

If both parents were white, the child was white; if one parent was Hawaiian, the child was Hawaiian; if only one parent was white, the child was assigned the race of its other-than-white race parent; and if both parents were of races other than white, the child was assigned the father’s race ... if there was no information on the race of either parent, ... the infant was assigned the race of the infant in the preceding record in the ... computer file” (p. 260).

However, on the death certificate the race/ethnicity was determined by the next of kin. Overall, the research found that 3.7 per cent of infants had a different classification at death from birth. Of those infants whose classification changed between birth and death, 87.3 per cent were reclassified as white. At death, the white category ‘gained’ population, whilst all other racial and ethnic groups ‘lost’ population. An interesting

finding showed that almost 45 per cent of infants classified as Filipino at birth died white, and over 40 per cent of infants classified as Japanese at birth similarly died white. In conclusion it was found that “The coding of race and ethnicity of infants at birth and death is remarkably inconsistent ...” (Hahn et al, p. 260).

New Zealand was one of a few nations where an individual was able to self-identify with multiple ethnic groups (Healey, 2010). By 2006, 10 per cent of New Zealanders had identified with more than one ethnic group (Kukutai and Callister, 2009). These complex ethnic identifications resulted in multiple reporting of ethnic groups, which presented challenges in terms of measurement, analysis and dissemination. Further complications arose from changes to ethnic identities that were influenced by different contexts. The complex amalgam of responses raised issues over the weighting given to individual identifications versus statistical requirements (Healey, 2010; KuKutai and Callister, 2009). Root (2008) was by and large in agreement with the findings of Kukutai and Callister when contending that the very large error factors inherent in ethnic statistics generally resulted from an individual’s ethnic group dependency upon changing situations. Root commented:

The true values of a racial or ethnic variable can change even if the population remains the same, and a member can be black relative to an interest in describing or explaining variables in mortality due to one disease and white relative to describing variables in mortality due to another (2008, p.376).

The use of ethnicity as a valid base for classification was therefore widely criticised. In the main, this was because it was seen to lack objectivity (KuKutai, 2004). Where there was self-identification, an individual could elect any ethnic group or any combination of

groups. Kukutai (2004) provided a simple example that well illustrated these concerns, “With regards (sic) Māori ethnicity, the concern is that anyone can claim to be Māori, irrespective of their ancestral heritage” (Page 102).

Therefore, ethnicity, particularly when freely determined by self-identification, has had no guiding criteria. It has generally been perceived to have fluid boundaries, detached from biological origins, and predominantly influenced by a range of variable factors. In varying degrees these factors have included, place of birth, lineage, residential neighbourhood, social and peer associations, religion, economic and career enhancement, and political and national determinations. In all, the self-determined conceptualisation of ethnicity can be seen to result in largely invalid and unstable measurements of identity (Denton and Deane, 2010; Hahn et al, 1992; Healey, 2010; Perez 2006; Root, 2008).

The influence of the fluidity of ethnic classification upon the Case Study pupils originating from the A8 countries, compounded by self-identification and school ascription is discussed in Chapter 12.

The DfE recommended that local authorities should avoid adding too many Approved Extended Categories to the School Census (as discussed above). Where authorities identified a local need to sub-divide main or sub-categories of ethnicity, for instance White Eastern European (WEEU), the DfE encouraged the use of other information sources such as the pupils’ first language (DfE, 2010a; 2010d, Sect. 3). However, Gorard (2010) argued that “First language is almost as complex to classify as ethnic group. Is it home language, language of origin or language of choice?” (p. 751). To add

complications, there were 322 different languages included in the School Census Language Code List. This comprehensive code list ranged from Acholi, through Cornish, five versions of Italian, four versions of Portuguese, six versions of Swahili, to Zulu (DfE, 2010a).

For the pupils from the A8 countries, the link between language, nationality, country of origin and ethnicity is complex and in many cases tenuous. The complexities of these links were captured by Davies (2001) in 'Heart of Europe: The Past in Poland's Present'. For example he noted "There is also the curious case of the descendants of Poles deported to Siberia, whose families have adopted the Russian Language, but who still claim to be Russian citizens of Polish rather than Russian nationality" (p. 289).

The Eastern European mixture of ethnic minorities was highlighted by De Vos and Romanucci-Ross (1996) in 'Ethnic Identity' in which the relationships between minority inclusion/exclusion and national identity were discussed. Milosz (1996) in 'Vilnius, Lithuania: An Ethnic Agglomerate' drew attention to the fact that "... around 40 per cent of the people in Vilnius speak minority languages" (page 263).

5.5 Conclusion

Each state funded school therefore is required by law to complete a School Census. The Department for Education expects the Census to be completed without any errors or missing data. However, the Chapter reveals that the official intention and the reality are quite different. The review of the process for identifying and recording pupils as Gifted and Talented and those with special educational needs highlights many shortcomings.

Missing data and default settings significantly increase the error factor. The identification and recording of pupils' ethnicity is shown to be somewhat problematic and fails to identify the numbers, migration trends and school location of WEEU pupils nationally. Consequently, it is not possible to monitor on a national basis the academic progress and attainment of EU migrant pupils. Gorard (2010) systematically exposes both the inability of the systems to match consistently the School Census data with the National Pupil Database and also the high proportion of missing values in Census returns. He argues most convincingly that the School Census data is 'meaningless'.

Chapter 6

Immigration Controls and European Union

Freedom of Movement

6.1 Introduction

From 1973, an immigration management dichotomy has evolved. On the one hand, there is the long struggle by successive British governments to implement stringent immigration controls, and on the other a willingness by these same governments to sign away large parts of the nation's control of immigration to the European Union. Often these diverse actions took place simultaneously. This immigration management schism has been made all the more confusing by the lack of reliable, robust and credible systems for measuring the multifarious immigration flows into the United Kingdom.

6.2 Immigration Controls

British governments have struggled to control immigration, which has proved to be a dangerous political tightrope, ever present, ever growing and ever unpredictable. The

section above 'Immigration to Britain' provides some illustrations of this struggle. Clayton (2008) placed these struggles and legal controls into a historical perspective when she stated, "A complex body of statute and case law governing entry into the UK is a twentieth century phenomenon. Before this there was not a developed body of law, but there were numerous provisions controlling the movement of aliens" (p. 7).

The biographies and autobiographies of successive Prime Ministers and senior politicians provide a revealing insight into the challenges presented by immigration. For example, it is clear from the writings of Wilson (1971 and 1979) that throughout his periods as Prime Minister he was harried by immigration issues. It was even difficult for him to achieve a consensus within his own party on the subject. He captured the mood of his party when stating, "There was a major row over our immigration policies, about which a very wide section of party opinion, understandably, felt very strongly ..." (Wilson, 1971, p 141). He wrote with feeling how immigration had "smouldered throughout the Parliament" and how the Archbishop of Canterbury's Immigration Committee was "in a militant mood over the Kenyan Asians" (pp. 505-507).

Heath, who followed Wilson's first premiership, recalled difficulties in managing immigration. He wrote, "It was against a volatile background that as Prime Minister I set about trying to improve the situation. ... [immigration] had seemed in the early days to be the most intractable problem of all. When I came to power, race was already a major source of conflict in Britain" (Heath, 1998, p.455).

Callaghan (1987) summed up immigration succinctly: "The immigration of large numbers of coloured people aroused particular passion, and every Home Secretary

since Rab Butler has been scorched by the flame” (p. 263). Howe (1994) recalled how Thatcher’s straight talking on immigration and ‘colour’ reflected the mood in many sectors of the population: “In January, 1978, Margaret [Thatcher] proclaimed her sympathy for inner-city dwellers who feared being ‘swamped’ by the tide of coloured immigrants” (Howe, 1994, pp. 103-104). Major, like his predecessors, experienced the same immigration struggles and contemplated the effect of Enoch Powell’s ‘Rivers of Blood’ speech on political life: “It stirred emotions and fears, and turned a favourable Tory drift into an avalanche that changed the political landscape” (Major, 1999, p. 39).

The immigration control acts were designed to address actual and perceived problems resulting from the arrival of large numbers of immigrants. These Acts, however, were driven in the main by the need to quell growing public unrest, which was sometimes violently expressed (Clayton, 2008; Major, 1999; Sales, 2007; Spencer, 2007). The first of these acts, the Aliens Act 1905, had the clear purpose of controlling the large inflow of mainly Jewish and gypsy refugees and subduing public hostility to their arrival (Julios, 2008; Sales, 2007). Further alien restriction acts followed in 1914, 1919, and 1920. By 1948, the British Nationality Act had been introduced. This did not restrict entry into Britain, but “... conferred the status of British citizen on all Commonwealth subjects and recognised their right to work and settle in the UK and to bring their families with them” (National Archives, 2010, p. 3). This Act was eventually replaced by the 1981 British Nationality Act, which changed the definition of British citizenship. British citizenship, with a right to enter, work and settle in the UK, became legally restricted to those individuals who in the main were born of British parentage (as defined under the Act) or through naturalisation (Julios, 2008; Sales, 2007; Winder, 2008).

During the 1960s and 1970s, legislation was introduced to control immigration that mainly derived from the Commonwealth. These Acts restricted the rights of some Commonwealth citizens to settle in the UK and were implemented through such legislation as the Commonwealth Immigration Acts 1962 and 1968, and the Immigration Acts of 1971 and 1988 (Clayton, 2008; Julios, 2008; Sales, 2007).

In the 1990s and 2000s, asylum seekers became a key challenge to the control of immigration and created a sensitive political situation with conflicting pressures. On the one side there were the requirements of the Geneva (refugee) Convention (1951) and Protocol (1967) of which Britain was bound as a signatory (UNHCR, 1951). On the other side was the growing public opposition to asylum seekers. Spencer (2007) described asylum seekers as “Blair’s preoccupation” (p.345). Spencer quoted Barbara Roche, Immigration Minister in Blair’s Government, as saying, “By the end of 2002 the situation was unsustainable”. Spencer also quoted an unnamed senior advisor to Blair as having commented, “We were just getting slaughtered on asylum. It wasn’t unusual for there to be an asylum story on the front page of a tabloid every day of the week” (p. 345). The various asylum and immigration Acts of 1993, 1996, 1999, 2002, 2004 and 2006 were designed to exert greater controls over the entry and settlement of asylum seekers (Clayton, 2008; Sales, 2007; Spencer, 2007). The Home Office commissioned a number of reports in its endeavour to manage the arrival, dispersal and wellbeing of asylum seekers (Home Office, 2003; Johnson, 2003).

During 2001, the Sangatte refugee camp near Calais was nightly on television news featuring refugees illegally jumping on trains bound for England. Local authorities complained about the pressure the asylum seekers were placing on their budgets.

Sections of the population expressed their displeasure, sometimes aggressively, at the arrival of so many asylum seekers who were often considered to be 'economic migrants' (BBC, 06.07.2002a/02.12.2002b; Guardian, 05.09/09.09/26.12/27.12. 2001; Spencer, 2007).

The asylum seekers, who created such public unrest and political pressure, were required to make formal asylum application. Table 6:1 sets out the actual numbers of asylum applications completed for each year from 1998 to 2008. The totals shown exclude the dependents of the principal asylum seeker and those entering the country illegally (Home Office, 2010). For comparison, the numbers of EU accession country nationals registering for National Insurance are included from 2002, prior to A8 accession in 2004, to 2008. These figures exclude all dependents and those working illegally in the UK (DWP, 2010).

During the first two complete years following A8 accession (2005 and 2006), there were 526,650 National Insurance registrations for EU accession country nationals. This compares with 49,235 asylum applications for the same period. For 2002, the Home Office records show that Iraq, Zimbabwe, Somalia and Afghanistan headed the top ten asylum countries. Interestingly, the top ten countries included the Czech Republic with nearly 600 asylum applications made in the second quarter alone. This was just two years before the Czech Republic became a full member of the European Union with 'freedom of movement' rights and EU citizenship for all its nationals.

Table 6:1

Number of Asylum Seeker Applications and National Insurance Registrations by EU Accession Nationals		
Year	Asylum Applications (excluding dependents)	EU Accession Country Nationals* (excluding dependents)
1998	46,020	
1999	71,160	
2000	70,035	
2001	71,365	
2002	85,865	15,330
2003	49,370	24,350
2004	33,930	78,980
2005	25,715	244,130
2006	23,520	282,520
2007	23,430	367,850
2008	25,545	272,010

Table data calculated from ONS and Home Office Monthly Returns (Home Office, 2010) and Department of Works and Pensions data sets (DWP, 2010). *Data includes A10 accession countries (A8 plus Malta and Cyprus).

Management of the educational provision for asylum children is, in theory, quite different from that of A8 immigrant children. To seek asylum in the UK, it is necessary to register. Where children are concerned, the asylum guidance states: “If a family is seeking asylum, the lead member of the family makes the claim on behalf of the whole family” (YJB, 2010). During this process, the details of all children are recorded (UKBA, 2010; YJB, 2010). Additionally, where housing is required by an asylum individual or family, the UK Border Agency states: “You will not be able to choose where you live if we are providing your housing” (UKBA, 2010). Additionally, those asylum seekers finding their own accommodation in the UK must register their residential address. The asylum process should therefore enable the government to have a detailed record of all asylum seekers, their children and where they live. Consequently, and again in theory, the government should be able to target educational resources to local authorities receiving asylum children. However, this has not always proved the case.

The Commons' Home Affairs Committee produced a report about the work of the UK Border Agency (Parliament, 2011), which reviewed asylum cases. The report stated: "It emerged in 2006 that the Home Office had built up a backlog of between 400,000 and 450,000 unresolved asylum cases, some dating back more than a decade" (p. 2). It further stated: " ... a minimum of 61,000 of the 400-450,000 cases – about one in seven – will eventually be concluded on the basis that the UK Border Agency has been completely unable to trace what has happened to the applicants" (p.3). Information from this report shows a total of 139,000 applications were granted asylum from the backlog by November, 2010. Of these, over 51 per cent (47,500) were dependents of principal asylum seekers. The report does not provide any information about the numbers of children among the dependents. Moreover, there is no indication of how many children were accompanying the 61,000 'lost' principal asylum seekers. The media reported that 61,000 asylum seekers were unlikely to be traced, but made no mention of the additional dependents (BBC, 11.01.2011; Whitehead, 2011).

Through the early part of the 21st century, asylum seekers were clearly a major political and social issue. However, the number of asylum seekers and their dependents is a matter of record, irrespective of the fact that the government has mislaid in excess of 61,000 main applicants. The statistics for asylum seekers are somewhat complicated by the fact that not all asylum applications are granted. For example, 35,000 applicants from the backlog were refused asylum and 'removed' from the UK by November 2010 (Parliament, 2011).

The situation concerning A8 immigrants and their dependents is quite different. Immigrants from the A8 countries do not have to record their arrival in the UK, nor

inform anyone where they intend to live. As citizens of the European Union, they are free to enter the UK without any formalities (Maastricht Treaty, 1992, as amended). As has been shown in Chapter 4, the government has no dedicated system for measuring A8 immigration and does not know how many EU nationals are resident in the UK. The systems that do exist, such as the National Insurance registration and the Worker Registration Scheme, whilst in no way providing a full picture, do indicate that the overall number of A8 migrants presents a completely different profile to previous migration flows, particularly in relation to rate of entry and magnitude.

6.3 European Union Citizenship

Throughout early negotiations for the UK's accession to the European Union, British politicians fought to retain control over the UK's external borders and the citizenship status of the British people. Margaret Thatcher took a tough line on immigration issues, stating, "I am not prepared to give up our powers to control immigration (from non-EC countries)" (Thatcher, 1995, p. 553). Major, who was well aware of the link between immigration control and citizenship status, recalled the negotiations for the Treaty of European Union in 1992 (The Maastricht Treaty), when he stated, "British citizens would remain just that – not citizens of Europe". (1999, p.361). However, The Maastricht Treaty (7th February, 1992) states in Article 8:

1. Citizenship of the Union is hereby established. Every person holding the nationality of a Member State shall be a citizen of the Union.
2. Citizens of the Union shall enjoy the rights conferred by this Treaty and shall be subject to the duties imposed thereby.

(The Maastricht Treaty, Part Two: Citizenship of The Union, 1992).

6.4 National Borders and the European Union

The principle of a united Europe free from borders is not new. Indeed its history stretches back to Charlemagne in the 8th and 9th centuries (Riché, 1978). During the twentieth century, the unification of Europe was viewed as one way of keeping the peace between troubled nations. Konrad Adenauer, the first Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany from 1949 to 1963, wrote in his memoirs, “After the First World War I advocated a plan for an organic integration of the French, Belgian, and German economies for the safeguarding of a durable peace ...”(Adenauer, 1966, p. 36). Churchill in 1946 made his now famous speech to the Academic Youth in Zurich. He spoke of the consequences of the Second World War in compelling terms:

Over a wide area a vast quivering mass of tormented, hungry, care-worn and bewildered human beings gape at the ruins of their cities and their homes, and scan the dark horizons for the approach of some new peril, tyranny or terror. Among the victors there is a babel of voices; among the vanquished the sullen silence of despair. ... Yet all the while there is a remedy ... It is to re-create the European Family ... We must build a kind of United States of Europe. ... And why should there not be a European group which could give a sense of enlarged patriotism and common citizenship to the distracted peoples of this turbulent and mighty continent? (Churchill, 1946).

Jean Monnet and Robert Schuman were central figures in creating the first treaty in Europe that eventually led to the European Union of today (Blair, A., 2005; Brinkley and

Hackett, 1991; Dinan, 2006; McCormick, 2008; Monnet, 1978). Robert Schuman, French foreign minister, presented a declaration on 9th May, 1950 in which he set out the principles of European co-operation and the establishment of a common market. In his declaration he stated, “This proposal will lead to the realization of the first concrete foundation of a European federation indispensable to the preservation of peace”. (Schuman, 1950).

Germany, Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands worked together to produce an acceptable treaty. Harold Macmillan wrote, “The negotiations between the six powers continued all through the winter and spring, resulting on 18th April 1951 in the signing of the treaty by the six countries setting up the European Coal and Steel Community [ECSC] ”(Macmillan, 1969, p. 210).

The ECSC Treaty resolved to:

substitute for historic rivalries a fusion of their essential interests; to establish, by creating an economic community, the foundation of a broad and independent community among peoples long divided by blood conflicts; and to lay the bases of institutions capable of giving direction to their common destiny (The Treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community, 1951).

Adenauer regarded this treaty signing as a historic first step to a united Europe, “We were on the way to a united Europe in which frontiers were to disappear” (Adenauer, 1966, p. 335).

The ECSC was quickly followed by the Treaty of Rome (known as the EC Treaty), which was signed in 1957 by the six nationals of the ECSC. This treaty established the

European Economic Community (EEC), which became known as the 'Common Market', and established the principle of the 'freedom of movement' for EEC workers.

Article 3 (c) states that the EEC would accomplish:

the abolition, as between Member States, of obstacles to freedom of movement for persons, services and capital;

Article 48 (2) states:

Such freedom of movement shall entail the abolition of any discrimination based on nationality between workers of the Member States as regards employment, remuneration and other conditions of work and employment.

The Maastricht Treaty, signed in February, 1992, amended the EC Treaty and established the European Union. Article A sets out the purpose of the treaty:

This Treaty marks a new stage in the process of creating an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe, in which decisions are taken as closely as possible to the citizens (Article A, Maastricht Treaty, 1992).

Article 8 established that all nationals of Member States were to become Citizens of the European Union. The rationale for the introduction of European citizenship formed the third objective of the Treaty: "to strengthen the protection of the rights and interests of the nationals of its Member States through the introduction of a citizenship of the Union" (Article B. 3). The first objective was concerned with promoting economic and social progress, which was to be achieved by the "... creation of an area without internal frontiers" (Article B. 1). Article 8a (1) gave the right of free movement to all citizens:

Every citizen of the Union shall have the right to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States, subject to the limitations and conditions laid down in this Treaty and by the measures adopted to give it effect (Article 8a).

6.5 The Schengen Agreement

The removal of national borders within a unified Europe was a contentious issue, raising fears of a federal Europe or a United States of Europe. These concerns were particularly to the fore in Britain. On 27th July 1988, Margaret Thatcher, Prime Minister, was interviewed on BBC radio by Jimmy Young. One issue raised was the sovereignty of Britain's national borders. She stated:

We are not going to abolish frontiers, we are not going to abolish boundaries. We are making it easier to go through frontiers and boundaries of states. No Head of Government has said: "We are going to abolish those boundaries!" Of course they have not! ... But may I make it quite clear I really was very much with de Gaulle: this is a Europe of separate countries working together and it is just as laudable an objective, just as idealistic to say: "Look! Let us work together!" as it is to try to say: "Let us dissolve our nationality, our borders, into one Europe:" it would not work. Europe has only been single under tyranny, not under liberty (Thatcher, 1988).

In 1985, the Schengen Agreement was signed by five of the ten Member States of the European community. This agreement was the beginning of a process that eventually resulted in the removal of national borders within the European Union. The five

Member States, West Germany, France, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, agreed to eliminate controls between their common borders (Blair, A., 2005; Craig and de Búrca, 2008; Handoll, 1995). The 1990 Schengen Convention established the principle that internal borders could be crossed by persons without any checks or controls (Article 2). By the time the 1990 Convention came into force in March 1995, four other EU States, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, had joined. The Schengen Agreement (Area of free movement) did not form part of EU law until it was incorporated within the 1997 Treaty of Amsterdam, and so became part of the Union's legal framework (Apap, 2002; Beach, 2005; Handoll, 1995; Martiniello, 2006; McCormick, 2008).

All 27 EU Member States have signed the Schengen Agreement, together with Norway, Iceland and Switzerland. Indeed, it is a condition of accession to the EU that Member States comply with the Schengen Agreement and work to abolish internal EU frontiers. Craig and de Búrca commented, "The free movement of persons is one of the four fundamental freedoms of Community law, along with the free movement of goods, services and capital" (2008, p. 743). In the case of the UK and Ireland, McCormick proffered, "Britain has stayed out of most elements of Schengen, claiming its special problems as an island state, and Ireland has had to follow suit because of its passport union with Britain. Nonetheless, its signature marked a substantial step towards the removal of border controls" (McCormick, 2008, p. 59).

It is worth noting that the removal of borders has not always been an easy process. Examples of this are illustrated by Martiniello, 2006, who recorded the disputes between Spain and Britain over the Straits of Gibraltar, and Demetriou, 2008, who

wrote in 'The EU's impact on the Cyprus Conflict' about the frontier challenges presented by a divided Cyprus.

Whilst the UK and Ireland have retained some rights to have border checks, they have relinquished the right to limit or manage in any way the free flow of EU citizens into the United Kingdom and Ireland, subject to transitional arrangements and to limitations on the grounds of 'public policy, public security or public health' under Article 48(3).

Over the years, British governments have endeavoured to manage immigration by successive parliamentary acts. More recent immigration control ambitions are set out in the Conservative Party Manifesto (2010), which includes an annual limit (capping) on immigration. These immigration control policies gain much media coverage (Guardian, 23.11.2010; Sky News, 24.11.2010; Telegraph, 27.11.2010).

However, European Union citizens are exempt from all British immigration acts, past, present and future. The British government has no control over the number of EU citizens migrating to the UK. This includes children, who are EU citizens or dependents of EU citizens. These children have the same rights as British citizens to attend British local authority schools. Moreover, there is no reliable procedure in place to record the number, age or whereabouts of EU migrant children attending British schools. Consequently, it is not possible to monitor nationally the educational progress and attainment and social development of A8 migrant pupils as a distinct group, and target appropriate resources and support to address any specific needs.

6.6 Conclusion

In summary, immigration could well be described as the most persistent, unpredictable and irresolvable challenge faced by every government since the beginning of the twentieth century. It has aroused violent passions from both proponents and detractors in equal measure. It has thrown politicians of all persuasions, exposed their bewilderment and undermined their credibility and popularity. It has been a political and social dilemma searching for a solution, whilst drawing the full attention of the media in all its multifarious forms.

Against this querulous background and despite political protestations and 'red line' guarantees to the contrary, all nationals of European Union Member States have become first and foremost citizens of the European Union. Moreover, the EU internal border controls have been removed with systematic determination, the Schengen Agreement has become ensconced in EU law and, consequently, Member States can no longer control the free flow of EU citizens across their national borders. This movement of EU citizens, together with the right to work and settle anywhere within the European Union, is the fulfilment of one of the original aims and aspirations of the advocates of a 'European Superstate', a federal, integrated Europe. Arguably, the 'United States of Europe' is de facto a legal, political and social reality; one that the likes of Adenauer, Churchill, Schuman and Monnet could only have dreamed of and that Thatcher only deplored.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and implications for this research

The previous chapters expose the many flaws inherent in the immigration and population measuring systems, and the enumerations and estimations conjured from them. The system weaknesses and the questionable outcomes are discussed in detail and raise serious concerns about the reliability and credibility of the resulting data. The problems faced by the Decennial Census process, for example, when trying to overcome the challenges presented by issues such as the 'Jedi Knights', the 'lost million' and the unaccounted illegal immigrants, strongly underline these concerns. The complex procedure of producing estimates from the 'flawed' data is well illustrated by the convoluted and impenetrable process of rebasing, backcasting, revision and readjustment, so well exemplified by Ratcliffe in 1996.

The 'best guess' comment by MacNulty (BBC, 30.06.2005), whilst referring specifically to estimates of illegal immigrants, could also be seen as one of the most accurate and concise descriptions of the vast majority of ONS's population and migration enumerations and estimations. That said, the Parliamentary Select Committee in 2008

was also very clear and authoritative when it condemned the International Passenger Survey for being 'unfit for the purpose' of measuring international migration.

Moreover, Chapters 5 and 12 reveal compelling evidence that the school level census process, enumerations and estimations are also flawed. Research by scholars such as Gorard (2010) and Monaghan (2007) and organisations such as Ofsted (2004 / 2010), when taken together, convincingly challenge any illusions that the outcomes from the School Census and the National Pupil Database are accurate or credible. Indeed, these enumerations are further compromised by the process of Gorardian 'error propagation'.

Ethnic enumerations fare no better in the reliability stakes, whether at national or school level. The robustness and consistency of ethnic data is shown to be undermined by many factors, but particularly the process of ethnic self-identification and classification. Similarly, an individual's ethnicity is revealed to be not an immutable fact, but a matter of personal preference that is professed to be 'dynamic over time', has 'fluid boundaries' and is 'essentially a political phenomenon'.

Whilst acknowledging the inherent unreliability and 'guess factors' evident in the measuring and calculation processes, these latter nevertheless provide the only indications of population and migration patterns available. Consequently, great circumspection is required in their interpretation.

It is a matter of record that during the first five and a half years following the 2004 EU accession, over 1.24 million EU A10 nationals applied and received a UK national

insurance number entitling them to work legally within Britain. As discussed in Chapter 4, this represents a minimum number of EU A10 nationals settling in the UK, as it excludes all those not working, those working illegally and all dependents. Overall, it has been shown beyond doubt that there is no reliable and comprehensive system in place to measure and record the number of EU accession citizens settling in Britain, nationally or at school level.

In stark contrast to the quite exceptional size and speed of EU accession immigrant arrivals, it took 200 years of Jewish immigration to achieve a peak population of 450,000, and over 50 years for the Black Caribbean and Black African communities in Britain each to reach populations around 500,000. Even the great immigration flows of Asians from Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and East Africa took more than 50 years to attain a combined population of just over two million. Yet more, the 'discreet and unassertive' Chinese population took 120 years to grow from 665 to 243,000. However, these gross ethnic group estimates are not composed of immigrants solely, but are bolstered by second, third and fourth generations born in the UK of immigrant lineage. For example, only about half of the Black Caribbean population in Britain in 2001 were immigrants. This again contrasts with the EU A8 accession nationals who are, by the obvious constraints of time, new immigrants who have yet to produce future generations in Britain.

The speed and magnitude of the EU A8 immigration flow is placed in perspective when compared with the significant Polish immigrant population resulting from the Second World War. By 1951, this Polish population peaked at 162,000, and was supported by dedicated government grants and the creation of schools designed specifically to cater

for the particular cultural, social and academic needs of the Polish children. In contrast, a minimum of 282,520 accession country nationals arrived in Britain in the single calendar year of 2006 and acquired British National Insurance registration. Again, this number of EU immigrants does not represent the full total as only those individuals wishing to work formally needed to register.

The government's inability to exert any legal control over EU accession immigration after 2004 is well stated and sets these accession flows apart from all previous UK migration. Moreover, the government is shown to have been unprepared for the arrival of so many EU nationals and unable to manage or understand the impact that these immigrants were having on local services, including education. It is clear from the literature that Britain had agreed to the free movement of EU citizens across its borders and understood that they had the legal right to work and settle in the UK. As has been shown, the British government willingly rejected any transitional arrangements that would have enabled it to control and manage these accession migration flows. In these circumstances, it is unclear why the government was so unprepared. Spencer commented that the "A8 migrant numbers brought unanticipated consequences for local authorities" (Spencer, 2010, p. 20). Clearly, at the forefront of these local services was education. John Denham, who was Secretary of State prior to the 2010 election, wrote from personal experience:

And when immigration from the A8 countries exceeded all predictions, the entire government system proved unable to provide ministers with timely and reliable analysis of what had actually happened across the UK. ... In my experience, government did a poor job of understanding these vital local impacts. I tracked

A8 migrants ... but was confronted with official data that underestimated the number of migrants by 90 per cent (Denham, 2010, pp. 24-25).

The comments of Denham are particularly revealing and bring into sharp focus the inability of government to measure the immigration flows or determine their settlement patterns. The examination of the methods used to measure immigration and population trends revealed quite clearly that there was no system designed specifically for the purpose of counting migrants and that the various systems that do exist have been deemed 'unfit for purpose'. In consequence, it is no surprise that the government has no accurate understanding of how many WEEU citizens entered, worked and settled in Britain after the opening of the borders in 2004 or, in truth, of the impact that these immigrants were having upon the education service. This situation is greatly compounded by the inability of the School Census to identify and track WEEU pupils nationally.

The slower pace of most previous immigration flows prior to 2004 enabled governments to react to public and official disquiet through enacting new immigration controls and providing extra resources to local authorities. The resources included extra financial support targeted on addressing the specific needs of ethnic minority immigrant pupils. As has been seen, however, this was not the case with A8 migrants as WEEU pupils are not identifiable nationally. In consequence, their social and academic needs cannot be monitored and appropriate resources cannot be targeted to support them.

The literature therefore indicates that the A8 migration has not followed the broad traditional characteristics of previous immigration flows. Even modern transport systems have created a distinct difference between the EU accession immigrants and those of most previous immigration flows. Emigration in the nineteenth and early twentieth century often meant undertaking long sea and land journeys, frequently fraught with danger and a fear of the unknown. Emigration usually required major sacrifices and life-changing commitments that commonly resulted in migrants never seeing their birth country or families again.

An interesting and very relevant transport comparison can be drawn between the Poles who arrived during or towards the end of the Second World War and those who arrived after 2004. Many of the Polish immigrants in the late 1930s and 1940s were refugees from war-torn Europe. Some undertook quite incredible and tortuous journeys to reach Britain. Winder described the journey of one such group of Polish immigrants who had been forcibly deported from Poland to Stalin's camps, but were determined to reach Britain:

In 1943 two thousand Polish women trekked south through Russia to India, and worked their way across the Pacific to Australia, South America and Mexico. They did not have a clue what might have happened to their relatives or friends, but their eyes were fixed on Britain (Winder, 2008, p. 322).

By contrast, the post-2004 Polish migrants can catch a Ryanair flight from their local city, booked on the internet - often for less than €30, and arrive in Britain after a two and a half hour flight. Indeed, there is evidence that many make regular visits 'home' for gatherings of friends and family. When all the literature is gathered together, it

suggests that this is an altogether new kind of immigration, which is rewriting the whole concept of European migration.

Chapter 8

Methodology and Research Procedures

8.1 Introduction

This Chapter sets out the rationale for the research design and process, together with the supporting methodological approaches and procedures. The underlying principles affecting the research design and the methods adopted are considered alongside the theories and practices expounded in current research literature. The impact of the broad and complex research questions upon the design and process are discussed. The number, characteristics and relevance of the research participants and the range of statistical analysis are detailed, as are the measures employed and ethical considerations.

As previously discussed, this research programme commenced just three years after the opening of the UK borders to A8 nationals when the resulting immigration phenomenon was in its infancy. At this time dramatically varying and conflicting views about the size and character of the migration were principally founded on anecdotal and parochial perceptions. There was little, if any, reliable information about these

migration flows. This dearth of knowledge moved the research towards an exploratory approach.

The many questions relating to the credibility of official enumerations and estimations produced for immigration and ethnicity population trends presented a serious concern for the research programme. When discussing the principles of measurement, Lowry (2011) was forthright in his concern that the information processed should be correct. He used the well established term 'GIGO', which is an acronym for 'Garbage In, Garbage Out.' His concern was that when unreliable information is used, it matters not how elegant and profound the following processing methods may seem, the results will still be nonsense, as too will be the conclusions drawn, irrespective of how convincingly they are presented. This 'GIGO' principle was discussed by Gorard (2010) in connection with the validity of school census data. Consequently, the literature review exploring these validity issues, together with the reviews focussing on the historical immigration and settlement patterns and their educational implications, influenced the content and balance of the research sub-questions.

8.2. Research Design and Methodological Approach

In response to the prevailing uncertainty, an over-arching and broadly-stated research question was posed, but designed to become more finely tuned and focused as the research evolved. This refining process resulted in the development of sub-questions. Such an approach was not new. It replicated in many ways the findings from studies conducted by Campbell, Daft and Hulin (1982) that showed that 'significant research' was often characterised by some uncertainty in the initial stages. It was their

contention that research should start with the organic and finish with the mechanistic, holding that too much research commenced with mechanistic, linear thinking and ended up there as well.

The development of the initial research design reflected the principles set out by Walliman (2011) and de Vaus (2006), that such designs should provide a sound, logical framework theoretically capable of guiding the progress of the research effectively and systematically, whilst focusing on the principal aim. However, the pilot studies highlighted not only areas of strength in the design, but also some weaknesses. From the information gained, appropriate realignments were made to the detail of the design, particularly its balance and critical focus. For example, the scope of the research as a single entity produced a bewildering array of design, management and methodological issues. The division of the research into five distinct areas or levels, each with its own sub-questions, significantly alleviated many of these difficulties. This made the research programme more manageable, its stronger structure helping to ensure that the evidence gathered from each area effectively contributed to a unified body of knowledge. The research design was thus better able to fulfil its main function of ensuring that the evidence collected enabled unambiguous conclusions pertinent to the principal research question to be drawn. The specific reasons for each adjustment are discussed more fully within the separate sections of this chapter.

The discrete characteristics of each area and the number and complexity of the research sub-questions made it essential to use a range of qualitative and quantitative methods. Newby (2010) recognised this approach when he linked complex research with the use of a combination of methods. He considered that such research was

characterised by an often long research question “followed by a series of questions that deal with the dimensions of the [principal] question”. He further added that “the nature of the research question will shape the character of our research design” (p. 130).

The principle expressed here by Newby, whereby the selection of the research method was driven by the need to answer the research question(s), is well established and expounded in the works of such scholars as de Vaus (2006), Oliver (2010), VanderStoep and Johnston (2009), and Walliman (2011). Indeed, Matthews and Ross (2010) were very clear on this point when they stated:

Research design does not depend on whether you intend to use quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods of data collection and analysis. The decision to take a qualitative or quantitative approach should be based on your research question, and the nature of the data you need to collect and analyse in order to address the question (p. 113).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) concluded likewise and suggested that it was better to fit the methods to the different types of research problems, rather than vice versa.

The methodological strategy of using both qualitative and quantitative methods for the research broadly reflects the findings of Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009). These showed that there was an increase in the number of research studies employing ‘mixed methods’ that could not have answered the research questions if monomethod designs had been used. Newby (2010) concurred with these findings when he wrote:

Mixed methods research seeks to combine both qualitative and quantitative traditions on the basis that research issues in education are often so complex that the insights of both approaches are required if we are to gain a good understanding (p. 92).

However, this approach is not without its detractors. Indeed, the combining of two or more methods that produces both qualitative and quantitative data is immersed in controversy. Although more generally described as 'mixed methods', combined methods or multi-method, there is no agreed nomenclature or typology; still more, there is no established definition.

Morse and Niehaus (2009) expressed the view that defining 'mixed method studies' causes consternation and disagreement and that "explicating mixed method design is still immature and at the stage where there is some scrambling for terminology and establishing the rules of rigor" (p. 11). Others, such as Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009), considered that mixed methods research was still in its adolescence.

This methodological debate has been summarised as fundamentally pragmatic and basically concerned with mixed methods attaining the same status as quantitative and qualitative approaches (Newby, 2010). However, the debate is quite complex, as illustrated by Morse and Niehaus (2009) who are exponents of the mixed method design and believe that it makes a study "more comprehensive and complete than if a single method was used" (p. 9). However, they drew attention to an important aspect of the mixed methods discussion that was concerned with whether the methods are parallel or truly meshed. They were clear where they stood on the issue:

We cannot think of a single example that is both meshed and valid (p. 11). Mixed method designs are NOT a *blending* of research methods. We do not collect data in a willy-nilly fashion and then try to think of a way to combine it in the analysis so we can “see what we have got”. Mixed method designs are not, as we have heard them described, like a stir fry, a collection of nuts, or a more expensive drink. Rather mixed method designs are planned, rigorous, and – although challenging to conduct - provide very strong, publishable research findings (Morse and Niehaus 2009, p. 10).

Interestingly, Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) acknowledged the issue of blending by entitling their publication about research methods ‘Research Methods for Everyday Life: Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches’. The publication highlights quantitative and qualitative methods and how to combine them.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) added to this debate when they wrote about what constituted a mixed method study and outlined several core characteristics which included “ the mixing of the two types of data either by merging them, having one build on the other, or embedding one within the other” (p. 16). They also raised the issue of the priority of one or both forms of data. This ‘emphasis dimension’ referring to equal or priority status of methods was also considered by Leech and Owuegbuzie (2009) as part of their conceptualisation of a three-dimensional typology of mixed methods designs. Here, the first dimension was concerned with the level of mixing, classified as either ‘mixed’ or ‘fully mixed’. The second dimension related to time, explicitly whether ‘concurrent’ or ‘sequential’. Finally, the third dimension concerned whether qualitative and quantitative phases were broadly equal or one method had dominant status. Leech

and Owuegbuzie (2009) took this conceptualisation further to develop a notational system for mixed methods designs.

Morse and Niehaus (2009) took issue with Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) about the term 'embedded', in which a project is encompassed within another project. They contended that it made no sense to submerge one project within another as each study must always contribute knowledge. They also took issue with Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Leech and Owuegbuzie (2009) and Newby (2010) on the concept of a 'dominant or priority' method within the mixed methods approach. They argued that the term 'theoretical drive' was better as it implied the guiding of the research programme, rather than the superiority of one method, especially as one method must always drive. They added that they could not think of a single study with 'equivalent design'. They proposed that the notion of 'equivalence' be discarded.

When developing a combined methods design approach for this research, it was noted that Robson (2002) had preference for the 'flexible' design. He stated:

I prefer the 'flexible' label because such designs may well make some use of methods which result in data in the form of numbers (quantitative) as well as in the form of words; hence, labelling them as qualitative can be misleading (p. 5).

However, the term 'flexible' as defined by Robson (2002) was considered inappropriate for this research programme as some studies inclined towards the opposite approach, termed 'fixed' design, as originally defined by Anastas and MacDonald (1994). Here it was suggested that 'fixed' designs required the development of a conceptual

framework or theory with a significant amount of pre-specification and the need for a degree of researcher control.

Basit (2010) added further to the debate when he described the combining of methods as “mixed methods or eclectic methodology” (p. 17), contending that in eclectic approaches or mixed methods:

The researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (e.g. consequence-orientated, problem-centred and pluralistic). It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems. The data also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g. on instruments) as well as text information (e.g. on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information (Basit, 2010, pp. 17 -18).

Whatever the contentious issues raised by the ‘combining of methods’ debate, it is heartening to note that Leech and Onwuegbuzie suggested that whatever framework is used, it is important that researchers “thoughtfully create designs that effectively address their research objectives, purposes, and questions” (2009, p. 274).

The term ‘multi-method’ or ‘combined method’ best describes the approach adopted for this research. It mirrors the characteristics outlined by Basit (2010), but includes the structure and rigour demanded by Morse and Niehaus (2009). The overarching methodological approach adopted was shaped by the demands of the research question, defined through the sub-questions, as advocated by Matthews and Ross

(2010) and Newby (2010). The requirements of each study area determined whether the data collection, analysis and interpretation were to take place sequentially or simultaneously. The different approaches functioned in parallel, and were not meshed or blended. The findings from each study were used to address the separate sub-questions in the first instance. The conclusions from each distinct area or level provided a body of evidence from which to draw the overall conclusions appropriate to the principal question. This approach represents a variation on the 'convergent design' described by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). However, following the collection and analysis of the separate data strands, the data sets were not merged or blended as is generally the practice with the convergent design, but were viewed at the point of interface as complementary.

8.3 Measures

The advantages and disadvantages of using a combined method approach for complex research programmes are well rehearsed by scholars such as Matthews and Ross (2010), Morse and Niehaus (2009), and Newby (2010). In the case of this research programme, there were two important advantages. The first was that the demands of each research sub-question could be appropriately addressed by the 'best fit' method or combinations of methods, together with the core or driver approach. Secondly, it provided a greater potential for checking validity and reliability through triangulation and the ability to compare results in a complementary way (Hammersley, 1996).

The triangulation of evidence was considered an important aspect of this research design. It gave the opportunity to establish validity in the research by examining a single

issue from different perspectives (Basil, 2010). In addition, it engendered an improved understanding of both the measurement of each issue and the issue itself. (Gorard and Taylor, 2004).

It is interesting to note that back in 1984 Cohen and Manion made statements about multi-method research and triangulation that remain relevant to this day. They saw that one of the great advantages of a multi-method approach was that it presented greater opportunities for the use of triangulation techniques. They considered that, overall, triangulation reduced bias, improved reliability and validity and was able to “explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint ...” (p. 208).

For the research, the analysis of existing data, together with the collection of raw data for analysis and comparisons, formed an important instrument for answering specific questions about the reliability of census enumerations and estimations and the credibility of individual school census returns. In parallel with the statistical analysis, questionnaires and interviews were employed to gather qualitative and quantitative data, designed to address the questions concerned with the migration and settlement experiences of schools, parents and pupils, together with the collection of numerical and categorical data.

8.4 Questionnaires and Interviews

Questionnaires were selected as a data collecting instrument for the research because they provided the most appropriate method for obtaining a set of survey data from

geographically-dispersed respondents. The questionnaires were designed to cover a range of dimensions and included categorical, numerical and ordinal data as defined by Borden and Abbott (2008); Fink (2003) and Lowry (2011).

Two variations of questionnaires were used. The first was designed for the parents of WEEU pupils (migrants to England). The questionnaire was produced in Polish and English, although translation support was provided for speakers of other Eastern European languages. The second questionnaire was developed for use by LA advisers, schools and their staff.

The importance of quantitative validity and reliability for checking the quality of the data, the results and interpretation was stressed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). They defined quantitative validity to mean that “the scores received from participants are meaningful indications of the construct being measured” (p. 210). Quantitative reliability was considered to mean that “the scores received from participants are consistent and stable over time” (p. 211).

The definition provided by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) guided the testing process for reliability or dependability adopted for the research. However, Matthews and Ross (2010) helpfully posed the definition for reliability in the form of a question, “Can my research be replicated by other researchers using the same methods?” (p. 11). They further comment that “no sane social science researcher would expect *exactly* the same results, but it should be similar for similar groups of people” (p. 11).

The questionnaires and interviews were designed to work both independently and collaboratively. This afforded the opportunity to assess reliability through a derivation of the 'test-retest' and 'alternative-form' processes. The latter is also known as 'parallel-form' (Bordens and Abbott, 2008) and 'equivalence' (Fink, 2003). However, these processes presented some difficulties.

The important task of measuring the reliability of the questionnaires was not straight forward. It was not possible to ask participants to complete two questionnaires at different time periods to facilitate fully the established test-retest or alternative-form methods. However, the interviews generally followed the completion, receipt and analysis of the questionnaires. It was therefore possible to establish measures of reliability through cross-referencing individual participant questionnaire responses to those provided during the interview phase or from quantitative data.

The anonymity of the questionnaires presented reliability sampling challenges. As part of the ethical agreement, participants were not required to identify themselves in the questionnaires, but were invited to enter a contact telephone number if they were willing to be interviewed to provide further information and clarification. In consequence, those interviewed were in general self-selected and did not represent the total questionnaire population. This reduced the sample size population for the reliability calculations.

The validity of the questionnaires was tested using the definitions of validity provided by such scholars as de Vaus (2002) and Fink (2003). de Vaus stated, "We must be sure that a question actually measures what we say it does" (p.174), and Fink commented,

“Validity refers to the degree to which a survey instrument actually measures what it purports to measure” (p. 50).

The questionnaire format and its language style were tested using pilot participants. After this, relevant adjustments were made to ensure that the intentions of the questions were clearly understood by the different participant groups, and that terms such as ‘progress’ and ‘attainment’ were also understood within the context of pupil education. This helped to ensure the ‘validity’ or ‘relationship of accuracy’ between the “responses and the reality the responses were intended to capture” (Gomm, 2004, p. 152).

The aspects of content validity were comprehensively discussed by scholars such as Bordens and Abbott (2008), Fink (2003), Litwin (1995), and Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009). They stress the importance of ensuring that the items or questions effectively address the issues being measured.

To assess the content validity of the questionnaires, the specific dimensions of each research sub-question were identified along with the supporting data strands. The items included in the questionnaires were matched to these data strands, providing an indication of the content validity. An ‘expert’ review was conducted by an experienced PhD examiner and an Ofsted Lead Inspector to determine whether the questions were both relevant and sufficient to measure the target elements of the research sub-questions.

A variety of types of interviews is available for the researcher, together with a myriad of ways in which to conduct them. The purpose of the interviews within the context of this research programme is broadly summarised by Patton (2002):

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe ... The purpose of interviewing, thus, is to allow us to enter into other person's perspective ... We interview to find out what is in and on someone else's mind, to gather their stories (pp. 340-341).

Interviews formed an important instrument in this research programme. They represented a valuable research tool for gathering data and for validating and clarifying previously collected data, such as those from the questionnaires. Moreover, they provided opportunities to both collect information from those unwilling to complete questionnaires, and also to explore complex issues in greater depth. Punch (2005) considered interviews were not only "a very good way of accessing people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and construction reality", but also "one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others" (p. 168).

The structure of the interviews was guided by the requirements of the research questions, the need to ensure reliability, validity and consistency, and the individual circumstances of the interviewee(s). The interviews were conducted either by telephone or face-to-face with individuals and small groups (Lavrakas, 1993).

The types of interviews potentially appropriate for the research programme were well described by Hughes in 2002 as a 'continuum of formality'. He interpreted this as "The informal conversational interview is at one end of the continuum and the closed

quantitative interview is at the other end” (p. 210). He outlined four main types of interviews within the continuum as informal conversational, guided, standardised open-ended, and closed quantitative. More generally though, scholars of research methodology tend to suggest that there are three basic types of interviews. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) reflected this stance when they described these three types as informal, guided (semi-structured) and structured.

The informal or unstructured interview approach was described by Morse and Niehaus (2009) as consisting of a “grand tour” question where participants are free to tell their story through an “open-ended unstructured interview” (p. 125). One of the disadvantages of this approach is that because different information is collected from different people (Hughes, 2002), the interviews are unable to capture the data necessary to answer the research questions or to be used as a reliability measuring element.

On the other hand, the structured or closed quantitative interviews follow a set of questions determined in advance. The responses are often fixed, with probes, transitions and follow-up questions pre-planned (Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2009). This approach has the advantage of supporting the reliability elements, but lacks the necessary flexibility to relate the interview to the particular participant, their questionnaire answers, and individual circumstances.

The guided interview was seen by Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) as a compromise technique involving informal and structured approaches. They provided a helpful description of this combining of techniques:

The guided interview follows an outline of questions, but not all of the prescribed probes, transitions and follow-ups are established prior to the interview. The interviewer is given freedom to deviate from the interview questions as needed to pursue serendipitous findings and fruitful directions (Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2009, p. 225).

The guided interview technique concept was adopted for the research interviews, except where specifically identified questions were included that required 'fixed' answers or where group discussions dictated that a more informal approach was appropriate. This represented an element borrowed from the closed quantitative approach. Through this combining of techniques, from across the full breadth of the continuum, the requirements of the reliability measures were met, yet the participants were able to elaborate on their questionnaire answers and introduce 'serendipitous' issues of personal importance. Indeed, the final design enabled the participants to 'speak their minds' without reservation or fear of identification or recrimination.

8.5 Data Collection and Analysis.

8.5.1 Introduction

The data collection and analysis process was controlled by the research design, which was non-experimental. Although in essence exploratory, in many ways it fitted the definition of 'descriptive designs' provided by Fink (2003) who stated:

Descriptive designs (also called observational designs) produce information on groups and phenomena that already exist. No new groups are created (p. 33).

Additionally, elements of ‘descriptive statistics’ as expounded by Argyrous (2005) were adopted for much of the analysis and presentation of the data, particularly those gathered using quantitative methods. Here Argyrous (2005) stated that “Descriptive statistics are the numerical, graphical, and tabular technique for organising, analysing, and presenting data” (p. 14).

The research study employed a range of data gathering and analysis procedures, which included the analysis of existing and newly-created datasets from raw material. The existing datasets formed a mainly quantitative element in the research, whilst the new data gathered from questionnaires and interviews contributed a more qualitative dimension. The main datasets employed for the research and their sample size are set out in table 8:1.

Table 8:1

Data Information		
	<i>Sample Size</i>	<i>Comments</i>
International air passengers	9.8 million movements	Passenger movements between A8 countries and the UK. Raw data from CAA.
International passenger interview data (2008)	581 Interviews	Unpublished raw data from ONS.
National school census	26.7 million pupil registrations	Census returns by ethnicity for each year from 2003 to 2010.
National Insurance registrations – European	2.6 million registrations	National Insurance numbers issued to European nationals entering the UK. Based on quarterly returns 2003 to 2010.
School census - case study LAs	1.2 million pupil registrations	LA school census returns for each pupil between 2003 and 2009 by ethnic group.
Case study LAs	6 Local Authorities	
School census – principal case study LA01 and schools	263,407 pupil registrations	LA data at school and pupil level
Case study schools	11	
Attendance records (pupils)	700 pupils	Attendance, attainment and progress records by ethnic group and nationality.
Attainment SAT – principal case study LA01	6,200 pupils	National curriculum assessments for the KS2 2009 cohort – by ethnicity and nationality.

8.5.2 Quantitative Data

Data were gathered and analysed from a range of sources to provide contextual information and as a process for evaluating current methods for measuring and predicting migration trends, particularly relating to A8 migrants. For example, longitudinal ethnicity studies were conducted for the period from 2003 to 2010 using national and local census and government survey documents and datasets. For the analysis of all pupil ethnic classifications the DfE-defined ethnic categories were employed and are set out in Appendix B. The analysis incorporated 26.7 million pupil census returns and was designed to provide a contextual framework in which to evaluate the numerical impact of the post 2004 immigration flow of WEEU pupils. WEEU population trends at case study LA and school level were analysed to explore developing numerical and settlement patterns. As these data were numerically expressed, the analysis was conducted using basic mathematical procedures.

8.5.3 Case Study Local Authorities

The selection of the six English case study local authorities (LAs) was determined by two main criteria. The most important, and an essential requirement, was that the LAs collected data on WEEU pupils. It should be noted that in 2002 there were 150 English LAs and only 32 elected to collect WEEU pupil data. However, not all these 32 LAs actually collected the data. Secondly, that the LAs were willing to take part in the research programme and share school data. However, it became clear during the analysis stage of the study that the data provided by one case study LA were inconsistent and unreliable. Its datasets provided an unacceptable risk to the integrity of the analysis and it was removed from the study. A replacement LA (LA06) was found

that was able to provide secure and robust ethnicity census returns, albeit in raw form, dating from 2003 to 2010. The analysis of data from yet another case study LA (LA03) revealed that the calculations for one year in particular were incorrect. The LA recalculated these census returns and produced revised datasets, which were used for the study analysis.

The authorities provided main and subsidiary category primary pupil ethnicity data from 2003. In addition, five of these LA datasets included details of WEEU pupils from 2003 and one LA dataset (LA04) included the WEEU information from 2007. Local authority LA04 was included in the research analysis even though it did not start to collect WEEU data until some five years after the other case study authorities. It was included in the research because it offered the only opportunity to analyse the data from a complete and significant city authority, albeit for a short period of time.

The principal case study LA (LA01) was selected because it met the two main criteria, had WEEU pupil data dating back to 2003 and was prepared to offer full co-operation at all levels. Importantly, primary schools within the LA and appropriate for the research studies were willing to participate in the research programme, although at varying levels of involvement.

The case study LAs and schools provided the school census data on the assurance that no organisation would be identified or identifiable in any part of the research. This was important as school and individual pupil level data were provided and made possible the identification of individual pupils and families. The ethics statement for this

research assures the anonymity of all participants. Consequently, the case study authorities, schools and participating pupils were each allocated a unique code number.

The six case study authorities covered a wide area of England and included rural, industrial urban, suburban and city locations. In addition, their primary pupil populations ranged from below to well above the national average for an English LA. The combined primary population of the case study authorities represented over five per cent of the national primary school population. Their combined annual average population for the seven years from 2003 to 2009 was 173,266 pupils, representing a total for the study period of 1,212,861 individual pupil census records. The characteristics of each LA are set out below.

LA01 and LA02 are rural shire counties. Their primary pupil populations were much larger than the average for an English local authority. Of the six case study authorities involved in the research, LA02 had the largest primary pupil population, which was more than twice the national average.

LA03 is an urban borough authority with a long industrial history. Its primary school population was broadly average when compared with authorities nationally.

LA04 is a large city authority with a long history of inward migration of pupils from minority ethnic backgrounds. Its primary school population was slightly larger than the national authority average.

LA05 is an inner city authority with a significantly higher-than-average minority ethnic population attending its primary schools. Its total primary school population was below the national average and was the smallest of the case study LAs.

LA06 is an outer city suburban borough authority with a primary pupil population that was broadly average in size when compared with local authorities nationally.

8.5.4 Case Study Schools

Eleven case study schools were involved in the research. Their level of participation varied depending on their individual circumstances during the study period and their role within the programme. For example, the analysis of school census ethnic data reliability involved eight of the case study schools. These schools in LA01 were selected because the analysis of their LA ethnicity data revealed that they were broadly typical of schools recording inconsistent pupil ethnicity returns.

Three case study schools were selected for prolonged and detailed studies. Each school recorded growing numbers of WEEU pupils on their registers, which included a range of WEEU nationalities. These three schools had a combined pupil population in excess of 700 and served catchment areas presenting different characteristics. All three were involved in longitudinal studies covering the period from 2003 to 2010. The data sources included school census returns, Ofsted evaluations, SIMS computer package records, class and pupil records, registration summaries and RAISEonline files and assessments.

Primary data, gathered at individual pupil level, were analysed to test the accuracy and reliability of the secondary data and to explore new variables as well as the relationship between variables such as ethnic groups, school attendance rates and progress and attainment. The attainment element of the studies involved Year 6 SAT results. Only two case study schools were involved in this element due to national industrial action relating to the testing process. To enhance the attainment findings, the 2009 KS2 national assessment results for all Year 6 pupils in LA01 were analysed by ethnic category. The WEEU category results were also analysed by nationality.

8.5.5 Interviews

Interviews were conducted with five different categories of participants, including education officers and officials in the UK and A8 Member States, politicians, headteachers, teachers, teacher advisers and parents.

i. Officers and Official of A8 Member States

All EU A8 Member States were contacted and involved in exploratory telephone discussions. Visits were made to three of the A8 Member States to conduct extended interviews with government officers and officials. These Member States were selected because they were willing and able to discuss the issues raised by the research and together represented a geographical and political spread across Eastern and Central Europe.

The purpose of the interviews was to explore the impact of the UK government's open border policy upon these countries and their education services. The interviews

typically extended to three hours. The number of participants involved in each interview ranged from a single director of education to a group of four officers and officials. Appendix D is a copy of a completed interview schedule. Table 8.2 sets out details of the A8 case study Member States.

Table 8.2

Details of Officers Interviewed in A8 Case Study Member States				
Member State	Area	Officers Interviewed		Date of Interviews
Hungary	Budapest	1.	Head of Education for Budapest	February 2008
		2.	Mayor's Officer – International Communications	
		3.	Education Department Officer	
		4.	Communications Officer – Mayor	
Poland	Krakow	1.	Director of Education for the Municipality of Krakow	November 2007
Latvia	Riga	1.	Head of Education and Administration - Riga	November 2007
		2.	Head of International Co-operation	

ii. Politicians and migration specialists

These interviews employed a wide range of formats including face-to-face structured interviews, informal guided discussions and small group discussions focussing on a common set of themes. Four individual interviews were conducted with British politicians and extended no longer than 45 minutes. A meeting was organised by the IPPR and the RSA in 2009 with Alan Johnson, Home Secretary, Chris Grayling, Shadow Home Secretary, and Chris Huhne, Liberal Democrat Home Affairs spokesman to discuss immigration with a small group of invited people. This provided the opportunity to discuss issues directly concerning the research programme with these politicians. The meeting lasted about one and a half hours.

Seminars and receptions hosted by the Polish and German ambassadors for small groups of migration specialists provided copious opportunities to participate in group and individual interviews and discussions with a wide range of specialists. Group discussions and short presentations typically lasting between two and three hours followed by a reception extending to at least one hour and designed to enable individual discussions to take place. Through these invited gatherings, research-related information was gathered directly from eleven specialists in the field of migration and census processes. These specialists include the director of the ONS, the specialist adviser on migration to the Labour government for seven years, the European Commission's representative in London, the IPPR director of migration and the Polish Ambassador.

iii. UK education advisers and officers

These interviews were both face-to-face and by telephone. In all, eight participants were interviewed. Three interviews were semi-structured and lasted up to one hour. One of these was digitally recorded whilst the others were recorded through contemporaneous notes. The remaining five interviews were informal guided and generally short in duration, typically extending to 15 minutes. However, three of the participants (LA EAL advisers) were also involved in the research interviews with headteachers. These interviews lasted up to one hour. One was digitally recorded and two were noted in long hand. Informal discussions with these advisers continued throughout the study periods in the schools. These informal discussions contributed much valuable information.

iv. Headteachers and teachers

Initially, interviews with headteachers from a wide geographical area, sufficient in number to permit generalisations to be drawn, were planned. A combination of telephone and face-to-face interviews were to be used. However, the pilot interviews gave rise to a number of significant concerns with this strategy. It became clear that whereas many headteachers were willing to share positive perceptions and professional judgements about the arrival and impact of WEEU pupils, they were less willing to discuss any challenges or specific difficulties that might conceivably reflect poorly on their schools' performance. Overall, the emerging picture presented by headteachers was that their schools were dealing effectively with the new arrivals.

However, individual and group interviews with teachers revealed that their perceptions of the situation concerning WEEU pupils did not always coincide with those expressed by the headteachers. It became clear that adjustments to the data collection process were necessary if the data collected were to be sufficient in breadth and depth to address the research questions in a credible and robust manner. Although the revised approach reduced the possibility of drawing generalisations, it avoided the situation whereby the generalisation could well have fitted the GIGO scenario recounted by Lowry (2011).

Consequently, the emphasis moved from single, structured interviews with large numbers of headteachers across a wide geographical area to a more thorough, rigorous and focused analysis of fewer case study schools situated in the main case study LA. The adjustment to a more intense involvement with fewer schools enabled closer and more

trusting professional relationships to develop between school and researcher. This was a distinct advantage and resulted in the collection of data that more closely mirrored reality. Palys and Lowman (2006) addressed this link between relationships and data gathering when commenting:

In some cases, information shared with a researcher may be so sensitive – and its disclosure so potentially damaging – that the fate of the individual may literally rest in the researcher’s hands. In such situations, both the researcher’s ethical obligations and the need for a solid bond of trust are clear. If people do not trust researchers, they will not share sensitive information, and the value of research to society will diminish (p. 163).

Interviews were conducted or verbal information gained from at least 31 members of the staff of the case study schools. These interviews ranged from structured-recorded formats, typically for one hour and with a headteacher, to short informal or guided discussion that often formed part of an on-going dialogue. Informal discussions, often at the instigation of a member of staff, would take place at a break time or on other appropriate occasions and provide valuable unsolicited information. The main points of such conversations were noted sub-contemporaneously and formed a continuous and ever-increasing evidence base that recorded valuable insights into research study issues. Additionally, such informal discussions highlighted areas for further exploration. The nature of these important but informal professional interactions precluded the precise recording of their duration. Similar difficulty pertained to their attribution to specific individuals.

Short telephone interviews were mainly employed to follow up questionnaire submissions or to clarify issues. Such interviews were relatively short in duration and normally less than 15 minutes. Emails were also used to gather further information. Additionally, interviews were conducted with groups of teachers. In one school, all 12 members of the teaching and support staff were interviewed together as part of a staff meeting. This meeting lasted about 30 minutes. The interviews with the headteachers of the principal case study schools (LA01-64, LA01-14 and LA01 16) were not restricted to one meeting, but formed a regular feature of research study visits. When combined, the interviews and discussions with these headteachers extended to at least seven hours.

v. Parents

A total of 18 productive interviews were conducted with parents. The WEEU parents involved in the research were selected because their children attended the case study schools. These interviews were face-to-face and by telephone. Ten telephone interviews with parents, used to follow up questionnaire responses and to clarify issues, were short in duration, lasting less than 15 minutes. Interviews were conducted in person with eight parents. Four parents were interviewed together and the meeting lasted for about 30 minutes. Other parents were interviewed individually. Three interviews were quite short and extended to no more than 15 minutes. One interview with a Polish father lasted for nearly one hour.

The interviews with parents of WEEU pupils were small in number and not intended to provide an evidence base of sufficient size to produce independent conclusions. Rather their purpose was to enhance and clarify information gathered from other sources and to act as a measure of questionnaire response validity and reliability.

vi. Interview process

The interviews with parents and schools were guided by the questionnaire structure and generally followed common theme zone formats. The analysis of interview data was divided into two distinct stages. The first was designed to check for consistency (validity) by matching and comparing the responses in the questionnaire with the pre-determined 'fixed' interview questions. The second stage was concerned with the thematic analysis of the qualitative data and the establishment of a corporate body of information for each theme, which enhanced the data gained from the questionnaires.

8.5.6 Questionnaires

i. Schools

Forty-one teachers completed a questionnaire about their experiences of working and managing A8 accession WEEU pupils. Headteachers, class teachers, LA EAL⁸ teachers and teaching assistants provided information by this means. Just over 80 per cent of the respondents were class teachers from seven case study primary schools, each with direct and current experience of teaching WEEU pupils. The remaining 20 per cent were headteachers, LA EAL teachers and teaching assistants, who were involved in the

⁸ LA EAL teacher - Local authority employed teacher of English as an additional Language.

management and teaching of WEEU pupils. The LA EAL teachers had a breadth of experience in teaching WEEU pupils throughout the local authority's schools. Appendix F is a copy of the school questionnaire.

ii. Parents

WEEU parents completed questionnaires for a total of 77 pupils. The majority of questionnaires (83 per cent) were completed for pupils of Polish nationality, whilst the Czech nations represented 9 per cent and the Slovak and Hungarian returns totalled 5 and 3 per cent respectively. The questionnaires were issued and collected during the Autumn Term 2009 and the beginning of the Spring Term 2010.

iii. Questionnaire process

The questionnaires for school staff and parents collected data on discrete and continuous variables, which were selected using criteria developed from the research questions. Categorical (nominal), ordinal and numerical (interval and ratio) rating scales were used. The design accommodated single or univariate statistical analysis and the progression to the more complex multivariate analysis. This process enabled the profiling of the research cases and populations, together with the opportunity to describe the interaction or relationship between two or more variables. Kinnear and Gray (2008) termed this process 'correlation research'.

The questionnaires were zoned into themes to facilitate ease of completion and analysis. Computer program spread sheets, principally 'Microsoft Excel', were used to record the raw data and make initial univariate calculations. The data were analysed at

individual, theme and multi-theme levels of variables. This process enabled the drawing out of pertinent bivariate issues and multivariate relationships and patterns.

The computer software program SPSS was used to analyse statistics, together with traditional 'hand and brain' calculations. SPSS was particularly efficient in estimating the relationship between two or more variables or characteristics (Argyrous, 2005; Kinnear and Gray, 2008).

The distribution of the parent questionnaires was mainly managed by the case study schools. Although most Polish parents spoke some English, the pilot study revealed that questionnaires in English resulted in some confusion over terminology. To resolve this difficulty, a Polish language questionnaire was produced for the main study (Appendix E English Version). In one school, a particular WEEU national group of parents met with a school interpreter who assisted them in completing the questionnaires, ensuring accurate interpretation and completion. All members of the teaching staff in case study schools were given the opportunity to complete a questionnaire, as were LA support teachers and advisers attached to these schools.

Members of staff and parents were not required to identify themselves and confidentiality was assured through the provision of return envelopes clearly marked as confidential, which could be sealed and returned to the researcher directly or via the school.

8.6 Ethical Considerations

The research design was significantly influenced by the programme's ethical dimensions. The importance of ethics in research was stressed by Basit in 2010 when he wrote that "Ethical considerations are extremely important in educational research and researchers need to ensure that research is conducted in an ethical manner" (p. 56). Moreover, the importance of a strong ethical code for any research programme was well made by Morrow in 2009 who held that unethical research can "seriously damage people's lives, futures, reputations and relationships"(p. 1). These comments were well heeded during the development stages and conduct of the research.

Specific ethical dilemmas raised by the research programme were appropriately resolved and an ethics statement covering all aspects of the programme was developed. This statement was reviewed and judged to have met the required standards of the ethical approval system of the University.

In developing the ethical protocols for the research, consideration was given to the key underlying principles of ethics that relate specifically to social science and educational research. The exploration of these principles in academic literature played a valuable and instructive role in ensuring that all aspects of the research programme were ethically secure.

The confusion that sometimes exists between the moral and ethical responsibilities of researchers was somewhat resolved by Robson (2002) when he stated:

Ethics are usually taken as referring to general principles of what one ought to do, while morals are usually taken as concerned with whether or not a specific act is consistent with accepted notions of right and wrong (p. 66).

One of the key principles of ethics specifies that the design should ensure 'professional integrity and quality' (Matthews and Ross, 2010). The British Sociology Association (BSA) (2004) included the additional requirement that the findings should be reported accurately and truthfully. A number of actions and processes were included into the research design specifically to address these points.

The actions taken to ensure the professional integrity of this research were guided by the works of organisations such as the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRCO (2010) and BSA (2009), and scholars such O'Leary (2005) and Oliver (2003). The full research programme was professionally supervised from its inception to its completion, and the research data, which were systematically recorded, were tested for validity and reliability. In common with all the research processes, the relationships between the research data and the final conclusions were reported in an open and transparent manner.

'Informed consent' is another important key ethical principle that guides the conduct of research. Matthews and Ross (2010) contended:

The basis of informed consent is making sure that the people who are going to take part in the research understand what they are consenting to participate in consent should be freely given [with] the right to withdraw at any time without giving any reason (p. 73).

The seriousness of not gaining informed consent is well illustrated by the medical research known as the Tuskegee Syphilis Study, which began in 1932 in the United States. The ramifications of the unethical approach adopted for this study have influenced ethical research protocols to this day. The consequences of this study were examined by Hesse-Biber in 2005, who concluded:

At no time in the course of this project were subjects asked to give their consent to participate in the study. They were not told about the particulars of what the study would entail. In fact, those who participated did not volunteer for the project! Instead, they were deceived into thinking that they were getting free treatment from government doctors for a serious disease (Hesse-Biber, 2005, p. 84.)

In fact the men participating in the study were not treated for this serious disease even when effective antibiotics became available. They progressed to levels of increased disability and early deaths. Whilst the links between social science and educational research and their consequences are not as direct as those for medical research, any research programme incorrectly managed can produce similarly serious consequences (Morrow, 2009).

For this research programme, the informed consent of all participants was considered of paramount importance and was reflected in the ethics statement. The purpose and objectives of the research were explained to all potential participants and it was stressed that they were free to participate or not as they wished and could withdraw at any time.

The initial approach made to organisations and individuals inviting them to participate in this research reflected their different contexts and situations. For example, officials, officers and schools were initially contacted by letter or email. This first communication outlined the purpose and process of the research, the underlying ethical principles, stressing particularly the guarantee of anonymity, and stated that the research was conducted under the auspices of Warwick University. In addition, a summary of the researcher's curriculum vitae was included. In some instances, initial contact was made by telephone as the potential participants were known to the researcher. A summary of the ethics statement was produced for participants. During all first meetings with participants the purpose of the research and ethical issues were discussed.

The research programme could not achieve its objectives if participants were unwilling to comment freely about their work, experiences and perceptions. To ensure full and open participation, the issues of confidentiality and anonymity were addressed. As Matthews and Ross commented in 2010, "Participants should be assured that they will not be identified in the research and that their input to the project will be confidential" (p. 78). The BSA concurred with the thoughts of Mathews and Ross, but also prescribed pre-emptive planning:

The anonymity and privacy of those who participate in the research should be respected. Personal information concerning research participants should be kept confidential. ... Where possible, threats to the confidentiality and anonymity of research data should be anticipated by researchers ... Appropriate measures should be taken to store research data in a secure manner (BSA, 2005, p. 5).

Guarantees of confidentiality and anonymity of all organisations and individual participants were given and reinforced throughout the conduct of the programme. For example, a guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity was incorporated into the introduction of all questionnaires. The introduction included the statement:

... All information provided through this questionnaire concerning individual children and adults will be treated as confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the research programme. No individual child, adult or organisation will be identified or identifiable in any report or publication ... (Extract from Introduction to questionnaires)

To help ensure confidentiality and anonymity, a coding system was adopted for all participating organisations and individuals. In addition, descriptions of the characteristics of schools or local authorities were restricted to generalisations rather than precise information. For example, case study local authorities were described by generalities so that they could not be identified. The same approach was used for case study schools, teachers, parents and pupils. This was a very important issue for the research as individual pupil data were accessed and analysed. However, all pupils were coded before this took place and no records attributable to individual or groups of pupils were stored in any format, including paper and computer copies. As a further safeguard, the individual pupil codes were computer scrambled and new non-sequential codes created.

In compliance with the principles of data confidentiality, individual participants in interviews were able to determine the recording method for their interviews. Many

preferred that the interview was not electronically recorded. Others requested that no notes be taken during the interview, but were happy for the content to be summarised following the interview as long as anonymity was assured. As a result, interview data were recorded by a range of methods including electronic, contemporaneous note taking and post-interview summarisations.

Data were stored securely in both hard and electronic formats. The data were accessible only by the researcher and electronic forms were encrypted and password protected. At regular intervals throughout the research programme the effectiveness of the ethical assurance processes was reviewed to assess their continuing fitness for purpose and compliance with the approved ethics statement.

8.7 Conclusion

This Chapter sets out the detail of the research methodology and the processes involved in its development. From the start, there was wide uncertainty about the reliability of the official and unofficial A8 immigration facts. The broadly-based research question reflected this uncertainty. The refining processes helped to define sub-questions linked to specific areas of research. The research design and processes were shaped by the need to gather data that could best answer the research questions. An exploratory, combined method approach was employed as this assisted the collection of evidence enabling unambiguous conclusions relating directly to the principal research question to be drawn.

Questionnaires, interviews and data collection and analysis were adopted to provide the main evidence base. A range of evidence-collecting instruments was included. This provided opportunity for triangulation to facilitate a clearer and more revealing insight into the pertinent research issues and uncover obscured evidence, referred to by Taleb (2010) as 'silent evidence'.

Ethical considerations played a pivotal part in all aspects of the research. The sensitive nature of much of the information gathered, especially pupil level data, was respected throughout the research programme. The confidentiality of data and the anonymity of all participants were assured and enhanced through the use of a computer 'scrambling' coding system.

Chapter 9

National School Census Analysis

9.1. Introduction

This section reports on the analysis of the annual school census returns submitted by English primary schools from 2003 to 2010. It is a legal requirement for all maintained schools to complete the annual census, which includes both school and individual pupil information (Education Act 1996: § 537A). The purpose of the analysis was to identify variations and developing trends in the ethnic composition of English primary schools. The analysis incorporated 26.7 million pupil census returns and was designed to provide a contextual framework in which to evaluate the numerical impact of the post 2004 immigration flow of WEEU pupils. Principal calculations from the data analysis are summarised in Table 9:2.

The school census is the Department for Education's largest and most complex data collection exercise. The data published by the DfE is presented as factual information and not as estimates (DfE, 2010a; 2010b). By 2003, the school census had adopted the revised ethnic categories used in the 2001 national census. Here, six main ethnic

categories were employed: White, Mixed, Asian, Black, Chinese and Other Ethnic Groups. These main categories were then divided into subsidiary categories. For example, the main Asian category was sub-divided into Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Any Other Asian Background. The subsidiary categories were further divided into LA elective 'approved extended categories'. Only information from the main and subsidiary categories is required by statute and is collected and published by the DfE (Appendix B).

The WEEU ethnic category is subsumed within the main White category and the 'Any Other White Background' (WOTH) subsidiary category and is not identifiable as a discrete ethnic group at either of these levels. WEEU pupils are only identifiable as a discrete category at the LA elective approved extended level. Information gathered at this level is not collected, analysed or published by the DfE and, consequently, there is no national WEEU data available. WEEU pupils are defined by the DfE as 'minority ethnic' along with all pupils classified according to their ethnic group and who are other than White British. Table 9:1 sets out the school census recording levels for WEEU pupils.

Table 9:1

The levels of ethnic categories relating to WEEU pupils			
Category		Notes	Publication
Main	White (All White including WEEU)	WEEU pupils are not identifiable as a discrete group at this level as they are subsumed within the main White category (DfE data).	Statutorily required. Returns published by DfE
Subsidiary	WOTH (Any Other White Background, including WEEU)	WEEU are not identifiable as a discrete group at this level as they are subsumed within the WOTH subsidiary category (DfE data).	
Voluntary 'Approved Extended'	WEEU (White Eastern European)	It is only at this level that WEEU pupils are identifiable as a distinct group (elective LA data only).	Voluntary. Returns not analysed or published by DfE.

9.2 Missing Cases

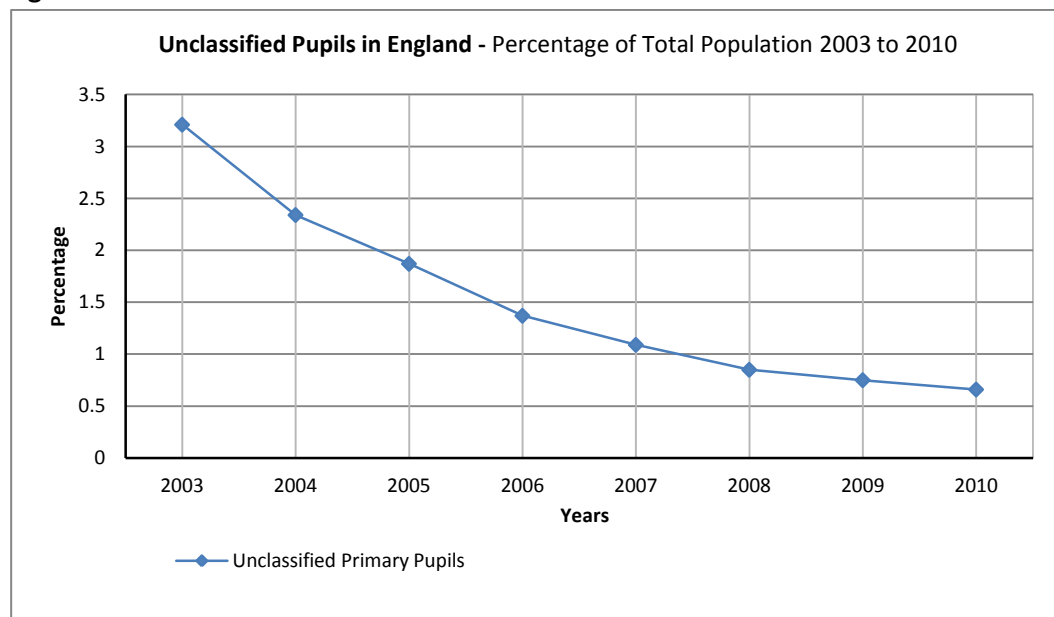
This section concerning data reliability and missing cases is included here as it explains how these important issues have been addressed and taken into account in the following analysis.

The concerns over the reliability of the census data enumerations are discussed in full in Chapters 5 and 12. Whilst acknowledging that measurement errors were inherent within the published enumerations, the analysis was conducted using the exact figures published by the DfE, with calculations rounded to two decimal places where appropriate. However, the propagation of these errors through combined census category calculations was reduced where possible by restricting the analysis to the single ethnic category.

The missing cases represented by the presence of ethnically ‘unclassified’ pupils in the census returns provided a further challenge to the accurate interpretation of the data. Pupils are recorded as ‘unclassified’ when a school has not obtained a pupil’s ethnic group, has not ascribed an ethnic group to a pupil or the parents have refused to provide the information. Moreover, the unclassified pupil data collected through the LA case study revealed that unclassified pupils were not evenly spread across geographical areas or schools. Consequently, the missing values could not be replaced by any meaningful default substitutes.

Additionally, the percentage of unclassified pupils did not remain constant, but declined in each year from 2003 to 2010. The number of unclassified pupils in 2003 was 111,500 or 3.21 per cent of the total population. By 2010, the number had declined to 21,450 pupils, representing 0.66 per cent of the population. This annual decline is set out in Table 9:2.N. (unclassified) and is illustrated in Figure 9:1.

Figure 9:1



The unknown influence of the unclassified pupil missing cases upon the population of individual ethnic groups, combined with the ‘error factors’ present in the census enumerations, led to great caution being taken in the interpretation of the data. Whilst acknowledging the influence of these ‘error factors’, the school census does provide the only national data available from which to examine general trends in the ethnic composition of the English primary school population over time.

Table 9:2.

Table 9:2 sets out the principal data calculations resulting from part of the analysis of the English annual primary school census enumerations. The data analysis in the table covers the period from January 2003 to January 2010 and is based on the provisional releases published in April each year by the DfE. The data are for all pupils of compulsory school age and above registered at a maintained primary school in England.

References are made to Table 9:2 throughout the text in this chapter. To aid cross-referencing, each column is ascribed an identification letter. For example, the data for the 'White British' category are set out in column 'C', and are referenced in the text as Table 9:2.C.

In the table, numbers printed in **Blue** indicate declining populations and those in **Red** indicate increasing populations.

The Minority Ethnic group is defined by the DfE to include all pupils classified as belonging to an ethnic group other than White British.

Table 9:2 All primary pupils - in England of compulsory school age - by ethnic group from 2003 to 2010 – Main focus – All White Section.

Year	All Pupils	All White	White British	Irish	Traveller Irish	Gypsy Roma	Any other White	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese	Any other ethnic gps	Minority Ethnic	Unclassified
Column Letter	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
			White Ethnic Group – Sub-Groups					Ethnic Groups other than White						
2003	3,473,200	2,853,800	2,762,100	13,300	2,600	4,400	71,300	104,200	235,700	127,900	10,800	29,400	599,600	111,500
Variation	-44,800	-39,200	-42,700	-300	+300	+300	+3,200	+5100	+9500	+8,100	+400	+2,600	+29,300	-31,400
2004	3,428,400	2,814,600	2,719,400	13,000	2,900	4,700	74,500	109,300	245,200	136,000	11,200	32,000	628,900	80,100
Variation	-32,800	-39,600	-44,200	-300	+100	+100	+4,800	+4,000	+10,100	+6700	-100	+2,700	+28,000	-16,600
2005	3,395,600	2,775,000	2,675,200	12,700	3,000	4,800	79,300	113,300	255,300	142,700	11,100	34,700	656,900	63,500
Variation	-46,100	-51,700	-60,510	-350	+30	+410	+8,720	+4,240	+10,550	+5,740	-50	+2,650	+31,930	-17,520
2006	3,349,500	2,723,300	2,614,690	12,350	3,030	5,210	88,020	117,540	265,850	148,440	11,050	37,350	688,830	45,980
Variation	-44,300	-56,460	-68,950	-580	-150	+190	+13,030	+4,950	+10,760	+3,690	+00	+2,780	+34,680	-10,030
2007	3,305,200	2,666,840	2,545,740	11,770	2,880	5,400	101,050	122,490	276,610	152,130	11,050	40,130	723,510	35,950
Variation	-43,920	-57,720	-70,780	-520	-40	+290	+13,340	+4,830	+12,010	+3,190	-120	+2,220	+35,200	-8,330
2008	3,261,280	2,609,120	2,474,960	11,250	2,840	5,690	114,390	127,320	288,620	155,320	10,930	42,350	758,710	27,620
Variation	-37,040	-54,380	-65,090	-540	-10	+650	+10,610	+5,680	+10,930	+2,760	-90	+1,560	+31,540	-3,500
2009	3,224,240	2,554,740	2,409,870	10,710	2,830	6,340	125,000	133,000	299,550	158,080	10,840	43,910	790,250	24,120
Variation	+5,850	-18,980	-24,600	-400	+0	+840	+5,160	+7,290	+11,410	+5,670	+200	+2,940	+33,130	-2,670
2010	3,230,090	2,535,760	2,385,270	10,310	2,830	7,180	130,160	140,290	310,960	163,750	11,040	46,850	823,380	21,450
Total change 03-07	-168,000	-186,960	-216,360	-1,560	+280	+1000	+29,750	+18,290	+40,910	+24,230	+250	+10,730	123,910	-75,550
Total change 03-08	-211,920	-244,680	-287,140	-2,050	+240	+1,290	+43,090	+23,120	+52,920	+27,420	+130	+12,950	159,110	-103,170
Total change 03-09	-248,960	-299,060	-352,230	-2590	+230	+1,940	+53,700	+28,800	+63,850	+30,180	+40	+14,510	190,650	-106,670
Total change 03-10	-243,110	-318,040	-376,830	-2,990	+230	+2780	+58,860	+36,090	+75,260	+35,850	+240	+17,450	223,780	-109,340
Av. Yr change 03-05	-38,800	-39,400	-43,450	-300	+200	+200	+4,000	+4,550	+9,800	+7,400	+150	+2,650	+28,650	-24,000
Av. Yr change 03-06	-41,233	-43,500	-49,136	-317	+143	+270	+5,573	+4,447	+10,050	+6,847	+83	+2,650	+29,743	-21,840
Av. Yr change 03-07	-42,000	-46,740	-54,090	-390	+70	+250	+7,438	+5,473	+10,228	+6,058	+63	+5,183	+30,978	-18,888
Av. Yr change 03-08	-42,384	-48,936	-57,428	-410	+48	+258	+8,618	+4,624	+10,584	+5,484	+26	+2,590	+31,822	-16,776
AV. Yr change 03-09	-41,493	-49,843	-58,705	-432	+38	+323	+8,950	+4,800	+10,642	+5,030	+7	+2,418	+31,775	-14,563
Av. Yr change 03-10	-34,730	-45,434	-53,833	-427	+33	+397	+8,409	+5,156	+10,751	+5,121	+34	+2,493	+31,969	-12,864
% change 03 to 07	-4.84%	-6.55%	-7.83%	-11.73%	+10.77%	+22.73	+41.73%	+17.55%	+17.37%	+18.94%	+2.31%	+36.51%	+20.67%	-67.76%
% change 03 to 08	-6.10%	-8.57%	-10.40%	-15.41%	+9.23%	+29.32	+60.43%	+22.19%	+22.45%	+21.44%	+1.20%	+44.05%	+26.56%	-92.53%
% change 03 to 09	-7.17%	-10.48%	-12.75%	-19.47%	+8.85%	+44.09%	+75.32%	+27.64%	+27.09%	+23.60%	+0.37%	+49.36%	+31.80%	-95.67%
% change 03 to 10	-7.00%	-11.15%	-13.65	-22.49%	+8.85%	63.19%	+82.55%	+34.64%	+31.93%	+28.03%	+2.23%	+59.36%	+37.33%	-98.07%
Yr % change 03-04	-1.29%	-1.37%	-1.55%	-2.25%	+11.54%	+6.82%	+4.49%	+4.89%	+4.03%	+6.33%	+3.70%	+8.84%	+4.89%	-28.17%
Yr % change 04- 05	-0.96%	-1.41%	-1.63%	-2.31%	+3.45%	+2.13%	+6.44%	+3.66%	+4.12%	+4.93%	-0.89%	+8.44%	+4.46%	-20.73%
Yr % change 05- 06	-1.36%	-1.86%	-2.26%	-2.76%	+1.00%	+8.54%	+10.10%	+3.74%	+4.13%	+4.02%	-0.45%	+7.64%	+4.86%	-27.59%
Yr % change 06-07	-1.32%	-2.07%	-2.64%	-4.69%	-4.95%	+3.65%	+14.80%	+4.21%	+4.35%	+2.49%	+0.00%	+7.44%	+5.04%	-21.82%
Yr % change 07-08	-1.33%	-2.16%	-2.78%	-4.42%	-1.39%	+5.37%	+13.20%	+3.94%	+4.34%	+2.10%	-1.18%	+5.53%	+4.87%	-23.18%
Yr % change 08-09	-1.14%	-2.08%	-2.63%	-4.80%	-0.35%	+11.42%	+9.28%	+4.46%	+3.79%	+1.78%	-0.82%	+3.68%	+4.16%	-12.68%
Yr % change 09-10	+0.19%	-0.75%	-1.02%	-3.74%	+0	+13.25%	+4.13%	+5.49%	+3.81%	+3.59%	+1.85	+6.70%	+4.20%	-11.07%

Information from analysis of School Census from 2003 to 2010 (DfE – January Provisional).

BLUE numbers indicate a declining pupil population RED numbers indicate a increasing pupil population

(M). Minority Ethnic Group includes all pupils classified as belonging to an ethnic group other than White British. (N). Information refused, not ascribed or not obtained.

9.3 All Ethnic Groups

The school census enumerations indicate that the total number of pupils of statutory school age or above attending English primary schools has declined. In 2003 there were 3,473,200 primary pupils registered, but by 2010 this number had fallen by seven per cent to 3,230,090. This represents a reduction in the pupil population of nearly a quarter of a million over the seven year period. The primary school population fell on average each year by 41,493 until 2010, when the census enumerations indicated that there was a small overall increase in that year of 5,850 pupils. The annual total population (All Pupils) and the calculations of variation are set out in detail in Table 9:2.A.

The census datasets show that the decline in pupil numbers was not evenly spread across the ethnic groups. For example, between 2003 and 2010 the White British category declined by 13.65 per cent, whereas the Minority Ethnic population grew consistently year-on-year to attain an overall increase for the period of 37.33 per cent. Table 9:3 sets out the rate of increase in the Minority Ethnic group as a percentage of the total English primary school population.

Table 9:3

Minority Ethnic Pupils - as a Percentage of all Primary Pupils and the Annual Percentage Point Variation from 2003 to 2010								
Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
%	17.26	18.34	19.35	20.57	21.89	23.26	24.51	25.49
Variation		+1.08	+1.01	+1.22	+1.32	+1.37	+1.25	+0.98

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of School Census Datasets – DFE – 2003 to 2010

Over the seven years from 2003 to 2010, the Minority Ethnic group increased by an average of 1.18 percentage points each year, representing an annual average growth of

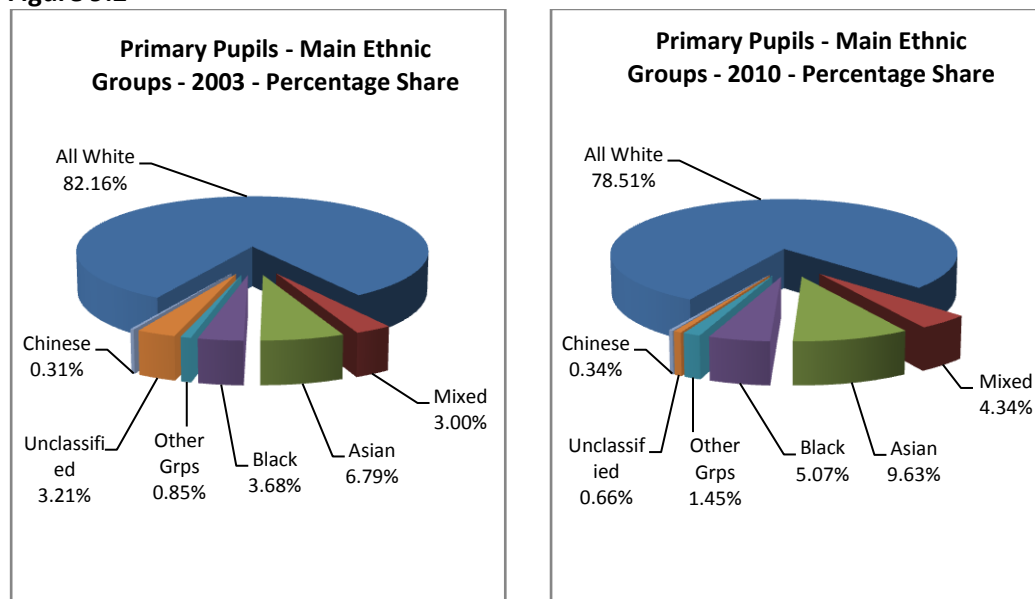
31,969 pupils. In 2003, approximately one in six pupils (17.26%) was classified as Minority Ethnic, but by 2010 this figure had risen to one in four (25.49%). If the current seven year average rate of increase were to be sustained for the next seven years, the Minority Ethnic population in English schools would exceed one million pupils and broadly equate to one in three primary school pupils. However, this forward extrapolation does not factor in the year-on-year decline in the White British school population, which, if maintained, would increase further the percentage share of the Minority Ethnic group.

It should be noted that the percentage of 17.26 quoted for 2003 in Table 9:3 is different from that published by the DfES in its 2003 census summary and press release. In 2003 the DfES published erroneous calculations that stated that 15.1 per cent of those classified by ethnic group were Minority Ethnic pupils (DfES, 2003c). This incorrect calculation resulted from the mistaken assumption that Minority Ethnic pupils included all pupils classified as belonging to an ethnic group other than White (main category). The correct definition of the Minority Ethnic group is that it 'includes all pupils classified as belonging to an ethnic group other than White British', which is a sub-category (ONS, 2010j). This miscalculation in 2003 had the effect of reducing the actual number of Minority Ethnic pupils in English primary schools in that year by 12.5 per cent, representing 75,147 primary pupils. The 2004 DfES census publication (DfES, 2004a) correctly calculated the percentage of Minority Ethnic pupils for 2004 and reported the correct 2003 percentage rounded to 17.3.

The analysis of the percentage share of the school population held by each of the main ethnic categories indicates that all groups increased in number between 2003 and 2010,

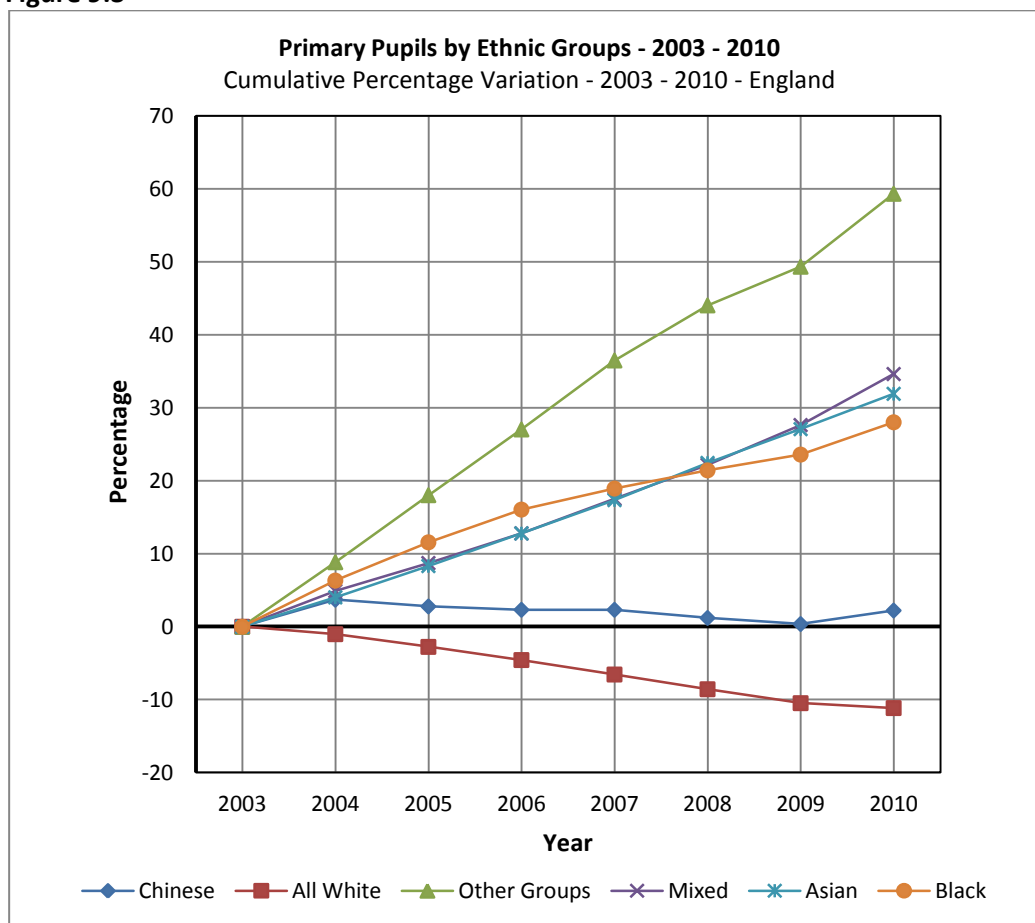
with the exception of the All White and Unclassified categories. Figure 9:2 shows that the All White category declined by 3.65 percentage points and the Unclassified category by 2.55 percentage points. In contrast, the Asian category increased by 2.84, the Black by 1.39, the Mixed by 1.34 and the Chinese by 0.03 percentage points.

Figure 9:2



Whilst Figure 9:2 compares the variation in the ethnic group percentage share of the population in 2003 and 2010, this does not present the full picture. As the total size of the primary school population in England decreased overall, an ethnic group with static pupil numbers year-on-year will increase its percentage share of the total school population. On the other hand, cumulative percentage variations provide an indication of the population changes of individual ethnic categories. Here though, the weakness is that ethnic groups or sub-groups with small numbers of pupils can demonstrate large cumulative variations through the increase or decrease of a very few pupils. Figure 9:3 illustrates the cumulative variations of the six main ethnic categories from 2003 to 2010.

Figure 9:3



The Chinese group was by far the smallest of the main categories and its numbers remained relatively constant. Its population totalled 10,800 in 2003, increased to 11,200 in 2004 and then decreased year-on-year until 2010. The group's relatively small cumulative seven year variation of +1.85 per cent obscures minor annual increases and decreases (Table 9:2.K).

The Any Other Ethnic category was the second smallest and grew each year from 29,400 pupils in 2003 to 46,850 by 2010. This represents a cumulative percentage

increase of 59.35 per cent, which was the largest variation of any of the main categories. However, it remained the second smallest main category (Table 9:2. L).

The Mixed, Asian and Black categories recorded broadly similar percentage increases from 2003 to 2010. By contrast, the All White category, the most populous main group, and the Unclassified pupil category were the only main groups to record year-on-year decreases in their pupil populations.

The varying influences of the subsidiary categories upon population trends of the main Minority Ethnic categories of Asian, Black and Mixed are shown in Table 9:4.

Table 9:4

Percentage Variation in the number of English Primary Pupils in the Asian, Black and Mixed Subsidiary Categories - 2003 and 2010			
Ethnic Group	2003	2010	Percentage Variation
Main: All Asian	235,700	310,960	+31.93
Indian	74,700	81,590	+09.22
Pakistani	98,900	131,470	+32.93
Bangladeshi	40,100	53,940	+34.51
A.O. Asian	22,000	43,960	+99.82
Main: All Black	127,900	163,750	+28.03
Black Caribbean	51,200	45,210	-11.70
Black African	62,900	99,060	+57.49
A.O. Black	13,800	19,480	+41.16
Main: All Mixed	104,200	140,290	+34.64
White/Black Caribbean	37,200	42,730	+14.87
White/Black African	9,600	16,050	+67.19
White/Asian	20,700	30,500	+47.34
A.O. Mixed	36,800	51,010	+38.61

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of school census datasets – DFE – 2003 to 2010.

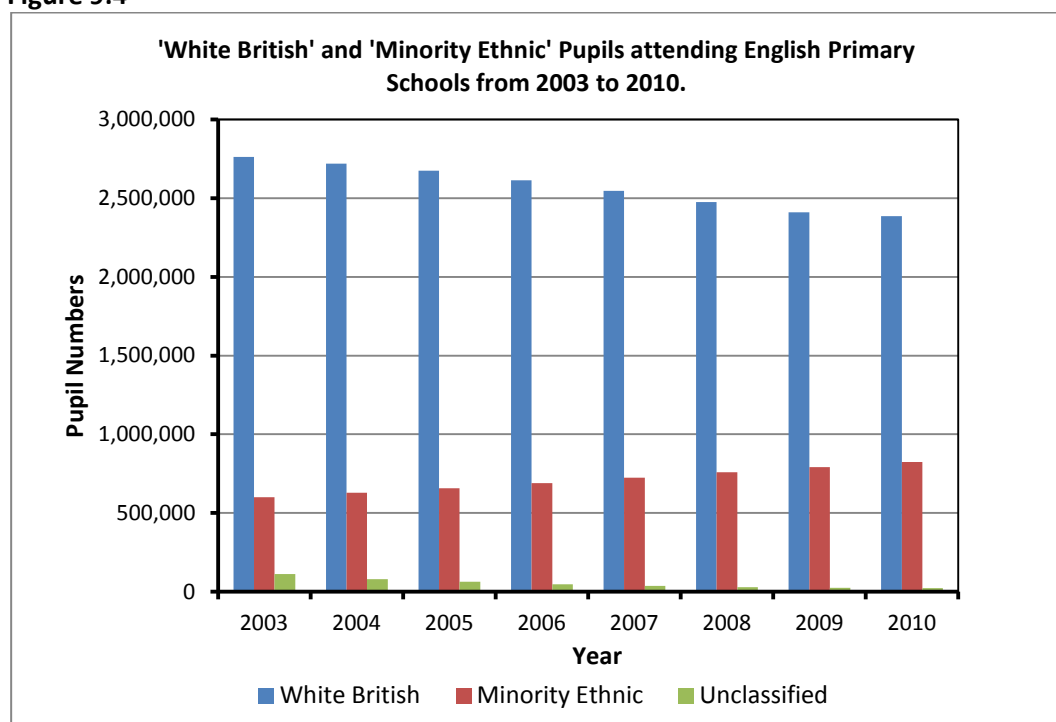
The Asian group was the second largest and in 2003 had a population of 235,700 pupils, which grew by 31.93 per cent to 310,960 pupils in 2010 (Table 9:2.I). The variation in population of the Asian sub-categories was quite marked. Whilst all Asian sub-categories increased, the most notable variation was between the Indian population that grew by 9.22 per cent and the Any Other Asian population that grew by 99.82 per cent, the largest percentage increase recorded by any main or subsidiary category.

Over the seven year period, the Black main category maintained a pupil population that was just less than half that of the main Asian group, increasing overall by 28.03 per cent (Table 9:2.J). However, the Black subsidiary categories presented both increasing and decreasing trends. With the exception of some White categories, the Black Caribbean group was the only one to record a declining population. Its numbers fell by 11.7 per cent from 51,200 in 2003 to 45,210 in 2010. On the other hand, the Black African group increased by 57.49 per cent over the same period.

The Mixed category also experienced an overall year-on-year population growth, increasing by 34.64 per cent from 104,200 pupils in 2003 to 140,290 by 2010 (Table 9:2.H). It is noticeable that the White and Black Caribbean Mixed group increased by 14.87 per cent, compared with the significantly larger 67.19 per cent increase recorded by the White and Black African Mixed group. It is evident from the enumerations that the subsidiary categories involving Black Caribbean and White/Black Caribbean Mixed pupils did not follow the growth trends established by the other Asian, Black and Mixed subsidiary categories.

Figure 9:4 is designed to place in context the comparative difference between the population trends recorded by the White British, the Minority Ethnic and the Unclassified categories from 2003 to 2010. The Unclassified category is shown for completeness. Together these three categories represent the total maintained English primary school population. Whilst taking into account all aspects of census and enumeration errors and missing data, there are clear indications that the White British primary school population declined year-on-year and the Minority Ethnic population increased each year over the same period.

Figure 9:4



In conclusion, the total primary school population decreased, as did the White British and the Unclassified categories. The Asian, Black, Chinese and Mixed categories increased overall. The Minority Ethnic categories recorded a combined increase in pupil numbers and their percentage share of the total school population.

9.4 White Ethnic Group

The reduction in the number of White pupils in English primary schools is clearly evident from the analysis of the school census enumerations. However, this overall decline conceals significant underlying variations in the populations of the individual White ethnic subsidiary categories. There are five such categories: White British, White Irish, Traveller of Irish Heritage, Gypsy/Roma and White Other Background. Table 9:5 shows the variations in the pupil populations of the five White subsidiary categories, the main White category and the total number of White Minority Ethnic pupils for each year from 2003 to 2010.

Table 9:5

The Variation in the Populations of the White Subsidiary Categories from 2003 to 2010							
Year	All White	White British	Irish	Traveller	Gypsy	White	White
Code	(White)	(WBRI)	(WIRI)	Irish (WIRT)	Roma (WROM)	Other (WOTH)	Minority Ethnic
Column Letter	B	C	D	E	F	G	
	Main Ethnic Category	White Ethnic Subsidiary Categories					Total of columns D, E, F and G
2003	2,853,800	2,762,100	13,300	2,600	4,400	71,300	91,600
Variation	-39,200	-42,700	-300	+300	+300	+3,200	+3,500
2004	2,814,600	2,719,400	13,000	2,900	4,700	74,500	95,100
Variation	-39,600	-44,200	-300	+100	+100	+4,800	+4,700
2005	2,775,000	2,675,200	12,700	3,000	4,800	79,300	99,800
Variation	-51,700	-60,510	-350	+30	+410	+8,720	+8,810
2006	2,723,300	2,614,690	12,350	3,030	5,210	88,020	108,610
Variation	-56,460	-68,950	-580	-150	+190	+13,030	+12,490
2007	2,666,840	2,545,740	11,770	2,880	5,400	101,050	121,100
Variation	-57,720	-70,780	-520	-40	+290	+13,340	+13,070
2008	2,609,120	2,474,960	11,250	2,840	5,690	114,390	134,170
Variation	-54,380	-65,090	-540	-10	+650	+10,610	+10,710
2009	2,554,740	2,409,870	10,710	2,830	6,340	125,000	144,880
Variation	-18,980	-24,600	-400	+0	+840	+5,160	+5,600
2010	2,535,760	2,385,270	10,310	2,830	7,180	130,160	149,480

Blue numbers indicate declining pupil population. Red numbers indicate increasing pupil numbers.

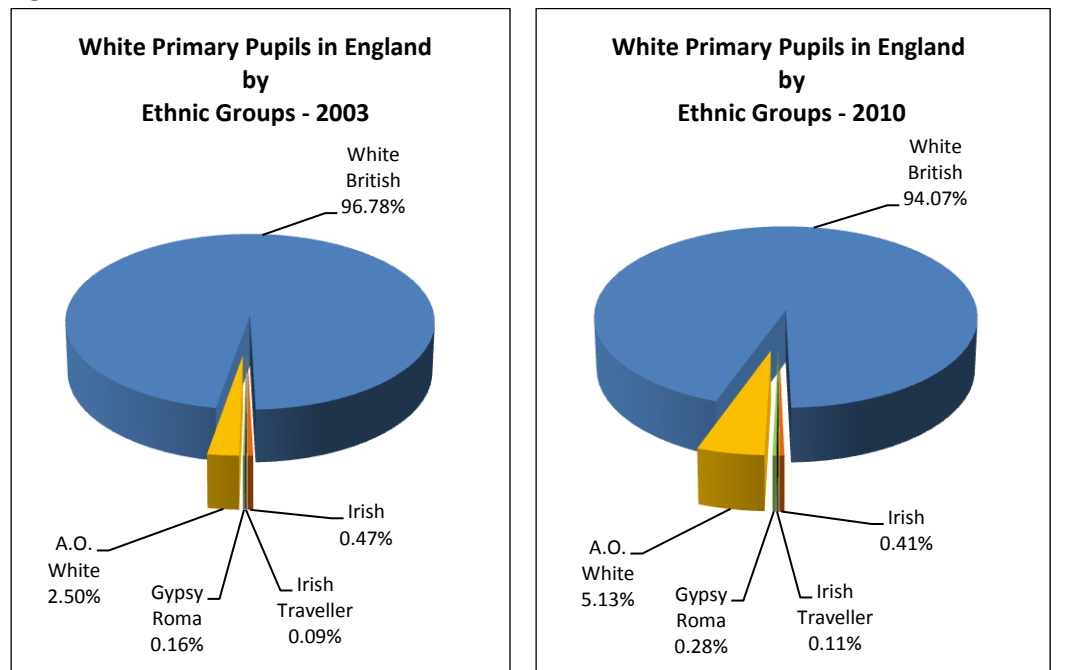
White Minority Ethnic includes all pupils classified as belonging to a White ethnic group other than White British.

Source: Information from analysis of School Census datasets from 2003 to 2010 (DfE – January Provisional)

The number of pupils in the White British and the White Irish subsidiary categories declined between 2003 and 2010, whilst the Traveller of Irish Heritage, the Gypsy/Roma and the White Other Background categories increased their pupil populations. The variation in the size of the population of each of the White subsidiary groups influenced

their relative percentage share. Figure 9:5 compares the relative percentage share of each subsidiary category for 2003 and 2010.

Figure 9.5



The White British category remained the largest of all the subsidiary categories despite its consistently declining population. Overall, it declined by 2.71 percentage points from 96.78 per cent in 2003 to 94.07 per cent in 2010. This variation represents a reduction of 376,830 pupils, a fall of 13.65 per cent.

The White Irish pupil population similarly declined in each successive year. In all, it contracted by 2,990 pupils over the seven year period; an annual average 427 pupils. Whilst the cumulative percentage reduction of 22.49 per cent was by far the largest percentage decrease of any ethnic category, its percentage share of the White category

only fell by 0.06 of a percentage point as a result of its relatively small pupil population (Table 9:2.D).

In 2003, there were 13,300 Irish pupils registered at English maintained primary schools. This number dropped to 10,310 by 2010. The analysis indicates that the overall number of Irish primary pupils was lower than might be expected when the total resident Irish population in England was taken into account. The 2004 Neighbourhood Statistics, which are produced by the Office for National Statistics, estimated that there were 624,115 Irish residents in England on 18th November, 2004. Two months later in January, 2005, the school census enumerations showed that there were 12,700 Irish pupils attending English primary schools. This showed that Irish primary school pupils constituted 2.04 per cent of the total Irish population resident in England during the 2004 / 2005 academic year. To place in context the ratio of Irish primary pupils to the total Irish population in England, Table 9:6 sets out the number of primary pupils by ethnic group as a percentage of each of six ethnic population categories.

Table 9:6

Primary Pupils as a Percentage of Ethnic Population Categories – Academic Year – 2004/5						
Ethnic Group	Irish	All Persons	All White	Mixed	Asian	Black
Total Population	624,115	49,138,831	44,679,361	643,373	2,248,289	1,132,508
Pupil Population	12,700	3,395,600	2,775,000	113,300	255,300	142,700
Percentage of Pupils	2.04	6.91	6.21	17.61	11.36	12.60

Calculations based on ONS (November, 2004) and DfE (January, 2005) datasets

The comparison data calculations indicate that the Irish pupil population as a proportion of the total Irish population in England was much smaller than that of the other ethnic groups. For example, as a proportion of the total Irish population, the Irish school population was over 300 per cent smaller than the national average and the All White category. Moreover, it was 863 per cent smaller than the Mixed category, which had a total population in England that broadly matched that of the Irish. The Asian and Black pupils also accounted for a higher percentage proportion of their total ethnic population than the Irish at 557 per cent and 618 per cent greater respectively.

Great caution was taken in drawing any conclusions from the pupil / population ratios because of dataset reliability and the error propagation factors. That said, Dodds et al (2006) found that the 2001 decennial census showed that the White Irish population in Great Britain had one of the oldest age profiles, whilst the Asian, particularly Bangladeshi and Pakistani, had the youngest. These findings by Dodds et al (2006) are broadly consistent with the calculation of ratios in Table 9:6. However, the age profile factor can only account for a part of such a large variation from the national average.

The Traveller of Irish Heritage category was the smallest group with a population ranging from a low of 2,600 in 2003 to a high of 3,010 in 2006. The small size of both the population and the year-on-year variations, especially when census error factors and missing data were considered, make the drawing of any reliable conclusions about variation trends problematic.

The Gypsy/Roma group showed a progressive year-on-year increase in population. Indeed, whilst its numbers were small, they increased by 63.19 per cent between 2003

and 2010. This was the second highest percentage increase of any White ethnic subsidiary category. As an ethnic group with low pupil numbers, its percentage share of the White category only increased by 0.12 percentage points.

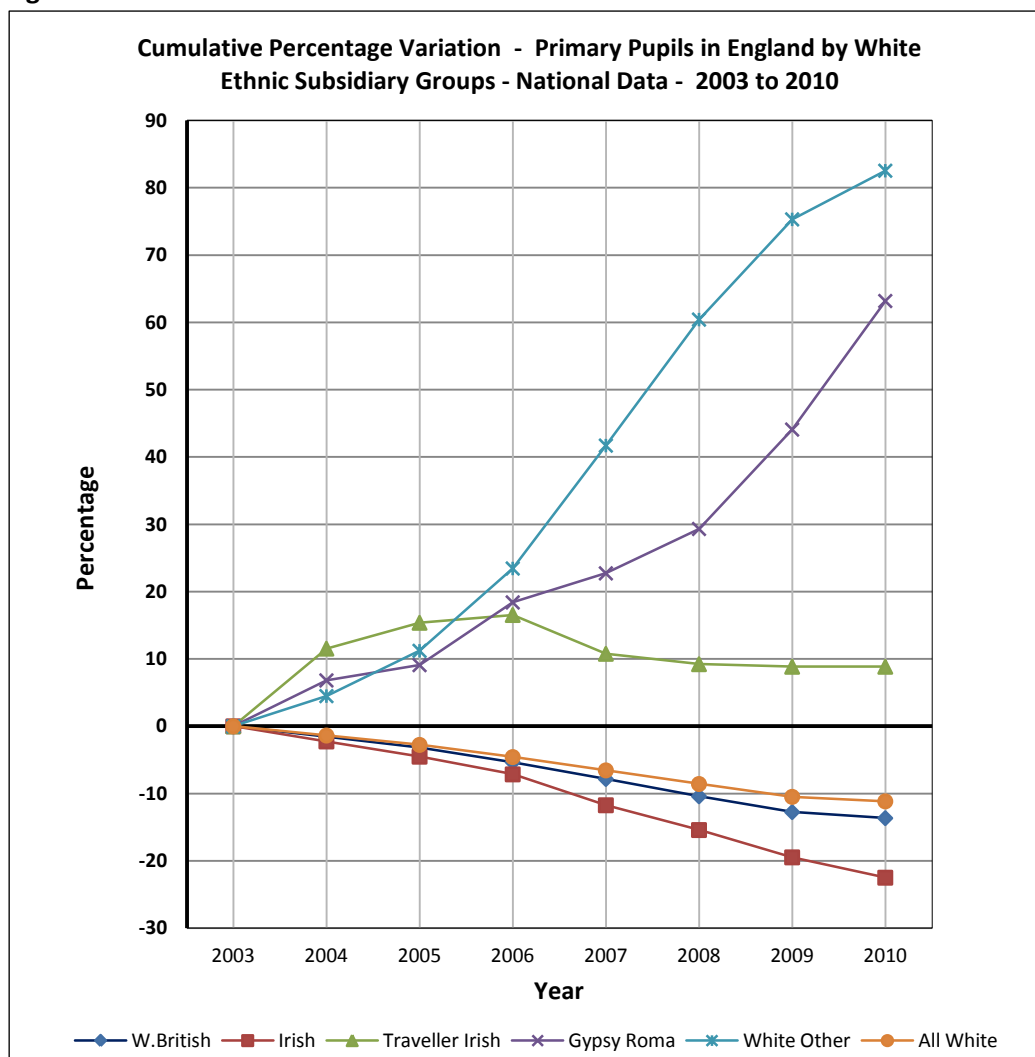
The Gypsy/Roma pupil school census enumerations were somewhat difficult to interpret with any accuracy. Although the Gypsy/Roma group is classified as an ethnically discrete category, its members hold the nationality of the European Union Member State in which they were born or hold nationality status. Consequently, parents could quite reasonably register the ethnic group of their children as that of their birth country, making them WEEU. Whilst the WEEU and Gypsy/Roma are separate ethnic categories in the school census, a gypsy/Roma pupil from an A8 Accession country would have dual ethnicity, being both WEEU and Gypsy/Roma. As discussed in Chapter 5.4, determining a person's ethnicity is complex. Barth (1996) saw ethnicity as "essentially a political phenomenon" (p. 84), Root (1996) concluded it to be "dynamic over time" (p. 9) and Denton and Dean (2010) recognised that the term ethnicity had fluid boundaries. Irrespective of biological or cultural heritage, it comes down to a matter of personal choice. The DfE is clear on this matter in its guidance to schools when it states, "Schools must accept the responses provided by parents or pupils. A pupil's ethnicity is personal to that pupil and the individual's decision should not be questioned" (DfE 2010d Sect. 5). Interestingly, when Gypsy/Roma adults apply for National Insurance, they are classified by their nationality not as Gypsy/Roma.

The White Other Background subsidiary category increased at a greater percentage rate than any other main or subsidiary category between 2003 and 2010, with the exception of the much smaller Asian Other sub-group. Over this period it increased by 82.55 per

cent. It is within this subsidiary category that WEEU pupils are recorded (Table 9:1). By 2010, its population had risen to 130,160 pupils and was the second largest Minority Ethnic group. Its population was only exceeded by the Pakistani subsidiary category, which recorded just 1,310 more pupils with a total population of 131,470. For comparison, it is interesting to note that in 2010, when the White Other population was 130,160, the Indian pupil population registered at English Primary schools was 81,590, the Black Caribbean 45,210, the Black African 99,060 and the Bangladeshi stood at 53,940 pupils.

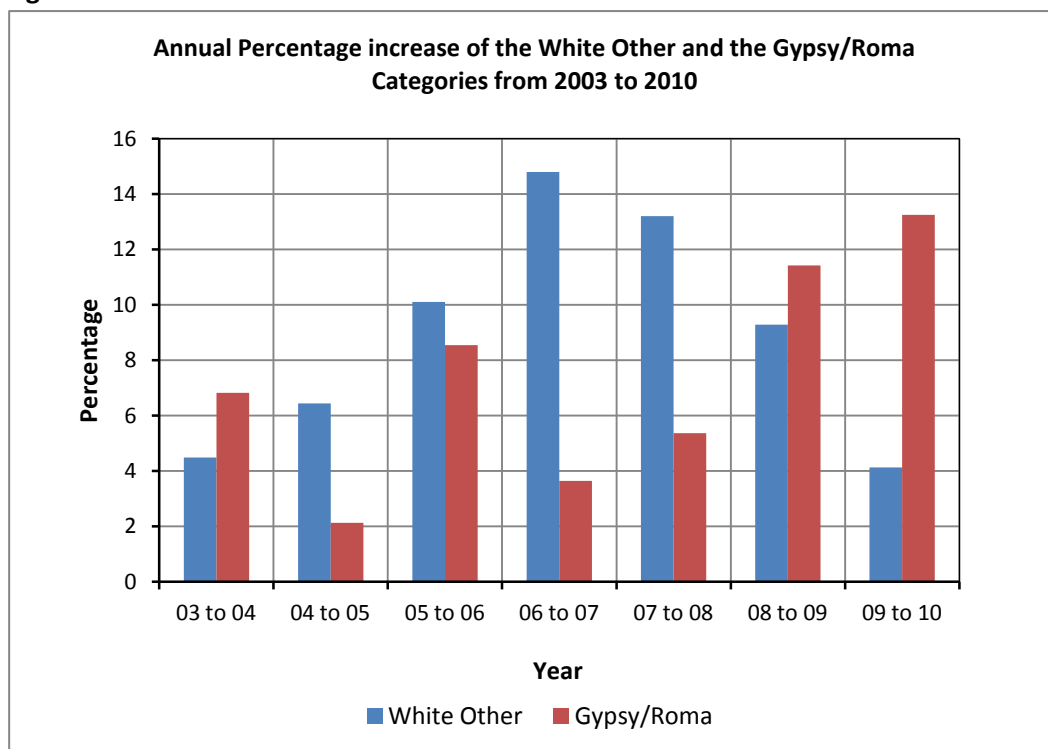
Figure 9:6 shows the cumulative percentage variation of the White subsidiary groups from 2003 to 2010. The progressive decline of the All White, the White British and the White Irish is clearly illustrated in Figure 9:6. These declines in population contrast starkly with the cumulative percentage increase in pupil numbers experienced by the White Other category, which escalated by 82.55 per cent, and the Gypsy/Roma group that enlarged by 63.19 per cent. Although both these categories included pupils from the A8 Accession countries, it is not possible to identify them from within the White Other or the Gypsy/Roma categories.

Figure 9:6



In Figure 9:6, the rapid increase in the size of the White Other and the Gypsy/Roma categories is evident, but the cumulative percentage increase highlights just one aspect of the growth. Figure 9:7 sets out the annual percentage increase of these two expanding categories.

Figure 9:7



First, it is notable that the populations of both categories progressively increased year-on-year from 2003 to 2010. However, the pattern of the growth of each group was quite different. The percentage annual growth of the White Other category increased each year until 2007, after which, its percentage rate of growth declined annually until 2010. Conversely, the Gypsy/Roma annual rate of increase was irregular and experienced two troughs. From 2004 to 2005 the rate of increase slowed, rising sharply in 2006 before falling back in 2007. From 2007, the rate of population increase rose again until 2010 when it recorded its highest annual percentage increase.

As previously stated, it is not possible to identify with any accuracy the percentage of WEEU pupils subsumed within the White Other category or the effect they had upon the category's population growth trend. This results from the DfE not collecting the information through the school census.

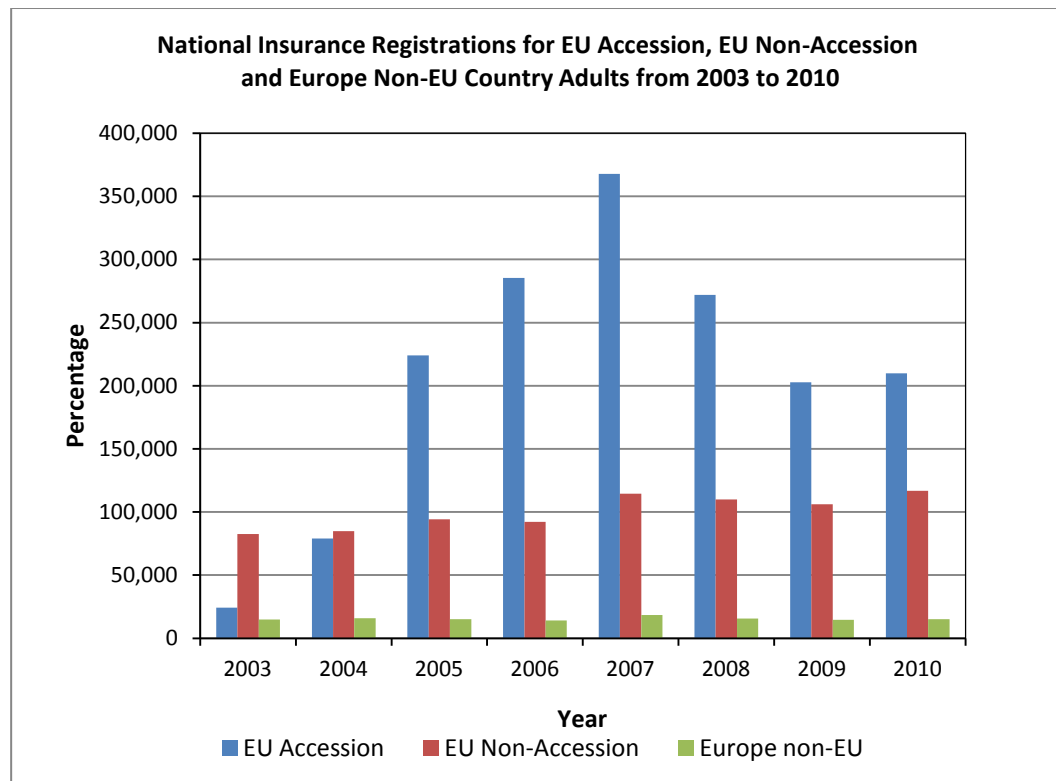
An analysis of the National Insurance registrations from 2003 to 2010 was conducted in an endeavour to shed some light on the relationship between the rapid increase in the White Other pupil population and the arrival of the WEEU pupils following the 2004 Accession. The National Insurance datasets represent a complete account of all registrations, but only adults intending to working legally within England are included. As such, the datasets do not provide a reliable source for estimating the total EU Accession population in England (Chapter 4 Sect.5).

Figure 9:8 sets out the annual number of adults from EU Accession States, EU Non-Accession States and Non-EU Europeans accepted on the National Insurance register from 2003 to 2010.

The registrations by Non-EU Europeans remained relatively constant over the eight years period, whilst the registrations by EU Non-Accession national increased overall between 2003 and 2010. However, the EU Accession registrations increased year-on-year until they peaked in 2007, before declining in each successive year until 2009. In 2010, EU Accession registration increased. The National Insurance registration trend created by adults from the EU Accession Member States after 2004 (Figure 9:8) reflects the annual percentage increase trend found in the White Other primary pupil category shown in Figure 9:7. Whilst not conclusive, there are indications that the annual

increase in the primary pupil population of the White Other category is directly linked to the increase in WEEU pupils, resulting from the immigration flows following the 2004 EU Accession.

Figure 9:8



Data source: National Insurance registrations to adult overseas nationals entering the UK – 2003 to 2010 / DWP (2011).
N = 2,590,050 registrations

In conclusion, it is clear that overall the All White category declined in each successive year, although the decline slowed in 2010. The White British subsidiary category declined in each successive year and the White Minority Ethnic population recorded an annual increase. The Gypsy/Roma and the White Other subsidiary categories increased consistently, although the White Other rate of increase slowed in 2010. There are indications that the increase in the White Other population was linked to the immigration of WEEU pupils following the 2004 EU Accession.

Chapter 10

Case Study Education Authorities

10.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the analysis of primary school census data provided by six English local authorities. The main focus of the analysis was to identify the extent of the numerical impact of WEEU pupils upon the overall ethnic composition of the six case study authorities. Information about the characteristics of each case study local authority is included in chapter 8.

10.2 Local authority Comparisons

The ethnic composition of the case study local authorities varied considerably. This is well illustrated in Table 10:1, which sets out the minority ethnic primary population as a percentage of all primary pupils for each local authority. The national average percentage of minority ethnic pupils is included for purposes of comparison.

Table 10:1

Minority Ethnic Primary Pupils as a Percentage of all Primary Pupils in Each Case Study LA and Nationally from 2003 to 2009							
	LA 01	LA 02	LA 03	LA 04	LA 05	LA 06	National
2003	6.09	2.84	13.36	20.29	79.32	52.07	17.26
2004	6.93	3.07	13.57	22.26	80.72	54.62	18.34
2005	7.49	3.30	14.30	21.65	81.90	56.21	19.35
2006	8.38	3.88	15.00	22.98	82.11	58.69	20.57
2007	9.98	4.58	16.18	24.47	83.00	59.81	21.89
2008	12.19	5.20	16.95	26.28	83.88	60.98	23.26
2009	14.00	7.11	17.43	30.39	84.57	62.72	24.51
% Point Variation 03 to 09	7.91	4.27	4.07	10.1	5.25	10.65	7.25
% Increase 03 to 09	129.89	150.35	30.46	49.78	6.62	20.45	42.01

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of LA School Census Data and DfE National Datasets from 2003 to 2009

With one exception (LA04, 2005), the minority ethnic population increased as a percentage of all pupils year-on-year from 2003 until 2009 in each of the case study local authorities. In this respect the authorities reflected the national trend in which minority ethnic pupils represented a consistently growing percentage of the total primary school population. However, the analysis revealed that the increase in the proportion of minority ethnic pupils in the six authorities varied considerably. For instance, the 2009 datasets showed that pupils classified as minority ethnic in LA02 represented 7.11 per cent of the authority's total primary population, whereas the equivalent figure for LA05 stood at 84.57 per cent. Indeed, the six authorities were evenly split with three recording minority ethnic percentage shares that were smaller than the national average in each of the seven years from 2003 to 2009 (LAs 01, 02 and 03), whilst the remaining three recorded populations that were greater in each year compared with the national average (LAs 04, 05 and 06).

The analysis of the numerical relationship between the minority ethnic, which include the WEEU pupils, and the total primary population revealed an aspect of the ethnic

character of each authority. The percentage point variation of minority ethnic share provides a different perspective. For instance, 17.26 per cent of pupils in English primary schools in 2003 were classified as from minority ethnic backgrounds. By 2009, this number had risen by 7.25 percentage points to 24.51 per cent. Using this measure, LA01, LA04 and LA06 recorded above average percentage point increases and LA02, LA03 and LA05 recorded below average percentage point increases. However, when the percentage share increase between 2003 and 2009 was calculated for each authority, yet another picture was revealed. For example, in 2003 the minority ethnic pupils in LA 02 represented 2.84 per cent of the total population, but by 2009 this number had increased by 150.35 per cent to 7.11 per cent of the population. Using this measure of percentage share variation, LA02 recorded the largest percentage increase, followed in descending order by LA01, LA04, LA03, LA06 and finally LA05 with the smallest percentage increase of 6.62 per cent (Table 10:1).

To explore the numerical impact of the WEEU migration upon the case study authorities, the datasets were analysed to gain an understanding of the relationship between the WEEU population, the minority ethnic population and the total primary population for each authority. Figure 10:1 sets out the annual WEEU pupil percentage share of the minority ethnic population and Figure 10:2 shows the WEEU share of the total primary population for each authority.

Figure 10:1

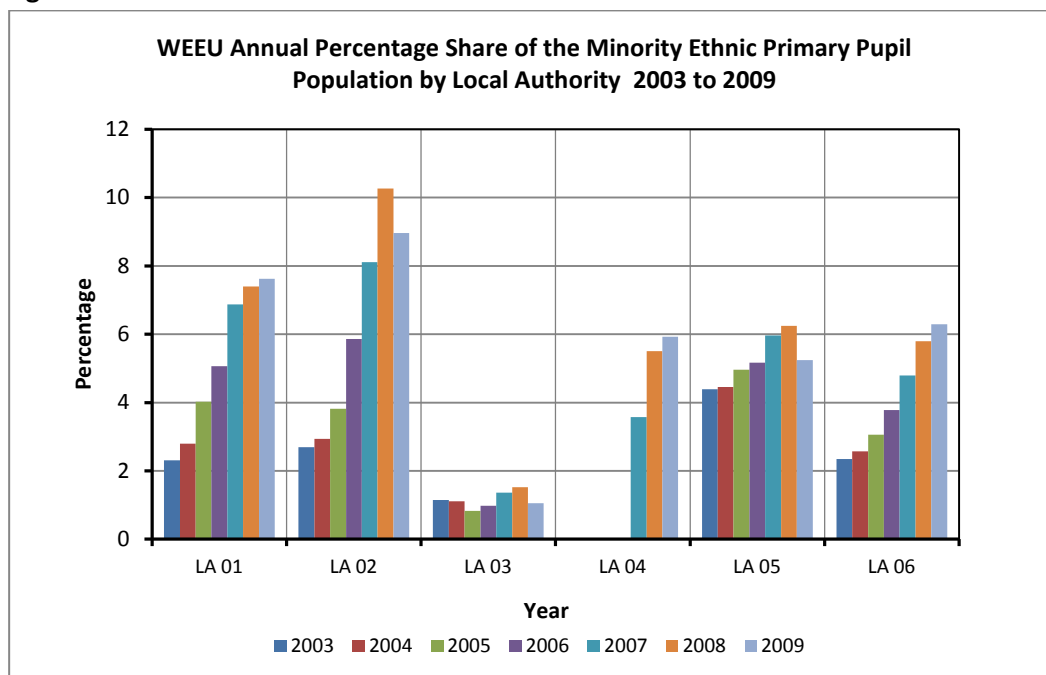


Figure 10:2

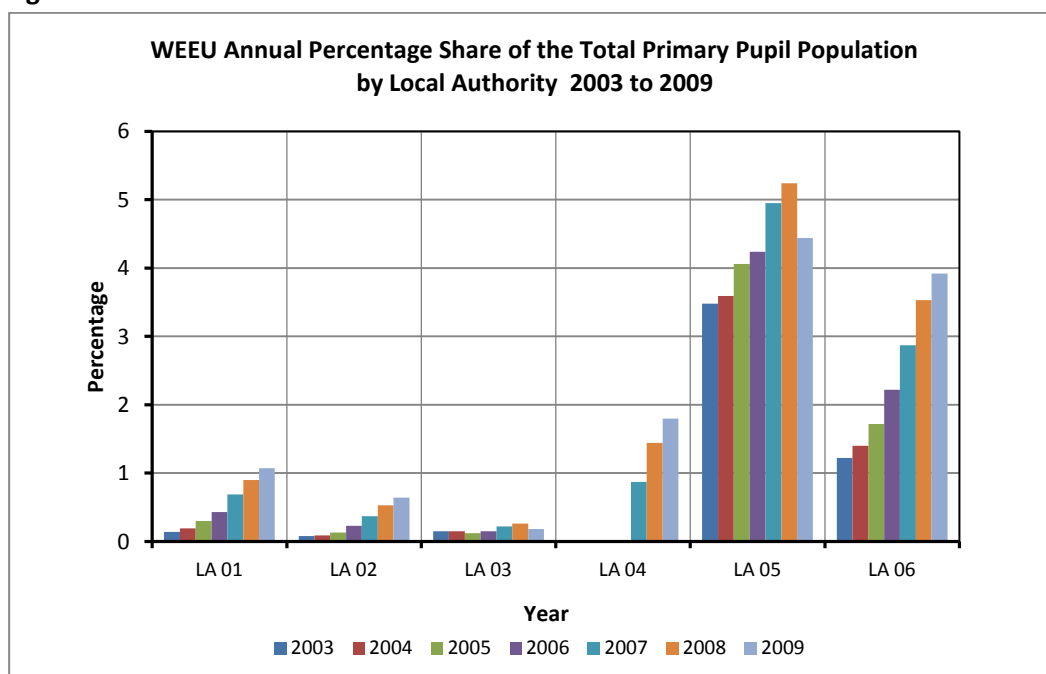


Figure 10:1 shows that the WEEU pupils in the two rural authorities of LA01 and LA02 made the greatest percentage increase as a proportion of the minority ethnic population. However, these two authorities had the smallest number of minority ethnic pupils as a proportion of the total populations of the case study LAs and this is reflected in Figure 10:2.

In local authorities 01, 04 and 06 the WEEU pupil percentage share of the minority ethnic population (Figure 10:1) and the total pupil population (Figure 10:2) increased each year by a successively greater percentage. Figure 10:1 shows that LA02 and LA05 made year-on-year increases until 2008, after which the rate of increase slowed. In the case of LA05, the reduced rate of increase in 2009 is reflected in the percentage share of all pupils as set out in Figure 10:2. Here, the increase in the percentage share declined from 2008 by 0.8 of a percentage point.

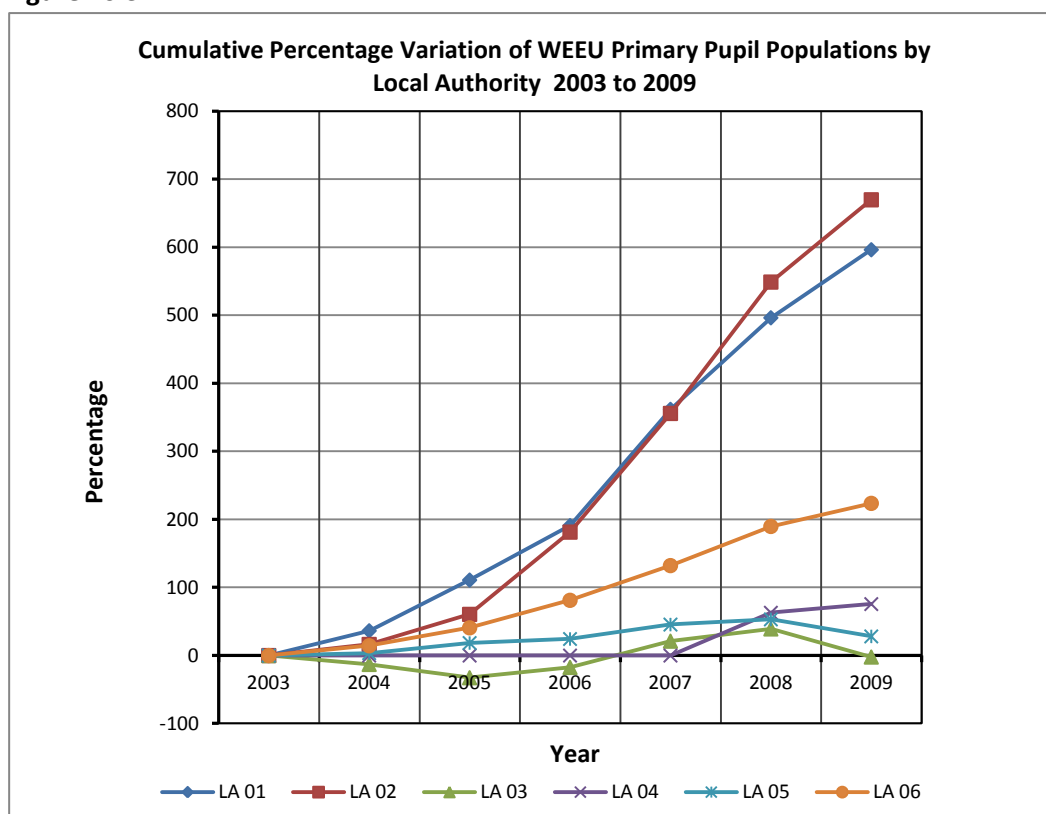
The analysis of the datasets for LA02 revealed a different pattern. Figure 10:1 shows that the rate of increase in the annual percentage share of the minority ethnic category declined in 2009. On the other hand, Figure 10:2 shows that the WEEU share of the total primary population continued to increase in each successive year, including an 18.64 percentage increase in 2009. However, the decline in the percentage share of the minority ethnic category (Figure 10:1) did not result from a decline in the rate of increase of WEEU pupils. In 2009, the actual number of minority ethnic pupils registered in LA02 increased by 35.85 per cent. This was by far the largest annual percentage increase in the number of minority ethnic pupils recorded by any of the case study authorities and had the effect of reducing the WEEU percentage share.

With the exception of LA02, the variation profiles set out in Figure 10:1 are broadly reflected in Figure 10:2 for each authority. It is noticeable in Figures 10:1 and 10:2 that the WEEU annual percentage share profile recorded by LA03 does not follow the general trend established by the other five local authorities. Overall, its annual percentage variations in WEEU pupil numbers were irregular and small. However, the datasets from the remaining five authorities showed that the WEEU pupil populations increased noticeably in each successive year from 2003 following the accession of the A8 countries, although the rate of increase varied from authority to authority.

The annual cumulative percentage variation of the WEEU pupils calculated from 2003 to 2009 provides an indication of the actual increase and rate of increase in the number of WEEU pupils recorded by each case study authority. Figure 10:3 plots this cumulative percentage variation and enables direct comparisons to be drawn between authorities.

The considerable cumulative percentage increase of WEEU pupils in the rural local authorities of LA01 and LA02 at 596.36 and 669.77 per cent respectively is very evident in Figure 10:3 and contrasts starkly with the -2.17 per cent for the borough authority of LA03. In addition, the very large increase in WEEU pupils in LA01 and LA02 tends to over-shadow the large cumulative gains experienced by the outer city borough of LA06, which increased its WEEU pupil population by 223.63 per cent by 2009. Even the city authority of LA04 saw its WEEU population return a cumulative percentage increase of 75.61 per cent between 2007 and 2009. The datasets for the inner city authority LA05, with its very high minority ethnic population, indicate that its WEEU population had increased by 53.13 per cent by 2008, but overall fell back to a cumulative percentage increase of 28.13 per cent by 2009.

Figure 10:3



Overall, the WEEU pupil numbers in LA01, LA02, LA04 and LA06 continued to grow in each successive year. The WEEU populations in LA03 and LA05 increased until 2009 when the rate of increase in their respective populations slowed. The datasets for LA03 indicate that this was the only authority to have fewer WEEU primary pupils registered in 2009 than in 2003.

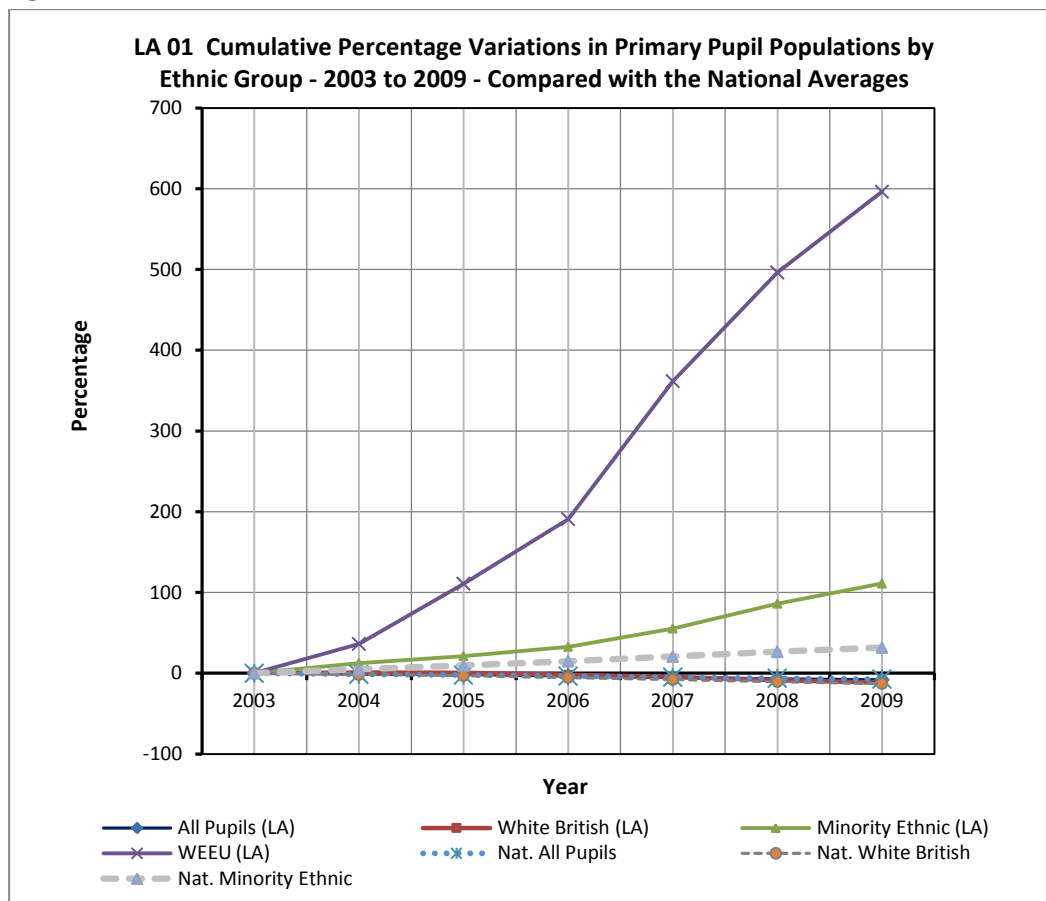
10:3 Local Authorities Compared with National Data.

The analysis of the ethnic composition of each case study authority provides a greater insight into the numerical impact of the arrival of the WEEU pupils upon these individual authorities. The comparison of the individual authority data with the equivalent national averages places the LA analysis findings within a national context.

However, the comparisons between local and national datasets do not extend to the WEEU pupil population as this information is not collected nationally.

LA01 Cumulative percentage variation

Figure 10:4



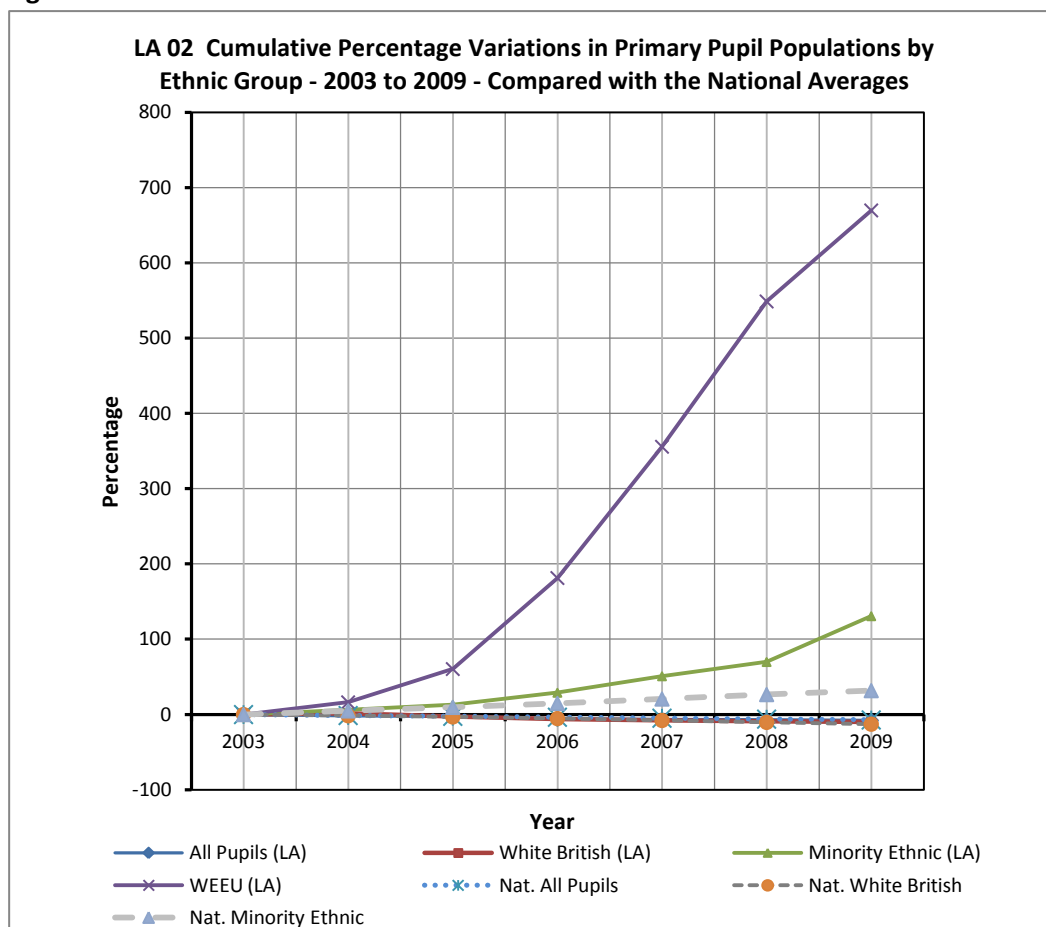
The White British primary population in the rural shire county of LA01 declined year-on-year from 2004, broadly following the national decline in the White British school population. The number of pupils from minority ethnic backgrounds increased in each successive year at a greater rate of annual growth than the national average for this group of pupils. The WEEU primary population increased in each year from 2003 to

2009, recording a cumulative percentage increase of 596.36 per cent. This represents the largest increase of any ethnic category in LA01. Although not included in Figure 10:4, it is interesting to note that the LA01 'Other Asian Background' category also recorded a large cumulative increase over the same period that totalled 331.71 per cent. The total primary population of LA01 decreased each year from 2003. By 2009, the number of primary pupils had reduced by 8.18 per cent, compared with the national average decrease of 7.17 per cent.

LA02 Cumulative percentage variation

The two rural shire county authorities of LA01 and LA02 shared many similarities in the cumulative percentage variation in the ethnic composition of their primary populations. These similarities are clearly revealed when Figures 10:4 and 10:5 are compared. The WEEU population in LA02 recorded a cumulative percentage increase of 669.77 per cent between 2003 and 2009, whilst pupils from minority ethnic backgrounds increased by over 130 per cent. These represent the largest percentage increases in WEEU and minority ethnic pupil numbers made by any of the case study authorities.

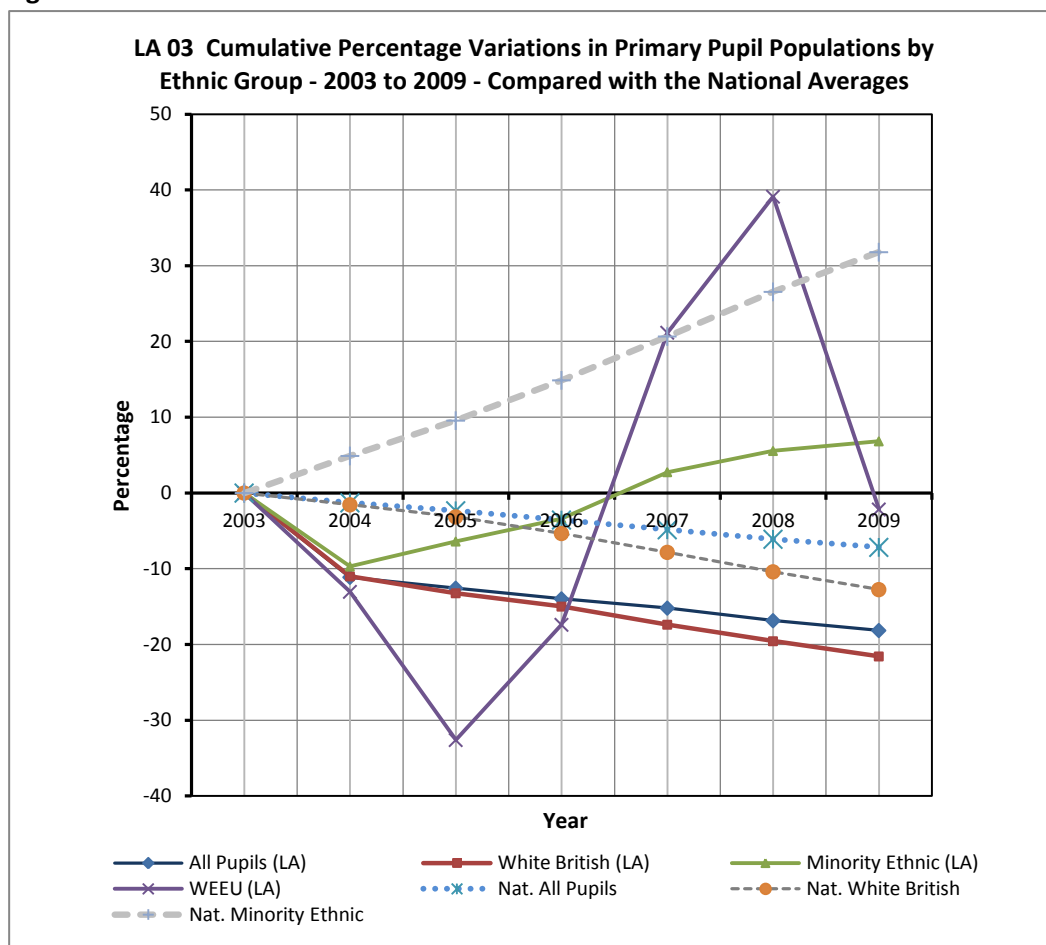
Figure 10:5



LA03 Cumulative percentage variation

The initial analysis of the datasets from LA03 produced ethnic patterns that were difficult to rationalise within the overall population profile. The datasets were referred back to the authority for checking. The authority recalculated and corrected the relevant datasets, which enabled a second research analysis to take place. The findings set out here are based on the revised datasets. However, the ethnic category trends produced from these datasets still raise questions about the reliability of the datasets.

Figure 10:6

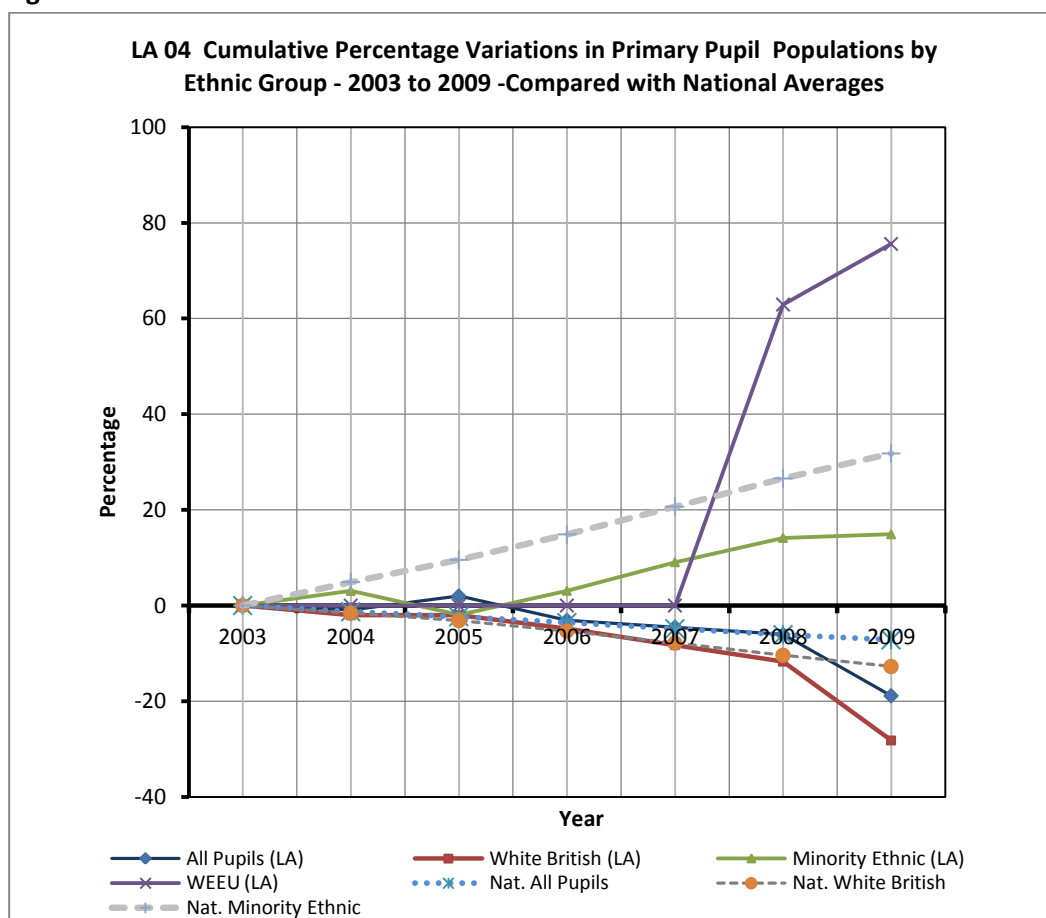


The borough authority of LA03 presents a quite different ethnic profile to that recorded by the two rural authorities of LA01 and LA02. Indeed, its cumulative percentage ethnic profile varies in many ways to that recorded by all the other case study LAs. For example, it is the only LA that recorded a decline in the minority ethnic population in any year between 2003 and 2009. The fall in WEEU pupil numbers between 2003 and 2005 also contrasted with the overall increasing trend established by the other five case study authorities. The total number of pupils (All Pupils) and the White British population followed more closely the national trend after the steep decline from 2003 to 2004.

LA04 Cumulative percentage variation

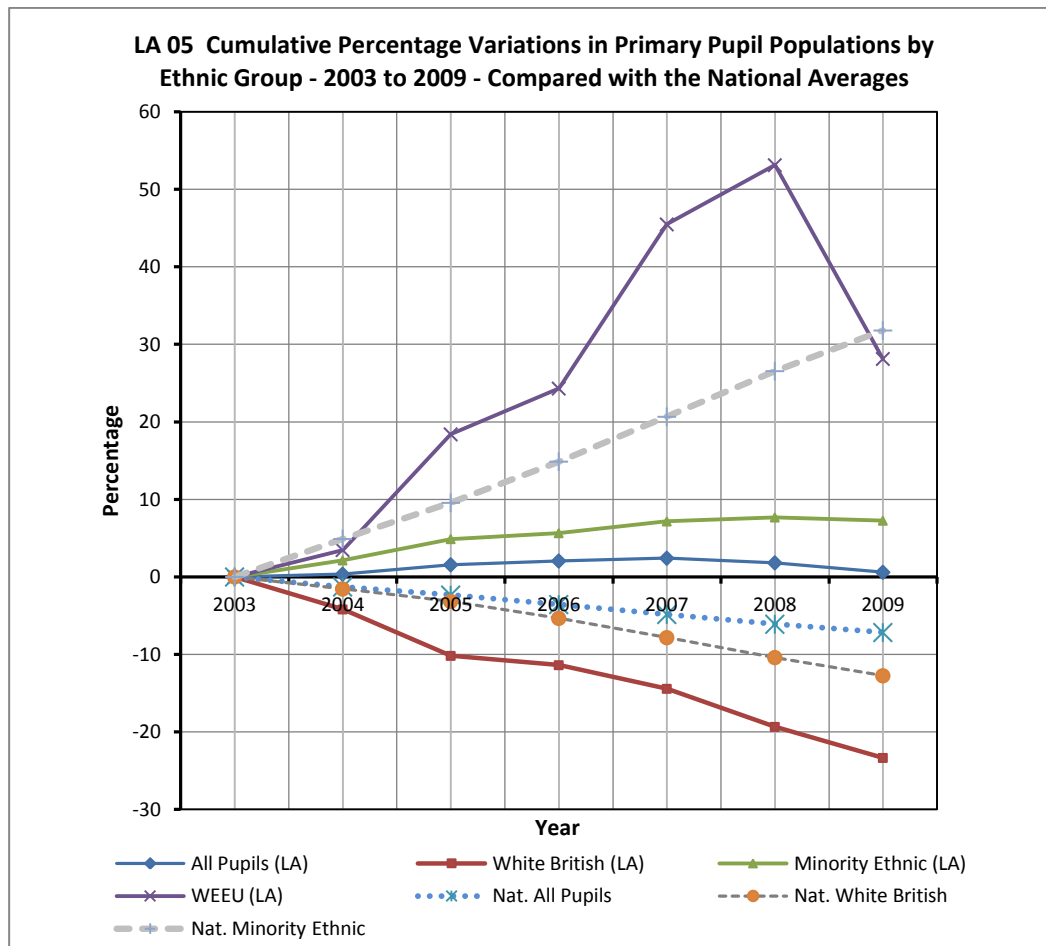
The city authority LA04 experienced declining numbers overall, which were in keeping with the national trend. However, the rate of decrease in the total number of pupils (All Pupils) and the White British population accelerated noticeably from 2008 to 2009. The minority ethnic population increased overall between 2003 and 2009 in keeping with the general national profile. However, between 2004 and 2005 a decrease in minority ethnic pupil numbers was recorded. Authority LA04 did not start to collect WEEU pupil data until 2007. However, between 2007 and 2009 the number of WEEU pupils increased quite noticeably by over 75 per cent.

Figure 10:7



LA05 Cumulative percentage variation

Figure 10:8

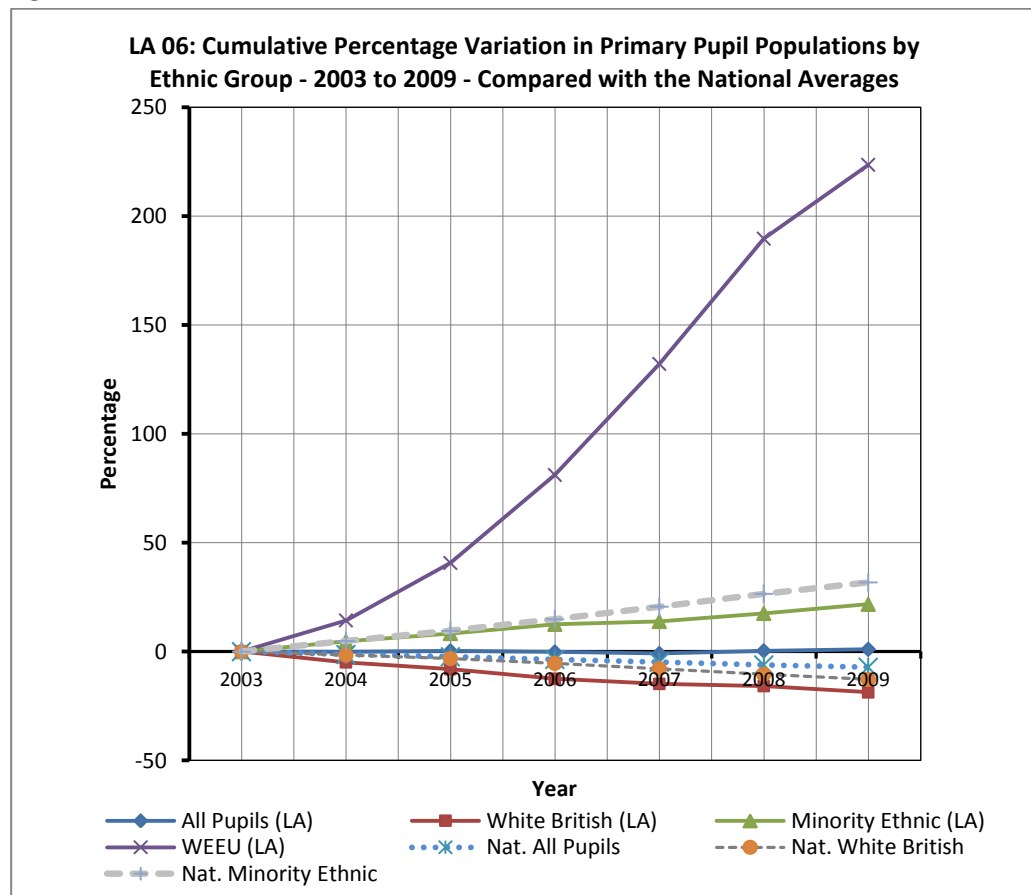


The total number of primary pupils registered in the inner city authority of LA05 remained relatively constant between 2003 and 2009. The percentage variation between its largest population in 2007 and its smallest in 2003 was just 2.42 percentage points. This was in contrast with the falling numbers found nationally. However, the White British primary school population declined in each successive year at a faster rate than found nationally. The minority ethnic group increased in line with the national trend, but at a slower rate. However, as nearly 85 per cent of the authority's primary

pupils were classified as minority ethnic, this slower rate of increase was sufficient to counter the effect of the greater decline in the White British population upon the total LA primary school population. The overall ethnic composition of LA05, therefore, changed each year at an ever increasing percentage. The number of WEEU pupils more than doubled by 2008, after which the percentage rate of increase slowed.

LA06 Cumulative percentage variation

Figure 10:9



The outer city suburban borough of LA06 had many ethnic pupil characteristics in common with the inner city authority of LA05. Both authorities had broadly stable

primary school populations from 2003 to 2009, where the minority ethnic group increased and countered the effect of the White British decline in pupil numbers. In the case of LA06, over 62 per cent of the primary school population were from minority ethnic backgrounds by 2009, representing an increase in pupil numbers of over 21 per cent from 2003. On the other hand, the number of White British pupils declined over the same period by 18.66 per cent. The WEEU pupil population increased in each successive year from 2003 to 2009, by which time it had grown by over 223 per cent.

The very diverse ethnic composition of the case study authorities is evident from the dataset analysis. However, these authorities had many major ethnic profile characteristics in common. All authorities recorded growing Minority Ethnic pupil populations and declining White British pupil numbers. With the exception of LA03, all authorities experienced increasing numbers of WEEU pupils registered in their schools following the A8 accession in 2004.

10:4 Combined Population of Authorities Compared with National Data

The analysis of the individual authority ethnic profiles revealed the complex nature of the ethnic composition of the authorities when compared with national averages. A different perspective is revealed in this section, which reports on the analysis of the ethnic composition of the combined pupil populations of the case study authorities and compares the resulting ethnic profiles with those established nationally.

As previously discussed, too few local authorities elected to collect WEEU pupil data to enable the calculation of reliable estimates of the ethnic group's national population characteristics. However, the six case study authorities covered a wide stretch of

England and included rural, industrial urban, suburban and city areas. In all, the combined primary population of the case study authorities represented over five per cent of the national primary school population. Moreover, the analysis revealed that the percentage share of the White British, the Minority Ethnic and the total primary population was consistent in each year from 2003 to 2009.

Tables 10:2, 10:3 and 10:4 set out the number of pupils recorded by the annual school census from 2003 to 2009 for the local authority's combined populations, together with the equivalent national census enumerations. Additionally, the combined LA percentage share of the national population is included. Table 10:2 (total All Pupil population) and Table 10:3 (White British) indicate that the combined LA population for both groups represented an average 5.18 percentage share of the national populations over the seven year period. The annual percentage share did not vary greatly between 2003 and 2009 for either group. In the case of the total all pupil population it only varied by 0.13 of a percentage point and a slightly higher 0.17 of a percentage point for the White British category. The Minority Ethnic group averaged a slightly higher share of the national population at 5.20 per cent over the seven years. The percentage of the national population for the Minority Ethnic group was highest in 2003 at 5.33 per cent and at its lowest in 2007 at 5.13 per cent, a variance of 0.2 of a percentage point.

Table 10:2

Combined Case Study LA Primary School Population as Percentage of
the Total English Primary School Population from 2003 to 2009

Year	Combined Case Study LA Primary Population	Total English Primary Population	LA Percentage of Total English Population
2003	182,148	3,473,200	5.24
2004	177,210	3,428,400	5.17
2005	176,029	3,395,600	5.18
2006	172,781	3,349,500	5.16
2007	170,815	3,305,200	5.17
2008	169,111	3,261,280	5.19
2009	164,767	3,224,240	5.11
Total	1,212,861	23,437,420	5.18

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of LA School Census Data and DfE National Datasets from 2003 to 2009

Table 10:3

Combined Case Study LA Primary School White British Population as Percentage of
the Total White British English Primary School Population from 2003 to 2009

Year	Combined LA White British Population	English White British Primary Population	LA Percentage of Total English White British Population
2003	145,273	2,762,100	5.26
2004	140,990	2,719,400	5.18
2005	139,237	2,675,200	5.21
2006	135,055	2,614,690	5.17
2007	131,586	2,545,740	5.17
2008	128,206	2,474,960	5.18
2009	122,588	2,409,870	5.09
Total	942,935	18,201,960	5.18

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of LA School Census Data and DfE National Datasets from 2003 to 2009

Table 10:4

Combined Case Study LA Primary School Minority Ethnic Population as Percentage of
the Total Minority Ethnic English Primary School Population from 2003 to 2009

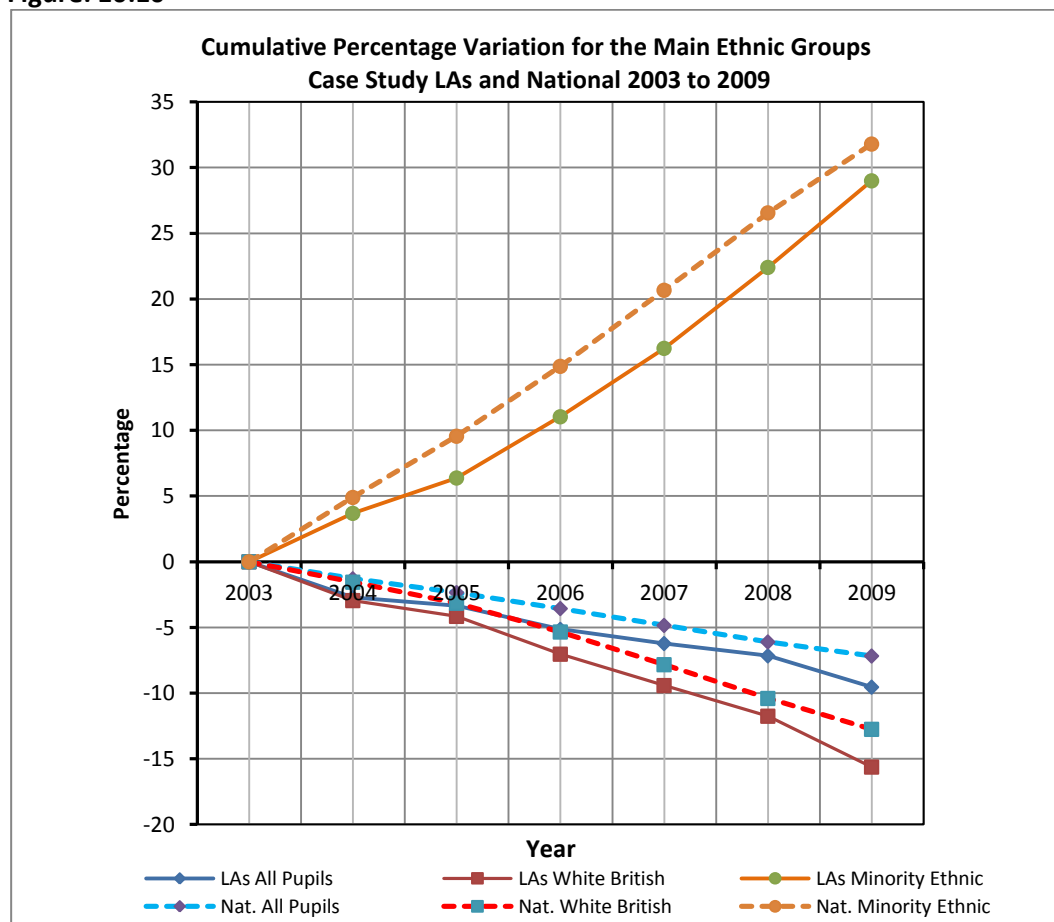
Year	Combined LA Minority Ethnic Population	English Minority Primary Population	LA Percentage of Total English Minority Ethnic Population
2003	31,956	599,600	5.33
2004	33,135	628,900	5.27
2005	33,995	656,900	5.18
2006	35,483	688,830	5.15
2007	37,150	723,510	5.13
2008	39,116	758,710	5.16
2009	41,224	790,250	5.22
Total	252,059	4,846,700	5.20

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of LA School Census Data and DfE National Datasets from 2003 to 2009

Tables 10:2 to 10:4 reveal that the combined populations of the case study local authorities maintained a relatively constant percentage proportion of the national population over the seven year period. In this respect, the combined population of the case study LAs reflected closely the national trends. Moreover, similar trends were also revealed when the cumulative percentage variations of the combined LA and national populations were compared.

Figure 10:10 plots the cumulative percentage variation in pupil numbers annually from 2003 to 2009 for the total (All pupil) population and the White British and Minority Ethnic groups. This enabled comparisons to be drawn between the combined LA and national populations.

Figure: 10:10



The annual rate of percentage variation in the ethnic groups set out in Figure 10:10 shows that the LA and national school census enumerations follow very similar paths. The combined LA Minority Ethnic group closely mirrored the annual national percentage increases. Between 2003 and 2005 its rate of increase was slightly slower than recorded nationally, after which similar rates were recorded until 2008 when the LA group increased at a marginally greater percentage. The All Pupil and White British groups followed similar downward trends, although the combined LA case study groups recorded a rather more irregular declining profile.

In conclusion, the combined ethnic population of the case study authorities, calculated from 1,212,861 annual pupil census returns, reflects closely the overall national ethnic profile established from 2003 to 2009 and calculated from 23,437,420 annual primary pupil census returns. The combined LA percentage share of the national ethnic population was consistent over the seven year period and the cumulative percentage variations of the local authorities closely track the national profile.

The year-on-year consistency between the combined LA ethnic population profile and that established nationally over the seven year period facilitated calculations that provided an elucidating glimpse of the number of WEEU pupils of statutory school age attending maintained English primary schools for any of the years between 2003 and 2009.

For example, the combined number of LA Minority Ethnic pupils in 2008 represented 5.16 per cent of the national Minority Ethnic population (Table 10:4). The number of

WEEU pupils accounted for 5.9 per cent of the total number of Minority Ethnic pupils attending primary schools in the combined six case study local authorities. Nationally, there were 758,710 Minority Ethnic pupils recorded by the school census in 2008 (Tables 10:4 and 9:2.m). The WEEU 5.9 percentage share of the combined LAs Minority Ethnic pupils, when extrapolated nationally, implies that approximately 44,764 WEEU pupils attended primary schools in England in January 2008. This WEEU national population is calculated by determining 5.9 per cent of the national Minority Ethnic population in 2008 (Table 10:4).

Additional calculations revealed that 1.36 per cent of the combined total number of pupils attending primary schools in the six case study authorities in 2008 were from WEEU backgrounds. The total primary school population in England in 2008, as shown by the school census, amounted to 3,261,280 pupils (Tables 9:2 and 10:2). Calculations using these figures suggest there were 44,354 WEEU pupils attending primary schools in England in January 2008. This WEEU national population was calculated by determining 1.36 per cent of the total English primary school population in 2008 (Table 10: 2).

Together these calculations suggest that the WEEU English primary school population was broadly in the range of 44,000 to 45,000 pupils in 2008. To place these numbers in perspective, they equate to two complete average sized local authorities. The average population of an authority in England in 2008 was 21,742 pupils. Indeed, at 44,000 the WEEU primary school population would have been the largest of any 'Approved Extended Ethnic Category' and would have approached that of the 'Subsidiary Ethnic Categories' of the Black Caribbean, which stood at 46,390 pupils in 2008, and the

Bangladeshi at 50,290 in the same year. Moreover, it represents more than four times the number of Chinese (10,930) and Irish (11,250) primary pupil populations in England in 2008.

However, the major difference was the speed of arrival of so many non-English speaking pupils. It took these other ethnic groups more than 40 years to attain the 2008 populations (Chapter 3), whilst the vast majority of the WEEU primary pupil population, recorded in January 2008, arrived after the A8 accession in April 2004, a period of just three years and eight months. Additionally, the numerical impact from this unplanned and rapid arrival of so many post-accession WEEU pupils varied considerably across the case study local authorities.

Chapter 11

Case Study Local Authority LA01

11.1 Ethnic Composition

In Chapter 10, the populations of the White British and Minority Ethnic groups in LA01 were compared with those of the case study authorities and with national enumerations from 2003 to 2009. In essence, the comparisons revealed that LA01 had a total primary school population that was much larger than the average for all authorities in England, and that the number of Minority Ethnic pupils represented a much smaller percentage of the total primary population than was found nationally over the same period.

A more detailed analysis of the school census data revealed that in 2003 the Minority Ethnic population represented 6.09 per cent of all pupils in LA01 compared with a national average of 17.26 per cent. Further calculations showed that the LA Minority Ethnic population in 2003 represented 35.28 per cent of the equivalent national average. By 2009, the proportion of Minority Ethnic pupils had increased to 14 per cent of all pupils in LA01 and represented 57.12 per cent of the national average of 24.51 per

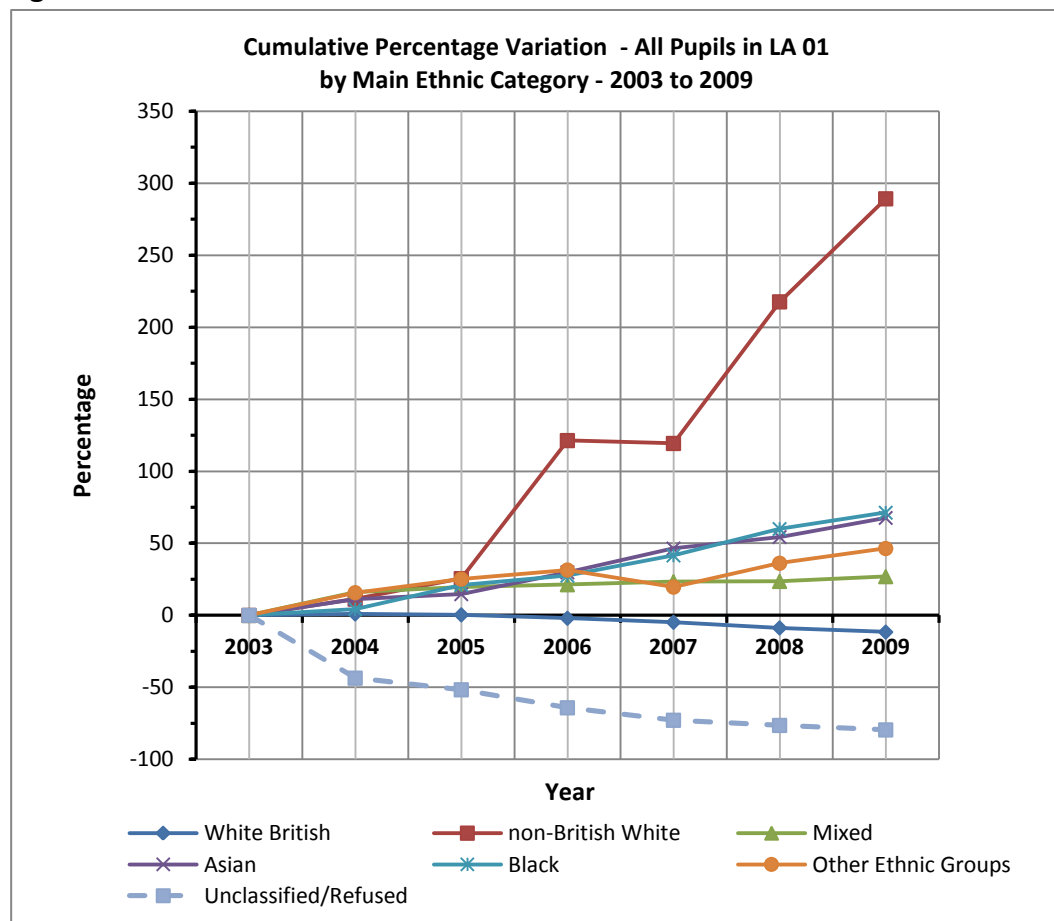
cent. This revealed that the cumulative percentage increase in the Minority Ethnic population in LA01 was 87.88 per cent greater between 2003 and 2009 than the equivalent national average percentage rate of increase in growth.

The Minority Ethnic group is composed of all pupils other than White British. As such, the Minority Ethnic group in LA01 included a wide range of main, subsidiary and extended approved categories, each with its own distinct demographic characteristics. Figure 11.1 sets out the cumulative percentage variations of the main ethnic categories of White, divided into White British and All non-White British, Mixed, Asian, Black and Other Ethnic Groups. The unclassified and refused enumerations for LA01 are included as these missing data had an important impact upon establishing the ethnic composition and trends of all ethnic categories. This aspect is discussed fully in Chapter 12.

The White British population reflected the downward trend seen nationally. As recorded in Figure 10:4, the Minority Ethnic group as a whole increased in LA 01 in each successive year. Figure 11:1 reveals that each main ethnic category within the Minority Ethnic group increased between 2003 and 2009. The non-British White group is officially shown to have recorded the largest increase at nearly 300 per cent over the seven year period. The Black and Asian populations grew by broadly similar percentage increases of 71.35 per cent and 67.7 per cent respectively. The Other Ethnic Groups category, at 46.46 per cent, and the Mixed category, at 26.95 per cent, recorded the slowest percentage rates of increase.

Between 2006 and 2007, both the non-British White group and the Other Ethnic Groups categories recorded a reduction in their percentage rates of increase. In the case of the non-British White group, the reduced rate of growth of 1.99 percentage points is quite noticeable as it interrupts the otherwise steep upward trend. However, the individual pupil level analysis revealed that much of this irregular pattern was due to ‘administrative confusion of ethnic categories’ by the authority. This issue is discussed more fully in Chapter 12. The year-on-year percentage decrease in the number of pupils recorded as ethnically ‘unclassified’ or as ‘Refused’ is very evident in Figure 11:1.

Figure 11:1



The relative percentage share of the total population held by each ethnic group is set out in Figure 11:2 for 2003 and in Figure 11:3 for 2009.

Figure 11:2

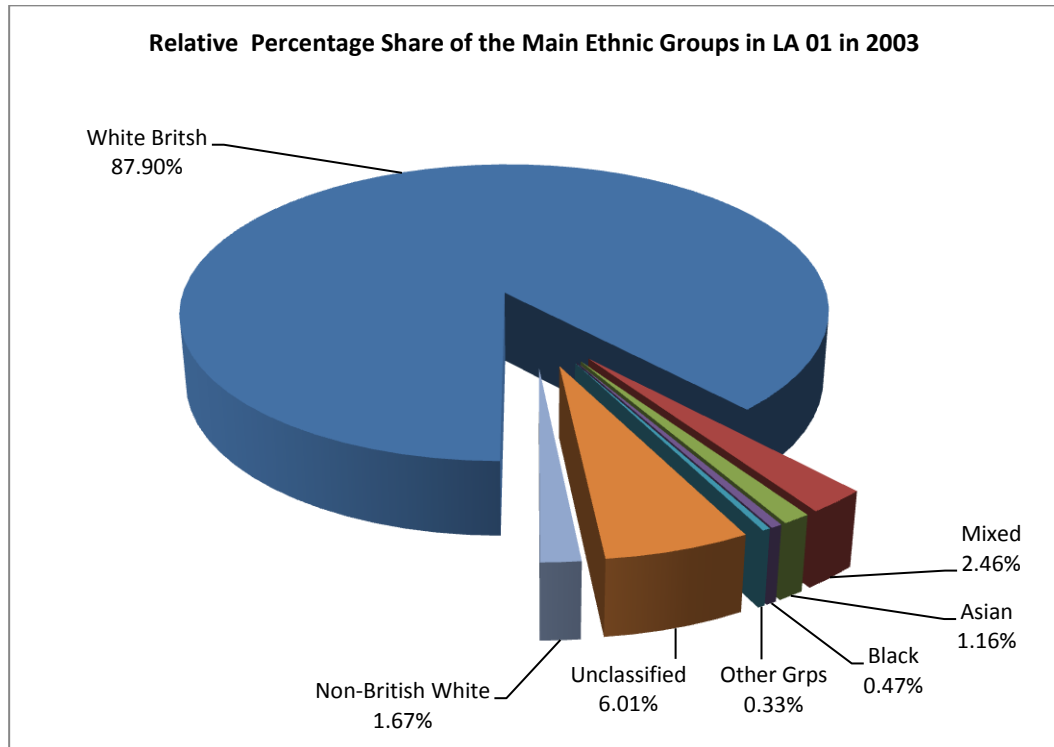
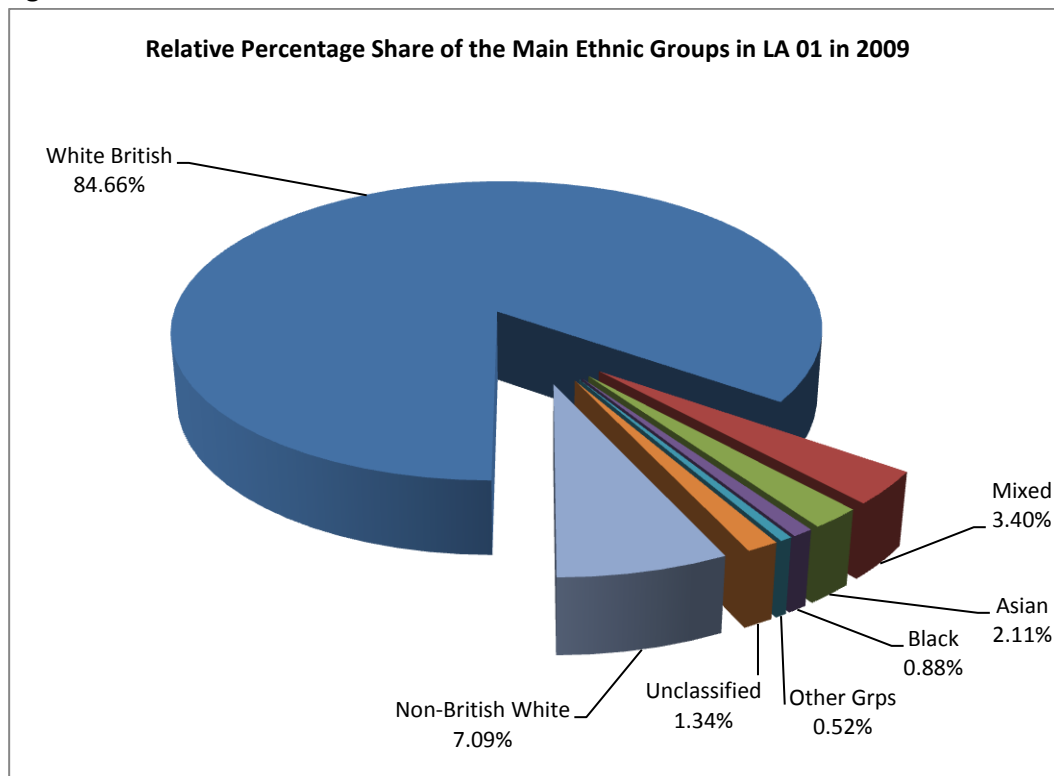


Figure 11:3

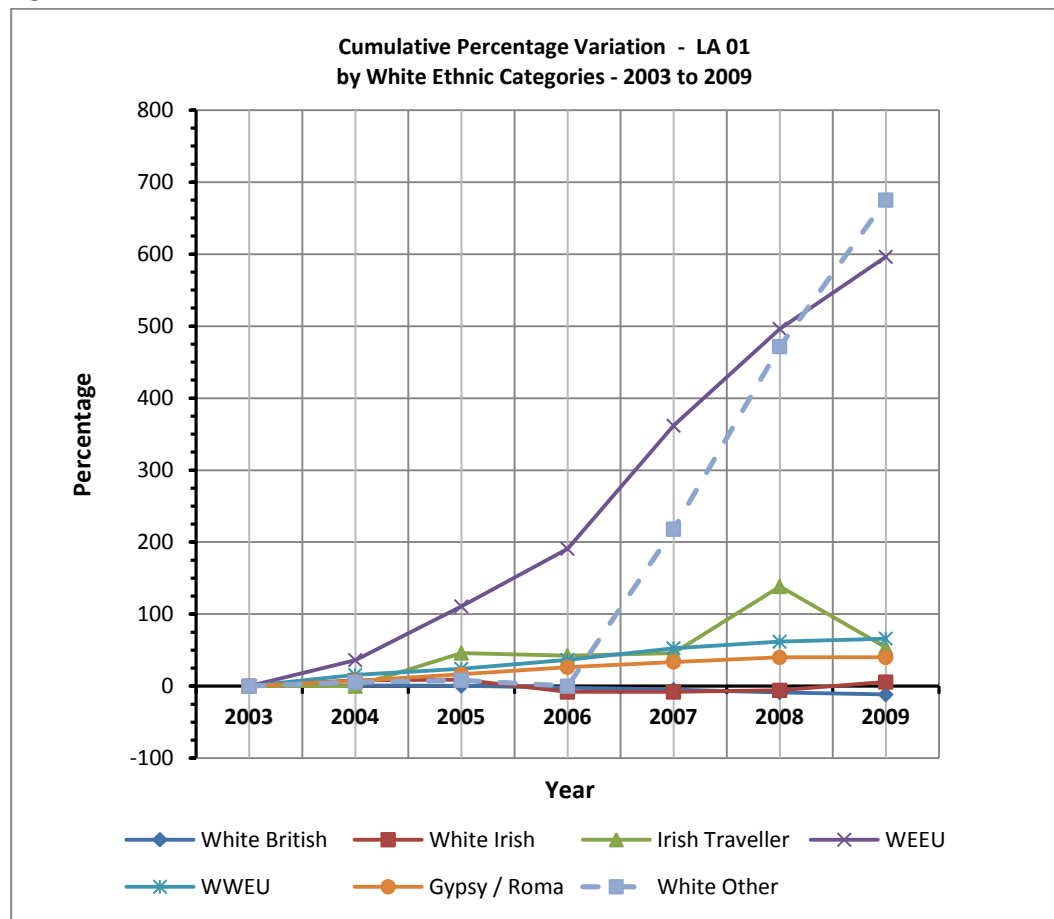


Between 2003 and 2009, the total primary pupil population of LA01 reduced by 8.18 per cent. This was a direct result of the year-on-year decline in the number of White British pupils registered at LA01 schools. The White British group's percentage share of the total population declined from 87.90 per cent in 2003 to 84.66 per cent in 2009, a fall of 3.24 percentage points. During the same period, the Unclassified and Refused group declined by 4.67 percentage points. All other ethnic groups increased their percentage share of the total population, but the non-British White group recorded the largest increase amounting to 5.42 percentage points. Simply stated, the two main groups within the White main category recorded the largest decrease (White British) and the largest increase (non-British White) in their percentage share of the total primary population in LA01. However, the findings from the analysis raised questions about reliability and credibility of the non-British White official data (Chapter 12).

To explore further the main White category, Figure 11:4 sets out the cumulative percentage variations of its subsidiary and extended categories. The data in Figure 11:4 were produced from the analysis of all pupils registered at maintained primary schools in LA01 and defined as belonging to the main ethnic White category for each year from January 2003 to January 2009. In all, this totalled over 240,000 individual pupil census returns. Figure 11:4 includes White British, White Irish, Traveller Irish, White Other (non-British White) and Gypsy/Roma subsidiary categories and the WEEU and WWEU extended approved categories. The WEEU and WWEU extended categories are subsumed within the Any Other White Background (WOTH) subsidiary category of the White main category.

The Traveller Irish, White Irish and the Roma/Gypsy groups were numerically the smallest subsidiary categories included in the analysis of the main White category. These groups did not record individual populations that exceeded 150 pupils in any one year. Consequently, small variations in the number of pupils in each of these categories resulted in quite large cumulative percentage variations. For example, an increase of fewer than 25 Irish Traveller pupils in 2008 accounted for the noticeable percentage increase in that year (Figure 11:4).

Figure 11:4



The WEEU population increased year-on-year from 2003 to 2009. The WWEU and the Gypsy/Roma pupil populations increased in each year, but at a slower rate than the

WEEU category. The White Other (non-British White) category should be composed of White pupils who are not included in any of the other non-British White categories. As such, it fulfils the function of a catch-all extended approved category within the subsidiary White non-British group of extended categories.

The detailed analysis of the 'official' published data for the White Other extended approved category revealed an interesting profile. The detailed analysis of this irregular and quite intriguing profile is reported in Chapter 12.

The WEEU population was equal to 18.39 per cent of the combined number of non-White pupils in 2009, compared with 3.2 per cent in 2003. The relationship between the size of the WEEU population in 2009 and that of the individual populations of the non-White ethnic subsidiary categories is set out in Table 11:1. It is immediately evident from Table 11:1 that by 2009 the WEEU population had increased to the point whereby it was larger than every non-White ethnic subsidiary category, with the exception of the Mixed White/Black Caribbean and the Other Mixed Background categories, which were 15.9 per cent and 4.2 per cent larger respectively.

The cumulative percentage rate of increase in the number of WEEU pupils between 2003 and 2009 represents by far the most rapid increase of any migrant population in the recent history of the authority. Indeed, the WEEU population had established itself as one of the largest minority ethnic groups in LA01 by 2009, a fact well illustrated in Table 11:1.

Table 11:1

The Relationship Between the WEEU Primary Population and
the non-White Ethnic Subsidiary Categories in 2009.

Non-White Ethnic Subsidiary Categories	Percentage Greater than WEEU Population	Percentage Smaller than WEEU Population
Mixed White/Black Caribbean White/Black African White/ Asian White/Chinese Other Mixed Background	15.9 4.2	 76.2 37.9 87.5
Asian Indian Pakistani Bangladeshi Other Asian Backgrounds		0.3 80.4 67.6 53.8
Black Black Caribbean Black African Other Black Backgrounds		66.8 68.1 82.2
Other Chinese Other Ethnic Groups		78.1 73.4

Source: Calculations based on an analysis of LA School Census Data 2009

In parallel with the rise in the WEEU population, the number of pupils who spoke English as an additional language (EAL) increased by 75.29 per cent between 2003 and 2009. The relationship between the increase in WEEU pupils and the increase in pupils with EAL is reported in Chapter 13.

In summary, the WEEU population grew at a rate that increased each year from 2003 to 2009. This percentage rate of increase was faster than any non-white ethnic group and resulted in the WEEU population becoming numerically larger than all but two of the non-White ethnic groups by 2009. Its proportion of all LA01 primary pupils and the

Minority Ethnic and non-White categories increased over the same period in each successive year.

11:2 The Distribution of WEEU Primary Pupils

The impact of the settlement patterns of different immigration flows of pupils upon the education service is tracked back to the 1700s in Chapter 3. The analysis showed that, with the single exception of the small Chinese population, all other major immigrant ethnic groups tended to form close communities concentrated in specific areas of cities.

The WEEU population in LA01 did not follow the traditional immigrant settlement pattern. From 2003, the WEEU pupil population spread in each successive year throughout the rural shire authority. Table 11:2 sets out the number of primary schools with WEEU pupils on their registers as a percentage of all LA01 primary schools.

Table 11:2

Percentage of all Primary Schools in LA01 with WEEU Pupils on Roll From 2003 to 2009							
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Percentage	13.89	14.29	21.43	26.40	31.20	39.76	43.09

Source: Calculations based on LA School Census Data 2003 to 2009

However, Table 11:2 provides information about the settlement spread pattern of the WEEU pupils, but not their numerical relationship with non-WEEU pupils attending schools in LA01. To explore this relationship, account had to be taken of the number of pupils registered at individual schools in LA01, which in 2009 ranged from just over 20

to in excess of 400 pupils. The analysis of the individual pupil data enabled the calculation of the percentage of all pupils who were attending schools at which WEEU pupils were registered between 2003 and 2009. Table 11:3 sets out these percentages.

Table 11:3

Percentage of all Primary Pupils in LA01 Attending Schools with WEEU Pupils on Roll From 2003 to 2009							
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Percentage	21.58	23.09	29.67	37.31	49.24	50.72	54.08

Source: Calculations based on LA School Census Data 2003 to 2009

In each successive year, the number of pupils attending schools with WEEU pupils on roll increased. From 2003 to 2009 the increase equalled 32.5 percentage points, which represented an increase of 130.1 per cent in the number of pupils. By 2009, more than half of the primary pupil population of LA01 were at schools attended by WEEU pupils.

A further analysis of the school census data was undertaken to explore the relationship between the schools attended by WEEU pupils and the status category of those schools. Schools were divided into four categories: Church of England Voluntary Aided (C of E VA), Roman Catholic Voluntary Aided (RC VA), Church of England Voluntary Controlled (C of E VC) and County and Foundation (C & F).

The percentage share of all primary schools in LA01 was calculated for each category of school. For example, the total number of C of E VA schools in LA 01 represented 16.73 per cent of all schools in the authority. The percentage share of the total number of WEEU primary pupils was calculated for each school status category for each year from

2003 to 2009. For example, the total number of WEEU pupils attending C of E VA schools in 2003 represented 10.91 per cent of all WEEU pupils in LA 01. Consequently, C of E VA schools represented 16.73 per cent of all schools, but only educated 10.91 per cent of the WEEU primary pupils in the authority. On the other hand, The RC VA schools only accounted for 3.27 per cent of all the schools in LA01, but in 2008 educated 18.00 per cent of the WEEU population.

Table 11: 4 sets out the percentage share of all WEEU pupils registered at each status category of school from 2003 to 2009. The percentage share of all authority schools held by each school status category is included to assist interpretation.

Figure 11:4

Percentage of All WEEU Pupils Registered at Schools by Status								
	% of All Schools ⁽ⁱ⁾	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
C of E VA	16.73	10.91	4.00	6.03	4.38	5.12	8.54	5.22
RC VA	3.27	12.73	12.00	7.76	9.38	16.14	18.00	17.23
C of E VC	25.71	18.18	28.00	26.72	24.38	23.62	16.16	22.45
C & F	54.29	58.18	56.00	59.48	61.88	55.12	57.32	55.09

Source: Calculations based on LA School Census Data 2003 to 2009. (i). Source: Calculations based on the 2009 LA Census Data

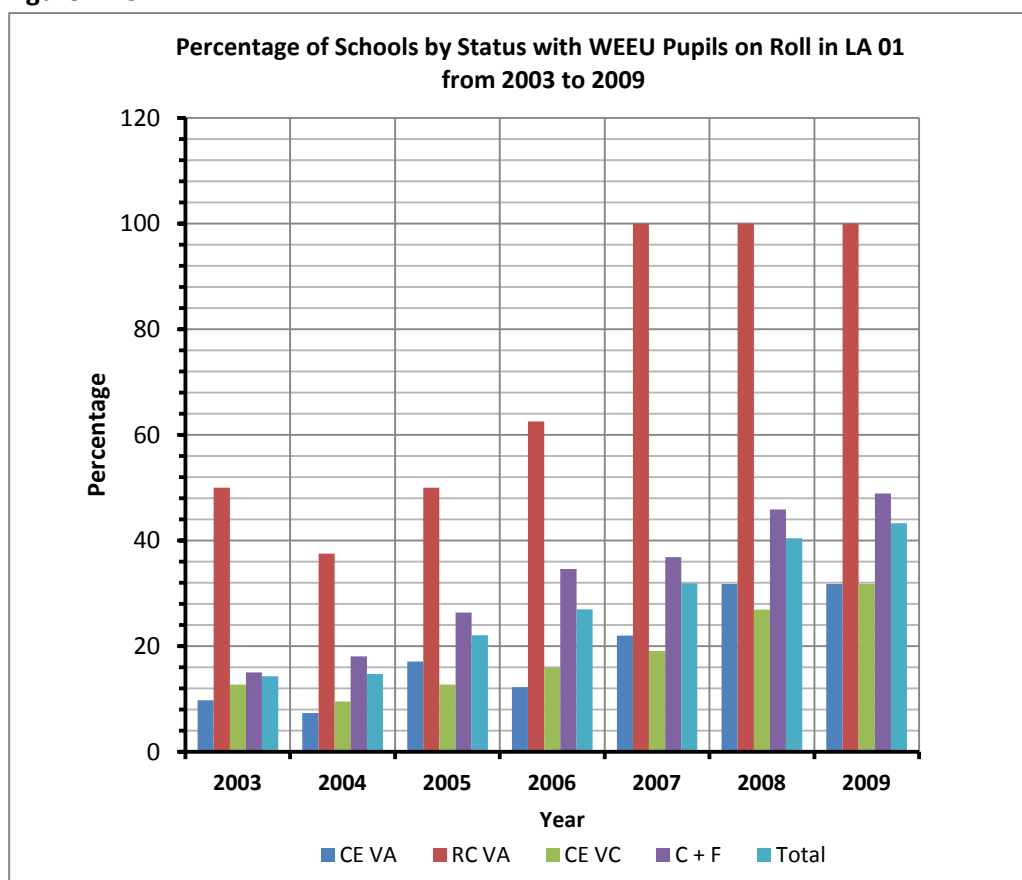
The County and Foundation schools were the most numerous, representing 54.29 per cent of all schools, and were situated throughout this rural authority. The percentage share of WEEU pupils throughout the seven years was just above the C & F category's percentage proportionate share of all schools. Therefore, in general terms the C & F category of schools educated the number of WEEU pupils broadly in proportion with its school presence within the authority.

The C of E VC schools' profile of WEEU pupil numbers as a percentage of all pupils in the authority was irregular over the seven years, ranging from a low of 18.18 per cent in 2003 to a high of 28.00 per cent in 2004. The seven year average of 22.79 per cent was just below the 25.71 per cent category share of all schools.

The number of WEEU pupils registered at C of E VA schools represented a percentage share that was consistently below the percentage share of all schools for this category in each year from 2003 to 2009. On the other hand, the RC VA school category's proportionate profile presented the reverse picture. The RC VA schools were few in number and only represented 3.27 per cent of all schools. However, in each year the schools in this category educated a much higher percentage share of the WEEU population. For example, in 2009 the RC VA schools educated 17.23 per cent of all WEEU pupils registered in LA01. This represents a proportional percentage variance, between the school share of 3.27 per cent and the pupil share of 17.23 per cent, of plus 427 per cent. By comparison, the C & F category had a proportionate variance of plus 1.5 per cent. The C of E VA and the C of E VC categories of schools recorded minus 68.8 and minus 12.7 per cent proportionate variance.

Overall, this reveals that the Roman Catholic VA schools educated proportionately more WEEU pupils between 2003 and 2009 than any other school category. This conclusion is reinforced by the percentage of schools by status category that educated WEEU pupils from 2003 to 2009, as set out in Figure 11:5.

Figure 11:5



Although the RC VA schools only represented 3.27 per cent of all schools, by 2007 each school in this category was educating WEEU pupils. By 2009, nearly 49 per cent of all C & F schools had enrolled WEEU pupils, whilst nearly 32 per cent of schools in the C of E VA and C of E VC categories had WEEU in attendance in the same year.

11.3 Conclusion

This rural shire authority has a primary pupil population much larger than the average for an English local authority. Overall, the ethnic composition of its primary pupil population broadly reflected the national trend, whereby the number of White British pupils declined and the number of Minority Ethnic pupils increased.

The WEEU pupil population increased each year faster than any other ethnic category in the recorded history of the authority. The growing WEEU population spread throughout the authority and did not follow the more established settlement pattern where immigrants formed close communities concentrated in specific geographical locations. By 2009, 43 per cent of all schools were educating pupils from WEEU backgrounds and 54 per cent of all pupils were educated in schools attended by WEEU pupils. Catholic Voluntary Aided schools educated proportionately more WEEU pupils than any other status of school.

The number of ethnically unclassified pupils, comprising of the two categories 'information not yet obtained' and 'information refused', represented 'missing ethnic data' and therefore reduced the accuracy of the ethnic enumerations published for the authority. This issue is discussed in detail in Chapter 12.

Chapter 12

Data Reliability Analysis

12.1 Introduction

The initial research analysis of the annual school census ethnicity datasets from authority LA01 produced some intriguing and somewhat irreconcilable findings. A more detailed analysis at individual school and pupil level revealed some barely credible ethnic category profiles. This raised some uncertainties about the validity and reliability of the datasets.

At local authority level there are two main areas where the school census data can be corrupted. The first area is in the school. For example, incorrect ethnic information is collected and recorded, correct information is recorded incorrectly or information is erroneously recorded as 'refused' or 'not yet obtained'. The second area where mistakes can occur is at the authority level where the administration and co-ordination of the school census process takes place.

The integrity of the school census ethnicity data compiled by LA01 was of paramount importance for the research analysis if it were to produce findings that were accurate,

credible and transparent. It was therefore essential to identify any error factors or weaknesses in the census collection or administration procedures for all ethnic categories that might jeopardise the analysis process or restrict the production of robust and secure findings.

The main focus of the analysis was to ascertain the numerical impact of the arrival of WEEU pupils. However, to achieve this aim, it was essential to gain an accurate picture of all ethnic categories and their developing trends to enable a contextual framework to be constructed in which to calibrate the WEEU pupil data. Consequently, it was necessary to examine the accuracy of the datasets for all main ethnic groups and not limit the analysis to the WEEU category.

12.2 Missing Ethnic Data

The accurate interpretation of the school census ethnicity enumerations was undermined by the high percentage of missing data (Chapter 9:2). Schools that do not know a pupil's ethnic group record the information in the annual school census in either one of two categories. The first of these categories is entitled 'Information Not Yet Obtained' (NOBT) and is used by the schools where there is insufficient time to collect the information from a parent of a pupil recently registered at the school at the time of the census. The second category is headed 'Refused' (REFU) and is for use where a parent directly refused to provide the information. Pupils recorded in these two categories are 'ethnically unclassified' (EthU), which constitutes missing ethnic data.

The number of ethnically unclassified pupils as a percentage of the total primary population in LA01 is set out in Table 12:1. In each successive year from 2003 the number of pupils recorded as ethnically unclassified in LA01 reduced broadly in line with the national profile. 2003 was the first year that all schools were required to complete the computerised school census and enter information about each pupil's ethnicity. At the time of the census in 2003, many schools had not collected the required information from all parents. Consequently, a high percentage of pupils were placed in the 'Information Not Yet Obtained' category. In 2003, over 6 per cent of pupils were ethnically unclassified in the school census returns, but this number reduced by 4.67 percentage points by 2009 to 1.34 per cent of the total school population in LA01.

Table 12:1

The Number of Pupils Ethnically Unclassified (EthU) as a Percentage of all Pupils in LA 01 from 2003 to 2009

Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Pupils EthU as percentage of all pupils	6.01	3.43	2.95	2.24	1.73	1.53	1.34

Source: Calculation based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009: EthU = Ethnically Unclassified.

The analysis of the datasets showed that more than half of all schools in LA01 recorded pupils that were ethnically unclassified between 2003 and 2008. Table 12:2 sets out the percentage of all schools that recorded pupils for whom they were unable to state ethnicity, either because the information had not yet been obtained or the parents had refused to provide it.

Table 12:2

The Percentage of all Schools in LA01 with Pupils on Roll who were Ethnically Unclassified (EthU) in the Annual School Census between 2003 to 2009

Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Percentage of All School with Pupils EthU.	57.94	57.14	57.14	54.00	52.80	51.00	47.56

Source: Calculation based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009: EthU = Ethnically Unclassified.

Tables 12:1 and 12:2 provide information that clearly suggests a consistent pattern of declining numbers of pupils ethnically unclassified and the number of schools recording such pupils. However, these tables do not disclose the detailed information necessary to gain a deeper insight into the distribution patterns of individual ethnically unclassified pupils and the impact of individual schools upon the ethnic classification process. To acquire this detailed information, the school census datasets were scrutinised at individual school and pupil level, enabling investigations of the relationship between individual schools and the number of ethnically unclassified pupils on their rolls. For this analysis, only schools recording pupils as ethnically unclassified in their school census returns were included.

Table 12:3 sets out the findings from calculations based on the school census datasets that link ethnically unclassified pupils to their individual schools for each year from 2003 to 2009. In this table, the first column indicates the number of pupils ethnically unclassified in a school, whilst each successive column indicates the number of schools that educated the corresponding number of pupils in each year from 2003. For example, in 2003 there were 33 schools that recorded one ethnically unclassified pupil on their roll, whereas ten schools recorded five such pupils.

Table 12:3

The Relationship Between EthU Pupil Numbers and Schools with pupils EthU on Roll from 2003 to 2009

No of Pupils	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
1	33	36	46	46	50	49	33
2	32	35	31	32	28	34	41
3	18	16	18	11	16	13	13
4	7	13	11	12	11	6	7
5	10	12	6	9	9	10	10
6	3	3	4	6	6	2	2
7	2		4	1		2	2
8	1		1			3	2
9	2		1	2	2		1
10	1	5	1	1	1		1
11	2	2	1	1	1		
12	1	1	1	2			
13	3	1	2	3	1		1
14		2		1			
15	1		2	1		1	1
16	2	2	2				
17		1	1			2	
18	1	1	1				
19	1		1		2	2	1
20		1		1			
21	1		1				
22	2				1		
23		1				1	
24	2	2	1				
25					1		
26						1	
27	1	1					
28	2			1			
29					1		
30				1			
31	1						1
32	1	1					
33				1	1		
36			1				
38				1			
39				1			
42			1				
43	1						
44			1				
45		1	1				
48		2					
49		1					
50			1				
52		1					
53	1						
55			1				
58	1						
59	1						
61	1		1				
64	1						
65	1						
66		1					
76	1						
78	1						
80		1					
84	1						
85	1						
95	1						
111							1
116	1						
117	1						
122	1						
130	1						
139						1	
164					1		
245				1			
279			1				
312		1					
332	1						

Source: Calculations based on annual school census datasets (pupil level) for LA 01 - 2003 to 2009. 1 = School coded LA 01 124. EthU = Ethnically Unclassified

The analysis revealed that in 2003 schools recorded between one and 332 pupils on their registers for whom they did not state ethnicity (Table 12:3). A very clear pattern was revealed indicating that over the seven years from 2003 individual schools recorded successively fewer pupils as ethnically unclassified. Indeed, in 2003, 38 schools recorded more than 10 such pupils on their registers, but by 2009 this number had dropped to five schools.

Table 12:3 brings to light three noticeable features. First, the vast majority of schools with ethnically unclassified pupils recorded fewer than six of these pupils on their rolls. Secondly, in each successive year, the number of ethnically unclassified pupils reduced. For example, school LA01-65 recorded 130 ethnically unclassified pupils in the 2003 census, which was the second highest number recorded by a school in that year in LA01. By 2009, this number had dropped to just four pupils. Likewise, school LA01-04 recorded 122 ethnically unclassified pupils in 2003, the third highest number of such pupils in a school in LA01 in that year. By 2005 this number had reduced to 50 pupils and by 2006 the school could account for the ethnicity of all its pupils. Finally, one school stands out from all the rest because it claimed to educate more ethnically unclassified pupils than any other school in authority LA01 in each of the seven years from 2003. The analysis identified this school as LA01-124. This school's census returns are shown in red in Table 12:3 to assist identification.

The analysis looked further into the relationship between the distribution of pupils ethnically unclassified and the schools they attended. Table 12:4 sets out an overview of these findings, but is complex because it addresses separate but interrelated calculations. Here the percentage distribution of ethnically unclassified pupils is set

alongside the percentage distribution of schools with ethnically unclassified pupils in relation to individual school populations of unclassified pupils.

Column A in Table 12:4 contains the number of ethnically unclassified pupils, organised into number bands. Column S (Schools) sets out the percentage of schools with populations of pupils ethnically unclassified for each number band in column A. For example, 83.3 per cent of schools in 2004 recorded between one and ten pupils on roll who were ethnically unclassified. Column P (Pupils) sets out the number of ethnically unclassified pupils in each number band (column A) as a percentage of all ethnically unclassified pupils. For example, in 2004 25.2 per cent of all ethnically unclassified pupils attended schools with a population of between one and ten unclassified pupils. Taking both these examples together, it is possible to conclude that 83 per cent of schools with ethnically unclassified pupils on roll had recorded populations of between 1 and 10 such pupils with these schools educating 25.2 per cent of all unclassified pupils. On the other hand, 0.7 per cent of all schools with ethnically unclassified pupils on roll were educating 23.5 per cent of all unclassified pupils in LA01 in 2004. It is important to note that 0.7 per cent represents just one school. Hence, one school in LA01 recorded in its 2004 school census that it was responsible for educating 23.5 per cent of all pupils ethnically unclassified in LA01. This is the same school (LA01-124) featured in Table 12:3 in red. For consistency, school LA01-124 is shown in red in Table 12:4.

Table 12:4

The Percentage Share of Pupils EthU ⁹ and Schools with Pupils EthU in Relation to the Number of Pupils EthU on Roll at Primary Schools in LA 01 from 2003 to 2009														
A No of Pupils EthU in a School	2003		2004		2005		2006		2007		2008		2009	
	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P
1-10	74.2	12.6	83.3	25.2	85.4	27.7	88.9	36.4	93.2	47.8	93.7	50.5	95.7	60.8
11 - 19	07.5	06.7	06.9	01.1	07.6	14.5	05.9	12.2	03.0	09.3	03.9	15.7	02.6	09.8
20 – 29	05.4	08.3	03.5	08.9	01.4	04.0	01.5	05.7	02.3	11.8	01.6	08.8		
30 – 39	01.4	02.7	00.7	10.0	00.7	03.2	03.0	16.6	00.8	05.1			00.9	06.4
40 – 49	00.7	01.8	02.8	14.3	02.1	11.5								
50 – 59	02.0	07.2	00.7	03.9	01.4	09.2								
60 – 69	02.0	08.1	00.7	05.0	00.7	05.4								
70 – 79	01.4	06.6												
80 – 89	01.4	07.2	00.7	06.0										
90 – 99	00.7	04.0												
100 - 199	02.7	20.6									00.8	25.1	00.9	23.0
200 – 299					00.7	24.5	00.7	29.1	00.8	25.6				
Over 300	00.7	14.1	0.7	23.5										

Source: Calculations are based on the school census datasets of LA 01 from 2003 to 2009 . Figures in red refer to school LA 01 124.

Column A: Number of ethnically unclassified pupils – organised into number bands

Column S: (Schools) Percentage of all schools with ethnically unclassified pupils on roll.

Column P: (Pupils) Percentage of all pupils ethnically unclassified.

Although in a different form, the findings in Table 12:4 reinforce the distribution pattern established in Table 12:3, but help to quantify developing trends more directly. In 2003, the largest group of schools had ten or fewer pupils EthU¹⁰ on roll. This represented 74.2 per cent of all schools with pupils EthU and accounted for 12.6 per cent of all unclassified pupils. However, one school (LA01-124) claimed to be educating 14.1 per cent of all pupils EthU in that year (indicated in red in Table 12:4).

In each successive year from 2003 the percentage of schools with ethnically unclassified pupil populations of ten or below increased and the percentage of pupils EthU educated by these schools similarly increased. By 2009, 95.7 per cent of schools with ten or less pupils on roll with missing ethnicity data were educating 60.8 per cent of all ethnically unclassified pupils.

⁹ EthU = Ethnically Unclassified

¹⁰ EthU = Ethnically Unclassified.

Only two schools recorded in their census returns more than 20 pupils EthU in 2009. Of these two schools, school LA01-124 stated that it was educating 23 per cent of all ethnically unclassified pupils in this large authority. Moreover, this school in 2006 was responsible for 29.1 per cent of all missing ethnicity data in the authority and in 2007 and 2008 they accounted for over a quarter of all missing ethnicity data. Over the seven years from 2003, school LA01-124 was responsible for educating on average 23.56 per cent of all pupils EthU.

The very high percentage of the authority's missing ethnicity data, recorded by just one school, impacted upon the official ethnicity enumeration for each main and subsidiary ethnic category and each and every analysis of the ethnicity data. This included the calculation of the WEEU pupil population. Even with this school (LA01-124) excluded from the calculations, the analysis revealed that on average 54 per cent of all primary schools submitted missing ethnicity data in each year over the seven year period of the analysis.

The impact of missing ethnicity data upon a school's ethnic profile and the uncertainty that it brings to any analysis of the changing ethnic composition of a school is well illustrated by the research findings from school LA01-64. In 2003, the school recorded 38 per cent of its pupils as ethnically unclassified. As part of the research analysis, each individual pupil recorded in the school census in 2003 was tracked and their actual ethnicity established. Figure 12:1 shows the original percentage share of each ethnic group as recorded by the school and received by the authority and the DFE in 2003. Figure 12:2 shows the percentage share of each ethnic group adjusted to represent

each pupil's actual ethnic category established from the 2009 research review of each pupil in the 2003 census.

The comparison of the 2003 and 2009 Tables reveals some major changes in the ethnic distribution of the pupils, sufficient to reconfigure fundamentally the ethnic composition of the school. Through the redistribution of pupils ethnically unclassified in 2003 to their correct ethnic category, the White British population increased by 27 percentage points from 47 per cent of all pupils to 74 per cent. The Mixed category increased from just one per cent of all pupils to eight per cent, and the Asian category increased from four to seven per cent of all pupils. The WEEU population also recorded an increase from one to four per cent of all pupils attending the school. Only the WWEU, the White Other and the Black ethnic categories remained unchanged.

Figure 12:1

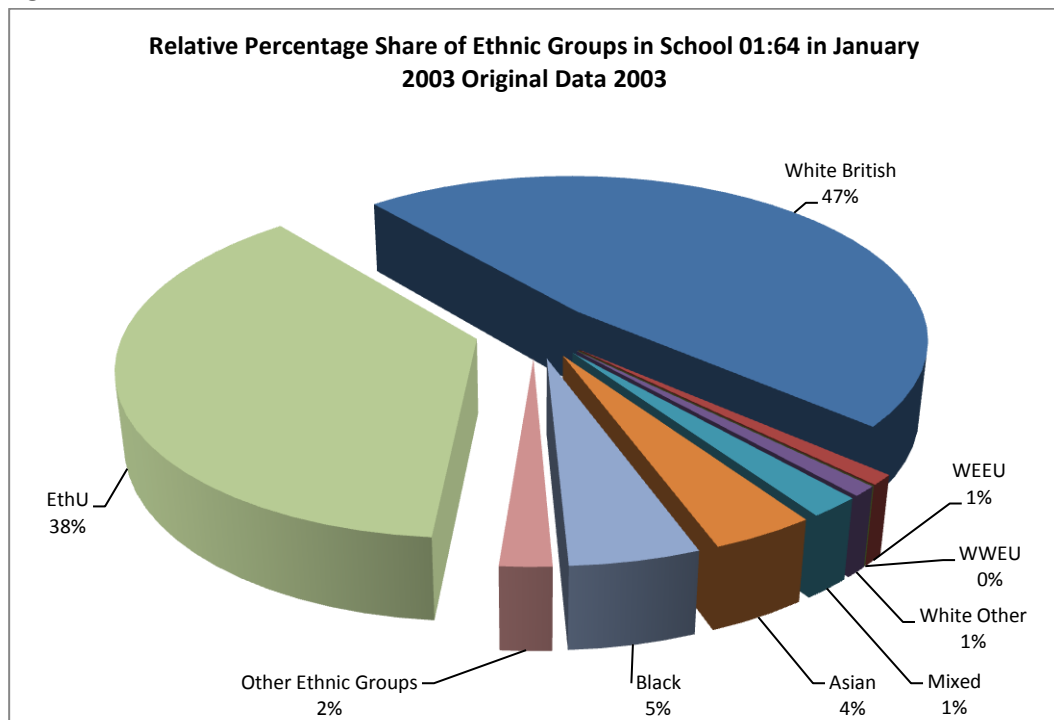
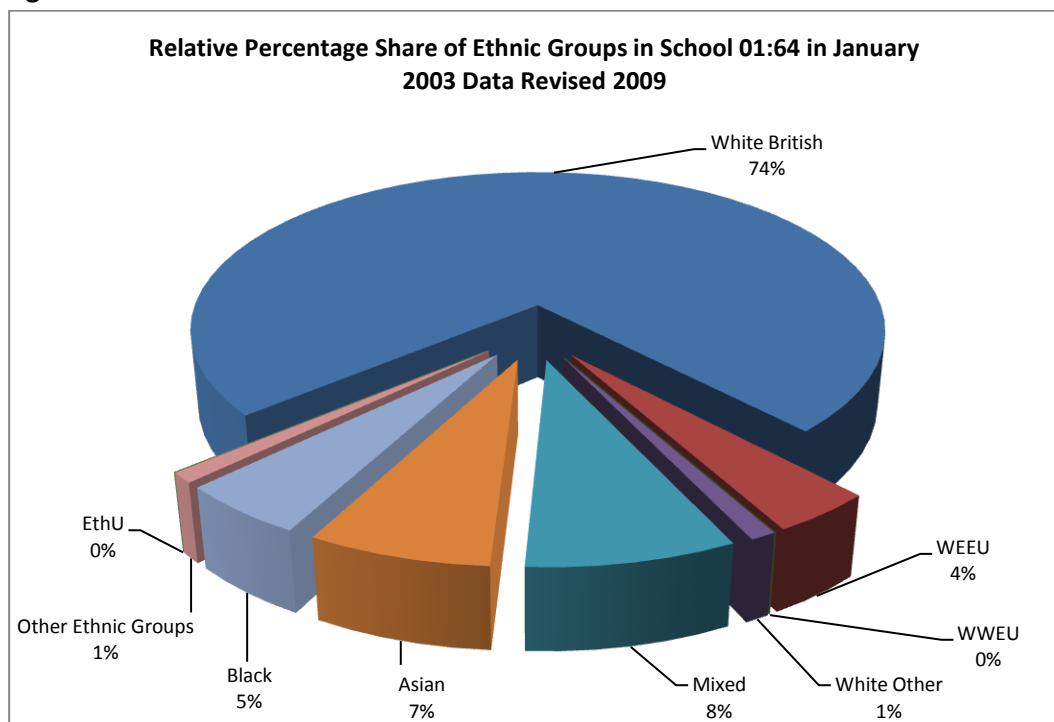


Figure 12:2



EthU = Ethnically Unclassified

12.3 Ethnic Category Confusion

Figure 12:3 is an extract from Figure 11:4 and shows the highly irregular and implausible ethnic profile presented by the census returns for the White Other (WOTH) extended approved category in LA01. This extended category is a catch-all for non-British White pupils who are not identified as belonging to any other approved non-British White category. WEEU and WWEU pupils have their own approved extended categories within the non-British White subsidiary category and should not be counted in the White Other category.

Figure 12:3

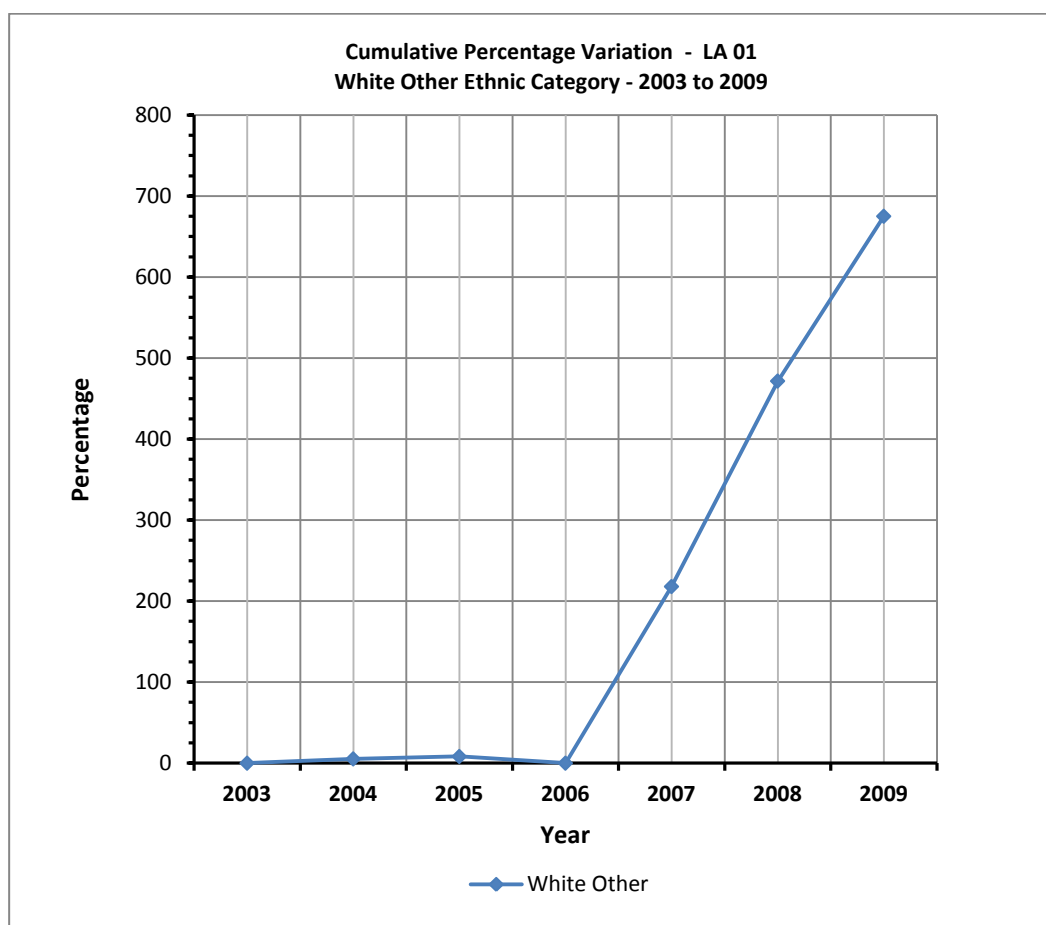


Figure 12:3 shows that the White Other extended category remained relatively constant until 2006. However, between January 2006 and January 2009 the rate of population growth increased rapidly, recording an increase of 675 per cent over the three year period.

Pupils recorded in the non-British White extended approved categories, including White Other, are classified as Minority Ethnic pupils. White British pupils who are not White English, White Scottish or White Welsh should be recorded in the Other White British (WOWB) extended category. The distinction between the White Other (WOTH) and the Other White British (WOWB) is very important as each category has a profound influence upon the ethnic profile of a school and an authority. These categories are not interchangeable.

To determine the reasons for the White Other category's irregular profile, the ethnic status of the pupils at each school in the authority was mapped over the seven year period from 2003. The White main category and its subsidiary and approved extended categories were scrutinised in detail. The non-White categories composed of pupils from Mixed, Black, Asian and Chinese backgrounds were amalgamated in an 'All non-White' category for the purpose of the analysis. This amalgamation of the non-White categories was employed as the scrutiny of the ethnic identification of individual pupils in the case study schools revealed that individual schools were able to distinguish between non-White pupils and White pupils reasonably accurately. Therefore, these non-White categories did not impinge upon the ethnic category confusion between the White Other (WORTH) and Other White British (WOWB) categories. This detailed

analysis at individual school and pupil level revealed important information, which is illustrated through the following four case study school examples.

12:4 Ethnicity Analysis School LA01-01

Table 12:5 sets out the annual school census returns for school LA01-01 from 2003 to 2009. It shows that at a superficial level school LA01-01 recorded a declining White British population that reduced by 13.07 per cent from 153 to 133 pupils between 2003 and 2009. Over the same period, the Minority Ethnic population, composed of all non-British White pupils, increased by 923.08 per cent from 13 to 133 pupils. Overall, the total school population reduced by 5.63 per cent from 284 to 268 pupils over the seven year period. Authority LA01 combined this information with that from all other schools in the authority to produce the ethnic population enumerations and trends for the whole authority. The DFE amalgamated the ethnic returns from all English authorities to produce national enumerations from which national ethnicity trends were determined and policies developed.

However, the decline in the White English population is clearly identifiable, together with the fact that after 2006 no pupil was included in the Other White British category. From 2006, the White Other category recorded year-on-year increases that had the effect of changing fundamentally the ethnic composition of the school. The White Other category recorded White pupils who allegedly were not from White British backgrounds and were therefore classified as Minority Ethnic pupils.

Table 12:5

Annual School Census Ethnicity Returns for School LA01-01 From 2003 to 2009								
		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
White British	White English	153	261	246	237	211	173	133
	White Scottish							
	White Welsh							
	Other White British	1	2	1				
White	White Irish			2	2	1		
	Traveller Irish				1	1	2	2
	WEEU					1	3	3
	WWEU		1	1	1	3	4	6
	White Other			2	7	21	72	111
	Gypsy / Roma						1	1
All Non-White Categories		13	9	13	16	14	13	10
Minority Ethnic Pupils		13	10	18	27	41	95	133
Refused / NYO		/117	/3	/2	/2	2/2	3/	2/
Total NOR *5+		284	276	267	266	256	271	268

Source: Calculations based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009

In 2003, the school had not established the ethnicity of 41.2 per cent of its pupils and, consequently, recorded their ethnic category as 'Not Yet Obtained' (missing ethnicity data). This level of missing ethnicity data made any serious analysis of the school's ethnic composition somewhat meaningless in 2003.

By 2004, the analysis revealed that the ethnically unclassified population had fallen to just over one per cent of all pupils and that 95.29 per cent of all pupils attending the school were from White British backgrounds. Ten pupils, representing 3.62 per cent of all pupils, were shown to be from minority ethnic backgrounds. In 2004, the Ofsted evidence base judged that almost all the pupils attending the school were White British. However, Ofsted also noted that fewer than five pupils were from non-White British ethnic backgrounds, even though this number conflicted with the school census returns for that year.

By 2009, the census returns showed that the White British population had reduced to less than half of all pupils attending the school and that the Minority Ethnic population had increased to match that of the British White pupils. The Ofsted database indicated in 2010 that nearly all pupils attending the school were from White British backgrounds. There is here some very compelling evidence that the school experienced 'ethnic category confusion'. A particularly good example of this 'confusion' is found in the 2009 census returns where, seemingly, it incorrectly categorised up to 41 per cent of its White British population as White Other, turning them into non-British White Minority Ethnic pupils. The accuracy of the school census returns for this school from 2006 onwards is somewhat suspect.

12.5 Ethnicity Analysis School LA01-08

The ethnic data profile for school LA01-08 is set out in Table 12:6 and clearly reveals 'category confusion' between the Other White British and the White Other categories. Moreover, the ethnic profile strongly suggests that the Other White British category was used as a catch-all category by the school. The category confusion was further compounded by a high percentage of missing data.

Noticeable here is the fact that a very large percentage of the school population was classified as Other White British in each year, with the exception of 2006, when there were no pupils recorded in this category. However, quite inexplicably, in the same year 93 pupils were recorded as White Other (marked in red in Table 12:6), where previously there had been just one pupil recorded.

Table 12:6

Annual School Census Ethnicity Returns for School LA01-08 From 2003 to 2009								
		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
White British	White English	2	3	4	8	8	13	11
	White Scottish							
	White Welsh							
	Other White British	78	77	91	0	73	66	52
White	White Irish	2	2	2	2	1		
	Traveller Irish							
	WEEU				1	2	1	1
	WWEU							
	White Other	1	1	1	93	1	2	7
	Gypsy / Roma							
All Non-White Categories		8	8	6	7	6	5	6
Refused		58	49	44	33	25	19	19
Total NOR *5+		149	140	148	144	116	106	96

Source: Calculations based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009

A close examination of the ethnic census returns for 2003 showed the school had recorded in the census returns that 97.5 per cent of the White British population were not from White English, White Welsh or White Scottish backgrounds. For a school set in an English rural authority, this is a quite perplexing and surprising outcome. In the same year, the school claimed that 38.93 per cent of parents refused to provide information about their children's ethnic background. The puzzling ethnic profile continued throughout the whole of the study period from 2003 to 2009.

12.6 Ethnicity Analysis School LA01-07

School LA01-07 is a larger school than LA01-08, but its ethnic profile also indicates that it suffers from ethnic 'category confusion' and, similarly, placed a heavy reliance on the catch-all Other White British category.

As in the case of school LA01-08, no pupils were recorded in 2006 as Other White British, but the White Other population rose from two pupils in 2005 to 58 pupils in 2006, and reduced to 16 in 2007, suggesting the incorrect use of these two categories (marked in red in Table 12:7). By 2009, the school classified 55.83 per cent of all White British pupils as Other White British, therefore not from White English, Welsh or Scottish backgrounds. Additionally, in the same year 14.92 per cent of the total school population were recorded as White Other and 8.56 per cent were recorded as ethnically unclassified.

Table 12:7

Annual School Census Ethnicity Returns for School LA01-07 From 2003 to 2009								
		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
White British	White English	324	310	302	266	229	198	162
	White Scottish	2	1	1				
	White Welsh	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
	Other White British	10	15	24	0	67	74	91
White	White Irish							1
	Traveller Irish							
	WEEU	1	2	3	5	4	5	5
	WWEU	1		1	2	2	1	
	White Other	4	4	2	58	16	36	54
	Gypsy / Roma							
All Non-White Categories		10	12	13	14	16	17	17
Refused / NYO		8/	10/	10/	14/	19/	23/	29/2
Total NOR *5+		362	356	358	360	354	355	362

Source: Calculations based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009

School LA01-07 maintained a relatively stable number of pupils on roll between 2003 and 2009. Indeed, in 2003 and 2009 the number of pupils of statutory school age registered at the school was the same at 362 pupils. However, in 2003 there were 324 White English pupils recorded, but by 2009, this number had dropped to 162. The difference was made up mainly by pupils classified as Other White British and White

Other, together with the highest percentage of pupils recorded as ethnically unclassified by the school over the seven year period.

In 2008, the Ofsted database noted that the pupils attending school LA01-07 were principally from White British backgrounds. Clearly, the Ofsted data and the school's census returns cannot both be correct.

12.7 Ethnicity Analysis School LA01-124

The ethnic census data for School LA01-124 warranted a very detailed examination because of the exceptional nature of its pupil census returns dating from 2003 to 2009. Some aspects of these census returns are highlighted in red in Tables 12:3 and 12:4.

Table 12:8

Annual School Census Ethnicity Returns for School LA01-124 From 2003 to 2009								
		2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
White British	White English	26	37	67	96	146	137	136
	White Scottish			1	1	1	1	
	White Welsh							
	Other White British	1	2	3		4	3	3
White	White Irish							
	Traveller Irish							
	WEEU	1	1	2	2	3	2	2
	WWEU	2	4	4	4	8	5	5
	White Other			1	7	31	69	98
	Gypsy / Roma							
All Non-White Categories		1	3	5	9	9	9	8
Refused		332	312	279	244	163	139	111
Total NOR *5+		363	359	362	363	365	365	363

Source: Calculations based on LA 01 school census datasets from 2003 to 2009

The number of pupils attending school LA01-124 remained broadly constant over the seven years in contrast with the declining trends shown nationally and locally since 2003.

The most outstanding ethnic feature revealed by this research analysis related to the number of parents that the school claimed directly refused to reveal the ethnic background of their children. In truth, this number far exceeded that recorded by any school in any of the seven years in the authority. To place these figures in perspective, Table 12:9 sets out the number of pupils classified as 'Refused' by the school as a percentage of the school population and as a percentage of the total number of pupils recorded as 'Refused' in authority LA01 from 2003 to 2009.

Table 12:9

Pupils Classified as Ethnically 'Refused' in School LA01-124 as a Percentage of the School's Total Pupil Population and as a Percentage of the Total Number of Pupil Classified as Ethnically 'Refused' within Local Authority LA01 from 2003 to 2009

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	% 7 yr Average
% of School population.	91.46	86.91	77.07	67.49	46.30	38.08	30.58	62.46
% of LA Population.	35.78	40.95	41.46	42.02	36.19	34.32	31.27	38.03

Source: Calculations based on the analysis of the School Census datasets of school LA 01 124 in Authority LA 01.

The school claimed that over 90 per cent of the parents refused to provide information about their children's ethnicity in 2003. This represents a quite extraordinary lack of co-operation on behalf of the vast majority of parents. The number of 'Refused' reduced in each successive year, but averaged over 62 per cent of pupils each year over the seven year period. However, the findings from the pupil level analysis suggested that this reduction in missing data was unreliable.

From 2003 to 2009 the school accounted for an average of 38.03 per cent of all 'Refused' pupils in the authority. In 2006, more than 42 per cent of all authority pupils classified as 'Refused' were educated at school LA01-124. The very high percentage of

pupils ethnically unclassified in this school rendered the findings from any analysis of its ethnic composition and developing ethnic trends quite meaningless.

In line with other schools in the authority, the school did not record any pupils in the Other White British category in 2006, although it did in all other years. The findings from the analysis, set out in Table 12:8, found that from 2006 the number of White Other pupils increased at a rapid rate. By 2009, a total of 27 per cent of all pupils were classified as White Other, categorising them as Minority Ethnic pupils and not White British. In this year, the school still recorded missing ethnic data for more than 30 per cent of the school population and representing more than 31 per cent of the total 'Refused' population of the authority.

Figures 12:4 and 12:5 provide opportunity to compare visually the ethnic composition of school LA01-124 in 2003 and 2009.

Figure 12:4

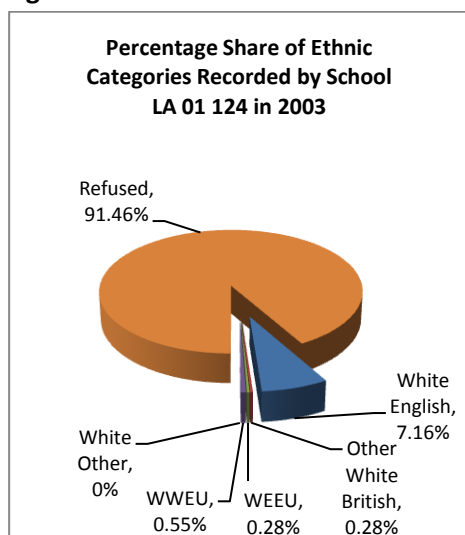
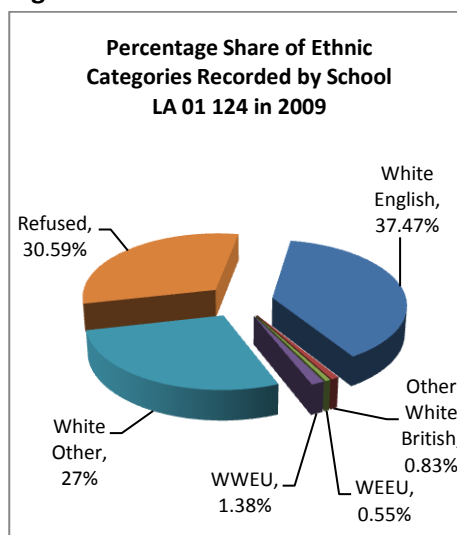


Figure 12:5



Noticeable in these Figures is the high number of 'Refused' and the increase in the White English population and the White Other (Minority Ethnic) catch-all category by 2009. However, in 2004, Ofsted judged that the pupils attending school LA01-124 came from backgrounds that were above average in socio-economic terms and that very few pupils came from Minority Ethnic backgrounds. In 2008, Ofsted still maintained that the vast majority of pupils were from relatively advantaged backgrounds both socially and economically, and that nearly all pupils were ethnically White British.

These ethnic category judgements were made by Ofsted with the full co-operation and agreement of the school. In 2008, the school reported in its census returns that 23.29 per cent of its pupils were from Minority Ethnic backgrounds and that there were missing ethnicity data for 38.08 per cent of the school population (Table 12:8). The analysis revealed that the Ofsted data and the school census data are irreconcilable. Yet again, the school's census ethnicity returns and the Ofsted and school ethnicity statements cannot both be correct.

The credibility of the ethnic data emanating from school LA01-124 is placed in doubt by the extraordinary census returns and the Ofsted judgements agreed by the school. Moreover, these questionable ethnic data were incorporated into the local authority enumerations and the national data published by the DFE. Any data errors that emanated from this school on the scale indicated would act like a virus, contaminating and undermining the accuracy of all databases in which they were incorporated.

12.8 Other White British Category Data 2006

The analysis of all schools in LA01 showed that there were no pupils recorded in the Other White British category by any school in the authority in 2006. Three options were explored to account for this phenomenon. The first possibility was that the schools were incorrectly instructed to use the White Other category in place of Other White British. A further possibility was that the computer program used for recording and managing the school census returns in 2006 failed to record pupils in category Other White British. Finally, it is possible that the local authority experienced 'category confusion' and erroneously transferred pupils from the Other White British category to the White Other category.

The research investigations established that the schools had used the Other White British category correctly and that no computer faults were reported that could affect ethnic category selection and recording. The authority was notified of the situation and undertook an investigation. It was found that in 2006 the authority had mistakenly moved all pupils categorised as Other White British to the White Other category, incorrectly believing the two categories were interchangeable. Consequently, the British White population in authority LA01 was reduced by the number of pupils in the county classified as Other White British and the White Other category for White Minority Ethnic pupils increased by the equivalent number.

12.9 The Effect of White Other Ethnic Group Confusion.

Any inaccuracies in the school census ethnicity returns have wide-reaching implications. The performance of a school is judged by comparing its standardised assessment results

with other schools possessing similar characteristics. Through this process, Ofsted and DFE ascertain each school's performance and calculate the 'Contextual Value Added' (CVA) scores. This information is published to schools in the form of an annual report entitled RAISEonline. Schools are expected to use these CVA scores to inform their programmes for improvement. Additionally, the CVA information is the essential and dominant feature of school assessment within the Ofsted inspection and monitoring process. The characteristics that are used to ensure schools are compared like with like include such indicators as the percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals, with a statement of SEN and from minority ethnic groups.

Any 'category confusion' concerning the 'White Other' and the 'Any Other White British' groups can change a pupil's ethnic classification from White British to Minority Ethnic or vice versa in the school census returns, which changes the CVA basic school characteristics. The research findings from the analysis of school LA07-18, set out in Table 12:10, provide an interesting insight into the implications of 'category confusion' upon a school's Minority Ethnic population enumerations.

In Table 12:10, the Ofsted / DFE report data for school LA07-18 is set out in the first row for each year from 2006 to 2008. These enumerations are based on the School Census returns from school LA07-18, which are shown in the second row. The first two rows, therefore, should agree and broadly do so. The pupils recorded as 'White Other' (Minority Ethnic) in 2006 to 2008 in the census returns for school LA07-18 (Row 4) were tracked and their actual ethnic backgrounds established. For example, in 2007, 19 pupils were classified as 'White Other' (Row 4). However, the research tracking of 'White Other' pupils revealed that all 19 pupils were in fact from White British

backgrounds. These 19 incorrectly classified pupils represented 11.2 per cent of all pupils in the school. Consequently, the Ofsted / DFE data reported that 46.2 per cent of all pupils were from Minority Ethnic backgrounds (Row 1), whereas there were actually 35.5 per cent (Row 3).

Figure 12:10

The Effect of the Incorrect use of the White Other Category and its Effect Upon the Enumerations for White British and the Minority Ethnic Groups of Pupils in School 07 18 from 2006 to 2008								
		2006		2007		2008		3 Year Average
		No. of pupils	% of all pupils	No. of pupils	% of all pupils	No. of pupils	% of all pupils	% of all pupils
Row 1. Ofsted / DFE Reports	NOR All	190¹		198		173		
	NOR 5+	(171) ²		(169)		(155)		
	White British	(108)	(63%)	(91)	(53.9%)	(72)	(46.5%)	
	Minority Ethnic	(63)	36.8%	(78)	46.2%	(83)	53.5%	45.5%
Row 2. School Census Returns	NOR All	190		198		173		
	NOR 5+	171		169		155		
	White British	107	62.6	91	53.9%	72	46.5%	54
	Minority Ethnic	64	37.4	78	46.2%	83	53.5%	45.7%
Row 3. Actual Pupil Ethnicity	NOR All	190		198		173		
	NOR 5+	171		169		155		
	White British	114	66.7	109	64.5%	86	55.5%	
	Minority Ethnic	57	33.3	60	35.5%	69	44.5%	37.8%
Row 4. School Census: White Other	Total White Other	8	4.7%	19	11.2%	16	10.3%	8.7%
	White British	7		19		14		
	Minority Ethnic	1				2		

Source: Ofsted / DFE RAISEonline Report Final and Validated (2008). School Census Datasets / Pupil Level Local authority. Actual Pupil Ethnicity – IHJ and School Pupil Tracking Reassessment of White Other Ethnicity Category (2009/2010). ¹ Bold figures published by Ofsted / DFE. ² figures in brackets represent IHJ calculations based on Ofsted / DFE published figures.

The same process in 2008 showed that out of 16 pupils classified as ‘White Other’ 14 were actually ‘White British’ (Table 12:10, Row 4). The Ofsted / DFE data for calculating the CVA scores in 2008, set out in Row 1, replicate those provided by the school in its census returns (Row 2), and reported that 53.5 per cent of pupils were from Minority Ethnic groups. However, the actual percentage was 44.5 per cent, representing a 9 percentage point variation.

This one school provides an instructive example, which clearly cannot be extrapolated to produce national estimates, but raises issues about the effect upon the CVA process of inaccurate school census returns, which have been highlighted throughout this chapter. It is interesting to note that in 2006, 3.23 per cent of all White pupils nationally were recorded in the main category of Any Other White Background (Minority Ethnic), which includes the 'White Other' extended category. This percentage increased in each successive year and by 2011 accounted for 5.4 per cent of all White main category pupils nationally (DFE, 2010k).

12.10 WEEU Pupil Population

The detailed analysis of individual pupil ethnicity did not find one pupil incorrectly classified as WEEU. However, as shown in the example of school LA01-64 (Figures 12:1 and 12:2), some pupils of WEEU backgrounds were placed in the 'Information Not Yet Obtained' category.

The case study schools were very clear that they could identify and record correctly A8 WEEU pupils on first registration. It was explained that they stood out for a number of reasons, including their inability to communicate in English and the fact that they tended to join schools at times other than the beginning of the school year. All schools in LA01 admitting a pupil with little knowledge of the English language were required to inform the authority so that their learning needs could be assessed and appropriate support provided. The evidence from the authority's English as an Additional Language (EAL) records supports the schools' assertions that WEEU pupils were identified and

recorded on first registration. The combined evidence suggests that the enumerations for the WEEU population of authority LA 01 were accurate overall, with the exception of the 2003 census returns, and represented the minimum number of WEEU pupils attending schools in the authority.

12.11 Conclusion

In 2003, the percentage of pupils ethnically unclassified undermined the findings from the analysis of individual schools and the authority's enumerations. In subsequent years this became much less of a problem as the number of pupils ethnically unclassified declined and the number of schools recording such pupils also reduced in number. However, school LA01-124 had a disproportionately detrimental effect upon the credibility of the authority's ethnicity data between 2003 and 2009. Its pupil population was less than one per cent of all pupils in the authority, but it claimed to educate 38 per cent of all pupils in the authority with missing ethnic data due to parents refusing to provide the ethnic background of their children attending the school.

The research analysis of the ethnicity data at authority, school and individual pupil level identified considerable 'ethnic category confusion'. This confusion is well exemplified by the incorrect allocation of pupils to the White Other and the Other White British categories, which was shown to undermine the credibility of the White British enumerations and those for the Minority Ethnic population. Indeed, 'ethnic category confusion' was not restricted to these two catch-all categories. For example, the research scrutiny of the ethnicity of each pupil in school LA01-14 found that identical twins were recorded in the annual census returns as belonging to completely different

ethnic backgrounds. The category confusion was not limited to schools, but included the school census administration process at authority level.

The research analysis revealed widespread inaccuracies in the annual school census returns. These inaccuracies raise serious issues about the use of census datasets by Ofsted and DFE to calculate the Contextual Value Added performance of individual schools. Indeed, it reflects the comments made by Gorard in 2010 that errors in the school census are propagated through computation processes and make calculations deriving from them meaningless.

The available evidence indicated that census returns for the WEEU population represented an accurate picture of the minimum number of such pupils registered at schools in authority LA01.

Overall, the accuracy of the annual school census pupil ethnicity returns improved over the seven years, following a very problematic start in 2003. However, even by 2009, the integrity of the process fell well short of the standard expected by the DFE, which stated:

Both LAs and the DFE expect there to be zero errors on the Census return. The only exception to this is where a software bug generates an error that cannot be fixed or circumvented and an agreement has been reached between the LAs and the DFE that the error is acceptable (DFE, 2010a, p. 17).

Chapter 13

The WEEU Pupil Population in Case Study Schools.

13:1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings from the analysis of the changing ethnic composition of case study schools within authority LA01 and the influence that the WEEU A8 pupil population had upon these changes. In particular, the relationship between the White British, Minority Ethnic and the WEEU populations is described. The rate of growth and relative size of the WEEU population is reported within the contextual framework of all ethnic groups. The findings from the analysis of the impact of the WEEU population upon the percentage of pupils whose first language was not English are reported.

Three primary schools were the focus for this part of the case study. School LA01-64 is located close to the centre of the city of this shire country. Schools LA01-16 and LA01-14 are situated in county towns. School LA01-14 is a Roman Catholic Voluntary Aided school, whilst schools LA01-64 and LA01-16 are Church of England Voluntary Controlled. School LA01-14 was larger than most primary schools nationally and fell above the 80th

percentile¹¹ with more than 349 pupils on roll. Schools LA01-64 and LA01-16 had pupil populations that were below the average size for primary schools nationally and fell within the interval between the 20th and 40th percentiles with school populations ranging from 123 to 198 pupils on roll.

The change in the ethnic composition of these three case study schools between 2003 and 2010 was quite profound.

13:2 Ethnic Composition of School LA01-14

The 2003 census returns revealed that the White pupil population of this Roman Catholic school represented 93.5 per cent of all pupils of statutory school age and above. 92.3 per cent of the White population were recorded as White British. The White British category of pupils accounted for 86.3 per cent of all pupils. Overall, 6.5 per cent of all pupils were from non-White backgrounds and 13.7 per cent were classified as Minority Ethnic (non-British White) (Figure 13:1).

By 2010, the White British percentage share of the population had decreased by 23.7 percentage points to 62.6 per cent of all pupils. The WEEU population grew to represent 12 per cent of all pupils, becoming the largest ethnic group, after the White British, attending the school. Between 2003 and 2010, the total school population increased by 9.2 per cent. This increase was solely due to the growth in the number of

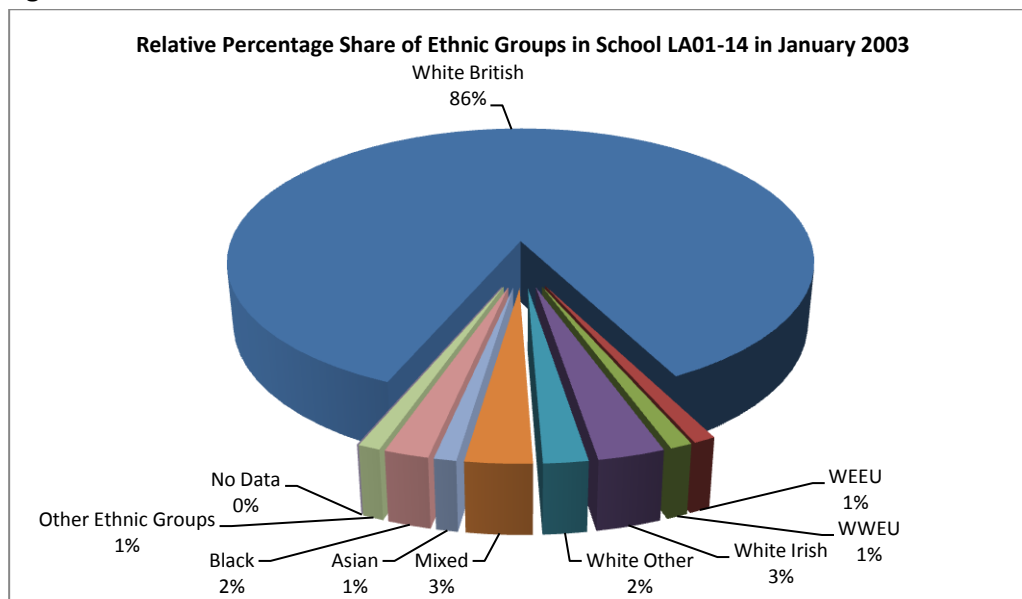
¹¹ Ofsted / DFE produce 'quintile graphs' as part of RAISEonline to enable a school to compare its key indicators against the national picture for maintained mainstream schools. The graphs are divided into five intervals, each containing approximately 20% of schools.

Minority Ethnic pupils and accounted for 37.4 per cent of all pupils, an increase of 23.7 percentage points.

Figure 13:1 sets out the relative percentage share of the ethnic groups attending the school in 2003 and Figure 13:2 sets out the percentage share for the same groups in 2010.

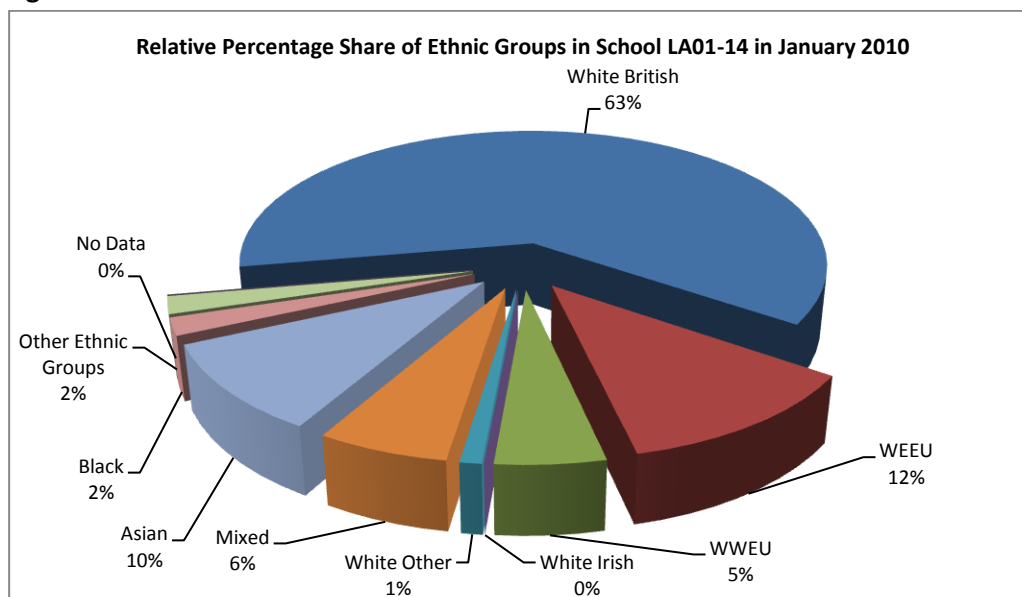
By comparing Figures 13:1 and 13:2, the changes in the ethnic composition of school LA 01 14 are clearly evident. However, any comparisons drawn between these two figures can only have credence if the datasets on which they were calculated represented an accurate account of each pupil's ethnic category. The credibility of the school census returns for 2003 and 2010 was enhanced because no 'missing data' resulting from 'Information Not Obtained' or 'Refused' was recorded in the relevant datasets and less than 3 per cent of pupils were classified in the catch-all White Other category. In addition, the ethnic category recorded for each pupil in the school census returns was checked and confirmed for correctness as part of the research analysis by reconciling the census returns with individual pupil school records and through discussions with teachers and parents. Inaccuracies in the ethnic classification of pupils that were found through the research scrutiny were restricted to Asian approved extended subsidiary categories and did not compromise the overall data for the Asian main ethnic category.

Figure 13:1



Source: School Census datasets 2003. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above.

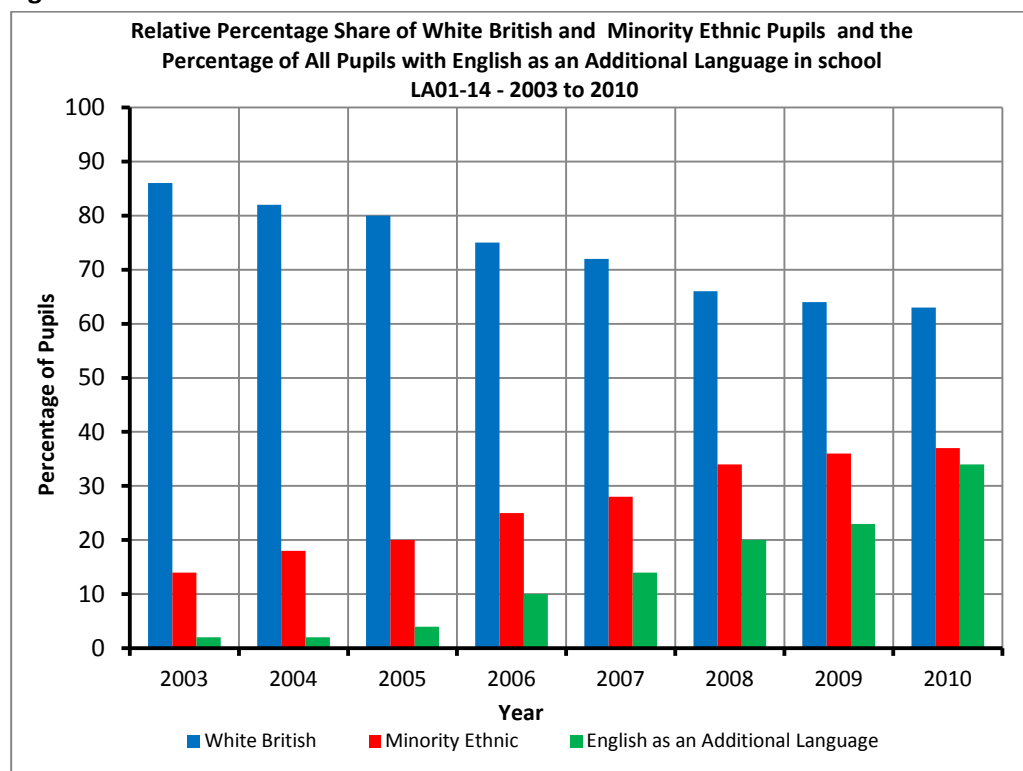
Figure 13:2



Source: School Census datasets 2010. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above.

Figure 13:3 sets out the findings from the analysis of the school census returns for school LA01-14 and plots the changing ethnic group trends between 2003 and 2010. The figure defines the very clear decline in the White British population, together with the increase in the Minority Ethnic population and pupils whose first language was not / or believed not to be English (English as an additional language¹² EAL) as a percentage share of all pupils.

Figure 13:3



Source: School census data and individual pupil school records from 2003 to 2010. Pupils of statutory school age and above.

From 2003, the percentage of Minority Ethnic pupils attending the school increased year-on-year and the percentage of these pupils with English as an additional language

¹² Ofsted / DFE currently refer to pupils with English as an additional language (EAL) in RAISEonline as 'first language not / or believed not to be English'. In this text these terms are interchangeable. The formula for calculating the percentage of pupils 'first language not / believed to be not English' was changed in 2008 to exclude pupils whose first language was not recorded in the school census. Consequently, this had the effect of reducing the number of such pupils nationally by the number of 'missing data' in this variable.

also increased. For example, in 2003 pupils classified EAL represented 14.3 per cent of all Minority Ethnic pupils, but by 2007 this had increased to 51.6 per cent.

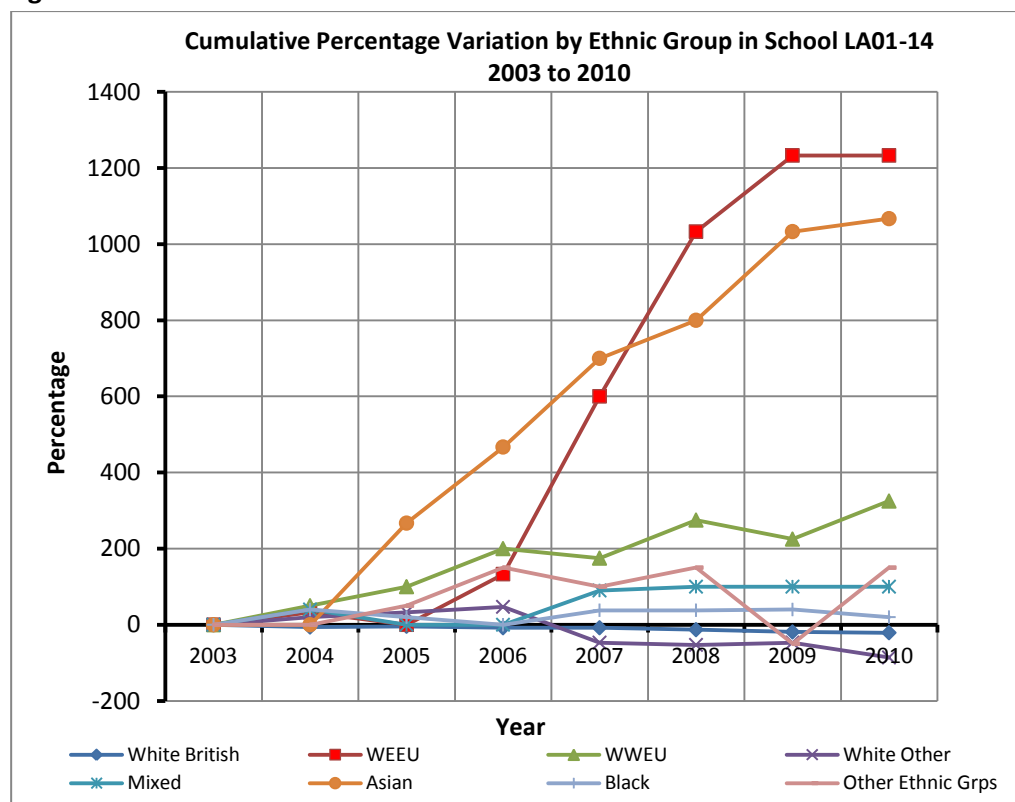
By 2010, Minority Ethnic pupils represented 37.4 per cent of all pupils, with 89.6 per cent of these pupils classified with EAL. However, not all pupils recorded with EAL exhibited the same characteristics or presented the same demands upon the teaching and learning resources of the school. For example, a third generation Asian pupil born and brought up in England, but speaking Hindi at home, joined the Reception class with competencies in English that broadly met the expectations for children of her age nationally. On the other hand, a newly arrived nine year old A8 accession country migrant had no English language skills whatsoever on first joining the school. Indeed, the pupil was unable to communicate with the teachers and the teachers with him. However, in the school census returns it was correctly recorded that the first language of both these pupils was not / or believed to be not English. As such, these two pupils, who placed quite different teaching and resource demands upon the school, had an equal impact upon the 'Basic Characteristics of the School' that are used by Ofsted / DfE to assess the contextual value added (CVA) score for the school.

A more detailed scrutiny of the demographic trends of the WEEU population was undertaken to gain a greater understanding of the impact of this ethnic group of pupils upon the school services. In this aspect of the analysis, two main factors were examined. First, the rate of arrival of the WEEU A8 accession pupils was calculated and secondly, the relative size of the WEEU population was established.

The findings from the analysis of the datasets from 2003 to 2010, designed to establish the rate of increase in the WEEU population, are set out in Figure 13:4. Here the cumulative percentage variation of all ethnic groups is described to provide a contextual framework in which to evaluate the rate of increase in the WEEU population.

The most conspicuous feature of Figure 13:4 is the rapid growth of the Asian and WEEU pupil populations when compared with all other ethnic groups. The growth in the Asian ethnic group commenced in 2004, whilst the WEEU category started to increase in size a year later in 2005.

Figure 13:4



The January 2005 school census was the first to record WEEU pupils registered at the school following the April 2004 accession of the A8 countries. In 2005, less than one per cent of the school population was from a WEEU background, but by January 2006 the

number of WEEU pupils had increased by 133 per cent. Between January 2005 and January 2009 the WEEU pupil population increased by 1,233 per cent.

The distribution of ethnic groups across school year cohorts provides an indication of the impact that individual ethnic groups had upon the ethnic composition of the school in the medium-term and hints at longer-term ethnic trends.

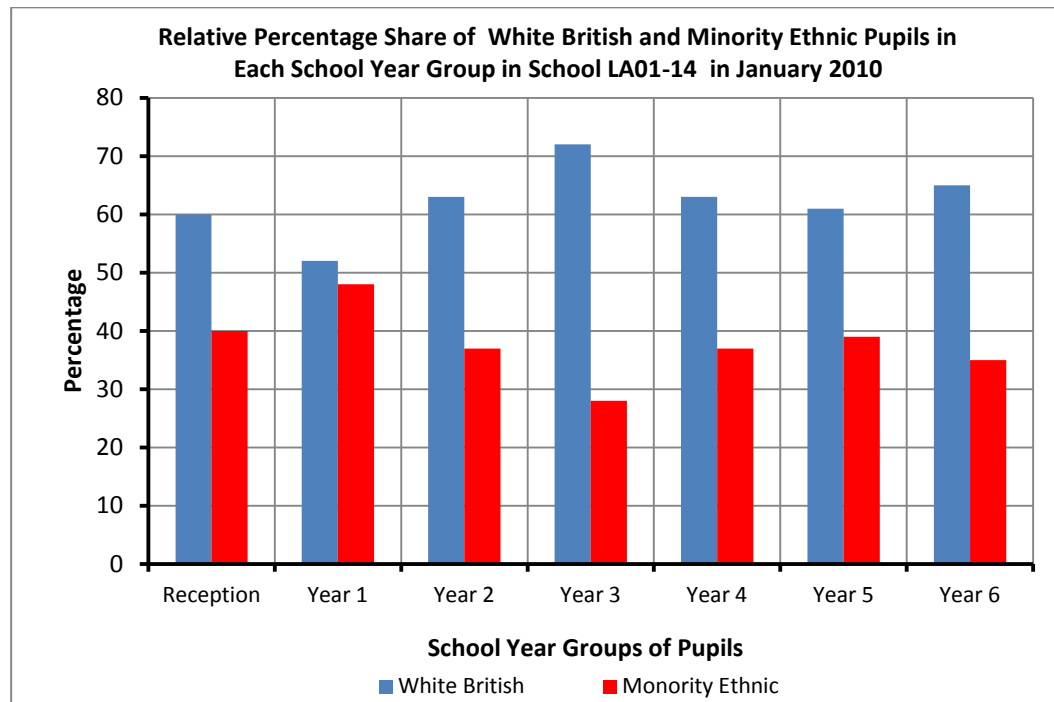
The findings of the analysis of ethnic group distribution are detailed in Figures 13:5 and 13:6. In Figure 13:5 the percentage share of White British and Minority Ethnic pupils in each school year group in the 2009/2010 academic year is described. Figure 13:6 shows the findings from the more detailed analysis of the percentage share of the non-British White ethnic categories for each school year.

Only pupils of statutory school age are included in the ethnicity enumeration calculated from the school census. However, both Figures 13:5 and 13:6 include the ethnic information for each pupil in the Reception Year, even though they were below the age for compulsory education. Their inclusion provides a fuller picture of the developing ethnic trends within the school.

Figure 13:5 shows that the Minority Ethnic pupils were spread throughout the school, although the percentage share varied in each year group. In the Year 3 cohort, the Minority Ethnic pupils accounted for 28 per cent of all pupils and represented the smallest share in any school year. On the other hand, the Year 1 cohort had the largest percentage share of Minority Ethnic pupils at 48 per cent. The average percentage share of the Minority Ethnic pupils in the Reception year and Year 1 was 44 per cent,

whilst the average for the Years 5 and 6 was 37 per cent. This indicated the potential for the Minority Ethnic group to increase as a percentage of all pupils of statutory school age over the following two years and confirms the continuation of the declining trend in the White British population suggested in Figure 13:3.

Figure 13:5



Overall, the ethnicity trends suggest that the balance between the White British and the Minority Ethnic groups would continue to change, the White British reducing in number and the Minority Ethnic increasing. However, the caveat here is that the developing ethnicity trends established through the research analysis would need to remain relatively constant for the predicted changes to be realised. Information from Ofsted / DfE in the 2009 RAISEonline indicated that the school population was relatively stable.

In 2009, Ofsted calculated that the stability quotient for the school was 96.1 per cent compared with the national average of 96.7 per cent¹³. This means that 96.1 per cent of all pupils registered at the school joined the school before 1st October in their first year of compulsory education (School Year 1). If correct, this level of stability/mobility would not compromise the overall premise that the Minority Ethnic population would continue to represent an increasing percentage of the total school population.

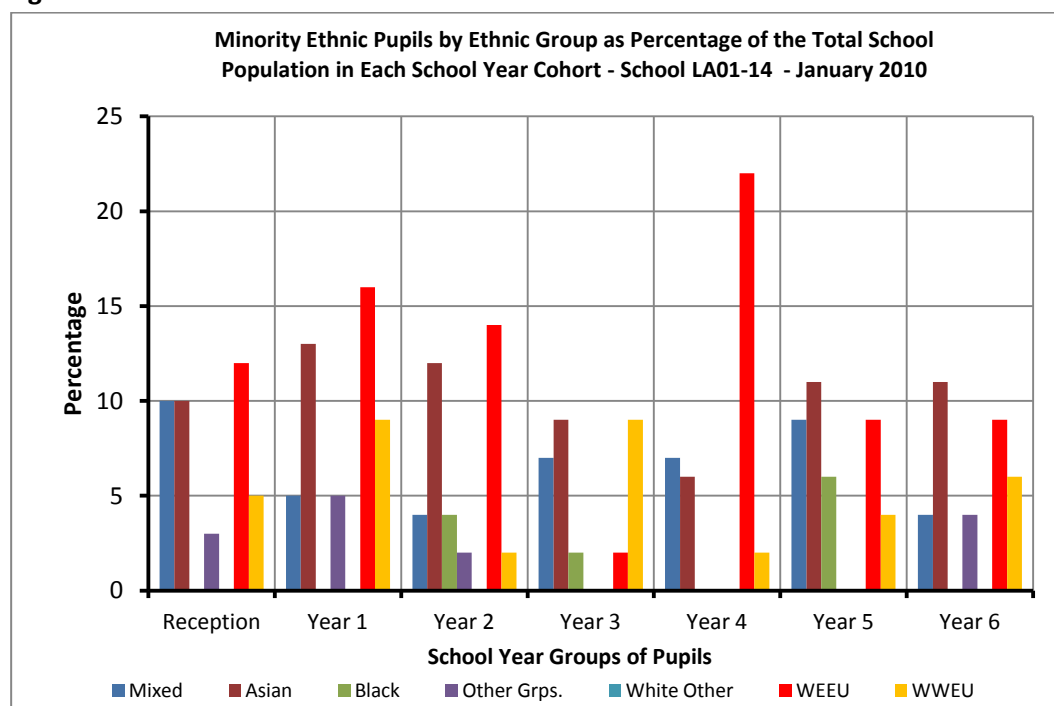
However, it is interesting to note that in 2007 and 2008, a period when the school was admitting large numbers of WEEU A8 accession pupils, the stability quotient for the school was calculated to be 74.7 and 74.4 respectively and, conversely, the 'mobility' quotient to be 25.3 and 25.6 per cent of all pupils respectively. These variations in stability/mobility quotients between 2008 and 2009 are difficult to reconcile. In January 2008, Ofsted calculated that more than a quarter of the school population (25.6 per cent) was classified as 'mobile'. At the end of the school year approximately 16.7 per cent of the school population (pupils in Year 6) transferred to secondary schools and their number was replaced by pupils joining in Year 1. In the very unlikely event that all pupils in Year 6 were classified as 'mobile' and no more pupils joined the school at times other than before the end of September in the joining year (School Year 1), this would leave 8.9 per cent of the school population classified as 'mobile' in the January 2009 census returns. However, Ofsted/DFE calculated that only 3.9 per cent of the school population was 'mobile' in 2009. Even allowing for all these improbable factors, this still left 5 per cent of this large school's population unaccounted for. The use of

¹³ Ofsted stated in correspondence (Ofsted, 2011a) that: 'The stability indicator, as used in RAISEonline, identifies the percentage of pupils of compulsory school age who joined the school before October 1st in a given year. The information is based on the January school census so includes only those pupils who were on roll at the date of the census. Pupils would be considered as mobile if they joined after the September of the school's minimum or usual joining year.'

these measures for calculating the stability/mobility quotient of the school population is somewhat in question and tends to undermine the credibility of the process¹⁴. These stability/mobility quotients are employed by Ofsted as part of the school inspection process¹⁵.

The closer examination of individual ethnic groups provided an insight into the developing trends of each, including the WEEU population. Figure 13:6 sets out the individual Minority Ethnic groups as distributed across the school in the academic year 2009/2010 as a percentage of all pupils attending the school.

Figure 13:6



Five years after the arrival of the first WEEU A8 accession pupils at the school in 2005, they represented the most dominant Minority Ethnic group. In Year 4, the WEEU

¹⁴ Ofsted stated in correspondence (Ofsted, 2011a) that: 'In both 2009 and 2010 releases there were errors affecting the stability figures for Key Stages 1 and 2. The errors were fixed, and amendments were made to later releases.'

¹⁵ Ofsted inspection schedule for schools (Ofsted, 2011b)

population stood out as accounting for the highest percentage share of any Minority Ethnic group in any of the school years. Indeed, its population in that year was greater by 31.8 per cent than all other Minority Ethnic groups added together.

Across all school years from Reception to Year 6, the WEEU population recorded an average percentage share of 12 per cent of all pupils attending the school. By comparison, the Asian group averaged 10 per cent. The WEEU population in Years 5 and 6 averaged 9 per cent of all pupils, but the average in the Reception and Year 1 cohorts was 14 per cent of all pupils. The WEEU population in the Reception and Year 1 cohorts was 56 per cent greater than the equivalent population in Years 5 and 6. This suggests that the WEEU population would continue to increase over the following few years as a percentage of all pupils.

13: 3 Ethnic Composition of School LA01-64

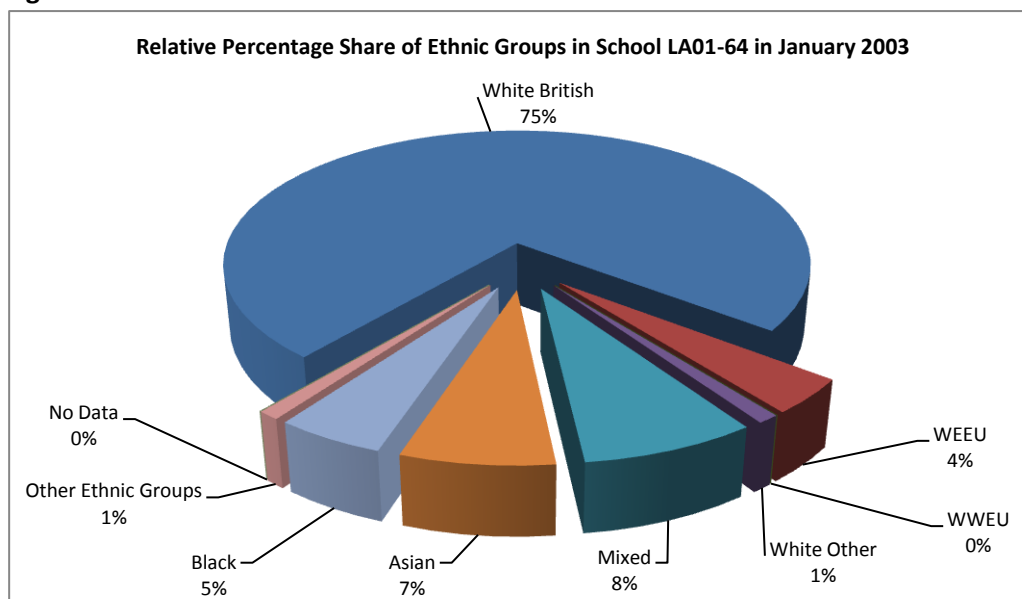
The research analysis found that the ethnicity data submitted by school LA01-64 in the annual school census returns between 2003 and 2009 lacked precision. Consequently, the census returns did not represent an accurate record of the ethnic composition of the school in any one year. Following a detailed reassessment of the ethnicity of pupils attending the school throughout the eight year school census period, accurate ethnicity data were produced. The research findings described below are based on the revised ethnicity datasets and not on the erroneous census returns submitted to and published by the authority and the DfE and used by Ofsted / DfE to calculate the contextual value added for the school.

The number of pupils registered at school LA01-64 declined between 2003 and 2010 by 14 per cent. This decline was the result of a 46.9 per cent reduction in the White British pupil population over the seven year period from January 2003. All other ethnic groups of pupils increased over the same period. Figure 13:7 sets out the percentage share of each ethnic group as a percentage of all pupils attending the school in 2003 and Figure 13:8 presents the percentage share of the same ethnic groups in 2010.

In 2003, the White British group was the largest, accounting for 74.9 per cent of all pupils. This percentage share declined in each successive year and by 2010 had reduced to 46.3 per cent of all pupils attending the school. In 2003, the Mixed category was the second largest ethnic group representing 7.6 per cent of all pupils, followed by the Asian (7 per cent) the Black (5.3 per cent) and the WEEU (3.5 per cent). By 2010, the WEEU group of pupils accounted for 21.8 per cent of all pupils attending the school and was the largest Minority Ethnic group.

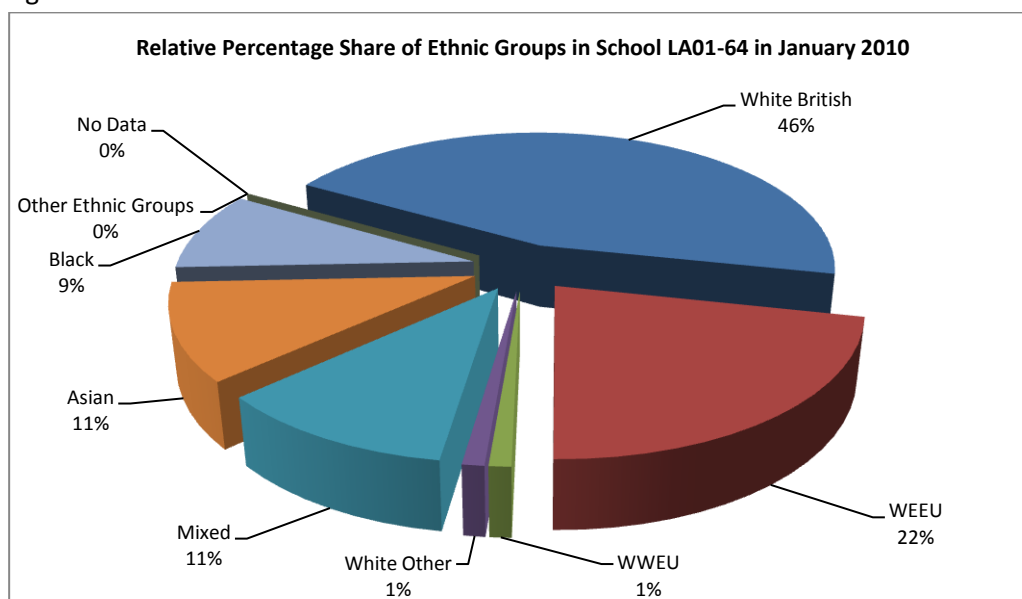
Over the seven year period, the White British population declined by 28.6 percentage points, whilst the WEEU population increased by 18.3 percentage points. By comparison, the Mixed, the Asian and the Black ethnic categories increased by 3.3, 3.9 and 3.6 percentage points respectively.

Figure 13:7



Source: School Census datasets 2003 corrected and recalculated in 2009 by IHJ. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above. White Irish pupils are included in the White Other category.

Figure 13:8



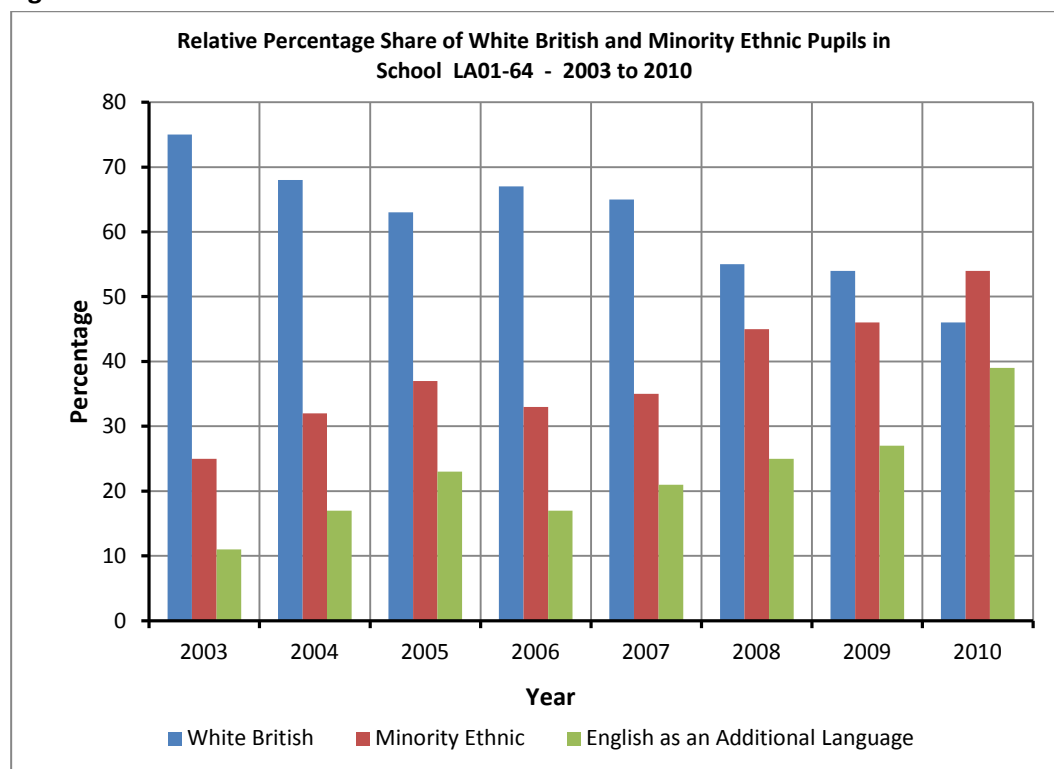
Source: Calculations based on the School Census datasets 2010. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above. White Irish pupils are included in the White Other category

Between 2003 and 2010 the balance between the White British ethnic group and the Minority Ethnic group shifted. Until 2009, the White British population accounted for more pupils than all other ethnic groups together. In 2010, the Minority Ethnic groups accounted for the majority of pupils attending the school. Figure 13:9 details the

changing ethnicity trend at school LA01-64, together with the increase in pupils whose first language was not or believed not to be English (EAL).

The number of pupils whose first language was not English increased between 2003 and 2010. In 2003, these pupils represented 11.1 per cent of all pupils attending the school and 44.2 per cent of the Minority Ethnic population. In 2010, they accounted for 39.5 of all pupil and 73.4 per cent of Minority ethnic pupils.

Figure 13:9

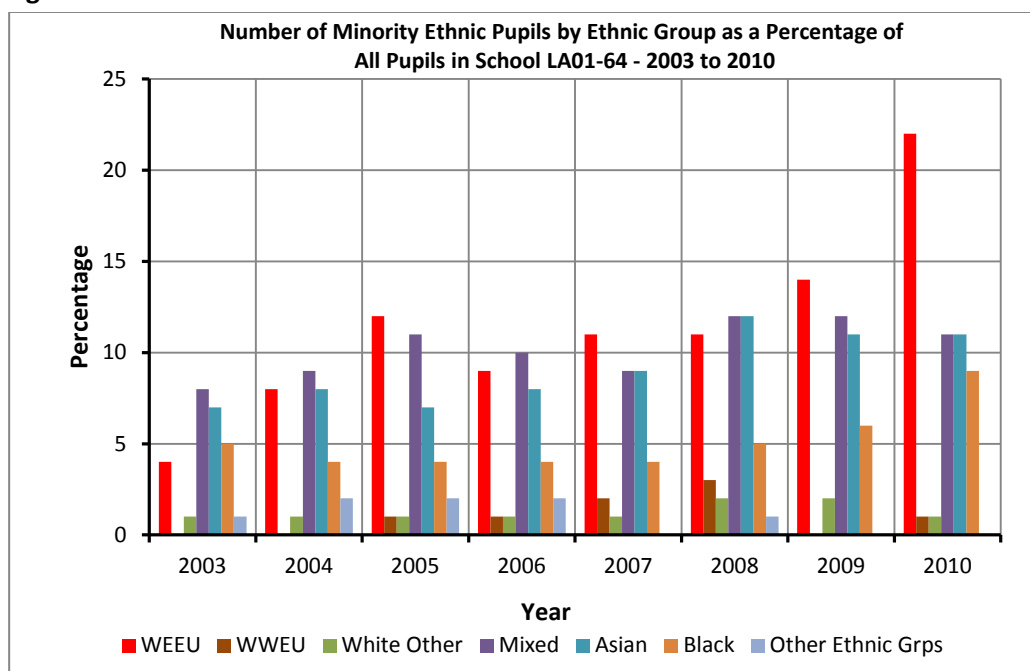


The profile of the pupils classified with EAL closely mirrors that of the Minority Ethnic group (Figure 13:9). The profiles both describe an increase from 2003 to 2005, a reduction in 2006 followed by a year-on-year increase until 2010. When these profiles

are compared with that of the WEEU population over the same period, set out in Figure 13:10, a similar trend is presented.

The WEEU population profile calculated from its annual percentage share of all pupils is detailed in Figure 13:10, together with all other Minority Ethnic categories.

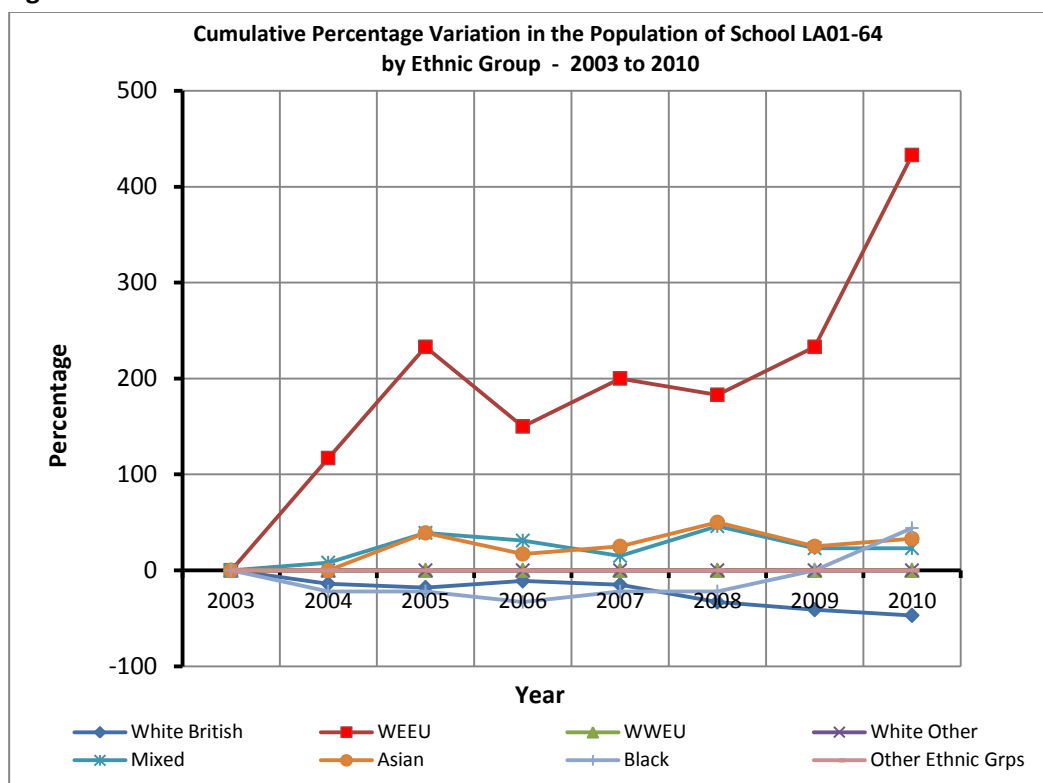
Figure 13:10



The growing presence of the WEEU population in school LA01-64 is evident in Figure 13:10, especially when compared alongside the other Minority Ethnic groups. The calculation of the relative percentage variation of each ethnic category in school LA01-64 found that the rate of increase of the WEEU population outstripped all other ethnic categories. The findings from these calculations are set out in Figure 13:11, although caution is necessary in their interpretation as the individual populations were of varying size.

Between 2003 and 2010 the WEEU population increased by 433 per cent. By comparison, the Black category of pupils increased by 44 per cent, the Asian by 33 per cent and the Mixed by 23 per cent over the same period. In 2003, the number of WEEU pupils attending the school equated to 4.7 per cent of the White British population, but by 2010 the number had grown to 47.1 per cent.

Figure 13:11



The ethnic composition of schools LA01-14 and LA01-64 changed considerably over the research study period. The arrival of the WEEU A8 pupils was in both cases the most noticeable feature of these changes. School LA01-16 also exhibited many, but not all, of these features.

13:4 Ethnic Composition of School LA01-16

The ethnic composition of school LA01-16 changed between 2003 and 2010, which, on the surface, generally mirrored the change patterns experienced by schools LA01-14 and LA01-64 over the same period. However, closer examination revealed a more irregular pattern of ethnic transformation that did not follow the trends presented by the local authority and nationally in a number of important features.

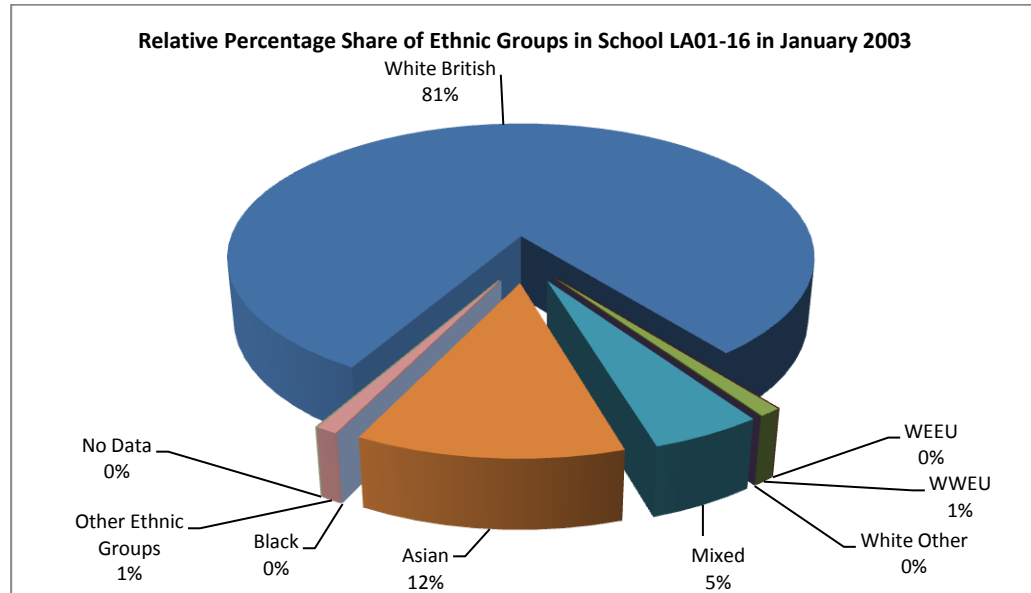
The number of pupils attending the school increased between 2003 and 2010 by 5 per cent due to an increase in the Minority Ethnic population. The number of White British pupils increased in each year until 2005, and decreased in each successive year until 2009 before recording an increase of 4.6 per cent in 2010.

Asian pupils formed the largest Minority Ethnic category in 2003, but their number declined by more than half (52.9 per cent) by 2010. This was in stark contrast with the growth in the Asian pupil population nationally and locally. However, the Mixed category more than doubled (114.3 per cent) during the same period and became one of the dominant ethnic groups in the school between 2005 and 2010.

There were no WEEU pupils registered at the school until 2005. The WEEU population increased in erratic steps until 2010 when it became the largest Minority Ethnic group in the school.

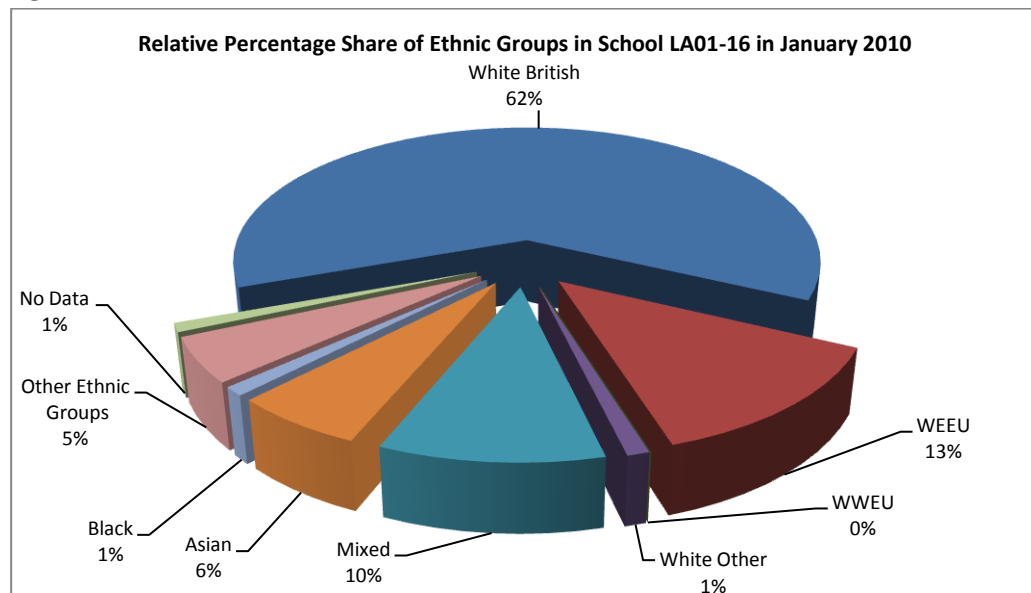
Figure 13:12 sets out the relative percentage share of the ethnic groups attending school LA01-16 in 2003, and Figure 13:13 sets out the equivalent percentage share for the same ethnic groups in 2010.

Figure 13:12



Source: School Census datasets 2003 recalculated in 2009 by IHJ. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above.

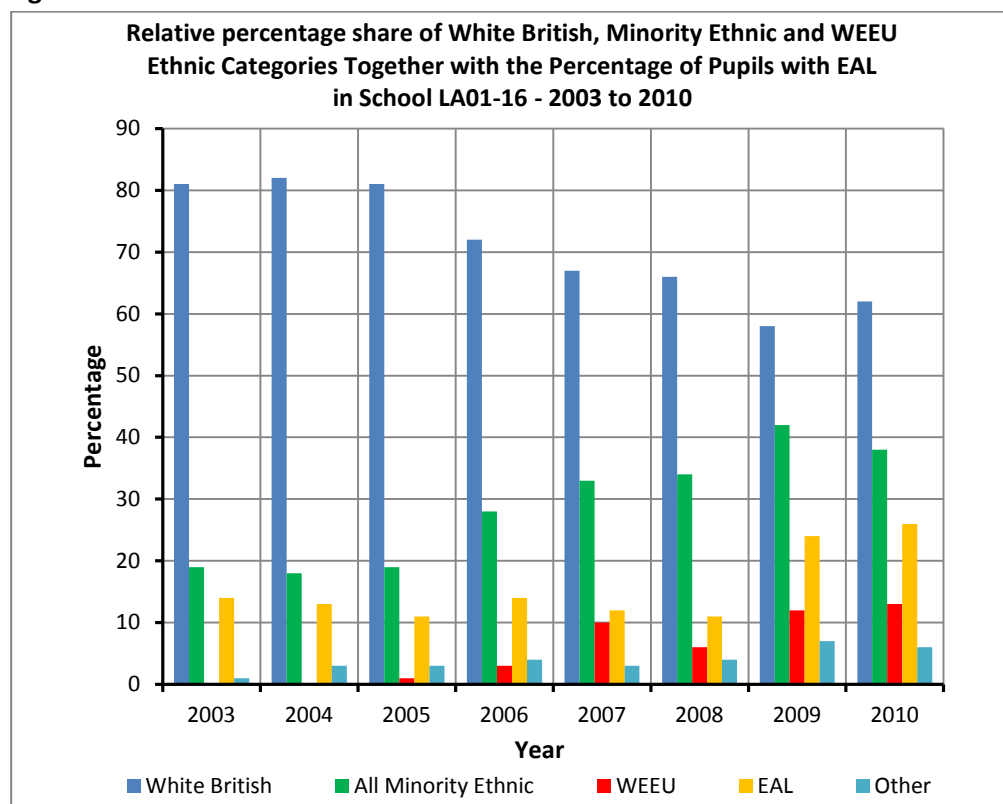
Figure 13:13



Source: Calculations based on the School Census datasets 2010. Percentages rounded to whole numbers. Pupils of statutory school age and above.

Figure 13:14 provides an overview of the changing relationship between the White British and the Minority Ethnic categories. The All Minority Ethnic category in Figure 13:14 includes the WEEU pupil category. However, the WEEU category is also shown as a discrete group in Figure 13.14 to assist comparisons. The number of pupils whose first language was recorded as not English (EAL) is presented as a percentage of all pupils attending the school.

Figure 13:14



Source: School Census datasets 2003 to 2010 recalculated in 2010 by IJH. Pupils of statutory school age and above. Pupils recorded as 'Refused' and 'Other Ethnic Groups' are recorded in Figure 13:14 as 'Other'.

It is evident from Figure 13:14 that, whilst declining overall, the White British category did not reflect the year-on-year decline found nationally. However, the overall trend suggests a distinct shift in balance between the White British and the Minority Ethnic populations.

It is noticeable that the number of pupils classified with EAL declined overall from 2003 to 2008 despite an increase in the number of Minority Ethnic pupils. Also of note is the fact that the 2009 census recorded a sharp increase of 133.3 per cent in the number of pupils with EAL, which increased further in 2010 by 8.6 per cent even though the number of Minority Ethnic pupils reduced by 11.3 per cent in the year to 2010.

The analysis of the percentage variation of each of the Minority Ethnic groups, set out in Figure 13:15, provides an indication of the main reason for the somewhat confusing relationship between the EAL and Minority Ethnic pupil populations. The most dominant Minority Ethnic group during this period was the Mixed category, classified as Minority Ethnic. A detailed scrutiny of the individual pupil school records revealed that 95 per cent of all Mixed category pupils in 2009 had English recorded as their first language. Interestingly, the remaining 5 per cent of Mixed category pupils had Spanish recorded as their first language. Figure 13.15 clearly illustrates the high percentage of Minority Ethnic pupils recorded from Mixed ethnic backgrounds in each year from 2003.

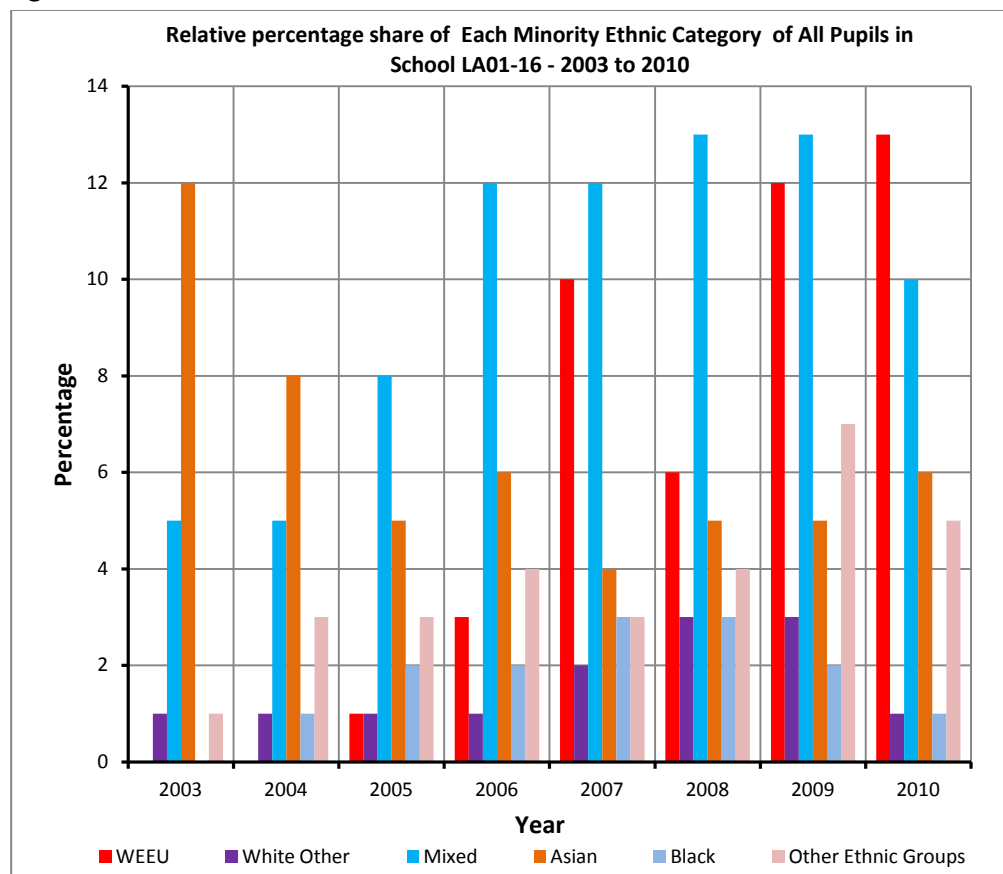
In contrast, the first language of every A8 accession WEEU pupil registered at the school from 2005 was recorded as 'first language not / believed not to be English' in the school census returns.

As illustrated in Figure 13:15, in 2003 and 2004 the Asian group of pupils was the largest Minority Ethnic category attending the school. From 2005, the Mixed category was the most numerous. It reached its zenith in 2008 when it represented 13.1 per cent of all pupils, but its population decreased and in January 2010 had fallen to 10.3 per cent of

all pupils attending the school. In 2010, the WEEU population became the largest Minority ethnic group representing 13 per cent of all pupils.

Figure 13.15 sets out the number of pupils in each Minority Ethnic category from 2003 to 2010 as a percentage of all pupils attending the school.

Figure 13:15



Source: School Census datasets 2003 to 2010 recalculated in 2010 by IHJ. Pupils of statutory school age and above

13:5 Conclusion

Between 2003 and 2010, the ethnic demographic trends of the case study schools had much in common. The WEEU pupil populations increased at a faster rate than any other ethnic category and by 2010 represented the largest Minority Ethnic group in each school. The WEEU pupils were spread throughout the school years, with numbers more

heavily weighted in Reception and Year 1 classes. All A8 accession WEEU pupils were recorded in the school census returns as 'first language not / believed not to be English'.

In 2003, 7.1 per cent of all pupils attending the three case study schools were classified as EAL. By 2010, pupils classified as EAL represented 33.2 per cent of the combined populations of the schools.

The number of Minority Ethnic pupils in the schools at least doubled between 2003 and 2010. Indeed, in school LA01-14 the number increased by 173 per cent. At the same time as this increase, the White British population was declining systematically and in the case of school LA01-64 to less than half of all pupils on its register. This rapid decline in the White British population raises the phenomenon of 'White Flight' or 'Native Flight'.¹⁶

The accurate ethnic data calculated for these case study schools clearly map a momentous transformation in the ethnic composition of each school. A fundamental feature of this transformation was the arrival of WEEU pupils following the accession of the EU A8 Member States in April 2004.

¹⁶ Report by the Forschungsinstitut zur Zukunft der Arbeit (IZA), Bonn, addresses this particular issue. C. Gerdes, 'Does Immigration Induce 'Native Flight' from Public Schools? (February, 2010).

Chapter 14

Attendance, Attainment and Progress

14.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings from two separate, but interrelated, research studies. The subjects of both studies were directly linked to the attainment and progress of pupils and were raised as major concerns by all case study schools.

The first study investigated the absence rates of approximately 700 pupils attending three case study schools for the complete 2008/2009 school year. All pupils of statutory school age and on the school rolls for the complete year were included in the research study. The attendance of each pupil was recorded and analysed for all 380 sessions in the school year¹⁷. The findings were organised to enable the relationship between attendance rates and ethnic groups to be established. The teaching staff of the case study schools expressed their anxiety that the irregular attendance of some pupils had a detrimental effect upon their attainment and progress and reduced the performance scores of the schools, thus prejudicing inspection judgements¹⁸.

¹⁷ A school day is normally divided into two registration sessions. A school year is composed of 380 registration sessions, equal to 190 days.

¹⁸ Ofsted, 2011b. Pupils' attendance forms part of the inspection evaluation schedule for schools (April, 2011, No. 090098) The attendance grade descriptor for the lowest grade (4) states: *Generally, attendance data over the last three years have been well below the national average and there is little sign of improvement or * The attendance of sizeable groups of pupils is consistently well below average or * Too many pupils are persistently absent.

The second study investigated the relationships between the attainment, progress, ethnicity and period of English schooling of pupils in Year 6 at the end of Key Stage 2. The findings from two case study schools were compared with those from the analysis of the attainment and ethnicity datasets for all Year 6 pupils attending each maintained school in LA LA01.

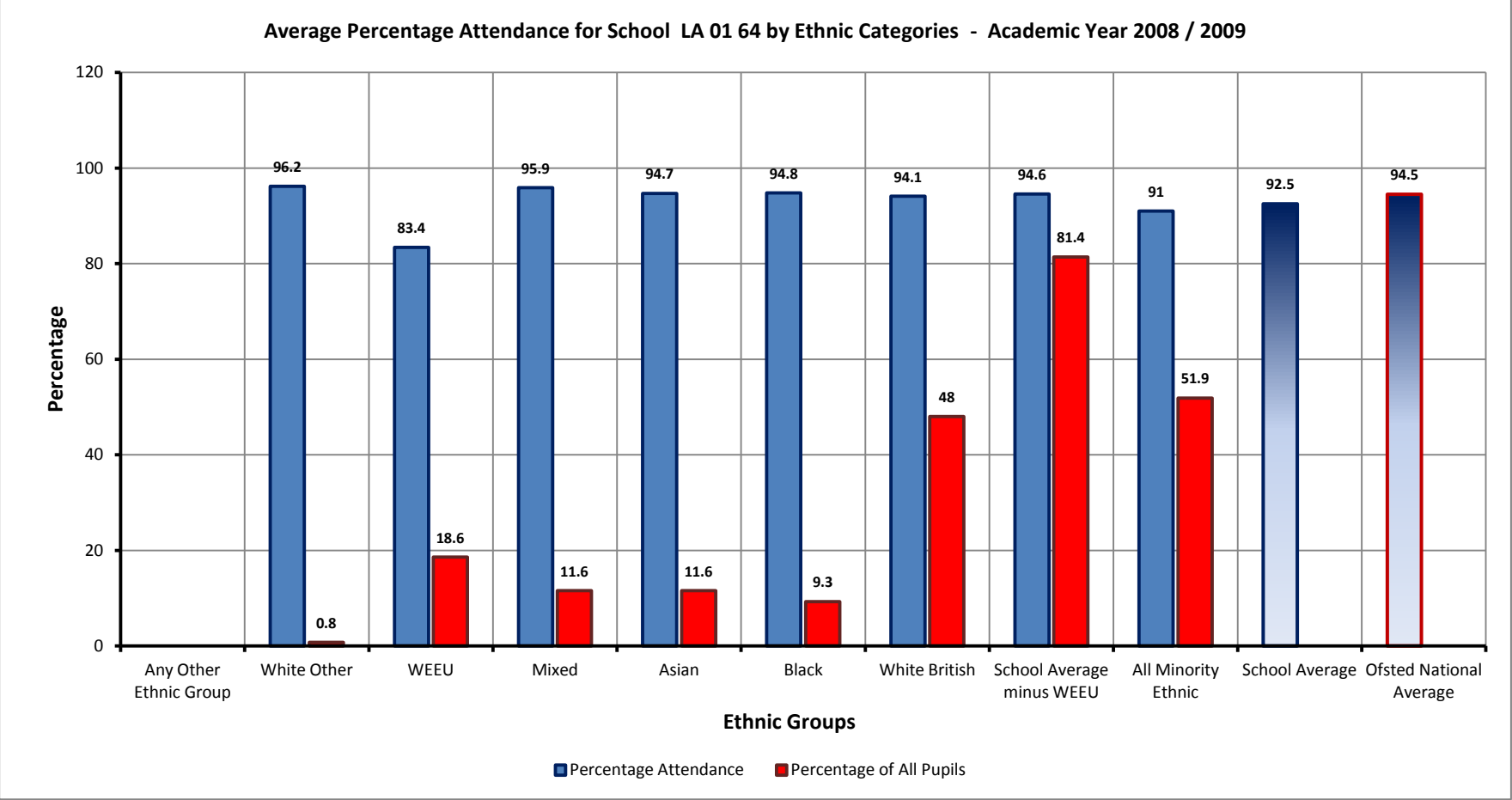
14.2 Attendance Rates for School LA01-64 by Ethnic Groups

The average percentage attendance of each ethnic category for the complete 2008 / 2009 school year is set out in Figure 14:1. The national attendance average, calculated by Ofsted, is included in the figure to provide a comparison guide. This is only a guide because the pupil sample used by Ofsted for calculating the national average differed from that employed for the research study. Ofsted's national average attendance rate was based on two of the three school terms and included all pupils even if they had only attended the school for one session during the calculation period¹⁹.

The average attendance for all pupils in LA01-64 during the 2008/2009 school year was 92.5 per cent or, put another way, pupils on average were absent for 7.5 per cent of the school year. This means that on average each pupil was absent for 28.5 sessions (14.3 days equivalent) out of the possible 380 sessions in the school year.

¹⁹ Ofsted (2010K): Ofsted calculated the stability percentage for a school by including 'all statutory age pupils who were on roll for at least one session between 1st September 2008 and the end of the spring term 2009, even if they are no longer on school roll. Pupils may be counted more than once, if they were registered at more than one school, or moved schools during the term'.

Figure 14:1



The White British pupils attended for 94.1 per cent of sessions on average, being absent for 22.4 sessions. The White British pupils attended 6.1 more sessions than the average for all pupils attending the school. The Minority Ethnic groups together attained an average attendance rate of 91 per cent, equivalent to 34.2 sessions of absence. This translates into 52.7 per cent more sessions of missed education through absence than the White British category.

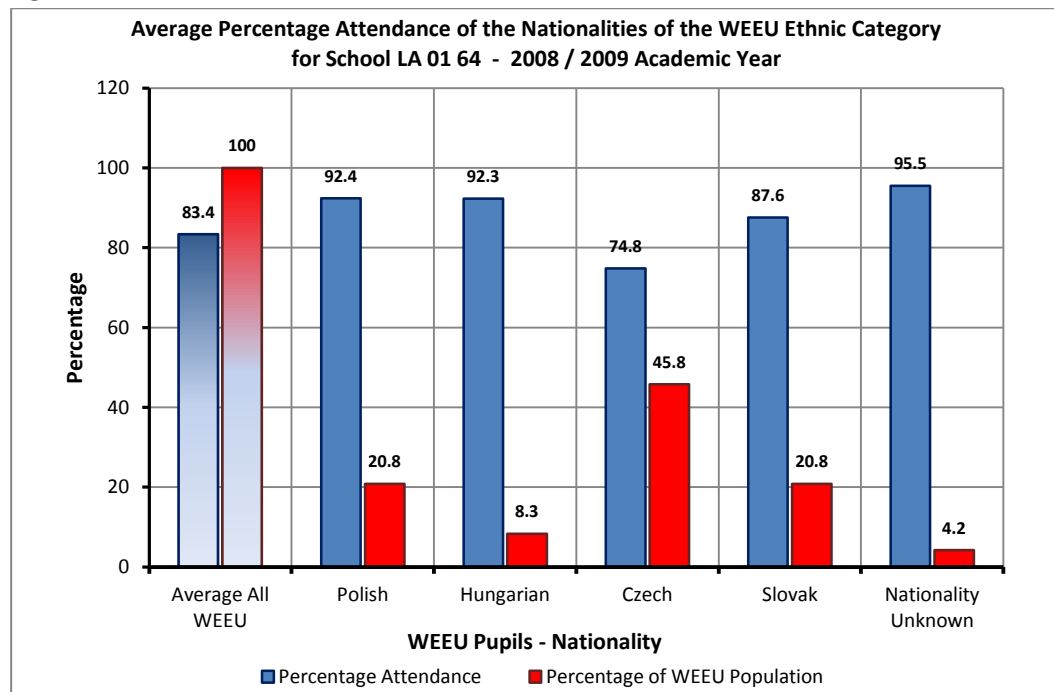
The WEEU category recorded the lowest average of all categories attending the school. At 83.4 per cent attendance rate, WEEU pupils were absent on average for 16.6 per cent of the year or 63.1 sessions, which equates to 6.3 weeks of absence. Therefore, on average, each WEEU pupil was absent for 207.8 per cent more sessions of education than the average White British pupil or 84.5 per cent more than the average Minority Ethnic pupil. When the school attendance rate was calculated for all pupils attending the school minus the WEEU pupils, it increased from 92.5 per cent to 94.6 per cent. This increase promoted the school average from below to above the national average.

The WEEU pupils attending school LA01-64 during the 2008 / 2009 school year came from four different national backgrounds. The Czech pupils represented 45.8 per cent of the WEEU population, the Polish and Slovak nationals each comprised 20.8 per cent and the Hungarian nationals were the smallest group at 8.3 per cent of all WEEU pupils.

Figure 14:2 sets out the average attendance rate for each national group that formed the WEEU population of the school. It is noticeable that both the Polish (92.4 per cent) and Hungarian (92.3 per cent) groups recorded attendance rates above the Minority

Ethnic average of 91 per cent. The Slovaks were below the Minority Ethnic average by 3.4 percentage points at 87.6 per cent, becoming the national group with the second lowest attendance rate. However, the Czech national group recorded the lowest average attendance rate of any national or ethnic group attending the school, recording just 74.8 per cent. As this national group represented 45.8 per cent of all WEEU pupils and 8.5 per cent of all pupils, it had a major influence upon the overall average attendance rate of the WEEU category and the school as a whole.

Figure 14:2



The Czech pupils were absent from more than a quarter (25.2 per cent) of all sessions in the year. This represents on average 47.9 school days or 9.6 weeks of missed education for each Czech pupil. Only one Czech pupil attended school for more than 90 per cent of sessions and 63.6 per cent of Czech pupils recorded less than 80 per cent attendance²⁰.

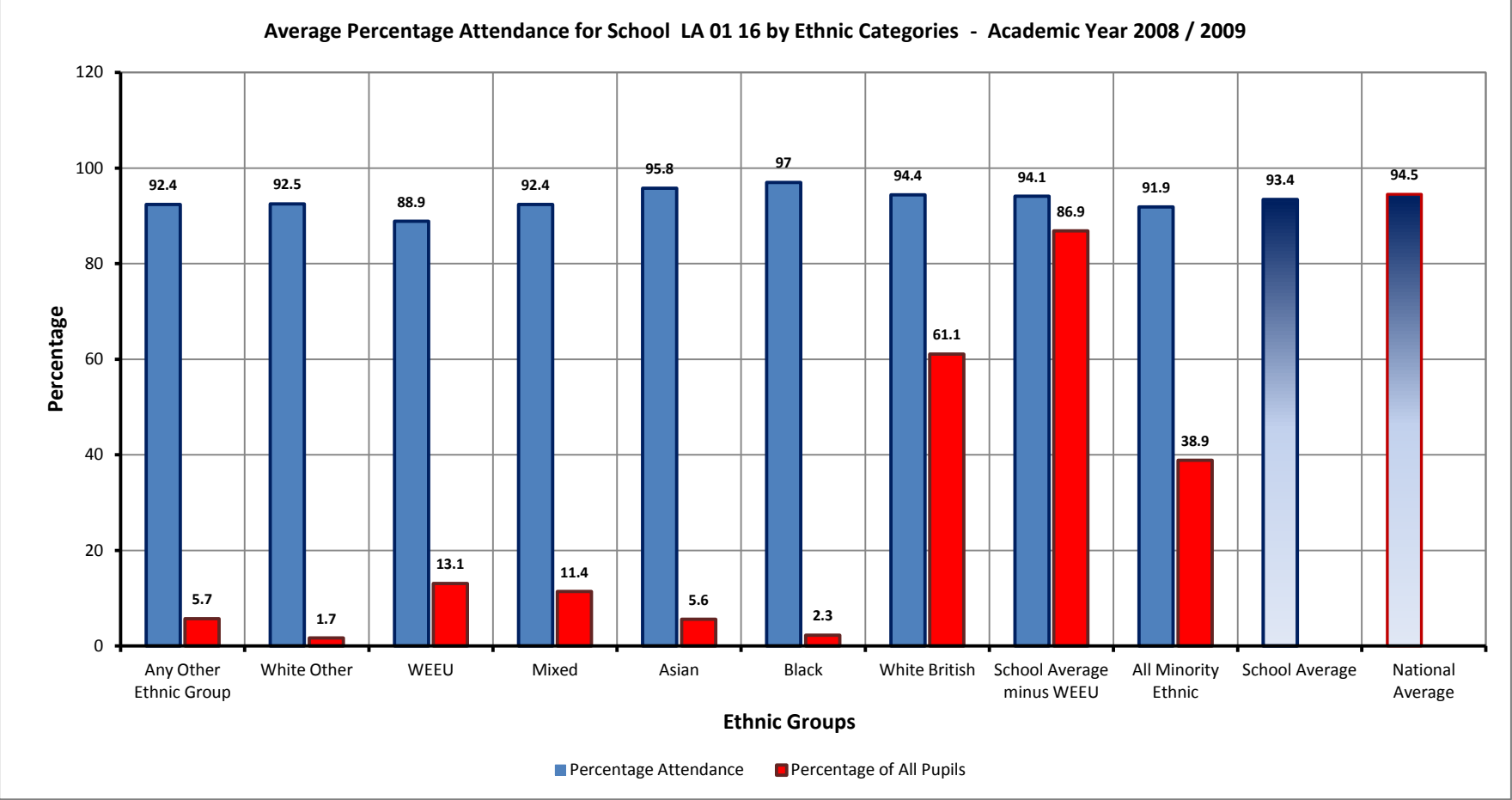
²⁰ Persistent absentees are defined by Ofsted as having 52 or more sessions of absence across both terms (Autumn and Spring), typically 20% of total possible sessions.

The lowest recorded attendance rate for a Czech pupil, or for that matter any pupil attending the school, was 54.3 per cent, closely followed by another Czech pupil at 59.2 per cent. On average WEEU Czech pupils missed 367.3 per cent more sessions of education than the average White British pupil. The analysis of the nationality of each pupil as part of the study revealed that the Czech pupils were nationals of the Czech Republic, but from Roma backgrounds.

14.3 Attendance Rates for School LA01-16 by Ethnic Groups

The findings from the analysis of the relationship between the percentage rates of attendance and ethnic categories for school LA01-16 are set out in Figure 14:3. The figure shows that the average attendance rate for all pupils of statutory school age attending the school during the 2008/2009 school year was 93.4 per cent. Over the same period the White British pupil population recorded an average attendance rate of 94.4 per cent and the Minority Ethnic groups averaged 91.9 per cent. On average, the Minority Ethnic pupils were absent from 30.8 sessions compared with the White British who missed 21.3 sessions over the school year. The Minority Ethnic pupils, therefore, missed 44.6 per cent more sessions than the White British pupils.

Figure 14:3



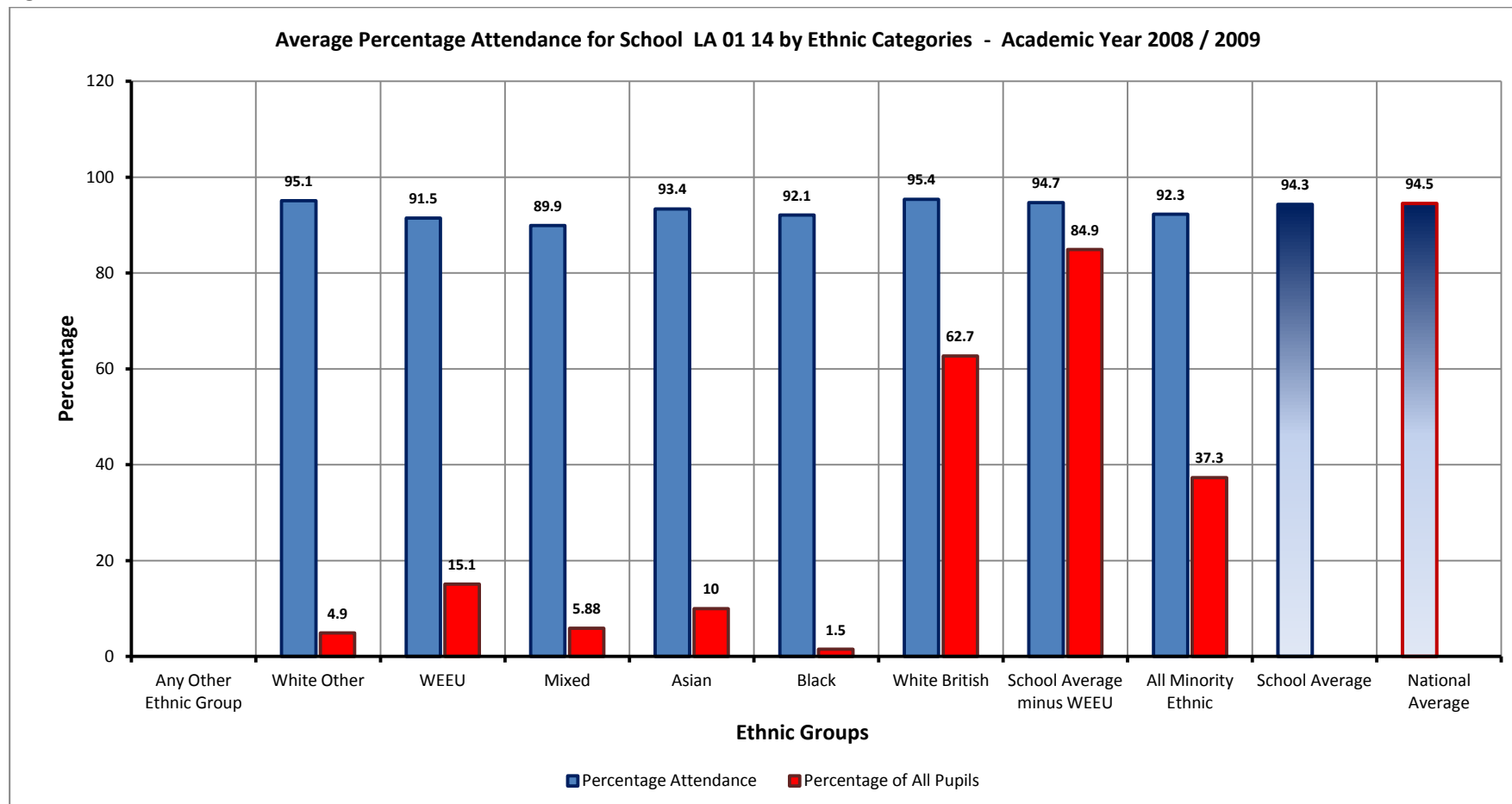
All individual ethnic groups recorded attendance rates above 92 per cent, with the exception of the WEEU group that recorded 88.9 per cent. The WEEU population was the largest Minority Ethnic group at 13.1 per cent of all pupils and 33.8 per cent of all Minority Ethnic pupils. The attendance rates for WEEU pupils ranged from a low of 65.4 per cent to a high of 100 per cent. On average, WEEU pupils missed nearly twice as many sessions of schooling when compared with White British pupils (98.1 per cent).

14.4 Attendance Rates for School LA01-14 by Ethnic Groups

Figure 14:4 sets out the attendance rates for school LA01-14 for each ethnic group for the 2008 / 2009 school year. The average attendance for all pupils at the school was 94.3 per cent and 95.4 per cent for the White British pupils. The Minority Ethnic groups recorded 92.3 per cent attendance over the same period. Only the Mixed ethnic group averaged below 90 per cent at 89.9 per cent attendance rate. Nearly 22 per cent of the Mixed ethnic group recorded attendance rates below 80 per cent, categorising them as 'persistent absentees'.

The WEEU population recorded the second lowest average attendance rate of 91.5 per cent, with pupils' attendance ranging from 67.3 per cent to 100 per cent. On average, the WEEU pupils missed 32.3 sessions per year compared with the White British pupils' 17.5 sessions. Therefore, the WEEU pupils were absent for 84.6 per cent more sessions than the White British pupils. In all, 34 per cent of the WEEU population recorded attendance rates below 90 per cent, averaging 84.4 per cent. This equates to about six weeks (5.93 weeks) of schooling missed by each of these pupils during the year.

Figure 14:4



14.5 Attendance Rates for All Case Study School Pupils

The findings revealed that the ethnic group attendance rates of the three case study schools had much in common. These common features, though, obscured subtle, but important, differences. The comparisons drawn between the ethnic group averages recorded by the individual schools, together with the range of pupil attendance rates, provide a greater insight into the influence of the WEEU population upon the attendance rates of each school. Table 14:1 sets out the average attendance rates for each school for each group and the percentage point variation for each set of averages. In additions, the attendance rate range is set out for each school, together with the percentage point range variation.

Table 14:1 shows that the greatest similarity in the attendance averages was recorded by schools for the 'School Average Minus WEEU' group. Here the averages of the three schools only varied by 0.6 of a percentage point. Within this group, school LA01-64 recorded the smallest variation in attendance rates, ranging from 81.0 to 100 per cent. This represents a 19 percentage point variation compared with schools LA01-14 and LA01-16 who recorded 35.4 and 35.0 percentage point variations respectively. However, when the WEEU population was included in the calculations to produce the 'School Average' the attendance range of schools LA01-14 and LA01-16 remained the same, but for school LA01-64 it increased by 26.7 percentage points to represent the widest attendance range. This increase for school LA01-64 was solely due to the inclusion of the WEEU population and indicates that WEEU pupils had a greater influence upon the overall attendance rate of this school than occurred in the other

case study schools. However, it should be noted from Table 14:1 that the inclusion of the WEEU group did reduce the attendance rate average for each case study school.

Table 14:1

Case Study Schools Attendance Rates Comparisons					
Ethnic Group	School	Average Percentage Attendance	Percentage Points Variance – highest/lowest	Individual Pupil Range	Variance by Percentage Points
School Average	LA01-14	94.3	1.8	64.6 - 100	35.4
	LA01-16	93.4		65.0 - 100	35.0
	LA01-64	92.5		54.3 - 100	45.7
School Average Minus WEEU	LA01-14	94.7	0.6	64.6 - 100	35.4
	LA01-16	94.1		65.0 - 100	35.0
	LA01-64	94.6		81.0 - 100	19.0
White British	LA01-14	95.4	1.3	74.7 - 100	25.3
	LA01-16	94.4		65.0 - 100	35.0
	LA01-64	94.1		81.0 - 100	19.0
WEEU	LA01-14	91.5	8.1	67.3 - 100	32.7
	LA01-16	88.9		65.4 - 100	34.6
	LA01-64	83.4		54.3 - 98.1	43.8
Minority Ethnic	LA01-14	92.3	1.3	64.6 - 100	35.4
	LA01-16	91.9		65.4 - 100	34.6
	LA01-64	91.0		54.3 - 100	45.7
Mixed	LA01-14	89.9	6.0	64.6 - 100	35.4
	LA01-16	92.4		73.9 - 100	26.1
	LA01-64	95.9		83.7 - 100	16.3
Black	LA01-14	92.1	4.9	89.9 - 99.2	09.3
	LA01-16	97.0		94.2 - 99.4	05.2
	LA01-64	94.8		88.3 - 100	11.7
Asian	LA01-14	93.4	2.4	81.0 - 99.5	18.5
	LA01-16	95.8		90.2 - 98.3	08.1
	LA01-64	94.7		87.0 - 99.5	12.5

Source: Data calculated by IHJ from individual pupil registration records - 2008/2009

The greatest variation in the average attendance rate of the schools of any ethnic group was recorded by the WEEU category. Here school LA01-64 recorded an average attendance rate of 83.4 per cent compared with school LA01-14 that averaged 91.5 per cent, a variance of 8.1 percentage points. Figures 14:1 and 14:2 show that the WEEU group attending school LA01-64 represented 18.6 per cent of the total school population, the largest percentage share by a Minority Ethnic group in the case study

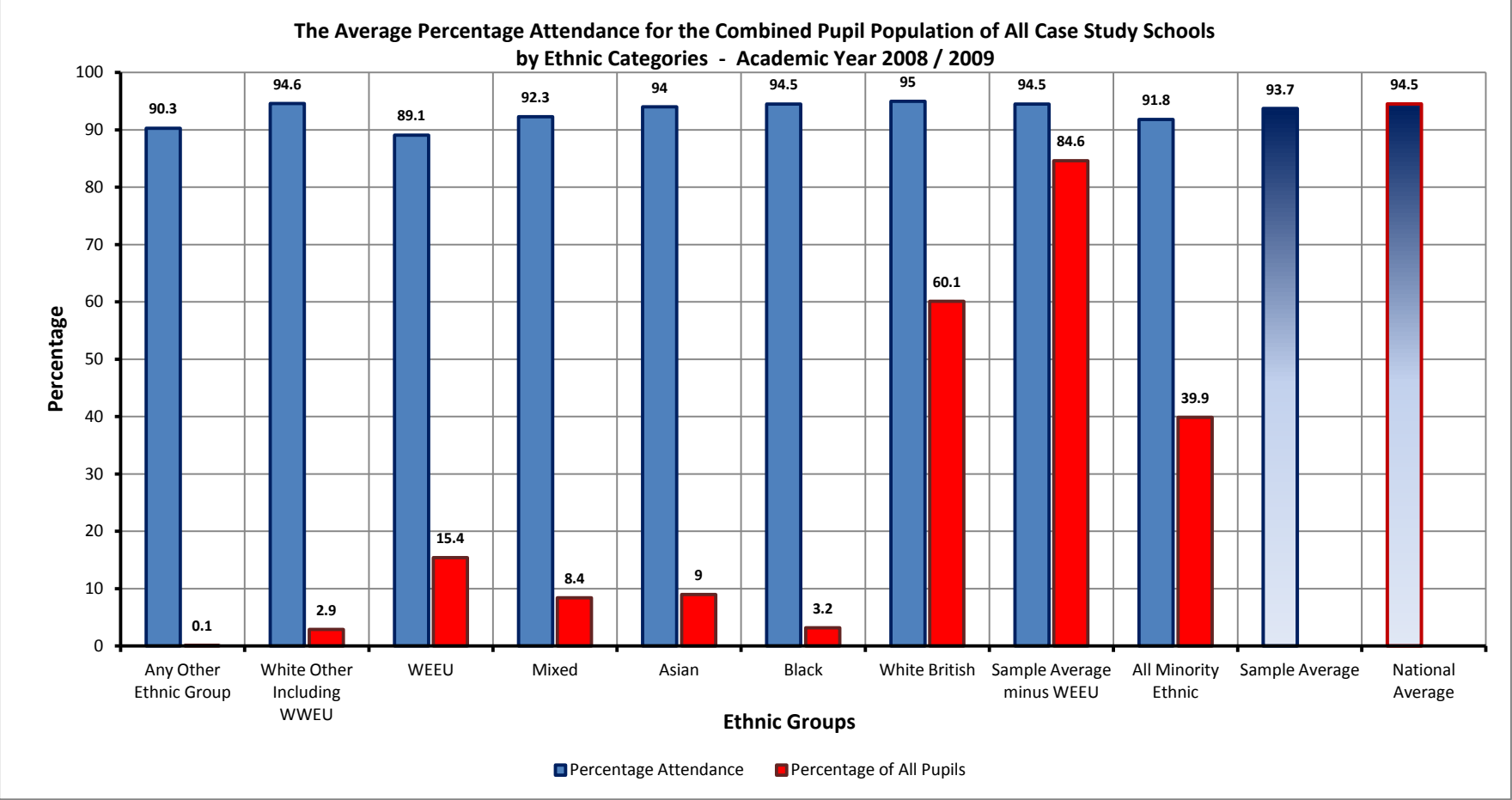
schools. It is interesting to note that not one Asian pupil attending the case study schools achieved 100 per cent attendance. Moreover, in the combined Black population only one pupil recorded a full attendance and in the much larger WEEU group just two pupils achieved full attendance.

A further study was conducted based on the combined population of all three case study schools totalling approximately 700 pupils. For this study, attendance records of each pupil were organised into ethnic groups and the average for each group was calculated. The findings from this study are set out in Figure 14:5.

The combined White British population recorded the highest attendance rate at 95 per cent. On average, these pupils were absent for 9.5 days during the school year. The White British category represented 60.1 per cent of all pupils in the sample. The Minority Ethnic group averaged 91.8 per cent attendance; on average each pupil was absent for 8.2 per cent of sessions, the equivalent of 15.6 days. The WEEU category represented 15.4 per cent of all pupils in the sample and was the largest Minority Ethnic group. However, it recorded the lowest average attendance rate at 89.1 of any ethnic group. Translating to 41.4 missed school sessions or 20.7 days of absence during the school year, this means that each WEEU pupil was absent for 117.9 per cent more days than a White British pupil.

When the average attendance rate for the combined population of the schools was calculated minus the WEEU population, it increased by 0.8 percentage points and matched the indicative national average.

Figure 14:5



14.6 National Curriculum Standards of Attainment and Ethnicity

This section reports on the findings from the analysis of the standards of attainment and progress of pupils in the 2008/2009 Year 6 cohort in school LA01-14 and the 2009/2010 Year 6 cohort in school LA01-64. The study was designed to explore the relationship between the ethnic categories and the standards each obtained in the National Curriculum (NC) assessments at the end Key Stage Two (KS2) in Year 6. Comparisons are drawn between the WEEU pupils and the other ethnic categories, together with an assessment of the rates of progress achieved by the WEEU pupils as individuals and as an ethnic group. The WEEU population represented the largest Minority Ethnic group in each school and in the Year 6 cohorts that formed the focus of the study.

14.7 Standards of Attainment in School LA01-14

An overview of the findings from the National Curriculum test results calculated for each ethnic group are set out in Table 14:2. The cohort comprised 58 pupils and represented four subsidiary ethnic categories: White British, Asian, Black and Mixed, and two approved extended categories: WEEU and WWEU, constituent parts of the White Other subsidiary category. The WEEU pupils, who were all Polish nationals, formed the largest Minority Ethnic group with a 15.5 percentage share of the total cohort population. There was just one Black and one WWEU pupil in the cohort, each representing 1.7 per cent. Caution was taken in drawing any overall conclusions about these two ethnic groups because of their very small sample size.

Table 14:2

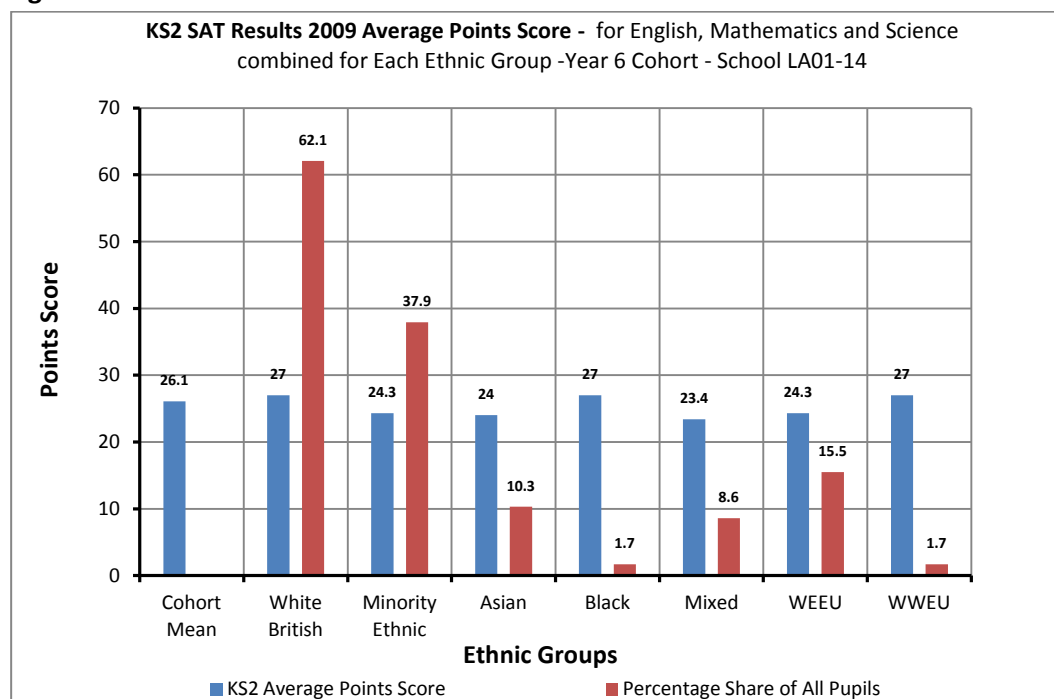
2009 Key Stage Two National Curriculum Test Results for Each Ethnic Group Year 6 Cohort - School LA01-14								
	White British	Minority Ethnic	Asian	Black	Mixed	WEEU	WWEU	Percentage of Cohort Total
Percentage of Cohort	62.1	37.9	10.3	01.7	08.6	15.5	01.7	100
English as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	11.0							06.9
% L4 (27 points)	78.0	68.2	67.0	100	60.0	67.0	100	74.1
% L3 (21 points)	11.0	18.2	17.0		20.0	22.0	0	13.8
% L2 and Below (15 points)		13.6	17.0		20.0	11.0		05.2
Maths as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	08.3	13.6	16.7	100		11.1		10.3
% L4 (27 points)	61.1	45.5	33.3		80.0	33.3	100	55.2
% L3 (21 points)	25.0	36.4	50.0			55.6		29.3
% L2 and Below (15 points)	05.6	04.5			20.0			05.2
Science as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	11.1							06.9
% L4 (27 points)	72.2	45.5	50.0	100	60.0	33.3		62.1
% L3 (21 points)	16.7	50.0	50.0		20.0	66.7	100	29.3
% L2 and Below (15 points)		04.5			20.0			01.7

Source: School records

In the NC assessments of English, 6.9 per cent of cohort pupils attained NC Level 5. All these pupils were from White British backgrounds. The Minority Ethnic groups attained lower levels overall than the White British. However, in the mathematics assessments both the Minority Ethnic and the White British groups recorded similar numbers of pupils attaining NC Level 5. This represented a higher percentage of the smaller Minority Ethnic group. It is noticeable from Table 14:2 that the WEEU pupils achieved at least as well as the Asian and Mixed categories in English, a language of which the WEEU pupil had little if any knowledge when first arriving in England.

Each National Curriculum level has an equivalent point score value²¹. By converting the National Curriculum levels into the equivalent points score for each subject, it was possible to calculate the average attainment level for each ethnic group for English, mathematics and science combined. Figure 14:6 sets out the National Curriculum average points score for each ethnic group and the cohort mean. The percentage share of pupils in the cohort for each ethnic group is included to assist comparisons.

Figure 14:6



Source: School records. For these calculations each subject received equal weighting.

In each case, the ethnic group values differed from the corresponding cohort mean. For example, the White British category was above the mean by 0.9 of a percentage point, whilst the Minority Ethnic group was below the mean by 1.8 percentage points, representing a variation of 2.7 percentage points. The WEEU group's average points score was 24.3, which equalled that of the Minority Ethnic group, but was higher than

²¹ Key Stage 2: points score for all subjects: Level 5 = 33 points score equivalent; Level 4 = 27 points score equivalent; Level 3 = 21 points score equivalent; Level 2 and below = 15 points score equivalent.

both the Asian and Mixed categories by 0.3 and 0.9 of a percentage point respectively. This suggests that the WEEU group of pupils attained on average as well as all other Minority Ethnic pupils.

Figure 14:7 details the National Curriculum attainment level achieved by each WEEU pupil for each subject, together with the total time spent in the English education system. Pupil P1420 was the only WEEU pupil to receive a full English primary education. He attained NC Level 4 in each subject in the Year 6 assessments, matching the expected standards for a pupil of his age in England. It is most noticeable that five WEEU pupils, who received only a partial English primary education, attained NC Level 4 in English. Indeed, three of these pupils attained Level 4 with only two years of English education at school LA01-14.

Eight of the nine WEEU pupils in the Year 6 cohort arrived in England following the opening of the UK borders to Accession EU Member States in 2004. Pupil P1430 commenced education at school LA01-14 in September 2002 at the beginning of Year 1, prior to the A8 Accession. Pupils P1418 and P1441 joined the school in Year 3 at the beginning of the 2005/2006 school year and pupil P1458 started attending the school in the same school year in January 2006. The five remaining WEEU pupils, P1409, P1421, P1422, P1424 and P1450 all joined the school in Year 5 in September 2007. On arrival in England these pupils had little if any understanding of the English language.

Figure 14:7

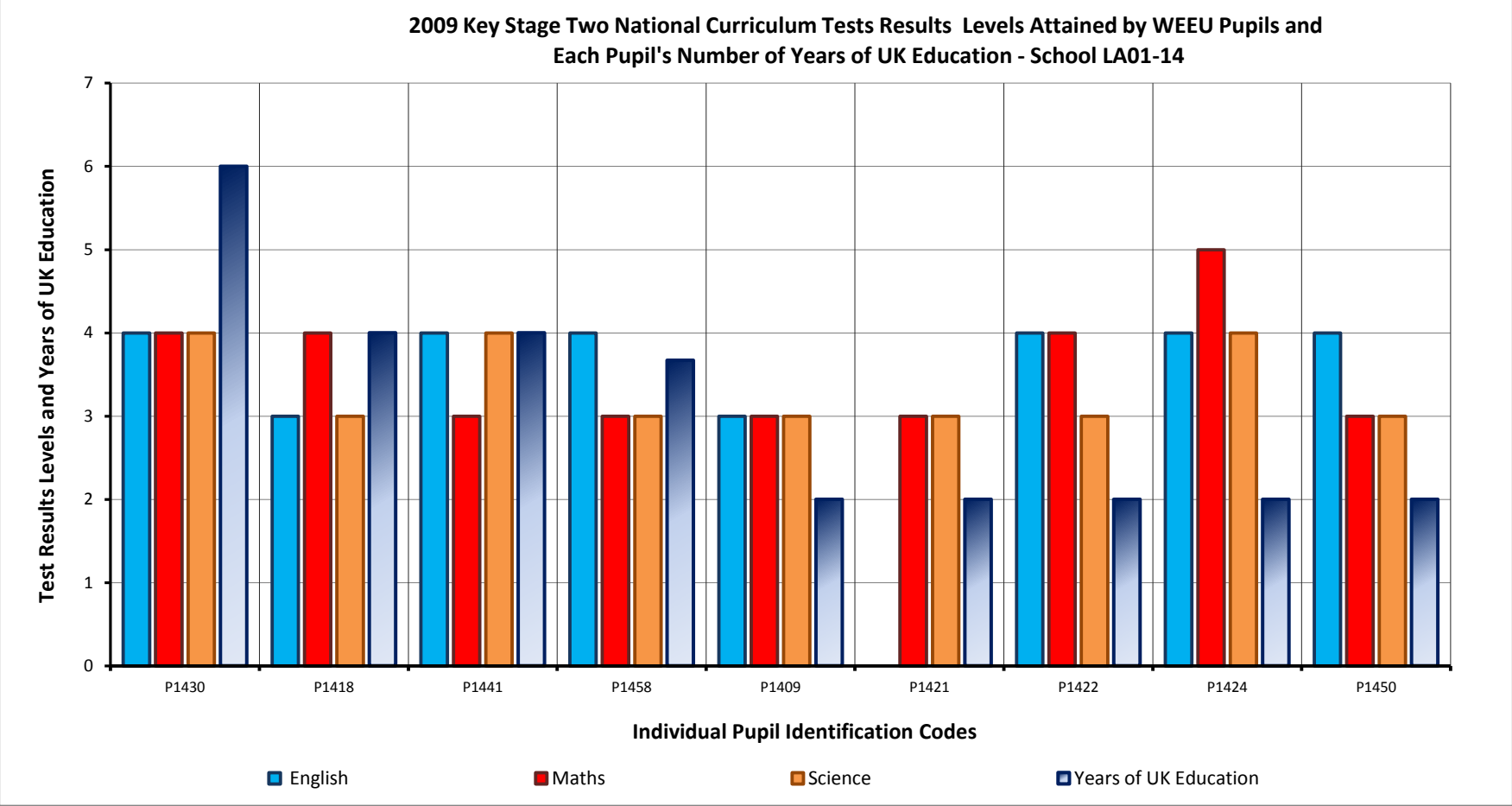


Table 14:3 broadens the findings set out in Figure 14:7 by showing a more detailed profile of the time spent by each Year 6 WEEU pupil in the English education system and the National Curriculum level for English that each attained. The attendance rate for each pupil for the 2008/2009 school year is included to highlight any relationship between school absence and a pupil's progress and attainment.

Table 14:3

The Relationship Between the Progress of WEEU Pupils in Year 6 and the Length of Time Spent in the English School - 2008/2009 Cohort at School LA01-14					
WEEU Pupil	Date of Admission	Years of English Education	Percentage Attendance Rate ⁵ Pupil	Variance ³ School Mean	NC English Level Year 6
P1422	06.09.07	2 Years	96.5	+02.2	Level 4
P1424	05.09.07	2 Years	79.3	-15.0	Level 4
P1450	06.09.07	2 Years	95.7	+0.14	Level 4
P1421	02.07.07	2 Years	84.0	-10.3	Level W ⁴
P1409	02.07.07	2 Years	92.0	-02.3	Level 3
P1458	04.01.06	3.7 Years	95.2	+00.9	Level 4
P1441	12.09.05	4 Years	94.7	+00.4	Level 4
P1418	07.09.05	4 Years	98.4	+04.1	Level 3
P1430	03.09.02	1+6 Years ¹	95.5	+01.2	Level 4
Nat. Mean ²	03.09.02	1+6 Years ¹	94.5		Level 4

Source: Individual pupil school records ¹Includes: 1 Reception Year and 6 years of statutory education. ²National mean included for purposes of comparison. ³School mean attendance rate: 94.3. ⁴W = Working towards Level 1. ⁵Attendance data for the 2008/2009 school year.

Any direct and obvious relationship between absence from school and attainment is challenged by the conflicting findings set out in Table 14:3. For example, pupil P1424 recorded an attendance rate of just 79.3 percent, which classified him as a 'persistent absentee'. This translates to 39.3 missed days of schooling out of a possible 190 days in the school year. The table also shows he attended an English school for just two years before taking the Year 6 National Curriculum assessments, was absent for more than 20 per cent of school sessions, but attained a Level 4 in English and, as Figure 14:7 shows,

gained a Level 5 in Mathematics and a Level 4 in science. This pupil's profile contrasts with that of pupil P1418 who recorded the highest attendance rate of the WEEU cohort at 98.4 per cent, attended an English school for twice as long as P1424, but attained Level 3 in English. Pupil P1430 is the only pupil whose profile broadly reflected the national mean trend.

All WEEU pupils, with one exception (P1421), progressed by more than two National Curriculum levels during their time in Key Stage 2. Overall, this more than equalled the national expectations²². However, all pupils without a Key Stage 1 attainment are excluded from the Contextual Value Added (CVA) calculations published by Ofsted/DFE. Consequently, the rapid rate of progress achieved by seven of the nine WEEU pupils was not recognised in the published CVA performance data for the school²³.

14.8 Standards of Attainment in School LA01-64

There were 25 pupils in the 2009/2010 Year 6 cohort, nine of whom were from WEEU backgrounds. Three pupils were recorded in each of the Asian and Mixed categories, with the remaining 10 pupils classified as White British. Pupils from four nationalities from Eastern and Central Europe formed the WEEU category. Four Czech pupils created the largest WEEU national group in Year 6. Whilst registered as Czech nationals, these pupils came from Czech-Roma backgrounds (Ch.9:4). The Polish national group was the second largest with three pupils, followed by the Hungarian and Slovak groups with one pupil each. The school considered that the pupil with Slovak nationality was of Roma heritage. The findings from the analysis of school LA01-64 end of Key Stage 2

²² During the four years at Key Stage 2, pupils nationally are expected to progress by at least two National Curriculum levels. For example, a pupil attaining Level 2 in English at the end of Key Stage 1 would be expected to reach Level 4 by the end of Key Stage 2.

²³ Correspondence with DFE, 2010L.

assessments for Reading, Writing, English and Mathematics are shown in Table 14.4.

The table sets out the results by ethnic category.

Table 14.4

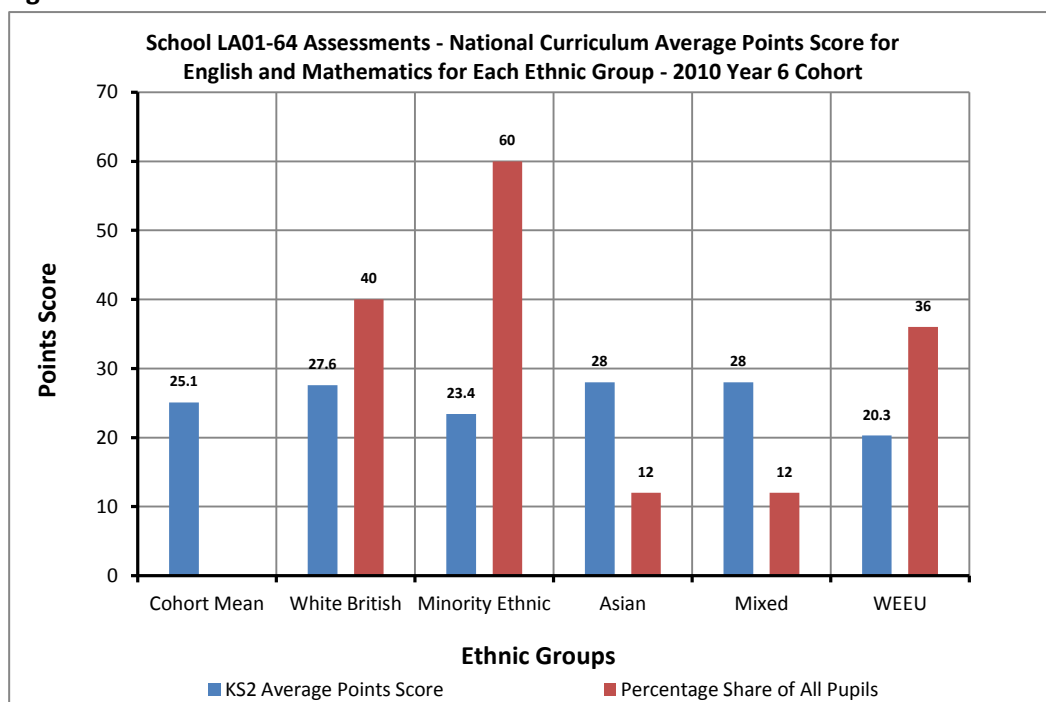
School LA01-64 Assessments - National Curriculum Reading, Writing, English and Mathematics - Key Stage 2 – 2010 Year 6 Cohort by Ethnic Categories								
	White British	Minority Ethnic	Asian	Black	Mixed	WEEU	WWEU	Percentage of Cohort Total
Percentage of Cohort	40	60	12	0	12	36	0	100
Reading as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	40.0	26.7	66.7		33.3	11.1		32.0
% L4 (27 points)	50.0	20.0			66.7	11.1		32.0
% L3 (21 points)	10.0	40.0	33.3			55.6		28.0
% L2 and Below (15 points)		13.3				22.2		08.0
Writing as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	20.0	06.7			33.3			12.0
% L4 (27 points)	50.0	40.0	66.7		66.7	22.2		44.0
% L3 (21 points)	30.0	20.0	33.3			22.2		24.0
% L2 and Below (15 points)		33.3				55.6		20.0
English as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	20.0	06.7						12.0
% L4 (27 points)	60.0	40.0	66.7		66.7	22.2		48.0
% L3 (21 points)	20.0	26.7	33.3		33.3	33.3		24.0
% L2 and Below (15 points)		26.7				44.4		16.0
Maths as % of Ethnic Group								
% L5 (33 points)	30.0	13.3	66.7					20.0
% L4 (27 points)	60.0	46.7	33.3		100	33.3		52.0
% L3 (21 points)	10.0	20.0				33.3		16.0
% L2 and Below (15 points)		20.0				33.3		12.0

Source: School assessment and pupil records

In all areas of assessment the White British pupils attained higher standards than those of the combined Minority Ethnic groups. The number of pupils in the Asian and Mixed categories was too small to enable any meaningful conclusions to be drawn from the percentage distribution of each group's assessment results. The WEEU population clearly recorded the lowest set of results of any of the ethnic categories. Its 36 per cent share of the cohort's population ensured that its assessment results impacted detrimentally upon the school's overall performance. This fact is highlighted in Figure

14:8, which sets out the average points score for combined English and mathematics results for each ethnic group.

Figure 14:8



Source: School records – individual pupil level. For these calculations each subject received equal weighting

The cohort mean average of 25.1 points score was 2.5 points below that attained by the White British pupils. When the White British, Asian and Mixed groups of pupils are considered together, they attain an average points score of 27.75, equivalent to an average attainment above the expected NC Level 4. However, when the WEEU population is included, the cohort average points score is reduced by 2.65 points to 25.1, equal to an average attainment of below NC Level 4 (27 points).

A closer examination of the academic performance of each WEEU pupil was conducted to determine whether there was any relationship between the curriculum level

attained, the time spent in the English education system, the attendance rates and pupil's nationality. Table 14:5 and Figure 14.9 set out the findings from this study.

Table 14:5

The Relationship Between the Progress of WEEU Pupils by End of Year 6 and the Length of Time Spent in the English Education System - 2009/2010 Cohort at School LA01-64						
Nationality	Pupil Code	Date of Admission	Years of English Education	Percentage Attendance Rate ⁵ Pupil	Variance ³ School Mean	NC English Level Year 6
Hungarian	P6417	05.2005	5 Years	92.7	+00.2	Level 4
Czech (Roma)	P6418	09.2007	3 Years	54.3	-38.2	Level 1
	P6419	09.2003	1+6 Years ¹	81.0	-11.5	Level 3
	P6420	11.2009	0.7 Years	n/a		Level W ⁴
	P6421	10.2006	4 Years	59.2	-33.3	Level 2
Slovak (Roma)	P6422	09.2008	2 Years	75.0	-17.5	Level 2
Polish	P6423	06.2005	5 Years	97.8	+05.3	Level 4
	P6424	07.2008	2 Years	87.0	-05.5	Level 3
	P6425	09.2008	2 Years	96.7	+04.2	Level 3
Nat. Mean ²		03.09.03	1+6 Years ¹	94.5		Level 4

Source: Individual pupil school records¹ Includes: 1 Reception Year and 6 years of statutory education. ² National mean included for purposes of comparison. :

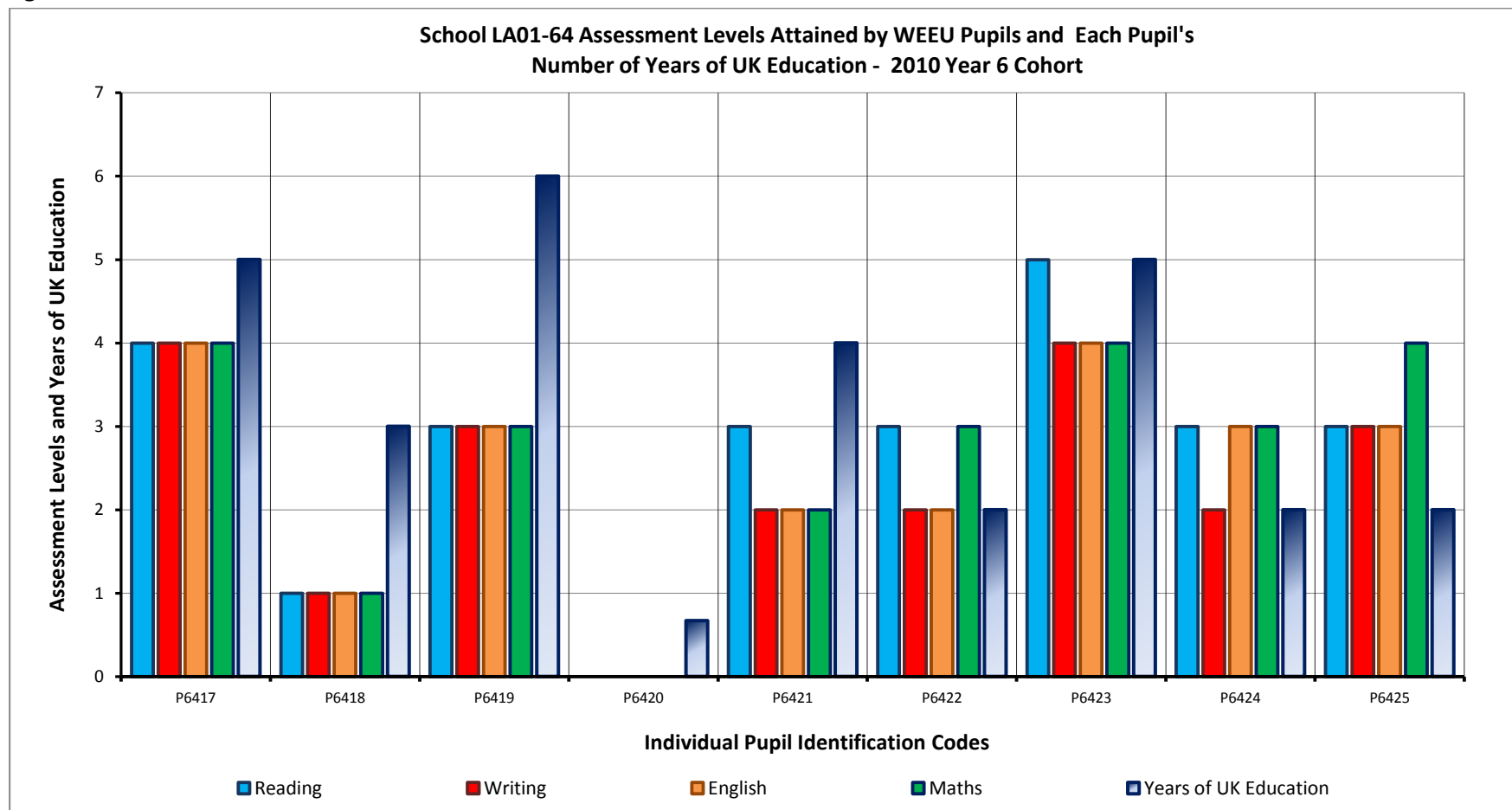
³ School mean attendance rate: 92.5%. ⁴ W = Working towards Level 1. Attendance date for 2008/2009 school year.

Two of the nine WEEU pupils attained NC Level 4 English at the end of Year 6. Both pupils had experienced five years of English education and were absent from school for fewer sessions than the mean average for a pupil at the school. One pupil was Hungarian and the other Polish. Three pupils attained NC Level 3 English. Two were Polish and had two years of English schooling, with one exceeding the average school attendance rate by 4.2 percentage points and the other recording 5.5 percentage points below the school mean. The third pupil attaining a NC Level 3 had received a full English education, including a year in the Reception Class. The attendance rate of this Czech Roma pupil was 81 per cent or, put another way, the pupil missed 7.2 weeks of schooling out of a possible 38 weeks.

The four remaining pupils were from Czech Roma or Slovak Roma backgrounds and attained NC Level 2 or below. Pupil P6420 had attended the school for less than two school terms and was at the beginning stages of learning English. Consequently, no assessment or attendance data were available (Figure 14.9). Pupil P6421 joined the school in October, 2006, at the beginning of Key Stage 2. This pupil attained NC Level 2 English in the Year 6 assessments. Indeed, this pupil actually progressed by two NC levels during the key stage, which met the national expectation. However, pupil P6421 recorded an attendance rate of just 59.2 per cent and was classified as a 'persistent absentee'. In all, this pupil missed 15.5 weeks out of a possible 38 weeks of schooling during one year.

Czech Roma pupil P6418 was registered at the school for three years, having arrived from the Czech Republic in September 2007. However, this pupil was absent for nearly half of all school sessions. With an attendance rate of 54.3 per cent, pupil P6418 was recorded absent for 174 sessions, equal to 17.4 weeks of missed education. This pupil attained NC Level 1 at the end of Year 6. Finally, pupil P6422 experienced two year of English education having arrived in England from the Slovak Republic in September 2008. By the end of Year 6, this pupil attained NC Level 2 English, despite being absent for a quarter of all school sessions (Table 14:5 and Figure 14:9).

Figure 14:9



14.9 National Curriculum Assessments by Ethnic Group - Local Authority LA01

To place the attainment and progress of WEEU pupils at schools LA01-14 and LA01-64 in a wider context, the 2009 Key Stage 2 NC assessments for authority LA01 were analysed to determine the percentage of pupils attaining NC Level 4 and above (Level 4+) by ethnic group. The assessment data for more than 6,200 pupils in the Year 6 cohort from all maintained primary schools in the LA were scrutinised. Table 14.6 details the findings from this study and includes the comparative data from schools LA01-14 and LA01-64.

Table 14:6

Percentage of Pupils in 2009 Attaining NC Level 4 or above at the End of Key Stage 2 by Ethnic Group in Local Authority LA01 and for Schools LA01-14 and LA01-64					
	Percentage of Cohort	Reading	Writing	English	Mathematics
White British	83.9	90.2	72.1	85.1	82.6
Mixed	03.8	87.2	67.5	85.5	77.8
Asian	01.7	88.9	67.6	83.3	79.6
WEEU	00.8	61.7	42.6	55.3	57.4
Black	00.7	78.2	54.3	63.1	60.9
Gypsy/Roma	00.3	45.0	20.0	35.0	55.0
School LA01-14					
White British				88.9	69.5
WEEU				66.7	44.5
School LA01-64					
White British		90.0	70.0	80.0	90.0
WEEU		22.2	22.2	22.2	33.3

Source: Calculations based on LA Data 2009. School LA01-14 data for 2009. School LA01-64 data for 2010. The school census data provided by the LA were inherently unreliable. The LA percentage averages included in Table 14:6 were calculated from these LA datasets. Consequently, they provide general guidance only for comparison purposes with the 2009 and 2010 school data.

In Table 14:6 the attainment percentages for schools LA01-14 and LA01-64 were calculated from the schools' individual pupil records. On the other hand, the

percentages for the LA averages were based on the school census data collated by the LA. In Chapter 12, these data were shown to be essentially unreliable and lacking in credibility. Furthermore, the distinction between the WEEU and the Gypsy/Roma categories proved to be somewhat confused and added to the imprecise nature of the official data as discussed in Chapters 14.6 and 9.4. Consequently, the data describing the averages for the LA, as set out in Table 14:6, were employed as a general guide only and interpreted with great caution.

The NC assessments for English showed that in school LA01-14 a higher percentage of pupils in the White British and the WEEU ethnic groups attained NC Level 4+ than the corresponding LA averages. The White British exceeded the equivalent LA average by 3.8 percentage points and the WEEU by a greater margin of 11.4 percentage points. This suggests that the WEEU pupils at the school, who were all Polish nationals, were attaining levels in English above those found on average within the LA. However, in mathematics a different pattern emerged. Here the school's White British and WEEU ethnic groups attained levels below the corresponding ethnic group LA average for mathematics by 13.1 and 12.9 percentage points respectively.

In the case of school LA01-64, a quite different profile emerged. For instance, mathematics proved a stronger subject than English for both White British and WEEU groups when judged by the percentage of pupils attaining NC Level 4+. The White British group attained around 7.4 percentage points above the LA equivalent average for mathematics, but 5.1 percentage points below for English. The WEEU group performed better in mathematics than English, but was below the ethnic group's LA average for English and mathematics by 33.1 and 24.1 percentage points respectively.

The findings calculated from the LA datasets indicate that the WEEU and the Gypsy/Roma populations performed less well than the other ethnic groups, a finding generally found in the case study schools. However, the analysis exposed some differences between the LA findings and those of the case study schools. For example, the LA datasets revealed that the Black main ethnic group attained a lower percentage of NC Level 4+ than the Mixed and Asian Minority Ethnic groups across all subjects. These LA findings were not reflected in the small sample of these ethnic groups found in school LA01-14.

However, the findings from the analysis at main ethnic category level concealed important underlying variations in the attainment of the different subsidiary, national and first language categories. For example, 54.3 per cent of the Black main category attained NC Level 4+ in writing. However, this concealed the fact that 57.9 per cent of Black African pupils attained NC Level 4+ English compared with 47.6 per cent of Black Caribbean, a variation of 10.3 percentage points. Moreover, analysis of the LA datasets showed that NC Level 4+ English was attained by 83.3 per cent of Asian pupils. Further analysis found that at the Asian subsidiary category level the Indian pupils attained a much higher percentage of NC Level 4+ (89.5 per cent) than the Bangladeshi pupils (70.0 per cent), a difference of 19.5 percentage points. Additionally, the Gujarati first language pupils, the second largest non-English first language group after Polish, recorded 88.9 per cent of pupils achieving NC Level 4+ in English, exceeding the Asian average by 5.6 percentage points.

The analysis of the attainment of pupils at national and first language level was complex because there was difficulty in reconciling the different strands in the LA datasets. First, the number of WEEU pupils in the main LA summary datasets for 'Outcomes by Ethnic Group and Gender' did not tally with the number of pupils recorded with a first language that derived from a WEEU country. In addition it was unclear how the WEEU average NC Level 4+ was calculated. For example, the analysis of pupils within the LA Year 6 cohort by their first language found that the pupils who spoke Polish as a first language represented 71.4 per cent of the WEEU population and were shown to have attained 48.6 per cent NC Level 4+ English. The Czech first language pupils constituted 16.3 per cent of the WEEU population and recorded a 25.0 per cent attainment at NC Level 4+. The Romanian first language group represented 6.1 per cent of the WEEU population and achieved an average of 66.7 per cent at NC Level 4+. The remaining pupils with first languages classified as Latvian, Lithuanian and Slovak together similarly represented 6.1 per cent of the WEEU pupils and averaged 66.7 per cent NC Level 4+.

The NC levels attained for English were recalculated based on the first language criteria and the findings revealed that 45 per cent of WEEU pupils attained NC Level 4+. Seemingly, this conflicted with the LA summary datasets that showed 55.3 per cent NC Level 4+ for the WEEU group, a 10.3 per cent variation. By employing the language based WEEU criteria, the WEEU pupils attending school LA01-14 are shown to have exceeded the WEEU average for English by 21.7 percentage points, but this positive variation was reduced to 11.4 percentage points when using the LA summary datasets. Table 14:7 sets out these percentages along with the WEEU results calculated from first language and the LA published attainment results.

Table 14:7

The Percentage of WEEU Pupils Attaining National Curriculum Level 4 or above by First Language and Ethnicity in the 2009 Key Stage 2 Attainment Tests in English in Local Authority LA01						
Description of Percentages	WEEU National Languages				WEEU Mean Average by ²	
	Polish	Czech	Romanian	Other ¹	Language	Ethnicity
Percentage Share of WEEU Group	71.4	16.3	6.1	6.1	100	100
Percentage attaining NC Level 4+	48.6	25.0	66.7	66.7	45.0	55.3

Source: Calculations based on LA 2009 KS2 Datasets. ¹ Latvian, Lithuanian and Slovak. ² Recorded first language in school census 2009 collated by LA. Ethnicity based on LA collation of school census 2009.

Whilst acknowledging the inexactness of the LA datasets, some general patterns emerged that provided information about the relationships between the WEEU ethnic category pupils, their exposure to English schooling and their levels of attainment.

14.10 Conclusion

Overall, the available data suggest that the White British pupils recorded the highest average attendance rate and the WEEU pupils the lowest. In broad terms, this reflects the levels attained at the end of Key Stage 2, where the White British were one of the highest attaining groups and the WEEU one of the lowest. The only groups achieving percentages below that of the WEEU group were the Traveller of Irish Heritage category pupils and those recorded as Gypsy/Roma²⁴ who attained 20.0 and 35.0 per cent of NC Level 4+ at the end of Key Stage 2 respectively.

The findings from the study of approximately 700 pupils broadly replicate those of the individual schools. The findings suggest that the WEEU ethnic group had a detrimental effect upon a school's attendance rate and that those WEEU of Czech/Slovak Roma

²⁴ Pupils of Gypsy/Roma backgrounds are classified in a distinct ethnic category. WEEU pupils of Roma heritage have been shown in the research to be registered by their nationality and therefore do not appear in the school census as Roma, but as WEEU.

backgrounds had the greatest negative impact. On average, a WEEU pupil was absent from school for 20.7 days per year compared with 9.5 days for a White British pupil. Moreover, Czech/Slovak Roma WEEU pupils on average missed 47.9 days of school each year and recorded the lowest average NC levels of attainment. Noticeably, the average attendance rate for each case study school improved when the WEEU group was removed from the calculations. Indeed, for two of the three schools it moved the attendance rate from below to above the national average.

The analysis of the LA datasets recording the attainment of pupils at main, subsidiary, national and first language levels for all LA maintained schools confirmed the wide variations in the attainment of the constituent groups of the main categories. It highlighted the inappropriateness of employing the main category averages to compare the attainment of different main ethnic groups or as a method of assessing the effectiveness of schools. This is well exemplified by the two case study schools LA01-14 and LA01-64. Equal numbers of WEEU pupils attended these schools. However, the nationality of all the pupils in school LA01-14 was Polish, but in school LA01-64, most were from the Czech and Slovak Republics and were of Roma backgrounds. The considerable difference in attendance and attainments levels of these two diverse groups of pupils is evident from the research findings.

The relationship between the period of exposure to English schooling and the standards attained by WEEU pupils is complex. This is influenced by factors such as an individual pupil's aptitude and motivation for learning, when placed in a new and foreign speaking country, combined with the intangible levels of home and school support. This point is well illustrated by two pupils who attended school LA01-14. Both pupils migrated from

Poland and had two years of experience in the English school by the end of Key Stage 2. One pupil was absent for 39.3 days and the other for 6.7 days, but both pupils attained NC Level 4 English. In contrast, another Polish pupil had attended the same school for four years and recorded just 3 days of absence, the least recorded by any WEEU pupil attending the case study schools. However, this pupil did not attain NC Level 4, but Level 3, by the end of Key Stage 2.

Interestingly, the WEEU pupils who attended school LA01-64 performed in a way that might be considered more in keeping with logical expectations. These would suggest that the longer the period of exposure to education and the fewer missed sessions, the faster the rate of progress and the higher the attainment level, and vice versa. The pupils at this school who attained NC Level 4 at the end of Key Stage 2 recorded attendance rates above the school mean and had attended the English school for five years each. On the other hand, those with the lowest attendance rate and three and four years of English schooling attained lower NC Levels.

Chapter 15

Analysis of Questionnaires and Interviews – Teachers

15.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings from the questionnaires completed by forty-one teachers, together with supporting interviews, about their experiences of working and managing A8 accession WEEU pupils. Headteachers, class teachers, LA EAL²⁵ teachers and teaching assistants provided information by these means. Details of the participants are included in Chapter 8. The sample size renders it sensitive to sampling errors and is insufficient to enable wider conclusions to be extrapolated. However, the findings do provide an illuminating insight into the experiences and perceptions of this group of professionals.

15.2 Experience of Teaching and Managing WEEU Pupils

Although all teachers were very involved in the teaching of EAL to WEEU pupils, only one teacher had a qualification for teaching English as an additional language (EAL). This teacher held a qualification for teaching English as a foreign language (TEFEL) and was employed by the LA as a specialist teacher of EAL. The remaining 40 teachers (97.6 per

²⁵ LA EAL teacher - Local authority employed teacher of English as an additional Language.

cent) had no formal training or qualification for teaching EAL. However, 39 per cent of all teachers had attended a one session in-service course for teaching EAL run by the LA EAL team. Fifty percent of those who attended a course considered that it had been effective or very effective in supporting their teaching practice, although the remaining 50 per cent were less impressed or did not know whether the course was helpful or not.

Teachers were asked about the resources for supporting the teaching of WEEU pupils. Just under half (48.7 per cent) reported receiving extra teaching resources and nearly 80 per cent had received additional teaching support. The vast majority of the extra teaching support was provided by the LA EAL team, which ranged from 30 minutes to four hours per week. In just one school, teachers gained the support of a Polish speaking adult. Nearly all classroom teachers reported that WEEU pupils were withdrawn from normal classes for extra English teaching. All WEEU pupils newly arrived in England were assessed by a member of the LA EAL team to determine their learning needs. This service was considered by teachers to be very important, especially as many had difficulty communicating with the pupils when they first arrived. Indeed, 63.4 per cent stated that the WEEU pupils could speak little or no English on first arrival. A further 36.6 per cent judged that they were at a very early stage in acquiring the language.

Nearly 90 per cent of teachers found communicating with newly arrived WEEU pupils difficult or very difficult. Some teachers expressed strong views about pupils joining mainstream schools with no knowledge of English. Teacher T10116 stated:

All EAL (pupils) should attend at least a 6 month English Language course with parents before being permitted into school. This is purely for the child's wellbeing. I have seen WEEU pupils dropped into English schools at age 6 and been positively traumatised by the experience (Teacher T10116, 2009)²⁶.

This view was also proffered by a teacher experienced in teaching pupils with little or no knowledge of English. She stated:

I don't believe in segregation of pupils, however, I do feel that the government needs to have programmes in place to support children who have no (or) little English when they enter the country, before they arrive at school. There needs to be an integration phase. As a teacher who has worked in schools with high proportions of EAL learners for eight years, I cannot understand why this has not been done. I enjoy working in schools with great diversity as it contributes to all children's learning (Teacher T80164, 2009).

However, a teacher of Reception pupils viewed the situation differently because of the age of the pupils and their level of acquisition of the English language when commenting:

When EAL children start in September (Reception pupils aged 4 years) when all the class is new and start learning early phonics and number together they progress much on a level as English pupils (Teacher T30116, 2009).

When considering the overall attainment of WEEU pupils on first arrival in England, 78 per cent of teachers assessed them to be one year or more behind English pupils of the same age. However, 41.5 per cent of teachers considered that the attainment of WEEU

²⁶ European Commission, 2009a, stated: Knowledge of the host country language is highlighted as a fundamental pre-requisite for integration into the mainstream education system (page 11).

pupils in mathematics was broadly similar to that of English pupils, although one teacher commented that she found they “have problems with multi-step problems in mathematics” (Teacher T10114). Overall in mathematics, 51.2 per cent of teachers found WEEU pupils to be at least one year behind English pupils of the same age on first arrival.

Teachers were invited to comment on how long it took WEEU pupils to acquire a sufficient command of the English language to take a full and active part in all aspects of all lessons. Here, 58.5 per cent of teachers judged it took on average at least one year, whereas 7.3 per cent stated it took just six months. However, 48.8 per cent of teachers recorded that it took WEEU pupils one year or more to integrate fully into the life and work of the school. Teacher T140114 considered that the speed of integration depended on the number of WEEU pupils of the same nationality that were in the class.

The main challenge when several WEEU children are in a class is to develop integration with the rest of the class, when just one or two are in a class this has not presented as an issue (Teacher T140114, 2009).

Further comments on the subject were made by teacher T80114 who spoke positively about the presence of WEEU (Polish) pupils in her class, but had some reservations:

There can be an issue if there are too many (WEEU pupils) within a class as it can restrict the mixing with others in the class and they tend to chat to each other in the knowledge that they are unlikely to be understood (Teacher T80114, 2009)

To help assess the progress made by WEEU pupils, teachers were asked to refer to their assessment records to indicate the attainment of these pupils after one year of English schooling compared with English pupils of the same age. Nearly a quarter of teachers (24.4 per cent) assessed that the WEEU pupils on average were attaining levels broadly in line with English pupils. This represents an increase of 9.8 percentage points above the assessments on first arrival. On the other hand, 56 per cent judged that they were up to one year behind and 14.6 per cent that they were more than one year behind the English pupils. Again these assessments indicate that the WEEU pupils were progressing at a faster rate than English pupils. Indeed, on arrival 43.9 per cent of WEEU pupils were assessed to be more than one year behind English pupils of the same age. This indicates an improvement in comparative attainment of 29.3 percentage points.

When comparing the rate of progress, 24.4 per cent of teachers considered that the WEEU and English pupils progressed at about the same speed. Whilst 22 per cent assessed that WEEU pupils made greater progress, 46 per cent judged they made less progress. These findings do not concur fully with the comparative assessment findings reported above.

Overall, two thirds of teachers (65.9 per cent) considered that WEEU pupils found English the most difficult subject. However, teachers were clear that different pupils and different national groups from within the WEEU population progressed at different rates. Teacher T20164 commented:

My comments are based on the fact that I have almost a third of the class who are Czech or Slovak (Roma²⁷) and from experience I find that these children experience more difficulty than Polish children. The parents of the Polish children are very supportive and positive about the school and education in general (Teacher T20164, 2009).

The comments by teachers with experience of teaching Polish pupils supported the judgement that as a national group they were well motivated when first arriving at an English school.

The progress that is made by new-comers is usually extraordinary and their work ethic much better than most English pupils. However, this can deteriorate the longer they are in the country (Teacher T80114, 2009).

Most EAL pupils are quite well motivated to succeed and progress at an accelerated rate compared to lower achieving English pupils. Pupils who speak English at home, or have English-speaking WEEU parents, progress better (Teacher T50114, 2009).

Teachers were asked what effect the inclusion of WEEU pupils in their classes had upon their work loads. In response, 85.4 per cent stated that their workloads had increased, indeed 29 per cent judged it had increased considerably. Moreover, 83 per cent claimed that they spent less time with the non-WEEU pupils in the class because of the extra workload of the WEEU pupils. For example, Teacher T40114 stated:

²⁷ Although registered with the school as Czech and Slovak, the school has information that indicated they were of Roma heritage.

WEEU pupils had a positive effect on the cultural experiences of the non-WEEU pupils, but a negative effect on the time spent with non-WEEU pupils for some activities (Teacher T40114, 2009).

Whilst difficult to measure, teachers were asked to comment on whether the presence of WEEU pupils with a limited command of English affected the standards attained by the other pupils. This was important in light of the fact that most teachers stated they spent less time with non-WEEU pupils because of the extra workloads. Here, 51 per cent stated that the attainment and progress of non-WEEU pupils was not affected detrimentally by the presence of the WEEU pupils. This raised an interesting issue about the effectiveness of teaching. As stated above, teachers (83 per cent) claimed they spent less time in teaching non-WEEU pupils because of the presence of WEEU EAL pupils, but 51 per cent also claimed that this reduction in direct teaching had no effect upon the rate of progress or the standards attained by the non-WEEU pupils. One headteacher was clear about these seemingly contradictory findings:

I believe that managing a class with a group of WEEU pupils is more challenging as it is yet another group to cater for. In a climate of personalised learning, the preparation required to ensure all pupils are given work of a sufficiently challenging level to take them to the next stage, is considerable. I don't feel sufficient recognition is given to this challenge by Ofsted and headteachers are unlikely to want to draw attention to the fact that White English children may have performed better had the teacher not been concerned with the needs of WEEU (Teacher T40116, 2009).

In an interview with a headteacher and a member of the LA EAL team this issue was discussed. The headteacher posed the rhetorical question: do you really think a teacher or headteacher is going to admit that pupils in their class or school are not achieving as well as they might because they are unable to cope with the extra workload of teaching WEEU EAL pupils?

Teachers were asked whether they considered that they were sufficiently well prepared for teaching WEEU pupils who were unable to speak or understand English when they first arrived. 73.2 per cent of teachers admitted that they were professionally unprepared to cope with the unexpected and rapid arrival of WEEU pupils²⁸. This was exemplified by the fact that only one teacher, an LA EAL teacher, could name an international or national initiative designed to support the teaching and learning of WEEU pupils. No other teacher knew of the existence of such programmes or had benefited from any national programmes to support their teaching of WEEU pupils or, for that matter, any pupils whose first language was not English²⁹.

It was evident from the questionnaires and interviews that schools and their teachers relied heavily upon the EAL team of teachers, provided by the local authority, to cope with the arrival of large numbers of WEEU pupils after 2004.

Interviewed in 2011, the head of the LA EAL team commented that because schools were adopting Academy status and moving out of the local authority system, the EAL

²⁸ European Commission (2009b) Stated: Adapting to increased numbers of migrants pupils makes it necessary to revise teaching methods and to develop new teaching skills (Page 1)

²⁹ European Commission (2009c). Concluded: The presence of significant numbers of migrant pupils has important implications for education systems. Schools must adjust to their presence and build their particular needs into the traditional focus on providing high quality and equitable education (Page 7).

support service was unable to continue in its present form, if at all. She further commented that the service would cease to exist and the wealth of expertise it had built up would be lost unless Academies purchased the service.

15.3 Conclusion

The findings from the questionnaires and interviews indicate that teachers were professionally unprepared for the influx of WEEU pupils when they arrived in such large numbers, principally because of the pupils' limited command of the English language. Many teachers considered they did not have the experience or training to meet the complex learning needs of the WEEU EAL pupils and struggled to cope. This was especially the case where there were large numbers of WEEU pupils in their classes, particularly those originating from the Czech and Slovak Republics. However, the findings suggest that on average the WEEU pupils progressed at a faster rate on first arrival than the non-WEEU pupils.

Overall, the workload of teachers was claimed to increase as a result of the presence of WEEU pupils in their classes, which resulted in some non-WEEU pupils receiving less direct teacher attention. The effect of the reduction in teaching time upon the progress and attainment of the non-WEEU pupils was inconclusive and was considered a sensitive professional issue.

The majority of teachers did not receive extra classroom resources specifically for teaching the new arrivals, although most acquired extra teaching support. It was judged that overall it took most WEEU pupils one year or more to become fully integrated into the life and work of a school, although factors such as nationality and size of national groups were considered to influence the speed of the process. Teachers generally stated that they welcomed the WEEU pupils into their classes and considered that they had a positive effect upon the school. However, this positivity did not extend to all national groups that comprised the ethnic WEEU category.

Chapter 16

Analysis of Questionnaires and Interviews – Parents

16.1 Introduction

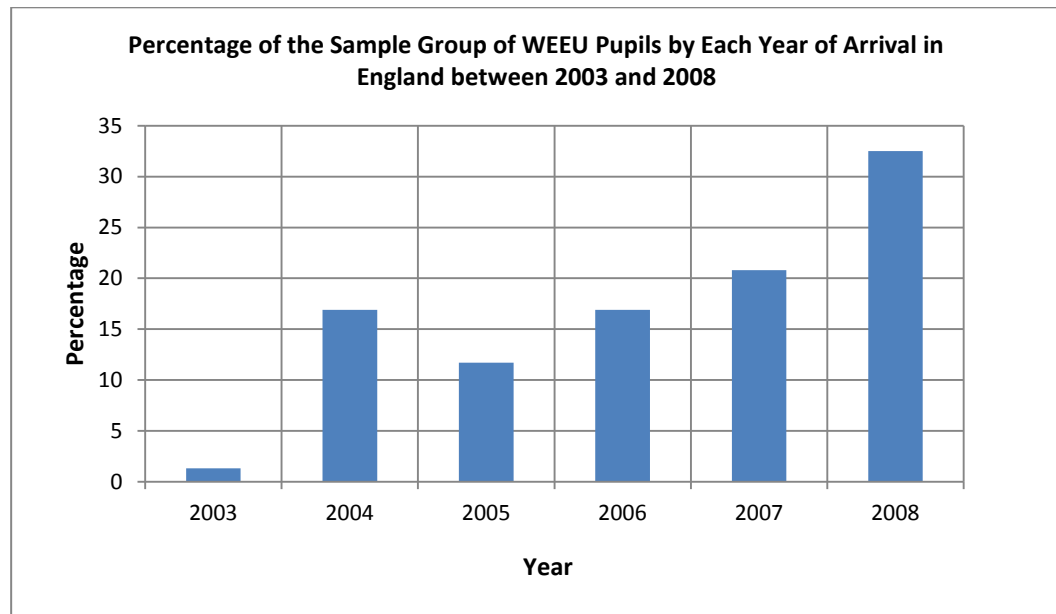
WEEU parents completed questionnaires for a total of 77 pupils. The majority of questionnaires (83 per cent) were completed for pupils of Polish nationality, whilst the Czech nations represented 9 per cent and the Slovak and Hungarian returns totalled 5 and 3 per cent respectively. The questionnaires were issued and collected during the Autumn Term 2009 and the beginning of the Spring Term 2010. The comments of the WEEU parents, both written and spoken, were used to clarify and enhance the responses recorded in the questionnaires.

16.2 Background Information

On average, the WEEU pupils had been resident in England for 2.6 years in 2009 and attended an English school for 1.9 years. Figure 16:1 provides an overview of the percentage of pupils who arrived in each year from 2003 to 2008. Only 1 per cent of the sample was resident in England prior to the accession of the A8 Member States. The opening of the borders in 2004 saw an initial increase in WEEU arrivals that moderated during 2005, but then increased in each successive year. Figure 16:1 does not record

the number of WEEU pupils who may have arrived in England after 2004, but returned to their home country before 2009 when the study was conducted. However, the profile revealed in Figure 16:1 reflects the year-on-year increase found within the LA as a whole over the same period.

Figure 16:1



Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils

Over 86 per cent of parents stated that on first arrival in England they could not speak English or had only a very basic understanding of the language. Just 1 per cent considered they were fluent English speakers. Moreover, 62 per cent knew little or nothing about the English education system, with most of the remainder (33 per cent) having only a basic understanding.

Table 16:1 shows their responses to questions about finding a school, the registration process and communicating with the school staff. The secretary at one case study school was Polish and had lived in England for more than 20 years. Her fluency in both

Polish and English helped prospective parents from Poland to overcome the language problems that were experienced by WEEU parents visiting other schools. This language support was reflected in the questionnaire responses.

Table 16:1

The Experiences of Parents of WEEU Pupils when Enrolling their Children at an English School for the First Time			
	Finding a school that would accept their child	Completing the school registration process	Communicating with staff
Percentage of the WEEU Sample Group			
Very difficult		1	
Difficult	27	9	21
Easy	46	57	60
Very easy	22	30	14
Don't know	5	3	5

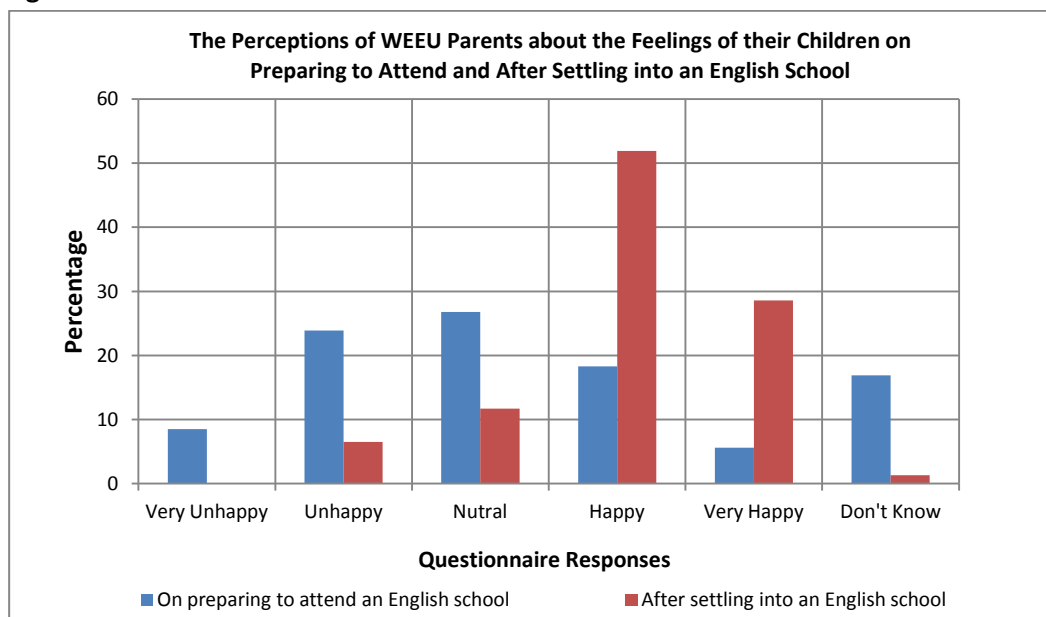
Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils

The findings suggest that the most difficult task faced by WEEU parents was locating a school for their children to attend. Here 27 per cent found the process difficult, although 68 per cent found it easy or very easy. The registration process produced the least overall difficulties for parents at 10 per cent, with 87 per cent finding the process easy or very easy. Importantly, every WEEU parent described the school as either welcoming (52 per cent) or very welcoming (48 per cent).

16.3 Integration Process

Nearly a third of parents (32 per cent) considered that their children were unhappy or very unhappy at the prospect of moving from Poland and their Polish school to England and an English school. However, nearly a quarter were happy or very happy about the idea of migrating. A high percentage of parents (17 per cent) had no idea how their children felt about the move to a new country and new school.

Figure 16:2



Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils

The quite notable shift to a positive view of attending an English school is very clear in Figure 16:2. After settling in, only 7 per cent of pupils were assessed to be unhappy, a reduction of 25 percentage points, whilst 81 per cent were happy or very happy about attending an English school. Noticeably, the parents who did not know about their children's feelings reduced from 17 per cent (preparing to attend) to just 1 per cent after a settling-in period.

Whilst 29 per cent of parents considered that their children found it difficult (21 per cent) or very difficult (8 per cent) to adjust to their English school, 68 per cent reported it was easy or very easy. Parents commented that just over half of pupils (52 per cent) took less than one year to settle and become fully integrated into an English school. However, 59 per cent of teachers judged that WEEU pupils took one year or more to acquire a sufficient command of the English language to take a full and active part in all

lessons. That said, 49 per cent of teachers assessed that it took one year or more for these pupils to be integrated fully into the work and life of the school (Ch. 15.2). In broad terms, the findings suggest that around half of all teachers and parents judged that it took one year or more for WEEU pupils to become fully integrated into an English school. However, this generalisation obscures the fact that 43 per cent of WEEU parents, compared with just 7 per cent of teachers, judged their children to be fully integrated in less than six months.

The comments³⁰ made by parents about their children's experiences of settling into their English schools were nearly all positive. However, parent PP18 was less impressed and commented:

The classes are too big. Having 30 children in a class is too many. There is only one break, a lunch break, which in my opinion is not enough. There seems to be a lack of interest from the teachers to help the Polish children integrate with the English children (WEEU parent PP18, 2009).

The comment by parent PP22 was more typical of the responses of the WEEU parents when she stated, "My children enjoy school and they get loads of help from the teachers. My children get on very well with the rest of the pupils".

An interesting and quite telling comment was made by a parent of a Slovak pupil who was clearly pleased with the work of her child's school.

³⁰ Nearly all contributions made by WEEU parents were in their first language. These were then translated into English. The quotes of WEEU parents are therefore translations of the original texts.

My son is doing very well especially in mathematics. He didn't have any problems to settle down. However, he found so many friends here. I guess this is very positive especially for him to develop the social skills and abilities according to British customs (Parents PS01, 2009).

As an indicator of the extent and nature of the integration of WEEU pupils, parents were asked to comment on the relationships between their children and English children attending their school.

Table 16:2

WEEU Parents' Views of Their Children's Social Interaction with English Pupils			
	NO	YES	Don't Know
Do your children have English friends at school?	3	91	7
Do your children mix with their English friends out of school?	38	62	
Do your children's English friends visit them at home?	48	52	

Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils

Table 16:2 indicates that the vast majority of WEEU pupils had English friends at school. Only two children (3 per cent) were considered to have had no English friends at school. Just over half of all WEEU pupils mixed socially with English school friends at home. These findings imply that the WEEU pupils were not restricted socially to their own national or ethnic group, and tend to support the positive comment made by parent PS01 that her son had 'found many friends at school'.

16.4 Educational Considerations

WEEU parents believed overwhelmingly that moving their children from a Polish to an English school had no detrimental effect upon their education. Indeed, only 4 per cent considered the move detrimental compared with 52 per cent who found it had a

positive or very positive effect. Here though, a fifth of parents (20 per cent) were unable to assess the impact of the move. The WEEU parents commented positively about their children's academic performance in their Polish schools before migrating to England (Table 16:3).

Table 16:3: Responses WEE parents – comparisons – standard attainment

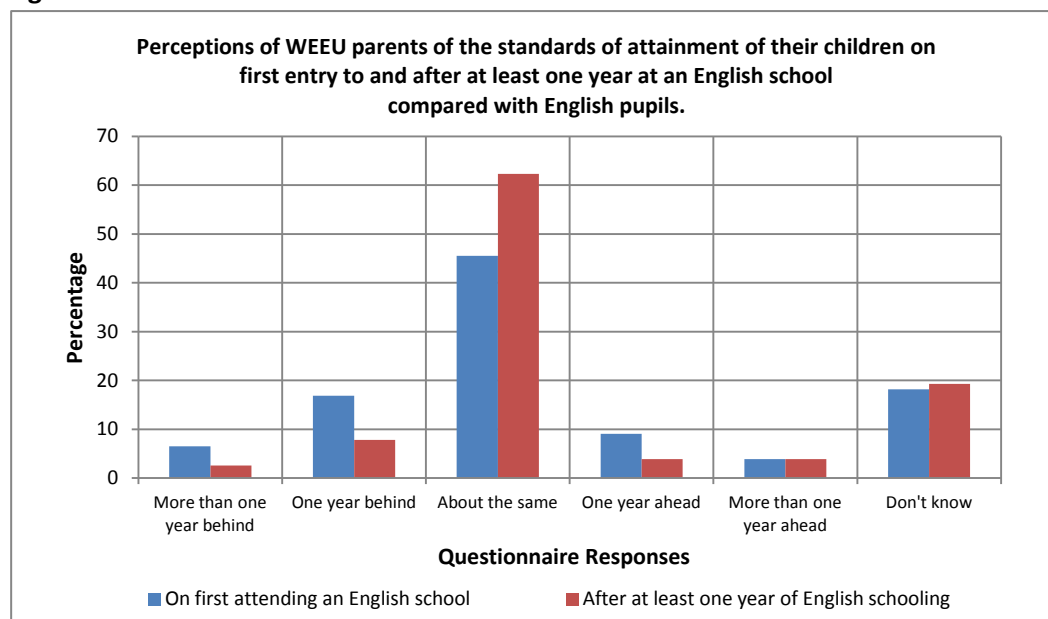
The Perceptions of WEEU Parents of how their Children were Performing Educationally in Poland Prior to Migrating to England - Percentage of Total Sample ³¹			
	Progress	Overall Attainment	Mathematics
Well below average			
Below average	3	3	3
Average	42	41	23
Above average	20	31	37
Well above average	17	13	13
Don't know	20	13	23
n =	36	32	30

Source: Questionnaires 2009.

These findings show a skewed distribution. Only one pupil (3 per cent) progressed or attained at a level below average, whereas 36 per cent progressed at above or well above the average rate, and 44 per cent attained levels above or well above average. When parents were asked about the attainment of WEEU pupils compared with English pupils on first entry to and after at least one year at an English school, a more normal distribution became more evident (Figure 16:3).

³¹ The sample size was reduced as not all WEEU pupils attended schools in their home countries before migrating to England

Figure 16:3



Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils

Noticeable here is the reduction in the number of pupils perceived by their parents to be ahead or behind the attainment levels achieved by the English pupils and the rise in the number thought to be attaining similar levels. Parents were generally pleased with the rate of progress their children were making. Over 81 per cent stated that their children were making average or better rates of progress when compared with English children of the same age. This compared with a more modest 46 per cent of teachers responding similarly to the same question. Moreover, 47 per cent of WEEU parents considered that their children were progressing at a rate above (29 per cent) or well above (18 per cent) the average achieved by English pupils, compared with teachers' assessments of 22 per cent. In both examples, twice as many WEEU parents perceived their children made at least average or at least above average progress compared with the assessments by teachers.

This seeming disparity between the parents and the teachers about the rate of progress is possibly explained by the comments made by some parents. For example parent PP08 commented:

I don't have any information about which topics my children are studying. For example, I don't know what my child has learnt in their history or mathematics, what should I do to help my child learning. I have no idea about my child's progress at school until parents evening - twice a year in November and May (Parent PP08, 2009).

Parent PP13 similarly had concerns about receiving information from the school about the work her child was doing at school and the rate of progress.

I've found there to be little or no communications between teachers and parents. I think parents should be kept up to date on the current topics, so I can monitor their progress (Parent PP13, 2009).

One parent was more content with the progress her child was making at school but expressed other concerns.

I am very pleased with the way my children are progressing at school. I have one slight concern that teachers are allowed to give children antibiotics. I think they should concentrate on teaching not medical issues (Parent PP27, 2009).

16.5 Comparing the English and Polish Education Systems

Parents responded to questions that addressed the differences between the education system in their home countries and the English system (Table 16:4).

Table 16:4:

The Responses by WEEU parents to Each Question as a Percentage of the Total Sample Comparison between the English and Home Country Education Systems				
	Home Country ⁽ⁱ⁾	England	The Same	Don't Know
Longest school hours	46	18	29	8
Most homework	58	17	17	8
Greatest pressure to achieve	65	12	5	18
Achieve better rates of progress	27	13	18	42
Promote the highest standards of attainment	18	10	22	49
Provides the better education system	18	17	13	52
Best education for children in the longer term	12	46	10	33

Source: Questionnaires 2009. n = Parents of 77 WEEU pupils. ⁽ⁱ⁾Home country includes Poland, and the Czech, Slovak and Hungarian Republics.

The high number of 'don't know' responses stands out as a feature of the comparison findings in Table 16:4. For example, approximately half of all parents were unable to comment about which education system produced the highest standards of attainment and was better overall. It is beyond doubt though that more than half of all parents considered that pupils received more home work and were under greater pressure to achieve in their WEEU home country than in England. The only area where the English school system was considered to be better was when a child's longer-term prospects were brought into the equation. Parent PP62 explained that "a good English education and being able to speak good English was a great advantage in the modern world" (2009). However, more parents commented about homework than any other single issue. For instance, three parents commented as follows:

I think homework should be more challenging because it is too easy and boring for my child (Parent PP03, 2009).

There is not enough homework, not enough academic knowledge, not challenging children's potential (Parent PP12, 2009).

There is no stress for the children at school, but they receive less homework than they would in Poland (Parent PP21, 2009).

It should be noted that not one parent commented that the pupils received too much homework. However, various views were expressed more generally about the different education systems. In the case of parent PP12, the differences were highlighted, whereas with parent PP14, the similarities stressed:

The English education system is totally different to the Polish one (Parent PP12, 2009)

My child is attending a Catholic school. The atmosphere in the school is nice.

The standard of teaching is similar to the schools in Poland (Parent PP14, 2009)

In an interview with a Polish parent, he summed up his feelings about the Polish and English systems quite succinctly:

In Poland teachers concentrate on teaching a class a set curriculum and do not care for individual children or their problems. There is more pressure on parents. We have to buy all the books, new books each year. In England teachers teach children and care about individual learning needs. We are much happier here and it is free in England (Parent PP62, 2009).

One Polish parent was positive about the work of the school her child attended and praised the discipline procedures, whilst another parent was less impressed with the state of discipline.

I am very pleased with the English schools. I like the fact that the children have to wear uniforms, and older children have to stay after school as a punishment for bad behaviour (Parent PP20).

Whereas parent PP01 added, "The only thing I am concerned with is the lack of discipline level" (2009).

During interviews with WEEU parents it became clear that their concerns for their children and their education covered a wide spectrum. For example, parent PP14 was worried about children swimming in winter:

The only problem I have is that children are allowed to go outside after swimming lesson with wet hair in winter, which makes them vulnerable to illness. I've addressed the situation with ... (school staff), but nothing had been done (Parent PP14, 2009).

However, one teacher submitted a written comment which would seem to address the same issue:

... also many families try to make rules for themselves rather than following rules already there e.g. won't let their children go swimming – do PE because they don't want them to get cold. They seem to be a law unto themselves and produces negativity (in the) school / with other local families (Teacher T1214, 2009).

16.6 Polish Schools in England

One of the case study schools raised the issue that Polish pupils attended Polish schools in England at weekends and they were given homework. The school was concerned that these weekend schools were teaching the children different methods in mathematics and placing the children under greater pressure. The findings revealed that 45 per cent of Polish pupils enrolled at case study schools attended a Polish school on a Saturday for four hours. The curriculum covered the Polish language, religion and Polish history. The children were required to complete between one and four hours of homework per week. The only comment about the Polish school in England made by a WEEU parent was expressed clearly, "Polish school in England is a disaster, I have decided to teach my children at home" (Parent PP12, 2009).

16.7 Conclusion

Overall, the WEEU parents viewed their children's English school performance more positively than the teachers. They also reported positively about their children's performance in the Polish schools.

Some initial difficulties were experienced by WEEU parents in finding an English school for their children to attend. However, without exception, the parents reported that they were welcomed into the schools. Communicating with staff presented fewer problems than might be expected considering that nearly all the WEEU parents had a very limited command of the English language when they first arrived in the country.

The number of WEEU pupils arriving in England and attending the case study schools increased after the opening of the borders to A8 EU Member States in 2004. Indeed, the numbers arriving increased in each successive year from 2005. Some pupils found the transition from Poland to England and an English school difficult, but most (66 per cent) were perceived by parents to find it an easy process. Pupils who were unhappy about the move to an English school soon settled into their new schools. Just over half of all parents considered that their children had become fully integrated into the life and work of the English school in under one year, although the teachers assessed that it took longer for most pupils. In addition, the findings suggest that the WEEU pupils mixed socially with children from other national and ethnic groups.

The education systems of the countries of origin (Home Country) were perceived by parents to place more demands upon their children than the English system. However, the consensus among the WEEU parents was that an English education was better in the longer term for their children.

Chapter 17

Meetings, Interviews and Discussions

17.1 Introduction

A single decision in 2004 by the UK government proved to be the catalyst that created “the largest peacetime migration in our history” (Finch and Goodhart, 2010) that took place within a four year period. This migration had far reaching implications for the UK and the A8 countries. Indeed, the changing circumstances in education that motivated this research can be traced back to this one decision. Some aspects of the impact of this decision upon the education services are highlighted in Chapters 10 to 16.

This chapter commences by reporting the findings from the study into the decision made by the government and continues by examining the consequences of that decision by means of interviews, meetings and discussions with politicians and senior officials. References are made to pertinent reports for the purpose of clarification and completeness. This section of the research was divided into five distinct, but interrelated, areas and focused on:

1. the reasons for the decision of the government in 2004 and the evidence or advice on which the decision was based;
2. the unreliability of the migration data, as revealed in Chapters 4 and 5, and their influence upon predictions and retrospective analysis reports that guided policy and influenced public perceptions about EU migration flows;
3. the understanding of policy makers of the reality of the A8 migration, both in number and impact;
4. the impact of the 2004 decision in the UK upon A8 countries, especially their education services;
5. the terminology used for a European Union citizen migrating from one Member State to another and its implications for future migration.

17.2 The Decision to Open the UK Borders to A8 Nationals Without Transitional Controls

The possible reasons why the government determined to open the borders in 2004 to the A8 countries without any controls are discussed in Chapters 2 and 4. However, a discussion³² in 2009 with Alan Johnson, the Home Secretary, Chris Grayling, the Shadow Home Secretary and Chris Huhne, the Liberal Democrat Home Affairs spokesman, provided the opportunity to raise issues that were pertinent to the research in general and related specifically to the 2004 decision and the impact that the decision had upon education services.

³² Details: Chapter 8.

The government's prediction for migration numbers from the A8 countries was raised and first commented on by Chris Huhne:

... government projected that there would be 52,000 migrants in four years coming from the A8 countries and it ended up being 766,000 over four years. Probably a good candidate to be the worst government forecast ever put on paper ... on the basis of that forecast, I think it was absolutely crazy (to decide to have an open border policy for A8 countries from 2004) (Huhne, 2009).

Alan Johnson agreed that the forecast was wrong, but opined that the inflow of migrants was good for the economy at the time. Chris Grayling followed this statement with a well considered question:

Are you saying then that the government deliberately took the decision not to do what France and Germany and other countries did, which was to have a controlled system, and as such to have an uncontrolled system because you wanted a substantial influx of migrants from Eastern Europe? (Grayling, 2009)

Alan Johnson responded:

Of course, that was the argument at the time. We said the economy has got jobs available for such workers and we have a Worker Registration Scheme, which still applies to accession countries, so we know who is coming over here (Johnson, 2009).

The purpose and the reliability of the Worker Registration Scheme as a method of measuring A8 migration is discussed in Chapter 4 and below. Huhne responded to the Johnson's remarks:

Your forecast was massively out. So to say, look the forecast is what we based policy on (and this) was the right policy to do, then to say well actually it turned out to be 1373 per cent higher than our forecast, but it was still the right thing to do, seems to me to be beggaring belief ... the government has now not relaxed the rules (transitional) for Romania and Bulgaria and that is an admission that it got it wrong to begin with (Huhne, 2009).

Alan Johnson responded, "Well obviously we got the forecast wrong...". He reiterated that the decision was made for what were considered at the time to be good economic reasons and that is why the government encouraged the inflow of migrants from Eastern Europe. However, there was a general consensus that the massive unexpected inflow from Eastern Europe had placed considerable pressure on public services, including education.

Consequently, the increase in immigration has been to put pressure on our public services ... our primary schools for example are dealing with a significant challenge of levels of immigration(Grayling, 2009).

Public services were not prepared for the influx ... the government did not put in place any measures that should have been put in place to absorb that number of migrants ... it was completely taken by surprise, because the forecast was so wrong ... the reality is that policing, NHS, education and lots of central government grants are based on figures from particular parts of the census and the reality is massively different (Huhne, 2009).

This discourse, in response to the question about the decision to open fully the UK borders in 2004 to A8 citizens, provided some interesting statements and acknowledgements of mistakes made. At a separate meeting³³ Matt Cavanagh, the special adviser in the Labour government from 2003 to 2010, advising on migration issues for the Home Secretary, Chancellor, and Prime Minister, responded to the issue of uncontrolled borders for A8 citizens from 2004:

Despite staying out of the Schengen system, when it came to accession in 2004, the UK took the stance at the liberal end on EU migration what I am interested in is the lasting political effect, which was definitely negative and the lesson I take from this is that supporters of liberal minority policies need to engage in the public debate much more realistically and in a politically aware manner. It is no longer good enough, if it ever was, for the experts to say trust me (Cavanagh, 2010).

17.3 Migration Measuring Procedures

The previous section established beyond doubt that the decision to open the UK borders to A8 countries was based on incorrect migration predictions. This section focuses on the question of the reliability and integrity of the official migration estimates and the predictions and conclusions that are based on them.

As previously discussed in Chapter 8, in 2011 a small group of specialists in the field of European economics and migration was invited to the Polish Embassy in London³⁴. The

³³ Reception at the Polish Embassy, May 2011.

³⁴ Reception at the Embassy of the Republic of Poland by invitation of the Ambassadors of the Federal Republic of Germany and the Republic of Poland, May 2011.

purpose of the meeting was to bring together those with specialist knowledge in this area to discuss developing trends. This provided the opportunity to raise the issues highlighted in the research about the reliability of migration data and its use. After wide-ranging discussions that in most cases relied upon estimates of migration numbers, an open address was made by this researcher that posed a question based on the research findings. In general terms, the statement covered the following:

Today we have heard many different estimates of the movement of peoples (A8 WEEU) and each debate has been dependent on migration estimates, including the detailed economic modelling from the NIESR... my concern is whether you are all using the same estimate, because if not then there is a serious conflict in what you are saying. For example, the IPPR³⁵ Associate Director stated there were 400,000 Polish people living in the UK. In contrast, a few months ago in this same room in this embassy, the Ambassador stated that the Polish government had announced there were 550,000 Polish people living in the UK. In a few months we have lost 150,000 Polish people, a difference of approximately 37 per cent. Further, if we look at the way England measures migration, the British Parliamentary Select Committee (Treasury) looked at the way in which the Office for National Statistics (ONS) measured migration and concluded that it was not fit for purpose. Similarly, the International Passenger Survey was deemed unfit for measuring migration. Two home secretaries relied on the Worker Registration Scheme to estimate A8 migration, although the WRS data were totally contradicted by the National Insurance registrations, which exceeded one and a half million. If we recognise the large variations in

³⁵ The Institute for Public Policy Research

the A8 migration estimates, then the conclusions expressed today and the economic modelling we have seen become unreliable because of the inherent inconsistency – based on inaccurate and widely varying estimates. The questionable UK (population and migration) data are sent to Eurostat³⁶ – Eurostat data are only a collection of what Member States submit ... If, as in the case of the UK, they are unreliable, how can we rely on Eurostat datasets and the research, prediction and conclusions that are based on them? Overall, it is difficult to know what to conclude from all that has been discussed today (Ian H Jones, 2011).

The director of the ONS responded:

I can comment on that. I don't have an answer for Professor (*sic*) Jones, but I can comment that he is quite right ... the figures are inconsistent a snapshot in time. The Treasury Select Committee was quite right to say that migration data were wrong, it is not fit for purpose ... Unless you have border controls and count people in and count people out you are never going to do it. We do not have a population register in this country. You don't have to call in at the police station to say I have moved into the country ... you can move about in this country with absolute freedom ... Mr Jones is quite right there are lots of different sources of migration data in this country, comparing one country with another is even worse. I don't have an answer for the moment (Director, ONS, 2011).

³⁶ **Eurostat** is a Directorate-General of the European Commission located in Luxembourg. Its main responsibilities are to provide the European Union with statistical information at European level and to promote the integration of statistical methods across the Member States of the European Union, candidate countries and EFTA countries

The senior researcher at the NIESR, who also heads the division of Macroeconomic Projections for the National Bank of Poland and is a visiting researcher at the Max Plank Institute of Economics, Germany, stated:

I entirely agree (with Mr Jones) that the data issue is very important and it does vary a lot – there are three main data sources that we can potentially use. We decided to use Eurostat population data on population stocks by citizenship as the coverage of this source is the finest. There are so many missing observations of data on other Eurostat sources (Tatiana Fic, NIESR, 2011).

17.4 UK Politicians

The unreliable nature of the migration data was a specific focus for the interviews with UK politicians. However, one common feature stood out above all others during each contact, discussion or interview with Members of the UK or European Parliaments. In general terms, the politicians exhibited a lack of confidence in their understanding of the issues surrounding A8 migration and its resulting impact. This was all the more surprising because of their political backgrounds, which were, or had been, linked to education and/or Europe.

For example, a member of the House of Lords who sat on the Lord's Select Committee on the European Community, who had previously held the positions of Secretary of State for Education and Paymaster General, amongst other senior ministerial and shadow positions, gave generously of her time to talk on the telephone. However, eventually concluded, 'I don't feel I could contribute much as this is not really my

subject ... something about which I know so little'. Similarly, the shadow Minister for Europe was unable to add anything new to the research. Further, a member of the European Parliament provided considerable support and guidance, but was unwilling to be questioned directly about A8 migration and its impact. An interview with a senior Member of Parliament, now in the House of Lords, confirmed there to be little general understanding of the reality of A8 migration, in both number and impact. Indeed, this MP was most shocked by the research findings that illustrated the changing ethnic composition of case study schools. He followed up the interview by writing to the then shadow Minister for Education to inform him of the findings.

The political contacts did not provide a wealth of new knowledge that enlivened, enriched and expanded the understanding of A8 migration and its impact. However, and more importantly, the non-answers spoke a thousand words. They revealed a lack of knowledge about this subject that powerfully reinforced the statement made by John Denham (Secretary of State) when commenting on A8 migration, "The entire government system proved unable to provide ministers with timely and reliable analysis of what has actually happened across the UK ... In my experience, government did a poor job of understanding these vital local impacts" (Denham, 2010, pp. 24-25).

17.5 Impact on A8 Countries

Approximately three and a half years after the UK government opened its borders to the citizens of the A8 countries, interviews were conducted with officers and officials of education authorities in three of the eight accession Member States. All EU A8 Member States were contacted and involved in exploratory discussions and preliminary

telephone interviews. Latvia, Poland and Hungary were selected to take part in the research because they were willing and able to provide the required information and represented a geographical and political spread across Eastern and Central Europe. The purpose of the interviews was to explore the impact of the UK government's open border policy upon these countries and their education services. Table 8.2 sets out details of the A8 case study Member States.

To place each education system in context, interviews began with a discussion that included areas such as political and administrative systems, finance, management structures, accountability and the school curriculums. This also enabled comparisons to be drawn with the English education system.

A number of areas of concern were common to all Member States. First, all interviewees raised concerns over the lack of finance available for education. In all cases, education was funded by a combination of national and local money. However, it is interesting to note this same issue of insufficient funding was raised by each case study authority in England. That said, in Europe it was explained that parents were often expected to contribute to their children's education. This point was illustrated by the Polish Director of Education:

We do not get enough money from the government. The rest of the money comes from local income. Krakow receives about 800 million (PLN/Zloty = 172 million GBP³⁷) from the government, but must find 200 million (PLN/Zloty = 43 million GBP) locally and this includes the kindergartens. Parents must pay extra each year for books and resources. A third source of money comes from the

³⁷ The conversion rate for the Polish Zloty (PLN) to GBP in 2007 was approximately 1 PLN = 0.22 GBP. This rate was broadly the same in 2011.

parents. The school board of parents have their own account and they manage it. They raise money for the school, which is not marked money. This is not compulsory. Some headteachers put pressure on parents to raise money, which is officially not allowed. This results in some schools being richer than others (Director of Education, Poland, 2007)

The authorities did not consider that the process of funding had changed since the 2004 accession. However, all commented that their country's education qualifications had to be brought into line with the standards of the EU 15 countries. Only in Hungary could interviewees recall receiving EU grants to support education.

The second common issue raised was the very large and quite sudden emigration of their nationals to the UK and Ireland. The Budapest Head of Education commented:

We are a small country with a small population³⁸ so those migrating to England and Ireland have little impact there when compared with the arrival of the large number of Polish nationals, but for Hungary, the impact is very great. Many professionals have moved west, including doctors and dentists. There are fewer students here now wanting to go to university. They have gone to the UK to earn good money. We have lost many of our students from Budapest. But our school population has not declined as might be expected because those leaving have been replaced by Roma children coming from Rumania ... the Roma³⁹ claim they are Hungarian because their predecessors once came from areas that are now part of Hungary ... if they say they are Hungarian, then they are

³⁸ The population of Hungary was estimated to be approximately 10 million in 2007.

³⁹ European Commission (2008): The Roma people comprise about 10 million EU citizens and are the poorest minority in Europe. Roma education is one of the most challenging and complicated issues in European social and educational policies (Page 10).

Hungarian. This is a major social problem for us. They form Roma ghettos with their own rules and culture ... they present many challenges for teachers and other pupils ... we must stop them forming ghettos⁴⁰ ... we need integration, not separation (Head of Education, Hungary, 2008).

A similar picture of declining populations was described in Latvia and the problems that it created. It was said that each year the population decreased by the equivalent of one large village or town. The unexpected and rapid decrease was claimed to be due to the open border policy of the UK and Ireland. It was stated that many teachers had migrated to England and Ireland and this was adding to the teacher shortage. One school was quoted where fifteen children had left because their parents had moved to Ireland. It was seen that schools were affected in two main ways by the migration. First, families, including children, were emigrating and this influenced school numbers and budgets and in some cases threatened the viability of schools. Secondly, children were being left with grandparents or other family members, whilst their parents were working in the UK or Ireland. This created educational and social problems. It was noted that the previous holder of the post of the Head of Education Administration in Riga had emigrated along with her family.

The Polish Director stated that it was estimated that in all three million Polish nationals had emigrated between 2004 and 2006. This was for all Polish nationals, including dependants, not just workers. He reported an instance in 2006 when recruiters came offering waitressing jobs with high salaries and free accommodation to senior school students. This was one and a half months before their matriculation examinations.

⁴⁰ This phenomenon was recognised in the Green Paper – European Commission in 2009. It concluded: 'The presence of large concentrations of migrant pupils can intensify tendencies towards socio-economic or residential segregation. This may lead to the creation of "ghetto" schools or a shift in favour of private schools' (European Commission, 2009b).

Many students migrated, which had the effect of deflating the examination results and, as a consequence, the city municipality failing to reach its expected targets. He commented:

This is impossible to resolve in Poland. A waitress in Poland earns about 5 PLN per hour (£1.10), but in England can earn between 25 and 28 PLN (£5.50 - £6.10) per hour and get free accommodation. We are losing skills to England ... (it creates) much trouble. In the building industry we have no builders and plumbers left ... I cannot find a plumber now. Young parents emigrate with their children ... eighteen to twenty year olds particularly emigrate. The declining population reduces the number of teachers and other staff. Many young people migrated to England who would have gone on to higher education. They earn good money in lower skilled jobs. The politicians wanted to close the vocational building school because there were fewer applicants (Director of Education, Poland, 2007).

In each country, the challenges in education were linked to the open border policy of the UK and Ireland. The Polish Director considered that a transitional and managed migration process in line with other EU15 Member States would have avoided many of the difficulties that he and his country were facing. When asked whether he would like to move to England, he replied that he just might have moved with his family if the current opportunities had existed when he was younger.

The interviewees in each country were asked if they recorded the number of pupils and students who had migrated to the UK and Ireland since the 2004 accession. The Polish Director stated that there were no records kept. The municipality dealt with total

numbers, economic units. A pupil who moved to another area in Poland and one who moved to England were simply one less pupil. A similar response was provided in Latvia. It was stated that if a pupil left a school, there was no record kept of where the child went. It was felt that schools knew if pupils have migrated to England or Ireland, but no formal record was kept. In Hungary it was reported that there was no school census as in England and that there were no central records of pupils who moved abroad.

This does raise a different issue, but one of considerable concern. From these interviews, it would seem quite possible for a child to just disappear from all official records and be taken to any Member State within the Schengen area, from north of the Arctic Circle to the Black sea, without let or hindrance.

Overall, there was a great consistency in the messages received from the three A8 Member States. It was clear that each country had experienced a sudden decline in the number of their nationals attending schools in their area. This was claimed to be due to migration to the UK and Ireland. The education authorities could not provide information about the actual number of pupils who had left or whether the numbers were increasing, decreasing or stabilising. This was because no formal records of pupils migrating were kept. However, it was estimated by each authority that the numbers of pupils migrating was continuing to increasing. Only Hungary was experiencing both an immigration and emigration of pupils. The A8 migration was considered to be creating both social and educational challenges for the education service and society at large.

17.6 Definition

The interviews and formal discussions revealed some general confusion and strong views about the terms 'emigration', 'immigration' and 'immigrant' in respect of EU citizens moving from one Member State to another. Part of the confusion came from the legal status of EU citizens. All nationals of EU Member States are first and foremost legally citizens of the European Union. This legal status was made tangible by the introduction of a common European Union passport.

In discussion with Jan Kraus, the European Commission Representative in London, he expressed strong objections to the term 'immigrant' being applied to citizens of one EU Member State moving residents to another Member State. He commented:

The end of restrictions on the movement (of EU citizens between EU Member States) is a cause of celebration ... the freedom of movement is a fundamental principle of the EU..... I do not consider members of the Member States as immigrants ... they are EU citizens and it is their right to be here (in the UK) or to be in any other Member State (Jan Kraus, EU Commission Representative, 2011).

This view is well supported by documentation produced by the European Union. For example, the 2009 publication 'Council conclusions on the education of children with a migrant background' states:

The term '*with a migrant background*' will be used particularly to describe the children of all persons living in an EU country where they were not born, irrespective of whether they are third-country nationals, citizens of another EU

Member State or subsequently become nationals of the host Member State (Council of the European Union, 2009, p. 3).

From these two sources, interview and publication, it would seem clear that the term immigrant is not an accepted term in the context of the European Union. However, in a major report commissioned by the European Commission's Directorate-General for Education and Culture, published in 2008 and entitled 'Education and Migration strategies for integrating migrant children in European schools and societies'⁴¹, the term *migrant* and *immigrant* was used throughout. In fact, in 2009, at the behest of the European Commission, the Eurydice Network produced a report entitled 'Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe'. In this document it set down the terminology to be used:

This document talks about immigrant children, who are defined here as either children born in another country (within or outside Europe) or children whose parents or grandparents were born in another country. So the term 'immigrant children' used here covers various situations, which can be referred to in other contexts as 'newly-arrived children', 'migrant children' or 'children of immigrant backgrounds' (Eurydice, 2009, p. 3).

These comments raise the important issue of 1st and 2nd generation migrant pupils and have huge implications for education. However, it would seem from the above that the European Union does not have an agreed terminology for describing a 'migrant' child, whether moving residence within the European Union or to an EU Member State from a country outside the EU.

⁴¹ Report available from reference: Council of the European Union, 2009.

17.7 Conclusion:

The findings suggest that the UK government opened its borders without controls to A8 citizens in 2004 with the intention of encouraging large scale migration from Eastern and Central Europe to Britain. This decision was driven by perceived economic needs and was based on migration predictions that were grossly flawed and underestimated the migration numbers by at least 1373 per cent. Consequently, there were no systems or preparations put in place for the management of such a massive inward migration. The systems employed by the ONS to inform the government of inward and outward migration were unfit for purpose. The migration estimates produced by the ONS did not reflect reality and underestimated the numbers of A8 citizens arriving. Consequently, public services, such as education, were professionally unprepared to cope with the new challenges.

The inaccurate estimates were sent to the European Commission (Eurostat). When combined with data from other Member States, the datasets provided European population estimates, which were claimed to have many missing observations⁴². The resulting datasets were used by research institutions to produce analyses and projections about economic, social and population trends on which EU and national policies were based.

The unavailability of any reliable migration data in the UK contributed to politicians at all levels having no clear perception of migration flows or their impact on services and

⁴² European Commission (2008): Official statistics on education in European countries make comparison difficult and less informative than might be expected. Countries use different group categories when collecting school data on, for example, citizenship, minority group status (including citizens and non-citizens), or first language pupils. In addition, due to system differences many structural features of national education are not comparable (page 12).

society. It is a matter of concern that successive home secretaries believed that the Worker Registration Scheme provided accurate information about the number of A8 migrants coming to the UK. Indeed, it raises concerns about the professional advice they were receiving about the integrity and scope of the WRS⁴³

The decision made by the UK government, based on inaccurate predictions, was claimed by A8 Member States to have resulted in both social and educational challenges that had a detrimental effect upon their education services. Finally, the European Commission, through its official representative, was promoting the EU free movement principle for all European citizens and the fact that as citizens of Europe they cannot be classed as immigrants or emigrants when moving from one Member State to another.

⁴³ Chapter 4 Section 3 details the unreliability of the WRS.

Chapter 18

Discussion and Conclusions

18.1 Introduction

This chapter briefly summaries the research findings in the context of the wider literature and explores the extent to which they contribute to an improved understanding of the issues raised in the introductory chapter. Additionally, it considers critically the research process, its limitations and the key results and suggests areas for further research and action.

This thesis is based on research that was broad at its inception and complex in its structure. This was necessary because at the time of commencement there was little, if any, pertinent literature published or credible data available that directly related to post 2004 A8 migration and, consequently, the research question. As described in Chapter 8, the UK borders had been open to A8 citizens for barely three years at the commencement of the research. The dearth of knowledge in the wider and specific aspects of this study meant that there was an abundance of ‘silent evidence’ Taleb (2010) that pervaded and undermined all aspects of the topic and threatened the validity of finely focussed research studies and their conclusions.

However, within the breadth of the research, detailed and focused data gathering and analysis, together with studies at individual pupil and teacher level, were conducted that provided a deeper understanding of the broader and specific issues and, unexpectedly, exposed the fallibility of the official published data.

The previous chapters have discussed the different aspects of the research in detail. Chapters 2 to 6 together form Part 1 of the thesis and comprise an analytical interrogation of the literature enabling a framework to be developed in which to contextualise the studies. The conclusions from this section are summarised in Chapter 7 along with the implications for this research.

The main conclusions for all aspects of the research are drawn out in this chapter within the context of the research questions. From these conclusions, the principal findings are raised and evaluated.

This was in essence exploratory research employing both quantitative and qualitative data gathered from questionnaires, interviews and analysis at international, national, local, school and pupil level to provide an evidence base with which to address the research questions.

18.2 Definition of an Immigrant

Establishing the correct terminology for an EU citizen moving residence to another EU Member State was not a research question. However, it was important to ensure that

the thesis employed the accepted terminology, particularly as this indicates the legal and social status of an EU citizen resident in another EU state. An example of this might be whether a Polish national 'emigrates' from Poland and becomes an 'immigrant' in the UK or whether, as an EU citizen, he or she is simply moving from one geographical area to another, as is the case for a citizen of the USA moving from one state to another. The issue here concerns whether the EU is a union of independent nations or a 'superstate', a United States of Europe. Such status has wide ranging and profound implications for education services.

The findings show that there is currently no standard definition within the EU as a whole, with variations evident between Member States. The use of both the 'jus sanguinis' and 'jus soli' principles within the EU adds significantly to the confusion (Chapter 2). The European Commission made clear that a citizen of the EU moving residence from one Member State to another is not an immigrant, but a citizen of Europe moving home and exercising his or her EU right to free movement (Chapter 17). Whilst not a surprising response from the European Commission, the potential implications for this assertion are clear. For example, persons moving from a country outside the EU, such as Canada or Nigeria, to Britain would be classed as immigrants, but if they attain British nationality, and with it EU citizenship, and moved to France, it would seem that they would not be classed as immigrants in France. The implications stretch to the education services where in some cases 'immigrant' or pupils of 'immigrant backgrounds' can attract extra financial and teaching support.

Such 'labels' become important when employed to categorise pupils into groups for a range of purposes. These include allocating special targeted support, monitoring and

assessing progress and attainment, providing comparison statistics and calculating projections for planning and policy. If an EU citizen moving to the UK is not to be classed as an 'immigrant' then this would have an interesting and intriguing impact on the UK's immigration statistics, whether gross or net⁴⁴.

Main Conclusions: The research finds that there is considerable confusion about defining EU citizens moving residence from one Member State to another. The European Commission does not consider such citizens as emigrants or immigrants. The current confusion impacts upon education services.

18.3 Research Questions

Question 1:

What motivated the UK government in 2004 to open its borders fully to A8 nationals without implementing transitional arrangements, and was any consideration given to the implications of this decision for the education service?

The literature review recounts the historical struggle of successive governments to cope with the persistent, unpredictable and often irresolvable challenges presented by immigration in all its multifaceted forms (Chapter 2). The quote by Callaghan (Chapter 6) summed up the situation when he concluded that every Home Secretary since Rab Butler had been scorched by the flame of immigration. The findings show, though, that

⁴⁴ **Net** migration is the difference between immigration and emigration. For example, Zero Net Migration (ZNM) means that no more people entered than left. A country's net migration would drop if the people emigrating increased faster than the increase in those immigrating. **Gross** migration is the total number of immigrants or emigrants. For example, Zero Gross Immigration (ZGI) means that the actual inflow was zero – there were no immigrants.

governments encouraged immigration for economic reasons. However, they endeavoured to calm voters' predictable disquiet at the influxes by claiming that Britain was a nation enriched by a long history of immigration. What is clear from the findings, though, is that economically-driven decisions to encourage immigration, for example in the 1950s, had far-reaching consequences, particularly for education and, politically, for the electability of the government responsible for the decision (Chapter 3).

There is no disputing the fact that the British government decided to open the borders to Eastern and Central Europe without transitional controls from April 2004. Research findings show conclusively that the decision was made for economic reasons. The findings further reveal that it was the clear intention of the government to encourage large-scale immigration from the A8 Member States. Moreover, the government based the decision on flawed predictions that massively underestimated the eventual inflow by more than one thousand per cent (Chapter 17). In retrospect, this could well be considered a highly reckless decision. Lemos and Portes (2008) concluded that from the decision "The resulting large, rapid and concentrated migration inflow can be seen as a natural experiment that arguably corresponds closely to an exogenous supply shock" (P. 2). Moreover, in 2009 the Migration Advisory Committee concluded that the decision contributed to "a serious disturbance to the UK labour market" (MAC, 2009).

The findings suggest that this 'experiment' had major consequences that reverberated throughout the A8 countries and the United Kingdom, impacting in a myriad of unpredicted and unplanned ways. The decision brought challenges to the education services of the United Kingdom and the A8 Member States, as revealed by the research findings (Chapters 9 to 17). Additionally, it brought political problems for the

government, which, like many governments before, endeavoured to justify the large-scale immigration on grounds of economic necessity and historical precedents. This last point is well illustrated in Chapter 2 where Brown as Chancellor of the Exchequer is quoted, "... Britain's uniquely rich, open and outward looking culture is a direct consequence of its history of successive waves of invasions, immigration, assimilation and trading partnerships" (Brown 2006).

The findings show that the open border decision did have a direct impact upon many aspects of the education services. In essence, the consequential challenges for education repeated history, but this time the impact was much greater and more widely felt. However, there is no evidence that the government ever considered the potential impact on the education service of encouraging large-scale immigration, or put in place any supportive financial or training programmes to limit the detrimental consequences of its decision. The need for this support is evident from the research findings showing that of the teachers surveyed 98 per cent had no formal training or qualification for teaching EAL and 90 per cent found it difficult or very difficult to communicate with newly-arrived WEEU pupils. (Chapter 15).

Main Conclusions: The decision to open the UK borders to A8 citizens in 2004 was based on flawed predictions and was designed to encourage large-scale immigration for economic reasons perceived as appropriate at the time. The resulting magnitude and pace of the migration was totally unexpected, unplanned and uncontrolled and impacted upon the education services of both the A8 countries and the United Kingdom. No evidence was found to suggest that the government at any time considered the potential consequences of its open-border policy upon education

services. When the impact became evident, it failed to provide credible financial or training programmes to support schools and teachers with the new challenges which they were ill-equipped to manage.

Question 2:

(i) What systems were employed to produce estimates of the UK population and its changing ethnic characteristics and to calculate the magnitude and flow rate of immigration, particularly in respect of A8 nationals?

(ii) What systems were employed nationally and locally to calculate the character and ethnic composition of the school population, particularly those of WEEU pupils?

(iii) Additionally, how credible were the school and population enumerations and the migration figures that were produced and what impact did their validity have upon education services, especially schools and pupils?

It is quite clear from the very detailed research analysis of all population and migration measuring systems that, without exception, they were unfit for the purpose of providing accurate up-to-date enumerations of the population of England, its current and developing trends and its characteristics (Chapter 4). Additionally, no systems designed for or capable of producing credible migration statistics were in place (Chapters 4 and 17). Indeed, the complex array of migration measuring systems could well be described pictorially as an ill-fitting patchwork of best guesses, cobbled together by worn threads of necessity, to produce a desultory quilt of misleading and inaccurate estimates and predictions.

It is of concern that governments employed these estimates to inform major policy decisions and influence public perceptions about both the size and also their management of immigration. For example, the thesis records that two home secretaries, Jacqui Smith and Alan Johnson, both held that they knew how many A8 nationals were coming to the UK because of the WRS (Smith source: APL, 2009; Johnson, Ch.17.2). This scheme is shown to be unfit for this purpose by the research studies and, moreover, by the UK Border Agency, a section of the Home Office, which wrote, “The number of applicants to the WRS does not represent a measurement of net immigration to the UK” (Chapter 4:3- Home Office, 2009a).

Chapters 5 and 12 show that the school census should in theory constitute an accurate and up-to-date record of all pupils attending English maintained schools (Education Act 1996: § 537A). Indeed, the Department for Education requires there to be “... zero errors on the Census returns” (Chapter 5 – DfE, 2010a, p. 17)). Simply put, the pupils represent a ‘captive’ and known population and, in theory at least, it should be possible for schools to complete the census returns accurately. However, the studies found that the census returns were inherently flawed, with an authority’s data easily skewed by the erroneous submissions of one or two schools (Chapter 12). The confusion of ethnic categorisation, even at DfE and LA level, further undermined the credibility of the resulting data (Chapters 5 and 12). The research exposure of the flawed school census data brings to light the lack of any effective monitoring or quality assurance of the system. This puts the system at risk of manipulation. Moreover, one LA reported how schools in their area that had become Academies and independent of the LA were still contacting it for advice about completing the census as they had nowhere else to go. This raises interesting issues about where Academies and Free Schools will attain such

guidance and support for this and other important issues and what procedures will be introduced to ensure that census responses have 'zero errors'.

The implications of the dubious data conjured from national and school census returns are considerable and impact upon schools and national and local education departments. Indeed, they are used to inform short and long-term planning, policy decisions, the Ofsted inspection database, assessment judgements and funding and resource allocations as well as recording pupil characteristics such as ethnicity (Ch.5.4), SEN (Ch.5.3) and Gifted and Talented (Ch.5.2). The school census represents the official window on each school and each pupil; it is the management heart of the education system.

Main Conclusions: The systems for measuring and categorising the national population and the migration in and out of the United Kingdom are unfit for purpose and fail to provide accurate and timely enumerations. The school census does not produce an accurate account of the characteristics of school populations. Further, the ethnic classification of pupils is met by many schools and LAs with an endemic bewilderment, which leads to incorrect values being assigned, incorrect data computation and amalgamation processes being employed and the production of inaccurate enumerations. The lack of precision and any monitoring procedures puts the school census process at risk of manipulation, undermining all systems, including Ofsted judgements, that rely on its outcomes.

Question 3:

Did the A8 migration vary from previous migration flows and what impact did any variations have upon the education services?

The literature review revealed that each immigration flow had its own unique set of characteristics and each presented different challenges for education services (Chapter 2 and 3). The settlement patterns of each migration flow were shown to be a major determinant of the intensity of the challenges faced by education services. With the exception of the Chinese (Parker, 1995; Winder, 2008), migrants tended to follow a chain migration process, establishing clannish settlements in specific urban locations and forming close immigrant communities (Peach and Rossiter, 1996; Phillips and Phillips, 1999; Swift, 2002). This resulted in the very uneven distribution of immigrant children to schools (Hawkes, 1966). In contrast, the research studies found that A8 migrant pupils (WEEU) did not follow this established settlement pattern. Indeed, the findings show that in each year from 2004 the WEEU pupil settlement pattern became geographically more dispersed and spread to areas where previously there had been few migrant pupils of any description (Chapter 11).

The magnitude and pace of each migration flow prior to 2004 is detailed in Chapter 2. Historically, the peacetime migrations commenced at a rather gentle pace and took many years to reach their zenith (Winder, 2008). Here again, the research analysis of all the various sources of A8 migration data clearly indicates that the numbers and speed of WEEU arrivals far exceeded any previous immigration flow. The case study schools were ill-equipped to meet the challenges presented by such a large and unexpected influx of non-English-speaking pupils. This aspect is discussed more fully below.

Main Conclusion: The migration of A8 nationals to the UK following the 2004 open border policy was the largest and fastest peacetime inward migration in the history of the British Isles. Further, the research shows that A8 nationals settled widely, often in areas where previously there had been few foreign-born migrants. This settlement pattern impacted on schools that were ill-equipped to meet the challenge.

Question 4:

What were the variations in the ethnic composition of the school population between 2003 and 2010 and what impact did the A8 migration have upon these variations?

The research analysis investigated the changing ethnic composition of English primary schools from 2003 to 2010 at national, LA and school levels (Chapters 10 and 11). However, the somewhat irreconcilable outcomes at LA and school level dictated that a further study was necessary at individual pupil level. A very meticulous analysis of school and LA school census data covering seven consecutive years was undertaken. This analysis reviewed the ethnic group at individual pupil level across the case study LA (Chapter 12). In effect, the findings revealed patterns that showed that schools experienced considerable difficulty in matching individual pupils to the correct ethnic group or were content to place pupils in catch-all ethnic categories, such as White Other or Refused, rather than establishing the correct category.

Although the overall findings raised concerns about the reliability of these datasets, the size of the national sample at 27 million pupil returns, covering eight successive years,

enabled some general and, in most cases, compelling patterns of ethnic trends to emerge. However, these were interpreted with great caution, albeit forming a good comparator for the research-generated data about WEEU pupils (Chapter 9).

The main findings showed that nationally the All White and White British categories of pupils declined and the Minority Ethnic population increased in each successive year. At national level, the White Other⁴⁵ (WOTH) category of pupils also increased. The systematic interrogation of the National Insurance registrations by nationality strongly suggested that this increase was linked to the arrival of WEEU pupils (Chapter 9).

The analysis of data from each case study LA is discussed fully in Chapter 10, together with an analysis of their combined data. The characteristics of the combined LA populations closely mirrored those revealed nationally. The analysis of case study LAs established that the WEEU pupil percentage share of the primary school population increased substantially, and in the most extreme case by nearly 700 per cent. The rural LAs recorded the highest percentage increases, although one outer city borough recorded an increase in excess of 200 per cent. In one case study LA a much more probing analysis of the census return from each school within the LA took place. This again reflected the national pattern of ethnic variation. Indeed, it revealed that the WEEU population increased each year faster than any other ethnic category in the recorded history of the LA. Further, it showed that Catholic Voluntary Aided Schools educated proportionately more WEEU pupils than any other status of school. However, and most importantly, the analysis revealed patterns of ethnic variation that could not

⁴⁵ WEEU pupils are subsumed within the WOTH category and cannot be identified as a discrete group at national or LA levels.

be reconciled with any theoretical models. These unexpected findings provoked a fresh analysis of the data, but extended it from school census returns to individual pupil level records (Chapter 12 and Section 18.4 above). Here all pupils recorded in a previous census year were reviewed by identifying each pupil to establish their ethnic background beyond all reasonable doubt. This study revealed the large-scale inaccuracies in the official data returns (Ch.12. Fig. 12:1 and 12:2).

Main Conclusions: The national LA census datasets record that the White British population declined, whilst the Minority Ethnic increased consistently over the study period. The number of WEEU pupils increased following the A8 accession in 2004 at a faster rate than any other major category. The school census does not produce accurate and credible data, especially in regard to the ethnic categorisation of pupils; this impacts upon the efficient and effective management of the education service, schools and pupils.

Question 5:

What was the impact of the A8 migration upon the education services of the A8 Member States and English primary schools and how did this impact upon education compare with previous migration flows?

The literature review recounts how the migration flows from the Caribbean and Asia presented schools with new challenges that they were initially unable to meet (Hawkes, 1966). Public disquiet at the effect of immigration upon schools spurred the government of the time into taking mollifying actions. Policies were introduced, Acts were passed, targeted financial support was granted and commitments to provide extra

teacher training were made (Chapter 3: Local Government Act 1966). Interestingly, the research shows that the number of immigrant children attending English schools at that time pales into insignificance when compared with the numbers that arrived following A8 accession(Chapter 13). However, this very large immigration flow did not attract any of the attention and official support that was extended to the previous much smaller migration flows.

The school attendance rates were analysed at ethnic group and nationality levels to explore an issue raised during the pilot study. Teachers considered that the attendance of WEEU pupils was erratic and this hindered their learning. The findings confirmed the teachers' assertions and showed that the WEEU pupils were absent from school far more than other main ethnic groups, although this finding was heavily influenced by the exceptionally low attendance of WEEU Roma pupils. Additionally, the studies did not disprove the concerns of schools that the progress and attainment of WEEU pupils was affected detrimentally by their high absence rates (Chapter 14).

In summary, the findings indicated that the overall attainment of WEEU pupils was lower than all other main ethnic groups. However, this stark statement conceals important underlying variations that relate to factors often difficult to quantify, such as individual pupil aptitude and motivation. Overall, the low attainment findings are unsurprising in view of the fact that their command of the English language on first registration at an English school was, to all intents and purposes, non-existent.

The findings show teachers lacked the professional experience and training required to address the complex learning needs of the WEEU pupils. Workloads increased and 73

per cent of teachers struggled to cope (Chapter 15). Overall, this had a detrimental effect upon the teaching of most non-WEEU pupils. Headteachers found the unexpected, rapid change in the ethnic composition of their schools very challenging and difficult to manage. The headteacher quoted in Chapter 15 encapsulated the comments of nearly all case study headteachers that, in these times of Ofsted inspections, league tables and pupil numbers, no headteacher or teacher is going to admit publically that they are finding it difficult to cope.

The overall positive comments expressed by the parents of WEEU pupils were in many ways a testament to the professionalism of the schools and their teachers. For example, 100 per cent of WEEU parents stated that they were happy or very happy with the welcome they received in English schools and were overwhelmingly pleased with the way their children had settled, made progress and socially integrated (Chapter 16).

The consequences of the UK uncontrolled border policy were not restricted to the UK. The case study A8 Member States felt the radiating impact of the UK government's decision to open its borders fully in 2004. In contrast to the UK, it was the emigration of pupils and teachers that presented the greatest challenge for their education services. However, the overall effect was experienced more widely, touching many aspects of their societies. This is well illustrated in Chapter 17 by the comment of an A8 education official that in each year her country's population reduced by the equivalent of one large village or town through movement to the UK and Ireland (Chapter 17).

Main Conclusions: The post 2004 arrival of large numbers of WEEU pupils did not attract the supportive attention and resources afforded to previous much smaller

migration flows. Case study schools and their teachers were ill-equipped to cope with the scale and professional demands of the new arrivals. The attendance rates and levels of attainment of WEEU pupils reduced the overall average performance of schools. The parents of WEEU pupils considered that they were made welcome in English schools and were overwhelmingly pleased with the way their children settled and made progress. The education services of case study A8 Member States also faced difficult challenges as a result of the unrestricted borders of the UK.

18.4 Contribution to Knowledge

The main purpose of this research was to enhance the understanding of the A8 migration and its consequences for education by contributing new knowledge to a rather confused, complex and sensitive area. The five research questions, whilst distinct, share a common, strong theme linking them coherently and cohesively together.

The findings relating to the motivation of the UK government to open its borders fully to A8 nationals in 2004 are not surprising when the decision is considered in the context of the previous immigration experiences that are set out in Chapter 2. However, the research linked the analysis of the political statements about A8 migration, either made publically or through interviews, with the findings that discredited the credibility of the data on which the statements were based. These findings were then tracked to LA, school and pupil level to assess the impact of the changing ethnic and pedagogic situations. When all these findings are considered together, they present a fresh perspective on the A8 migration scenario and its impact upon education. Indeed,

combined, these findings create a clearer conceptual context for all the research findings and enable elements of Taleb's 'silent evidence' to be seen and heard (Taleb, 2009).

An analysis was undertaken of the systems employed to determine population and its characteristics, both within the country as a whole and in English schools, and the credibility of the resulting enumerations and migration figures. At national level all main measuring systems were systematically scrutinised and compared and contrasted one with the other. The analyses of the systems also involved unpublished data, such as the nature and location of each individual interview that contributed to the International Passenger Survey that forms the main measure of immigration. Further, information from the analysis of diverse records, such as the National Insurance registrations and transport and travel data, introduced new and valuable perspectives and added further elements to the total equation. By combining the findings from the analyses of the disparate systems, a new comprehensive and composite picture, adding to the current knowledge in this field, emerged and enabled strong, clear and unambiguous conclusions to be drawn.

Some concerns had been raised by academics, such as Gorard (2008 and 2010), about the accuracy of the school census datasets (Chapter 5). These concerns emerged principally from analysing national school census enumerations and SAT results. In this research, the findings were based on the analysis of national, LA and individual school datasets covering a period of eight consecutive years. By drilling down even further, the school census returns were analysed at individual pupil level and then verified by checking the details with the actual pupils and their school records. Through employing

these forensically systematic audits, it was possible to draw secure and robust conclusions about the validity and credibility of the datasets and the potential impact of their inaccuracies upon the education service as a whole and schools and pupils in particular. These processes and conclusions enabled a new understanding of these issues to emerge and, thereby, contribute to knowledge in this important area.

At the commencement of the research, there was no comprehensive, accurate overview of the WEEU pupil population and its characteristics. The research studies were designed to shed some light on this little understood, but important, fast-changing aspect of education. For the research, sample LAs were included only where their datasets were shown through prolonged analysis to be reasonably accurate. The initial analysis identified data from LAs that had been incorrectly calculated. These LAs either recalculated their data for the research studies or were removed from the programme. Consequently, the research findings that emerged, especially when combined with those undertaken at school and pupil level, contributed a new and deeper understanding of the numerical and geographical impact of the post 2004 WEEU pupils. Further, the revealing of the changing ethnic composition of schools, the resulting pressures on teachers and schools and the wider implications for the education service, particularly pedagogic and management issues, provided a fresh insight into these rapidly evolving and far-reaching issues and highlighted areas for further study.

18.5 Reflecting on the Research and its Limitations

Overall, the research progressed as planned with the five research questions pressing the process forward in the right direction to achieve the research goals. The broad

range of the research, whilst deemed necessary because of the dearth of knowledge in the field, restricted the scope of some of the study samples. This placed limitations on the ability to draw generalisations. This limitation in sample size was also an issue when it became very apparent that some evidence sources were providing information that presented a risk to the integrity of the overall findings (Chapter 8). Decisive action was taken and adjustments were made to the data collection process that were designed to ensure that the data collected was reliable. Elsewhere, inaccuracies were identified, taken into account and explained when drawing conclusions. The resulting process remained sufficient in breadth and depth to address fully the research questions. However, the revisions further reduced the possibility of extrapolation and the drawing of generalisations, which would have been most impressive and convincing, but, in reality, somewhat flawed. The findings from these studies do, nevertheless, provide interesting avenues for further more focused research.

In hindsight it might have been wise to assume that the official datasets were flawed and that headteachers would want to promote and protect their schools rather than admit and record the reality of the challenges they were facing. However, the fact that the datasets, both national and school-census based, were used by governments as a source of important information on which major decisions and policies were based and presented to the nation as facts, created a false confidence in their validity. Further, the same datasets were used by a vast range of institutions and people who assumed them to be sufficiently reliable and credible to produce far-reaching and influential conclusions.

These research revelations proved somewhat testing for this research programme, but were overcome through a process of considered reappraisal. As a consequence, the research process was strengthened and the resulting findings were clearer and more precisely defined, enabling the conclusions to be expressed more directly and unambiguously. Moreover, the adjustments exposed beyond doubt the fallibility of the official datasets and the false perceptions generated about the A8 migration and its consequences.

The research boundaries and purpose stemming from the conceptual framework remained constant throughout, although evolutionary flexibility facilitated the adjustments in analysis focus. The case of the realignment from a wide headteacher interview process to a more focussed and detailed analysis of fewer schools illustrates this. That said, the information that was obtained from the headteacher pilot studies did produce valuable information about the concerns of headteachers about the public image of their school and the ramifications for the Ofsted process. Consequently, the conceptual framework appropriately defined what to investigate, why and how, and made sense of the data within the context of the research. In essence, the original aims of the research were fulfilled by shedding light on the reality of the A8 migration, its inception, its evolution, its magnitude, its pace and some of its consequences for schools and pupils. The research journey was as complex as the task and became a great tutor of the art of systematic, forensic, analytical research combined with theoretical constructs.

18.6 Further research and recommendations

As stated above, the goals set at the commencement of the research were achieved. However, the findings and conclusions highlighted areas where action and further research are desirable and, in some instances, essential to address the important issues raised in this thesis.

Recommendation 1:

The findings indicated that further research is necessary to establish a reliable and credible system for measuring the population of the UK, its characteristics and its migration flows, and that is fit for the evolving demands of the 21st century and its newly mobile peoples. This is important as these data influence policy and funding that impacts heavily upon education services. This recommendation is not new and was promoted by the Statistics Commission in 2003 (Statistics Commission, 2003). However, it clearly has not been acted upon.

Throughout the research process the inability of the current systems to provide secure and accurate data, estimates and enumerations was revealed. However, the UK has in place a number of systems, whilst not designed to measure or manage the population, which could well be adapted to fulfil this measurement role through their amalgamation into a single process. This process is detailed in Appendix C.

Recommendation 2

The research findings suggest that action is required to improve the annual school census system so that it produces reliable and credible enumerations reflecting the

reality in schools and upon which planning, policy, assessment and financing decisions can be made with confidence.

It could be concluded here that either the census system is too complex for schools, LAs and the DfE to manage, which might well indicate training and support issues, or the accuracy of school census returns is not considered a priority.

Due to the size of the WEEU pupil population, consideration could be given to making the WEEU ethnic category a required category in the school census, similar to the Gypsy/Roma group. This would enable national enumerations for the WEEU category to be produced. Finally, the introduction of a school census auditing process to help ensure that the returns meet the 'zero error' standard required by the DfE warrants consideration.

Recommendation 3

The findings identified a lack of planning and support for schools to assist them in managing the large and unexpected A8 migration flows. From these findings, two separate, but connected, recommendations emerge:

- i. The evidence suggests that all teachers would benefit from a programme of training that addressed the management and teaching of migrant pupils.

This recommendation is not new, but the evidence expressed through this thesis suggests it has not been acted upon with sufficient thoroughness and commitment. It is

a salutary, but important, point that 44 years ago in 1967 the Plowden Report recommended:

Colleges, institutes of education and local education authorities should expand opportunities through initial and in-service courses for some teachers to train in teaching English to immigrants and to increase their knowledge of the background from which children come (Recommendation 199i, Plowden Report, 1967).

However, at the time of Plowden only a small percentage of teachers nationally was involved in the education of 'immigrants', Consequently, the 'some' teachers referred to by Plowden could well be changed to 'all' teachers to address the growing number and geographical settlement patterns of the current and future EU migrants from an ever-enlarging and diverse European Union.

- ii. Flexible and responsive systems and financial support packages could be developed to provide a rapid respond to the changing needs of schools, resulting from unplanned migrant flows from the EU that, by EU statute, are beyond the control of the UK government.

The statement below made by the European Commission reiterates the need for new thinking and a new approach to national and local migrant procedures and strategies designed to address the fluid nature of current and potential future migration flows. The research findings reveal that such flows do not replicate the traditional migration patterns established in the 19th and 20th centuries.

One of the most pressing challenges concerns financial resources. ... schools with many migrant pupils face additional costs for providing language teaching and/or staff training. The variability in migration flows poses additional

challenges for local and regional authorities, requiring contingency planning and funding flexibility. (They also noted) the need for peer learning at local level ... where migration has started to spread to localities which are facing the phenomenon for the first time (European Commission, 2009a).

Recommendation 4

The studies of the attainment, progress, period of English education, attendance and integration of WEEU pupils highlighted many important issues and raised further questions, which present fertile ground for additional research. For example, a longitudinal study of the impact of WEEU migration upon the progress and attainment of pupils and the evolving educational and management procedures adopted by teachers and schools would make a valuable contribution to knowledge in this field.

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Appendix A

Abbreviations

Abbreviations

BAA	British Airports Authority
CAA	Civil Aviation Authority
CTA	Common Travel Area
CVA	Contextual Value Added
DfE	Department for Education
DfES	Department for Education and Science
DfT	Department for Transport
DWP	Department for Works and Pensions
EAL	English as an additional language
ECSC	European Coal and Steel Community
EEC	European Economic Community
EthU	Ethnically Unclassified
EU	European Union
EU 15	Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom
EU A10	Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia
EU A8	The eastern and central European states of: Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.
G & T	Gifted and Talented pupils
IHJ	The author – Ian Harrison Jones
IPPR	Institute for Public Policy Research
IPS	International Passenger Survey
ISC	Independent Schools Council
JLC	Jewish Leadership Council
KS2	Key Stage 2
LA	Local Authority
LEA	Local Education Authority
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MAC	Migration Advisory Committee
NC	National Curriculum
NPD	National Pupil Database
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
ONS	Office for National Statistics
PSC	Parliamentary Select Committee
PLASC	Pupil Level Annual School Census
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SATs	Standard Assessment Tests
UKBA	United Kingdom Border Control
UPN	Unique Pupil Number
WEEU	White Eastern European
WRS	Worker Registration Scheme

Appendix B

Ethnic Categories for School Census

DfES Extended Codes	Approved Extended Categories	DfES Main Code	Sub-Category	Main Category	Further Comments
WBRI	White - British	WBRI	White - British	White	Main code (WBRI) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (WCOR-WWEL) are used.
WCOR	White - Cornish	WBRI	White - British	White	
WENG	White - English	WBRI	White - British	White	
WSCO	White - Scottish	WBRI	White - British	White	
WWEL	White - Welsh	WBRI	White - British	White	
WOWB	Other White British	WBRI	White - British	White	If LAs collect information for "White - British" pupils using any of the extended categories above (WCOR-WWEL), this category must be used as a catch all for all other White pupils within the main "White - British" category. If used, cannot have category "White - British" (WBRI).
WIRI	White - Irish	WIRI	White - Irish	White	
WIRT	Traveller of Irish Heritage	WIRT	Traveller of Irish Heritage	White	
WOTH	Any Other White Background	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	Main code (WOTH) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (WALB-WWEL) are used.
WALB	Albanian	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	Excluding Kosovan.
WBOS	Bosnian-Herzegovinian	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WCRO	Croatian	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WGRE	Greek/ Greek Cypriot	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If LAs do not wish to distinguish between pupils of Greek and Greek Cypriot heritage they may place all Greek/ Greek Cypriot in this category. If used, cannot have categories "Greek/ Greek Cypriot" (WGRB) or "Greek Cypriot" (WGRG). If used, must also have category "Greek/ Greek Cypriot" (WGRB).
WGRK	Greek	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If used, cannot have category "Greek/ Greek Cypriot" (WGRB).
WGRG	Greek Cypriot	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If used, cannot have category "Greek/ Greek Cypriot" (WGRB).
WITA	Italian	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WKOS	Kosovan	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WPOR	Portuguese	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WSER	Serbian	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	
WTUR	Turkish/ Turkish Cypriot	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If LAs do not wish to distinguish between pupils of Turkish and Turkish Cypriot heritage they may place all Turkish/ Turkish Cypriot in this category. If used, cannot have categories "Turkish/ Turkish Cypriot" (WTLB) or "Turkish Cypriot" (WTLG). If used, must also have category "Turkish/ Turkish Cypriot" (WTLB).
WTUC	Turkish	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If used, cannot have category "Turkish/ Turkish Cypriot" (WTLB).
WEUR	White European	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If LAs do not collect information on White European pupils on the basis of country of origin or East/ West European, they may place all White European pupils here.
WEEU	White Eastern European	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	Including Russian, Latvian, Ukrainian, Polish, Bulgarian, Czech, Slovak, Lithuanian, Montenegrin and Romanian.
WWEU	White Western European	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	Including Italian, French, German, Spanish, Portuguese and Scandinavian.
WOTW	White Other	WOTH	Any Other White Background	White	If LAs collect information for "Any Other White Background" pupils using any of the extended categories above (WALB-WWEL), this category must be used as a catch all for all other White pupils within the main "Any Other White Background" category. If used, cannot have category "Any Other White Background" (WOTH).
WROM	Gypsy / Roma	WROM	Gypsy / Roma	White	This category includes pupils who identify themselves as Gypsies and or Romanis, and or Travellers, and or Traditional Travellers, and or Romanichals, and or Romanichal Gypsies and or Welsh Gypsies / Kaitie, and or Scottish Travellers / Gypsies, and or Roma. It includes all children of a Gypsy ethnic background or Roma ethnic background, irrespective of whether they are nomadic, semi nomadic or living in static accommodation. It should not include Fairground (Showmen's) children; the children travelling with circuses; or the children of New Travellers or Bargees unless, of course, their ethnic status is that which is mentioned above.
MWBC	White and Black Caribbean	MWBC	White and Black Caribbean	Mixed / Dual Background	
MWBA	White and Black African	MWBA	White and Black African	Mixed / Dual Background	
MWAS	White and Asian	MWAS	White and Asian	Mixed / Dual Background	Main code (MWAS) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (MWAP-MWAI) are used.
MWAP	White and Pakistani	MWAS	White and Asian	Mixed / Dual Background	
MWAI	White and Indian	MWAS	White and Asian	Mixed / Dual Background	
MWAO	White and Any Other Asian Background	MWAS	White and Asian	Mixed / Dual Background	If LAs collect information for "White and Asian" pupils using any of the extended categories above (MWAP-MWAI), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Mixed/Dual Background pupils within the main "White and Asian" category. If used, cannot have categories "White and Asian" (MWAS).
MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	Main code (MOTH) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (MAOE-MBCH) are used.
MAOE	Asian and Any Other Ethnic Group	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MABL	Asian and Black	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MACH	Asian and Chinese	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MBOE	Black and Any Other Ethnic Group	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MBCH	Black and Chinese	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MCOE	Chinese and Any Other Ethnic Group	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	

DfES Extended Codes	Approved Extended Categories	DfES Main Code	Sub- Category	Main Category	Further Comments
MWOE	White and Any Other Ethnic Group	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MWCH	White and Chinese	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	
MOTM	Other Mixed Background	MOTH	Any Other Mixed Background	Mixed / Dual Background	If LAs collect information for "Any Other Mixed Background" pupils using any of the extended categories above (MAOE-MWCH), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Mixed/Dual Background pupils within the main "Any Other Mixed Background" category. If used, cannot have categories "Asian Chinese Mixed Background" (ACM24).
AIND	Indian	AIND	Indian	Asian or Asian British	
APKN	Pakistani	APKN	Pakistani	Asian or Asian British	Main code (APKN) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (AMPK-AKPA) are used.
AMPK	Mirpuri Pakistani	APKN	Pakistani	Asian or Asian British	
AKPA	Kashmiri Pakistani	APKN	Pakistani	Asian or Asian British	
AOPK	Other Pakistani	APKN	Pakistani	Asian or Asian British	If LAs collect information for "Pakistani" pupils using any of the extended categories above (AMPK-AKPA), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Pakistani pupils within the main "Pakistani" category. If used, cannot have categories "Pakistani" (APKN).
ABAN	Bangladeshi	ABAN	Bangladeshi	Asian or Asian British	
AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	Main code (AOTH) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (AAFR-ASRO) are used.
AAFR	African Asian	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	Including East and South African Asians.
AKAO	Kashmiri Other	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	Kashmiri respondents not wishing to be classified under Asian Pakistani should use this category.
ANEP	Nepali	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	
ASNL	Sri Lankan Sinhalese	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	All other Sinhalese pupils should be placed wherever appropriate in the categories above. If used MUST also have categories "Sri Lankan Tamil" (ASLT) and "Sri Lankan Other" (ASRO).
ASLT	Sri Lankan Tamil	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	All other Tamil pupils should be placed wherever appropriate in the categories above. If used MUST also have categories "Sri Lankan Sinhalese" (ASNL) and "Sri Lankan Other" (ASRO).
ASRO	Sri Lankan Other	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	If used MUST also have categories "Sri Lankan Sinhalese" (ASNL) and "Sri Lankan Tamil" (ASLT).
AOTA	Other Asian	AOTH	Any Other Asian Background	Asian or Asian British	If LAs collect information for "Any Other Asian Background" pupils using any of the extended categories above (AAFR-ASRO), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Asian pupils within the main "Any Other Asian Background" category. If used, cannot have category "Any Other Asian Background" (AOTH).
BCRB	Black Caribbean	BCRB	Black Caribbean	Black or Black British	Including Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent & Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago.
BAFR	Black - African	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	Main code (BAFR) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (BANN-BSUD) are used.
BANN	Black - Angolan	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BCON	Black - Congolese	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BGHA	Black - Ghanaian	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BNGN	Black - Nigerian	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BSLN	Black - Sierra Leonean	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BSOM	Black - Somali	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	
BSUD	Black - Sudanese	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	Including Sudanese of Egyptian origin.
BAOF	Other Black African	BAFR	Black - African	Black or Black British	Including Black South African, Zimbabwean, Ethiopian, Rwandan and Ugandan. If LAs collect information for "Black - African" pupils using any of the extended categories above (BANN-BSUD), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Black African pupils within the main "Black - African" category. If used, cannot have categories "Black - African" (BAFR).
BOTH	Any Other Black Background	BOTH	Any Other Black Background	Black or Black British	Main code (BOTH) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (BEUR-BNAM) are used.
BEUR	Black European	BOTH	Any Other Black Background	Black or Black British	
BNAM	Black North American	BOTH	Any Other Black Background	Black or Black British	Include Black North American and Canadian.
BOTB	Other Black	BOTH	Any Other Black Background	Black or Black British	If LAs collect information for "Any Other Black Background" pupils using any of the extended categories above (BEUR-BNAM), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Black pupils within the main "Any Other Black Background" category. If used, cannot have category "Any Other Black Background" (BOTH).
CHNE	Chinese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	Main code (CHNE) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (CHKC-CTWN) are used.
CHKC	Hong Kong Chinese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	
CMAL	Malaysian Chinese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	
CSNG	Singaporean Chinese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	
CTWN	Taiwanese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	
COCH	Other Chinese	CHNE	Chinese	Chinese	If LAs collect information for "Chinese" pupils using any of the extended categories above (CHKC-CTWN), this category must be used as a catch all for all other Chinese pupils within the main "Chinese" category. If used, cannot have category "Chinese" (CHNE).
OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Main code (OOTH) may not be used if any of the extended categories below (OAFG-OYEM) are used.
OAFG	Afghan	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OARA	Arab Other	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Include Palestinian, Kuwaiti, Jordanian and Saudi Arabian.
OEGY	Egyptian	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OFIL	Filipino	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OIRN	Iranian	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	

DfES Extended Codes	Approved Extended Categories	DfES Main Code	Sub- Category	Main Category	Further Comments
OIRQ	Iraqi	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OJPN	Japanese	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OKOR	Korean	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OKRD	Kurdish	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Include Kurdish pupils from Iraq, Iran and Turkey.
OLAM	Latin/ South/ Central American	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Include all pupils from Central/ South America, Cuba and Belize.
OLEB	Lebanese	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OLIB	Libyan	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OMAL	Malay	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Including Malaysian other than Malaysian Chinese.
OMRC	Moroccan	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OPOL	Polynesian	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	Including Fijian, Tongan, Samoan and Tahitian.
OTHA	Thai	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OVIE	Vietnamese	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OYEM	Yemeni	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	
OPEG	Other Ethnic Group	OOTH	Any Other Ethnic Group	Any Other Ethnic Group	If LAS collect information for "Any Other Ethnic Group" pupils using any of the extended categories above (OAFG-OYEM), this category must be used as a catch all for all other pupils within the main "Any Other Ethnic Group" category. If used, cannot have category Other Ethnic GroupCJ0000.
REFU	Refused	REFU	Refused	Refused	
NOBT	Information Not Yet Obtained	NOBT	Information Not Yet Obtained	Information Not Yet Obtained	

Appendix C

Recommendation 1

Recommendation 1

Throughout the research process the inability of the current systems to provide secure and accurate data, estimates and enumerations was revealed. However, the UK has in place a number of systems which, whilst not designed to measure or manage the population, could well be adapted to fulfil this measurement role through their amalgamation into a single process. For example, all citizens or legal residents of the UK have from birth to death a unique number or series of unique numbers necessary for them to live fully and legally in UK society in the 21st century. Many of these unique numbers are linked to a person's home address. Further research might consider the combining of all these diverse, but essential, numbers into one unique identification number for each legal citizen or legal resident through the process of a national population register, reflective of the types used in many EU Member States, such as Denmark. Through this process, the size, nature and geographical spread of the legal population of the UK would be known at any given time. Besides the national advantages of a known population, which are beyond the brief of this research, it would have major benefits for educational management, planning and funding.

Current systems that require a UK resident to possess a unique identification number are listed below:

- i. At birth, each child is given a unique National Health number linked to his or her home address. This number stays with the individual all their life.

- ii. From the age of 16, all persons employed, receiving benefits or paying tax are issued with a unique National Insurance number linked to their home addresses and their income tax and pension records.
- iii. In 2002, 83 per cent of all males and 61 per cent of females held a full driving licence⁴⁶ with its own unique reference number, a passport style photograph, the age of the person and, by law, their current address. These details are linked to the Police National Computer.
- iv. 80 per cent⁴⁷ of UK citizens hold a passport, which has a unique number linked to a person's personal details.
- v. All children attending a school are issued with a unique pupil number (UPN) linked to each pupil's school and home postcode; this remains with them throughout their education (DfE, 2010a; DfES, 2003).

⁴⁶ National Travel Survey, Department of Transport – (ONS 2004d)

⁴⁷ BBC, 2009.

Appendix D

A8 Member State Initial

Interview Schedule

Professional Discussion – Initial Meeting – Areas for Discussion		
Q. No	National / Regional Section Record	
		<i>RIGA, Republic of LATVIA. Record of information provided by Riga City Council.</i>
	Date of Discussion	Wednesday, 14 th November 2007
B001(1)	Names and Role of Participants	1 Zane Maca – Head of International Co-operation.
B001(2)		2 Lasma Lancmane – Head of Education Administration
B002	Discussion Venue	Office of Zane Maca – Education, Youth and Sports Dept of Riga City Council, Latvia Hanzas iela 7.
B003	EU Country	Latvia
B004	Region / City	Riga
	Background Information	<p>LATVIA. Area: 64,589 KM² Pop: 2.35 million in 2002 (urban 68%, rural 32%) Capital: Riga, Pop: 747,000 in 2002. Ethnic composition: 57.6% Latvian 29.6% Russian 4.1% Byelorussian 2.7% Ukrainian 2.5% Polish 1.4% Lithuanian 2.1% Others. Official Languages: Latvian</p> <p>The Riga City Council On 4 May 1990 the Supreme Council of the Latvia SSR adopted the Declaration on Restoring Independence of the Republic of Latvia, which introduced the period of rebuilding the structure of state power and administration in Latvia, including the Riga City.</p>
B005	Financed by: State, Region, Parents, other	The tuition at pre-school, basic and secondary education in a state or municipal educational establishment is funded from the national or municipal budget.
		Private educational institutions may set a tuition fee for providing education
		In higher education programmes the state covers tuition fees for a certain number of student places, according to the State Procurement in the respective academic year.
		Each higher education institution may set a tuition fee for the rest of student places. All students are entitled to a state credit for their studies in any higher education programme.
		<p>Finance: Teacher salaries are paid nationally Premises are local and national Maintenance and services are locally paid. 8,000 to 10,000 teachers in Riga. Basic pay is approx £400 per month before tax. There is a shortage of teachers is partly due to emigration to the UK. They can earn much more money there in lower grade jobs.</p>

B006	Management Structure Legal Framework	<p>Legislation: Law on Education 1998 – defined all types and levels of education and laid down the general principles and competences of governing bodies.</p> <p>Law on General education 1999</p> <p>Law on Professional Education 1999</p> <p>Law on Higher Education establishments 1995, 2000 amended version.</p> <p></p> <p>Governance of the Education System</p> <p>Education system is administered at three levels:</p> <p>National</p> <p>The Parliament (Saeima), the Cabinet of Ministers and the Ministry of Education and Science are the main decision-making bodies at a national level.</p> <p>Municipal</p> <p>Particular municipality. _ Riga City Council etc</p> <p>Institutional:</p> <p>Education institutions.</p>
B007	Accountability Political National Regional Local Parents	<p>The Director of Education, Youth and Sport is politically appointed.</p> <p>The Director is: Guntis Helmanis</p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p>
B008	Education System:	<p>Level 0 Pre-school education</p> <p>5 to 7 year old children have to participate in pre-school programmes provided by general education establishments or kindergartens as a part of the compulsory basic education.</p> <p>Level 1 and 2 - basic education</p> <p>7 to 16 year old pupils. Compulsory 9 year single structure basic education (primary and lower secondary)</p> <p>Level 3. Secondary education – divided into two types; general secondary, and vocational and training.</p> <p>Level 4. Post-secondary non-tertiary vocational education</p> <p>Level 4 and 5. Tertiary education.</p> <p>Academic higher education</p> <p>Bachelor's degree (Bakalaurs) duration 3 to 4 years.</p> <p>Master's degree (Magistrs) duration at least 5 years of university study.</p> <p>Level 6. Postgraduate education.</p> <p>Master's degree or equivalent (graduates of 5 – 6 years professional higher education in law and medicine can continue education at postgraduate level directly) is required for admission to doctoral studies (PhD). Doctoral studies last 3 to 4 full-time years.</p> <p>Special needs education:</p> <p>Special schools or special classes within general education schools provide education for children with special needs that correspond to their individual health condition. The structure of special education is very similar to that of the mainstream education. It provides opportunities for persons with special needs to attain knowledge in general education subjects as well as life and social skills to assist their social inclusion and independence. .</p>

B009	Management of Schools	Riga City Council has 300 plus schools.
B010	Management / Appointment of School Staff	Teachers are appointed by the education committee. Applications are opened by the headteacher who makes recommendations.
	Monitoring Teacher Quality	
B011	Managing Teacher Professional Development	Teachers do receive training when appropriate for developing skills to provide for the learning needs of specific groups of children. The problem is they emigrate now.
B012	School Finance	There is no extra funding allocated for immigrant pupils. However, it should be noted that there are very few immigrants joining the schools.
	Funding for Migrants	
B013	School Curriculum	Curriculum:
	National	Level 0. The objective of the pre-school education is to foster general development of children and their readiness to enter primary stage of basis education.
	Regional	
	Local	
	School	Level 1 and 2. The curriculum is determined by the national basic education standard. The Ministry of Education and Science supervises and determines the content of the final examinations. Pupils who have received evaluation in all subjects on the compulsory education curriculum, national tests and examinations, receive a Certificate of the basic education (aplieciba par pamatzglitibu) and a statement of records (sekmju izraksts) that qualifies them to serve as a screening criterion for admission for further education and training in secondary level education.
	Teacher	
	Setting	
	Auto Promotion	
	Mixed Ability	
	Mixed Aged	
	Age Related	
	Variation of Curriculum for Migrant Pupils	Level 3 . When admitting students to the secondary level education, schools are free to hold entrance examinations according to the basic education standard, except in those subjects for which students have already received a Certificate for the basic education.
		The compulsory curriculum for the three year general secondary schools is determined by the National Standard in the following areas: 1. General comprehension, 2. Humanitarian / social. 3. Mathematics / natural science / technical, 4. Vocational / professional (arts, music, business, sports). All educational programmes must contain 8 compulsory and 3 – 6 selected subjects according to the profile.
		NOTE Information on the curriculum requirements of the remaining levels are held within the full evidence base. They are not set out here as they do not impact upon the research programme.
		The state and municipality do not run schools for specific ethnic groups. However, they do run Minority Language Schools and classes.
B014	Attainment and Progress	Monitoring is undertaken by the national school inspection system . Schools are inspected once every six years. There is no ranking of schools.
	Monitoring Procedures	The testing and examination system / requirements set out above serve as a method of monitoring performance of schools.
	Links to Nat. Curriculum	There is no information recorded that is specific to migrant pupils.
	Nat. Standards	
	Inspection Systems	
	Migrant Variations from Norms	

B015	Pupil Admissions	<i>Schools perceived as good by parents are more popular. As catchment area is a determining factor for admitting a pupil, parents change address, move house, move children to grandparents' home or rent property in the catchment area of the schools with good reputations.</i>
B016	Monitoring Managing Recording	
	Pupil Transfers	
	School to School	
	Region to Region	
	Country to Country	
	Procedures	
	Monitoring	
	Recording	<i>The City Council does not keep records of the destination of pupils who leave schools in its area. Only schools know which children have emigrated and which have moved to other schools in Latvia. There is no formal requirement for this information to be collected by schools. We do not know which children have emigrated – they just leave the schools. We see this in Riga. The Latvian population is said to decrease by the equivalent of one large village or town per year.</i>
B017	Impact of Migration on Education Service	<i>There is very limited immigration into Latvia and the Riga area. Consequently, immigration does not impact upon education budgets, resources, staff training and special needs provision. Although declining pupil numbers results in less money and this threatens the viability of some schools.</i>
	Financial Resources	
	Staff Training Facilities	<i>The migration of families to the countries in the west of Europe, particularly Ireland and the UK, is having a noticeable impact. Many teachers have left Latvia and this adds to the teacher shortage. There is some evidence of parents emigrating and leaving their children with grandparents. Fifteen children left one school because the parents moved to Ireland.</i>
	SEN Special Schools	<i>Educational reforms have taken place. The EU required Latvia to raise its educational qualification so that they could be recognised throughout Europe.</i>
B018	Impact of Accession to EU	<i>Accession has resulted in a decrease in population. A skills drain. Developing social problems – children – there is no extra EU money for school education. The population of Latvia is decreasing due to emigration to other EU countries. Anecdotal evidence indicates that this is affecting schools in two ways. First, whole families including children are emigrating and this is influencing school numbers and budget incomes. Second, children are being left with grandparents or other family members whilst their parents go to work in other EU countries. At present, there is no formal recording of these changes or their impact upon the education service</i>
B019	General Comments and Additional Information	Contemporaneous notes (file A8 426)
B020	Supporting Evidence Documents / Policies / Records/ Reports/Files - Supplied Received From:	
No:	<i>Lasma Lancmane</i>	<i>To be retained by researcher</i>
1	Developments / Activity for next stage of Research.	
	Who by	Actions
	Researcher	Send record notes of meeting to Zane and Lasma
	Researcher	Prepare questionnaire – translate into Latvian.
		Date
		20.01.08

Appendix E

WEEU Parents Questionnaire

English Version

Centre for Educational Development, Appraisal and Research & University of Warwick, Institute of Education

Questionnaire

Reference Code:

UK/P/09/02

Parents / guardians of WEEU children attending schools in England.

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. All information provided through this questionnaire concerning individual children and adults will be treated as confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the research programme. No individual child, adult or organisation will be identified or identifiable in any report or publication without prior consent. For multi-choice questions, please circle the appropriate number.

Section 1 General Information

1:1	Date questionnaire completed		
1:2	Country of origin		
1:3	Date first arrived in UK		
1:4	Number of Children in family in UK		

1:5	On first arrival in England, how would you describe your spoken English?								
Little/no English	1	Basic English	2	Good English	3	Fluent English	4	Don't know	5

Section 2 Information about each of your children

2:1

Child 1	Date of Birth:		Date started Polish school:		Date started English school:	
Child 2	Date of Birth:		Date started Polish school:		Date started English school:	
Child 3	Date of Birth:		Date started Polish school:		Date started English school:	
Child 4	Date of Birth:		Date started Polish school:		Date started English school:	

Section 3 Experience of moving your children to an English school:

3:1	How much did you know about the English school system when you first arrived in England?								
Nothing	1	A Little	2	Basic information	3	Fully informed	4	Don't know	5

3:2	How easy or difficult was it to find a school able to accept your children?								
Very difficult	1	Difficult	2	Reasonably easy	3	Very easy	4	Don't know	5

3:3	How easy or difficult did you find the process of registering your child at the school?								
Very difficult	1	Difficult	2	Reasonably easy	3	Very easy	4	Don't know	5

3:4	How easy or difficult did you find it to communicate with the school staff?								
Very difficult	1	Difficult	2	Reasonably easy	3	Very easy	4	Don't know	5

3:5	How welcoming was the school on your first visit?									
Very unwelcoming	1	Unwelcoming	2	Welcoming	3	Very welcoming	4	Don't know	5	

3:6	How easy or difficult was it for your children to adjust to their new school in England?									
Very difficult	1	Difficult	2	Reasonably easy	3	Very easy	4	Don't know	5	

3:7	How did your children feel about moving from Poland and a Polish school to England and an English school?											
Child 1	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6

3:8	How do your children feel now about attending an English school?											
Child 1	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	No preference	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6

3:9	What effect do you feel the change from a Polish school to an English school has had upon the education of your children?											
Child 1	Very detrimental	1	Detrimental	2	No effect	3	Positive	4	Very positive	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Very detrimental	1	Detrimental	2	No effect	3	Positive	4	Very positive	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Very detrimental	1	Detrimental	2	No effect	3	Positive	4	Very positive	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Very detrimental	1	Detrimental	2	No effect	3	Positive	4	Very positive	5	Don't know	6

3:10	How long do you think it took for your children to settle and become fully integrated into their English school?											
Child 1	Not fully integrated	1	More than one year	2	About one year	3	Less than one year	4	Less than six months	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Not fully integrated	1	More than one year	2	About one year	3	Less than one year	4	Less than six months	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Not fully integrated	1	More than one year	2	About one year	3	Less than one year	4	Less than six months	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Not fully integrated	1	More than one year	2	About one year	3	Less than one year	4	Less than six months	5	Don't know	6

3:11	When your children first started school in England, how did their attainment compare with English children of the same age?											
Child 1	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6

3:12	How does the attainment of your children compare NOW with English children of the same age?											
Child 1	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	More than one year behind	1	About one year behind	2	About the same	3	About one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6

3:13	How happy are you with your children's overall education in their English school?											
Child 1	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	Neutral	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	Neutral	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	Neutral	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Very unhappy	1	Unhappy	2	Neutral	3	Happy	4	Very happy	5	Don't know	6

Section 4 Polish school experience.

Please complete the following questions for each of your children who attended school in Poland before coming to England.

4:1	Please indicate the overall rate of progress that you feel your children were making in their Polish school compared with Polish children of the same age.											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

4:2	Please indicate the overall standard of attainment that you feel your children were making in their Polish school compared with Polish children of same age.											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

4:3	Please indicate the overall standard of attainment in Mathematics that you feel your children were making in their Polish school compared with Polish children of same age.											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

4:4	Please indicate the overall progress that you feel your children were making in their social development in their Polish school .											
Child 1	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6

Section 5 English school experience

Please complete the following questions about your children's experiences in their English school.

5:1	Please indicate the overall rate of progress that you feel your children are making in their English school .											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

5:2	Please indicate the overall standard of attainment that you feel your children are achieving in their English school compared with English pupils of the same age.											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

5:3	Please indicate the overall standard of attainment in Mathematics that you feel your children are achieving in their English school compared with English pupils of the same age.											
Child 1	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Well below average	1	Below average	2	Average	3	Above average	4	Well above average	5	Don't know	6

5:4	Please indicate the overall progress that you feel your children are making in their social development in their English school.											
Child 1	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 2	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 3	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6
Child 4	Poor	1	Unsatisfactory	2	Satisfactory	3	Good	4	Very good	5	Don't know	6

Section 6
Comparisons

Which country's education system do you consider:

6:1	requires your children to work the longest hours?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:2	requires more homework to be completed?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:3	places your children under the greater pressure to achieve high standards?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:4	achieves the better rates of progress?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:5	promotes the higher standards of attainment?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:6	provides the better education system?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4
6:7	is the better for your children in the longer term?							
	Poland	1	England	2	The same	3	Don't know	4

Section 7
Social integration

7:1	Do your children have English friends at school?	No	1	Yes	2	Don't know	3
7:2	Do your children mix socially with English school friends out of school?	No	1	Yes	2	Don't know	3
7:3	Do your children's English school friends visit your home?	No	1	Yes	2	Don't know	3
7:4	Is it your intention at this time to settle permanently in England?	No	1	Yes	2	Don't know	3

Section 8

8:1	Do your children attend a Polish school in England (often held on a Saturday morning)?	YES	NO
	If YES to question 8:1		
8:2	On which day (s) do they attend?		
8:3	How many hours per week do they attend?		
8:4	What subjects do they study?		
8:5	Do your children have homework from the Polish school?	YES	NO
	If YES to question 8:5		
8:6	Approximately how many hours of homework are they set per week?		

--	--

Any other comments

9:1	Please add any additional comments about your children's schooling:

9:2	If required, may the researcher contact you to collect any further information:	YES	1	NO	2
	If YES, please enter your name and contact phone number:				
	Name:		Phone Number:		

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

Appendix F

Teacher Questionnaire

Centre for Educational Development, Appraisal and Research & University of Warwick, Institute of Education

Questionnaire:
UK/T/09/03

Ref. Code:

Teachers in English Primary Schools

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. All information provided through this questionnaire concerning individual schools, children and adults will be treated as confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the research programme. No individual organisation, child or adult will be identified or identifiable in any report or publication without prior consent. For multi-choice questions, please circle the appropriate number or word (Blue background). White Eastern European pupils are categorised as WEEU by the DCSF. The vast majority of WEEU pupils covered by this research are Polish nationals.

Date Questionnaire Completed:/...../ 2009
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1:1	Are you a class teacher (full or part-time):		YES	NO
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If **YES**, please go to question **1:2**. If **NO**, please go to question **1:3** below.

1:2	Where appropriate, please complete the information below for the classes you have taught at your current school. Note: Please use approximate numbers where exact records are no longer available.
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Academic year commencing	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
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Total number of pupils in your class:							
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Number of White British pupils in class:							
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Number of WEEU pupils in class:							
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1:3	Have you experience of teaching WEEU pupils?		YES	NO
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If YES, in what capacity? Please specify below:

2:1	
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Do you have a recognised EAL qualification?		YES	NO
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If YES, please specify.	
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2:2	
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Have you attended a course(s) for teaching EAL?		YES	NO
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If YES, please specify organising body/bodies.	
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How effective was the EAL course (s) you attended in supporting your teaching of WEEU pupils?	
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Very effective	1	Effective	2	Minimally effective	3	Ineffective	4	Don't know	5
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2:3									
Have you received any extra resources specifically to support your teaching of WEEU pupils?							YES	NO	
Have you received additional adult classroom assistance to support the teaching of WEEU pupils?							YES	NO	
If YES, please specify: (e.g. TA for 4 hours per week or volunteer parent 1 hour per week)									
2:4									
Do you receive any classroom support from an adult Polish speaker?							YES	NO	
If YES, what is the status of the Polish-speaking assistant?									
Local authority employed	1	School employed	2	Volunteer	3	Other	4	Don't know	5

2:5					
Are any WEEU pupils withdrawn from your class for extra support sessions?				YES	NO

3:1					
Do you assess the levels of attainment of newly arrived WEEU pupils?				YES	NO
3:2					
If YES to question 3:1 above, do you use national curriculum levels to assess WEEU pupils?				YES	NO
If NO: Please specify what you use to make assessments:					

3:3									
On average, how would you best describe the level of spoken English of newly arrived WEEU pupils?									
None / very little	1	Early stage	2	Competent	3	Fluent	4	Don't know	5
3:4									
How difficult or easy have you found it to communicate with newly arrived WEEU pupils who are not fluent in spoken English?									
Very difficult	1	Difficult	2	Not difficult	3	Easy	4	Very easy	5

3:5											
Based on your assessments of newly arrived WEEU pupils, how would you best describe their average overall standard of attainment compared with English pupils of the same age?											
More than one year behind	1	Up to one year behind	2	Broadly the same	3	Up to one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6

3:6											
Based on your assessments of newly arrived WEEU pupils, how would you best describe their average standard of attainment in mathematics compared with English pupils of the same age?											
More than one year behind	1	Up to one year behind	2	Broadly the same	3	Up to one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6

3:7											
On average, how long do you think it takes WEEU pupils to acquire a sufficient command of the English language to take a full and active part in all aspects of class lessons in all subjects?											
More than one year	1	One year	2	Up to one year	3	Up to six months	4	Less than one month	5	Don't know	6

3:8											
On average, how long do you think it takes WEEU pupils to integrate fully into the life and work of the school?											
More than one year	1	One year	2	Up to one year	3	Up to six months	4	Less than one month	5	Don't know	6

3:9											
Based on your pupil assessments, how would you best describe the average overall standard of attainment of WEEU pupils after one year of English schooling, compared with English pupils of the same age?											
More than one year behind	1	Up to one year behind	2	Broadly the same	3	Up to one year ahead	4	More than one year ahead	5	Don't know	6

3:10											
Based on your assessments of WEEU pupils, how would you best describe their average overall rate of progress compared with English pupils of the same age?											
Much slower	1	Slower	2	Broadly the same	3	Quicker	4	Much quicker	5	Don't know	6

3:11											
Based on your assessments and teaching experience, which subjects do you consider WEEU pupils find the most difficult?											
English	1	Mathematics	2	Science	3	History/Geography	4	Others	5	Don't know	6

4:1											
What effect do you consider WEEU pupils in your class have upon your professional workload?											
Considerable decrease	1	Decrease	2	Broadly the same	3	Increase	4	Considerable increase	5	Don't know	6

4:2											
What effect do WEEU pupils have upon the teaching time you give to the other pupils in your class (non-WEEU pupils)?											
Greatly reduced time for teaching non-WEEU pupils	1	Reduced time for teaching non-WEEU pupils	2	Small reduction in the time available for teaching non-WEEU pupils	3	No change in the time available for teaching non-WEEU pupils	4	More time available for teaching non-WEEU pupils	5	Don't know	6

