

Analytical Report on Education

National Focal Point for FINLAND

Ihmisoikeusliittory/Finnish League for Human Rights;
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1. Executive summary

This report is part of Finland's contribution to RAXEN 4. It deals with racism, discrimination and xenophobia in the education sector in Finland. The report begins with definitions of the major terms applied, including the fact that "national minority" is not a legally recognised term in Finland. Instead, the term "minority group" is more useful, and all Finnish law related to minorities refers to "groups" rather than national minorities. Nonetheless, there are a few main minority groups in the country, which include ethnic as well as foreign-origin minorities. The indigenous minority of Finland is the Sámi population of about 6500 persons. There is also a 300,000 person minority of Swedish-speakers, a 10,000 person minority of Finnish Roma, and other smaller older minorities such as the Finnish Jews, Tatars and Russians. The fastest growing minority group is that of immigrants, including labour migrants, refugees and foreigners with family ties to Finnish citizens (comprising about 100,000 persons). The terms asylum seeker, refugee and discrimination are also defined for purposes of the report.

In reviewing the relevant legislation and policies, the report finds that there are no special legislative provisions for the prevention or handling of discrimination in the education sector. However, provisions against discrimination in the Constitution generally prohibit discrimination and also support the right of minorities to preserve and develop their own languages and culture. These provisions enable the further conditions set by the School Law and Integration Law, which are the main instruments concerning education of minorities and provision of adult and vocational training.

The report finds that there are a number of policy statements, especially those by the National Board of Education, that allow for the safeguarding of diversity and minority rights in education. These include the strategies for enabling the Sámi and Roma minority to practice their language and culture. However in practice, it has been difficult to ensure adequate training to the Roma minority. They continue to perform poorly with respect to education and only 5% of Roma schoolchildren currently receive mother tongue training. For immigrants, there are provisions such as the "immigrant classroom" and special vocational training programmes as part of the integration plan drawn up in conjunction with the authorities. There are general monitoring systems to control for malpractice in the education sector but there is no body devoted specifically to the monitoring racism in education.

The data studied in the report shows that there is a trend towards polarisation in terms of the quality of school education and performance, with schools in the more populated south tending to be better than those in the more rural north. There is also possible polarisation underway in the capital city, which has most minority and immigrant pupils. In general, there are very few statistics on the participation levels of minority pupils but immigrants form a very small part of the total population in most Finnish schools (less than 3% in most cases).

In terms of performance, Finnish pupils have done very well in international comparative studies such as a PISA and TIMSS but there have been very low rates of participation of immigrant pupils in these studies (for PISA less than 1%). This means it is not possible to draw any reliable conclusions on the performance of minority pupils using these test

results. Data collected through social science research indicates that the Roma, however, perform poorly in comparison the majority population. Roma children have comparatively high rates of dropout (10-20% compared to an average of 6% for the majority population) and have poorer than average motor and mechanical skills.

More than 10,000 minority pupils received mother tongue training in 2002. The availability of mother tongue teaching is fairly good for immigrants although this is not always the case in the more rural areas, especially in the north. Swedish-speakers also have good access to mother tongue teaching partly because there are a number of Swedish-speaking institutions provided for their benefit. For the ethnic minorities (Sámi and Roma) the situation is not as positive, with only 15% of Roma children having access to mother tongue teaching and only a handful of Sámi children participating in mother tongue training.

Participation in adult education and vocational training also varies considerably by geographical region, with the highest participation levels (and population concentrations) in the urban south. However, the levels of adult education participation amongst the minorities appear to be lower than those of the whole population. Unfortunately, this fact cannot be directly corroborated due to lack of appropriate statistics.

Teacher training initiatives are focused on the inclusion of multiculturalism and sensitivity training in the curricula of teacher training programmes. These include teaching degrees awarded by universities and polytechnics, as well as resources and support services provided by the National Board of Education. There is also a vocational diploma programme to encourage and train members of the Roma community to become qualified teachers and advisors of Roma language and culture.

The report includes a look at the wage and income levels of Finnish teachers although it is difficult to determine whether there are any differences among teachers of minority groups and the whole population. On the whole, teachers in Finland are paid somewhat below the OECD average. There is also an indication that there are no regular adjustments given to those teachers engaged in special needs teaching. The qualification levels of teachers are generally high, except at the pre-school where the majority hold only a lower university or polytechnic degree. The most highly qualified teachers are at the university level, where about 60% of them hold a PhD. The most disturbing statistics on teachers indicate that 13% of teachers at the primary level were found to be incompetent, whereas 28% of special education teachers (includes teachers of minority groups) were found incompetent.

In terms of the patterns of discrimination in education, the report finds that there is some variation according to country of origin, with those from cultures more “distant” from the Finnish (such as Somalis and Arabs) more likely to suffer discrimination in schools and educational settings. There is also some variation according to age, with younger persons, especially children, more likely to suffer discrimination or exclusion at the hands of their fellow pupils. Once again, children from places like Somalia and Arab countries suffered more than others. Finally, discrimination varies according to religion, to some extent. Pupils from Muslim background are more likely to face such difficulties, especially in the aftermath of Islamophobia, possibly triggered by the terrorist attacks of 2001 in the US.

There is also some relation between levels of education and unemployment among the immigrant minority. The more educated groups (such as Chinese and former Soviet citizens) also have slightly lower unemployment levels, although there has been a general trend of declining unemployment amongst immigrants. However, the data provided by the Ministry of Labour also suggests that there are a number of highly skilled persons who are unable to find a job. This might indicate that obstacles such as racism and discrimination are preventing their integration into the work force.

The report highlights a number of recent good practices and initiatives to support diversity in education. One such policy action is the directive of the National Board of Education, which states that preparatory training, and additional support to minorities is to be provided during the coming academic year (2003-2004). The Board also continues the provision of the immigrant classroom system as a means to facilitate the integration of immigrant pupils into mainstream education.

The National Board of Education has also provided financial support to projects promoting internationalism and multicultural values, is coordinating a number of projects on intercultural communication and exchange, and encouraging participation from minority groups such as Somalis, Russians and so on. Further, there are research projects, public information projects and international conferences underway to encourage dialogue, information and scholarly activity in favour of tolerance and anti-discrimination in education.

The report also makes a series of recommendations to various actors, which include increased data collection, analysis of the role of the majority population, support for positive initiatives, the creation of dialogue and EU-level participation in national activities.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that Anti-Semitism is not covered separately in this report partly due to the low level with which it appears in the education sector, and also because the Jewish minority in Finland is extremely small. There is, however, mention of Islamophobia and its connection to racism, both generally and in the education sector.

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3. Glossary of terms and concepts used

“NATIONAL MINORITIES” IN FINLAND

Strictly speaking, there are no legally recognised “national minorities” in Finland. In Finnish law, the concept national minority is replaced by the more general term “group,” which is seen to be broad enough to extend protection to minority cultures, and not only to officially recognised groups (Finland Report ACFC/SR 1999). The Constitution Act of Finland guarantees, in §144, the right of different groups to maintain and develop their own culture and languages. The groups included in this act include the Sámi, the Roma and ethnic minorities such as the Swedish speakers, Jews and the Tatars.

SWEDISH SPEAKERS

Known in Finnish as “Suomenruotsalaiset” or “Finland Swedes,” the Swedish-speaking minority is statistically defined as those Finns who speak Swedish as their mother tongue, in addition to the population of the Autonomous Region of Åland. The Swedish speaking population lives primarily in the coastal and western regions of Finland and comprises about 5.6% of the total Finnish population (i.e. approx. 292,000 persons) (Virtual Finland 2001).

THE SÁMI

There are over 75,000 Sámi (formerly known as Lapps) living in Northern regions of modern Norway, Sweden, Finland and Russia. In Finland, the Sámi meet the requirements of the above-mentioned definition of indigenous group and as such, their right to maintain and develop their own culture and language was recognised in the constitutional reforms of 1995 (PL §17). In general, the Nordic countries define a person as Sámi if he/she considers him/herself to be one, and has at least one parent or grandparent who speaks Sámi as his/her mother tongue (Virtual Finland 1999). There are about 6500 Sámi in Finland, inhabiting an area of 35,000 sq. km or 10% of the Finnish land mass.

THE ROMA

The Finnish Roma are members of the Kaale (Cálo) group widely found across Europe and other parts of the world. They came to Finland in the 17th Century when they were ordered by the Swedish Crown to settle in the eastern part of the realm (now Finland). The Finnish Roma currently number about 10,000 and have citizenship and minority rights as a national minority. There are also about 3000 Finnish Roma who emigrated to Sweden in the 1960s and 70s. Finland defines the Roma community as a national minority under the European Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (ETS 157, Virtual Finland 1999).

OTHER MINORITIES

Other minorities in Finland include the Russians, who have sometimes been classified as “Old” and “New” Russians. The former are Russians who came to Finland between the 18th and early 20th Centuries and now comprise about 3000-5000 persons, most of whom have become assimilated into the mainstream Finnish or Swedish culture (Virtual Finland 1999). New Russians, on the other hand, include the approximately 21,500 Russian speakers who currently live in Finland (Institute of Migration 2001). There is also a very small Jewish minority, comprising about 1300 persons who live mainly in the urban centres of Helsinki, Turku and Tampere. Partly because this group is so small and data related to it scarce, this report does not contain an in-depth discussion of Anti-Semitism. The Tatars, a small Islamic community of about 900 persons, immigrated to Finland in the late 19th and early 20th Centuries. They live mostly in the capital area.

IMMIGRANTS

According to Finnish law, an immigrant (*maahanmuuttaja*) is a foreign citizen residing in Finland for at least a year. In other words, an immigrant is the legal citizen of a country other than Finland, or is stateless (according to definitions prescribed by international law) (Foreigners' Act UL 378/1991). It is important to note, therefore, that all statistics dealing with immigrants in this report do not include naturalised Finnish citizens. Similarly, the term immigrant may include subcategories of foreigners, such as refugees, asylum seekers and return migrants (see below). There is a growing population of foreign citizens and recently arrived immigrants in Finland, which comprised 103,682 persons, or 2% of the total population at the end of 2002 (Statistics Finland 2003).

RETURN MIGRANTS

The term return migrant (*paluumuuttaja*) refers to a person of Finnish citizenship or foreign citizenship but Finnish ethnic and/or linguistic/cultural identity who returns to or enters Finland after having spent a period of time outside the country (Statistics Finland 2002). Return migrants of Russian citizenship are the Ingrian-Finns, inhabiting western Russia and border regions. About 20,000 Ingrian-Finns are counted as part of the immigrant population as return migrants, who have entered Finland since the 1990 legal provision allowing them to migrate to Finland from neighbouring Russia on the basis of cultural and ethnic ties (Finland Report ACFC/SR 1999).

ASYLUM SEEKERS

According to the Finnish Directorate of Immigration, an asylum seeker is a person who seeks safety in a foreign country because they have persecuted in their own country for one or more of the following reasons: race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership of a particular social group. As party to the Geneva Convention, Finland has undertaken to provide asylum to those needing it. The Finnish Aliens Act embodies the terms of the Geneva Convention. Other than full asylum status, an asylum seeker may receive a residence permit (temporary protection) based on the need for protection due to the threat of inhumane treatment on return to his/her home country. An asylum seeker

may also be granted temporary protection if he/she cannot return to his/her home country due to the threat of armed conflict or an environmental catastrophe (UVI 2003).

REFUGEES

A refugee is a person who has been granted full asylum on the grounds described above. Apart from asylum seekers who have been granted refugee status, Finland is one of ten countries in the world that accept so-called “quota-refugees”. These are persons granted refugee status by the UNHCR, who are chosen according to a quota set annually by Finnish government. In 2002, the quota was 750 but the government has planned a gradual increase since 1997 up to a limit of 1000. In recent years, quota refugees have mainly been from Iran, Iraq and the former Yugoslavia (Ministry of Labour 2003, UVI 2003).

DISCRIMINATION

For the purposes of this report, discrimination is described according to the EU race directive as “direct” and “indirect”. The former occurs “where one person is treated less favourably than another is, has been or would be treated in a comparable situation on grounds of racial or ethnic origin” (Council Directive 97/80 EC § 1, 2). This includes the systematic denial of certain rights and privileges to members of a particular group, as a matter of policy or intent. According to the Directive, indirect discrimination occurs “where an apparently neutral provision, criterion or practice would put persons of a racial or ethnic origin at a particular disadvantage compared with other persons, unless that provision, criterion or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim are appropriate and necessary”. This includes practices that effectively exclude members of certain groups by putting them at a disadvantage, even though there may be no obvious intent to do so.

4. Introduction

AIMS

This report is Finland's contribution to the EUMC's RAXEN 4 project in the education sector. The report has the following aims:

- describe the current situation of Finnish education with respect to minorities, including school standards, minorities' participation, special training, vocational and adult education, teachers' qualifications and so on.
- provide information about Finnish education policy and legislation, including its provisions for combating racism and discrimination
- examine direct and indirect discrimination in the education sector and its connections with factors such as age, religion and nationality
- document the strategies, initiatives and good practices in the last year which promote diversity and oppose discrimination
- suggest explanations for the measures of racism, xenophobia and discrimination described in the report
- give recommendations for positive change in the Finnish education sector

ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The report is organised according to the guidelines set by the EUMC. Chapter 1 provides an executive summary of the report, while Chapter 2 gives a detailed table of contents. Chapter 3 is a glossary of terms relevant to the study of minorities in Finland, including descriptions of the main minority groups, as well as definitions of important terminology. The current chapter (Chapter 4) is an introduction to the report and includes a description of its the aims and motives, as well as outlines the structure of the report.

Chapter 5 provides an overview of the legislation and policies that are relevant in the education sector, including a short overview of the broader laws that govern diversity and anti-discrimination in education. It also provides a brief description of the main systems and bodies for monitoring racism and discrimination in Finland. Chapter 6 forms the bulk of the report and includes data on school standards, special training for minorities, participation rates of various groups, as well as attainment levels. It also covers data on adult and vocational education, higher education, teacher training and qualifications, and a brief account of research on the content of school material.

Chapter 7 describes the connections between discrimination and nationality, age and religion in the education sector. It also deals with the relationship between education levels and unemployment/employment amongst immigrants. Chapter 8 mentions new policies dealing with equal treatment and access to education, as well as various strategies that are currently underway to promote diversity and reduce discrimination and racism in education. Chapter 9 provides a summary and conclusions of the report, and Chapter 10 gives recommendations for further action.

5. Relevant legislation and policies

5.1. SPECIAL LEGISLATION FOR PROMOTING DIVERSITY IN EDUCATION

This section looks at the promotion of diversity in education through the use of special legislation and policies. As specific initiatives, projects and programmes will be discussed in detail in Chapter 8; we will focus here on the legislative and policy framework that shapes such initiatives. The basic legal precedent for the protection and promotion of diversity in Finland, whether in the education sector or otherwise, is provided by the Constitution, which includes a statement on non-tolerance of discrimination in any form (731/1999 §6). Further, the right of minorities to develop and maintain their own languages and cultures is guaranteed in §17 of the Constitution.

In terms of special legislation, there have been a number of developments since the application of the first anti-discrimination law in 1970. In 1995, for example, day care centres, basic schools, secondary schools and adult educational institutions became obliged to provide teaching in the native languages of ethnic and immigrant minorities (239/73, HE 186/1994 §27). In 1997, linguistic research centres became responsible for research and maintenance of the Roma language in Finland (758/1996). The main feature of Finnish legislation on diversity in education is currently the protection and realisation of minorities' right to education in their native languages. This was detailed in §10 of the 1995 reform of the national School Law (*Koululaki*), which states that every pupil has the right to teaching in his/her mother tongue for two hours per week, provided there are at least four pupils of the language in the group. The language of teaching in schools may be Finnish, Swedish, Sámi, Romani or sign language. Part of the teaching may also be given in another minority language. The law also covers the right to receive religious education in the pupils' particular faith. These teaching obligations are also included in the syllabi of the various school levels (NBE 2003:6).

The Integration Act (*Kotoutumislaki*) of 1.5.1999 is another major legal tool that attempts to increase and support diversity through education. On paper, the Act promotes equal opportunity for immigrants and newcomers to Finnish society, while encouraging and facilitating their integration and also preserving their own culture and language (Integration Act 493/1999). According to the Integration Act, municipalities are responsible for providing immigrants services such as language and job skills training, as part of their specially developed *integration programmes*. The immigrant then draws up an *integration plan (kotoutumissuunnitelma)* in co-operation with municipality officials and/or the employment office. The plan is intended to identify the best measures to help the immigrant's integration. At the same time, an integration plan may also be drawn up for the immigrant's family and children. Education in Finland's national languages is considered the key feature of the integration plan as lack of language skills has repeatedly been identified as a major obstacle to foreigners' integration. However the integration plan may also include vocational or academic education. The integration policy also encourages non-employment activities, such as community work and social clubs, in order to improve social integration with the majority culture. If the immigrant complies with the integration plan, he/she is eligible to receive financial support in the form of an "integration allowance" (MOL 2000). Although officials see the Integration Act as an

adequate and necessary measure to improve integration of minorities, there has been some criticism from immigrants and observers (Streng 2002:8-9). This is mainly because the Integration Act applies only to those members of the immigrant minority who are in the labour force (i.e. it excludes pupils, students, pensioners etc.). Further, the integration programmes and plans have been criticised for being one-sided because immigrants face sanctions for lack of participation, whereas there are no penalties against the authorities if they fail to provide adequate guidance or training according to the plan.

5.2. SPECIAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR PROMOTING DIVERSITY IN EDUCATION

There are a number of policy and practical strategies that are applied in Finnish educational institutions in an attempt to guarantee the rights of minorities and promote diversity. Since 1992, the Sámi have had the right to use their own languages in written and verbal communication with the authorities. Under the new Act on Comprehensive Education (1999), the Sámi language may be used as a language of instruction in basic, general upper secondary, and vocational education. It can also be taught as a mother tongue or a foreign language. If their guardians so wish, Sámi children living in the four municipalities of Sámi domicile must be provided with basic primary education in Sámi (NBE 2002c).

Like the Sámi and other national minorities, the Roma are entitled to education in the Roma language at the basic, secondary, vocational and adult education levels. However, local authorities are under no obligation to provide teaching in the Roma language, nor have any separate educational allocations been made, as for Sámi languages. This is because, in practice, most Roma have Finnish as their mother tongue, meaning that the Roma language is taught as a second mother tongue and is governed by different statutes. Education in the Roma language is provided in about 5% of basic schools, mainly in the Helsinki metropolitan region. National curricula for this education also exist. In practice, about 250 Roma children currently receive language lessons for 2 hours per week (NBE 2002d). In terms of access to vocational training, the Roma have been targeted by the Finnish education authorities since 1979, when they were first provided vocational training in skills needed for their way of life (e.g. horse farming, handicraft making, sewing etc.). At present, training is more focused to meet the needs of the Roma's contemporary lifestyle. This includes vocational training in technical fields, computer use and teaching, for example. Vocational training aims to complete the basic school syllabus, as well as provide further education through open colleges and folk high schools.

Training for immigrant children may include a preparatory phase in which the child may be given extra support or teaching, if needed. Especially for newly arrived immigrant children, this means studying in a separate "immigrant classroom" (*maahanmuuttajaluokka*), in which there are special teachers and no Finnish pupils. The purpose is to impart the skills necessary for transition into the mainstream classroom as soon as possible. Statutes also provide for the special needs of immigrant children in areas such as religious and language education, as well possible teaching of Finnish as a second language. Upper secondary and vocational school education for immigrants is provided in a similar manner, with teaching in Finnish as a second language if necessary,

as well as lessons in the pupil's native language and religion, and supplementary training, when needed. There are eight International Baccalaureate schools, and six non-Finnish language upper secondary schools in Finland. There are also 10-day summer secondary school camps for 15 year-old immigrant pupils, in which they can learn about Finnish culture, language and social systems, as well as determine their special educational needs. In vocational schools immigrants have some access to education in a non-Finnish language, usually English. If an immigrant does not have a Finnish basic school qualification, he/she may apply for direct admission to the vocational school. The application usually includes an evaluation of Finnish language skills. Once accepted, immigrant pupils receive additional support in some vocational schools. In most cases, they can study Finnish or Swedish, in addition to their native language.

Various institutions, in accordance with norms set by the National Board of Education, provide adult education, which prepares immigrants to receive vocational training at polytechnics and other institutes. Immigrants may also receive this education in as part of their "integration plan" (*kotoutumissuunnitelma*) arranged through the Ministry of Labour. Immigrants receiving such training are entitled to pupil benefits and financial support, and receive a certificate upon completion of the training. In order to promote integration, adult immigrants can also participate in "integration training" (*kotoutumiskoulutus*) through the employment services. This training focuses on social, linguistic, cultural and employment-related skills and knowledge to enable better integration into Finnish society. Finally, adult immigrants have access to some special projects, such as the *Etälukioprojekti* (distance-learning high school), which is a virtual upper secondary school programme running between 2000-2004 for adults who cannot attend normal adult secondary schools.

5.3. SPECIAL ANTI-DISCRIMINATION LEGISLATION IN EDUCATION SECTOR

There is no special anti-discrimination legislation that deals with education alone. Instead, the practices and legal precedents on education are encapsulated in the general Constitutional provisions that prohibit discrimination on the basis of "gender, age, origin, language, religion, conviction, opinion, disability or other personal reason" (731/1999 §6). This includes the right of minorities to have equal and unfettered access to education on an equal footing with the majority population. The Constitutional provision most relevant to the education sector is that guaranteeing the right of minorities to maintain and develop their own language and culture (§17), as this forms the basis for all obligations and incentives by the state to provide special educational services, such as language and religious teaching, to minorities. However, the lack of special legislation protecting minority rights and combating discrimination in the education sector may be seen as a weakness that has the potential to inhibit equality and diversity within Finnish society.

5.4. MONITORING SYSTEMS

There are no monitoring agencies that deal specifically with the education sector. However, there are some monitoring and advisory bodies that are responsible for issues and interests related to particular groups. The broadest of these is the recently established post of Ombudsman for Minorities, which was created after the abolition of the more specific post of Ombudsman for Foreigners.

Established in September 2001 and effective from January 2002, the Ombudsman for Minorities is responsible for promoting good ethnic relations, monitoring and advocating for the rights and status of minorities, reporting on issues related to minorities, and taking initiatives to implement these goals. The Ombudsman for Minorities also tries to ensure racial equality and non-discriminatory behaviour in society, in cooperation with other authorities. The Ombudsman's principal actions are to give recommendations, instructions and advice, although he/she may also give direct assistance to victims of racial and/or ethnic discrimination (<http://www.mol.fi/vahemmistovaltuutettu/ombudsmaneng.html>, 01.07.2004).

Other monitoring agencies include the Advisory Board for Roma Affairs (*Romaniasian neuvottelukunta*), the Advisory Board for Sámi Affairs (*Saamelaisasian neuvottelukunta*) and the Advisory Board for Ethnic Relations (ETNO). There is also a broader Commission against Racism, Xenophobia, Anti-Semitism and Intolerance (*Rasismin vastainen valtuuskunta*). The Advisory Board for Roma Affairs was set up in 1956 and currently serves as a link between the Finnish Roma and the public authorities, especially in legislation concerning education and housing of the Roma. Similarly, the Advisory Board for Sámi Affairs has functioned since 1960 as a consultative body that works to improve the social, cultural, legal, educational and economic situation of the Sámi. The Advisory Board for Ethnic Relations deals with issues related to immigration, racism and ethnic relations. It counsels the authorities in issues such as migration and integration policies and tolerance. Finally, the Commission against Racism, Xenophobia, Anti-Semitism and Intolerance serves a consultative function to the authorities and also brings together various persons, including academics, experts, public figures and minority groups, who are active in combating racism and xenophobia. The ECRI Second Report on Finland emphasises the positive role that these monitoring agencies play and commends most of them for increased visibility and participation from members of minority groups (ECRI 2002:10). However, there are still questions as to whether these bodies can sufficiently address the needs of all minority groups. For example, the Report expresses concern that the requests of the Russian-speaking community for a separate advisory board for Russians have so far been denied (ECRI 2002:16).

6. Description and analysis of existing data and sources

6.1. MEASUREMENTS OF SCHOOL STANDARDS BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Finland has a very low overall population density (17/sq. km) but the population is highly concentrated in the more urbanised southern region of the country (the population density of the southernmost province Uusimaa is 205/sq. km). In the eastern and northern provinces the population density drops to about 10/sq. km and in the most sparsely populated region of Lapland it is as low as 2.2/sq. km. Uneven population density, coupled with widespread settlements makes it problematic to ensure that basic services such as education are evenly provided to the entire population. This section looks at the geographical differences in school standards; keeping in mind that minority groups such as the Sámi and asylum seekers placed by the state are often located in the less densely populated parts of the country.

A 1996 study on equality in education (Jakku-Sihvonen et. al. 1996) found that schools in rural areas were more likely to suffer from cost-cutting initiatives than those in more populated areas. Similarly, rural schools also faced a greater lack of teachers, especially in languages. Considering the importance of mother tongue teaching to minority pupils, this suggests that they are more likely to suffer from such shortages than the majority. The report identified regional discrepancies as a major threat to the overall standard of Finnish education.

A large-scale evaluation of 1st to 6th grade schooling was conducted in 2001 (Korkeakoski et. al. 2001). The study found that although schools were generally doing quite well, there were problems ranging from lack of space to teaching material. With respect to teaching, it was found that the teaching plans do not always direct teaching in the ways prescribed by the national curriculum. There is still a culture of teachers working independently rather than in cooperation with others. Although 90% of Finnish schools had some sort of library, the study found that almost half of them were too small, and almost one third were using outdated material. In terms of pupils' performance, the study found that there is a trend of grade inflation, as well as some discrepancy in the correspondence of the grade given with the quality of performance. There were also clear regional discrepancies in grading in southern and western Finland, especially in languages. The discrepancy was small in grading of mathematics, however.

The most recent evaluation published in November 2002 by the National Board of Education (Jakku-Sihvonen and Kuusela 2002:19-22) examined equal opportunities in basic/comprehensive schools, including an overall evaluation of the school according to its geographical location. It was observed that the average upper quartile performance of pupils improved as we move from north to south, whereas the average lower quartile performance worsened. This suggests a polarisation, with a higher proportion of high-performance schools than low-performance ones in the south, but more low-performance than high performance schools in the north. In the rest of the country there are an equal number of high- and low-performance schools. Once again, this has a probable effect on

minority pupils because ethnic minorities, such as the Sámi, are usually located in the more rural north.

Another phenomenon observed was that the capital city area is exceptionally polarised, having some of the best and worst schools in the country. The average performance level of pupils in the Helsinki region's upper quartile schools is the highest in the country (69% marks out of a total 100 maximum points) but the average of its low-performance schools is also the lowest in the country (46%). In spite of these trends, it is difficult to say conclusively that there is an overall polarisation of educational services and standards in Finland. In the city of Helsinki, for example, ongoing research projects are looking into the accumulation of deprivation and its effect on ethnic minorities (see Schulman et. al. 2003), but no results have been published as yet. While it is certainly possible that the uneven distribution of resources affects the education of immigrant minority populations, which tend to be concentrated in the urban south, there is no conclusive data available to verify the claim that minority pupils tend to be concentrated in schools with lower than average performance levels. The question requires detailed and focused research on the correlation of ethnic deprivation and school performance. Such an undertaking has, to date, not been carried out.

6.2. PARTICIPATION AND PERFORMANCE OF MINORITIES IN EDUCATION

6.2.1. Participation

The latest available figures are for the academic year 2001-2002, i.e. collected at the end of 2001. According to these figures, there are there are about 5 200 educational institutions in Finland, comprising 3925 basic (comprehensive) schools, 440 public secondary schools, 40 international and private secondary schools, 91 musical institutions, 255 vocational secondary schools, 30 polytechnics, 20 universities and 436 adult education centres. Of these institutions, about 90% (4 700) are Finnish-speaking, 8% (430) are Swedish-speaking, 0.9% (45) are bilingual Finnish-Swedish speaking, and the rest use English or other languages (Source: NBE 2002). The annex contains further details on the numbers of pupils in Finnish schools. In total there were 1,165,436 pupils in educational institutions in 2001.

It is difficult to say how many of the above pupils are members of ethnic or immigrant minorities because **Finnish law prohibits the collection of statistics identifying individuals by race, ethnicity or minority status**. As a result, there is no comprehensive national data on the participation or performance of minorities in education. Instead, we must rely on social scientific representative studies, as well as indirect measures that give information about minorities. One example is to use data on mother tongue and nationality to get some idea of the immigrant minorities. However, this still does not provide any clear information on ethnic minorities such as the Sámi, the Roma and Tatars, who can be included among native speakers of Finnish.

The National Board of Education has collected some recent data on the presence of immigrants and foreign language-speakers in Finnish education (NBE 2003). These figures are shown in the table below.

Table 1: Foreign citizens and foreign language speakers in Finnish education, 2002

Type of institution	No. of pupils/students	Approx. percentage of total
Basic (comprehensive) school	14,300	2.4
Upper secondary school	1850	1.4
Adult education college	2300	a)
Preparatory vocational training	890	b)
Vocational secondary school	4100	2.6
Adult further education (vocational)	940	a)
Polytechnic	2600	2.2
University	3700	2.3

Sources: NBE, Statistics Finland 2002

- a) Figures of total population not available for comparison
- b) Preparatory training is intended solely for immigrants and refugees

The above table gives some indication of the minority pupils in Finnish educational institutions. However, it is important to keep in mind that the statistics are not an accurate measure because they exclude minorities who are Finnish citizens and whose native language is Finnish (i.e. ethnic minorities, naturalised citizens, second-generation immigrants etc.). Still, the table confirms the trend in Finland of very small populations of minorities, as is evident from the low values for approximate percentage (generally only slightly above 2%) of the total populations of pupils.

6.2.2. Performance

Although international tests such as PISA are useful in describing Finnish education in general, they are not very helpful in providing data about the performance of minority pupils in particular. In the PISA study, Finnish pupils performed exceptionally well (see annex for details). Researchers have pointed out that Finland's cultural homogeneity has made it relatively easy to reach mutual consensus on national education policy and methods, accounting in part for Finland's overall success (Väljærvi et al. 2000a:45-46). They have also stated that, apart from the relatively large 6% Swedish-speaking minority, the Finnish PISA study does allow for any reliable observations about other minorities because there were very few minority pupils in the final sample. Non-native pupils formed only 1% of the sample (at 55 pupils out of 5317), compared to the OECD average of 4.7%, and those not speaking the language of assessment comprised only 1.3% of the total, compared to an OECD average of 5.5% (Väljærvi et. al 2000b:6). This renders such standards uninformative for the purpose of studying minority pupils such as immigrants.

A similar problem occurs with evaluations and standardised tests carried out by the National Board of Education (NBE). Although the NBE carries out regular evaluations and research projects, immigrant pupils are typically exempted from participating in these due to lack of sufficient Finnish language skills needed to take the tests. This is especially common in evaluations of language or reading skills but even in cases where knowledge of Finnish is not an obstacle (such as mathematics tests), there is no way to differentiate the performance of minority pupils from others because data on ethnic background, nationality or mother tongue is not collected in the testing process. To date, the NBE has not carried out any separate evaluations focusing only on minority pupils (NBE 2003).

In spite of the lack of accurate and detailed information on the performance of minority pupils, the Roma are widely believed to perform most poorly in Finnish education and are in need of support and attention from the authorities. Especially in older generations, a large proportion of the Roma population has not met the basic education requirements set by the Finnish state, even though they are compulsory. Majaniemi and Lillberg (2000) have also found that the motor and mechanical skills of Roma children are often poorer than those of other children of their age. As a consequence, and sometimes as a result of prejudice, Roma children are often placed in remedial classes or are thought to require extra support from schools. Beyond the basic school level, there are few Roma involved in secondary or tertiary education. This phenomenon has been attributed to the fact that the Roma lack a strong tradition and history of education (Majaniemi and Lillberg 2000, NBE 2002d), but it is also believed that the Roma are at a disadvantage in access to higher education (ECRI 2002:14). Because the Roma have not traditionally valued state-provided education, it has been problematic to increase their participation it – unlike the majority population, most Roma children still do not attend pre-school, for example. However, attitudes are changing. Majaniemi and Lillberg state that a 1995 survey conducted among 200 Roma respondents found that two thirds of them desired more vocational education, especially in the social welfare and health sectors, in which there is also an acute need for Roma workers.

6.2.3. Dropout rates

There is very little differentiated data available on dropout rates in educational institutions. The National Board of Education statistics for 2000-2001 (NBE 2002) state that a total of 6.2% of all pupils in upper secondary schools, vocational secondary schools, polytechnics and universities combined interrupted their studies and did not continue any further studies. The dropout rate was highest amongst vocational secondary school pupils (11.6%) and lowest amongst upper secondary school pupils (2.5%). Unfortunately, these figures concern the entire pupil body and are not differentiated to account for minority or immigrant pupils. As mentioned in section 6.2.2 above, there are no studies on the performance and dropout rates of minority pupils in particular. However, there appears to be widespread acknowledgement that dropout rates amongst the Roma are relatively high.

The Finnish government acknowledged, in its 2001 report on the implementation of CERD, that “the Roma continue to experience discrimination in the field of education [...] and they have higher rates of school drop-out” (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2001:36). The report states that there are 1500 to 1700 Roma children of school age in Finland but in spite of efforts to improve Roma children’s school enrolment, a number of them drop out each year. The dropout rates have been estimated by one study to be as high as 10-20% (NBE 2002d). This level is higher than the highest dropout figure for the total population and many times the average national upper secondary school dropout level (see above). The ECRI Second Report on Finland corroborates this observation, pointing out that Roma children, who often do not attend pre-school education, tend to be directed into “special” or remedial education groups in primary school based on the perception that they are difficult or in need of special attention. The report also claims that access to higher education is more limited to Roma children, possibly contributing to the higher incidence of dropout (ECRI 2002: 14).

6.3. SPECIAL CLASSES AND TRAINING FOR IMMIGRANT AND MINORITY CHILDREN

6.3.1. Mother tongue teaching in Finnish schools in 2002

The National Board of Education has published statistics about the extent of mother tongue teaching for non-Finnish speaking pupils in basic (comprehensive) and upper secondary schools in 2002. In total, 96 municipalities provided mother tongue teaching in 50 languages including Romany, Somali, Sámi, Albanian and Kurdish. Overall, 11,408 pupils received lessons in their mother tongue twice a week. The table below shows the top ten foreign languages taught, as well as the extent to which national minority languages were taught.

Table 2: Minority native language training offered in Finnish basic and upper secondary schools 2001/2002

Immigrant Minority Languages	2001		2002	
	Pupils	Municipalities	Pupils	Municipalities
1. Russian	3043	61	3 345	65
2. Somali	1218	14	1 349	13
3. Arabic	791	18	817	19
4. Albanian	750	25	770	25
5. Vietnamese	627	14	683	16
6. Kurdish	602	17	631	17
7. Estonian	542 (8 th)	11	629	16
8. English	557 (7 th)	8	408	7
9. Chinese	247	10	271	9
10. Persian	212	9	251	12
Ethnic Minority Languages				
Romany	199	9	234	9
Sámi	17	3	19	3
Total mother tongue training (all languages)	10,690		11,408	

Source: NBE 2003 <http://www.edu.fi/pageLast.asp?path=498;526;15650;19135> (01.07.2004)

Russian is the most widely spread and extensively taught immigrant mother tongue in Finnish schools. This is followed by Somali, which is taught to a relatively large number of pupils (1349) but is far less widespread than Russian. This could be explained by the fact that the Somali community tends to be concentrated in the southern urban regions. Although they are taught to much smaller numbers of pupils, languages like Arabic, Albanian, Vietnamese and Kurdish are far more widespread than Somali. The figures correspond fairly well to the sizes of the top ten foreign nationality groups (see Annex). It is important to bear in mind that the above data does not include the 1497 pupils who received lessons in their mother tongue as a part of “preparatory training” in basic school. Separate data on preparatory training is not available at present. Further, the above data does not include figures for native language training offered in non-school settings such as clubs, religious groups and private homes. This is the case of the Finnish Tatar minority, who have not made any requests for Tatarian to be taught in state schools, such that most Tatar children receive language training in community groups.

Although there appears to be a wide range of languages covered in mother tongue teaching offered at Finnish schools, there is concern that certain groups do not have adequate access to learning their mother tongue. The ECRI Second Report on Finland mentions, for example, that the concerns of the Russian-speaking population are not adequately met and there is lack of educational provision to meet the need for mother tongue Russian teaching (ECRI 2002:16).

6.3.2. Mother tongue teaching for Swedish-speakers

Finland has two national languages, Finnish and Swedish, the former being the majority language and the latter being spoken by a small minority of about 292,000 people (5.6% of the population). According to the law, public authorities are obliged to serve the educational and cultural needs of the Swedish-speaking minority on an equal footing with the Finnish-speaking majority. This means each group has the right to be educated in its own language. The Swedish Assembly in Finland (*Folktinget*), a semi-official representative body, explains that many Swedish-speaking families in Finland opt for Swedish day-care centres, which ensure the right to pre-school education in one's native language. There are also over 300 basic or comprehensive schools, as well as 36 general upper secondary schools, a number of vocational secondary schools, polytechnics and two universities that operate primarily in Swedish. The *Folktinget* regards Swedish-speaking schools as the foundation of the Swedish language and culture in Finland, and deems them necessary for preserving the linguistic heritage of the Swedish-speaking minority. Pupils in Swedish-speaking institutions complete a syllabus that is parallel to the majority Finnish-speaking schools. The requirements of the syllabi are drawn up by the National Board of Education, and emphasise the role and use of the Swedish language, as well as providing adequate training in the majority language (Finnish) to ensure that, in most cases, pupils are bilingual.

6.3.3. Mother tongue teaching for Sámi

Like the Swedish-speaking minority, the Sámi minority (comprising about 6500 persons in Finland) also have special rights and educational provisions to ensure the preservation and development of their mother tongue. Under the new Act on Comprehensive Education (1999), the Sámi language may be used as a language of instruction in basic, general upper secondary, and vocational education. It can also be taught as a mother tongue or a foreign language. If their guardians so wish, Sámi children living in the four municipalities of Sámi domicile must be provided with basic primary education in Sámi (NBE 2002c).

Finland's 16th periodic report on the implementation of CERD mentions a few other features of the Sámi's right to education in Finland. For example, matriculation examinations (marking the end of general upper secondary school) can be taken in a Sámi language since 1994. There is also a Sámi examination board, which implements training programmes in traditional Sámi activities such as handicrafts and reindeer herding, and a Sámi Training Centre, at which pupils can participate in projects designed to enhance the traditional livelihoods of the Sámi. There are also Sámi language programmes run by open universities and colleges, for example, in Lapland, Oulu and Helsinki.

Although these rights safeguard Sámi languages in theory, their interpretation and application, in practice, does not adequately secure their future. The Sámi Parliament in Finland states that although there are provisions for the preservation of the Sámi language, such as educational rights, and access to Sámi language library services, the law is not adequate in the preservation of Sámi as a living and spoken language because the language is often used through translation and interpretation. Not enough effort is placed on educating officials to be able to provide services in Sámi (Sámi Parliament).

6.3.4 Mother tongue teaching for Roma

It is estimated that there are 10 000 Roma in Finland of whom about 1700 are children of basic (comprehensive) school age. Like the Sámi and other national minorities, the Roma are entitled to education in the Roma language at the basic, secondary, vocational and adult education levels (Constitutional Reform 1999, and Act on basic Education 1999). However, local authorities are under no obligation to provide teaching in the Roma language, nor have any separate educational funding allocations been made, as for Sámi languages. This is because, unlike the Sámi languages, the Romany language does not have the status of primary mother tongue – in practice, most Roma speak Finnish as their first language even though they may also use Romany. Romany is, therefore, taught as a “second mother tongue” and the legal obligations for a mother tongue do not apply. Municipalities may decide for themselves the extent to which they provide Romany language teaching and the lack of resources and qualified teachers often means that smaller municipalities are not able to offer Romany language training even if there are potential pupils (Romany education unit, NBE 2003).

Nonetheless, education in the Romany language is provided in some basic schools, especially in the Helsinki metropolitan region. National curricula for this education also exist. The teaching of the Romany language began in 1980s in small clubs but was more common in comprehensive schools by the 1990s. However, the National Board of Education figures indicate that Romany language teaching is still not comprehensive enough to enable all Roma children to study their mother tongue. Of the 1700 Roma children in basic schools, only about 230 (or less than 15%) currently receive Romany language lessons for 2 hours per week (NBE 2002d). The ECRI Second Report on Finland suggests that this is due to the lack of resources, qualified teachers and appropriate teaching material (ECRI 2002:14). These issues will be discussed further at a later stage.

6.3.4. Other special training for minority pupils

As mentioned before, there is a special programme of “preparatory training” (*valmistava opetus*) for immigrant pupils at the basic school level, which prepares them to enter the mainstream education system. Pupils may also be given remedial or support teaching (*tukiopetus*) to make up for weaknesses in particular areas. Below are some data about participation in preparatory training and remedial or support teaching in basic and upper secondary schools from 1993-2002. Although we were unable to locate data that would enable interesting comparative analyses (e.g. figures for total number of immigrant pupils in basic and upper secondary schools for the same years, or figures for the extent of remedial or support teaching amongst the majority population) we have given some data about the total numbers of basic school pupils who do not have a Finnish national

language as their mother tongue. This might still give some idea of the extent of preparatory and remedial teaching for immigrants.

Table 3: Numbers of immigrant pupils receiving preparatory and remedial training at the basic (comprehensive) and upper secondary school levels in Finland from 1993-2002

Year	Preparatory training (pre- and basic school)	Remedial or support training	Pupils with non-national mother tongue (basic school only)
1993	1221	*	*
1994	869	5165	*
1995	397	6730	*
1996	482	6890	*
1997	779	7021	10,977
1998	1072	8130	11,900
1999	1304	*	12,567
2000	1537	8003	13,261
2001	1300	7700	14,294
2002	1497	7552	*

Source: NBE <http://www.edu.fi/pageLast.asp?path=498;526;15650;15657> and <http://www.edu.fi/pageLast.asp?path=498;526;15650;15655> (01.07.2004)

* Data missing

Preparatory training is also available to immigrant pupils at higher levels of study, especially at the vocational secondary and polytechnic levels, where it is considered an essential part of integration into academic and work life. The table below shows the extent to which preparatory training was given to immigrant pupils in vocational secondary schools in various provinces (*lääni*) and counties (*maakunta*) of Finland during 1999-2001. The smallness of the numbers of pupils reflects the overall smallness of the immigrant population in Finland (less than 2% of people living in Finland are counted as immigrants). However, the table is perhaps more useful for the information it gives about the geographical distribution of immigrant pupils in vocational schooling. In particular, it illustrates the polarisation mentioned earlier in the report. For example, 57% of those receiving preparatory training in 2001 were located in Southern Finland. Unfortunately, data on total numbers of immigrant pupils in these vocational secondary schools is unavailable. Had it been, it would have been useful to determine the extent to which preparatory training is necessary or utilised and would also have given some idea about the extent to which the need for such preparatory training is being met in various regions of the country.

Table 4: Average number of immigrant pupils receiving preparatory training at the vocational secondary level in various provinces and counties of Finland from 1999-2001

PROVINCE	Average number of pupils who received training that year		
	1999	2000	2001
County			
SOUTHERN FINLAND	117	337	425
Uusimaa	94	234	267
Itä-Uusimaa	23	52	60
Kanta-Häme	0	10	13
Päijät-Häme	0	9	16
Kymenlaakso	0	32	47

Etelä-Karjala	0	0	23
WESTERN FINLAND	39	191	234
Varsinais-Suomi	21	61	57
Satakunta	0	10	20
Pirkanmaa	13	69	102
Keski-Suomi	5	23	23
Etelä-Pohjanmaa	0	0	0
Pohjanmaa	0	29	34
Keski-Pohjanmaa	0	0	0
EASTERN FINLAND	17	46	62
Etelä-Savo	8	17	16
Pohjois-Savo	0	12	21
Pohjois-Karjala	9	18	25
NORTHWESTERN FINLAND	8	14	22
Pohjois-Pohjanmaa	8	14	22
Kainuu	0	0	0
NORTHERN FINLAND (LAPLAND)	0	9	8
Lappi	0	9	8
TOTAL	181	597	751

NB: The average is the arithmetic mean of the numbers recorded on two counting days in each year.

Source: Ministry of Education, 2002

http://www.minedu.fi/opm/koulutus/ammatillinen_koulutus/koute/koute_maahanmuuttajat.pdf (01.07.2004)

6.4. ADULT EDUCATION

The last comprehensive survey on adult education was carried out in 2000 by Statistics Finland. It comprised interviews of 3600 residents aged between 18 and 79, selected by systematic sampling. Although the results of the study are useful in providing information about overall trends in Finnish adult education, it is very unfortunate that the questionnaire used did not distinguish respondents by nationality, ethnicity or mother tongue, so there is no way to learn about minority groups' experiences (see English questionnaire http://www.stat.fi/tk/he/aku00_tulos_lomake_en.pdf, 01.07.2004 and appendix for further details). On the whole, the study suggests that adult education is a very well established part of Finnish life, with over 1000 adult education institutions and about one million participants annually (Blomqvist et. al. 2000:4-5).

Although a direct comparison of the level of minorities' participation in adult education is not possible due to lack of relevant data, we can look at some figures presented by the Ministry of Labour to get an idea of the extent of immigrants' use of adult education services. Specifically, the Ministry of Labour has published statistics about the use of employment training (including job skills and language training) by those immigrants who are registered as job applicants at the state Employment Office. The table below shows the average number of job applicants per month for various years, as well the proportion of those who started employment training during the respective year. The popularity of employment training appears to have increased rather sharply by almost 10 percentage points between 2001 and 2002. On the whole, however, it appears that a fair proportion of immigrants using the Employment Office's services are also involved in

adult education. This may be partly due to the obligation to participate in employment training if it is required by the immigrant's integration plan.

Table 5: Immigrant job seekers at the Employment Office and those who have started job training

Year	Job applicants (total)	Started employment training	% of total
1997	20,507	8894	43.4
1998	20,956	8071	38.5
1999	21,779	9422	43.3
2000	21,999	10,210	46.4
2001	22,786	10,299	45.2
2002	24,285	12,670	52.2

Source: Ministry of Labour "Migration Statistics and Diagrams" 2002

6.5. SPECIAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR TEACHERS TEACHING IMMIGRANTS

In 2000, a preliminary report on training for teachers involved in multiculturalism and immigrant education found that the extent of teacher training in these fields varied greatly among institutions from 1 credit (40 hours of study) to 15 credits (Koponen, 2000, <http://snor.joensuu.fi/oph/ojepro8.pdf>). The survey suggested a minimum requirement of 3 credits (60 hours of study) dealing with multiculturalism and minority education. It also recommended the addition of elective modules, as well the option to specialise in teaching immigrants at the vocational level. It emphasised the importance of including multicultural studies at an early stage of the training process. It does this by evaluating the existing courses and study modules that deal with multicultural issues and education of minorities. These include, for example, the language teaching curricula developed by the National Board of Education to ensure the quality and effectiveness of language teaching for minorities such as Swedish-speakers, the Sámi and the Roma (NBE 2002), as well as special pedagogical modules developed by institutions of higher learning, for the purpose of training future teachers in multiculturalism and racial awareness. An example of course modules it assesses is the University of Helsinki Faculty of Education special study module of 30 ECTS credits titled "Multicultural Education", which aims to introduce future teachers to cultural, social and educational issues related to multiculturalism in schools and race relations (Faculty of Education 2002).

In addition, the National Board of Education has an extensive list of publications that give guidance, advice and instructions to teachers, which are intended to support their activities in the classroom. These include publications on language instruction, integration, and cultural issues, as well as teaching material on multiculturalism and Finnish language and culture (NBE 2002e). The National Board of Education and the Ministry of Education also write material and publish resource lists, from which teachers and educators can get information about teaching material and textbooks available for the instruction of minority groups.

The National Board of Education runs a vocational diploma (*näyttötutkinto*) programme adults can get official recognition of their professional skills by meeting set requirements. Participants of the scheme usually also receive further skills training and development, often in conjunction with employment (NBE 2003, <http://www.oph.fi/nayttotutkinnot/>,

01.07.2004). With respect to minorities, there is a special diploma called the “Roma cultural director diploma,” which can be awarded to a person who meets the criteria laid out (including knowledge of the Finnish and Roma languages, as well as presentation and IT skills). The diploma is intended to improve the Roma’s access to employment and education, as well as to address the acute shortage of teachers and experts in Roma language and culture. Those who receive the diploma are authorised to work as teachers of Roma language and culture, special advisers, or on projects promoting multiculturalism and integration (NBE).

6.6. TEACHER’S QUALIFICATIONS AND WAGE LEVELS

AKAVA (The Confederation of Unions for Academic Professionals in Finland) has published the latest data on teachers in Finland, which is for 2001. It shows that there were about 4831 schools and institutions employing teachers, of which 4,642 (or 96%) were owned by municipalities and local governments or the state. In these institutions, there were about 42,142 basic (comprehensive) school teachers, 6,802 upper secondary school teachers, 2250 adult education and folk high school teachers, and 2400 university teachers. In total, there were 53,594 people employed in educational institutions as teachers, lecturers or principals, of which 69% were women and 31% were men. At the same time, 900 new pupils began class teacher training studies, of which 23% were men. About 600 new pupils began kindergarten teacher training, of which 6% were men (Akava 2002, http://www.akava.fi/upload/ammatit_ja_palkat/opettaja.pdf, 01.07.2004).

According to the OECD’s Education at Glance 2001, the average salaries of primary and secondary school teachers in Finland are slightly lower than the OECD mean values (see Tables D1 of EAG 2001). The report also indicates that although teachers in Finland regularly receive adjustments to their base salaries for management responsibilities in addition to teaching, teaching special needs pupils, overtime teaching, extra qualifications and so on, they only occasionally receive adjustments for teaching courses in a specific field. Depending on whether minority pupils are classified as having “special educational needs” or not, this might suggest that there are no regular adjustments in salaries of teachers responsible for special subjects (such as mother tongue or own religion) directed at minority pupils. The annex contains details of the salary levels of Finnish teachers, according to the institution they work at, and their experience.

Statistical data on teachers’ qualification levels is hard to find. The most recent publicly available survey of education in Finland was carried out by Statistics Finland in 1999. It includes some data on the qualifications of teachers in various institutions in 1996. The study states that the median age of teachers in 1996 was 43, with the oldest teachers in upper secondary schools, where the median age was 47, and the youngest in kindergartens, where the median was 35. The table below shows the qualification levels of teachers in various institutions, as a percentage of the total number of teachers.

Table 6: Level of education of teachers in the education system in 1996

Type of institution	Teachers	Level of education				
		Below tertiary	Vocational college	Lower univ/polytechnic degree	Higher univ. degree	Doctorate degree

	N	%	%	%	%	%
Kindergarten	8737	5.6	9.5	84.0	0.9	0.0
Basic/comprehensive school	39,966	5.5	14.0	33.6	46.5	0.4
Upper secondary school	5766	3.0	0.6	7.6	85.7	3.1
Vocational school	15,063	7.7	28.9	25.3	35.8	2.3
Polytechnic	1019	2.3	7.9	14.4	64.8	10.6
University	7115	3.6	1.3	2.5	34.7	57.9
Total	77,666	5.5	14.2	32.6	41.4	6.2

Source: Statistics Finland 1996

The Confederation of Unions for Academic Professionals in Finland (AKAVA) mentions some more recent statistics on teachers' competence, stating that in 1999 13% of teachers at the primary education level (basic/comprehensive schools) were incompetent, compared to 10% of all teachers at the upper secondary school level. Perhaps more disturbingly, 28% of special education teachers were inadequately trained for their jobs. This would include, in theory, teachers of special pupil groups such as minority pupils and immigrants (AKAVA 2001). The most recently conducted study on teachers' qualification level was published in August 2003 by the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities (*Kuntaliitto*). It concluded that there is a continued lack of qualified teachers at the basic (comprehensive) school level although the situation varies from county to county. On average, 10% of basic schoolteachers do not possess the formal qualifications needed to hold their posts, a figure that has not changed in the last few years. In the best-rated counties all teachers possess the required qualifications and in the worst up to 20% are unsuitably qualified. The situation is best in counties with teacher training facilities. The lack of qualifications is most common amongst substitute teachers who hold temporary positions to cover for teachers on medical or parental leave. The lack of qualified teachers is also felt in special education aimed at immigrant teachers. To address the situation, the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities has called for improved teacher training, among other measures (Kuntaliitto 2003).

6.7. RESEARCH ON CONTENT OF SCHOOL MATERIAL

Although research on content of school material appears to be at an early stage, the ECRI Second Report on Finland indicates that there are problems regarding education on human rights and cultural diversity (ECRI 2002:11). The report states that, at present, there is less control over the content of curricula, such as training in human rights, multiculturalism and anti-racism, since responsibility for education has shifted from the central government to the municipalities. It also comments that there is insufficient teaching in Finnish schools about minorities groups such as the Sámi, the Roma and immigrants.

In the report of the IEA Civic Education Study, researchers found that the history books of Finnish comprehensive schools tended to reinforce the state's significance, while emphasising the threat from the East (Russia). Similarly, learning material of Finnish-speaking comprehensive schools contained very few mentions of ethnic or linguistic minorities. The textbooks consistently avoided ethnic descriptions, providing little information about the background, number or geographical location of Swedish-speaking

Finns. History texts, for example, do not mention the contributions made by Russian-speaking Finns, Finnish Jews and Finnish Roma during the war. Thus, the authors claim that the learning material encourages Finnish youths to develop a homogenous and state-oriented self-identity (Suutarinen et. al. 2000).

Finally, the recently formed "Workgroup on the Portrayal of Diversity in Finnish Textbooks" at the Department of Teacher Education of the University of Jyväskylä is conducting a research project on the depiction and portrayal of cultural diversity in Finnish language textbooks. The project has not yet published any results on the study but it is certain to be a valuable contribution to the study of racism and xenophobia in Finnish school material.

6.8. NON-EXISTENT DATA

There is no data available in the following areas. (The description is not done according to the table of indicators on EU level because this was not provided).

- Data on recorded complaints of racial/ethnic/religious/cultural discrimination in the education sector
- Data on court cases of discrimination in education, successful or otherwise

7. Analysis of direct and indirect discrimination

7.1. THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Before taking an analytical look at the nature of direct and indirect discrimination in the Finnish education sector, we feel it is useful to present a short theoretical introduction to the problematic. Before the 1990s, debates about pluralism and multiculturalism were not common in Finland. Although there is a good deal of discussion on the theme today, some scholars (e.g. Lepola 2000) have suggested that the Finnish notion of multiculturalism remains somewhat vague and ambiguous. While it promotes tolerance towards immigrants' cultural difference, it simultaneously tries to emphasise their egalitarian standing in the social sector and employment market. This dual insistence on difference and similarity can result in somewhat conflicting policy approaches. The official rhetoric on multiculturalism is based on the principle of assimilation, which believes a successful multicultural policy results in integration of the minority community into the majority culture. Thus, the official view expects immigrants to change and adapt, rather than adapting the system to respond to their needs. Lepola suggests that the "assimilationist" policy takes a quick-fix approach to integration, in which there is little concern for social growth as a means to incorporate the new cultural and ethnic realities that are emerging in the population. Instead, cultural difference is simply subordinated to the majority community.

With respect to education, this is manifested through what has been called a *universalist* principle, in which all institutions follow the same standards set at a national level, and are expected to impart a universally acceptable quality of education to all. Even in cases where special education is given (such as in "immigrant classrooms"), the ultimate aim is to direct the immigrant children into the mainstream universal education system as soon as possible. This results in educational and social homogenisation. However, the overwhelming tendency towards homogeneity can make it difficult for immigrants to maintain their own cultural characteristics, resulting in intergenerational conflict and confusion (Alitolppa-Niitamo 2002a). Because homogenisation of difference threatens the survival of minority groups, sociologists have claimed that the exclusion of particular groups, who do not fit into the homogenous norm, creates a demeaning image of them and has negative consequences for self-image and sense of pride (Taylor 1992). Such effects may contribute to the racial and cultural problems that exist in the Finnish school system. It is important to keep the concepts of universalism and homogenisation in mind when studying the situation of minorities in the Finnish education system.

7.2. OCCURRENCE OF DISCRIMINATION AND COUNTRY OF ORIGIN/CITIZENSHIP

Although racism and discrimination are popular research topics with respect to employment and the Finnish labour market, there is far less documentation of racism and discrimination in the education sector. This means there are no comprehensive statistical sources that can be used to determine the relationship between occurrence of discrimination in education and the age, gender, social class, religion etc. of the victims.

Nonetheless, the RAXEN 3 country report on racism and discrimination in the Finnish education sector included some figures on such correlations, as determined by a few surveys and research projects that mention racism in education. Details about the research methods, sample sizes and statistics collected in the study are included in the RAXEN 3 report (Finland Country Report, pp. 28-30). Because there have no been new statistical studies since the publication of the Jasinskaja-Lahti et. al. study, below is an analysis of what was covered in detail in the previous RAXEN 3 report.

According to research conducted in 2001 on Kosovo Albanians, Arabs, Somalis, Vietnamese, Russians, Estonians, and return migrants of Finnish origin, most believe they have received good service from schools and educational institutions (less than 5% of those studied said they received bad service). However, Arabs and Somalis are somewhat less contented than the other groups (13% of Arabs and 18% of Somalis said they received bad treatment). Arabs and Somalis are also the groups that are more often victims of racism and discrimination, perhaps because their physical appearance more clearly distinguishes them as foreigners from the majority white population (see Jasinskaja-Lahti 2002, RAXEN 3 report, p.28).

When asked whether they had experienced racism in an educational setting in the last 12 months, many immigrants said they had. The majority of all groups, except Estonians and return migrants of Finnish background said they have been discriminated against. Again, Arabs and Somalis were more likely to suffer from racism in education (on average 77% of Arabs and Somalis said they had experienced discrimination at an educational institution, compared to 50% of others).

The results of this research indicate that members of ethnic groups that are physically and culturally more “distant” from Finland (e.g. Africa, the Middle East and Asia) are more likely to experience direct and indirect discrimination within the education system. This observation may also be related to religious factors, which are discussed briefly below. However, if we set religious difference aside for the moment and focus only on the country of origin of the minorities, we see that the trend of higher levels of direct and indirect discrimination directed at Africans and Arabs reflects commonly cited prejudices and concepts of race and equality. These include the perception that members of cultures that are significantly different from one’s own are a threat, are untrustworthy, or are overwhelming traditional local values and lifestyles (Suurpää 2002, Jasinskaja-Lahti et. al., 2002, Virrankoski 2001).

7.3. OCCURRENCE OF DISCRIMINATION AND AGE

The study by Jasinskaja-Lahti et. al. also looked into racism and discrimination faced by children in Finnish schools. Amongst children, it appears that the incidence of direct, everyday racism is higher than for adults. We also see the same correlation between racism and country of origin that was mentioned in the previous section, although the differences between the various nationalities is less marked for racism towards children than towards adults.

In the case of day-care (pre-school) centres, there were relatively few complaints of regular bad treatment. Most respondents (90%) felt that their children had never been treated badly because of their ethnic background. However, almost one fifth (19%) of

Somali parents reported that their children were sometimes treated badly by day-care centre staff because of their ethnic or racial background. This was not the case for any of the other minority groups. The pattern is similar if we look at bad treatment from school teachers – only about 60% of Somali parents said their children were never treated badly by schoolteachers, compared to over 80% of parents in other minority groups. Slightly over 15% of Somali parents felt their children were often or continuously treated badly by schoolteachers, and about a quarter of them felt their children are sometimes treated badly. Among the other groups too, there is a feeling amongst 10-15% that their children are sometimes treated badly by teachers. From this, we can conclude that the incidence of racism and discrimination by officials in the education system is higher amongst Somali children than other minority groups in Finland.

It is also very worrying that racism and discrimination in education appears to rise as the age of those involved decreases i.e. direct racism and maltreatment appears more common amongst children in educational settings than adults. Almost 40% of all respondents felt other pupils sometimes treat their children badly based on their ethnic or racial difference. About 10% of all respondents believed their children are often treated badly by other pupils. Looking at the minority groups individually, we see that over one third of Somali parents believe their children are often or continuously treated badly by other children. Although relatively large proportions (about 15%) of Arabs, Russians and return migrants of Finnish origin also feel their children are often or continuously treated badly by other pupils, the Somalis stand out quite clearly here, too.

It seems from this research by Jasinskaja-Lahti et.al. that there are fairly general problems with occasional cases of racism and discrimination beyond the pre-school level, both by teachers and pupils. The incidence of racist and discriminatory behaviour by pupils is clearly higher than that of teachers and staff, however. Racist and discriminatory actions also seem to be targeted more at pupils of non-European ethnic background, with Somalis suffering more than other groups.

Another study of immigrant children in basic schools in the Helsinki area (Häyrinen 2000) also found similar results on the correlation between age of victims and incidence of racism, discrimination, mistreatment or exclusion. According to the children interviewed, the biggest problems of studying in Finnish schools were language problems, cruelty and unfriendliness of Finnish pupils, and harassment, discrimination and prejudice. About 10% of the 49 respondents said they had been called racist names on a regular basis in school. 18% said this happened only sometimes and the majority (72%) said it never occurred. On the other hand, 27% of the children said other pupils in school sometimes harassed them, while 12% said this happened often and 55% said it never happened. Häyrinen points to the fact that 39% of the children claimed they were sometimes or often harassed as very worrying. Of those who faced most racist comments, as well as harassment, Somalis were again the most frequently mentioned. Although most respondents were helped in these instances by teachers, friends or classmates, there were cases in which no one helped the children being harassed or abused. The study also found that the immigrant children tend to be isolated from the majority population – most did not have many Finnish friends, and as many as 35% did not have a single Finnish friend. Such observations are also in line with the earlier theorisation that minority children face increased social exclusion and lower self-esteem, possibly as a result of the strong homogenising and universalist tendencies of the education system.

7.4. OCCURRENCE OF DISCRIMINATION AND RELIGION

With respect to religion, it appears from the above data that there is a higher tendency for those of Muslim background (Somalis, Arabs) to face problems in educational settings. In general, attitudes towards Muslims and Islam have been quite negative, as was demonstrated by the results of a 1998 study in which 28% of those surveyed believed the practice of Islam should not be allowed because it is a threat to the Finnish society (Jaakkola 1999). Perhaps most relevant to the education sector is the increasingly common observation that Islamophobia is fairly widespread amongst younger generations.

There is some debate about the effect of the terrorist attacks of 11th September 2001 on Finnish attitudes to Islam. In the months following the events, there were mixed reactions, including increased media and public interest in learning about Islam, as well as increased incidents of racism and violence directed at Muslims. In some cases, for instance, schools and kindergartens having Muslim pupils received threatening letters and phone calls (EUMC 2001). A survey conducted by the Church Research Centre (part of the Information Centre of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Finland) in early 2002 found that although Finns still have the most negative attitudes towards Islam, Mormons, Scientologists and Jehovah's Witnesses, there is nothing new in the observation that 47% of those surveyed had a negative opinion of Islam and only 12% viewed it positively. A similar study carried out in 1999, found that 51% of respondents were negatively disposed while only 4% held a positive view of Islam.

According the latest Eurobarometer Finns are the second most tolerant nation towards different religions. The research did not, however, differentiate between religions, which makes it an unreliable measure of Finnish attitudes to particular groups. In fact, the evidence above suggests that while religious tolerance is generally valued among the Finnish population, Islamophobia does exist.

7.5. RELATION BETWEEN SCHOOL EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

EDUCATION LEVELS OF IMMIGRANTS

Some figures on the education levels of immigrants were presented in the RAXEN 3 country report, so here we will give only a short summary of those. According to a study of Kosovo Albanians, Arabs, Somalis, Vietnamese, Russians, Estonians, and return migrants of Finnish origin conducted in 2001 by Jasinskaja-Lahti et. al., all groups participating, except Somalis, had had some formal education before coming to Finland. For most groups, the largest proportions (more than 20%) completed at least basic schooling and some vocational training in their home or other country. The Russians and Estonians were most likely to be university educated, indicating that they are a more highly educated community upon arrival, in comparison to other immigrant groups.

After coming to Finland, there were also differences in the extent to which the various groups continued their education. The study found that Somalis and Vietnamese were the

most active in pursuing education in Finland – only 5.4% of Somalis and 11.5% of Vietnamese have never had any education in Finland. On the other hand, Arabs and Albanians have the highest rates of non-participation in education, suggesting that efforts to raise the education levels of immigrant minorities could be focused specifically on these groups.

Other studies have found some similar results, as well as some important variations. For example, the trend of polarisation of education levels within certain groups is especially visible amongst the Somali and Chinese populations, where there are large groups of people with high and low educational qualifications (Forsander 2000, 2002). In general, immigrants from China, the former Soviet Union, Central and Eastern Europe and other Nordic countries have high education levels. Those from Vietnam, Thailand, the Philippines and Turkey tend to be poorly educated. Amongst all immigrants, the level of polarisation is higher than in the majority population. Sample data collected by Statistics Finland in 2002 shows that migrants from EU, US, Canada and Japan have the highest educational levels; around 30 percent of them have an upper secondary or tertiary degrees, whereas only 18 percent in the largest refugee groups have such degrees (Statistics Finland 2002: 35).

The difference in education levels becomes evident when we compare the education level of immigrants as a whole, with that of the majority population. The table below compares the education level of a sample of 8556 people who had used the services of the Ministry of Labour in 2001-2002 with that of the majority population in the same period.

Table 7: Education levels of immigrants who used the employment services in 2001-2002, as a comparison of the whole population

Education level	Immigrants %	Whole population %
Primary or unknown	53	24
Upper secondary	29	46
Lowest post-secondary	4	17
Lower post-secondary	4	5
Higher post-secondary	8	7
Researcher education	2	1
Total	100	100

The data provided by the Ministry of Education on the education levels of those using their services is quite positive in comparison to the data of earlier studies on the overall education levels of immigrants (see above). This may simply be because the Ministry of Labour statistics are based only on those who use their services. Poorly educated immigrants might be less likely to use the employment services or special programmes than those with an intermediate or higher level of education. It is also important to note that seven of the top ten job types given to immigrants entering the country on a work permit are in low to medium skill categories such as garden and agricultural work, construction, welding, cooking, animal-keeping and so on (Ministry of Labour 2003). The fact that two thirds of those who used the ministry's employment services in 2002 had a vocational or university degree suggests that there are highly skilled and educated immigrants available in the labour market, but that there are other obstacles than lack of education that prevent their successful integration into the labour force.

One such obstacle is the mismatch between foreign degrees and the demands of employers. Employers respect domestic education to such an extent that many people

with a foreign tertiary degree are unable to find employment in the same field. In some cases, they are forced to enter the Finnish labour market through unskilled jobs (it is not uncommon for immigrants with tertiary level education to be working in cleaning jobs, for example. This fact was also observed in a study on the employment status of foreign students studying at the University of Helsinki; see Ally 2002). Educational background also affects employment. Those employed in teaching and health care branches had the highest education level, whereas those employed in cleaning and catering, had the lowest education level (Forsander & Alitolppa-Niitamo 2000, 18).

EMPLOYMENT LEVELS OF IMMIGRANTS

Having looked at the education levels of immigrants in Finland, we can turn to their employment and unemployment levels. The latest figures for 2002 published by the Ministry of Labour indicate that the unemployment level of immigrants, which has traditionally been fairly high in Finland, is on the decline. From an unemployment rate of 53% in 1994, immigrant unemployment has fallen to 29% in 2002, compared to 17% and 9% for the total population in the same years (Ministry of Labour 2003). In 2002, there were approx. 24,300 foreign job applicants, of whom 13,900 were unemployed. The biggest applicant groups were Russians and Estonians, who counted for 43% of all foreign applicants. They were followed by Iraqis, Iranians, Somalis, persons from former Yugoslavia, Turks, Vietnamese and Swedes. Of those applying for a job in 2002, about 66% had a vocational or university diploma.

The Ministry of Labour suggests that the “clear alleviation in [immigrant] unemployment in the last few years” has been due to better employer attitudes and active employment measures such as vocational training and Finnish-language training in participation with employers and the authorities. In fact, there was a 23% rise in the number of immigrants who started labour market training in 2002, compared to the previous year (in total 12,672 persons). Similarly, there were 10,039 people with individual integration plans, of whom 8164 entered labour market training.

Nonetheless, the RAXEN 4 national report on the employment mentions that the average unemployment rate for foreign nationals has remained the same between 2000 and 2001, and is still considerably high, at 32% (compared to 12% for the total population). The unemployment rate has decreased for the two largest groups, Russians and Estonians. On the other hand, unemployment rate of the most marginalised groups has increased; this is the case for Iranians, Iraqis, Yugoslavians and Somalis. Statistically speaking, some nationality groups seem to be stuck in marginalisation in the labour market. Refugees have the longest unemployment periods and the highest unemployment rate (Statistics Finland 2002.)

Labour force participation rate (LFP) indicates what percentage of working-age population is in the labour force, i.e. either employed or unemployed. The latest available information is from 1997 (Forsander 2002, 137). LFP rate for Finnish men was 80%, and for women 79%. For foreign nationals, and for the most foreign nationalities, there was a clear difference between LFP rates of the two sexes. The average LFP rate for foreign nationals was 64% for men, and 57% for women. Nationals of North and South American countries, Somalia, Eastern Asia and China had the lowest LFP rates in 1997; the widest gap between sexes was found between men and women from Maghreb countries.

Discrimination in the employment sector is usually indirect. It often takes the form of demands for formal competence, which are actually irrelevant concerning the job (see Paananen 1999, Jaakkola 2000). Typically these demands concern skills in Finnish language. According to employers (Paananen 1999), learning and knowing the Finnish language is a sign of commitment to Finnish working life and its rules. One study found that half of employed immigrants have experienced discrimination in recruitment situations, and the percentage is considerably higher for so-called visible minorities, such as Somalis and Arabs. 81% of Somalis and 64% of Arabs studied faced discrimination in seeking employment ((Jasinskaja-Lahti et. al. 2002).

8. Strategies, initiatives and good practices

8.1. CRITERIA USED

The following criteria have been used to determine the choice of strategies, initiatives and good practices:

- Topic: the items are either clearly related to racism, discrimination and xenophobia in the education sector (e.g. a law on teaching requirements, curricula etc.) or deals indirectly with multiculturalism in education (e.g. a general strategy to improve tolerance through the use of training and education)
- Time frame: although some general items mentioned in the RAXEN 3 report (completed as recently as March 2003) inevitably feature in this report because of their relevance, the chapter tries to focus on newer items that have come up in the interval between the two reports. This is especially the case for good practices.
- Actors: although the sections on legislation and policy naturally focus on state actors such as the National Board of Education and various ministries, there is an attempt to include a diverse range of actors such as civil society organisations, academic institutions and European-level bodies.
- Focus: the focus of the chosen items is also fairly broad in that it encompasses activities and initiatives aimed at specific minority groups (such as the Roma) but also covers efforts directed at the majority population, academic audiences, the authorities and children and the wider public.

8.2. ANTI-DISCRIMINATION LEGISLATION

As mentioned earlier, the renewed constitutional law of 11 June 1999 contains a general prohibition of discrimination on the basis of “gender, age, origin, language, religion, conviction, opinion, disability or other personal reason” (731/1999 §6). Only so-called positive special treatment is acceptable for the protection of the status of minorities. Further, the Constitution protects the rights of minorities (such as the Sámi, Roma and immigrant minorities of Finland) to maintain and develop their own language and culture (§17). Although there is no specific anti-discrimination legislation related to educational institutions, the above constitutional provisions imply that denying access to education on the basis of race, gender, ethnicity etc. is illegal. Still, the lack of a specific legal basis for combating discrimination in the education sector may be seen as a weakness on the part of the Finnish government in its commitment to promoting diversity and tolerance through education.

Similarly, the Finnish Penal Code contains general anti-discrimination clauses that can be applied to the education sector. The Penal Code outlaws agitation against an ethnic group (578/1995 § 11:8), criminalises discrimination *inter alia* on the basis of race, religion and ethnic origin (*ibid.* §11:9), and makes labour discrimination punishable by fine or imprisonment (*ibid.* § 47:3). However, as mentioned in the Finnish reports on legislation and racial violence, few cases of discrimination reach the courts and penal law is seen as among the last resorts in eliminating racial and ethnic discrimination. There is also the

problem that penal law often deals only with the most overt cases of racism, whereas more common covert racism remains unquestioned.

International human rights agreements signed by Finland are directly applicable and valid in the law. These include the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the European Human Rights Agreement, and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. Under the ICCPR, for example, all member state are required to uphold the equality of all persons, by forbidding discrimination in the law. Article 24 of the Covenant contains the duty protect children without any discrimination based on their origin. The Convention on the Rights of the Child dictates that children must be protected from all kinds of discrimination. Article 29 specifies that the aim of education is to develop respect for human rights and basic freedoms, respect for one's parents, own cultural identity, language, and values, as well for those whose culture is different from one's own. Article 30 ensures the right of minority children, in the presence of other members of their community, to recognise and practise their own religion and language.

8.3. POLICIES AND LEGISLATION ON EQUAL TREATMENT, ACCESS AND INTEGRATION

Since the legislation mentioned in the RAXEN 3 country report of Finland, there have been no new education-specific laws on equal treatment and access to education. From the policy perspective, however, the National Board of Education (NBE) (*Opetushallitus*) has outlined its approach to the education of ethnic and immigrant minorities in its 2003 policy directive. The NBE states that minority pupils requiring so-called "preparatory training" (*valmistava opetus*) should have access to it. Preparatory training aims to provide the skills needed for the immigrant pupil to make a smooth transition to Finnish mainstream education. This includes teaching in the Finnish language and culture, as well as extra preparation to follow the regular Finnish school curriculum. State-funded support or remedial teaching (*tukiopetus*) is another feature of the NBE's policy on education of minorities. Immigrant pupils who have been in the country for at last four years may receive remedial teaching in certain subjects and in their own mother tongue if necessary (NBE 2003:4). Apart from Swedish-speaking schools and institutes, there are no special schools for other minorities in Finland. Nonetheless, preparatory training is normally given in separate classes comprised of ethnic minority or immigrant pupils (e.g. the immigrant classroom, or *maahanmuuttajaluokka*) and has specially trained teachers as the primary educators (NBE 2002, <http://www.edu.fi/page.asp?path=498;526;881;3326;3327>, 01.07.2004). This is also the case for mother tongue or remedial education given to ethnic minorities such as the Sámi and the Roma.

The Ministry of Education has also continued to develop and follow the policy strategy adopted in 2001 to internationalise higher education in Finland. The strategy was prepared in order to assess how the competitiveness of Finnish higher education could be secured in the European and international context. One of the targets of the strategy is to raise the number of foreign students studying in Finnish higher education institutions. The policy is significant, from the perspective of tolerance and multiculturalism, because it calls for greater diversity and support to immigrants in the Finnish education system. It

also requests that foreign language teaching and development cooperation be emphasised in institutions of higher education (Ministry of Education 2001).

Similarly, there has been continued development of the government's action plan for opposition to racism and discrimination, which was adopted in 2001. The Ministry of Education is to ensure that ethnic, multicultural, religious and international issues are covered in teaching, education and teaching material, at all levels of education from pre-school onwards. A key issue in the plan is teacher training, which requires the continuous development, including monitoring of teachers and provision of feedback. Some of these initiatives will be described in the following section. In addition, the Ministry of Education is to monitor all educational material to ensure that the history and special characteristics of Finland's historical and ethnic minorities (Sámi and Roma people), as well as immigrants are dealt with. This issue has been mentioned in chapter 6 and will be discussed again briefly in the following section. Further, the Ministry of Education and its lower administration are to deal with issues of ethnic-based harassment in schools, as well as discriminatory behaviour, to make sure that appropriate action is being taken against racist or discriminatory acts at this level. In practice, this has mainly involved action and advocacy through supporting the new post of Ombudsman for Minorities.

The Ministry of Education was also supposed to co-operate with the Ministry of Labour in a project that supports the training of young immigrants and their applications for education. This is to focus especially on areas in which there is a perceived need for labour force (education, information technology, technical and service areas). This has been occurring mainly under the auspices of the "integration plans", drawn up by the employments offices and Ministry of Labour, which include labour market, vocational and language training provided through the Ministry of Education. Some statistics on these programmes have been presented in chapter 7.

With respect to media, the Ministry of Education was supposed to develop its co-operation with schools specialising in the information sector and other journalism and media-related educators to ensure that teaching of ethnic relations and the ethnic minorities' history and status is included. Further, the Ministry of Education will initiate, in co-operation with other ministries, a research project to investigate and make recommendations for national measures to monitor and prevent the spread of racist content on the internet. This has taken place mainly through support and funding towards projects that work with youth and promote diversity, as well as through the founding and continued support of anti-discrimination organisations such as the RASMUS network, the JOIN network and SEIS (see Raxen 3 report).

8.4. CURRENT STRATEGIES, INITIATIVES, AND EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICES

A number of strategies and initiatives mentioned in the RAXEN 3 country report on education are still underway. Therefore, this section focuses only on initiatives and projects that have come up more recently. For the academic year 2003-2004, the National Board of Education has renewed its programme of financial support to preschools, basic schools and upper secondary schools for the internationalisation and diversity of education. This includes support for international cooperation activities, projects and

initiatives, particularly those that are realised by pupils themselves. The support takes the form of payment for up to 60% of expenses for the project.

The National Board of Education is also coordinating a programme called Netdays 2003, which is part of its multicultural and internationalism strategy. The programme is aimed at young people (aged 15-25 years), schools, universities, youth organisations, libraries etc. The theme is dialogue between cultures, especially through the use of new media such as the internet. Schools wishing to participate in the initiative get support from the NBE of 1700-2500 euro to support freely formulated and original projects within the theme of intercultural dialogue. The event week will be held in November 2003, at the EU level (<http://www.netdays.fi/>, 01.07.2004).

A third current NBE project on children's artwork (photography) is related to multicultural world and children's opinions and values about it. It includes the participation of Finnish and Caribbean children. The artwork of the children is to be displayed in an exhibition and in CD-Rom format. The aim of the project is to promote tolerance, multiculturalism and dialogue. The project is targeted especially at schools and teachers who have pupils from minority groups (particularly Somalis, Roma, Sámi, Estonians and Russians). The project is funded by the Finnish Cultural Fund (<http://www.edu.fi/pageLast.asp?path=498;525;1282;19919>, 01.07.2004).

The special Roma Education Unit, formed by the Ministry of Education in 1994, is responsible for tasks aimed at improving education levels amongst the Roma. Funded by the Ministry, the Unit arranges courses, seminars and information sessions for Roma. The Unit also co-operates with Roma interest groups internationally. The Unit's action plan for 2002-2003 includes: the production of teaching material in the Roma language, a nation-wide project on Roma children's education, seminars, cultural events and information sessions about the Roma culture, parenting and education, training of cultural mediators, the publication of a regular Finnish-language information bulletin, and participation in the EU-level Commenius-2 and DROM-EDU projects (NBE 2002).

Another community-specific project is the ongoing research unit "Muslims and Religious Equality in Finland" which is part of the broader SYREENI research collective and is funded by the Academy of Finland. The project aims to study the integration of Muslim immigrants in Finnish society, from the religious, health and educational perspectives. The projects relating specifically to education and the Muslim minority include research on the extent and nature of Islamic instruction in Finnish schools, including curricula and teacher training and a second project on the situation of Somali youths, in the contexts of family, school and society (<http://www.helsinki.fi/teol/usktl/musref/tuula.html>, 01.07.2004).

In terms of public information and the promotion of diversity and tolerance amongst youth, there is a website called the Monika Multicultural Channel, which aims to provide information about minorities, intercultural research, education, anti-racism, cultural and religious tolerance and so on. The site also encourages dialogue and participation from members of the minority and majority cultures and promotes contacts between actors interested in issues of multiculturalism. A local polytechnic, in conjunction with the Ministries of Education and Labour, has produced and maintains this extensive information portal (<http://www.monika.fi/>, 01.07.2004).

In June 2003, there will be an international UNESCO Conference on Teaching and Learning for Intercultural Understanding, Human Rights and a Culture of Peace held in Jyväskylä, Finland. The objectives of the conference include: evaluating and improving teacher training policies and practices, enhancing intercultural competence of schools, developing new intercultural research initiatives, incorporating cultural heritage into education, and promoting collaboration and networks between educators (<http://www.jyu.fi/ktl/unesco2003/>, 01.07.2004).

9. Summary and conclusions

This report has attempted to provide an overview of the situation regarding racism, discrimination and xenophobia in the education sector of Finland. We hope that it has allowed clearer insight into the realities and difficulties facing the country in the immediate and near future. This chapter summarises some of the main ideas presented in the report. The following and final chapter provides certain suggestions and recommendations for positive change in this field.

There is a relatively good legislative background for the protection of minority rights and the prevention of discrimination against minorities, included in the Finnish Constitution, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, gender, age, sexuality etc. There is also a provision guaranteeing the right of minorities to preserve and develop their own languages and cultures, which in practice means they have the right to education in their mother tongue and religion. These provisions are also mentioned in other legislation such as the Integration Act and the School Law. However, there is no specific law that prohibits or sets punishments for discrimination in education. The lack of specific legislation on equality and tolerance in education may be seen as a weakness in the country's commitment to reduce discrimination through the use of education.

In terms of policy and practice, there are a number of standard procedures and techniques (such as the immigrant classroom, preparatory training, special language classes etc.) for minorities in education. There are also some general monitoring systems but none specific to education. The lack of a monitoring infrastructure devoted to the education sector is another possible weakness of the system in its current form.

The participation levels in education of minorities are very hard to determine due to lack of appropriate data. However, it can be said that there is a clear need to increase educational participation of national minorities, especially the Roma, and to fortify special education (in languages and religion) for other minorities. At present, it is also impossible to determine the performance of minority pupils in comparison the majority pupils because minorities make up such small numbers of school populations (e.g. the PISA results for Finland cannot be generalised for the minority pupils). Nonetheless, there is a perception that interruption and dropout rates are higher for minority pupils, especially in the case of the Roma where they have been measured at 10-20%, compared to only about 6% at the national level.

Another worrying trend observed from the data is the possible polarisation of educational institutions and standards, with good and bad schools concentrated in the capital area. There is also a belief that there is further polarisation in the capital city, with schools having larger numbers of immigrant pupils having lower standards, although data to corroborate this hypothesis is currently unavailable.

Adult and vocational education services seem to be better used by minorities, especially by immigrant and Roma minorities, at whom vocational and adult educational services are especially targeted. The reason for high use by immigrants appears to be that the Integration Plan system set up by the Ministry of Labour makes vocational or skills training compulsory for participation. For both the Roma and immigrants, there is a

strong geographical polarisation, with a large majority of service users in the southern part of the country.

Teachers, especially those working with minorities, continue to need further and adequate training to perform their jobs. Although there have been some steps taken, especially to meet the acute need for Roma language and culture teachers, most of the activities have focused on researching the needs of teachers. There is no data available yet on the success of modified and specialised study programmes for teacher training. The most recent evaluation of teachers' competence levels is worrying in that it finds that about 10% of all teachers at the basic school level do not possess adequate formal competence. Incompetence is also a problem in teaching directed at minority pupils.

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11. ANNEXES

SIZE AND COMPOSITION OF FINLAND'S POPULATION

Finland is a small (pop. 5.2 million) Nordic welfare state with a tradition of pacifism and involvement in international affairs as a donor and aid-giver to poorer developing countries. Historically, Finland has been a country of net outward migration, as Finns emigrated in search of work in the post-World War II period. Immigration to Finland remained relatively negligible until the 1990s, when immigration began to increase, especially as the first quota refugees began arriving in Finland in the early 1990s. Finland has historically been a very homogenous country, with only small indigenous and local minority populations (see section 2.3). All official statistics on population structure are taken from the national Population Register, which records only one citizenship for each person, regardless of dual citizenship. Naturalised Finnish citizens are recorded as Finns, and there is no indication of their previously held citizenship. Thus, all statistics used in this report do not account for those who have acquired Finnish citizenship but are of immigrant background. Even exact measures of the sizes of national minorities such as the Roma and Sámi unavailable, as statistics are not gathered on the basis of ethnic identity. Instead, we can look at national statistics collected on the basis of citizenship and mother tongue to get some idea of the minority populations' composition.

Finland's population was recorded as 5.2 million at the end of 2002, of which only 2%, or about 104 000 persons, were foreign citizens. The Swedish speaking minority formed 5.6% of the total, or about 290 000 persons. Speakers of Sámi at the end of 2002 were 0.03% of the population, or 1720 persons. Foreign languages were spoken as a mother tongue by 2.2% of the population, or about 117 000 persons (Statistics Finland 2003). Although even today there are proportionally few foreigners and immigrants in Finland, the relative rate of immigration to Finland has been steadily rising, increasing rather sharply since the 1990s from 10-20 000 to well over 50 000 by 1994 (Statistics Finland 2001).

LARGEST NATIONALITY GROUPS

The ten largest nationality groups amongst foreign citizens residing in Finland in between 1993 and 2002 are shown in the table below. At the end of 2002, the largest group of foreign citizens comprised 24 336 Russians. This was followed by 12 428 Estonians, 8 037 Swedes, 4 537 Somalis, 3 420 Iraqis, 2 535 Britons, 2 461 Germans, 2 363 Iranians, 2 177 Yugoslavians, and 2 146 Turks. In total, there were 103 682 foreign citizens living in Finland at the end of 2002. As previously mentioned, these figures do not include those with dual citizenship or those who have acquired Finnish citizenship by application.

Table A1: Ten largest nationality groups and all foreign nationals in Finland 1993-2002

Citizenship	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Russia	5828	7785	9720	11810	14316	16861	18575	20552	22724	24336
Estonia	5893	7472	8446	9038	9689	10340	10652	10839	11662	12428
Sweden	6528	6685	7014	7291	7507	7756	7809	7887	7999	8037
Somalia	2883	3538	4044	4555	5238	5371	4410	4190	4355	4537

Yugoslavia	2072	2255	2407	2624	2755	2935	3392	3575	4240	2177
Iraq	846	1009	1341	1855	2435	2670	2960	3102	3222	3420
Former USSR	7468	6804	6163	5187	4675	3628	2966	2447	2249	2011
United Kingdom	1676	1747	1865	1803	1907	2058	2170	2207	2352	2535
Germany	1576	1613	1748	1836	1961	2072	2162	2201	2327	2461
United States	1754	1775	1844	1833	1905	2001	2063	2010	2110	2146
Iran	919	1125	1275	1397	1681	1706	1868	1941	2166	2363
All foreign nationals	55587	62012	68566	73754	80600	85060	87680	91074	98577	103682

Source: Statistics Finland 2003

AGE DISTRIBUTION

The immigrant population is also different from the majority population in terms of its age distribution structure. As immigration to Finland has only really increased since the 1990s, the majority of immigrants are first-generation. (This can also be verified from Table 1 above, which shows that the large majority of foreign citizens are also foreign-born.) The national statistics for the end of 2002 regarding age distribution and citizenship are shown in the table below. There are proportionally more working-age foreigners in Finland compared to the majority Finnish population (75.7% of foreigners are of working age, compared to 66.6% of Finns). Looking at the populations of foreigners and Finns as a whole, we see that there is very little difference in the proportion of children under the age of 14 (17.8% of Finns and 17.9% of foreigners are children under the age of 14). However, almost 30% of Africans and 25% of Asians are under the age of 14, compared to only 16% of Europeans. This indicates that while the overall foreigner population is not much younger than the Finnish majority, there populations of Africans and Asians in Finland are younger than others. This is especially relevant for education issues, as it is clear that there are proportionally more children from these minority communities in the Finnish school system. It also suggests that education policy, as well as reduction of racism and discrimination in education, is of great interest and necessity to them.

Table A2: Comparative age distributions of Finns and foreigners in Finland 2002

Population	Percentage aged 15-64 yr.
Finns	66.6%
Foreigners (all)	75.7%
Population	Percentage aged 0-14 yr.
Finns	17.8%
Foreigners (all)	17.9%
Africans	29%
Asians	24%
Europeans	16%
South Americans	10%
Australasians	8%
North Americans	5%

FINLAND'S NATIONAL IMMIGRATION POLICY

The Immigration and Refugee Policy Programme was accepted on 16.10.1997, to be implemented gradually within financial limits. This includes policy decisions on regulations covering entry and residence of foreigners and immigrants, as well as refugees and asylum seekers. Finnish immigration and asylum policy is also in line with

the EU policy framework as put forward by the European Commission (e.g. in the Tampere and Seville summits of 1999 and 2002, respectively). Researcher Outi Lepola has described Finnish immigration policy using Hammar's concepts of *entrance gates*, which are controlled by the state. Specifically, she identifies three gates in the progression from foreigner to Finnish citizen. Briefly, the first of these is entry to the country, followed by permanent residence, and finally citizenship by application. At present, the first gate of immigration opens relatively easily, especially for citizens of Nordic and/or EU countries, who are exempted from obtaining a visa for short-term entry, or refugees and those with family connections in Finland. The second gate (i.e. receipt of permanent residence) can be surpassed only after a two-year stay in Finland, and ensures rights and privileges that are quite similar to those enjoyed by citizens. However, students, certain types of workers and refugees receiving only temporary protection find permanent residence elusive. The final gate to citizenship can be approached after five years as a permanent resident, although those with family and historical ties to Finland may acquire citizenship earlier (Lepola 2000: 28-30).

The Ministry of Labour states that Finland's immigration policy aims to be open, international, and respectful of human rights, legal protection and good governance, while simultaneously combating illegal immigration and international crime (MOL 2002). The 1997 Immigration and Refugee Policy Programme acknowledges that immigrants can provide new inputs for national economic and cultural development, and as such, the basic aim of immigration policy is meant to be integration of immigrants and simultaneous maintenance and preservation of their native cultures (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 1998).

Recently, there has been considerable popular and scholarly discussion about the need to replace Finland's dwindling workforce through a more active immigration policy. Similarly, views on an active immigration policy formed part of the public and party discourse in the run-up to the latest parliamentary elections, held in March 2003. Opinion is divided between those who promote a more active immigration policy because they see it as necessary to maintaining the needed supply of skilled labour (particularly in fields such as health/social work and IT), and those who believe the 229 000 unemployed persons (giving an unemployment rate of 9%) already in Finland should be employed before new workers are recruited from abroad (Statistics Finland 2003). It is also worth noting that the Alien's Act (also known as the Foreigner's Act or *Ulkomaalaislaki*) of 1991 is up for reform in 2003, so this may result in policy changes to address various issues related to immigration and integration.

FINLAND'S INTEGRATION POLICY

The Integration Act (*Kotoutumislaki*) of 1.5.1999 forms the backbone of Finland's official integration policy. The law promotes equal opportunity for immigrants and newcomers to Finnish society, while encouraging and facilitating their integration into the mainstream society and also preserving their own culture and language (Integration Act 493/1999). According to the Integration Act, municipalities are responsible for providing immigrants services such as language and job skills training, as part of their specially developed *integration programmes*. The immigrant then draws up an *integration plan* in co-operation with municipality officials and/or the employment office. The plan identifies the best measures to help the immigrant's integration. At the same time, an integration

plan may also be drawn up for the immigrant's family and children. Education in Finland's national languages is considered the key feature of the integration plan as lack of language skills have repeatedly been identified as major obstacles to foreigners' integration. However the integration plan may also include vocational or academic education. The integration policy also encourages non-employment activities, such as community work and social clubs, in order to improve social integration with the majority culture. If the immigrant complies with the integration plan, he/she is eligible to receive financial support in the form of an "integration allowance" (MOL 2000).

FINLAND'S ANTI-DISCRIMINATION POLICY

Although equality of citizens has traditionally been protected in Finnish law, the protection against discrimination intended by human rights agreements led to a broader legal definition of discrimination. The renewed constitutional law of 17 July 1995 contains a general prohibition of discrimination on the basis of "gender, age, origin, language, religion, conviction, opinion, disability or other personal reason" (HM §5). Only so-called positive special treatment is acceptable for the protection of the status of minorities. Further, the law protects the rights of minorities (such as the Sámi, Roma and immigrant minorities of Finland) to maintain and develop their own language and culture (HM §14.3). With respect to schools, this right enables minorities to receive teaching in their native language, as well as to dress according to their customs (e.g. wearing headscarves). Discrimination, which is known to have a serious effect on the victim's sense of self-worth, is also a criminal offence in Finland (RL 11 §9). This means that teaching and other services of schools must be organised in such a way that pupils are not in an inferior position because of their ethnic background.

International human rights agreements signed by Finland are directly applicable and valid in the law. These include the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the European Human Rights Agreement, and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Pupils and students in Finnish educational institutions over time

The table below shows figures for the numbers of pupils and students in various educational institutions in Finland.

Table A3: Pupils/students in studies leading to a degree/diploma

Type of institution	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Basic school	569 452	592 920	588 162	589 128	592 375	591 679	591 272	593 451	595 727
Upper Sec. School	99 582	88 160	109 108	109 878	111 328	112 926	130 624	130 032	128 642
Vocational School	147 354	162 535	171 577	166 009	153 656	141 709	1 158 062	159 884	160 115
Polytechnic	–	–	31 557	42 722	62 258	82 211	100 783	114 020	118 013
University	92 230	112 921	133 359	140 129	142 962	147 278	152 466	157 796	162 939
Total	908 618	956 536	1 033 763	1 047 866	1 062 579	1 075 803	1 133 207	1 155 183	1 165 436

Source: Statistics Finland 2002

FINNISH PUPILS' PERFORMANCE IN INTERNATIONAL TESTING STUDIES

In the PISA study, Finnish 15-year-olds had the best scores in the OECD for reading; as well we top level scores in mathematics and science. About 50% of Finnish youngsters were rated as excellent readers, compared to the OECD average of 32%. Only 7% of Finnish pupils were rated as poor readers, compared to the OECD average of 18%. The difference between reading skills of boys and girls was most marked in Finland, with Finnish girls ranked as the best readers in the world (average grade of 571 points, compared to 551 a point average for second-ranked Canadian girls, and 546 points for Australian girls). The differences between schools in learning levels were also smaller in Finland than in any other country studied. Geographical differences in performance were also relatively small, although the study found that Finnish boys in rural areas performed below the national average. Differences according to socio-economic background were also found (children from high socio-economic background performed best) although these were not as marked as in other countries. In mathematics, Finnish pupils' PISA results placed them 4th out of 32 countries, with no difference in the performance of boys and girls.

In the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) of 1999, Finnish pupils also performed quite well in international comparison. Finnish 13-14 year-olds were placed 14th in mathematics and 10th in science out of the 38 participating countries. Finnish children were also found to have good levels of self-confidence with regard to learning mathematics and science. The international CIVIC-Study "Young Citizens," suggests that the citizenship skills and motivation levels of children need to be developed.

ADULT EDUCATION

Regarding the overall population, the most recent study on adult education (2000) found that 54% of respondents participated in adult education, double the rate of 20 years ago, and about 6 percentage points higher than the value in the last survey of 1995. Peak participation rates were in the age group 35-54 years for women and 25-34 years for men. Women were also generally more active in adult education than men. Participation rates were highest in urban areas. Participation levels also varied with socio-economic status, education level, and employment status with more educated and gainfully employed people more likely to pursue studies. On the whole, the study suggests that adult education is a very well established part of Finnish life, with over 1000 adult education institutions and about one million participants annually (Blomqvist et. al. 2000:4-5, http://www.stat.fi/tk/he/aes00_pub.pdf).

TEACHERS' SALARIES

The table below shows average values of teachers' salaries in various academic institutions at the end of 2001. Salaries are given in euro/month, including the pay scale according to experience.

Table A4: Teachers' salaries in Finnish institutions at the end of 2001 (euro/month)

Position	Starting salary	Years of prior experience		
		5 yrs	10 yrs	20 yrs
Class teacher (basic school)	1749	1867	2018	2388
Lecturer (basic school)	1197	2052	2237	2674
Senior lecturer (upper sec. school)	2001	2186	2506	2842
Lecturer (university)	1850	2271	2506	2960
Teacher (adult education centre)	1682	1800	1951	2321
Rector/school principal	2691	2893	3027	3616

Source: AKAVA

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN FINNISH UNIVERSITIES

The table below shows the numbers of foreign students in Finnish universities between the years 1990-2000. The figures in the database of the Ministry of education are for 2000. However, the National Board of Education has published statistics for 2003, which indicate that there are currently 3700 foreign students enrolled in Finnish universities (see also above).

Table A5: Number of foreign students in Finnish universities 1990-2000

Year	TOTAL	Europe	Africa	North America	Latin America	Asia	Oceania	Unknown
1990	1617	688	297	130	41	444	7	10
1991	1899	807	301	143	47	575	9	17
1992	2182	962	300	139	51	670	12	48
1993	2348	1063	302	135	57	731	11	49
1994	2566	1195	317	145	55	789	11	54
1995	2759	1348	316	147	68	817	15	48
1996	3107	1562	345	188	84	858	14	56
1997	3131	1653	338	188	80	814	13	45
1998	3199	1718	360	178	80	809	13	41
1999	3473	1953	325	195	81	863	19	37
2000	3732	2187	311	197	84	910	15	28

Source: Ministry of Education, KOTA Database
<http://www.minedu.fi/julkaisut/pdf/99KOTA2001.pdf>

The table below shows the geographical distribution of foreign students by university, as well as the type of studies/degree they pursued. The latest figures in the database of the Ministry of Education are for 2000.

Table A6: Foreign students in Finnish universities in 2000 by region and type of studies pursued

	TOTAL	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Post-graduate studies	Other degree
TOTAL	3732	65	2306	1291	70
SOUTHERN FINLAND	1986	42	1286	626	32
Helsinki University	1175	16	749	378	32
Helsinki University of Technology	418	-	221	197	-
Helsinki School of Economics	64	-	56	8	-

Swedish School of Economics and Business Admin.	92	-	80	12	-
University of Art and Design	72	7	52	13	-
Theatre Academy of Finland	13	-	9	4	-
Academy of Fine Arts	24	19	5	-	-
Sibelius Academy	128	-	114	14	-
WESTERN FINLAND	1280	23	759	475	23
Jyväskylä University	241	-	173	68	-
Vaasa University	56	-	33	23	-
Turku University	220	1	136	75	8
Turku School of Economics and Business Admin.	16	-	9	7	-
Åbo Academy	325	2	206	117	-
Tampere University	271	20	158	78	15
Tampere University of Technology	151	-	44	107	-
EASTERN FINLAND	364	0	237	122	5
Kuopio University	67	-	27	35	5
Lappeenranta University of Technology	56	-	37	19	-
Joensuu University	241	-	173	68	-
NORTHWESTERN FINLAND	204	0	97	97	10
Oulu University	204	-	97	97	10
NORTHERN FINLAND	27	0	19	8	0
University of Lapland	27	-	19	8	-

Source: Ministry of Education, KOTA Database
<http://www.minedu.fi/julkaisut/pdf/99KOTA2001.pdf>

IMMIGRANTS IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING

To get an idea about vocational training and adult education of minority groups in particular, we must turn to other sources. In the Ministry of Education's database on polytechnics (AMKOTA), the latest data on foreign pupils in polytechnics is for 2000. The table below shows the number of foreign pupils studying in Finnish polytechnics by region and citizenship.

Table A7: Pupils of foreign nationality in Finnish polytechnics, by region of origin and institution in 2000

	TOTAL	EUROPE total	Of this EU	AFRICA	NORTH AMERICA	LATIN AMER. CARIBB.	ASIA	OCEANIA	UNKNOWN
SOUTHERN FINLAND	1226	577	211	237	32	22	312	7	39
Capital city area	824	379	146	196	25	14	181	4	25
Arcada-Nylands Swedish Polytechnic	168	61	45	65	3	1	35		3
Laurea Polytechnic	136	48	8	48	5	1	28	1	5
Espoo-Vantaa Inst. of Tech.	171	55	26	38	4	4	66	1	3
Haaga Polytechnic	83	58	27	3	5	3	12		2

Helsinki Polytechnic Stadia	115	68	11	21	3	1	15	1	6
Helsinki Business Polytechnic	151	89	29	21	5	4	25	1	6
Other Southern Finland	402	198	65	41	7	8	131	3	14
Häme Polytechnic	76	23	8	12	1	4	36		
South Carelia Polytechnic	26	21	1	2			1		2
Kymenlaakso Polytechnic	73	44	13	10	1		13		5
Lahti Polytechnic	60	32	5	1	2	2	21		2
Turku Polytechnic	132	48	12	16		2	59	3	4
Yh Sydväst	35	30	26		3		1		1
WESTERN FINLAND	847	302	119	142	22	9	355	4	13
Pirkanmaa Polytechnic	40	20	3	14			5	1	
Tampere Polytechnic	85	32	16	14	3	2	32	1	1
Satakunta Polytechnic	128	26	13	11	8	2	79		2
Jyväskylä Polytechnic	184	87	41	37	6	3	44	1	6
Mikkeli Polytechnic	185	79	23	25	2		77		2
Keski-Pohjanmaa Polytechnic	46	16	5	3		2	25		
Seinäjoki Polytechnic	25	18	6	1			4	1	1
Vaasa Polytechnic	154	24	12	37	3		89		1
EASTERN FINLAND	405	197	103	53	10	0	135	1	9
North Carelia Polytechnic	47	27	8	3	1		14		2
North Savo Polytechnic	162	40	14	31	1		85		5
NORTHWESTERN FINLAND									
Kajaani Polytechnic	20	13	5	1			5		1
Kemi-Tornio Polytechnic	119	94	69	3	4		18		
Oulu Polytechnic	57	23	7	15	4		13	1	1
NORTHERN FINLAND	14	13	8	0	0	0	0	0	1
Rovaniemi Polytechnic	14	13	8						1
VARIOUS LOCATIONS	114	82	41	22	1	1	13	0	5
Diakonia Polytechnic	50	42	10	2	1		2		3
Humanities Polytechnic	2	2							
Arcada Swedish Polytechnic	62	38	31	10		1	11		2
TOTAL	2 606	1 171	482	444	65	32	815	12	67

Source: Ministry of Education, AMKOTA Database
<http://www.csc.fi/amkota/taulukot/v2000/ulkomkaikki2000.xls>