PEACEMAKERS Project: “Peace Dialogue Campus Network: Fostering Positive Attitudes between Migrants and Youth in Hosting Societies”

Need Analysis

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NEED ANALYSIS

I- Introduction

The ongoing refugee crisis in Europe and Turkey reinforced xenophobic and anti-immigrant sentiment, manifested in attacks on migrants, and those perceived as foreigners and support for populist anti-immigration parties in many European Union (EU) states. In many of the EU member states, high levels of immigration appear to have produced an increase in hostility toward immigrants (Quillian 1995; McLaren 1996b), increased support for right-wing parties (Knigge 1998; Lewis-Beck & Mitchell 1993), and even produced violent right-wing behaviour (McLaren 1999). "In September, United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights Zeid Ra'ad al-Hussein warned leaders of populist parties in Europe about the corrosive effect on societies of their instrumentalization of bigotry and xenophobia for political ends." (Human Rights Watch, 2017). As we see this trend continuing in Europe and Turkey, the question to ask is how to reduce intergroup prejudice and discrimination in order to promote inter-ethnic social inclusion.

Indeed, immigration is very often source of "shock of the culture" for both native and immigrant people, often leading to what is called the "integration crisis", that is, a conflictual situation among individuals with different geographical, cultural, or ethnic background. Such crisis is often caused by the necessity for individuals to redefine social interactions and norms that are adaptive for all social groups. To do this, it is essential to understand the perspective of both native, or the majority, and immigrant people, or the minority group. Research on social integration has shown that the inclusion of the new members in the host societies is the basis for social cohesion (Fleras, 2009), and continuous positive contacts between members of different groups (Allport, 1954) are necessary, as they increase native people' knowledge about immigrants and vice versa, then break prejudices and stereotypes, facilitating the social cohesion.

II- Immigration and migrant population in Germany

Migration data in Germany

19.3 million people living in Germany have a migration background. In other words, almost every fourth person has made own migration experiences or has a parent who did (SVR, 2018). A little more than 50% of these 19.3 million people are German citizens (SVR, 2018) and thus, Germany has a very diverse population.

Migration towards Germany underwent several different phases and has been reality even before the country's foundation. However, within this report, the period after the second World War (in West-Germany) and especially after reunification in whole Germany is focused.

After the second World War migration towards the Federal Republic of Germany was particularly characterized by workers recruited from the German government. By 1965 there were more than 1.2 million foreign workers employed in West Germany (Berlinghoff, 2018). These bilateral recruitment agreements between the governments were based on the idea of temporary migration, meaning that the workers were supposed to return to their home country after a few years. Yet, by time a lot of the so-called 'guest-workers' prolonged their stay and also caught up with their families in Germany. This made them stay permanently but without any further integration or migration policies introduced by the national government (Berlinghoff 2018). Germany was officially not considered an immigration country. The oil crisis in 1973 and the increasing criticism by trade unions then ended the recruitment agreements and the number of migration workers decreased tremendously (Berlinghoff 2018). Nevertheless, this did not mean an end to migration, the causes shifted though. Migration towards Germany was now more based on family relations while it became more difficult for people from 'non-western' countries to obtain a working permit at the same time (Berlinghoff 2018).

After reunification, in the 1990ies, most of the immigrants to Germany came from Eastern Europe. But because of the official persistence of not being an immigration country by the German government, political conflicts arose (Berlinghoff 2018: 8). However, since 1957 Germany had a surplus of people immigrating in comparison to people emigrating (with occasional expectations in some years) and hence should be considered an immigration country statistically speaking (SVR 2018: 3).

In 2015 and 2016 the largest amount of people has been migrating to Germany and seeking refuge (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017). Between 2010 and 2017, 1.31 million people seeking asylum came to Germany in total (please see link Ausländerzentralregister). Due to this rather unusual high number, the public debate often speaks about the overwhelming problems and challenges these newcomers of refugees pose to society and the nation as a whole (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017). The summer of 2015, also known as the ‚summer of migration' has been discussed politically and

publicly discussed very controversially, especially after the German chancellor Angela Merkel and the German government decided to dismiss the Dublin III Regulation temporarily for people seeking asylum based on the principles of the humanitarian imperative. Although the Dublin III Regulation is in place again and immigration numbers have decreased, refugees and migration policies are still the most debated topic on the political agenda. At first, there was not much knowledge and scientific studies about the newcomers, their situation, their desires, their qualifications and their professional potential. But to know about those facts and potentials is crucial when developing an integrated society (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017).

In this context, an integrated society is defined as one of equal participation in central areas of life (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017). It is a process where the whole of the German society is involved, meaning that migration and integration cannot be successful if there is no mutual acknowledgement between the groups of newcomers and natives or long-term residents (Zick and Preuß 2019). This aspired acknowledgement though needs political strategies to ensure legitimization and support. These can be given by securing material needs, supporting intergroup contact and guaranteeing diversity in the educational system and media with a positive attitude of valuation, of belonging and equality in the every-day life (Zick and Preuß 2019). Special importance comes to social contact between people, as most people in Germany oppose separation and segregation of migrants and natives (Zick and Preuß 2019). But how can this intergroup contact be fostered and practically developed? One definitive space for intergroup contact is the educational system, where people from all backgrounds meet.

About 53.000 people came to Germany in 2017 to either start an apprenticeship, go to school or study at a university (SVR 2018). Additionally, people with a migration background are younger on average (35.4 years of age) in comparison to people without a migration background (46.7 years of age) (SVR 2018). Thus, there is a big potential for universities and any educational institution for recruiting new students.

This is even more emphasized by the high willingness and motivation to work and to obtain further qualifications through studies of people with a refugee experience in Germany show. But unfortunately, their motivation and educational goals often do not fit the demands and requirements of the German educational system and job market which leads to frustration and resignation (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017). State qualification measures and the demand from the refugee's side do not seem to match and thus it has been discussed to put more flexibility into the German educational system. One reason for this are the long years of study, because mostly people are eager to be quickly

financially independent hence to enter professional working life quickly (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2017).

Because of this mismatch and the importance of education for integration, there have been a lot of initiatives from the tertiary educational sector in Germany which aim at including refugees into regular study programs. Yet so far, they have not been centralized and the procedures of how refugees can enter the higher education system and become regular students have not been standardized (Schammann and Younso 2016). Several studies evaluate the situation in detail.

Firstly, it can be said that in Germany a majority of the institutions for higher education (between 72% and 98%) offer support opportunities for refugee students (von Blumenthal et al. 2017 and Schammann and Younso 2016). The origin of all initiatives at universities is founded on voluntary and honorary offers of the institutions' members. Their motivation is the smooth reception of refugees and the overall integration of society (Schammann and Younso 2016).

Examples of social integration in Berlin: Humboldt-Universität

A very recent study done by Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin assesses the opportunities of refugees and newcomers at universities and institutions of tertiary education throughout Germany. It shows that in particular the interpersonal contact and exchange amongst students with refugee experience and other students foster not only the German language proficiency but also the understanding and empathy for each other. Students with a refugee background feel acknowledged as well as develop personal success stories and especially female refugee students experience equal opportunities (von Blumenthal et al. 2017).

In most cases, the German procedure of being a guest student, meaning to participate in classes and seminars without obtaining neither grades nor a degree, often forms the first step of enrolling refugees as full-time students. In other words, the guest students' status should gradually lead to full enrolment. Though, this path is only possible for refugees who can prove that they have a university entrance qualification and "only" need to acquire German language skills. With this measure, younger first-time students and students with a profound 'stay perspective' are addressed foremostly while older prospective students or persons without a university entrance qualification fall out of the target group (Schammann and Younso 2016). However, special tests have been introduced at some institution of tertiary education, such as at Freie Universität in Berlin where students with a refugee background can take a test to evaluate their study qualifications (please see link Freie Universität Berlin Studienkolleg). More widespread is the possibility to take a test for international students,

which determines the individual qualifications to enter any study programme. However, this does not substitute to proof one's university entrance qualification documents (BAMF 2016)

So apparent challenges prospective students face with a refugee background include the lack of German language skills and missing documents which proof eligibility to study at a university (von Blumenthal et al. 2017). The problem of missing documents has been addressed in the past and thus almost 80% of the universities now offer the possibility to enrol as a regular student even though documents are missing due to the refugee experience (von Blumenthal et al. 2017: 8). Yet, most refugees fail to take up studies due to their missing language proficiency in German (von Blumenthal et al. 2017). Universities have reacted to this by providing language courses as well as preparatory courses for potential candidates. But also for most these courses, candidates need to show that they have obtained university entrance qualifications (von Blumenthal et al. 2017). Possible solutions to this challenge could be to implement instruments to determine eligibility of applicants beyond the usual standards of higher education entrance qualifications (Schammann and Younso 2016) as has been introduced by the Freie Universität Berlin for example. Further, it could be useful and feasible to analyse external offers to acquire German language skills (Schammann and Younso 2016).

Additionally, there is still uncertainty when it comes to legal questions and status and the interference of university and refugee laws (Schammann and Younso 2016). For enrolling at a university, students with a refugee experience are not obliged to obtain a certain legal status or residence permit. Only a few universities require certification of a person's legal status upon enrolment (von Blumenthal et al. 2017). Still this topic is mostly perceived as complex and ambiguous, hence there is an increase in individual case decisions which then again extend the discretionary scope, grey areas and the potential for restrictive interpretations. Increased resources in administration and/or specific legal training could counteract this (Schammann and Younso 2016). Next to that, the administrative effort and special enrolment procedures and opportunities for refugee students are perceived as complex and non-transparent, which lead to additional difficulties in the implementation. Specific knowledge seems to be concentrated with individual administrative clerks at the universities. Therefore, it might be useful to make well-founded knowledge available to several people within the administration and simultaneously create standardized processes (Schammann and Younso 2016).

Advisory centers and counselling to fight intergroup discrimination

Discrimination might also increase due to the more diverse student group. Therefore, it is advisable to implement steady and extensive advisory centres (Beigang, von Blumenthal, Lambert

2018: 1). Measures that proved to be very successful in tackling challenges with a diverse student group, is establishing buddy and tandem systems. By this students from different background are put into contact and support each other in academic, formal, social or any other questions. This measure has firstly been implemented to bring students from working class backgrounds, international students and regular students together and has now been expanded to include students with a refugee experience (von Blumenthal et al. 2017).

Advisory centres and counselling are particularly important because students with a refugee background also face most difficulties during their everyday and social life which often go beyond their life as a student (Beigang, von Blumenthal, Lambert 2018; Schamman & Younso 2016). The living conditions of refugees are often restricted by legal regulations and financial challenges such as the question of how to finance one's studies and where and how to obtain health insurance. These obstacles can lead to considerable difficulties in taking up regular studies. None of the universities surveyed were able to overcome these challenges. Targeted counselling and low-threshold offers are recommended as possible solutions. Partly this problem has been tackled already by the student bodies, which provide counselling for applying for state funding during studies. Additionally. the subjective perspective of refugees as well as from external sources such as NGO's and advisories could also be included in any solution finding process (Schammann and Younso 2016).

Although refugees have the opportunity to take up studies in Germany and the higher education system is adapting to the new situation, there are some areas which could be improved and addressed. These include that there is no sufficient scientific data about the study success of students with a refugee background (Schamman & Younso 2016). However, at this point of time it might be still too early to determine this success because not many students with a refugee background could graduate yet. But they are also not asked enough about their own academic aspirations (Beigang, von Blumenthal, Lambert 2018; Schamman & Younso 2016). There is little or no information on the overall qualification of refugees in Germany and accordingly no overview of demand. This represents a further deficit (Schammann and Younso 2016).

With regard to the overall topic, the universities would like to see an exchange of information among themselves (Schammann and Younso 2016).

Overall it can be noted that institutions for tertiary education in Germany are very engaged in offering opportunities for the integration of refugees. Despite points of improvement and mentioned deficits, they try to include and listen to the needs and problems refugees face when entering the educational system. The institutions of higher education are eager to provide possibilities for refugees to become regular enrolled students and hence some standards and procedures have undergone

flexibility changes in the recent past (von Blumenthal et al. 2017: 11). It can be stated that there is a large and area-wide offer for prospective students with refugee experience, which at the beginning was not designed and realized in a structured and transparent way. However, there has been a lot of progress made and today, there are centralized structures and guidelines provided e.g. by official authorities in Germany such as the German student union or the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (BAMF).

Still, the procedures could be simplified, for example by creating more flexible study regulations and standards of handing in documents (von Blumenthal et al. 2017). Obviously, the governmental side also plays as an important role in this process. This means the universities are on the right track, continuous evaluation, exchange of information and transparency, not only among each other but also with state actors are improved. Yet, all should be implemented more comprehensively to ensure full support for prospective students with a refugee experience.

III- Immigration and migrant population in Italy

Numbers of recent immigration phenomenon and on-going refugee crisis in Italy

There are 5 million foreign nationals legally residing in Italy, according to figures from national statistics institute Istat, which is equivalent to around 8.3 percent of Italy's population of 60.5 million. The biggest grouping of migrants come from Romania, accounting for just under a quarter of the total figure, or 23 percent. Another 9 percent are from Albania, 8 percent are Moroccan, 5.5 percent are Chinese and 4.5 are from Ukraine, with many employed in retail, farming or domestic work. Focus is largely on the 690,000 migrants who have arrived by boat since 2013, most of them from sub-Saharan Africa. While some have papers, others don't – and most are still in the country. Migration study foundation ISMU estimates there are some 500,000 people living in Italy illegally – equivalent to 0.9 percent of the population, among them failed asylum seekers and those who have outstayed their visas.

The International Organization for Migration show that around 120,000 immigrants arrived in Italy by sea in 2017, with the government putting the cost of taking them in at €4.2 billion. Two-thirds of that figure was spent on caring for asylum seekers, while 18 percent went on sea rescue and 13 percent on medical assistance. In 2013, there were 22,000 people in asylum centres. By January, that number stood at 182,000. In 2014, the migrants who landed on the Italian coasts were over 170,000, in 2015 slightly less than 154,000 – with Greece ranking number one and counting more than 857,000 arrivals by sea – while 2016 was a record year for landings, as it registered the all-time

record number of 181,000. During the first half of 2017, the number of people who landed in Italy totalled 85,000, 10,000 of which were unaccompanied foreign minors. Since summer 2017, though, a countertrend has being observed: a considerable drop in the arrivals (we will explain the reasons behind these data in the third paragraph of this first section). The number of migrants who arrived between July and September 2017 were 21,336, namely 65% fewer compared to the same period last year. Thus, the amount of people landed on the Italian coasts is almost equivalent to that concerning the Greek islands, which saw a significant drop-off in migrant landings due to the March 2016 EU-Turkey deal. Consequently, migrants started seeking new routes towards Europe: Spain, in particular, witnessed a considerable increase in arrivals by sea (10,886) and by land in the Spanish enclave of Ceuta and Melilla (4,422). In total, migrants arrived in Europe via the Mediterranean Sea reached the 129,000 units. In the last few years, the number of deaths in the Mediterranean Sea has unfortunately risen (3,283 in 2014; 3,784 in 2015; 5,143 in 2016; 2,428 as of August 2017). Among the people landing on Italian coasts, many were unaccompanied minors, exactly 15,779 throughout 2017.

In 2018, new hard-line Interior Minister Matteo Salvini, who heads the nationalist League party, has said Italy "cannot be Europe's refugee camp", vowing to halt the influx of arrivals and expel hundreds of thousands of illegal immigrants. And when the government was sworn in last week, Conte pledged to seek an overhaul of the so-called Dublin rules, under which would-be asylum seekers must submit applications in their country of arrival – a huge issue for Italy.

The reception system still appears largely inadequate to face the persistent migratory pressure with a pending final decision. National institutions are increasingly supporting reception as implemented by the Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (SPRAR) – which is composed by a network of municipalities and local institutions that, by accessing the National Fund for Asylum Policies and Services and in cooperation with third sector organizations throughout the national territory, implement integrated reception projects for international protection applicants, refugees, beneficiaries of subsidiary and humanitarian protection, and foreign unaccompanied minors. Besides providing for basic needs (food and housing), the integrated reception interventions implemented by the SPRAR system offer services that include the provision of information, guidance and training through the development of individual, tailored programs aimed at promoting socio-economic inclusion.

However, the number of places available within the SPRAR system is still very limited and only a tiny fraction of asylum seekers and refugees are accommodated in SPRAR structures. Indeed, the vast majority of migrants that arrive in Italy are taken to so-called “extraordinary reception centres” (CAS, Centri di Accoglienza Straordinaria) that do not guarantee adequate reception

conditions (whereas SPRAR structures guarantee high standards of reception conditions and result much more effective in ensuring the migrants' integration process). While these reception centres should be aimed only at providing basic assistance in the very initial stages of the migrant's reception, migrants who are taken there end up spending months or years in these centres. Indeed, despite the significant effort that Italy has made in order to increase the number of people taking part in the SPRAR system, the latest data regarding the national reception system (April 2017) show that a total of 177,000 migrants was accommodated in Italy, 78% of which in CAS reception centres, 13.5% in the SPRAR projects network, and the remaining 8% in the hotspots created by the EU and in the preliminary reception centres set up by the Southern regions (e.g Sicilia) where most migrants land. As already mentioned, this is indeed an inherent fault in the system, as the fact of being "extraordinary" typically increases the costs and decreases the levels of protection; said fact, with reference to the single territories, usually offers solutions that are neither rational nor shared.

Initiatives of good receptions and integration and Italy

The analysis of "The initiatives for good reception and integration of migrants in Italy" (Italy Internal Ministry, 2017) focused on a total of 133 initiatives carried out in 60 provinces and showing that reception and integration actions reported by the Prefectures are concentrated mainly in the centre and, even more, in the North of Italy.

Of the 133 initiatives monitored, 49% falls within the category of systemic actions (interventions which produce a change in the welfare systems at local level in general and on the reception system itself, through the organisation of new tools and methods capable of strengthening the intervention policies of the local and central governments), while the remaining 51% are actions targeted at individuals (interventions that meet the needs of individuals, families or social groups, without however producing any structural change in the community, the systems or administrations involved).

As for the recipients, the majority of initiatives targets individual beneficiaries directly or indirectly (66.2%). Less frequently, the initiatives target institutions, more specifically Prefectures (15%), local governments (14.3%) and public services (10.5%), or operators working in CAS (8.3%) or reception facilities in general (11.3%). The need to engage the receiving society and raise awareness on migration issues is clear from the share of initiatives targeting the urban population (6.8%) and pupils (3.8%).

Numbers of immigrants and initiatives of good reception and integration in Emilia Romagna

In 2015 a work group was established at the Prefecture of Bologna (Coordinamento Interistituzionale Accoglienza Protezioni Internazionali – the Inter-institutional Coordination for the Reception of International Protection Seekers) for an integrated and coordinated governance of the first reception system at the regional hub of Centro Mattei and of second-level reception in the SPRAR and CAS projects with the participation of the Prefecture, the Police, the Regional Cabinet of the Scientific Police, the Municipality of Bologna and the Provincial Local Health Unit of the City of Bologna.

Moreover, other small but relevant initiatives were implemented in order to facilitate social integration of migrant people in the society. For example, thanks to the collaboration between EFI – Ethical Fashion Initiative of the International Trade Centre of the United Nations and the Laimomo cooperative, an initiative was launched to offer qualifying and independence programs to seekers of international protection who are already hosted in facilities in the metropolitan area of Bologna, by guaranteeing effective support at the end of their stay in the reception centre both with programs for job placement in Italy and Europe and with micro-credit projects in case of return to their country of origin. In 2015, Laimomo and EFI started to cooperate to create a training hub specifically targeted at asylum seekers and specialised in high fashion. Since July 2016, Laimomo and Ethical Fashion Initiative have started their activity in the training hub where they offer asylum seekers a vocational training in the fashion industry. The hub also functions as a reception centre for the trainees, who are all asylum seekers selected based on the skills acquired in the field of dressmaking and leather working in their country of origin. The project has the following objectives:

• Granting every year access to qualifying vocational training in the fashion industry to 18 seekers of international protection and, where possible, to some residents referred by the social services of the municipality;

• Enabling attendants to acquire the necessary skills to find a job;

• Guaranteeing a pathway to exit the reception system, both through support in finding employment with companies locally, in Italy or in Europe, and through personal projects when the resident returns to his/her country of origin;

• Starting production processes in the training hub to allow the trainees to become active workers in the production process and put the techniques learned during the course into practice.

Laimomo and Ethical Fashion Initiative cooperate actively with Italian and European public institutions to develop a network, by supporting pathways towards the independence of asylum seekers and proposing specific development activities in the countries of origin, through assisted

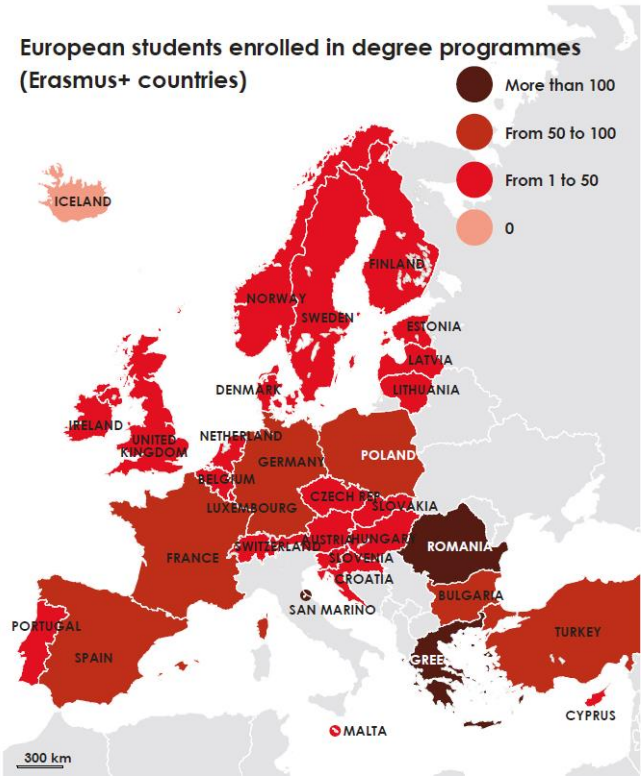
return projects. Furthermore, the association Cantieri Meticci of Bologna, makes art of encounters between cultures with theatre workshops and many other initiatives involving migrant and native people to have fun and create new events together in order to promote social inclusion through art and entertainment.

International students and refugees at the University of Bologna

One of the most important institutions in Emilia Romagna region is the University of Bologna. It is one of the oldest university in Europe. It has been and still is also one of largest and most attractive university in Italy. In 2017 it enrolled 85,244 students and among these 5,871 were international students.

European students enrolled at the University of Bologna

The University of Bologna holds first place among Italian Universities in terms of the number of students abroad and the quantity of funding received under Erasmus+ and is among the top 5 universities in Europe in terms of number of exchange students from Europe. In addition, the University of Bologna has distinguished itself through a series of best practices: a high number of graduates with mobility experience, a high rate of credit recognition, an increase in the level of language skills and reinforcement of international cooperation. The University coordinates or participates in more than 60 education and training projects funded by the European Union, with the overriding objective of improving University education and, in general, training at all levels. This effort includes various international initiatives, such as the development of joint degree programmes and new teaching methods via the use of new technologies, as well as the design of new learning paths in order to develop the transverse, social, intercultural and international competencies of students.



Non-European students enrolled at the University of Bologna

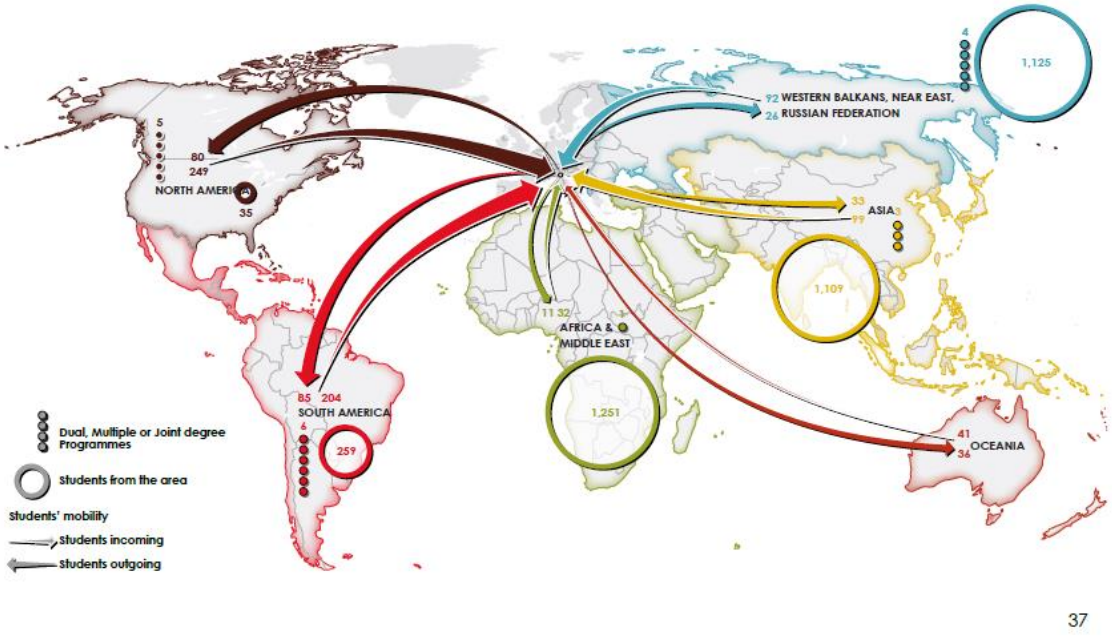
A number of US Universities have established Centres in Bologna, becoming partners of Bologna University and providing support for US students who study in Bologna and University students who intend to study at a University partner in the United States. These Centres are: B.C.S.P., consortium of 7 Universities, University of California, Dickinson College, Brown University, Bologna Center of the Johns Hopkins University - Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies. In addition to the agreements with these Centres, the University has signed cooperation, academic collaboration and student mobility agreements with a further 17 North American Universities (in the USA and Canada), as well as an agreement with the Mid-America Universities International Network (MAUI-Utrecht Network). Relations with the Universities in Latin America have also developed steadily in recent years, with a particular focus on Brazil while also consolidating relations with other countries in the area, including Central America. The number of framework and sector agreements has increased, along with the volume of students on mobility programmes due to the growing number of locations available.

The University of Bologna dedicates increasing attention to current developments in academia, in both Africa and the Middle East. A number of different European capacity building projects were launched during 2017 (Student Empowerment, Engagement, and Representation in Lebanese Universities; Towards Excellence in Applied Linguistics; Innovative Second Language

Education in Egypt; International Credit Mobility: a new challenge for the Mediterranean Region; Education and Cultural Heritage Enhancement for Social Cohesion in Iraq) with partners in North Africa and the Middle East. Cooperation projects and initiatives are also active in a number of countries, such as Tanzania, Palestine, Kenya and Morocco. Institutional relations are strengthening with various institutions also in the Western Balkans and the Near East, the Caucasus and the Russian Federation, reflecting the growing number of international students enrolled from those countries. The University of Bologna promotes capacity building activities, including the following projects: "Enhancing Teaching Practice in Higher Education in Russia and China" – ENTEP; 'Western Balkans Urban Agriculture Initiative' – BUGI with the Universities of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Kosovo, and 'Graduates Advancement and Development of University capacities in Albania' – GRADUA with Albanian Universities.

Relations with the Universities in Asia have expanded over the past 2 years (number of framework and sector agreements, number of students involved in mobility programmes). In particular, the University of Bologna is coordinating the project entitled "Connecting Higher education Institutions for a New Leadership on National Education" – CHINLONE, whose objective is to support the reform and modernisation of the University system in Myanmar. In addition, the University is an active partner in other capacity building projects in Asia: "Tuning India", with a view to implementing the principles of the Bologna Process at several Indian institutions; "Resources for Interculturality in Chinese Higher Education" - RICH-Ed, with a view to contributing to the modernisation of Chinese Universities via intercultural awareness.

In the end, relations with the Universities in Australia and New Zealand, which date back to the late 1990s and early 2000s, have intensified over the past year, with new framework agreements and an increase in the number of two-way student exchanges involving the Universities there.



Unibo4Refugees

The doors of the University of Bologna are now open to refugee students with the Unibo4Refugees project. In orientation interviews, students get the chance to submit their CVs, find out about the opportunities for study and financial aid and draw up an educational plan for rebuilding their future. Even before obtaining refugee status and without having to pay enrolment fees, students can enrol in single learning activities and attend Italian language courses. Enrolment in degree programmes is made easier thanks to special procedures for checking academic qualifications and admission requirements, obtaining study grants and getting exemption from fees. The University takes part in a number of development cooperation initiatives throughout the world: Western Balkans (4), North Africa (3), Middle East and Gulf region (5), Central and South America (7), Asia (4), Subsaharian Africa (6).

IV- Immigration and migrant population in Netherlands

Introduction

The Netherlands was once considered a country of emigration, because people often fleeing the high population density and the lack of space, outnumbered those of migrants. Migrants who came as workers were considered to be staying in the country temporarily (Leun, 2003, p. 13). During the

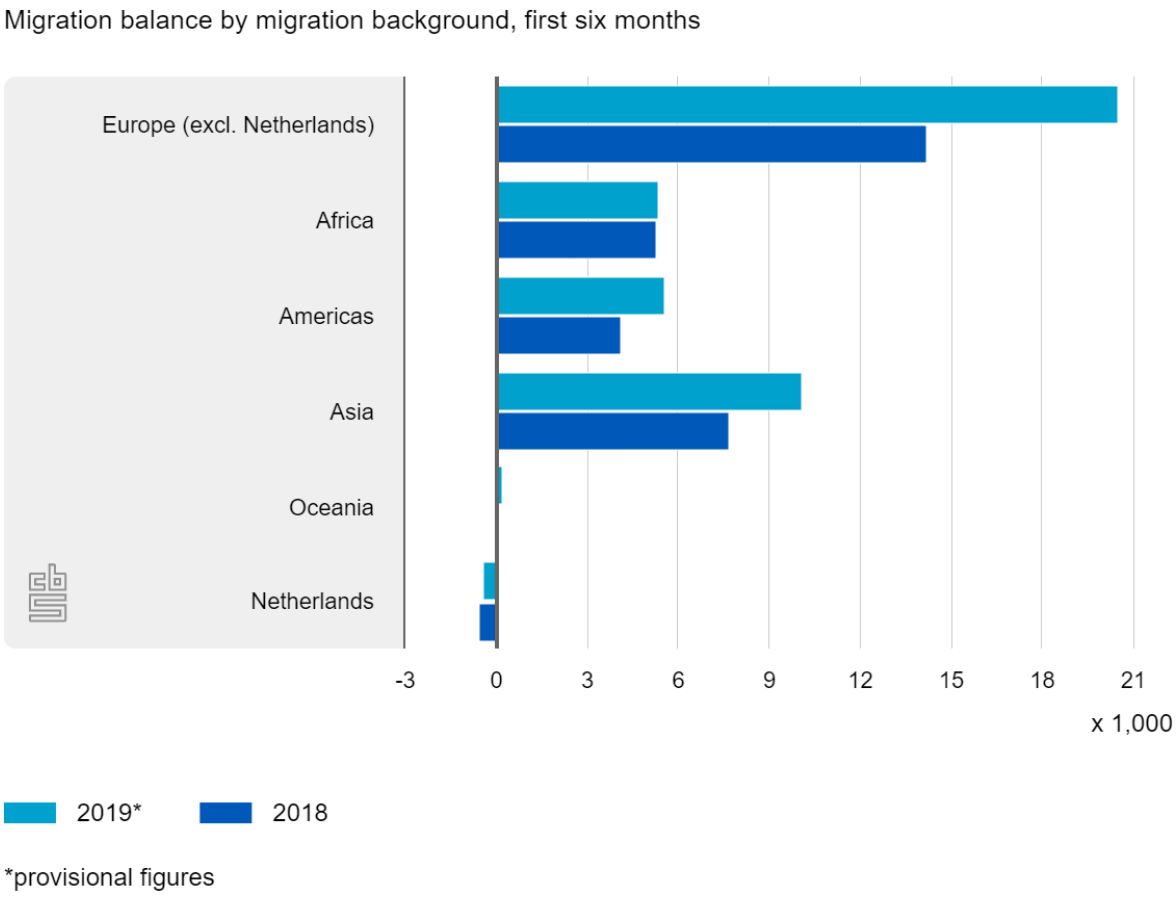
oil crises of the 1970s, the first attempts were undertaken to put an end to large-scale international immigration, by proclaiming a formal stop to labour immigration. However, many former guest workers didn't leave, but settled more permanently, and they brought over family members and began to form families. By 2002, one-fifth of the newcomers originated from Turkey, Morocco, Surinam and the Antilles or Aruba and there was also an influx of asylum seekers from countries such as Somalia, former Yugoslavia, Iran and Iraq (ibid).

The largest four cities in the country (Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, and Utrecht) house only thirteen percent of the total population of the Netherlands, but they accommodate over thirty percent of all immigrants. In Amsterdam and Rotterdam almost half the population has an immigrant background (first and second generation), as do two-thirds of the school-aged children and youth in these cities (Just Landed, nd). Thus, ethnic origin, rather than citizenship tends to be more relevant in the public perception as a means of differentiating between the native Dutch and others. The Dutch even coined a term for this: the Greek-based word allochtoon (non-indigenous), which refers to someone whose ethnic roots lie outside the Netherlands and who, for that reason, can be differentiated from autochtoon (indigenous), the native Dutch. These terms were dropped by the government in 2016 because they were considered unclear and offensive (Dutch News, 2016).

The inflow of refugees in Europe contributed to the framing of "mass-migration" as a threat to the Dutch society and economy and this became the political tool which set the national discourse on migration even though the Netherlands did not receive large numbers of migrants compared to other European countries (van Reisen, et. al., 2018; Lucassen 2018).

Statistics on Migration

More than three million residents – nearly 20% of the population in the Netherlands – have a non-Dutch background, counting immigrants and Dutch-born people with one or both parents born abroad. Just over half of the migrant-origin population, 1.7 million persons, are classified as having a non-Western origin. The majority, about 67%, of these non-Western immigrants originally came from Turkey, Surinam, Morocco, the Netherlands Antilles, and Aruba (van Reisen, et. al., 2018). Most of the migrants are from other European Union countries (the number of these migrants rose from 77,000 in 2015 to 93,000 in 2017) (OECD, 2018). This number increased in 2018 and 2019. Migration from Europe, mainly Eastern Europe, is mostly demand driven by the need for labour and skills (van Reisen, et. al., 2018).



Source: CBS (2019): https://www.cbs.nl/en-gb/news/2019/31/immigration-up-in-first-half-of-2019

Current migration situation

In 2015, 43,095 people sought for asylum, with the highest number from Syria. This steadily decreased over the years, with a total of 22, 540 people seeking asylum in 2019 (StatLine, 2020). However, some parts of the population have grown deeply intolerant of migrants, equating immigration with rise in terror, religious extremism and loss of prosperity (van Selm, 2019; van Reisen, et. al., 2018). These sentiments were echoed by the prime minister who said that people who came to the Netherlands and reject the values should leave (Boztas, et. al., 2017). Prominent politicians, like Geert Wilders, the leader of the far-right Freedom Party (PVV) and recent alt-right leader of the Forum for Democracy (FvD), Thierry Baudet, espouse anti-immigrant rhetoric. These fears do not, however, necessarily reflect the facts in a country where some sectors rely heavily on migrant workers (van Selm, 2019).

While the current government, like successive governments advocates for solutions that get to the root of mass displacement, the government also hopes to develop more agreements with countries closer to origins of crisis (like the EU-Turkey deal) in order to reduce irregular migration

(van Selm, 2019). The government also has eight reception centres to accommodate rejected asylum seekers who agree to cooperate in being returned to their country of origin within two months (Ibid.).

The actual situation regarding migration in the Netherlands is quite different from public perceptions, and how migration is portrayed and framed by antimigrant populist political parties and the media. All people who live and work in the Netherlands pay taxes, consume local products and services, and contribute to the Dutch economy and welfare system. A considerable number of migrants contribute to the Dutch economy in the low-paid and labour-intensive sectors like the cleaning, agricultural and construction sectors. (van Reisen, et. al., 2018). Others are employed in private homes, outside the formal economy and outside protection of labour law. (The Netherlands has not yet ratified ILO Convention 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers) (Ibid.). In 2017 there were 1,429,000 self-employed people in the Netherlands. Of this number, 154,000 had a Western migrant background and 127,000 a non-Western migrant background. The rest (1,147,000) were citizens with a Dutch background (Statline CBS 2018). Therefore, many of the migrants in the Netherlands are economically active and contribute to the Dutch economy.

Integration, accessing work, housing and education

With the migrants already in the country, the government states that they should not be discriminated, but at the same time, refugees and other migrants are required to be proactive in their integration plans to cut the rights of the people granted asylum during their first years in the country (van Selm, 2019). From 2013 onwards, the government shifted the responsibility for integration from the state to the people themselves, under the slogans of 'self-reliance' and 'self-responsibility' (Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations 2013), resulting in migrants suddenly becoming responsible for their own integration and language programmes (van Reisen, et. al., 2018).

Communities and municipal councils are responsible for the day-to-day work of providing integration courses and housing for asylum seekers and refugees, among other activities directed at newcomers. "At the local level, the impact of anti-immigrant policies and the pressure to integrate without genuine support is seen and felt by people who are in daily contact with immigrants and see the difficulties they face" (van Selm, 2019). There are tensions in some communities, with people living near reception centres sometimes expressing frustration about their fears for public safety (Ibid.).

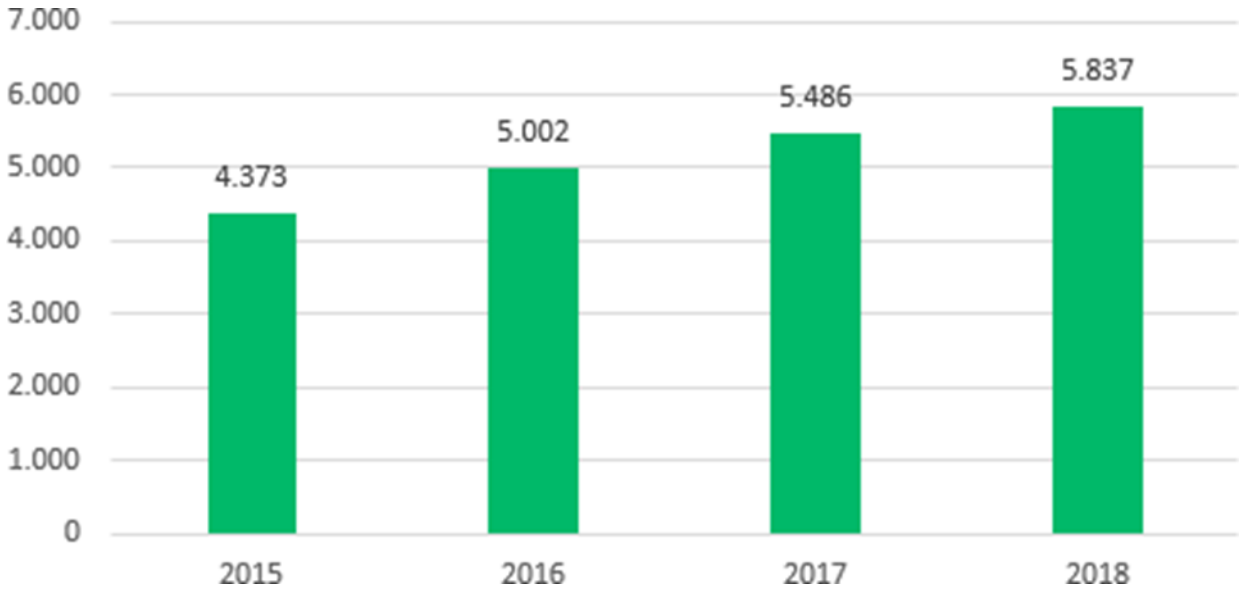
Discrimination and inequality also exist in the housing market as well as in the education system and the labour market. Migrants particularly of non-Western backgrounds are placed in neighbourhoods of poor-quality housing, and inadequate public transportation. Thus, these

neighbourhoods may have high concentration of people with low average socio-economic standards (van Reisen et al., 2018). Schools in such neighbourhoods, which tend to have more students with a migrant background, are controversially referred to as a "black schools" (Ibid.). Research shows that this leads to demotivation, low expectations and prevention of students developing to their full potential (Turcatti, 2018; Jongejan and Thijs 2010). Lack of recognition of migrants' educational attainment and professional qualifications also hinder their possibilities of obtaining employment. (Ibid.). Another example is the fact that people with non-Western surnames – mainly those originating from Arab or African countries – are rejected more often when applying for a job, even at the stage of being invited to a job interview than people with Western surnames (Ibid.).

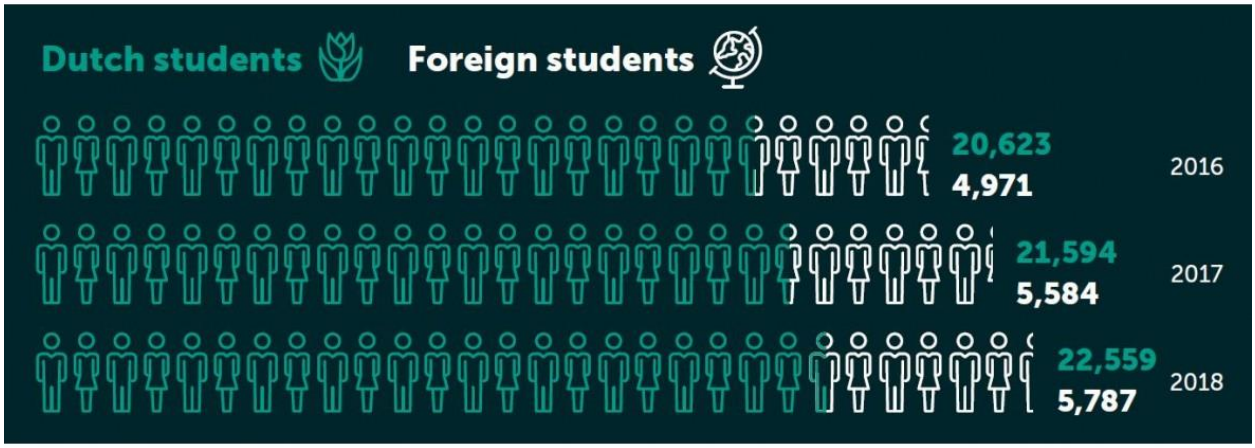
This segregation contributes to the self-protective isolation of migrant communities in holding on to their traditional values, which is considered to be against the values of the Dutch society (van Reisen et al., 2018). The government resolved this by introducing legislation requiring migrants who arrived in the Netherlands after 1 October 2017 to follow the "participation trajectory", a mandatory integration trajectory where the migrants learn the about the core values as stated in the Dutch Constitution, and then sign the "declaration of participation", acknowledging that they understand these core values and will respect them and actively contribute to Dutch society (Ibid.).

International Students at Erasmus University

The number of international students at Erasmus University has been on the increase since 2015, with students coming from 118 different countries. German students are in the majority, followed by students from Italy and Greece. Around 20 percent of the student population come from non-European countries (Erasmus University, 2018). This diversity is believed to create a truly international learning environment at the university.



Source: Fact Sheet: https://www.eur.nl/media/2018-10-factsheet-1-oktobertelling-2018



Source: Erasmus University: https://www.eur.nl/en/about-eur/facts-and-figures/registered-students

Erasmus university started a preparatory year in higher education for people with refugee status (Erasmus University, nd.; Erasmus University, 2018). The university also created temporary positions for refugee scholars to allow them to continue their work in safe environments (Erasmus University, 2018). The students are given classes in Dutch, English and Maths to prepare for the admission exams for their chosen study. They also develop academic skills and receive support in their choice of study (Intake base year, nd.). There are also exchange partner programmes that enable student mobility within Europe (Erasmus+ programmes) and around the world to help

students broaden their horizon and come into contact with different cultures (Erasmus University, nd.). The university is convinced that education and research are best pursued by a wide diversity of scholars, students and staff, who each bring their knowledge and experience to the task, and creates an academic environment where everyone feels at home and develops themselves to their personal best (Erasmus University, nd.).

What happens on the ground?

People with a migrant background often experience inequality and discrimination in terms of opportunities. Media also presents mostly negative images about refugees and a small group of other migrants, which creates anxiety and segregation (van Reisen, et. al., 2018). The broader Dutch public remains committed to upholding the country as a rights-respecting, tolerant one. Some individuals and organizations have tried to protect asylum seekers. One church in the Hague protected an Armenian family that had been denied asylum after living in the Netherlands for eleven years. The family then requested the so-called "Kinderpardon", (Children amnesty established in 2012) which guarantees asylum to families whose children have been living in the country for at least five years after they were given a deportation executive order (Cavallone, 2019; van Selm, 2019). Although the Kinderpadon on paper was sufficient to regularize the status of families with children who had lived in the Netherlands for five years, had been in school and spoke Dutch, very few in reality achieved legal status, as a 2017 report by the Children's Ombudsman detailed (Ibid.). The family asked the church for help. The church along with neighbours set up non-stop mass for three months as the Dutch law prevents police from entering the premises during a religious service (Cavallone, 2019).

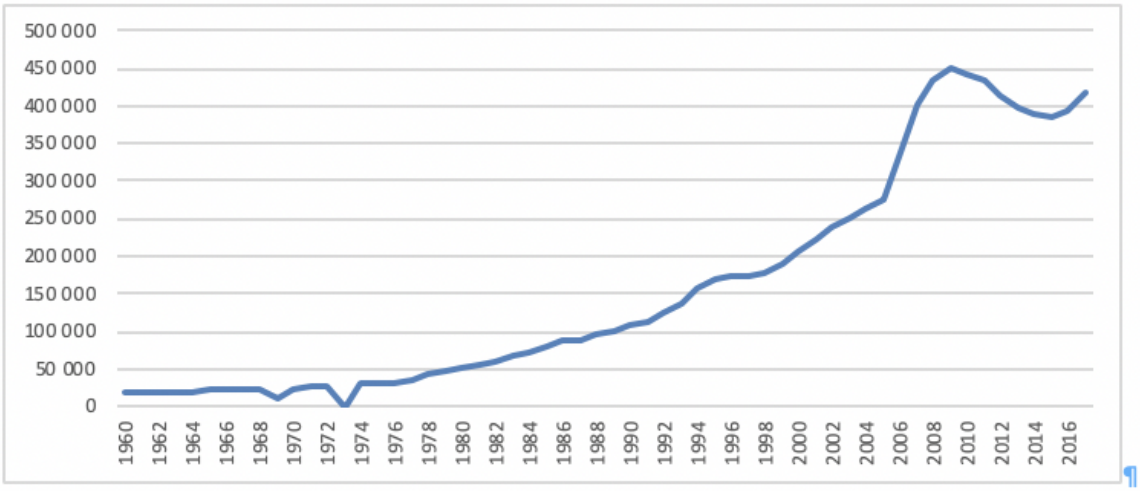
The government was put under pressure and granted asylum to the family and 700 other cases (Ibid.; Brown, 2019). However, the government then tightened asylum regulations, created a new "Kinderpardon" through broad political compromise, and reduced the intake of refugees from UN camps to 500, down from 750 (Ibid.; van Selm, 2019). As of 2018, 14,000 people were active volunteers with the Dutch Refugee Council, just one of several organizations assisting refugees in the Netherlands. This shows that on the local level, immigration is more accepted than national and international debate might suggest.

V- Immigration and migrant population in Portugal

From country of emigration to country of immigration

Historically, until the 1970s, Portugal was, above all, a country of emigration, mainly towards Brazil in the first two decades of the twentieth century. In the 1960s and 1970s the main destination was Europe and France in particular. This last process was carried out, predominantly, with the emigrants and political exiles, crossing the borders from Portugal to Spain and from Spain to France "a salto" (jumping), that is to say, in an illegal way. With the revolution of the 25th of April 1974, which ended the fascist regime which ruled since 1933, with the independence of its former colonies, a third, but not privileged emigration destination. Portugal had to face what is considered one of the greatest processes of postcolonial return (Pires & Silva, 1987). Between 1975 and 1976, about 500,000 people, known as "retornados" (returnees), arrived in Portugal.

Fig. 1 Evolution of the foreign population in Portugal (1960-2016)

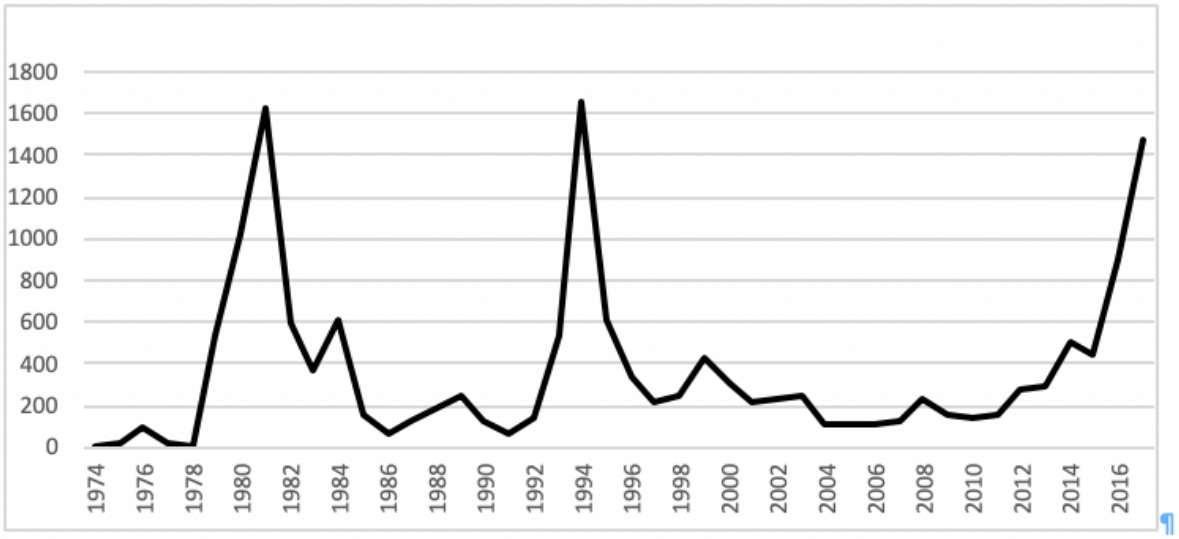


Source: PORDATA, https://www.pordata.pt/DB/Portugal/Ambiente+de+Consulta/Tabela

Since the 1980s Portugal became also a country of immigration, initially with populations from the former colonies: Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde and Timor. Since the nineties there was a diversification of countries of origin, namely from Africa, Brazil and European countries. If decolonization was the major reason for the migrations of the 1970s and 1980s, joining the European Union in 1986 and the increase in public expenditure on infrastructures led to the need for manpower. Most of these immigrants remained in Portugal illegally, a situation reversed in regularization processes that occurred in 2001 and 2004. The asylum status was implemented in Portugal in the 1975 Constitution, but only in 1980 was the first asylum law, later amended in 1993 and renewed in 2008. Successive asylum laws progressively incorporate European Union legislation, including the Dublin agreements and Schengen. However, comparing to other European nations, the number of asylum seekers in Portugal is relatively insignificant, with asylum concessions being also

small. In 1993, the asylum law defines humanitarian status for situations of escape that do not fall within the provisions of the 1951 Geneva Convention, supplemented since 1993 by the designation of humanitarian status. Since 2015, Portugal has received 1,520 refugees who have been relocated under the European resettlement program and is currently developing a more sustainable refugee relocation program (Sousa & Costa, 2017).

Fig. 2 Asylum claims in Portugal (1974-2016)



Source: Sousa & Costa (2018)

In 2017 the foreign population was 416,682 individuals, corresponding to about 4.1% of the population living in Portugal (Catarina & Gomes, 2018). However, as mentioned by Catarina and Gomes (2018), Portugal is among the European Union countries with the lowest percentage of foreign inhabitants and, given the increase in emigration, especially in recent years, the country has a double feature, of emigration / immigration. However, it is interesting to note that the social perception of the number of foreigners is much higher, as demonstrated by the recent PASSDA study in which respondents consider this percentage to be 25%. The same study indicates that Portugal was the country where the biggest change was made towards opening up to immigration, followed by the United Kingdom. Hungary and Poland registered the opposite direction, with the greatest increase in the rejection of immigrants.

The political relevance of immigration and integration policies

The immigration phenomenon is a subject that did not get a particular political attention during the seventies and eighties. Only in the 1990s did immigration become relevant in Portuguese society.

However, there is a lack of a consistent integration policy, mitigated in the educational field with the first projects of multicultural education, later entitled intercultural education. An Interdepartmental Commission for the Integration of Immigrants and Ethnic Minorities (Comissão Interdepartamental para a integração de imigrantes e minorias étnicas) was established in 1993 with the aim of opposing xenophobia and discrimination and addressing social measures for immigrant communities. Institutionally, it was only in the beginning of the 21st century that immigration became a political issue with the creation in 2002 of the High Commissariat for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities – ACIME (Alto Comissariado para a Imigração e Minorias Étnicas), which in 2007 was designated as the High Commissariat for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue – ACIDI (Alto Comissariado para a Imigração e Diálogo Intercultural), which in 2014 was renamed, once again, the High Commissariat for Migrations - ACM (Alto Comissariado para as Migrações). The operational work of this institute derived from the creation in 2004 of the National Centers for Support to the Integration of Migrants -CNAIM (Centros Nacionais de Apoio à Integração de Migrantes). Since 2007, there is a concern to design national plans for the integration of immigrants and, later, municipal plans for municipalities with a high proportion of immigrants (Horta and Oliveira, 2014). In 2016, the Local Support Centers for the Integration of Migrants (CLAIM) are created at a more local level. In the same year, as a result of developments arising from the "crisis" of refugees in Europe and the response to the refugees relocated to Portugal, ACM acquires competence in this field, reconfiguring and adapting services, in particular the National and Local Centers for Support to the Integration of Migrants (CNAIM and CLAIM), to support the refugees.

According to the Migrant Integration Policy Index of 2015, Portugal ranks 2nd among the 38 countries analysed with 75 points. With the best results in mobility in the labour market (91 points), family reunion (88 points), anti-discrimination (88 points), access to nationality (86 points) and political participation (74 points). The lowest indicators are related to health (43 points), education (62 points) and permanent residence (68 points). In another recent study, the Integration of Immigrants in the European Union, promoted by Eurobarometer 469 (2018), examined this issue in 28 countries. According to this study, 77% of Portuguese respondents consider that the integration of immigrants in their region was a success (the European average is 54%), a figure that reaches only 73% when applied to the country. Among Portuguese respondents, 69% consider that the government is doing enough to promote integration while for 85% to promote the integration of immigrants is a necessary long-term investment for the country. About 57% of Europeans feel comfortable with immigrants, with the average in Portugal (alongside the Netherlands) being 79% (only supplanted by Spain (83%), Sweden (80%) and Ireland (80%). On the other side, 30% of Portuguese consider very important to have educational qualifications and training to find work. Portugal is the country where

immigrants having friends with Portuguese nationality is considered to be irrelevant (7%). The Portuguese respondents, however, consider that difficulties in finding a job are the main obstacle to integration (82%), while the European average is 63%. This obstacle is only overcome by difficulties in accessing long-term residence permits (92%), with the European average being 55%. 71% consider access limited (European average 53%) and 91% agree that immigrants have the same rights in access to education, health and social protection (European average 79%). The difficulty in bringing the family is also seen as an essential obstacle. Portugal is the country where this is considered most relevant with 75% (European average 47%). The opposite is true in the provision of language courses. Only 30% of respondents consider this to be relevant (along with Poland), at the end of the list (European average 53%). The enrolment of children of immigrants in preschool is considered by 97% as essential, with Portugal being the country with the lowest rate of disagreement in this matter (2%).

Paradoxically, Portugal is the country where the obligation to make integration programs and compulsory language courses gets less agreement, with only 29% (European average 51%, with Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden at the top). The same source indicates that the promotion of integration through interaction between citizens of the host country and immigrants in schools and in the neighborhood is approved by 94%. However 90% agree that information on immigration and immigrants should be provided to local communities (European average 81%). Similarly, providing integration measures, such as language courses and information on the country of destination before arrival, is approved by 90% (European average 78%). At the political level, 70% agree on the possibility of granting immigrants the right to vote in local elections. The promotion of better cooperation between the different actors responsible for integration is considered very important and important by 92% of the respondents (European average 85%). On whether the responsibility of the success of the integration depends on the host society and the immigrants, or on each of the parties separately, in the Portuguese case 83% consider that it depends on both (only supplanted by Luxembourg with 85%) – Europe average 69%. In this area, Portugal and Luxembourg are also the countries that least impute to immigrant's total responsibility for their integration (11%) - Europe average 20%.

Regarding the importance of local and regional authorities, in the Portuguese case, 97% of respondents consider it very important and important. The importance of employers is 97% (Europe average 88%). The role of citizens in the success of integration is 96% (Europe 88%). The importance of the media is 90%, although of these only 34% is very important (Europe average 83%). It is interesting to cross this dimension with the way immigrants are represented in the media. In Portugal 52% are presented objectively (Europe average 39%), although it is one of the countries that thinks

that the negative representation is lower (17%). The role of the civil society (93%) is very important and important, while the European average is 82%. The role assigned to the European institutions is 93%, of the highest among the countries analyzed (Europe average 80%). According to this Eurobarometer study of 2018, Portugal is, in the European context, closer to the concerns and opinions of the countries of Northern Europe than to the countries of the Mediterranean.

Education policies and foreign university students in Portugal

In Portugal, legislative production on the integration of immigrant students has focused essentially on the so-called mandatory education: the first, second and third cycles of primary and secondary education since the end of the 1980s. Legislation aimed at immigrant students in higher education is more recent. The integration in Portuguese schools by immigrant students from the migrant flows of the 1980s led to the creation of the Coordinating Secretariat for Multicultural Education Programs in 1991, later called the Entreculturas Secretariat, which implemented the Intercultural Education Project (1993-1997). Also in 1993, the Association of Teachers for Intercultural Education (APEDI) was created, reflecting the interest that civil society and educators in particular felt about the theme. In 2004, the Entreculturas Secretariat was integrated into the High Commission for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities (ACIME, current High Commission for Migration, ACM). Intercultural education and the training of teachers and socio-educational agents are promoted and pedagogical materials are produced in this field. In 2012 the project "Intercultural School seal" is created, which distinguishes schools that promote, recognize and value diversity (Horta and Oliveira, 2014).

The Plans for the Integration of Immigrants, which began in 2007, included measures to ensure equal opportunities and access to education. Since 2015, the Strategic Plan for Migration (2015-2020) has consolidated programs for the learning of Portuguese as a non-native language, the promotion of intercultural education in schools, and educational measures that promote educational success and reduce drop-out rates. In 2016, the Network of Schools for Intercultural Education was created, a partnership between ACM, the Directorate General of Education and the Aga Khan Portugal Foundation. The OECD, in the Program for International Student Assessment, distinguishes Portugal as one of the countries with the most positive evolution in the integration of students of immigrant origin (PISA, 2016).

In the context of higher education, only in 2014 is the status of the international student established (Decree-Law no. 36/2014, of 10 March). The recruitment of students and international researchers included in Law no. 63/2015, of June 30, brought changes in residence visas for the

purpose of scientific research for non-citizens. It is estimated that there are currently 42,000 foreign students coming from 167 countries, this corresponds to 12% of students in higher education, which is, in the OECD context, a minor rate (Observatory, 2017).

In the aftermath of the war in Syria, Jorge Sampaio, former President of the Republic, founded the Global Academic Assistance Platform for Syrian Students in 2013 with the objective of supporting Syrian students in their integration in universities, in Portugal and in other countries. In Portugal, since 2014, 64 students have been received and 16 others have been supported in Lebanon and dozens in other neighboring countries of Syria and throughout the world.

VI- Immigration and migrant population in Turkey

Brief History of Migration to Turkey

Migration into and out of Turkey has a long history. Although Turkey is known as an emigration country since the 1960s, it became a migration hub for economic migrants from former Soviet Republics since the 1990s. More recently, due to failing states, political upheavals and civil wars, Turkey became a safe haven for refugees. In the early 1980s, almost 1.5 million of Iranians arrived in Turkey after the regime change, most of them finding a way to resettle in the global north. In 1988, 51,542 people came from Northern Iraq; in 1989, 345.000 people of Turkish descent came from Bulgaria; in 1991, almost half million came from Iraq following the Gulf War I; between 1992 and 1998, 20.000 Bosnian Muslims arrived due to ethnic cleansing in former Yugoslavia; in 1999, 17.746 Kosovars came in the aftermath of the tragic incidents; in 2001, 10.500 people came from Macedonia.[1] Yet, the major and most unprecedented refugee flows took place in 2011 when Syrians had to flee from the civil war. Since then, the number of Syrians under temporary protection reached more than 3.6 million in the country.[2] 96% of all Syrians live in urban and semi-urban areas. There are also Syrians staying in Turkey with residence permits. These are definitely people with more resources belonging to higher socio-economic status.

Today, Turkey is *de facto* the country hosting the largest refugee population in the world. By early 2019, there were more than 4 million refugees and asylum seekers registered in Turkey, almost half of them are children (1.7 million Syrians and 120,000 other nationalities). While Syrians are given temporary protection in Turkey, the rest of the refugee populations (mainly Afghans, Iraqis, Somalis and Iranians) are under international protection. Although Turkey is a signatory of the 1951 Geneva Convention on Refugees, it still one of the very few countries maintaining the geographical limitation – remnant of the Cold War era – which was lifted with the 1967 Protocol. This means,

Turkey does not accept *de jure* refugees coming outside of Europe. Therefore, there is a permanent 'temporariness' which makes the situation of many asylum seekers and refugees more vague, thus rendering their lives difficult to cope with and leaving them in limbo. Yet, compared with other Middle Eastern countries with large numbers of refugees, such as Iran, Jordan and Lebanon, Turkey is still a better alternative. In addition to economic migrants and forced migrants, Turkey continues to serve as a transit country. Many of them are risking their lives as well as lives of their children in perilous journeys to seek protection in the EU. In 2018 only, two years after the signature of EU-Turkey Statement to curb irregular flows, nearly 32,500 refugees and migrants crossed the sea borders to reach shores of Greece, while 18,000 crossed the land borders. As for the number of foreigners coming to Turkey for the purposes of studying, working and for investment, almost 2.5 million different nationals were granted residence permits in the last 13 years.[3]

Number of International Students in Turkey

Turkey has 112 state (public) and 74 foundation (private) universities and vocational schools with more than 7.5 million Turkish and international students during the 2017-2018 academic year.[4] Turkey has recently started to attract large numbers of international students especially in the higher education. According to YÖK (Turkish Council of Higher Education) data, the number of international students has increased gradually while sending countries diversified at the same time:

Table 1: International Students in Turkey

YEAR	Number of Int. Students
2012-13	42,000
2013-14	56,000
2014-15	82,000
2015-16	114,000
2016-17	120,000
2017-2018	128,000

These numbers are still very humble considering that the number of international students across the world is expected to reach 10 million in 2025. While international students come from 180 different countries, major countries of origin in Turkey are Central Asian Republics, Africa and Asia, as well as Eastern European countries – including the Balkans.[5] Over 70% of all international students are currently enrolled at the undergraduate level. One of the reasons in the increase of international students is "Turkey Scholarships" granted by Turkish Prime Ministry's Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities (YTB). The other reason is some countries, such as Iran and Pakistan, give state scholarships to their students to pursue degrees outside their country of origin at the graduate

level. Private universities, including Koç University – with language of instruction in English – also compete at the international level to attract gifted students not only from the global north but also from Asia, especially India and China.

Turkish Education System and the Syrian Refugees in Turkish schools

Public schools in Turkey are either free of charge or with minimal fees and the instruction of language is Turkish. There are also many private schools in Turkey starting from the kindergarten level up to elementary and secondary levels usually with quite high tuition rates. In accordance with the Turkish laws, compulsory or basic education is 12 years which is divided into three levels of 4 years of schooling at each level – elementary, middle school, and high school. School-age children of foreign nationals, including those under temporary and international protection, can be enrolled at public schools in Turkey which is free of cost.

For Syrian children, there are two options to get basic education at the moment. The first one is Temporary Education Centers (with curricula in Arabic and some Turkish) and the second one is Turkish public schools. The majority of Syrian children are enrolled in Turkish public schools since 2016.[6] The year 2016 was a turning point in terms of basic education services for Syrian children as the Turkish government launched a program together with the EU-funding called *PICTES* (Promoting Integration of Syrian Children into the Turkish Education System). This initiative, alongside many others by the Turkish Ministry of National Education, the Turkish Ministry of Family, Labor and Social Services, and the Red Crescent put forward, such as *Conditional Cash Transfer for Education* for refugee children, played an important role in the increase of schooling rates of Syrian children in Turkey. By the end of 2018, the number of Syrian and other refugee children at Turkish schools reached more than 645,000. However, UNICEF reports that there are at least 400,000 Syrian school-age children outside schools.[7] Another problem is the high drop-out rates as children get older. For example, while it is as high as 96% at elementary school, it drops to 58% for middle school and 26% for high school. There are gendered reasons for dropping out at the secondary level. It is usually early/child marriages and cultural reasons for girls and the need to help family finances and thereby engaging in child labor for boys.

As for higher education, there are currently more than 27,000 Syrian students in Turkish universities, out of whom 61% are men and 39% are women. In Turkey, admission to universities is quite competitive that all students are subject to take a university entrance exam. In addition to university-level requirements, Syrians under temporary protection and those with residence permits are also taking tests that is necessary for foreign nationals. Tuition fees for Syrian students are covered

by YTB for public universities. Access to basic education and higher education of Syrians are extremely important not to have lost generations. There are already a large Syrian refugee population in Turkey who are either illiterate or with very little formal education. Furthermore, UNICEF reports that 5.3 million children within Syria and over 2.5 million children outside Syria – 1.7 million living in Turkey – are adversely affected.[8]

Number of International Students at Koç University

The number of the international students studying full time at Koç University in the 2018-2019 academic year (excluding exchange students) is **465.**

Table 2: Countries of Origin (International Students only)

Country Labels	Count of Citizenship (incl TR citizenship)		Country Labels	Count of Citizenship (not including TR citizenship)
TUR	6636		IRN	101
IRN	101		USA	53
USA	53		AZE	48
AZE	48		PAK	48
PAK	48		SYR	23
SYR	23		DEU	21
DEU	21		ITA	10
ITA	10		JOR	10
JOR	10		CYP	9
CYP	9		KAZ	9
KAZ	9		CHN	8
CHN	8		BGR	7
BGR	7		EGY	7
EGY	7		CAN	6
CAN	6		GRC	6
GRC	6		PSE	6
PSE	6		GBR	5
GBR	5		IND	5
IND	5		KKT	5
KKT	5		RUS	5
RUS	5		FRA	4
FRA	4		ALB	3
ALB	3		IRQ	3
IRQ	3		KOS	3
KOS	3		LBN	3
LBN	3		UKR	3
UKR	3		UZB	3

UZB	3		AFG	2
AFG	2		AUT	2
AUT	2		BIH	2
BIH	2		CHE	2
CHE	2		IDN	2
IDN	2		JPN	2
JPN	2		LBY	2
LBY	2		NLD	2
NLD	2		SAU	2
SAU	2		SDN	2
SDN	2		TJK	2
TJK	2		TZA	2
TZA	2		VNM	2
VNM	2		MAR	1
MAR	1		ARM	1
ARM	1		AUS	1
AUS	1		BGD	1
BGD	1		BHR	1
BHR	1		BLR	1
BLR	1		BLZ	1
BLZ	1		BRA	1
BRA	1		CHL	1
CHL	1		ESP	1
ESP	1		HUN	1
HUN	1		ISR	1
ISR	1		KEN	1
KEN	1		KGZ	1
KGZ	1		KOR	1
KOR	1		LBR	1
LBR	1		LVA	1
LVA	1		MAC	1
MAC	1		MDA	1
MDA	1		MKD	1
MKD	1		ROU	1
ROU	1		SGP	1
SGP	1		SWE	1
SWE	1		TCA	1
TCA	1		ZWE	1
ZWE	1		**Grand Total**	**465**
Grand Total	**7101**			

The countries of origin for the highest numbers of international students at Koç University are Iran, USA, Azerbaijan, Pakistan, Syria, Germany, Italy, Jordan (see Table 2 above).

The number of the exchange students at Koç University in the 2018-2019 academic year is 189 (See Table 3 below for the number of exchange students in the last two semesters). The countries of origin of the highest numbers of exchange students are the Netherlands, France, Germany, Singapore, India, UK, Canada, Pakistan, Azerbaijan, Switzerland (see Table 4 below).

Table 3: Number of Exchange Students

Summer 2018	18
Fall 2018	66
Spring 2019	96
Fall 2018 and Spring 2019	9
Total	**189**

Table 4: Countries of origin for Exchange Students (short-term)

Countries	Numbers
NLD	29
FRA	15
DEU	12
SGP	12
IND	10
GBR	8
CAN	8
PAK	8
AZE	7
CHE	7
DNK	6
GEO	6
SWE	5
FIN	4
CHN	4
HKG	4
MEX	4
NOR	3
POL	3
ESP	3
IRN	3
JOR	3
PER	3
AUT	2
BRA	2
KGZ	2
TWN	2
USA	2
ISR	2

MAR	2
URY	2
CZE	1
ITA	1
SVN	1
JPN	1
RUS	1
THA	1
Total	**189**

Brief History of Migration to Gaziantep (Turkey)

Gaziantep is one of the cities with the highest number of Syrians. The main reasons Gaziantep has thousands of Syrians are both its location on the Syrian border and its commercial and cultural relations with Aleppo in historical terms. Due to the fact that, the path of many Syrians coming to Turkey has gone through Gaziantep.

According to the statement made by Ministry of Interior General Directorate of Migration Management on 25 April 2019, the number of Syrians under temporary protection recorded with the biometric data in Gaziantep is 431 thousand 383. The ratio of this number to the province population is 21,27%. Gaziantep is the fourth city with the highest number of Syrians in Turkey.[1] Most of the refugees live in city centres and district centres in Gaziantep.

According to a research on 1824 Syrians made by the academics of Gaziantep University, questions they asked about the level of the education of the Syrians has also produced striking results. 26,4 % are illiterate, around 29 % are primary school graduate, around 26% are secondary school graduates, 11% are college/university graduate and 1% has graduate diplomas. It is also necessary to add that women are seen to be in a disadvantaged position with regards to these figures. 58 % of Syrian families have at least 1 child who goes to school or is at school age, and almost 98 % of these children go to state schools. While 2 % go to private schools, only 0,3 % go to temporary education centres.[2]

Number of International Students at Gaziantep University

Gaziantep University has taken on active roles for responding to the conflict in Syria, by coordinating targeted projects offering psychological care to war-affected and traumatized Syrians who sought refuge in Turkey by facilitating enrolment process at university and establishing the first support desk office specified for Syrian students. Thousands of Syrians have taken refuge in Gaziantep and the surrounding cities because of the war in Syria. In Turkey, officially 20.701 Syrians enrolled

at Turkish universities and Gaziantep University, hosting 2100 Syrian students holds the highest capacity. The number of the international students studying full time at Gaziantep University in the 2018-2019 academic year is 3296. Another important progress made is the launch of Arabic Programs in Gaziantep University, Turkey for the first time. It is thought that since the program is the first of its kind in Turkey, it will serve as a model, too. Approximately 457 students have enrolled at the departments launched within the program of which curriculum is designed as evening and weekend. The departments providing instruction are:

- Biology
- Classroom teaching
- Electrical and Electronics Engineering
- Food Engineering
- Civil Engineering
- Architecture
- Business Administration

In addition; Gaziantep University has several scholarship collaborations with different institutions/foundations such as SPARK NGO, YTB, Mr. Zoubhi, etc.,. Besides that Gaziantep University is implementing a Project named “Syrian Students Scholarship Programme” which is the first scholarship programme to be implemented within the body of a university. This Project is financed by Netherland Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

COUNTRY	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
U.S.A	6
AFGHANİSTAN	60
GERMANY	26
ANGOLA	1
ALBENIA	1
AUSTRALIA	1
AUSTURIA	1
AZERBAIJAN	55
BANGLADESH	13
BELGIUM	2
BENIN	1
BELARUS	1
BRASIL	2
BULGARIA	3

BURKINA FASO	7
BURUNDIA	2
CHAD	8
ALGERIA	2
REPUBLIC OF DJIBOUTI	6
CHINA	3
INDONESIA	8
ERITREA	1
ETHIOPIA	9
MOROCCO	4
IVORY	4
PHILIPPINES	2
PALESTINE	21
FINLAND	1
FRANCE	6
GAMBIA	4
GHANA	8
GUINEA	2
GUINEA BISSAU	1
SOUTH AFRICA	2
SOUTH KOREA	1
GEORGIA	1
INDIA	3
NETHERLAND	5
IRAK	277
UNITED KINGDOM - BRITAIN	3
IRAN	19
SWITZERLAND	2
ITALY	1
CAMEROON	7
CANADA	4
QATAR	1
KAZAKHISTAN	15
KENYA	13
KYRGYZSTAN	28
COLOMBIA	2
COMOROS	2
CONGO	4
KOSOVO	2
TURKISH REPUBLIC OF NORTHERN CYPRUS	1
LIBERIA	1
LIBYA	1
LEBANON	2
HUNGARY	1
MADAGASCAR	9
MACEDONIA	2

MALAWI	1
MALAYSIA	1
MALİ	5
EGYPT	23
MONGOLIA	5
MOLDOVIA	1
MAURITANIA	2
MYANMAR	9
NIGER	2
NIGERIA	23
REPUBLICS OF MIDDLE ARICA	2
UZBEKISTAN	4
PAKİSTAN	11
PAPUA NEW GUINEA	1
POLAND	1
RWANDA	3
RUSSIA	2
SENEGAL	5
SOMALI	24
SRİ LANKA	3
SUDAN	6
SYRIA	2312
SAUDI ARABIA	28
SWAZILAND	2
TAJIKISTAN	13
TANZANIA	4
THAILAND	1
TAIWAN	1
TOGO	3
TUNISIA	1
TURKMENISTAN	77
UGANDA	3
UKRAINA	3
JORDAN	6
YEMEN	21
GREECE	1
ZAMBIA	5
GRAND TOTAL	**3296**

VII- A social psychological approach to understand multicultural societies: The intergroup contact hypothesis

The valence of intergroup contact: positive, negative experiences

Intergroup contact refers to face-to-face encounters between member's belonging to different groups. According to *Allport's hypothesis of contact* (1954), to build harmonious intergroup relationships between members of different groups, some optimal interactions are required. Those optimal interactions are achieved if the encounters are based on equal status, common goals, institutional support and cooperation among groups. The optimal contact theory proposed by Allport (1954) has inspired decades of research (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Brown et Al., 2007; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Brown & Hewstone, 2005, Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000), which have shown that these conditions are necessary but not essential to improve cross group interactions. The *contact effect model* contended that the continuous contact between members of different groups (i.e., friendship, socializing, expressing gratitude, greeting) can help to develop close intergroup relationships (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006) and common in-group identity (Binder et al., 2009; Dovidio et al., 2006; Eller & Abrams, 2004; Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000; Pettigrew, 1998)

However, the majority of the studies on intergroup contact are characterized by a positivity bias (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). Focusing on ways to improve intergroup relationships has led to the progressive omission to consider *negative aspects of contact* (i.e., denigration, mockery, insult, fights; Dixon, Durrheim, & Tredoux, 2005). Indeed, in everyday social interactions, encounters can be either positive or negative (Dijker, 1987). Studies on negative intergroup contact have shown that experiencing negative contact has stronger impact than positive contact on prejudice and avoidance attitudes. Barlow, Sibley & Hornsey (2012) referred to this different impact of positive and negative contact as positive – negative contact asymmetry. To further support the importance of considering the impact of negative contact, Hayward, Tropp, Hornsey & Barlow (2017) have shown that a negative contact increases prejudice and attitudes of avoidance at a higher rate than the rate at which a positive contact reduces those scourges.

The interplay between positive and negative contact

Even though few recent studies on intergroup contact have examined the effects of both positive and negative contact, the majority of the studies have focused the attention on the effects of positive contact, and few studies has examined only the effects of negative contact, thus the interplay between positive and negative contact in shaping intergroup relationships is still unclear. Assuming that in everyday life, interactions are not only positive nor exclusively negative, but a mixture of both, it is thus essential to examine the influence of positive contact on the effects of negative contact and vice versa to fully understand the phenomenon in its complexity. Along this line of reasoning, Fell et al. [Blinded], (under review) proposed that the interplay between positive and negative contact might lead to three main effects on prejudice and discrimination:

- *Buffering (negative-positive contact)*: the detrimental effects of negative contact can be weakened by subsequent positive contact, leading to reduction of intergroup prejudice.
- *Positive augmentation (negative-positive contact)*: the beneficial effects of positive contact can be augmented by previous experience of negative contact which augments the impact of positive contact by reducing prejudice through a revaluation of the negative experience.
- *Poisoning (positive-negative contact)*: the beneficial effects of positive contact can be reduced by subsequent negative contact, by inhibiting the impact of positive contact on intergroup prejudice reduction.

Those effects are called "Positive-Negative Asymmetry of Intergroup contact".

The actors of intergroup contact

Cross-group interactions very often involve members of a majority group (i.e., local people, heterosexual people, non-disabled people) and a minority group (i.e., immigrant people, homosexual people, disabled people). Studies on intergroup contact have suggested that for contact to reduce prejudice of majority toward minority group, cross group interactions must take place on equal social status. This enhances the majority group concern about minority group social condition, and therefore increases both groups commitment for better interactions. However, these studies have only focused on majority group perspective. In fact, if positive interactions encourage intergroup empathy, they may entrench structural discrimination, inhibiting minority, usually disadvantaged, group motivation for collective actions aimed at achieving intergroup equality (Reimer et al., 2017; Wright & Baray, 2012, Dixon et al., 2012). Indeed, Dixon et al. (2005) have argued that, as for the majority group, contact reduces the effects of prejudice among minority group, and this in turn reduces the disadvantaged group perception of social status differences and enhances the tendency to legitimate the group's status differences, maintaining a status quo. Moreover, the continuous contact with majority group consolidates minority group accommodation attitudes leading to the justification of the inequalities and thus, to reluctant initiatives toward social change. In this vein, collective actions are needed to overcome social inequalities and are facilitated by minority group members' higher identification with their own group, awareness of their own group unfavourable status (Van Zomeren, Postmes & Spears, 2008), feeling of anger about the perceived discrimination (Van Zomeren, Spears, Fischer & Leach, 2004) and endorsement of negative characterizations of advantaged groups (Dixon et al., 2012; Barlow et al., 2012; Simon & Klandermans, 2001). Thus, positive contact with the

majority may not be always as beneficial for the minority group as it is for the majority group (Hayward, Tropp, Horsney & Barlow, 2017).

The effects of the frequency and intensity of intergroup contact

Research has examined not just the quantitative aspect of contact, but also its *qualitative* aspect, that is the extent to which the encounter with outgroup members are perceived as positive or negative experiences (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Binder et al, 2009). In this vein, the quality or intensity of contacts with outgroup members allow for the establishment of favourable or unfavourable behavioural intentions, whereas the quantity or frequency of the contact deeply consolidate these effects. Thus, while a large number of positive cross group interactions negatively influence individuals' prejudice, the level of intensity of the interactions further contribute to strengthen the contact effects on prejudice. The same effects are observable on discrimination and anxiety (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006a; Eller & Abrams, 2004, Brown et al., 2001). Through continuous interactions with the members of the outgroup, individuals confront their preconceived ideas (prejudice and discrimination) with the information gathered in the contact situation and confirmed or disconfirmed their prior ideas processing new ones. Contact effect model suggests a causal relation where the type of contact established produces effects on individual's attitudes (Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Binder et al. (2009) also refer to this as "*contact effect"*. Moreover, other studies attempted to examine the factors that facilitate groups to go one toward the other showing how prejudice and even discrimination can push individuals to avoid contacts or when the contact is inevitable, to maintain it at a superficial level (Binder et al., 2009). One of those factors is the intergroup anxiety.

Pettigrew & Tropp (2008) show that positive contact experiences reduce anxiety, fostering positive contact seeking and thus reduce individual discrimination and prejudice (Blascovich, Mendes, Hunter, Lickel, & Kowai-Bell, 2001; Page-Gould, Mendoza-Denton, & Tropp, 2008). Furthermore, by making an outgroup more knowledgeable to another group, intergroup contact enhance individuals' awareness of others' feeling and thus enhance intergroup empathy. This increase in empathy, through the enhancement of individual capacity to assume outgroup members perspective, drives changes in prejudice and intentions for contact (Pettigrew et al., 2011; Hayward et al., 2017).

The main effects of intergroup contact on majority and minority group

Studies that have examined intergroup relationships of majority group with minority group members found that positive contacts' frequency and intensity have effects on diminishing prejudice,

discrimination and enhancing positive behavioural attitudes (Barlow, Paolini, Pederson, Hornsey, Radke, Harwood & Sibley, 2012). However, due to the different evaluation of the social interaction and of the different social status of groups, the effects of contact are not the same for minority group members, and the same contact situation can be interpreted quite differently (Dixon, Durrheim, & Tredoux, 2005). In fact, Tropp and Pettigrew's meta-analysis (2006) showed that due to distinct perspectives on group's status, the effects of contact are higher and stronger for majorities than for minorities. Majority group members, often of higher status, are concerned with avoiding having discriminatory behaviours that could be interpreted as an exploitation of their higher position, whereas minority group members are more likely to be concerned with being target of discriminations and to perceive any unfavourable behaviour against them as a consequence of their lower position (Binder et al., 2009).

Specific effects of interethnic contact: Acculturation processes and intergroup contact

Acculturation thus refers to modifications or changes in the basic cultural models of two or more groups of individuals, from different origins and ethnic groups, due to the direct and continuous contact between their different cultures (Berry, 2005). Thus, acculturation is a bidirectional process of changes derived from the contact among groups (Graves, 1967). Therefore, both the majority and minority group undergo changes, more or less pronounced, to adapt to the new cultural context (Berry, 1997).

According to Berry (1997; 2001), the process of acculturation is based on two main dimensions which are, the degree to which members of different groups wish to maintain or relinquish their respective culture and how much intercultural contact they are willing to have. From these two dimensions, Berry highlighted four strategies of acculturation: integration (high desire for contact and culture maintenance), assimilation (high desire for contact and abandonment of own culture), separation (low desire for contact and culture maintenance) and marginalization (abandonment of own culture and low desire for contact). Evidence supports integration as the most beneficial strategy at the individual level, (Brown & Zagefka, 2011; Celeste et al., 2014; Matera et al., 2011). At the intergroup level, though, as argued by Brown and Zagefka (2011), integration shows positive intergroup attitudes towards immigrants only if the majority group is supportive of multiculturalism and the minority group is perceived as highly determined to maintain own culture and highly eager to have positive intergroup contacts (Matera et al. 2011). As a bidirectional process, acculturation is largely influenced by the interdependence between immigrant and native people attitudes. Studies have highlighted how the native people attitudes influence the way immigrant group faces their

acculturation process and how in turn immigrant group members' attitudes determine the majority group concern, endorsement and commitment about immigrant acculturation in the society (Berry, 2001; Kosic, Mannetti & Sam, 2005; Piontkowski, Rohmann & Florack, 2002; Zagefka & Brown, 2002). These results, further highlight the important role of the contact in defining the social integration effects of interethnic encounters.

In summary, so far, many researchers have exclusively focused on effects of positive contact, others (Dixon et al., 2012) have highlighted how contact can be negative leading to opposite effects on intergroup interactions. However, few studies have paid attention to both positive and negative contact and their interplay. Since our daily interactions are made of a mix of both positive and negative interactions, it is essential to examine intergroup contact as it occurs in the social context to discover when and how contact is an effective strategy to reduce discrimination and promote social integration. Moreover, there are a very few researches on the effects of intergroup contact from the minority group of immigrants' point of view, specifically on their strategies of acculturation. Thus, it is an urgent goal to understand whether intergroup contact is an efficient tool to attenuate the integration crisis and build a harmonious multicultural society.

VIII-Overview of the cross-cultural research study

To be prejudiced means to have a preconceived, unfair and unreasonable opinion or feeling that is not based on reason and formed without enough thought or knowledge (Cambridge dictionary). In prejudice research there is broad consensus that prejudices arise as generalized negative attitudes towards groups and individuals and are based solely on the fact that these groups are outgroups or these persons belong to an outgroup (Allport 1954; Zick, Kupper and Hovermann 2011, citing Zick 1997). Discrimination is the negative, unjustified or exclusionary behaviour towards members of a target group solely because they are identified as members of this group (Gaertner and Dovidio 1986, p. 3).

Research on intergroup relationships has consistently shown that positive face-to-face contact between members of different groups is one of the most effective strategies to reduce intergroup prejudice and discrimination, facilitating social integration (Pettigrew & Tropp, Wagner, & Christ, 2011). However, contact is not always positive. Given that scholars up to now mainly studied the beneficial effects of the positive contact (Pettigrew & Hewstone, 2017), research to tackle the effects of the interplay among daily positive and negative contacts is still needed (Reimer et al., 2017), in order to provide essential information on when and how intergroup encounters can be a tool to promote social integration.

However, research on intergroup contact mainly examined the perspective of the majority group (or locals) toward minority groups (i.e., ethnic minorities and migrants). Thus, the effects of positive and negative contact for the discriminated and dominated groups, such as ethnic minorities and migrants, can provide further information on how to promote social relationship considering the perspective of both actors, the majority and also the minority group that is usually the one who suffer discrimination.

Finally, if research on intergroup contact has consistently shown the efficacy of intergroup contact in reducing intergroup prejudice at the individual level, research in sociology (Putnam, 2007) investigating the role of context-level factors (i.e., neighbourhood ethnic diversity) has shown conflicting results. Indeed, outgroup and even in-group trust were lower in U.S. neighbourhoods with high ethnic diversity. Thus, to solve these conflictual evidence and deepen the impact of positive and negative contact on prejudice and discrimination, there is an urgent need to study the interplay between individual-and contextual-processes on the effects of intergroup contact. This can be done by considering different socio-cultural contexts, such as neighbourhoods and different countries.

Overall, the present research investigates the role of positive and negative intergroup contact on reducing intergroup discrimination and promoting positive relationships from the perspective of both majority and minority groups in different countries, and taking into account not only individual, but also contextual factors that may influence these relationships.

IX- Need Research Study

Aims

The present project will investigate the effects of the interplay between positive and negative encounters between native and immigrant people across countries with different history of immigrants and social policies, such as Germany, Turkey, Portugal, Italy and Netherlands. We will examine the effects of contact from both the perspectives of majority (native students) and minorities (foreign students and immigrants), examining intergroup prejudice, discrimination and acculturation strategies. Moreover, we will consider the effects of contact at the individual (personal contacts), social (cross-group friendships), contextual (neighbourhood diversity) and national levels, in order to provide an exhaustive knowledge on the potential role of intergroup contact as a tool to reduce inter-ethnic discrimination and promote social integration.

Hypotheses

Based on previous research showing that intergroup contact can reduce outgroup prejudice (Pettigrew & Hewstone, 2017), we expect that:

- Positive contact **with migrant people** will
    a) Reduce prejudice and discrimination towards migrant people and perceived threat from them
    b) Increase expectations for acculturation, collective actions in favour of migrant people and trust towards them
- Positive contact **with native people** will
    a) Reduce prejudice and discrimination towards native people and perceived stereotype threat
    b) Increase acculturation strategies, collective actions and trust towards native people

However, considering that the effect of negative contact on prejudice is stronger than that on positive contact (Barlow et al., 2012), we also expect that:

- Negative contact **with migrant people** will
    a) Increase prejudice and discrimination towards migrant people and perceived threat from them
    b) Reduce expectancy of acculturation and collective actions towards migrant people and trust towards them
- Negative contact **with native people** will reduce benefits of positive contact
    a) Increase prejudice and discrimination towards native people and perceived threat from them
    b) Reduce acculturation strategies, collective actions and trust towards them

Focusing on the effects of the interplay between positive and negative contact for majority group and immigrants, we hypothesize that the effects of negative contact can be moderated by positive contact for both majority and minority group.

Moreover, given that contextual factors affect direct contact with outgroup members (Putnam, 2008), we also expect that

- The perceived intergroup contact at the neighbourhood level will moderate the effects of individuals' positive and negative direct contact with outgroup members (native people or migrant people) on outgroup prejudice and discrimination.

Finally, we hypothesize that:

- Judgements on **national social policies** for migrant people and the perceived hostility between **natives and migrant people** in the country will moderate the effects of positive and negative direct contact between native people and migrants on outgroup prejudice and discrimination. The beneficial effects of positive intergroup contact should be stronger for those who have positive evaluations of the current national policies and also for those who perceive less hostility among natives-migrants.
- Prejudice belief will moderate the effects of direct positive and negative contact between native people and migrants on outgroup prejudice and discrimination. Specifically, the beneficial effects of positive intergroup contact should be stronger for those who show less prejudice belief compared to those who show high prejudice belief.
- The effects of direct positive and negative contact between native people and migrants on outgroup prejudice and discrimination will be moderated by increased outgroup trust.

Method

A cross sectional study will be done to identify whether and how local people and migrants have conflict and face prejudice. It will also identify those who need training and what kind of training is needed. According to Kaufman and Guerra-López (2013), to get to need analysis, a needs assessment should first identify gaps between current and desired results and [place] those [gaps] in priority order. This will be done by use of surveys (and in some cases, interviews and focus groups). For this project, 150 students between the ages of 18 and 30 will be reached in each of the partner universities.

The project will use a cross section survey that will collect information on the values of students in all the partner countries (Germany, Turkey, Portugal, Italy, Netherlands). The bases of the survey are three separate samples collected using questionnaires; one questionnaire will be completed by local students one by immigrant students and another by immigrant non-students. The survey data will permit a detailed exploration of positive and negative attitudes towards immigrants today and their effects on them. In each country, a sample of 150 individuals will be collected in each country, distinguishing among 50 native students and 50 immigrant students at the universities partner aged between 18 and 30, and 50 immigrant non-students (in some cases, interviews and focus groups will be used). The samples will be selected in order to be representative of the respective national student population. Thus, the samples will include students holding citizenship of the surveyed countries, immigrants who are in the process of gaining citizenship and citizens from other countries who are studying in the particular country.

Main variables included in the survey

- Demographics (age, gender, nationality, religion, occupation)
- Direct positive and negative intergroup contact – individual level of contact (Hayward, Tropp, Hornsey, & Barlow, 2017)
- Cross group friendships – social level of contact (Wright, Aron, McLaughlin-Volpe, & Ropp, 1997)
- Neighbourhood diversity – contextual level of contact (Schmid, Ramiah, Hewstone, 2014)
- Social distance (Karakayali, 2009)
- Prejudice (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007)
- Discrimination
- Acculturation strategies (for immigrants) /acculturation expectations (for natives) (Zagefka and Brown, 2002)
- Collective actions (Cakal, Hewstone, Schwär, & Heath, 2011)
- Stereotype threat (for immigrants) / perceived threat (for natives) (Stephan &Stephan, 2000)
- Perceived intergroup hostility
- Native and host country identification
- Social dominance orientation (Pratto et al., 2014)
- Belief in prejudice (Carr, Dweck, & Pauker, 2012)

X- Planned analyses

The required analyses will involve:

1) Preparation of the data-set, 2) preliminary analyses, 3) statistical analyses to test the hypotheses.

1) Preparing the data-set

- Organization in Window Excel of the 3 big datasets for each sub-samples (migrant people, foreign students and local students) of the 5 Universities (Koc University, Humboldt University, Erasmus University, Gaziantep University, Bologna University) involved in the survey.

- Exporting the 3 Window Excel files in SPSS to create the variables and run the analyses.

- Labelling all items of the 3 data-sets, corresponding to 94 questions to migrant people, 94 questions to foreign students and 96 questions to local students.

- Checking potential incomplete data and evaluating the possibility to eliminate participants with missing data or create default scores by computing the mean of the other participants' scores, for the sake of further analyses.

- Testing the Cronbach's alphas of each variable (18) of each of the 3 data-sets in order to estimate their reliability, before creating the variables.

- Creating the 18 variables for each of the 3 data-sets: frequency and intensity of positive and negative intergroup contact prejudice, social distance, discrimination, acculturation strategies (for migrant people and foreign students) or expectancy of acculturation (for native students), stereotype threat (for migrant people and foreign students) or perceived threat from migrants (for native students), and collective action. Analyses will be conducted separately for each sub-sample (migrant people, foreign students and native students) of all the countries. These will be done by computing the mean of the items composing each variable.

2) Preliminary analyses:

- Running the descriptive analyses of demographic variables in SPSS, first considering separately the data of each sub-sample of the 5 universities involved and then combining the data of the same sub-sample of all universities. The demographic variables are: age, gender, nationality, religion, political orientation, familial status, economic situation, education (for students) or job (for migrant people). This will allow us to have the means of these variables for each university sub-sample and for the big three data-sets.

- Running correlational analysis in SPSS between all variables considered: frequency and intensity of positive and negative intergroup contact prejudice, social distance, discrimination, acculturation strategies (for migrant people and foreign students) or expectancy of acculturation (for native students), stereotype threat (for migrant people and foreign students) or perceived threat from migrants (for native students), and collective action. Again, these analyses will be conducted separately for each sub-sample (migrant people, foreign students and native students) of the 5 universities and then considering all together the data related to the same group of participants (migrant people, foreign students, local students) across the universities.

- Further checking the significant correlations between the variables considered across each subsample in order to get an idea about the further analyses that can be run to test our hypotheses.

- Output analysis statistical analyses to test the hypotheses:

-Regression analyses in SPSS to test the above hypotheses on the role of the interplay between positive and negative contact on each variable, separately for the three sub-groups in each University/country.

-The macro PROCESS in SPSS will be employed to test the moderating role of neighbourhood diversity on the relationships between direct positive and negative contact and outgroup prejudice and discrimination. A model using perceived contact at the neighbourhood level as moderator, positive and negative contact as independent variable and prejudice as dependent variable will be tested. Then, the same model will be examine by using discrimination as dependent variable.

- The macro PROCESS in SPSS will be also employed to test the moderating role of judgments on national social policies for migrant people and perceived hostility between natives and migrant people of a country should on the effects of positive and negative direct contact between native people and migrants on outgroup prejudice and discrimination. The beneficial effects of positive intergroup contact should be stronger for those who have positive evaluations of the current national policies and also for those who perceive less hostility among natives-migrants.

First, a model with national social policies as moderator, positive and negative contact as independent variable and prejudice as dependent variable will be tested. Then, the same model will be examine by using discrimination as dependent variable. Further separate models will test perceived hostility as a moderator, positive and negative contact as independent variable and prejudice (or discrimination) as dependent variable.

-The macro PROCESS in SPSS will be also employed to test the moderating role of prejudice belief on the effects of direct positive and negative contact between native people and migrants on outgroup prejudice and discrimination. Specifically, the beneficial effects of positive intergroup contact should be stronger for those who show less prejudice belief compared to those who show high prejudice belief.

- All analyses reported above will be run 18 times. First for each sub-sample (3, i.e., migrant people, foreign students, native students) of each university (5) separately and then considering together the same sample of participants in all the universities. In this vein, we will have a clear idea about the different results of each university/country across all sub-samples and also we will have the possibility to increase the power of our analysis by considering all evidence of the same group of participants across universities/countries.

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Notes

[1] http://www.goc.gov.tr/icerik/history-of-migration_915_1026

[2] http://www.goc.gov.tr/icerik6/temporary-protection_915_1024_4748_icerik

[3] http://www.goc.gov.tr/icerik/history-of-migration_915_1026

[4] https://www.dailysabah.com/education/2018/04/28/turkeys-universities-host-75-million-students

[5] https://www.aa.com.tr/en/education/over-100-000-international-students-study-in-turkey/1148030

[6] Turkish Ministry of National Education already planned a gradual phase-out of Temporary Education Centers by 2019 and demanded that all Syrian children should be enrolled at Turkish public schools instead as of September 2016. Although the practice was highly contested among some Syrian groups, it was later welcomed as it improved literacy rates and promotes integration for Syrian children.

[7] UNICEF Humanitarian Report (2018): https://reliefweb.int/report/turkey/unicef-turkey-2018-humanitarian- results

[8]https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Crisis_Situation_Report_Mid_Year_2018.pdf