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Not just class: towards an understanding of the whiteness of middle class schooling choice

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6 **Not just class: towards an understanding of the whiteness of middle class**
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8 **schooling choice.**
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12 There is increased attention to questions of class in studies of education, particularly
13 among those who adopt a Bourdieuan perspective. This paper explores the
14 burgeoning literature on school choice and class (in particular middle 'classness') to
15 argue that there are serious analytical and sociological costs to a singular focus on
16 class without due attention to race. Examining interview material, it will show
17 instances where the racialised nature of schooling choice has been ignored or
18 overlooked. It argues that viewing the literature through the lens of race and class is
19 imperative for an understanding of the complexities of class and white middle
20 classness in particular.
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41 **Race; class; education; schooling choice; whiteness; Bourdieu**
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46 **1. Introductionⁱ**
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... Interestingly, one of my (laughs), one of my friends who is my friend now, she
was saying to er, something, issue of colour or whatever obviously does come up.
And she was saying, she said oh, I don't mean to be awful, but she said um, I'd
much rather my children played with your children than the children (laughing)
from the estate. And I thought, you know, there's so much, it's not only a colour

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3 *thing, it's a class thing, it's, you know, there's just so much there, isn't it? And it's*
4
5 *amazing how many barriers everyone, not just white people, you know, just*
6
7 *everyone generally with each other, whether it's somebody of a different colour,*
8
9 *or of a different class kind of barriers they put up, and how difficult it is to*
10
11 *surmount those that you don't happen to fit in with. But that, to me was very*
12
13 *interesting.*

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18 *(Cline et al., 2002: 67)*

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22 *'it's very difficult to separate class and race a lot of the time, but I suppose they*
23
24 *do go hand in hand just through necessity, and that's the way things work out*
25
26 *[...] And that's what really worries me about this school, and I think it's sad*
27
28 *because what happens is that I think a lot of people see this, and they don't send*
29
30 *their children there after ... reception, or nursery, and the children get moved*
31
32 *and the mix never ever gets any stronger. The mix doesn't become more like a*
33
34 *mix, as it were. You know. And it's really sad'*

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39 *(Byrne, 2006: 126)*

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These two quotes, the first from a working class Sikh man talking about sending his children to a school where the large majority of the pupils are white, and the second from a middle class white woman talking about why she is reluctant to send her children to the nearest school demonstrate how the respondents in qualitative research are aware of the complexities and intertwining nature of class and race.

This paper will explore the burgeoning literature on school choice and interrogate

1
2
3 the extent to which it has addressed the intersecting nature of both constructions of
4 and experiences of race and class. This article seeks to tease out this relationship and
5 particularly to ask why the growing literature on the reproduction of middle class
6 privilege has, at least until very recently, largely failed to analyse the racialised
7 nature of its subject. Furthermore, this paper will ask if a Bourdieuan analysis,
8 whilst aiding the resurgence of class as a social category, inhibits the analysis of the
9 inter-relation between race and class. I will first explore the literature on school
10 choice and show how it often ignores questions of race in its focus on class and
11 middle-class practices in particular. I will draw out the implications of Bourdieu's
12 work for an analysis of racialised as well as classed practices and finally examine
13 research which explores questions of race more successfully.
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34 **2. School choice**

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39 There has been an explosion of literature on school choice since the market reforms
40 of 1980s (which continue to be rolled out). The 1980 Education Act included the
41 requirement for local education authorities (LEAs) to meet parental preference (the
42 notion of parental choice had been established under section 76 of the 1944
43 Education Act but had only been implemented on an ad hoc basis) (Croft, 2004:
44 929). Commitment to parental preference was strengthened in legislation in 1988
45 and 1989, with the introduction of the principal of funding following the pupil
46 introduced in 1988. While politicians and policy makers claim that parents have
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3 been empowered through their new constructions as consumers of educational
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5 options for their children, this has been questioned in academic literature and public
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7 discussion. The notion of choice and the extent to which this choice is real has been
8
9 interrogated , particularly given the centralization of the control of the curriculum
10
11 which limits one significant aspect of what parents are choosing between (Gabriel,
12
13 1994). The education market is a complicated terrain. The limits of supply (schools
14
15 cannot easily 'spring up' to meet a demand) means that schools do not operate in a
16
17 pure market. The cost of some schools being winners in the market for students and
18
19 funding means that others will be losers. Yet many children still have to attend those
20
21 'losing' schools. There are only so many places that popular schools can offer for
22
23 students and for many the notion of choice becomes a fiction in those areas where all
24
25 the possible choices are unpopular or undesirable. In addition, the operation of
26
27 different rules of access suggests that the system can be very difficult to negotiate.
28
29 LEAs have relative freedom to formulate their own mechanisms of prioritising
30
31 pupils (within certain bounds established by the 2003 Code of Practice on School
32
33 Admissions (Croft, 2004: 930)). Distance to school remains an important factor in
34
35 admissions for most schools. There are also various types of (wholly or partially)
36
37 selective schools – including grammar schools; religious schools and other voluntary
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39 aided schools; Academies; Technical Colleges and specialist schools. In addition,
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41 there is a complicated system of appeals which parents also have to negotiate (Croft,
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43 2004).
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3 Thus Chris Taylor argues that ‘there now exists a mosaic of different
4 educational markets, where the two key components of the reforms, choice and
5 diversity, are unevenly distributed’ (Taylor, 2001: 368). Archer and Francis (2007:
6 74) argue that policy documents around school choice are ‘covertly raced and
7 classed discourses’ which will perpetuate inequality by privileging the interests of
8 white, middle class parents. A literature has risen to explore how wealth and class
9 practices are key components in negotiating this uneven distribution. This has led to
10 a concern for the ways in which class has interacted with this policy of choice. As
11 Bev Skeggs argues: ‘choice is a particularly middle-class way of operating in the
12 world’ (2004: 139). Class has increased significance for education where choice
13 amplifies the importance of parental action. The middle classes have particularly
14 come under focus with concerns that they are ‘working the system’ – or in
15 Bourdieuan terms, demonstrating a ‘sense de jeu’.

3. Bourdieu, class and education

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43 The question of class has been the subject of contentious debates within sociology.
44 At the heart of this debate lie two seemingly contradictory trends. The first is that
45 class matters. Socio-economic background has a key and enduring influence in
46 educational outcomes; income distribution; health prospects and participation (see
47 ((Office for National Statistics), 2005). Yet many argue that class no longer matters
48 when the majority see themselves as either having no class or being middle class.
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3 One route out of this impasse is Bourdieuan understandings of class which do not
4 require the identification of cohesive or self-identifying groups or class formations.
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6 This approach has been particularly influential in the study of education, partly due
7
8 to Bourdieu's own interest in education. Bourdieu asserts the need to understand the
9
10 workings of the social field beyond economics, particularly in the realm of the
11
12 cultural. For Bourdieu, class is about ways of being, tastes and lifestyles. Education
13
14 can be important in ensuring the transmission and acquiring of qualifications, but
15
16 also class codes and cultural capital. 'The 'eye' is a product of history reproduced in
17
18 education' (Bourdieu, 1994, p5-6). Whilst this 'culturalist' approach to class has
19
20 been very productive in aiding the analysis of the reproduction of class inequalities
21
22 in education, this paper will argue that there is frequently a failure to attend to
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24 questions of race in this approach.
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34 For Bourdieu : (Bourdieu, 1991), a class is a set of people in a similar
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36 position in the 'field' who have shared dispositions and interests which make them
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38 act in particular ways (but not necessarily in a co-ordinated way, and not as a group).
39
40 Class positions are maintained through the exclusionary practice of distinctions and
41
42 the accumulation and transmission of economic, social and cultural capitals from
43
44 one generation to the next. Education plays a key role in this as it is not merely about
45
46 acquiring qualifications. Indeed, there may be constant pressure to acquire more as
47
48 qualifications can be easily devalued if more people are given access to higher levels
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50 of education (Bourdieu, 1994:133). As much as qualification acquisition, education
51
52 is about the acquisition of taste and the right dispositions which play a critical role in
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3 creating distinction (Bourdieu, 1994). This makes schools very important in the
4
5 struggle to maintain position. It is here that Bourdieu's work has been very useful
6
7 for those who seek to study the operation of class within the educational system.
8
9
10 School, and the composition of school in-take is an area of key concern in the
11
12 'genteel battles' (or perhaps not so genteel battles) the middle class are engaged in to
13
14 assert and maintain their positions (Savage et al., 1992: 100). Much of the learning
15
16 which the middle classes most care about is to be done from fellow pupils as much
17
18 as teachers. There is a desire to find a school filled with enough 'people like us' who
19
20 will teach children 'how to be'.ⁱⁱ
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27 In the context of debates around class, the middle classes in particular have been
28
29 brought more into focus. Regarding education, Power, et al., argued that 'issues of
30
31 class cannot be properly illuminated without giving middle-class educational
32
33 experience the attention it has largely lacked' (Power et al., 2003: 3). While Power
34
35 et al., focus on the struggle middle classes engage in to achieve the educational
36
37 outcomes they want, others have focused more on the exclusionary effects of that
38
39 process and have used frameworks provided by Bourdieu's work. Stephen Ball
40
41 writes that 'Education as a field of distinctions and identities is crucial in high
42
43 modern society in changing and reproducing the borderlines of class and distributing
44
45 unevenly and unequally forms of social and cultural capital'(Ball, 2003: 8). He
46
47 argues that education policy is 'aimed at satisfying the concerns and anxieties of the
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49 ever anxious middle classes. The market rules of exclusion offer possibilities for
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3 strategic action which many middle-class families are very willing and very able to
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5 take up' (Ball, 2003: 27).
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10 Selection of and attendance at school involves a series of dispositions and
11
12 practices which draw on different classed capitals. Economic resources come into
13
14 play. This occurs at the mundane level of ability to visit schools that are further and
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16 also to contemplate sending a child to a more distant school. But economic resources
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18 may work at the extreme level of moving house in order to fall into the catchment
19
20 area of a 'better' school. Cultural and social resources are important in giving
21
22 parents the ability to access and assess the 'hot' and 'cold' information on schools –
23
24 from appraising OFSTED reports to using networks to evaluate schools. There is
25
26 evidence that different classes tend to use different sources for this. Diane Reay
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28 (Reay, 1999) argues that middle class parents are much more confident in dealing
29
30 with the education system in general. This is likely to translate into confidence in
31
32 negotiating the possibilities of choice. The middle classes may make more vigorous
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34 and successful use of the appeals system and researchers have found that middle
35
36 class parents are quick to argue that their child is specifically gifted and/or needs
37
38 special assistance and treatment which may assist their position in the appeal process
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40 (Ball, 2003: 37: 62, Devine, 2004: 222). In the transition from primary to secondary
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42 schools, they may also be better at enlisting teachers and other support, including
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44 private tuition where entry to grammar schools is based on test results.
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Stephen Ball argues: ‘It is within the complex ‘tapestry of practices’ ... in the interlinking of the domestic sphere with public institutions that the work of social reproduction, closure and exclusion gets done. In the interaction between families and institutions, in struggles over scarce resources and valued trajectories, structural and cultural divisions are re-enacted ... For these families class continues to be a critical mediation of being, of who they are.’ (Ball, 2003: 76). Reproduction of class is particularly significant in the examination of what parents look for in schools. The literature argues that middle class parents want a sufficient number of other middle class parents, ‘people like us’: ‘The search for a place of safety is a search for others like us, informed and reinforced by the decisions and advice given by those others like us, whom we trust. A community of aspirations is being sought, people who see and value the future in the same way’ (Ball, 2003: 64). But while this literature makes much of the desire for sufficient ‘people like us’ to give a sense of safety and community, it largely fails to explore how this might be a *racialised* as much as a classed desire. Thus it ignores the extent to which class and race have always been constructed together (see McClintock 1995). The following section will examine this literature in more detail and show how the whiteness of the respondents is often left unexamined.

4. Whiteness, class and school choice

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3 Helen (Charles) asked in 1993 'I have often wondered whether white people *know*
4 that they are white' ((Charles), 1993: 99)? It is often the case that the power of
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Helen (Charles) asked in 1993 'I have often wondered whether white people *know* that they are white' ((Charles), 1993: 99)? It is often the case that the power of whiteness works in such a way as to make white peoples' racialised position and experiences unmarked or unnoticed. As Richard Dyer argues: 'because we are seen as white, we characteristically see ourselves and believe ourselves seen as unmarked, unspecific, universal' (Dyer, 1997: 45). However, in the case of education and schooling choice, and particularly in the case of parents considering schools for their children in urban relatively multicultural areas, I would argue that white people *are* often aware of their whiteness and the racialised nature of their choices.

This is based not only on my own research (Byrne, 2006) but also on the material presented in much of the literature which this paper examines. However, what seems more curious, and is more damaging for the understanding of the impact of the construction of parents as consumers, is that many of those interviewing and analyzing the responses do not appear to *know* that (or perhaps if) their respondents are white. For instance it is quite common within this literature on the middle classes and schooling choice for qualitative research to be written up almost entirely without reference to the ethnicity of the respondents (see for example (Ball and Vincent, 2007, Butler and Robson, 2003, Devine, 2004, Oria et al., 2007, Power et al., 2003). Where all respondents are white, it appears to be not considered worthy of comment or even statement. This suggests that whiteness, or perhaps more particularly white

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3 middleclassness, is being constructed as a norm from which others deviate (see
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6 (Dyer, 1997, Frankenberg, 1997).
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10 The article 'Urban education, the middle classes and their dilemmas of
11 school choice' by Oria et al. (2007) draws on interviews with 28
12
13 'professional/managerial/ middle class families' living in Hackney (Oria et al., 2007:
14
15 92). At no point are we told the ethnicity of the respondents. The same is true of an
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17 article about circuits of education and gentrification by Butler and Robson, based on
18
19 fieldwork in five sites in London, including Lewisham, Brixton and Wandsworth.
20
21 We know, for instance that one of the parents is talking about their mixed race child,
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23 but we are not told the ethnicity of the interviewee (this situation also crops up in
24
25 (Ball and Vincent, 2007). In other cases, where both white and non-white parents
26
27 have been interviewed, we are sometimes told when the respondent is black or
28
29 Asian, but whiteness is left unmarked (see for example (Power et al., 2003).
30
31 Interestingly, the respondents themselves often appear to sensitive to issues of race.
32
33 In almost all articles about schooling choice, questions of race appear in the
34
35 interviews even when the researcher appears blind to their presence or significance.
36
37 For instance, in the article by Oria et al. discussed above, Emily appreciates a
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39 particular Specialist Art school because it has 'a wide variety of children in terms of
40
41 ability and their background ... race as well' (Oria et al., 2007: 95). Similarly
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43 Gemma contrasted the school her children went to with an imaginary 'very white
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45 middle class school' where they would not have the same experience of being
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3 'exposed to children from different ethnic backgrounds or social backgrounds or
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5 different values' (Oria et al., 2007: 99-100).
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10 A further example of the failure to analyse the racialised narratives produced
11
12 by respondents is provided by Tim Butler writing about gentrification processes in
13
14 Hackney which also focuses on schooling choices. Again, his respondents are
15
16 explicit in describing the ways in which race and class are brought together in their
17
18 concerns around schooling: 'we are coming to the conclusion that our kids would
19
20 probably not be comfortable in a school where there are an enormous number of
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22 black children or really rough white kids which there are around here' (Butler, 1997:
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24 144). This language is almost dismissed in the analysis '[w]ords like "rough" which
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26 were used by Harriet would never normally be used in any other context, the
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28 references to "black dominated" [...] all suggest a measure of desperation' (Butler,
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30 1997: 147).
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39 One could argue that the lack of an analysis of race is particularly curious in
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41 the context of London where there are high levels of racialised inequality and where
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43 local areas (such as Hackney) are frequently understood through racialised
44
45 discourses. As Paul Gilroy argues: 'Where once it was the mean streets of the
46
47 decaying inner city which hosted the most fearsome encounter between white
48
49 Britons and their most improbably and intimidating other - black youth - now it is
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51 the classrooms and staffrooms of the nation's inner-city schools which frame the
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53 same conflict and provide the most potent terms with which to make sense of racial
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3 difference'(Gilroy, 1993: p26). In order to be attentive to the intersections between
4
5 race and class which contribute to making up someone 'like me', it is important to
6
7 be alive to the coded way in which people talk about race. So, for example the 'inner
8
9 city' or 'urban' needs to be read through a racialised imaginary. 'Urban' 'gang'
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11 'inner-city' and 'sink school' can often be understood as shifting codes for race.
12
13 Stephen Ball writes about how, for middle class parents who negotiate the state
14
15 system, their choices are part of a 'geography of fear and uncertainties, of dangerous
16
17 places and people' yet he does not seem willing to analyse the ways in which the
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19 respondents whiteness as much as their middle classness plays into this (Ball, 2003:
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21 37).
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30 The easy slippage between 'urban' and race for example is sometimes made
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32 explicit in interviews, such as the account Mrs Kerr gives in Stephen Ball's research
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34 'certainly in an urban area I think you're going to get, certainly around here it would
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36 be completely different cultures as well, and languages spoken, so it was that kind of
37
38 thing really that makes you think. I think if we were in the country I wouldn't bat an
39
40 eyelid about sending them to the local school (Ball, 2003: 66). Thus Mrs Kerr is
41
42 spelling out for us the terrain on which she is operating and the ways in which she is
43
44 seeking to reproduce white middle-classness for her children. This is a racialised
45
46 space, yet this important factor is left un-remarked by Ball. Similarly, Ball notes the
47
48 invisibility of the working classes in response to a respondent who remarks about
49
50 her nearest school that 'nobody' goes there' (Ball, 2003: 37: 62). But this may also
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52 be a 'silent antagonism' of race as much as class. We have no way of telling from
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3 his account. Again in discussions of the desirable 'mix' that the parents are seeking,
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5 Ball focuses exclusively on social class, whilst his respondents explicitly talk about
6
7 both class and ethnicity. In the following excerpt, Mrs Mankell oscillates between
8
9 talking about ethnicity and class. For her, the two are inextricable:
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15 'these kind of London suburbs are quite unique ... and ... they are moneyed ... I
16
17 hate these terms ... jargon, isn't it ... they're moneyed areas ... people have
18
19 good standard of lives ... whatever middle class means ... doesn't actually mean
20
21 they're all middle-class ... but it has a nice balance, I suppose, of children from
22
23 caring homes. It doesn't have a great ethnic mix. But it certainly has a balance of
24
25 ... it has a balance between children from less caring and more caring homes ... I
26
27 wouldn't say it was predominantly middle-class really ... it hasn't got a very
28
29 good ethnic mix, like a few Asian children, only a couple ... well that's true of
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31 the borough, this is not a borough with a high proportion of Asian or West Indian
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33 families particularly, but what we do have is a vast mixture from all over the
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35 shop'
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44 Yet the analysis is only focused on the question of the classed mix. There is
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46 no probing of what the juxtaposition of 'caring' families and 'ethnic mix' might
47
48 mean for understanding white middle classness (Ball, 2003: 37: 63). I would argue
49
50 that the result of these omissions is a poorer understanding of what the interviewees
51
52 mean when they talk about 'mix'. The term suggests more than a concern about
53
54 class but also the negotiation of racialised geographies and identities that
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3 characterise middle classness particularly in urban (and perhaps especially in
4
5 London) contexts. Often in the study of whiteness, a reading 'against the grain' of
6
7 what respondents are saying needs to be undertaken. However, in these studies, the
8
9 respondents themselves are worrying about the extent to which they could/should be
10
11 characterised as 'pushy middle class white parent[s]', but the analysis fails to
12
13 address this (Ball, 2003: 37: p58). They also make clear the sometimes strong
14
15 emotional responses they have to the 'wrong' sort of school which is not white
16
17 enough. A school which Ball describes as having a 'high proportion of ethnic
18
19 minority students' is described by a parent as 'a no no school' and another parent
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21 declares: 'I wouldn't send her to Saint's whatever happened, I would probably chain
22
23 myself to the railings of Borough House (Ball, 2003: 105).
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32 We can see that the respondents are clear that the ethnic mix of schools is
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34 something that is important to them when considering the available choices. But
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36 why should their whiteness matter to us? Stephen Ball argues that middle-classness,
37
38 like other class identifications, has to be sought in the subtleties of the everyday, in
39
40 the uncertainties of status, in fine distinctions as well as gross ones (Ball, 2003:
41
42 176). It is here that I would argue that race becomes very important if we are to truly
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44 understand the nature of and practices of the middle classness being researched.
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46 Because it is not simply middle classness that is the subject of analysis, but *white*
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48 middle classness in particular. This particularity needs to be understood, and at times
49
50 decoded if we are to fully trace the nuances of educational and reproductive choices
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52 being made. We have to know what is being reproduced. This involves being more
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3 attentive to what Bourdieu calls a 'network of oppositions' in what makes someone
4 not 'people like us'. These oppositions are not just based on class distinctions but are
5 intermixed with racialised distinctions in sometimes complex ways (as the opening
6 quotes to this paper show). The more explicitly racialised nature of US society and
7 the history of segregation and place of schools as a prime battlefield in struggles
8 around segregation makes the importance of race more obvious for British and US-
9 based researchers (see for example (Devine, 2004). Lareau and McNamara Horvat
10 argue that the race specific nature of given fields, particularly education, needs to be
11 explored. In a study of parents' interactions with teachers and school institutions in
12 the US, they argue that '[a]lthough the terminology is somewhat awkward, we see
13 being white as a cultural resource that white parents unwittingly draw on in their
14 school negotiations in this speaking. Technically speaking, in this field, being white
15 becomes a type of cultural capital' (Lareau and McNamara Horvat, 1999: 42). So, in
16 considering the US case, for example Stephen Ball acknowledges that 'in multi-
17 racial settings, race is a further compounding factor in the choice process and there
18 may well be racial segregation as a result' (Ball, 2003: 37). However, he does not
19 translate this awareness to the British context where race talk and practice is perhaps
20 more coded and made less explicit.ⁱⁱⁱ

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48 The question remains, how far can Bourdieu be held responsible for these
49 omissions. Or, put another way, what conceptual framework is required to put race
50 and class together with more success, particularly in an analysis of privilege?
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Bourdieu does allow for other forms of distinction to be operating in the field, such

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3 as gender and race.^{iv} However, there is a potential rigidity in his construction of
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5 both the field and habitus which makes this understanding difficult to operationalise.
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8 As Terry Lovell argues, Bourdieu's sociology is in danger of positioning sex/gender,
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10 sexuality and even 'race' as secondary to that of social class' (Lovell, 2000). One
11
12 problem is that it is difficult to operationalise notions like field and habitus on
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14 multiple axes (although this should be possible). The complexities may be
15
16 overwhelming. Toril Moi argues that gender, like class, needs to be understood as
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18 part of a field because of its relational and shifting nature. Thus gender is for Moi,
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20 understood not as an autonomous system but as a 'particularly combinatory social
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22 category, one that infiltrates and influences every other category' (Moi, cited in
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24 (Skeggs, 2004b) p6) The same must also, I would argue, be said for race, but this is
25
26 rarely accomplished.^v As Terry Lovell argues: 'While class penetrates right through
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28 his [Bourdieu's] diagrammatic representation of the social field, like the lettering in
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30 Brighton rock, gender is largely invisible, as is race' (Lovell, 2000: 36).^{vi} Lois
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32 McNay argues that there is a tendency within Bourdieu's work to reduce symbolic
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34 relations to pre-given social relations (McNay, 2004). This tends to give social
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36 identities a fixity which obscures their complexity and instability. If we are to
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38 understand the multiple interrelations between race, class and gender, then it is
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40 possible that Bourdieu's construction of the habitus does not offer sufficiently
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42 flexible analysis to reach the complex psychosocial processes behind identification.
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44 Archer and Francis for example in their exploration of minority ethnic achievement
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46 in schools argue for a multi-layered theoretical framework. As well as using
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48 Bourdieu's work, they also draw on post-structuralist theorisations of identification
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3 offered by Stuart Hall and Judith Butler respectively: 'Within this approach, social
4 identities, divisions and inequalities (of race/ethnicity, social class, gender and
5 sexuality) are understood as being brought into being through social life - through
6 talk, actions, policies, practices and so on'. (Archer and Francis, 2007) p25-6). This
7 discursive, performative approach relies on a more diffuse notion of power and the
8 performance and embodiment of identities than is perhaps usually associated with
9 Bourdieu. Archer and Francis argue that 'theories of social class have been primarily
10 formulated with reference to White communities, and hence care must be taken
11 when extending these notions to minority ethnic communities' (Archer and Francis,
12 2007) p34). Thus the next section will briefly explore research on race and education
13 to see to what extent that offers a model for examining white middle classness.
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34 **5. Race and education**

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38 Race has been an important component in research on education ever since
39 comparatively larger numbers of racialised minority groups entered the education
40 system in Britain as a result of post-war immigration. Initially, this research focused
41 on essentially conservative issues around how schools might be a site of easing the
42 tensions understood to result from mass immigration of racialised others, or to
43 promote assimilation (Rattansi, 1992). Initially, the focus was on large quantitative
44 studies but there has increasingly been more qualitative and ethnographic work. This
45 shift also marked a general move from cultural deficit models to focus on the
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3 process of schooling and was sometimes accompanied by action based research.
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6 Thus there has been more attention given to what is going on in schools and in
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8 particular an examination of the interactions and learning of children. A major
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10 concern has been how schools might be the site of racism (for example in the
11
12 curriculum, through bullying, through lowered expectations by teachers of black and
13
14 ethnic minority children)^{vii} – and how might they be sites of education around
15
16 multiculturalism and anti-racism^{viii}. Education has also been critical in the backlash
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18 against anti-racist initiatives. Paul Gilroy points out how classrooms, regarded as the
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20 depositaries of national culture, have become a major battleground: ‘the school has
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22 become the principal element in the ideology with which the English New Right
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24 have sought to attack anti-racism’ (Gilroy, 1993: 26).
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32 There has also been considerable research on the apparently enduring nature
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34 of underachievement and how this should be understood (Gillborn, 2006). Recently,
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36 research has become more attuned to the complexities of understanding minority
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38 ethnic experience in British schools. In particular, there is more awareness of the
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40 need to differentiate between different ethnic groups and how trajectories of arrival,
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42 settlement and placement in the system have very different outcomes.^{ix} There has
43
44 also been some interesting work on questions of race, ethnicity and gender. This
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46 includes work on racialised masculinities and the ways in which gender and
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48 sexuality interact with race in producing different learning cultures and opportunities
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51 (see (Archer, 2003, Mac an Ghail, 1996) .
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There has been some limited qualitative and quantitative work on the specific question of school choice and race. Irene Bruegel argues that there is a lack of fit between the current Labour Government's rhetoric on social capital and community cohesion and its continuing education reforms: 'the drive for competition between pupils and between schools, sits poorly with the collaboration required to build social capital across diversity' (Bruegel, 2006: 3). Bruegel contends that parental choice systems of school allocation can fuel racism, partly because different groups see the process as weighted against them in obscure ways and partly because it enables parents to act upon their prejudices, to the potential disadvantage of their children. She tracks how in the transition from primary to secondary school the friendships most likely to be ruptured by the move were those that crossed ethnic boundaries (Bruegel, 2006: 3: 9). Quantitative research does suggest that racialised choices *are* being played out in schooling. In a study on schools in England, Johnston et al find that: '[b]oth whites and non-whites are more concentrated into schools with their co-ethnics than predicted by a random allocation model' (Johnston et al., 2004: 246). Thus they find evidence of higher levels of segregation in schools than in residence. In areas that are more ethnically mixed they found more concentration of both whites and non-whites (this was particularly the case with Asian populations) (Burgess et al., 2005)

Nonetheless, as Debbie Weekes-Bernard (Weekes-Bernard, 2007) points out, the literature of school choice has often failed to look at ethnicity. In a study of Black and minority ethnic parents, she argues that the notion of choice is largely

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3 rhetorical. Parents are not actually able to choose the schools they would most want,
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5 rather they are expressing merely a preference. Muslim parents in particular had
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7 strong desires for Muslim faith schools which are largely not available in the state
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9 system. Some parents were actively choosing schools where there was a large
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11 presence or majority of black and Asian students – to avoid racism and bullying^x,
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13 while others were avoiding those very schools: ‘A small minority of aspirant Black
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15 and Asian parents actively avoid schools that are Black/Asian majority, engaging,
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17 where affordable, in high rates of residential and educational flight despite their own
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19 awareness of the risks associated with educating their children in predominantly
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21 White schools’ (Weekes-Bernard, 2007: 41). This results in a complex negotiation
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23 of class and race for those parents: ‘[You are] trying to get your child to stay away
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25 from certain types of children. Now these certain types, some of these are Black. So
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27 you find yourself in this really weird situation where you are staying Black and true
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29 to yourself, but you are staying away because you are trying to get your child out of
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31 a Black environment and into a White environment that you know they are going to
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33 struggle in anyway. But you know they are going to have a better education... as
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35 parents [we] battle with our ethnicity [but] we put our children in a battle as well’
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44 (Weekes-Bernard, 2007: 41).

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48 Black and minority ethnic parents have a sense of the ‘risk’ of encountering
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50 racism. This presents a different response to importance of mix and social and ethnic
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52 background of school intake than that of white parents and one which arouses
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54 difficult questions of identity: ‘I remember I took my son to Northgram primary
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3 school. He was the only little Black boy there – sat at a table with four little White
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5 boys and they had their names on and they're all looking at him like, what are you
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7 doing here? And he looked round at me and said 'it's ok you can go Mummy' and I
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9 wanted to cry – I didn't want to leave him' (Weekes-Bernard, 2007: 41-2). This also
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11 has consequences for children as Diane Reay and Helen Lucey point out in their
12
13 study of 'demonised' schools: '[w]hile children, across race and class, could make
14
15 identical criticisms of 'bad' schools, such judgements signified very differently, as
16
17 for white middle-class children, pupils at such schools are 'a distanced other', while
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19 black and white working-class children they implicate 'people like me' ...There are
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21 painful social and psychological consequences for these minority ethnic working
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23 class children which the white middle class children can avoid, in particular, the
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25 effort of pushing the 'demonized' other out when it is conflated with the self' (Reay
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27 and Lucey, 2003: 130).
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38 The majority of work which examines questions of race and education
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40 focuses, perhaps understandably, on ethnic minorities. A significant exception to this
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42 is the focus on the white working classes who are becoming a key site of policy and
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44 academic debate (see (Evans, 2006). It could be argued that the white working class,
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46 and particularly white working class boys are subject to similar scrutiny that marked
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48 black and other ethnic minorities in the early years of research – where notions of
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50 cultural deficit and 'refusal' to be educated are still circulating. For example,
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52 Raveaud and van Zanten argue that middle class parents talking about school choice
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54 are reluctant to express views which may be seen as racist, but do not always have
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3 the same reservations around class: 'while it appears unacceptable to attribute
4 negative educational effects to the presence of minority ethnic children, there is no
5 such constraint on criticism directed towards other social classes. Pupils from lower
6 social classes are occasionally presented as 'anti-social', 'nasty', 'the horrible ones'
7 likely to induce anti-school peer pressure' (Raveaud and van Zanten, 2007: 117). An
8 alternative formation of this debate argues that white working class boys are feeling
9 'left out' in the new re-making of British identity and celebrations of diversity – they
10 have no identity to celebrate.^{xi} Whilst these debates mark the whiteness of the
11 working class, they still leave the white middle classes unmarked and unexamined
12 (and therefore somehow outside of the operations of both racism and racialisation).
13 Where whiteness appears to be marginal (in the case of white working class boys) it
14 can be brought into focus. Where it is a component of privilege, it becomes a 'ghost'
15 unable to be seen (Goldberg, 1997: 83).
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37 Diane Reay and Helen Lucey argue that 'Social class, race, social exclusion
38 and social exclusivity are all intertwined in secondary school choice in the inner city'
39 (Reay and Lucey, 2004: 37). They also argue that safety concerns are 'frequently
40 constructed through racialised, territorialized and, for some boys' schools, gendered
41 lenses' (Reay and Lucey, 2004: 45). Diane Reay and others are currently examining
42 those white middle classes who 'actively choosing the type of inner city
43 comprehensives that most white middle classes avoid' (Reay, 2007). This work
44 shows some of the different ways in which race and class interact. This includes the
45 idea of a cosmopolitan disposition, where some middle class parents see themselves
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3 as providing their children with the capacity to move around comfortably and
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5 operate successfully in multicultural contexts. This suggests an adaptation to the
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7 global economy. Reay et al also argue that white middle class parents sometimes use
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9 black and ethnic minority children symbolically to mark the distance between
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11 themselves and the white working classes. Thus a parent remarks that a school she
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13 sends her child to is 'very low on the white trash factor'.^{xii}
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20 Reay et al. (2004) are examining perhaps an exception in terms of the white
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22 middle classes in that they directly sought out those who are actively choosing
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24 schools that many are avoiding (by manipulating the system or geographical
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26 relocation). This leaves the challenge to engage not only with those more unusual
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28 parents, but the norm of the white middle classes who have specific raced, as well as
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30 classed imaginaries of the desired school fellows for their children. As Anoop Nayak
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32 points out, it is often harder to engage with 'the normalcy of whiteness as ordinary,
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34 monotonous or humdrum' (Nayak, 2003: p140).
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43 **6. Conclusion**

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48 This paper has shown some of the ways in which the analysis of empirical material
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50 is weakened by a singular focus on class. It has argued that whilst the respondents in
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52 research on middle-class schooling choice appear to frequently flag race as a
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54 relevant issue, this has not always been picked up by researchers. Whilst the use of
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3 Bourdieuan notions of distinction in class habitus have been productive in enabling
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5 an analysis of the class nature of parental action around schooling, there needs to be
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7 more recognition of the intersections between race and class in making up middle
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9 classness in Britain. This requires a more nuanced understanding of the shifting
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11 terrain on which the idea of 'people like us' is constructed, as well as attention to
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13 where the 'middle class' practices and discourses discovered would be better
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15 described those of the white middle classes. Acknowledging the mutually
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17 constitutive nature of social categories also opens up the scope of thinking through
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19 the racialised nature of social reproduction and social capital that are so critical to
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21 education. In addition, considerations of the racialised nature of parental choices
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23 would call for a further critical examination of education reforms which could be
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25 argued to increase both prejudice and concentrate privilege.
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34 Exploration of how white middle class practices around school choice are
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36 producing and reproducing racialised as well as classed inequalities and exclusions
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38 is one route in to the examination of the 'normalcy of whiteness'. The marking of
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40 class as also racialised also helps to open up the exploration of the practices of non-
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42 white middle classes around schooling choice. Are Black, Asian and other ethnic
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44 minorities making similar choices to their white counterparts around schooling or
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46 how and why are they engaging in different practices? How are different ethnic
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48 groups internally differentiated, and how do their choices differ? Do different ethnic
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50 groups (including whites) meet a different reception from schools and teachers? For
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52 example, is the 'pushy' black parent received in a different way from the 'pushy'
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3 white parent?^{xiii} If this empirical research agenda were pursued, it would also enable
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5 a more engaged debate with Bourdieuan understandings of the social world and
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7 social interaction and how they might enable the analysis of racialised as well as
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9 classed practices.
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ⁱⁱ In addition, and particularly at primary level, much of the out-of-school social life of the child and mother may be shaped by fellow pupils (see Byrne, 2006).

ⁱⁱⁱ Stephen Ball is well aware of the significance of race in other research he is involved in. See BALL, S. J. 1998 'Race', Space and the Further Education Market Place', *Race, Ethnicity and Education*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 171-189, BALL, S. J., REAY, D. & DAVID, M. 2002 'Ethnic Choosing': Minority Ethnic students and higher education choice', *Race, Ethnicity and Education*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 333-357..

^{iv} For an example of how Bourdieu can be usefully applied to the study of race see HANCOCK, B. H. 2005 'Steppin' out of Whiteness', *Ethnography*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 427-461.. See also SMAJE, C. 1997 'Not just a social construct: Theorising race and ethnicity', *Sociology*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 307-327.. Both argue for the importance of Bourdieu's approach to bodily practices for understandings of race.

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^{vi} An exception to this would be *La Misere du Monde* where Bourdieu addresses race more directly.

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^{xi} See HAYLETT, C. 2000 'Illegitimate subjects? Abject whites, neoliberal modernisation and middle class multiculturalism', *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space*, vol. 19, pp. 351-70, SKEGGS, B. 2004a *Class, Self, Culture*. London and New York: Routledge. on the racialisation of the white working class in Britain.

^{xii} See HARTIGAN, J. J. 2005 *Odd Tribes. Toward a cultural analysis of white people*. Durham and London: Duke University Press, HARTIGAN JR., J. 1997 'Unpopular culture: the case of 'white trash'', *Cultural Studies*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 316-343. for discussion of 'white trash'.

^{xiii} Work by WILLIAMS, K. & MAYLOR, U. 2007 'I do think they think Black children are uneducable': Black middle class parents' accounts of managing their children's education', *The Educated Family? Middle class families and education*. London Metropolitan University. would suggest that this is the case.