



GLOBAL EDUCATION MONITORING REPORT SUMMARY

2019

Migration, displacement and education:

BUILDING BRIDGES, NOT WALLS



United Nations
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The Global Education Monitoring Report team

Director: Manos Antoninis

Daniel April, Bilal Barakat, Madeleine Barry, Nicole Bella, Anna Cristina D’Addio, Glen Hertelendy, Sébastien Hine, Priyadarshani Joshi, Katarzyna Kubacka, Kate Linkins, Leila Loupis, Kassiani Lythrangomitis, Alasdair McWilliam, Anissa Mechtar, Claudine Mukizwa, Yuki Murakami, Carlos Alfonso Obregón Melgar, Judith Randrianatoavina, Kate Redman, Maria Rojnov, Anna Ewa Ruszkiewicz, Will Smith, Rosa Vidarte and Lema Zekrya.

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For more information, please contact:

Global Education Monitoring Report team
c/o UNESCO, 7, place de Fontenoy
75352 Paris 07 SP, France
Email: gemreport@unesco.org
Tel.: +33 1 45 68 07 41
www.unesco.org/gemreport
<https://gemreportunesco.wordpress.com>

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Cover photo: Rushdi Sarraj/UNRWA
Caption: *Palestine refugee students on their first day in UNRWA schools in the second semester, in Gaza.*

Infographics by Housatonic Design Network

This summary report and all related materials are available for download here:
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Foreword

People have always moved from one place to another, some seeking better opportunities, some fleeing danger. These movements can have a great impact on education systems. The 2019 edition of the *Global Education Monitoring Report* is the first of its kind to explore these issues in-depth across all parts of the world.

The Report is timely, as the international community finalizes two important international pacts: the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, and the Global Compact on Refugees. These unprecedented agreements – coupled with the international education commitments encapsulated in the fourth United Nations Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) – highlight the need to address education for migrants and the displaced. This GEM Report is an essential reference for policy-makers responsible for fulfilling our ambitions.

Currently, laws and policies are failing migrant and refugee children by negating their rights and ignoring their needs. Migrants, refugees and internally displaced people are some of the most vulnerable people in the world, and include those living in slums, those moving with the seasons to eke out a living and children in detention. Yet they are often outright denied entry into the schools that provide them with a safe haven and the promise of a better future.

Ignoring the education of migrants squanders a great deal of human potential. Sometimes simple paperwork, lack of data or bureaucratic and uncoordinated systems mean many people fall through administrative cracks. Yet investing in the education of the highly talented and driven migrants and refugees can boost development and economic growth not only in host countries but also countries of origin.

Provision of education in itself is not sufficient. The school environment needs to adapt to and support the specific needs of those on the move. Placing immigrants and refugees in the same schools with host populations is an important starting point to building social cohesion. However, the way and the language in which lessons are taught, as well as discrimination, can drive them away.

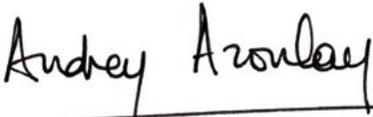
Well-trained teachers are vital for ensuring the inclusion of immigrant and refugee pupils but they too need support in order to manage multilingual, multicultural classes, often including students with psychosocial needs.

A well-designed curriculum that promotes diversity, that provides critical skills and that challenges prejudices is also vital, and can have a positive ripple effect beyond the classroom walls. Sometimes textbooks include outdated depictions of migrations and undermine efforts towards inclusion. Many curricula are also not flexible enough to work around the lifestyles of those perpetually on the move.

Expanding provision and ensuring inclusion require investment, which many host countries cannot meet alone. Humanitarian aid is currently not meeting children's needs, as it is often limited and unpredictable. The new Education Cannot Wait fund is an important mechanism for reaching some of the most vulnerable.

The message of this Report is clear: Investing in the education of those on the move is the difference between laying a path to frustration and unrest, and laying a path to cohesion and peace.

Audrey Azoulay
Director-General of UNESCO



Foreword

The 2019 *Global Education Monitoring Report* has been brought together by a team of international migrants. Four of its members are children of refugees. They don't deny that people look at migration – and migrants – from different viewpoints. Their research demonstrates the extent to which education can help open up those perspectives and bring greater opportunities for all.

For migrants, refugees and host communities, there is the known and the unknown. All that some people know, however, is deprivation and the need to escape from it; they don't know whether there will be opportunity at the other end. In recipient communities, people may not know whether and how their new neighbours, wearing different clothes, having different customs, and speaking with a different accent, will change their lives.

Migration is characterized by both order and disorder. Societies often strive to manage population movements but nonetheless may face unpredictable inflows. Such movements may create new divisions, while others have demonstrably benefited both source and destination countries.

In migration flows, we see both will and coercion. Some people move proactively to work and study while others are forced to flee persecution and threats to their livelihoods. Recipient communities and politicians may argue interminably whether those who arrive are pushed or pushing, legal or illegal, a boon or a threat, or an asset or a burden.

There is both welcoming and rejection. Some people adjust to their new environment while others cannot. There are those who want to help and those who want to exclude.

Thus, around the world, we see migration and displacement stirring great passions. Yet there are decisions to make. Migration requires responses. We can raise barriers, or we can reach out to the other side – to build trust, to include, to reassure.

At the global level, the United Nations has worked to bring nations together around durable solutions to migration and displacement challenges. During the UN Summit on Refugees and Migrants in 2016, I called for investing in conflict prevention, mediation, good governance, the rule of law and inclusive economic growth. I also drew attention to the need for expanding access to basic services to migrants to tackle inequalities.

This Report takes that last point further by reminding us that providing education is not only a moral obligation of those in charge of it, but also is a practical solution to many of the ripples caused by moving populations. It must be, and should always have been, a key part of the response to migration and displacement – an idea whose time has come, as the texts of the two global compacts for migrants and refugees show.

For those denied education, marginalization and frustration may be the result. When taught wrongly, education may distort history and lead to misunderstanding.

But, as the Report shows us in the form of so many uplifting examples from Canada, Chad, Colombia, Ireland, Lebanon, the Philippines, Turkey and Uganda, education can also be a bridge. It can bring out the best in people, and lead to stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination being discarded for critical thinking, solidarity and openness. It can offer a helping hand to those who have suffered and a springboard to those who desperately need opportunity.

This Report points directly to a major challenge: How can teachers be supported to practise inclusion? It offers us fascinating insights into humanity and the age-old phenomenon of migration. I invite you to consider its recommendations and to act on them.

The Right Honourable Helen Clark
Chair of the GEM Report Advisory Board



Migration, displacement and education

Powerful, moving stories of migration and displacement occur around the world. These stories of ambition, hope, fear, anticipation, ingenuity, fulfilment, sacrifice, courage, perseverance and distress remind us that ‘migration is an expression of the human aspiration for dignity, safety and a better future. It is part of the social fabric, part of our very make-up as a human family’. Yet migration and displacement are ‘also a source of divisions within and between States and societies ... In recent years, large movements of desperate people, including both migrants and refugees, have cast a shadow over the broader benefits of migration’.

While there is shared responsibility for the common destiny formally endorsed in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, migration and displacement continue to elicit some negative responses in modern societies. These are exploited by opportunists who see benefit in building walls, not bridges. It is here that education’s role to ‘promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups’, a key commitment in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, takes centre stage.

This report looks at migration and displacement through the eyes of teachers and education administrators faced with the reality of diverse classrooms, schoolyards, communities, labour markets and societies. Education systems around the world are united in the commitment to ‘ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all’ and to ‘leave no one behind’. For all students to fulfil their promise, systems need to adjust to their needs irrespective of their backgrounds. They also need to respond to societies’ need to be resilient and adapt to migration and displacement – a challenge affecting countries with large and small migrant and refugee populations alike.

All types of population movement are covered. On average, one out of eight people is an internal migrant. This migration can have serious effects on the educational opportunities of those moving and those left behind, particularly in still rapidly urbanizing low and middle income countries. About 1 out of 30 people lives in a country other than the one where they were born. Almost two-thirds of international migrants are destined for high income countries. While most move to work, some also move for education. And international migration also affects the education of their descendants. Some 1 out of 80 people are displaced within or across borders by conflict or natural disasters. Nine out of ten of these live in low and middle income countries. Including them in national education systems is crucial but can be conditioned by the unique contexts of the displacement.

Migration and displacement interact with education through intricate, two-way relationships that affect those who move, those who stay and those who do or may host migrants and refugees (**Table 1**). When in the life cycle people ponder or undertake migration is a key determinant of education investment, interruption,

TABLE 1:
Selected examples of the relationship between education and migration/displacement

		Effects of migration/displacement on education	Effects of education on migration/displacement
Origin	Migrants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Migration leads to provision challenges in slums. • Education systems need to adjust to the needs of populations moving in seasonal or circular patterns. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The more educated are more likely to migrate.
	Left behind	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Migration depopulates rural areas and challenges education provision. • Remittances affect education in origin communities. • Parent absence affects children left behind. • Emigration prospects disincentivize investment in education. • New programmes prepare aspiring migrants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emigration of the educated has consequences for development of affected areas, e.g. through brain drain.
Destination	Immigrants and refugees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educational attainment and achievement of immigrants and their children usually lag behind natives. • Refugees need to be included in national education systems. • Refugees’ right to education needs to be ensured. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Migrants tend to be overqualified, their skills not fully recognized or utilized, and their livelihoods altered. • Internationalization of tertiary education prompts student mobility.
	Natives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversity in classrooms requires better prepared teachers, targeted programmes to support new arrivals and prevent segregation, and disaggregated data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal and non-formal education can build resilient societies and reduce prejudices and discrimination.

experience and outcome. Children migrating from areas with lower levels of education development may access opportunities otherwise unavailable. At the same time, migrant students' attainment and achievement often lag behind those of their peers in destination communities.

Migration and displacement require education systems to accommodate the needs of those who move and those left behind. Countries need to recognize migrants' and refugees' right to education in law and fulfil this right in practice. They need to tailor education for those cramming into slums, living nomadically or awaiting refugee status. Education systems need to be inclusive and fulfil the commitment to equity. Teachers need to be prepared to deal with diversity and the traumas associated with migration and, especially, displacement.

“ Migration and displacement require education systems to accommodate the needs of those who move and those left behind ”

Recognition of qualifications and prior learning needs to be modernized to make the most of migrants' and refugees' skills, which contribute greatly to long-term prosperity.

Education also profoundly affects migration and displacement – both their volume and how they are perceived. Education is a major driver in the decision to migrate, fuelling the search for a better life. It affects migrants' attitudes, aspirations and beliefs, and the extent to which they develop a sense of

belonging in their destination. Increased diversity in classrooms has challenges, including for natives (especially the poor and marginalized), but it also offers opportunities to learn from other cultures and experiences. Curricula sensitive to addressing negative attitudes are needed more than ever.

With migration and displacement becoming hot political topics, education is key to providing citizens with a critical understanding of the issues involved. It can support the processing of information and promote cohesive societies, especially important in a globalized world. Yet education should go well beyond tolerance, which can betray indifference; it is a critical tool in fighting prejudice, stereotypes and discrimination. If poorly designed, education systems can promulgate negative, partial, exclusive or dismissive portrayals of immigrants and refugees.

The 2019 *Global Education Monitoring Report* reviews global evidence on migration, displacement and education and aims to answer the following questions:

- How do population movements affect access to and quality of education? What are the implications for individual migrants and refugees?
- How can education make a difference in the lives of people who move and in the communities receiving them?

BOX 1:

The world is moving to address the education and other needs of migrating, displaced and hosting populations

Addressing the education and other needs of migrating, displaced and hosting populations at the local, national and international levels requires mobilizing resources and coordinating actions.

The world is moving in that direction. In September 2016, 193 UN member states signed the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants to strengthen and refine responsibility-sharing mechanisms, setting in motion processes for two global compacts: one on migrants and the other on refugees.

The draft Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration puts most issues addressed in this report on the agenda. It covers access to basic services, including education both in and beyond school. Although more emphasis is given to skills recognition, it conveys a generally positive message about education as an

opportunity to make the most of migratory flows. However, the compact is non-binding and leaves open how countries meet commitments.

Providing education to the displaced requires additional support to help people adjust to new environments and cope with protracted displacement. Although refugees' right to education in host countries is guaranteed in the 1951 United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, the Global Compact on Refugees aims to renew the commitment. The final draft dedicates two paragraphs to education, focusing on finance and its use to support specific policies. It makes clear the need for the development of national policies on inclusion.

Internal migration

An estimated 763 million people live outside the region where they were born. Among a variety of possible movements, permanent or temporary, between or within urban and rural areas, it is rural to urban flows and seasonal or circular flows that tend to pose the biggest challenges for education systems.

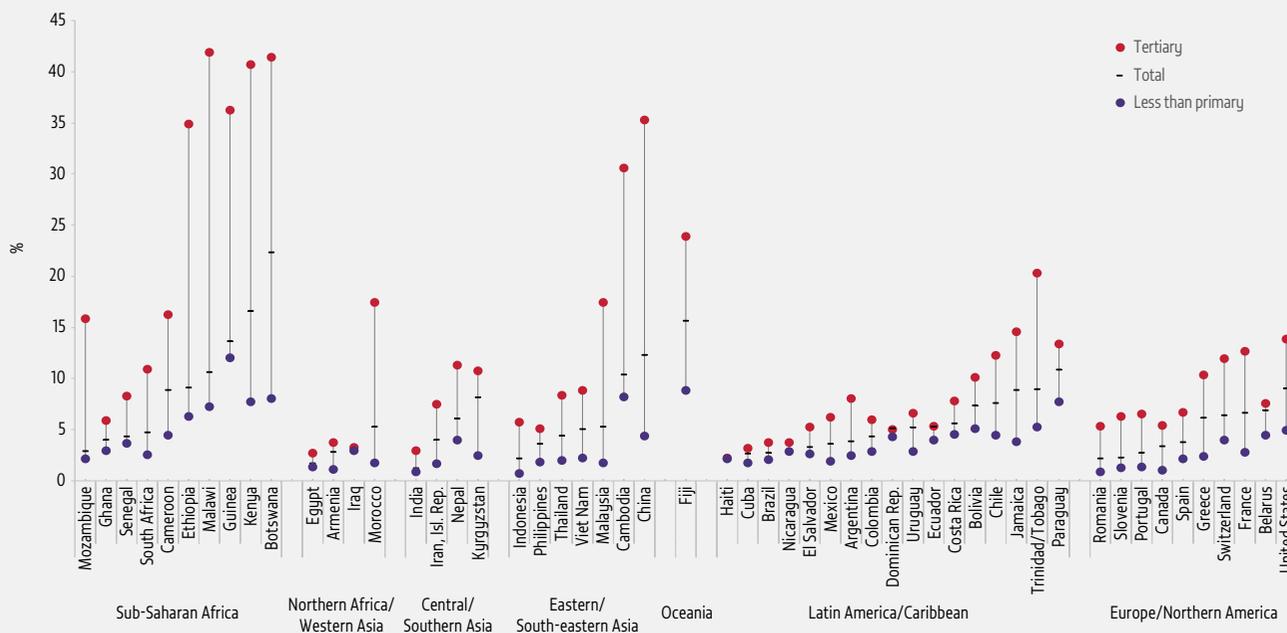
“ An estimated 763 million people live outside the region where they were born ”

While major rural to urban migration accompanied the economic growth of the 19th to mid-20th century in high income countries, the largest internal population movements today occur in middle income countries, particularly China and India. In sub-Saharan Africa, rural to urban migration has also made urban development planning challenging.

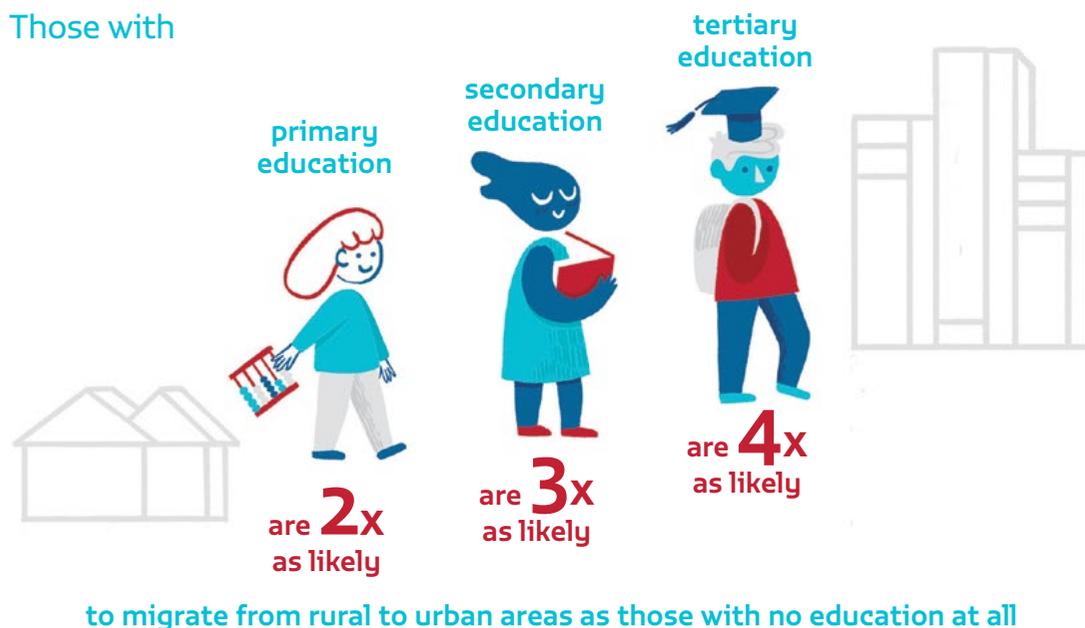
Migration rates vary by age but tend to peak among people in their 20s. From an education perspective, internal migration affects relatively few primary school-age children and slightly more secondary school-age youth. But education of better quality in urban areas is a prominent reason for migration among younger people. In Thailand, 21% of youth said they migrated for education.

The more educated are more likely to relocate on the prospect of higher returns on their education elsewhere (Figure 1). Preferences and aspirations as a result of education also prompt people to leave rural areas irrespective of earning potential. Across 53 countries, the probability of migration doubled among those with primary education, tripled among those with secondary and quadrupled among those with tertiary, compared with those with no education.

FIGURE 1:
The more educated are more likely to migrate
Migration intensity rate by education, selected countries, five-year intervals, 1999–2010



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig2_3
Source: Bernard et al. (2018).



Migration improves education outcomes for some but not all

Rural to urban migration can increase educational attainment in countries where access to education in rural areas is low. Among a group born in selected rural districts in Indonesia, those who migrated to a city as children attained three more years of schooling than those who did not.

Yet migrant children may not enjoy the same education outcomes as their peers. In Brazil, among adolescents born in 2000/01 in the Northeast region, those who migrated during secondary school had worse progression rates than those who stayed. Educational opportunities of children affected by internal migration may be compromised for several reasons, from precarious legal status to poverty, inadequate government attention, or biases and stereotypes.

INTERNAL MIGRATION CONTROLS AFFECT EDUCATION ACCESS

In many countries, fears of unsustainable urbanization and rural–urban imbalances have prompted policies to curb migration, which can affect migrants' access to education in some cases. Viet Nam's *ho-khau* system restricted migrants' access to public education, and poor rural to urban migrants moved to areas underserved by public schools. Recent reforms aim to abolish restrictions, but the legacy of past policies still disadvantages migrants with temporary status.

China's *hukou* registration system, which linked access to services to registered place of birth, excluded children of rural migrants from public schools. Significant revisions have taken place in recent years. The government required local authorities to provide education to migrant children in 2006. It abolished public school fees for rural migrant children in 2008 and started decoupling registered residence from access to services in 2014. Since 2016, it has been asking all but the largest cities to ease restrictions further.

However, barriers to education persist for migrants. Paperwork and other admission requirements can limit access. In Beijing, migrants need five certificates to enrol in public school. Teachers can have discriminatory views

of migrant youth. Teachers in unauthorized migrant schools may suffer lower pay and lack job security, and parents frequently complain about teacher quality in these schools.

CHILDREN LEFT BEHIND FACE PARTICULAR EDUCATION CHALLENGES

Migration also affects the education of millions of children left behind with one parent or other family members. In Cambodia, children left behind, especially girls, were more likely to drop out.

The *China Family Development Report 2015* estimated the percentage of left-behind rural children at 35%. Evidence on migration's effect on the education and well-being of children left behind is mixed. Some studies show a positive impact on performance, but others show left-behind children have lower grades and more mental health problems than their peers.

Since 2016, China has instated policies aimed at improving care for left-behind children, including calling on local governments to urge parents to appoint a guardian for left-behind children. Boarding schools are a key strategy, but they are often understaffed and underequipped. Better management training for administrative staff is needed to improve child welfare.

Statistics on boarding schools and students are lacking, although such schools are prevalent in some countries. In Uganda, the share of students boarding hovers at around 15% up to age 13, rising to 40% in the final years of upper secondary education.

SEASONAL LABOUR MIGRATION AFFECTS EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

Seasonal migration, which is a survival strategy for the poor, can disrupt education and expose children to child labour and workplace hazards. In India, a study showed that about 80% of temporary migrant children in seven cities lacked access to education near work sites, and 40% worked, experiencing abuse and exploitation. Recent initiatives by India's national government aim to ensure school attendance by migrant children by encouraging flexible admission, providing mobile education and improving coordination between sending and receiving states, but there have been many implementation challenges. A pilot programme in Rajasthan state in 2010–2011 at brick kiln work sites saw rampant teacher and student absenteeism due to poor teaching and learning conditions and the need for students to work.

CHILD DOMESTIC WORKERS ARE VULNERABLE TO EXCLUSION FROM EDUCATION

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In 2012, around 17.2 million children aged 5 to 17 were in paid or unpaid domestic work in an employer's home
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In 2012, around 17.2 million children aged 5 to 17 were in paid or unpaid domestic work in an employer's home. Two-thirds were girls. Young girls, for instance in Lima, view domestic work as a way to leave rural areas and continue education, but their workload often ends up preventing their participation.

Fostering is a common strategy in many African countries. Nearly 10% of Senegalese children were fostered. While boys were more likely to be sent to households placing greater emphasis on education, ending up more educated than their siblings, girls were almost four times more likely to help with host household chores and were less likely to be hosted for education reasons.

NOMAD AND PASTORALIST EDUCATION NEEDS ARE NOT ADDRESSED

Mobility is an intrinsic part of life for nomads and pastoralists, and interventions must recognize their needs. Their enrolment tends to be low, with significant seasonal fluctuation, and students struggle to develop literacy and numeracy skills at the same pace as their peers. In Mongolia, underfunding has weakened the *soum* boarding schools that catered to the nomadic population, resulting in learning disparities between nomadic and non-nomadic children.

Many countries with significant nomadic or pastoralist populations have dedicated government departments, commissions or councils, such as the Department of Education for Nomads in Sudan. Efforts focus on adjusting education to seasonality and mobility; examples are residential schools and mobile schools.

In northern Nigeria, many *almajiri* ('migrant pupils of Islamic knowledge') are nomadic pastoralists. In Kano state, an intervention targeting 700 traditional teachers focused on engaging with the community and collaborating to select teachers of non-religious subjects.

A network of schools that students could exit and enter at any time or place might be a viable solution but would require efficient and effective tracking systems. Some countries, including Kenya and Somalia, have made teachers more mobile, travelling with nomads to deliver education.

Education for nomadic populations should recognize and value their way of life. Vocational education for a nomadic lifestyle can be particularly relevant to pastoralists. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has worked with nomadic communities on pastoralist field schools in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, South Sudan and Uganda since 2012, with courses focusing on livestock management efficiency and mitigating effects of climate change.

INDIGENOUS GROUPS STRUGGLE TO PRESERVE THEIR IDENTITY IN CITIES

In many places, education for indigenous people has involved forced assimilation through schooling. This legacy is compounded by poverty and migration to urban areas, which often implies further cultural erosion, language loss and discrimination. Loss of language is a major issue for urban indigenous populations. Younger generations in cities in Ecuador, Mexico and Peru are significantly less likely to speak indigenous languages than their rural counterparts.

Regulatory frameworks on indigenous rights make little reference to indigenous people living in cities. Over 50% of Canada's indigenous population live in cities. Analyses of urban aboriginal populations showed the importance of education in improving their quality of life and found that incorporating culturally appropriate curricula and practices improved early childhood education outcomes.

Migration challenges education planners in villages and cities

Rural depopulation means education planners, particularly in high income countries, must balance efficient resource allocation with the welfare of affected communities. Finland closed or consolidated almost 80% of schools with fewer than 50 students – more than 1,600 in all – between 1990 and 2015. Urbanization and reduced fertility present similar challenges in many middle income countries. The number of rural schools in the Russian Federation fell from 45,000 to fewer than 26,000 between 2000 and 2015. In China, the number of rural primary schools decreased by 52% between 2000 and 2010.

In considering school consolidation to increase efficiency, governments must recognize the important social role schools play in communities, as well as other benefits. Analysis of data from the 2015 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) showed that students from smaller schools had fewer disciplinary, tardiness and absenteeism issues.

Successful consolidation requires consultation with all parties affected and consideration of costs. The Lithuanian government developed priority measures to preserve small rural primary schools and provided safe transport with hundreds of new buses.

Some countries encourage rural schools to share resources and learning in order to stay vibrant. Chile has 374 micro-centres for rural teachers to meet and discuss common challenges. Since 2011, the Chinese government has engaged in major renovation and upgrading of small rural school facilities, and non-government organizations (NGOs), local communities and schools have established resource-sharing networks.

MIGRANTS IN SLUMS HAVE FEWER EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

At least 800 million people live in slums. National definitions or estimation methodologies may underestimate the numbers. Many slum dwellers are rural to urban migrants and lack access to basic services, including public education. Eviction and resettlement of slum dwellers raises dropout rates and lowers attendance. In Bangladesh in 2016, the rate of secondary school-age adolescents out of school was twice as high in slums as in other urban areas.

Education in slums is not a data collection priority, since urbanism debates focus on housing and water and sanitation challenges. The Shack/Slum Dwellers International network collects data in over 30 countries, but its education data are limited. Education activity in slums may be underestimated because of unregistered private schools, which make up for the lack of public schools. In Kibera, Kenya, an open mapping project found 330 schools, while the official estimate was 100. Often the only option in slums, private schools tend to be poorly regulated and employ untrained educators. An initiative to raise teacher quality in Nairobi slums improved student literacy and numeracy outcomes.

Education needs to be a priority in urbanism debates concerning slums. Securing dweller tenure and establishing rights are key steps towards education provision, as governments are often reluctant to invest in education infrastructure for people who settled on land they did not own. In Argentina, access to land titling was associated with long-term education improvement.

Rigid registration and documentation requirements often hinder migrant participation in social protection programmes that could benefit their education. In Kenyan slums, the urban social protection programme required national identification, thus precluding the 5% of preselected recipients who were refugees, unable to prove Kenyan nationality or from child-headed households.

International migration

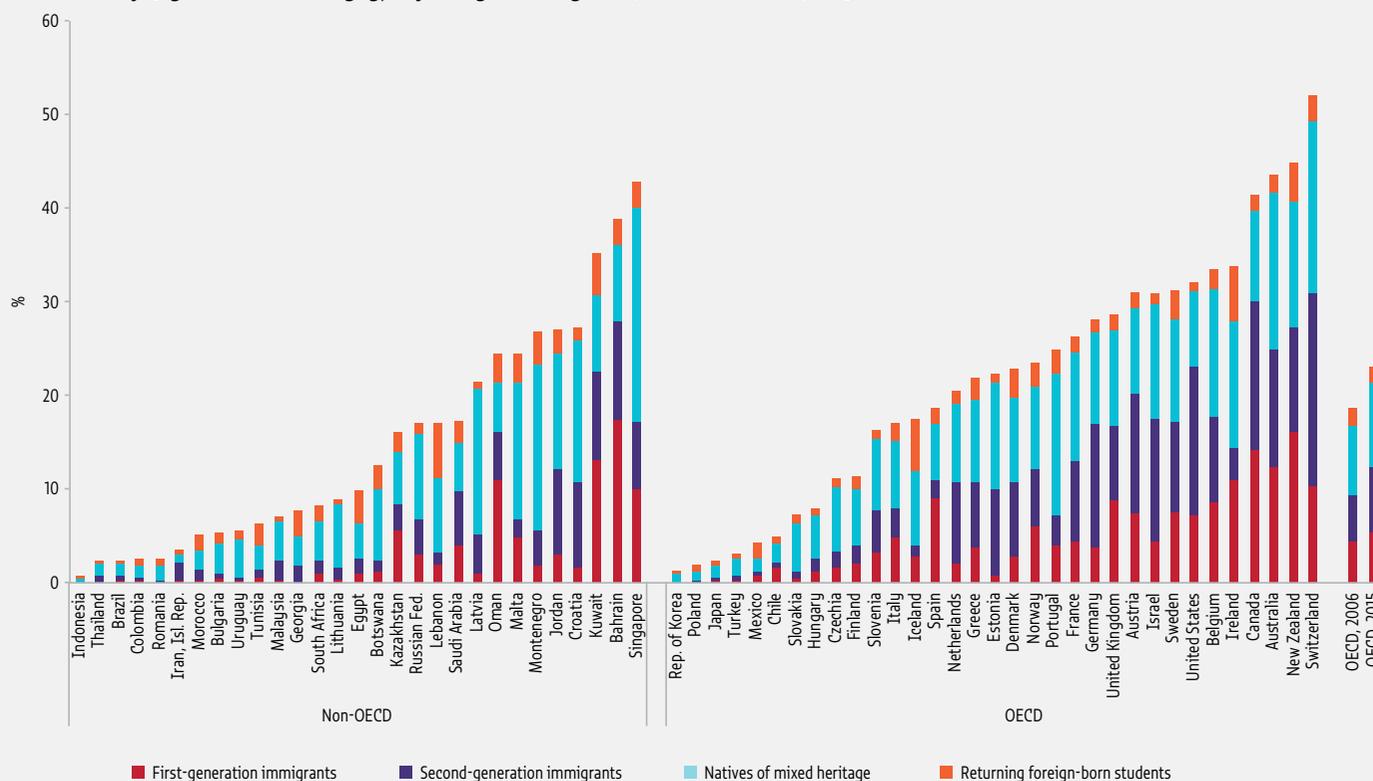
When people migrate for better work and life opportunities, they have to adjust to new systems, deal with legal and administrative challenges, and tackle linguistic barriers and potential discrimination. In receiving countries, education systems face adjustment costs in accommodating the new arrivals.

In 2017, there were 258 million international migrants, amounting to 3.4% of the world population. About 64% resided in high income countries, where the share of immigrants as a share of population rose from 10% in 2000 to 14% in 2017. In many Gulf states, including Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, immigrants are the majority group.

Immigration rates are two to three times the global average in a diverse set of middle income countries including Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Malaysia and South Africa. Conversely, countries with emigration rates above 5% of the population include Albania, Georgia, Jamaica, Kyrgyzstan and Nicaragua. The largest migration corridor is Mexico to the United States. Others include eastern Europe to western Europe, northern Africa to southern Europe, and southern Asia to the Gulf states.

In most Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, at least one-fifth of 15-year-old students were immigrants or had immigrant backgrounds in 2015 (Figure 2). An estimate for this report shows that in 80% of secondary schools in high income countries, at least 5% of students have immigrant backgrounds; in 52%, at least 15% have immigrant backgrounds.

FIGURE 2:
In most OECD countries, at least one out of five 15-year-old students was an immigrant or had an immigrant background
Distribution of 15-year-old students by type of immigrant background, selected countries, 2015



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig3_4

Note: The figure excludes five countries and territories with even higher rates of students with immigrant backgrounds: Hong Kong, China; Luxembourg; Macao, China; Qatar; and the United Arab Emirates.

Source: GEM Report team analysis based on the 2006 and 2015 PISA and 2015 TIMSS.

Migration influences education and is influenced by it

Migrants are not a random population. Among other differences with non-migrants, they are more educated, which helps them gather better information, respond to economic opportunities, use transferable skills and finance emigration. In 2000, global emigration rates were 5.4% for those with tertiary education, 1.8% for secondary and 1.1% for primary.

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In 2000, global emigration rates were 5.4% for those with tertiary education, 1.8% for secondary and 1.1% for primary

Educational attainment at time of emigration also depends on the conditions under which migrants cross borders: US immigrants from El Salvador, Haiti, Mexico and Nicaragua without proper documentation had more education, on average, than those on temporary contracts but less than those who became legal residents.

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Understanding the impact of migration on educational attainment and achievement involves two key comparisons. The first is between those who do or do not migrate, though these groups differ in more than the decision to migrate (e.g. migrants might have had more education even had they stayed). The second is between immigrants and natives, who also differ in more than migration status. In some cases, selective immigration policies may mean immigrants are more educated than natives; in other cases, immigrants may live in poorer areas served by lower-quality schools, a factor in their children having lower educational attainment and achievement.

MIGRATION AFFECTS THE EDUCATION OF THOSE LEFT BEHIND

Migrants often leave children behind. In the Philippines, an estimated 1.5 million to 3 million children have at least one international migrant parent. The effect of remittances on education can be critical.

Globally, households received US\$613 billion in international remittances in 2017, with US\$466 billion going to households in low and middle income countries – three times the volume of official development assistance. India and China received the largest amount in absolute terms but Kyrgyzstan and Tonga led by percentage of gross domestic product.

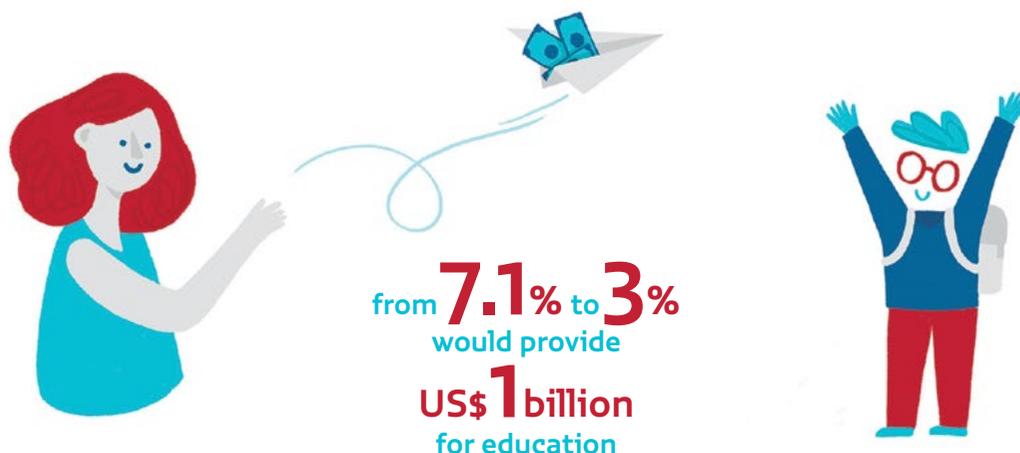
In theory, remittances may have a positive or negative effect on education. Diversifying sources of income provides an insurance effect: Families may be less likely to have to cut education expenditure. Yet, although extra income increases household spending, education competes with other expenditure, children may have to replace the migrant’s labour, and lack of parental input can hinder education. Remittances may also create a ‘culture of migration’ in which high returns on low- or semi-skilled labour abroad disincentivize continuing in education.

In practice, the incidence of international remittances increased household education spending by 35%, on average, according to a set of studies in 18 countries in sub-Saharan Africa and Central, Southern and South-eastern Asia. The effect was even larger in Latin America (53%).

SDG target 10.c calls for remittance transaction costs to be reduced to less than 3%, on average. The current average is 7.1%. Traditional banks are the most expensive channels, at 11%, and some intermediaries in Africa charge above 20%. Assuming the share of total household spending on education is 4%, reducing remittance costs to 3% could allow households to spend an additional US\$1 billion on education per year.

Several studies suggest that remittances’ overall effects on education outcomes are positive. In the Philippines, a 10% rise in international remittances increased school attendance by more than 10% and reduced child labour by more than three hours per week. Effects can differ by gender. In Jordan, remittances had a positive impact on post-compulsory education attendance only among males.

Lowering the cost for migrants to send money home



Positive findings may reflect particularly selective migration corridors or contexts with low enrolment to start with. In some low-skill migration corridors, there is evidence of negative effects on outcomes. International remittances were associated with a large decrease in probability of enrolment in Guatemala, even though those enrolled performed better as a result of remittances. In rural Mexico, left-behind students had poorer education outcomes due to remittances.

MIGRANTS PAY AN EDUCATION PRICE IN DESTINATION COUNTRIES

In destination countries, immigrants often leave education early. In the European Union, 10% of natives and 19% of foreign-born people aged 18 to 24 left school early in 2017. Dropout can depend on arrival age; outcomes vary considerably by whether students enter host systems at the beginning, middle or end of compulsory education. In the United States, 40% of Mexican immigrants who arrived at age 7 did not complete secondary school, compared with 70% of those who arrived at age 14.

However, immigrants' education status improves more quickly than that of natives and those left behind. In Germany, natives whose parents had below-average education progressed more slowly than their immigrant peers. In 8 out of 10 Latin American and Caribbean countries, children of immigrants had, on average, 1.4 more years of education than children of parents who did not migrate.

Educational attainment gaps span generations. On the 2015 PISA, 49% of first-generation and 61% of second-generation 15-year-old immigrants attained at least level 2 proficiency in reading, mathematics and science, compared with 72% of natives. In Canada, Germany and Italy, natives continue to enjoy an advantage over second-generation immigrants, especially in tertiary education.

A comparison of second-generation Turkish immigrants across six countries showed that only 5% of those in Germany but 37% of those in France had access to tertiary education. Institutional factors in the latter, such as early access to pre-primary education, late tracking into ability streams in secondary education and access to tertiary education even through lower ability streams, help explain the gap.

Lower socio-economic status explains about 20% of the immigrant learning gap in the OECD; in some countries, including France and Greece, it can explain as much as half. Immigrant students in OECD countries are nearly twice as likely as natives to repeat a grade.

Immigration and citizenship policies hamper access to school

The right to education and the general non-discrimination principle are enshrined in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. A migration-specific international treaty affirms that migrants and refugees should be treated like nationals in education, although only one out of four countries, almost all of which are migrant-sending, has ratified it to date. In practice, restrictive immigration policies, inconsistent laws and stringent host country documentation requirements may prevent fulfilment of this right.

Some national laws may undermine a constitutional right to education. In Cyprus and Slovakia, schools are obliged to report families without valid documentation to immigration authorities. In South Africa, the 2002 Immigration Act prevents undocumented migrants from enrolling in school.

Legislation enshrining the education rights of foreign-born populations increases the likelihood that the right to education will be fulfilled. In Argentina, the 2006 National Education Law affirms the right to education for all inhabitants. The Slovenian elementary school act explicitly extends the right to education to stateless people.

An inclusive legal framework does not necessarily prevent regional or local discriminatory practices. Schools may demand birth certificates, prior education credentials, national identification papers or proof of residency to enrol. In Chile, where the number of Haitian migrants increased from less than 5,000 in 2010 to 105,000 in 2017, policy dictates public education should be provided to all children; in practice, education provision is at the discretion of local government officials. School officials in Uzbekistan often require proof of residency, a passport or facility in the national language before enrolment.

Official clarification can reassure school gatekeepers that the law does not require complete documentation, and a strong national legal framework may provide avenues for individuals to voice complaints. In 2014, Italy and Turkey clarified that documentation was not obligatory for enrolment. In France, parents can appeal to an ombudsman or the courts to seek remediation for discriminatory enrolment decisions.

Still, undocumented migrants continue to face obstacles to access. In the United States, which had 11 million unauthorized immigrants in 2014, threat of deportation may keep children out of school: In February 2017, absenteeism in the Las Cruces, New Mexico, school district increased by 60% after an immigration raid. The 2012 Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) programme targeted 1.3 million undocumented youth who arrived as children, offering protection from deportation and eligibility for work permits. The programme increased secondary graduation rates by an estimated 15% as eligible immigrants sought to meet conditions.

The education needs of unaccompanied migrant minors, who are particularly vulnerable to exploitation, are frequently unmet. Their number worldwide increased from 66,000 in 2010–2011 to 300,000 in 2015–2016. In many countries, including Australia, Greece, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, Nauru and Thailand, children and youth in immigrant detention often have limited or no access to education. About 73% of 86,000 minors who arrived in Italy between 2011 and 2016 were unaccompanied. Despite legislation in 2015 and 2017 aimed at protecting them, only a minority regularly attend school.

Lack of documentation can create barriers for the 10 million stateless people worldwide, some of whom are descendants of migrants. In Côte d'Ivoire, with 700,000 stateless, access to education requires proof of nationality. In the Dominican Republic, where nationality has been stripped from thousands of Haitian immigrants, in 2012 the primary school net attendance rate of children aged 6 to 13 was 52% among those born in Haiti but 82% among immigrants born in other countries.

Education policies can support migrants' access to school

Early childhood programmes, language support programmes, and policies related to streaming, selection and segregation are key to improving education access.

Immigrant participation in early childhood programmes is an essential foundation. On average, the reading score of 15-year-old immigrants who attended pre-primary education was higher by an amount that corresponded to more than one year of school. It can be difficult for undocumented immigrants to gain access to early childhood programmes: In the United States, pre-school enrolment of undocumented 3- and 4-year-olds lagged behind that of both documented immigrants and natives.

Lack of language proficiency is an education disadvantage, because it inhibits socialization, relationship building and sense of belonging and increases risk of discrimination. In 2012, 53% of low-literacy first-generation immigrant students were in extra out-of-school literacy courses in 23 high income countries.

The duration of preparatory classes varies from one year in Belgium, France and Lithuania to four years in Greece. Germany's 'welcome classes' provide separate language-intensive instruction for students with immigrant backgrounds. In Spain, regions tend to follow one of three models – temporary classes that students attend for part of the day, immersion classes, and intercultural classes that extend the focus from language support to building links between families and schools. Governments need to avoid separate schooling for long periods because it may accentuate deficits and disadvantage.

Early ability-based selection tends to disadvantage immigrant students, compromising opportunities and leading to inequality and a stronger association between social background and student results. In Italy, 59% of immigrant general secondary graduates transitioned to university, compared with 33% of professional school and 13% of technical school graduates.

Immigrant students tend to concentrate in suburban areas and schools with lower academic standards and performance levels. Segregation is exacerbated by native students moving to wealthier neighbourhoods. Non-native speakers in the United Kingdom were more likely to attend school with disadvantaged native speakers. The share of immigrants can also hamper the education outcomes of disadvantaged natives. In Norway, a 10 percentage point increase in the share of immigrants in a school was associated with a 3 percentage point increase in native dropout.

Countries use various tools to combat segregation. In Italy, a 2010 circular set a classroom maximum of 30% first-generation immigrants. In practice, 17% of primary classrooms exceeded the limit. Despite policies and reforms to limit segregation in schooling in France and Germany, parents circumvent the assigned schools, and schools find ways to provide separate classes based on parents' choices of religious or foreign language instruction. An analysis of 108 primary school catchment areas in four districts of Berlin showed that in one out of five schools, the number of immigrant-background students enrolled was double the number living in the area.

SOME GOVERNMENTS TARGET SUPPORT TO SCHOOLS WITH A LARGE SHARE OF IMMIGRANT STUDENTS

Schools with high numbers of immigrant or refugee students are more likely to have higher funding needs. Formula-based funding aims to increase equity by allocating additional resources to schools characterized by factors associated with disadvantage. Some programmes incorporate migrants as an explicit factor in school funding. In Lithuania, the school budget grants an additional 20% for students who belong to a national minority and 30% for immigrant students in their first school year in the country.

Such practices are the exception, but migrant and refugee students may still trigger additional funding indirectly. Funding may follow low proficiency in language of instruction or socio-economic deprivation at the neighbourhood level, both common among immigrants. The new National Funding Formula in England (United Kingdom) abolishes specific funding for migrants but allocates funds to compensate for such disadvantages as 'deprivation', 'low prior attainment' and 'English as an additional language'.

Additional resources to support migrant and refugee students are often available to schools beyond the basic funding formula. Denmark's government earmarked close to US\$3 million in 2008–2011 for activities and resources, such as school and home counsellors, to strengthen cooperation between immigrant families and schools.

Some countries target support for language programmes outside funding formulas. The US English Language Acquisition Program allocates about US\$740 million each year in state formula grants based on the share of English learners. Schools draw on this funding to implement language instruction. Additional support may also target teachers, who may encounter difficulties connecting with immigrant students and families.

Targeted support linked to migrant and refugee students may overlook structural school and administration challenges. Immigrants and refugees with lower education tend to cluster in neighbourhoods with already poorly staffed school authorities. Providing incentives to attract teachers to schools in need is hard to achieve outside the regular school budget. Moreover, political decisions can significantly affect ad hoc funding or extrabudgetary support for programmes, as in the United States.

LITERACY AND LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES ARE A PILLAR OF INCLUSION FOR ADULT IMMIGRANTS AND REFUGEES

Immigrant and refugee literacy skills vary widely. A survey of asylum-seekers in Germany in 2016 showed that 15% were illiterate, 34% were literate in a Latin script and 51% were literate in another script. Adult literacy can increase immigrants' and refugees' sense of welcome and belonging and their ability to communicate and meet day-to-day needs. Greater host-language proficiency is associated with increased job opportunities, higher earnings and better self-reported health. Yet large-scale public literacy programmes targeted at adult immigrants and refugees remain rare.

Recognizing immigrant and refugee diversity, programmes must be flexible and their intensity, content and timetable should vary. Learners who are illiterate in their first language face particular challenges. One estimate suggests that those with no or little formal education can take up to eight times longer to reach a basic level in second-language reading. In Finland, the slow learning pace means the training provided may be too short for illiterate adults.

To help such learners, teachers need skills in using materials that capture the challenges immigrants encounter in daily life. In Vienna's AlfaZentrum für MigrantInnen programme, learners provide materials from their workplace or home that they want to understand.

Teaching and learning in adult immigrants' first language can be an effective way to support initial literacy acquisition. In Norway, adult learning centres have started working with the most educated immigrant learners as assistants in initial literacy classes to bridge comprehension difficulties between teachers and learners.

Underfunding can limit programme delivery, especially where government resources and support do not align with policy, as in the United Kingdom. Poverty, security concerns and lack of culturally appropriate programme offerings may dissuade individuals, especially women, from attending classes. Concentration of new arrivals in ethnolinguistic enclaves can reduce language learning by limiting exposure. And the temporary nature of some migration can reduce motivation to learn a new language.

Language programmes should be adaptable, culturally sensitive and well resourced. Including immigrants and refugees in planning and instruction can help. In New Zealand's programme design, the government consulted former and current refugees on desirable characteristics of courses and barriers to access.

As employment is a priority of immigrants and refugees upon arrival, integration and language acquisition can be tied to workforce participation. In Cabo Verde, the Promotion of Literacy and Training of Immigrants of the African Communities Living in Cabo Verde programme covers literacy, Portuguese language and vocational training, such as computer skills and carpentry. The German government's integration course includes 600 hours of German language instruction, and refugees who reach B1 proficiency are eligible for job-related language training.

MIGRANTS NEED FINANCIAL EDUCATION

Financial literacy is low in many traditional sending countries and low-skill migrant communities, leaving immigrants and refugees open to fraud or financial exploitation. In particular, financial and welfare systems in host countries, as well as remittance channels, may be initially opaque.

Global initiatives such as the OECD International Network on Financial Education include a focus on migrants as part of broader agendas promoting financial inclusion. Financial education programmes for migrants often involve a combination of international, government, non-government and private-sector stakeholders.

Indonesia adopted a national financial literacy strategy in 2013. It is based on evidence generated by a joint programme with the World Bank, with training targeting moments when prospective migrants face big financial decisions. The Moroccan Foundation for Financial Education partnered with the International Labour Organization to set up financial education programmes for immigrants in Morocco. In Romania, the International Organization for Migration launched a joint initiative with the MasterCard Foundation to support integration of immigrants and refugees, prioritizing vulnerable groups, including children, women and people with special needs.

Even with good financial literacy, migrants may be unfamiliar with financial terms and the features of financial products. They may lack trust in financial institutions, both at home and in host communities. Undocumented migrants and newly arrived refugees often fear that the information requested for access to financial services will be used to identify and potentially deport them. The financial industry lacks relevant and culturally sensitive products for migrants and for families back home.

Evidence on the impact of financial education on the economic well-being of migrants is mixed. A study of Indian migrants in Qatar found that financial education had an impact, albeit small, on financial decisions. Studies in Australia and New Zealand found that financial literacy programmes did not significantly affect the use of formal banking.

Displacement

The number of displaced people is at the highest level since the end of the Second World War. Displaced people tend to come from some of the poorest and least-served parts of the world, and their vulnerability is exacerbated when displacement deprives them of education.

There are 19.9 million refugees under the protection of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), of whom about 52% are under 18. There are 5.4 million Palestine refugees under the protection of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA). Around 39% of refugees live in managed, self-settled or transit camps or collective centres, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa. The majority of the rest live in individual accommodation in urban areas.

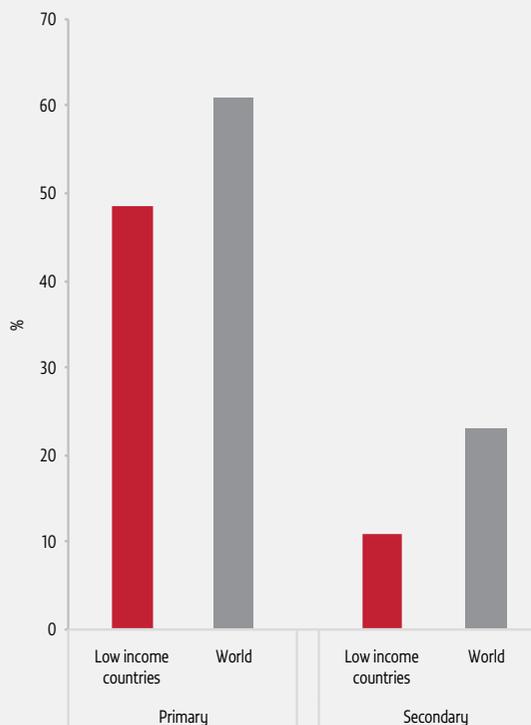
In addition, conflict has left 40 million internally displaced people (IDPs), the greatest number living in the Syrian Arab Republic, while an additional 19 million have been displaced by natural disasters, with China hosting the largest population.

“ The vulnerability of forcibly displaced people is further exacerbated when they are deprived of an education ”

FIGURE 3:

Only 11% of refugee adolescents in low income countries are enrolled in secondary school

Percentage of 5- to 17-year-old refugees enrolled by level of education, 2017



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig4_2
Source: UNHCR (2018).

Education for the displaced lags in access and quality

Determining the education status of the displaced is challenging, but UNHCR estimates refugee enrolment ratios at 61% in primary school and 23% in secondary school. In low income countries, the ratios were below 50% in primary and 11% in secondary (Figure 3). Overall, about 4 million refugees aged 5 to 17 were out of school in 2017.

Refugee enrolment ratios can vary considerably within countries. In 2016, the secondary gross enrolment ratio for refugees in Ethiopia ranged by district from 1% in Samara to 47% in Jijiga. In Pakistan, the 2011 primary net enrolment rate of Afghan refugees (29%) was less than half the national level (71%), while that of Afghan refugee girls (18%) was not only half that of the boys (39%), but also less than half the primary attendance rate of girls in Afghanistan. Refugees often arrive in underserved areas of host countries. Refugees in Uganda from South Sudan settle in the poor West Nile subregion, where the secondary net attendance rate was less than half the national rate in 2016.

Not much information exists on quality of refugee education, but where data are available, the picture is bleak. In the Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya, 8% of primary school teachers were certified national teachers, and 6 out of 10 refugee teachers were untrained.

TRACKING EDUCATION TRAJECTORIES OF THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED IS DIFFICULT

In many conflict-affected countries, internal displacement has strained already struggling education systems. In north-eastern Nigeria, the latest education needs assessment found that out of 260 school sites, 28% had been damaged by bullets, shells or shrapnel, 20% had been deliberately set on fire, 32% had been looted and 29% were in close proximity to armed groups or military.

UNHCR reported 1.8 million people were internally displaced in Ukraine as of January 2018. In Dnipro, Kharkiv, Kiev and Zaporizhzhia, which host the most IDPs, education institutions face shortages of classroom space and resources. In response, the government has created additional school places, moved state universities from conflict regions, simplified admission procedures, covered tuition and provided incentives, including loans and textbooks, for IDPs.

Natural disasters also disrupt education, especially in Asia and the Pacific. The Philippines averages 20 typhoons a year and is at high risk for volcanic eruptions, earthquakes and landslides. The country has taken disaster risk reduction measures, and the availability of typhoon-resistant schools equipped with instructional resources has led to an average increase of 0.3 years of education.

Refugees need to be included in national education systems

Faced with crises, most governments' reflexive response is to offer education to refugee populations in a parallel system. However, a consensus has developed that this is not a sustainable solution. Displacement is often protracted. Parallel systems usually lack qualified teachers. Examinations are not certifiable. Funding sources risk being cut off at short notice.

The 2012–2016 UNHCR global education strategy urged countries for the first time to offer refugee children access to accredited and certified learning opportunities to enable continuity in their education. The objective is to fully include refugees in the national education system so they study in the same classroom with host country children after a short period of catch-up classes, if necessary, to prepare them to enter school at the appropriate age-for-grade levels. But the degree of refugee inclusion varies across displacement contexts. Geography, history, resource availability and system capacity affect the evolving nature of inclusion.

“ The degree of refugee inclusion varies across displacement contexts, affected by geography, history, resource availability and system capacity ”

In some cases, the move towards inclusion has been gradual. Turkey, which hosts 3.5 million refugees, first accredited non-public schools as temporary education centres, then classified them as transitional schools, and by 2020 will include all Syrian children in public

schools. In other cases, government commitment has been intermittent. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, a policy of inclusion of Afghan refugees has experienced occasional setbacks over four decades.

In several cases, inclusion is not fully achieved despite a commitment to it. Refugees may share the host country's curriculum, assessment and language of instruction but be only partially included due to geographical separation, as in camps in Kenya, or capacity constraints, as in double-shift schools in Lebanon and Jordan. Even countries with more resources, such as Greece, have faced challenges in delivering education to refugees through the national system.

In several contexts, refugee education is still provided separately. The Palestinian education system is a unique case. Burundian refugees in the United Republic of Tanzania and Karen refugees from Myanmar in Thailand attend separate, non-formal community-based or private schools.

SEVERAL OBSTACLES TO INCLUSION NEED TO BE OVERCOME

Difficulties related to inclusion of refugees in national education systems are most acutely felt in contexts where capacity is weak and the need for coordination and planning is high. Plans need to recognize issues ranging from lack of documents to limited language proficiency, and from interruptions of education trajectories to poverty.

The UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning has developed guidance on transitional education

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A lack of required documents,
language barriers, missed
education and hidden costs
can hinder full inclusion

plans that focus on immediate needs and incorporate refugees and IDPs. Chad was the first country to develop such a plan in 2013. In 2018, the government converted 108 schools in 19 camps and refugee sites into regular public schools.

Refugees frequently lack documentation, which makes access to national education systems difficult. In Jordan, refugees needed a ‘service card’ to go to school, and obtaining one required a birth certificate. However, in late 2016, Jordan began allowing public schools to enrol children without service cards.

Lack of knowledge of the local language is another barrier. Burundian refugees in Rwanda enter a comprehensive orientation course lasting up to six months and join public schools when they reach the right level of English. Preparatory classes, as offered in Germany, can help, but their prolonged duration can push refugees out of the education system. Refugees’ language needs concern not just verbal communication but also non-verbal practices they can learn only if they interact with host communities.

Different kinds of programmes – bridging, remedial, catch-up and accelerated education – are needed to help displaced children access or re-enter the education system. The Norwegian Refugee Council’s accelerated learning programme in Dadaab condenses Kenya’s eight-year curriculum into four years, with multiple entry and exit points. It has increased boys’ access, though less so for girls. Ideally, such programmes should be provided by governments and incorporated into education sector plans.

Even where education is free of fees, costs such as textbooks and transport can be high. A pilot project in Lebanon, which offered cash to cover transport and compensate income forgone when children attended school instead of working, increased attendance by 0.5 to 0.7 days per week or about 20%. Turkey’s government has extended conditional cash transfers to refugees and had reached 368,000 Syrian children by 2018.

TEACHERS ARE THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL INCLUSION

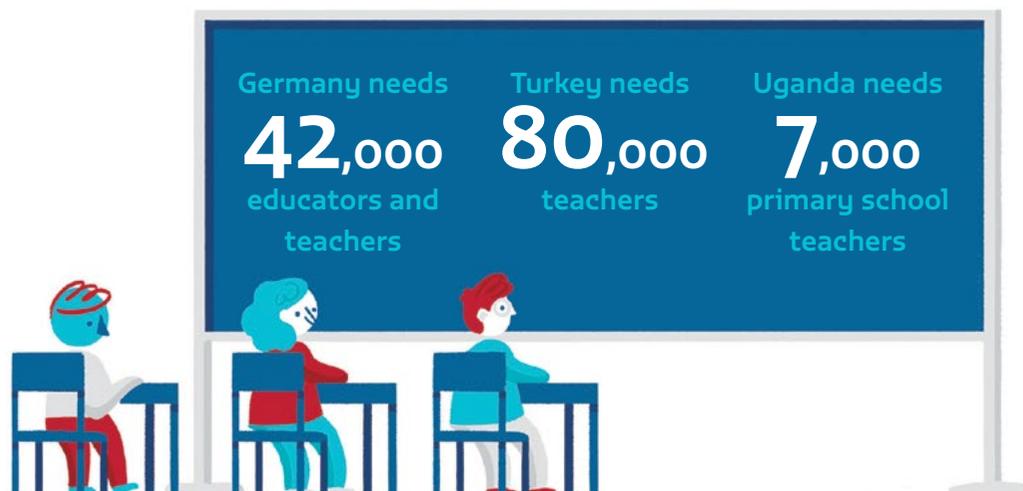
Teacher shortages, especially of qualified teachers, exist across displacement settings. Enrolment of all Syrian students in Turkey would require about 80,000 more teachers. In Germany, an additional 18,000 educators and 24,000 teachers are needed. Uganda requires 7,000 extra primary school teachers for refugee education.

Equitable and predictable teacher compensation underpins sufficient teacher supply, recruitment, retention and motivation. Yet governments and humanitarian partners, with stretched budgets and short-term funding cycles, may have trouble meeting salary costs. Using volunteer teachers, often refugees, and paying them stipends is common but disparity in teacher pay can cause tension.

Teachers in displacement contexts require training to deal with overcrowded, mixed-age or multilingual classrooms, but they often receive only sporadic support. In Lebanon, 55% of teachers and staff

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Teachers in displacement
contexts require training
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To fill the teacher gap caused by the large-scale influx of refugees:



had participated in professional development in the previous two years, even though the presence of refugee children affected their daily teaching. Approaches used to support teachers in Kakuma camp, Kenya, range from formal teaching diploma and certificate programmes offered by a national university to a non-formal, as yet uncertified course for primary school teachers in crisis developed by the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies.

Refugee teachers are often excluded from national training programmes because of professional regulations on right to work. Some countries support refugee teachers in returning to work. Chad has trained and certified Sudanese teachers to work in its schools. In Germany, the University of Potsdam's Refugee Teacher Programme aims to enable Syrian and other refugee teachers to return to the classroom.

Post-traumatic stress disorder prevalence rates among students have ranged from 10% to 25% in high income countries and reached as high as 75% in low and middle income countries. Where access to mental health services for children is lacking, school may be the only place such help is available. However, school-based interventions require specially trained therapists and are beyond the skills of teachers. Teachers can instead provide psychosocial support by creating a safe and supportive environment through interactions with learners and structured psychosocial activities. They need professional development on classroom management and referral mechanisms.

REFUGEES NEED EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Appropriate interventions, including early childhood education and care (ECEC), are crucial for young children in violent contexts who otherwise lack stable, nurturing and enriching environments. In many displacement settings, however, early learning needs go unmet.

A study of eight upper middle and high income countries suggests that responses to the needs of the youngest refugees and asylum-seekers have been 'extraordinarily weak', reflecting lack of priority in national policy-making and diffused responsibility for planning and delivery. A review of 26 Humanitarian and Refugee Response Plans shows that nearly half make no mention of learning or education for children under age 5, and less than one-third specifically mention pre-primary education or ECEC.

NGOs often fill the gap. The International Rescue Committee piloted the Healing Classrooms pre-school teacher education programme for Congolese children in camps in Burundi and the United Republic of Tanzania. The programme was adapted for Lebanon in 2014, where it now serves 3,200 pre-school children and has trained

128 teachers. After the four-month pilot, participants age 3 showed improved motor skills, social-emotional skills, executive function and early literacy and numeracy.

Some countries have established partnerships with multiple local and NGO actors. Ethiopia's government supports three out of five refugee children aged 3 to 6 in 80 Early Childhood Care and Education centres in camps and 150 private and public kindergartens in Addis Ababa. The German government has adopted a comprehensive plan for refugee and asylum-seeker education, partnering with subnational actors, and plans to invest nearly EUR 400 million in 2017–2020 to expand its ECEC programmes and staff.

THE EDUCATION OF REFUGEES WITH DISABILITIES IS AT PARTICULAR RISK

International legal instruments ensure the education rights of refugee children with disabilities, but appropriate provision is rarely available. Disabilities used to be assessed by visual identification, medical assessment or volunteered information, which led to vast underestimation of the nature and rate of disabilities among displaced populations. More recent mechanisms use systematic, functionality-based questions, such as those developed by the Washington Group.

“ There are few if any specialized schools in displacement locations, and they typically charge fees

Experience of disability can vary widely according to impairment and available accommodations. A study among Afghans in Pakistan found that those with difficulty seeing were most likely to attend school (52%); those with self-care difficulties were least likely (7.5%).

” Low physical accessibility – in terms of both distance and facilities – and lack of teacher training are major barriers for refugee children with disabilities, as found in Indonesia and Malaysia. There are few if any specialized schools in displacement locations, and they typically charge fees. Disabilities may also be hidden or under-reported for fear of social stigma or rejection by immigration or government authorities. Such challenges can be addressed, however. New refugee camps increasingly include accessible infrastructure, as in Jordan.

Identifying and engaging with host and refugee communities' existing strengths is essential. A project of the umbrella organization National Union of Disabled Persons of Uganda aims to include refugees with disabilities in development activities. The Ugandan National Association of the Deaf runs schools for hearing-impaired children near two refugee settlements.

TECHNOLOGY CAN SUPPORT EDUCATION FOR DISPLACED PEOPLE

Forced displacement often overwhelms education systems. Technological solutions, with their scalability, speed, mobility and portability, may be well suited to help compensate for lack of standard education resources. The Instant Network Schools programme, a joint initiative of UNHCR and Vodafone, reaches more than 40,000 students and 600 teachers in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, South Sudan and the United Republic of Tanzania, providing internet, electricity and digital content.

A challenge of such interventions is that the resources provided are often not aligned with national curricula. There are some exceptions, such as Tabshoura (Chalk) in Lebanon, which offers online resources for pre-schools in line with the 2015 curriculum. Available in Arabic, English and French, it builds on Moodle, a learning management system.

Technology can also provide psychosocial support. The Ideas Box, a package developed by the NGO Libraries Without Borders and UNHCR, includes informational and cultural resources, along with education content. A qualitative evaluation in two Burundi camps hosting Congolese refugees showed a positive impact on resilience.

Most programmes support teacher professional development. In Nigeria, a UNESCO teacher education project, in association with Nokia, helped primary teachers plan lessons, ask stimulating questions, prompt reflective responses and assess students in English language and literacy classes.

Technology initiatives have their challenges. They typically require high upfront investment, and not everyone has adequate electricity and connectivity. Importantly, technology cannot substitute for participation in formal schooling. International organizations should ensure that initiatives are better coordinated and serve the ultimate aim of including refugees in national education systems.

DIVERSE TERTIARY EDUCATION INITIATIVES CATER TO REFUGEES

Tertiary education opportunities increase refugees' employment prospects and contribute to primary and secondary enrolment and retention. Yet refugee tertiary participation is estimated at just 1%. Access is

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Only 1% of
refugees are
in tertiary
education

frequently neglected in emergency situations and receives coordinated attention only in cases of protracted displacement. Refugees' tertiary education rights are often interpreted as extending to non-discrimination at most.

Technology-based initiatives can reach displaced populations. The Connected Learning in Crisis Consortium, launched by UNHCR and the University of Geneva, combines face-to-face and online learning and has reached 6,500 students since 2010.

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International scholarship programmes for refugees include the Albert Einstein German Academic Refugee Initiative Fund (DAFI), which has offered support to refugees through UNHCR since 1992. Geographical coverage is adjusted based on refugee movements and education needs. Currently, the largest programmes are in Turkey, Ethiopia, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Lebanon.

Other scholarship programmes offer opportunities to study in high income countries. The Student Refugee Program of the World University Service of Canada supports university-based committees wishing to sponsor a refugee for resettlement and study at their institution. Since 1978, it has brought over 1,800 refugees from 39 countries to over 80 colleges and universities across Canada.

Academics may also need support. Scholars at Risk arranges temporary research and teaching positions for academics needing protection. The Council for At-Risk Academics (CARA) in the United Kingdom provides urgent support, particularly to academics in immediate danger in home countries.

The benefits of support should extend to the wider community. DAFI scholarships recognize origin communities as intended beneficiaries, beyond the scholarship recipient. Networks to support refugee academics can also promote capacity-building. CARA has launched programmes to rebuild research and teaching capacity in Iraq, the Syrian Arab Republic and Zimbabwe.

IDPs tend to face education challenges similar to those of refugees

Although the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement state that everyone has the right to education, capacity and politics hamper both recognition of the problem and coordination over solutions. The legal, educational and administrative responses to the education plight of the internally displaced are often similar to those described for refugees.

The government of Colombia, where 6.5 million IDPs live as of 2017, has focused on the legal protection framework. In 2002, the Constitutional Court instructed municipal education authorities to treat displaced children preferentially in terms of access to education. In 2004, the court declared that IDPs' fundamental rights, including the right to education, were being violated.

“ Internally displaced teachers often face risks and administrative hurdles that make collecting salaries virtually impossible

Displacement means many children's and adolescents' education trajectories are interrupted and they need support to re-enter the education system. In Afghanistan, Children in Crisis, an NGO, runs a community-based accelerated programme to help out-of-school internally displaced students living in informal settlements in and around Kabul complete grade 6 and transition into formal education.

” Internally displaced teachers often remain under the administrative supervision of their home district, which makes collecting salaries virtually impossible, as in the Syrian Arab Republic. In Iraq, 44 partners provide services across 15 governorates and support around 5,200 teachers with stipends or incentives, although poor coordination has led to service gaps, pay disparity among teacher categories and tension among partners.

Natural disasters and climate change require education systems to be prepared and responsive

Education sector plans need to take into account the risks of loss of life, infrastructure damage and displacement from natural disasters and ensure that education services are as little disrupted as possible, from emergency response to recovery. In 2017, the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction and the Global Alliance for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience in the Education Sector launched their updated Comprehensive School Safety framework. Its three pillars are safe learning facilities, school disaster management, and risk reduction and resilience education.

Many Pacific island nations take climate change risk into account in education plans. In 2011, the Solomon Islands Policy Statement and Guidelines for Disaster Preparedness and Education in Emergency Situations aimed to ensure that students continued to have access to safe learning environments before, during and after an emergency, and that all schools identified temporary learning and teaching space.

Within a few decades, climate may be one of the main reasons for displacement. The World Bank estimates that 140 million people will be displaced due to climate change by 2050. In order to reduce vulnerability, some countries are already considering policy responses. The Kiribati government's 'migration with dignity' policy, part of a long-term nationwide relocation strategy, aims to raise people's qualifications and give them tools for access to decent work opportunities abroad in occupations such as nursing.

Diversity

Education that values diversity is important for all countries, enabling them to build inclusive societies in which differences are appreciated and respected and good-quality education is provided for all.

Migrants and refugees are sometimes judged on the basis of perceptions of their group identity rather than personal qualities. Particularly if they differ visibly from host populations, they may be viewed as 'other', and stereotypes and prejudice may lead to discrimination, including exclusion from good-quality education.

Prejudice and discrimination are present in many education systems, despite policies against them. Structural discrimination against students from immigrant families in the United States includes lack of bilingual programmes for young children and literacy tests not given in home languages.

Public attitudes shape immigrants' self-perception and well-being. Perceived discrimination is associated with depression, anxiety and lower self-esteem. Immigrants are less likely than natives to see themselves as belonging to the host country, according to the 2014 World Values Survey.

Education influences attitudes towards immigrants and refugees

Education level is associated with attitudes towards immigrants. More educated people were less ethnocentric, valued cultural diversity more and viewed migration's economic impact more positively. Research showed that those with tertiary education were two percentage points more tolerant than those with secondary education, who, in turn, were two percentage points more tolerant than those with primary education. Younger people, especially the highly educated, also tend to have more positive attitudes towards immigration.

“ Education can mediate negative media portrayals by providing political knowledge and critical thinking skills to decipher fact from fiction ”

Negative media portrayals of immigrants and refugees can reinforce prejudice. Media coverage of migration and displacement issues is increasingly negative and polarized, as seen, for instance, in Canada, the Czech Republic, Norway and the United Kingdom, where the media often portray immigrants and refugees as a threat to culture, security and the welfare system. Migration-related media stories are often stereotypical, omitting immigrant or refugee voices and using imprecise terminology. Education can mediate negative media portrayals by providing political knowledge and critical thinking skills to decipher fact from fiction.

Inclusion should be at the centre of education policies and systems

Countries use different approaches to address diversity in education systems: assimilation, multiculturalism/integration and interculturalism/inclusion. Assimilation can be detrimental to migrant identity. Interculturalism, by contrast, helps students learn not only about other cultures but about structural barriers in host countries that perpetuate inequality.

A few countries have specific policies on multicultural or intercultural education. Ireland, where immigrant children represented 15% of the population under 15 in 2015, developed the Intercultural Education Strategy 2010–2015, aimed at developing provider capacity, supporting language proficiency, encouraging partnerships with civil society and improving monitoring. Further legislation removed barriers, banning fees and requiring schools to publish admission policies. A European Parliament study found that Ireland and Sweden had Europe's strongest monitoring and assessment frameworks for immigrant education.

Political influences can undermine intercultural education policies. In the Netherlands, deteriorating attitudes towards immigrants have fostered an integration policy focused on loyalty to Dutch society, with intercultural education being replaced with citizenship education.

Another dimension in the development of immigrant students' sense of belonging is diaspora schools that maintain links with the country of origin. These may range from schools managed or coordinated by the government of the home country, as in the case of Poland; private schools established by immigrant communities, as in the case of Filipinos in Saudi Arabia or Brazilians in Japan; and non-formal schools, transmitting the linguistic and cultural heritage of the home country.

CURRICULA AND TEXTBOOKS ARE BECOMING MORE INCLUSIVE

Curricula and textbooks can reduce prejudice and develop migrants' sense of belonging. Learning about other countries' histories was associated with positive attitudes towards endorsing rights of ethnic groups in 12 out of 22 countries that took part in the 2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Survey.

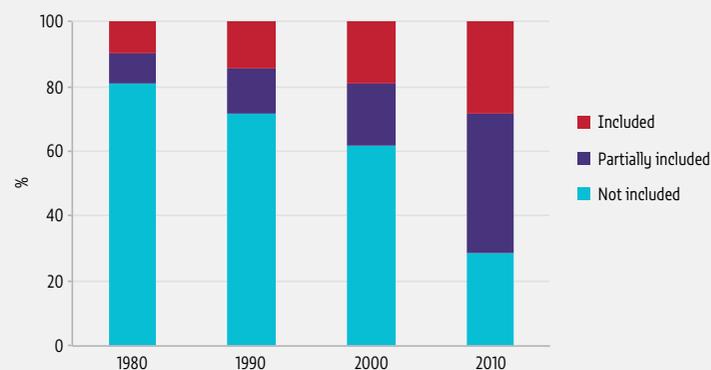
More countries are modifying curricula to reflect growing social diversity. Among 21 high income countries analysed for a policy index on multiculturalism, only Australia and Canada included multiculturalism in curricula in 1980. By 2010, multiculturalism was somewhat on the agenda in over two-thirds of countries and fully integrated in an additional four countries, Finland, Ireland, New Zealand and Sweden (**Figure 4**).

In 2015, 27 out of 38 predominantly high income countries provided intercultural education as a stand-alone subject, integrated it into the curriculum, or both. Multicultural and intercultural values can be incorporated into individual subjects. History curricula are often ethnocentric, but other subjects differ, such as geography in Germany and citizenship

FIGURE 4:

An increasing number of countries include multiculturalism in curricula

Inclusion of multiculturalism in curricula in 21 high income countries, 1980–2010



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig5_2

Note: The definition of multiculturalism used in this figure resembles more closely the definition of interculturalism in Table 5.1 of the main report.

Source: Westlake (2011).

in England (United Kingdom). Some modern textbooks continue to omit contentious migration-related issues. In Mexico, textbooks do not discuss undocumented migrants and the relationship with the United States. However, textbooks in Côte d'Ivoire discuss refugees and displacement, prominent since the political crisis in 2002.

Curricula can be adapted locally, as in Alberta, Canada, where teaching resources support immigrant and refugee instruction and learning, focusing on specific communities, such as the Karen, Somalis and South Sudanese. Strong school leadership can also help. In the United States, where school leaders value diversity, students are more likely to engage in intercultural interaction.

Teaching needs to incorporate activities that promote openness to multiple perspectives to help students develop critical thinking skills. Experiential and cooperative learning can help improve intercultural relations, increase acceptance of difference and reduce prejudice.

TRAINING THAT PREPARES TEACHERS FOR DIVERSE CLASSROOMS IS NOT MANDATORY IN MOST COUNTRIES

Teachers need support to teach diverse classrooms, but 52% of teachers interviewed in France, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Spain and the United Kingdom felt inadequately supported from management in managing diversity. The extent to which teacher education includes diversity varies by country. In the Netherlands, New Zealand and Norway, teacher candidates take mandatory courses in supporting students from diverse backgrounds. Completion of such courses is usually optional in Europe.

Teacher education programmes tend to emphasize general knowledge over practical pedagogy. A survey of 105 programmes in 49 countries found that only one-fifth prepared teachers to anticipate and resolve intercultural conflicts or understand psychological treatment and referral options available for students in need. In-service teachers need continuing professional development in this respect. The 2013 OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey found that only 16% of lower secondary teachers in 34 education systems had undertaken multicultural or multilingual education training in the preceding year.

There are few studies on the impact of teachers with immigrant backgrounds, and those that exist may not distinguish between first- and subsequent-generation immigrants or between immigrant and minority teachers. Some evidence suggests that diversity among teachers is associated with immigrant student achievement, self-esteem and sense of safety. However, teachers with immigrant backgrounds are under-represented relative to student body composition in Europe. Discriminatory policies in entering the profession and bias in hiring partly fuel this shortage.

EDUCATION HAS A ROLE IN PREVENTING VIOLENT EXTREMISM

While violent extremism, terrorist attacks and state and non-state civilian targeting undoubtedly directly cause migration and displacement, public opinion in high income countries has come to overemphasize the reverse, associating migration with terrorism. Yet any such relationship is very tenuous; attacks by foreigners represent a fraction of those by nationals and pathways to radicalization can take numerous forms.

“ By promoting respect for diversity, peace and economic advancement, education can be a buffer against radicalization ”

Preventing the emergence of extremism is a key line of defence against terrorism. Extremists tend to instrumentalize development challenges or exacerbate them to create and exploit a vicious circle of marginalization, particularly affecting the poorest and most vulnerable.

By promoting respect for diversity, peace and economic advancement, education can be a buffer against radicalization. Violent extremists often see education as a threat and target schools for attacks, as with the Boko Haram attacks in Nigeria.

Conversely, exclusion from education can increase vulnerability to radicalization. Exclusion from the benefits of education is equally harmful. In eight Arab countries, unemployment increased the probability of radicalization among the more educated whose expectations of economic advancement had been disappointed.

Many countries include efforts to prevent violent extremism in curricula, but teaching materials do not always match. Worldwide, 1 out of 10 relevant textbooks covers prevention of armed conflict or discusses conflict resolution or reconciliation mechanisms – a small increase since the 1950s.

Teachers can foster tolerant attitudes but need adequate training. Pedagogical methods, such as peer-to-peer learning, experiential learning, teamwork, role play and other approaches that stimulate critical thinking and open discussion, are most effective. At the same time, teachers should not have to police their students or limit personal freedoms in the pursuit of security.

Schools can be convenient sites for violent extremism prevention initiatives involving stakeholders outside education. Some programmes, including in Indonesia, use victims' voices to make topics more relevant and salient to students. Education against violent extremism should be gender-sensitive and engage women and girls. Women sometimes lead such education initiatives. For instance, in Pakistan's Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, a women's organization has taught mediation and conflict transformation skills to 35,000 women and 2,000 youth.

Non-formal education has a critical but neglected role in building resilient societies

Education and awareness-raising about migration and displacement issues also take place outside school walls. Non-formal education has many forms and purposes. Unfortunately, as governments are rarely the provider, little systematic information on it is available.

Community centres play a key role in non-formal education on migration. In Turkey, the NGO Yuva Association offers language courses and skill workshops through community centres. Cultural facilitators or brokers can offer translation services and help in navigating the education system. Sweden's Linköping municipality trained tutors with knowledge of Somali or Arabic to act as 'link people' for its Learning Together programme. Cities can lead education efforts against xenophobia, as in São Paulo, Brazil, but should involve immigrant communities to be successful.

Art and sports are powerful media for non-formal education. Community festivals in Norway and Spain provide space for intercultural exchange. South Africa's Kaizer Chiefs football team has driven a social media campaign highlighting foreigners' positive contribution to the country.

Mobility of students and professionals

In an increasingly globalized world, young people study abroad and skilled professionals follow employment opportunities across borders to pursue their talents. Skilled mobility has significant benefits, costs and risks for individuals, institutions and countries.

Internationalization of tertiary education takes many forms

Internationalization of tertiary education includes ‘policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions – and even individuals – to cope with the global academic environment’. It encompasses movement of students and faculty, as well as courses, programmes and institutions affecting education at home and abroad.

Half of all international students move to five English-speaking countries: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States. The shares of international students in France and Germany have grown to 8% and 6%, respectively, in part because they increasingly offer postgraduate programmes in English. China,

“ Half of all international students move to five English-speaking countries, while three countries in Asia accounted for 25% of all outbound mobility ”

India and the Republic of Korea accounted for 25% of all outbound mobility in 2016. Europe is the second-largest sending region, accounting for 23% of the total in 2016, but 76% of the 0.9 million mobile European students stay within the region.

Students decide where to pursue tertiary education based on availability of places at the best home universities, ability to pay and relative quality of education at home and abroad. Policies governing students’ ability to work can also be a driver. In 2011–2014, Indian student numbers in the United Kingdom fell by nearly 50% after policy changes limited post-graduation work visas; meanwhile their number rose by 70% in Australia and 37% in the United States. Some countries, including China and Germany, try to retain international students in their labour markets to fill local skills gaps.

For universities, revenue raising is the main driver of international student recruitment. In 2016, international students brought an estimated US\$39.4 billion into the US economy. In several Asian countries with declining birth rates and ageing populations, such as Japan, the tertiary education sector is turning to international students to keep institutions open.

Mexico and the United States are among countries that use mobility programmes as cultural diplomacy and development aid. Some sending countries, including Brazil and Saudi Arabia, subsidize study abroad as a development strategy.

Internationally mobile faculty may be academics sought by elite universities, academics hired to fill local gaps or ‘transient academics’ continuing their careers in the countries where they obtained their doctorates. Institutional mobility may cause traditional student mobility to decline but serve more students with varying education needs. Massive open online courses expand access to education, particularly in the developing world. Offshore, cross-border and borderless programmes, including branch campuses and regional education hubs, enable international education at home.

Harmonizing standards and recognizing qualifications facilitates internationalization of tertiary education

To facilitate student mobility, institutions may engage in complex relationships and agreements, e.g. dual and joint degree programmes, credit transfers, strategic partnerships and consortia. Increasingly, countries attempt to harmonize standards and quality assurance mechanisms at the bilateral, regional or global level.

The introduction of common degree standards, quality assurance, qualification recognition mechanisms and academic mobility exchange programmes enabled Europe and partner countries to establish a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010. It was the culmination of the Bologna Process, launched in 1999, involving the European Commission, the Council of Europe and representatives of tertiary education institutions, quality assurance agencies, students, staff and employers from, currently, 48 countries. The Lisbon Recognition Convention governs recognition of qualifications between EHEA countries and has been ratified by 53 countries.

Other regions are working to emulate these initiatives, including the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the East African Community. At the third Regional Conference on Higher Education, countries in Latin America and the Caribbean agreed to strengthen regional integration in tertiary education. To build on such initiatives, UNESCO has drafted a Global Convention on the Recognition of Higher Education Qualifications for ratification in 2019.

STUDENT EXCHANGE PROGRAMMES IN EUROPE OFFER LESSONS FOR SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA

Institutionalizing student exchange programmes at the regional level greatly expands opportunities for short-term student mobility. Under the Erasmus programme, established in 1987 and expanded as Erasmus+ in 2014, participating students study 3 to 12 months in another European country, and home institutions apply this time towards their degrees. It aims to enhance participants' intercultural awareness, skills and employability and promote social cohesion in Europe.

Some 9 out of 10 participants reported that it increased their resilience, open-mindedness and tolerance. There is evidence indicating that European student mobility increased employability. However, evaluations using longitudinal data that control for determinants of student mobility provide a more nuanced picture with respect to equity. About 4.4% of UK students with professional parents participated in Erasmus+ in 2015/16, compared with 2.8% with low-skilled parents. This gap has increased over time.

In 2015, ASEAN and the European Union launched the EU Support to Higher Education in the ASEAN Region (SHARE) programme to support harmonizing regional tertiary systems. Obstacles to increased mobility are resulting from lack of concerted effort among regional stakeholders. Unlike in Europe, credit transfer systems vary widely among ASEAN countries.

Recognizing professional qualifications maximizes the benefits of international labour mobility

Recognizing professional qualifications facilitates and maximizes the benefits of skilled labour migration. In OECD countries, over one-third of immigrants with tertiary education are overqualified for their jobs, compared with one-quarter of natives. In the United States, forgone earnings of underemployed immigrant college graduates could represent US\$10.2 billion in lost tax revenue annually.

But recognition systems are often too underdeveloped or fragmented to meet migrants' needs. Processes are complex, time-consuming and costly, so often only a minority apply. To improve effectiveness, assessment agencies, licensing bodies and academic institutions can harmonize requirements and procedures. Governments can ensure agencies abide by fair, transparent procedures and adhere to best practices. Establishing legal rights to recognition can also improve uptake and efficiency, as in Denmark. A 2012 law in Germany enables foreign nationals to gain recognition regardless of residence status or citizenship.

When their qualifications are not recognized, migrants cannot legally practise in regulated professions, such as teaching and nursing, despite vacancies in many destination countries. Partial recognition can help. Applicants may have to pass an examination, work under supervision for a period or refrain from performing certain functions. The EU Professional Qualifications Directive allows certain groups of professionals with approved qualifications to practise across the EU. Establishing and maintaining such automatic recognition requires substantial political commitment and resources, so similar agreements are few.

TEACHER MIGRATION BRINGS BENEFITS AND RISKS

Teachers may be motivated to migrate by low pay, unemployment, political instability, poor working conditions and lack of infrastructure. But teaching is frequently a regulated profession subject to national qualification requirements that challenge migrants.

Since regulations on teacher qualifications often relate to language skills, many large flows are between countries with linguistic and cultural commonalities. Teachers from Egypt and other Arab countries, attracted by high salaries, helped scale up education systems in the Gulf Cooperation Council states. Now countries are replacing Arabic with English as the language of instruction, and English-speaking recruits are replacing Egyptian and Jordanian teachers.

Teacher migration can create domino effects of teacher shortages in countries of origin. For instance, the United Kingdom recruits teachers from countries such as Jamaica and South Africa. In turn, facing its own teacher shortages, South Africa recruits teachers from abroad, especially from Zimbabwe. Caribbean countries have also experienced high teacher emigration in recent decades, not least due to active UK and US recruitment efforts.

The loss for sending countries can be substantial, both in terms of investment in teacher training and education and for the education system as a whole. This concern has motivated international initiatives that recognize sending countries' interests, such as the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol. However, as a non-binding code of conduct, the protocol does not constrain individual teachers who wish to emigrate.

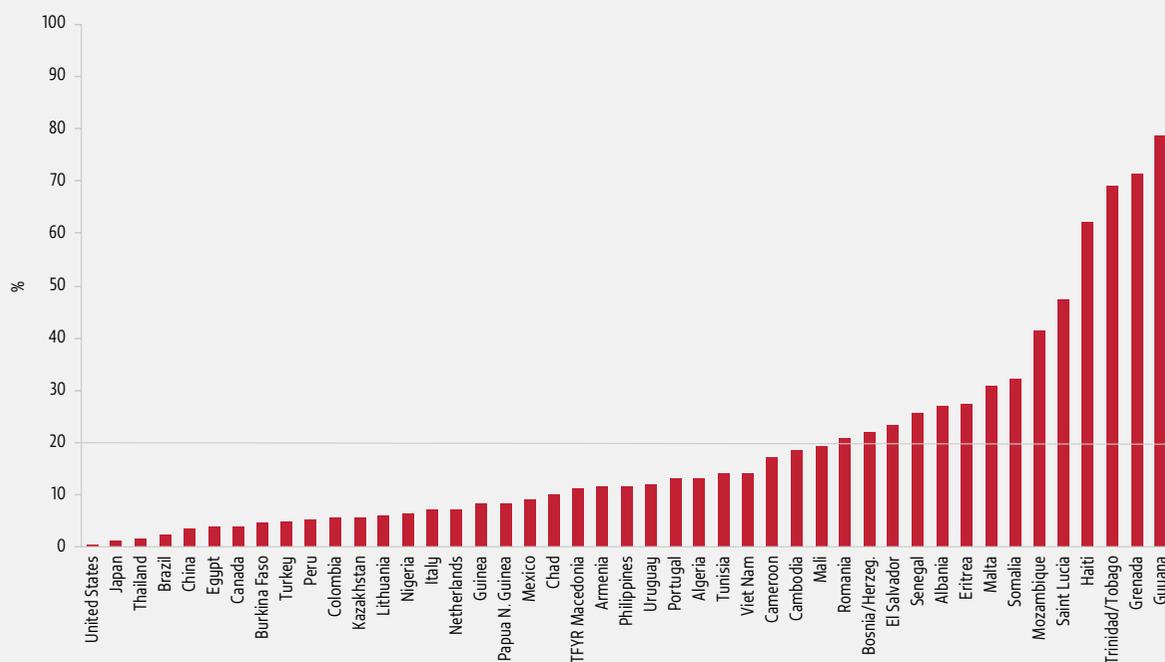
International teacher recruitment is a lucrative business that attracts commercial agencies. They are rarely closely regulated and may charge high placement fees or provide inadequate information, prompting calls for recruiter registration in sending and receiving countries.

LOSS OF TALENT CAN BE DETRIMENTAL FOR POORER COUNTRIES

Emigration rates of the highly skilled are above 20% in just over one-quarter of 174 countries and territories, including Grenada and Guyana in Latin America and the Caribbean, Albania and Malta in Europe, and Eritrea and Somalia in sub-Saharan Africa (**Figure 5**).

Richer countries actively compete for skilled workers, leading to concerns that emigration could impede development in sending countries due to loss of skills. However, apart from the effect of remittances, the very prospect of skilled emigration can also spur education investment in sending countries. Analysis for this report shows that a high-skilled migration rate of 14% generates the highest positive effects on human capital accumulation. After accounting for the characteristics of origin and destination countries, emigration prospects generate net brain gain in 90 out of 174 countries.

Some countries, especially in Asia, are seeing more citizens return with valuable skills. The Philippines has instated policies for returnees and linked them to recognition services and prospective employers.

FIGURE 5:**In several countries, more than one out of five highly skilled people emigrate***Skilled emigration rates, selected countries, 2010*

GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig6_1
 Source: Deuster and Docquier (2018).

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IS A TOOL FOR MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES

Two concerns affect technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes for migrants and refugees.

First, many barriers reduce migrant and refugee demand for skills development through TVET. Initial unemployment and precarious employment in ill-matched jobs lower migrants' return on investment in their skills. Undocumented migrants and asylum-seekers may not have the legal right to work, as in Ireland and Lithuania, discouraging participation in vocational training. Multiple providers and entry points can make navigating TVET systems difficult. Yet TVET providers and public employment services can connect migrants with relevant employers to help them gain work experience. 'Welcome mentors' in Germany support small and medium-sized enterprises in recruiting skilled workers from among new arrivals; in 2016, 3,441 refugees were placed in training.

Second, not recognizing prior learning compromises refugees' ability to get decent work or further education and training. Migrants and refugees are unlikely to carry qualifications and certificates with them, and TVET degrees may be less portable than academic degrees because of the greater variability among vocational education systems. In 2013, Norway introduced the Recognition Procedure for Persons without Verifiable Documentation. More than half the refugees whose skills were recognized in 2013 either found a related job or entered further education. Recognition, validation and accreditation can also be facilitated by intergovernmental cooperation. National recognition agreements exist between the Syrian Arab Republic and Egypt, Iraq, Jordan and Lebanon.

Mina (11 years old), grade 5, Boeung Kachang island, Koh Kong province, Cambodia.

CREDIT: Shalendra Yashwant/Save the Children



Monitoring progress in SDG 4

The monitoring framework supporting SDG 4 on education is ambitious, even if some of the hardest questions in education development remain sidelined. It has a major formative role, serving to signal issues that deserve attention and for which countries should invest in monitoring. At the same time, major efforts are under

“ As of 2018, four new indicators will be reported on for the first time, bringing the total number of SDG 4 indicators being measured to 33 out of 43 ”

way to develop indicators, standards and tools to strengthen data comparability across countries, a process requiring close collaboration among international agencies, countries, funders and experts.

There are 11 global indicators for SDG 4. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) is the sole custodian agency for eight indicators and collaborates with the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) for the indicator on information and communications technology (ICT). The custodian agency for one indicator on early childhood development is UNICEF and for aid to scholarships is the OECD. With an additional 32 thematic indicators, that brings the SDG 4 monitoring framework to 43 indicators.

The UIS coordinates developments in global and thematic indicators with Member States and agencies through the Technical Cooperation Group on the Indicators for SDG 4 – Education 2030 (TCG), which it convenes with UNESCO. As of 2018, four indicators will be reported on for the first time (participation in adult literacy programmes, comprehensive sexuality education, school-based violence and attacks in schools), bringing the total to 33 out of the 43 indicators. Work continues or is about to begin on language of instruction, distribution of resources and teacher professional development.

The Global Alliance to Monitor Learning, also convened by the UIS, coordinates work on more sophisticated learning outcome indicators, primarily minimum proficiency in reading and mathematics, adult literacy and digital literacy. The UIS is pursuing three alternative strategies towards linking and benchmarking in reading and mathematics proficiency. First, it supports an initiative that will see students in selected Latin American and west African countries take both a regional and an international assessment to enable more robust comparisons across surveys. Second, it has carried out a mapping of the content of various assessments, through which experts will assign a level of difficulty to items across surveys to place them on a reporting scale. Third, it continues efforts to link proficiency scales using statistical techniques.

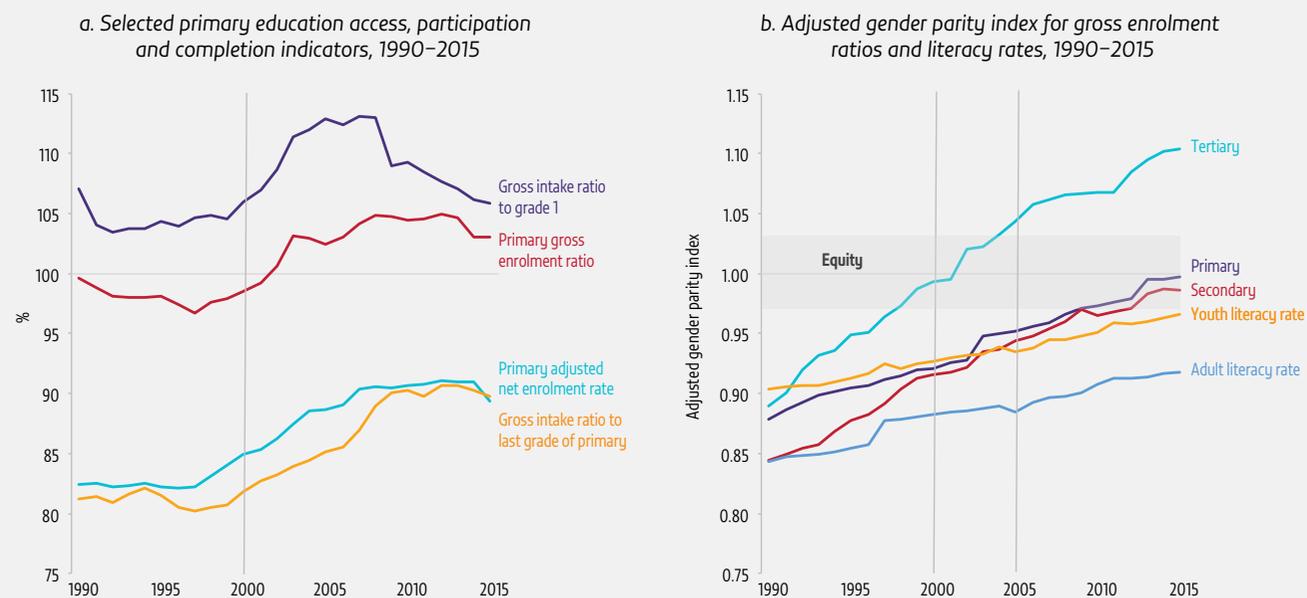
Taking stock of the Education for All era, 2000–2015

The 2015 *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* (EFA GMR) assessed the EFA record but was based largely on 2012 data. An updated assessment has been made, based on 2015 data. It does not change the conclusion – progress during the EFA era, while significant, ultimately fell well short of reaching the targets – but is an important stocktaking exercise, looking ahead to 2030.

Two key findings stand out. With respect to EFA goal 2 on primary completion, after stagnant participation and completion rates until about 1997, the primary gross enrolment ratio, net enrolment rate and gross intake ratio into the last grade of primary picked up until about 2008, then stalled (**Figure 6a**). By contrast, with respect to goal 5 on gender equality, although the target of parity in enrolment by 2005 was not achieved, progress continued throughout the 1990s and 2000s, reaching parity in 2009 in primary and secondary education and near parity in youth literacy in 2015. Disparity remains in adult literacy, with 63% of illiterates being female, and has reversed in tertiary education, with males now less likely to participate (**Figure 6b**).

FIGURE 6:

Between 2000 and 2015, the world progressed steadily towards gender parity but not towards universal primary education completion



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig7_1
Source: UIS database.

Monitoring the education status of migrants and displaced populations presents numerous challenges

The SDG monitoring framework explicitly focuses on disaggregating indicators by various characteristics associated with disadvantage. However, systematic data on the education status of immigrants and refugees are patchy. In the World Bank's Microdata Catalogue, over 2,000 out of almost 2,500 household surveys contain information on education, but only around one out of seven of those includes migration, and a smaller fraction include displacement.

“ Migrant households are mobile and less likely to be present for household survey enumerator visits or to interview due to language barriers or legal concerns

Migrant households are mobile and less likely to be present for household survey enumerator visits or to be interviewed due to language barriers or legal concerns. And since migration flows can change rapidly, sampling frames may not keep up. This particularly affects displaced people: Data tend to be collected more systematically in refugee camps, but less than 40% of refugees and even fewer IDPs live in camps.

” Ensuring inclusion of immigrants and refugees in standard, general-purpose surveys may not always solve sampling and data collection issues. Standard surveys do not capture the dynamism of the migration phenomenon and may be too infrequent to generate timely information. Flexible approaches, including research-focused surveys linking sending and receiving communities, as well as rapid data collection using non-random sampling, can be more effective. Finally, surveys may not capture education-migration dynamics or origin country qualifications.

In March 2016, the United Nations Statistical Commission began hosting an Expert Group on Refugee and IDP Statistics. Comprising 40 member states and at least 15 regional and international organizations, it has made recommendations on improving data collection. UNESCO and UNHCR are developing the Refugee Education Management Information System, a free, open-source, web-based tool to help countries collect, compile, analyse and report refugee education data.



TARGET 4.1

Primary and secondary education

Children born between 2010 and 2014 may be considered the SDG generation. The oldest reached age 5 in 2015 and, in many countries, were expected to be in pre-primary education in 2015/16 — the start of the SDG period (2015–2030). The youngest will turn 16 in 2030, potentially the latest age for timely lower secondary completion. For the SDG generation to achieve universal secondary completion by 2030, the current cohort needs to enter

primary school on time. The global adjusted net intake rate into the first primary grade was 86% in 2017.

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To achieve universal secondary school completion by 2030, the current cohort needs to enter primary school on time

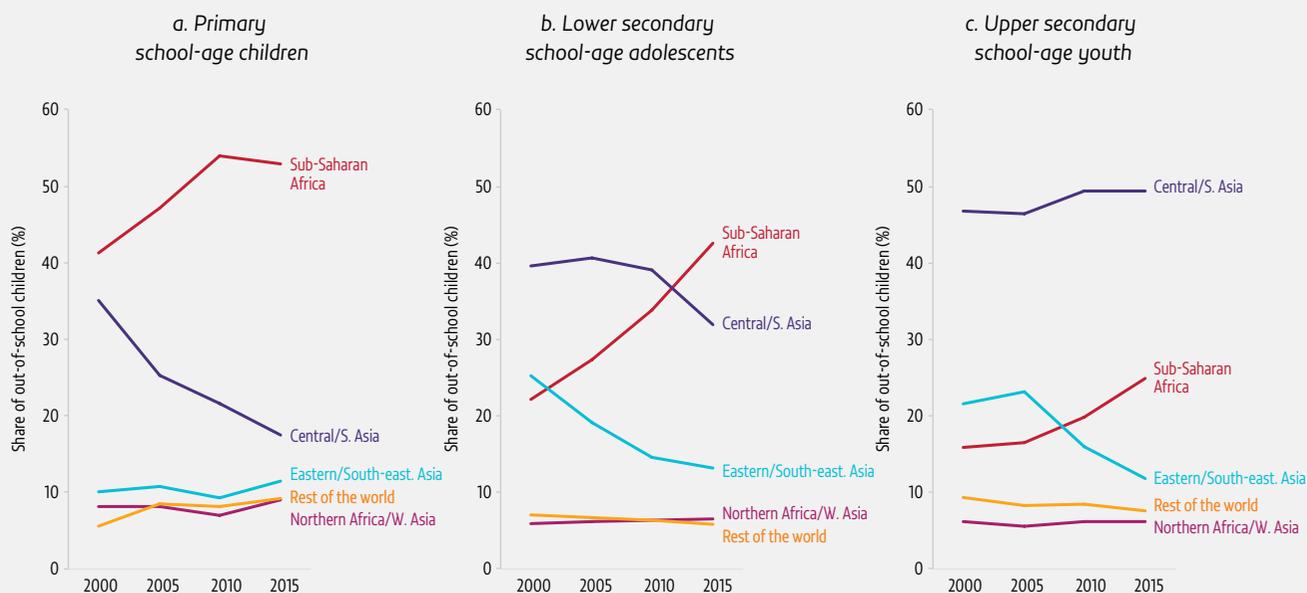
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Some 64 million children of primary school age, or 9%, were out of school in 2017, as were 61 million adolescents of lower secondary school age (16%) and 138 million youth of upper secondary school age (36%). The primary rate is almost unchanged since 2008. Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for a growing share, except for primary school age; conflict has led to children leaving school in other regions, especially in Western Asia (**Figure 7**).

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, a survey assessing grade 4 students every five years, provides the main new cross-national survey data for the global indicator on learning outcomes. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, the percentage meeting the low benchmark increased from 56% in 2001 to 65% in 2016, i.e. by less than one percentage point per year. Some countries, including Morocco and Oman, improved at a rate

FIGURE 7:
Sub-Saharan Africa has a growing share of the global out-of-school population

Distribution of out-of-school populations by region, 2000–2015



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig8_2
Source: UIS database.

bringing them within reach of the target by 2030; in others, e.g. Azerbaijan, Saudi Arabia and South Africa, the share of students achieving minimum proficiency did not increase, implying it will be very hard to meet the target.

A NEW COMPLETION RATE ESTIMATE FOR THE EDUCATION 2030 AGENDA

According to 2013–2017 household survey data, completion rates were 85% for primary, 73% for lower secondary and 49% for upper secondary education. However, there is a time lag for household survey and census data, and multiple sources may provide conflicting information.

Following the example of the health monitoring community, the GEM Report team developed a model to estimate completion rates. Projecting older cohorts' completion rates backwards can provide a long-term view of the rates' expansion path in a country. The current level of the indicator can be estimated with a short-term extrapolation from the most recent data. The approach reconciles overall patterns and trends across all data sources rather than taking the latest available estimate at face value.



TARGET 4.2

Early childhood

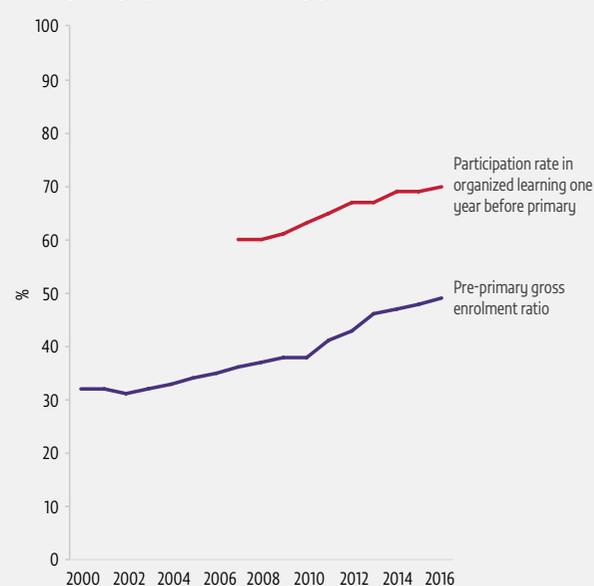
Early childhood education and care are crucial for cognitive and social-emotional development and serve a particularly important protective function in traumatic crisis settings.

The global indicator on participation in organized learning one year before the official primary entry age ranges from around 42% in low income to 93% in high income countries, with a world average of 69%, continuing a slowly but steadily increasing trend. By contrast, the pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, defined for an education level that lasts as little as one year in some countries and as many as four in others, reached 50% in 2017 (**Figure 8**).

The other global indicator on early childhood development draws on the UNICEF Early Childhood Development Index (ECDI), which is calculated using mainly UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) data, although UNICEF is reviewing the ECDI methodology to address weaknesses, a process expected to finish by late 2018. Results from countries taking part in two rounds of the MICS over five years suggest that the share of children aged 3 to 4 on track in the literacy–numeracy domain grew by less than one percentage point per year on average.

However, being 'ready' for school and 'developmentally on track' are elusive

FIGURE 8:
Seven out of ten children attend pre-school the year before entering primary education
Participation rate in organized learning one year before official primary entry age and pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, 2000–2016

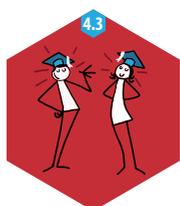


GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig9_2
Source: UIS database.

concepts, viewed differently around the world. Countries may need more discretion to use measures that serve their needs and are compatible with institutional structures and cultural characteristics.

Yet national systems to monitor school readiness are rare. More commonly, countries have national frameworks and procedures for monitoring staffing, training, facilities and curricula standards among providers (e.g. India's 2013 National Early Childhood Care and Education Policy) or evaluating programme impact (e.g. the National Reporting System component of the US Head Start pre-school programme). In the early childhood development module of the World Bank Systems Approach for Better Education Results, just 8 out of 34 low and middle income countries collected data on children in all four domains covered (cognitive, linguistic, physical and social-emotional development).

South Africa's 2014 National Curriculum Framework envisages informal, observational and ongoing assessment based on six Early Learning and Development Areas, ascribing no marks or percentages but recording readiness for primary reception grade. Since 2014, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has maintained child development portfolios for all children enrolled in ECEC centres.



TARGET 4.3

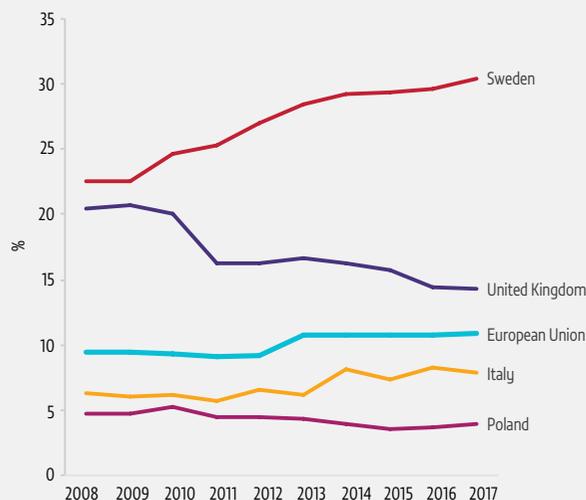
Technical, vocational, tertiary and adult education

The global indicator on adult education participation has been refined to capture all formal and non-formal education opportunities, whether or not work-related. The diversity and number of providers make labour force surveys preferable to administrative data as a source, yet questions in these surveys vary considerably among

countries, and few questions are compatible with the updated indicator definition. Standardizing questions to expand the number of countries with comparable data will not be easy.

FIGURE 9:
Participation in adult education in Europe has remained stable, but trends vary by country

Adult participation rate in education and training during the previous four weeks, European Union and selected countries, 2008–2017



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig10_1
Source: Eurostat (2018).

The EU Labour Force Survey focuses on formal education and training in the previous 4 weeks (vs the indicator's 12 months). Participation rates remain stable, on average, at 11%, although trends vary by country (Figure 9). Integrated Labour Market Surveys in Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia are limited to employed people, lifetime participation and work-related TVET. They suggest annual training participation rates of up to 4% among employees with technical skills.

The tertiary gross enrolment ratio reached 38% in 2017,

“ Labour force surveys are a preferable source to administrative data to measure adult education given the diversity and number of providers ”

but the share of private expenditure in the total cost of higher education is increasing. Financial assistance in the form of student loans, grants, subsidies and scholarships means tertiary education is generally most affordable in Europe and least affordable in sub-Saharan Africa, where its cost exceeds 60% of average national income in most countries and reaches almost 300% in Guinea and Uganda.

Most education systems aim at targeted financial support, but the effectiveness of targeting varies substantially. World Bank data show that, in several low and middle income countries, households in the poorest quintile were less likely to receive a government scholarship than those in the richest quintile. Comprehensive policy packages including various approaches, as in Colombia and Viet Nam, may be more successful than scholarships alone.



TARGET 4.4

Skills for work

The global and thematic indicators on ICT and digital literacy aim to capture skills beyond literacy and numeracy that are becoming almost universally important for the world of work. The indicators require governments to consider skills acquisition outside school.

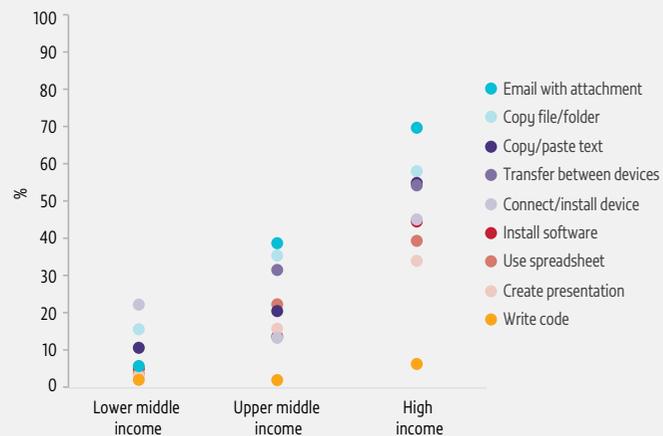
The global indicator on youth and adults with ICT skills draws on household survey self-reporting of selected activities in the previous three months. The latest ITU data show that copying and attaching files to emails are the only skills that more than one out of three respondents exercised in typical middle income countries; the respective rates were 58% and 70% in high income countries (Figure 10). Programming remains a minority activity even in the latter.

The thematic indicator on digital literacy skills goes well beyond the ability to use ICT equipment. A new global framework for digital literacy extends the European Commission’s DigComp framework to include a wider, increasingly complex set of

“ Three in ten adults do not know how to attach files to emails in high income countries ”

FIGURE 10:
ICT skills remain unequally distributed

Percentage of adults who performed a computer-related activity in the previous three months, by country income group, 2014–2017



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig11_1
 Note: Medians for middle income countries are based on a small number of countries (5 lower middle income, 15 upper middle income).
 Source: ITU database.

use examples reflecting the cultural, economic and technology settings of low and middle income countries, e.g. skills farmers require to make farming and trading decisions using a mobile phone service, buy and sell products via smartphone app or build a data-driven irrigation system using moisture sensors linked to a laptop.

Identifying cost-effective tools to measure these competences remains the greatest challenge. Digital literacy assessments vary by purpose, target group, items, delivery, cost and responsible authority. A French example offering citizens free access to a digital skills assessment, diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses and recommendations for learning resources may be a way forward.

Assessing entrepreneurship competences, a target 4.4 focus for which no indicator has been developed, faces similar challenges. Social and emotional skills, including perseverance and self-control, are among a wide range of entrepreneurial skills, but measuring them requires caution in interpreting variation across cultures. The OECD is developing an international Study on Social and Emotional Skills among 10- and 15-year-olds.



TARGET 4.5

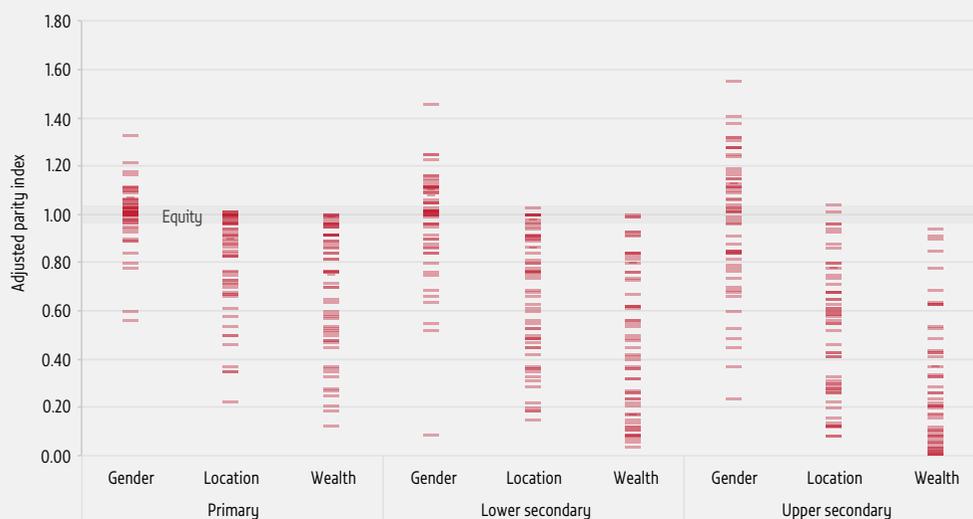
Equity

On average, there is gender parity in enrolment globally in primary and secondary education. However, the average masks continuing disparities at the individual country level. In 2016, 54% of countries had achieved parity in lower secondary education enrolment and 22% in upper secondary. Moreover, not all countries that achieve parity maintain it.

Considerable disparity exists in completion rates by location and wealth. Rural students have typically only around half the chance of their urban peers of completing upper secondary education in low and middle income countries (**Figure 11**).

FIGURE 11:
Many countries remain far from achieving location and wealth parity in school completion, especially in secondary education

Gender, location and wealth adjusted parity index of completion rate by education level, 2014–2017



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig12_1
 Sources: UIS and GEM Report team calculations using household surveys.

“ Rural students have only around half the chance of their urban peers of completing upper secondary education in low and middle income countries ”

Low comparability hampers measurement of location-based disparity: Share of labour engaged in agriculture, population size, population density, idiosyncratic national criteria or any combination thereof may determine ‘urban’ and ‘rural’ location classification across countries.

In support of monitoring the SDGs, following the 2016 UN Habitat III conference in Quito, a global, people-based definition of cities and settlements is being developed for endorsement in 2019. It compares administrative classifications with remote sensing data and census information. Strikingly, whereas national definitions suggest that less than half the population of Africa and Asia lives in urban areas, 2018 estimates suggest that over 80% do. Current estimates of rural education outcomes may include many locales that are de facto urban, masking the situation of truly rural areas.



TARGET 4.6

Literacy and numeracy

The world literacy rate reached 86% in 2017, although it remains as low as 65% in sub-Saharan Africa. Progress in youth literacy — and shrinkage of the youth cohort — has been rapid enough in recent years to lead to an absolute decline in the overall number of illiterate youth aged 15 to 24, largely driven by Asia. But the number of illiterate elderly, aged 65 and above, continues to grow; there are now almost 40% more illiterate elderly than illiterate youth (**Figure 12**).

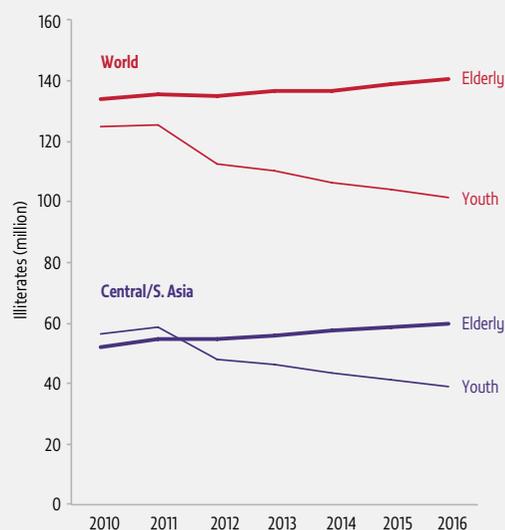
Isolated illiterate individuals, who live in households where no member can read, tend to have worse labour market and quality of life outcomes than proximate illiterates, who live with one or more literate household members.

Isolated illiteracy tends to be higher among rural dwellers. In richer countries, isolated illiterates are relatively older than proximate illiterates, whereas the converse is true in poorer countries. One explanation is that most illiterates in poorer countries live in multigenerational households and hence are more likely to live alongside younger, more educated family members.

Accordingly, literacy interventions should be targeted at old adults living in one- or two-person households in richer countries and at socio-economically marginalized young adults, often living in rural areas, in poorer countries.

FIGURE 12:

There are almost 40% more illiterate elderly than illiterate youth
Number of illiterate youth and elderly, 2010–2016



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig13_1
Source: UIS database.



Sustainable development and global citizenship

TARGET 4.7

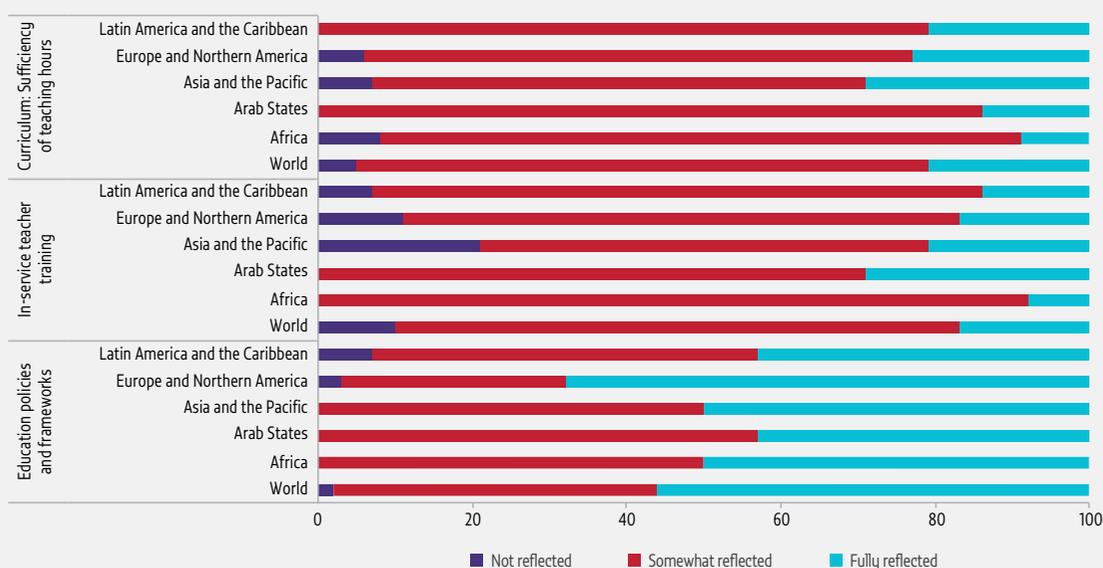
Reporting on the global indicator is based on 83 countries that took part in the sixth consultation on implementation of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. Over 80% of the countries reported including the recommendation's guiding principles in student assessment, and almost all reported including them in curricula. However, only 17% of the countries fully reflected the principles in in-service teacher education programmes (**Figure 13**).

The IEA International Civic and Citizenship Study 2016 analysed grade 8 students' knowledge, understanding, attitudes, perceptions and activities in 24 mostly high income countries. Some 35% of students scored at the highest of four levels, demonstrating the ability to make connections between the processes of social and political organization and the legal and institutional mechanisms controlling them, while 13% scored at the lowest level or below.

Eleven countries significantly improved scores between the 2009 and 2016 survey rounds, and none showed significant declines. Participants' endorsement of equal rights and positive attitudes towards ethnic/racial groups also improved. Females, students with more interest in civics and political matters and those with higher levels of civic knowledge held more positive attitudes. Individual variables most consistently associated with positive attitudes related to perceptions of the quality of school processes, such as student–teacher relations, civics learning and openness in schools and classroom discussions.

FIGURE 13:

Only 17% of countries fully reflect human rights and fundamental freedom principles in in-service teacher education
Percentage of countries reflecting principles of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation in their education policy, teacher education and curricula, 2012–2016



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig14_1
Source: UNESCO (2018).



TARGET 4.a

Education facilities and learning environments

Globally, 69% of schools have drinking water, 66% have sanitation and 53% have hygiene at a basic service level or better (**Figure 14**). In Jordan, 93% of schools have basic drinking water, but 33% have basic sanitation. In Lebanon, almost 93% have basic sanitation, but 60% have basic drinking water. Primary schools tend to have lower service quality than secondary schools.

Few aspects of safety and inclusion in learning environments are fully monitored globally. Concepts such as bullying lack standard global definitions, and surveys vary widely. One study estimated that almost 40% of boys and 35% of girls aged 11 to 15 reported being victims of bullying. The number of countries legally banning corporal punishment in schools has increased to 131, up from 122 at the end of 2014.

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Between 2013 and 2017, there were over 12,700 attacks on education
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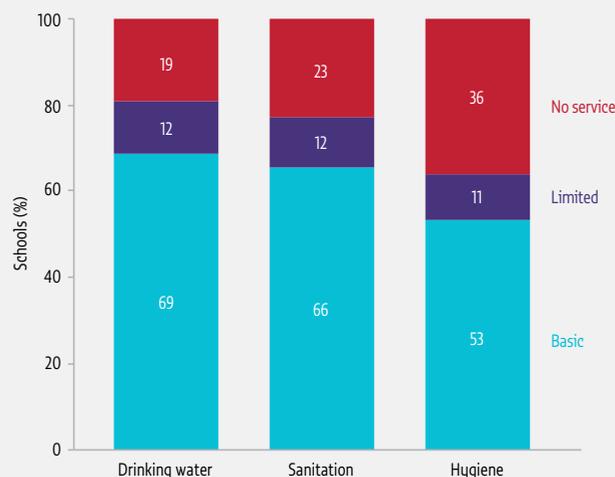
Between 2013 and 2017, there were over 12,700 attacks on education, harming over 21,000 students and educators, according to the Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack. Reported incidents included physical attacks or threats of attacks on schools, students and education personnel; military use of education buildings; child recruitment or sexual violence at or in transit to school or university by armed parties; and attacks on higher education. Twenty-eight countries suffered at least 20 attacks; Nigeria, the Philippines and Yemen were among countries suffering more than 1,000.

The coalition's data do not capture certain attacks, including those by criminal gangs and school shootings by lone gunmen. In the United States, at least 187,000 students in 193 schools have experienced a shooting at school since 1999.

FIGURE 14:

Fewer than 7 out of 10 schools have drinking water at a basic service level

Distribution of drinking water, sanitation and hygiene in schools by service level, 2016



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig15_1

Note: Numbers are rounded and may not sum to 100%.

Source: UNICEF and WHO (2018).



TARGET 4.b

Scholarships

The volume of scholarships funded by aid programmes has been stagnant since 2010 at about US\$1.1 billion to US\$1.2 billion (excluding imputed student costs). However, this indicator does not provide information on the number of scholarship recipients or the number of recipients of scholarships disbursed outside aid programmes.

While an increasing share of internationally mobile students move outside their regions, most internationally mobile students from Europe stay within the region, their mobility actively promoted through student exchange programmes. Their outward mobility rate increases by level of study, from 3% for bachelor’s degrees to 6% for master’s and 10% for doctorate degrees (Figure 15).

“ The EU’s higher education strategy includes a target for at least 20% of graduates to experience part of their study abroad ”

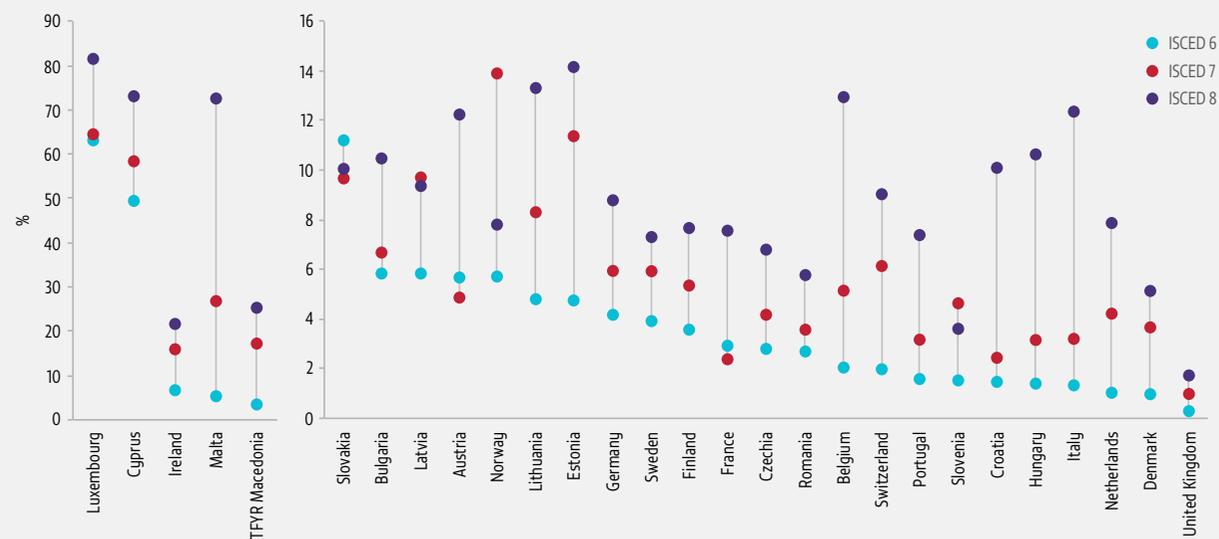
The EU Learning Mobility in Higher Education 2020 benchmark suggests that at least 20% of higher education graduates in the European Union should have studied abroad for at least 3 months or the equivalent of 15 credits in the European Credit Transfer System.

Home institutions may provide data for estimating temporary mobility for credits; destination countries must provide data for degree mobility. For EU countries, reporting is mandatory, but among the main destination countries for EU students outside Europe, only Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Israel and New Zealand provide the necessary data.

The United States is a key missing source, along with China, India, Japan, Mexico and the Republic of Korea. Given the incomplete coverage, the available estimates (currently far below 20%) likely understate outward mobility.

FIGURE 15:
In Europe, student mobility increases with the level of study

Outward degree mobility rate by International Standard Classification of Education level, selected European countries, 2013



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig16_3
 Note: ISCED = International Standard Classification of Education, including: bachelor’s degree (ISCED 6); master’s degree or equivalent (ISCED 7); and doctoral degree or equivalent (ISCED 8).
 Source: Flisi et al. (2015).



TARGET 4.c

Teachers

Gathering internationally comparable data on teacher-related indicators remains challenging. Relatively few countries generate comparable data, especially for secondary education, even using the most basic definition of the teacher headcount, which ignores number of teaching hours and number of teachers in administrative positions.

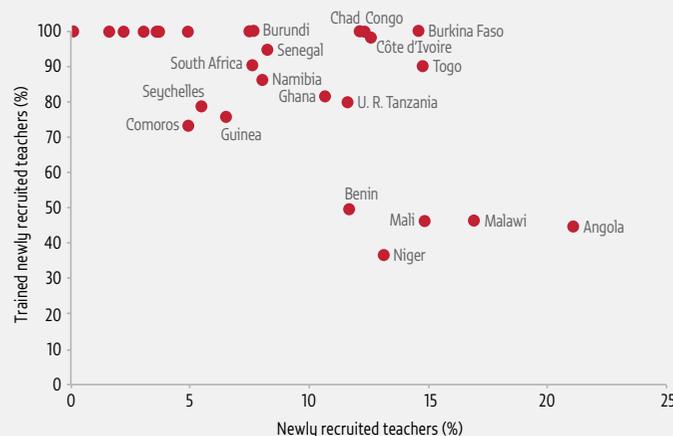
Low and lower middle income countries continue to suffer severe shortages of trained and qualified primary school teachers. Some sub-Saharan African countries have high recruitment rates, potentially undermining entry standards if teacher education capacity is limited. In Niger, where 13% of primary teachers were newly recruited in 2013, only 37% of them were trained (**Figure 16**).

High recruitment rates do not just indicate education expansion; they may be necessary to replace departures. Reliable data on attrition are patchy and hard to interpret. Accurate estimates require personnel data that assign identification numbers, so individuals can be traced as they qualify, enter, exit and re-enter the profession. Data should distinguish among various leavers and entrants, including re-entrants. Monitoring attrition requires a national system and information on all types of schools in systems with diversified provision, but often the information available is only local (e.g. Brazil) or concerns only public schools (e.g. Uganda).

Research from countries including Chile, Sweden and the United States found higher attrition among teachers who were less experienced, more qualified (and therefore more employable elsewhere), placed in more challenging or rural schools, inadequately paid or on short-term contracts. However, evidence from longitudinal studies in Australia implied that most teachers who appeared to have left did so for family reasons and returned to the profession within two years.

FIGURE 16:
Teacher education standards are difficult to maintain with higher recruitment rates

Rate of new teacher recruitment and percentage of trained teachers, primary education, selected sub-Saharan African countries, 2010–2014



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig17_1
 Source: UIS database.

Education and the other SDGs

This report examines how education can accelerate achievement of the SDGs related to decent work, sustainable cities and justice in different ways, including through developing professional capacity.

Many countries have fewer adequately trained social workers than needed to achieve SDG 8 on decent work and economic growth. In Ethiopia, 60% of public-sector social workers interviewed said they lacked relevant education. Some countries are increasing training efforts: China aims to have 230,000 new social workers by 2020. In South Africa, the number of social workers increased by 70% between 2010 and 2015.

With over half the world's population living in cities, achieving SDG 11 on sustainable cities and communities requires urban planners to improve informal settlements and prepare for future increases. Many countries face acute shortages of planning professionals (**Figure 17**). India needs 300,000 town and country planners by 2031; in 2011, it had about 4,500. Planning programmes need to integrate physical, environmental and social planning, including education. Local officials in countries including Malawi, Mozambique and Namibia need to improve planning capacities.

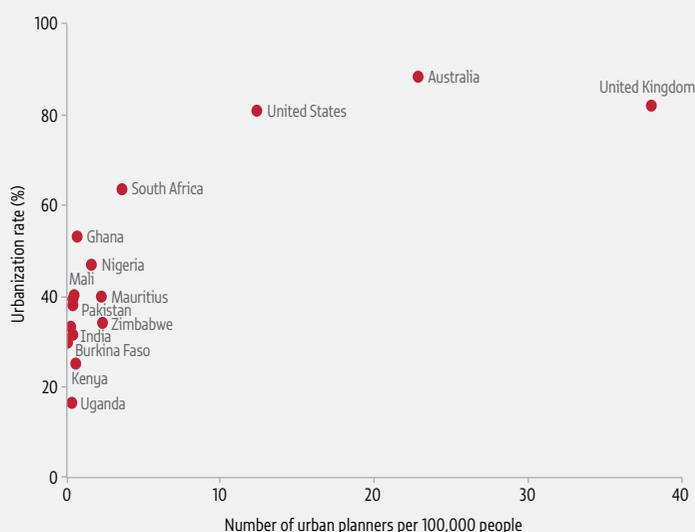
To achieve SDG 16 on peace, justice and strong institutions, law enforcement officers' education requirements and training need to improve so as to help build trust and reduce bias and use of force. In the United States, average police training lasts 19 weeks, compared with 130 weeks in Germany. Only 1% of US police departments require a four-year university degree; officers with university degrees were less likely to use force. Some countries, including Singapore, have used training to curb police corruption; others, such as Indonesia, have collaborated with international partners to enhance police professional capacity.

An estimated 4 billion people worldwide lack access to justice, implying a need to build legal capacity. Judicial education varies among countries. Training typically lasts three to five years, but a law degree is not always a prerequisite for becoming a judge, even in high income countries. Some countries, including France, provide substantial initial professional training once judges are selected. Countries such as Ghana and Jordan have continuing education institutions for judges.

FIGURE 17:

There are too few urban planners in Africa and Asia

Number of urban planners per 100,000 people and urbanization rates, selected countries, 2011



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig18_2

Note: Data are from 2011 for number of planners and 2014 for urbanization rate.

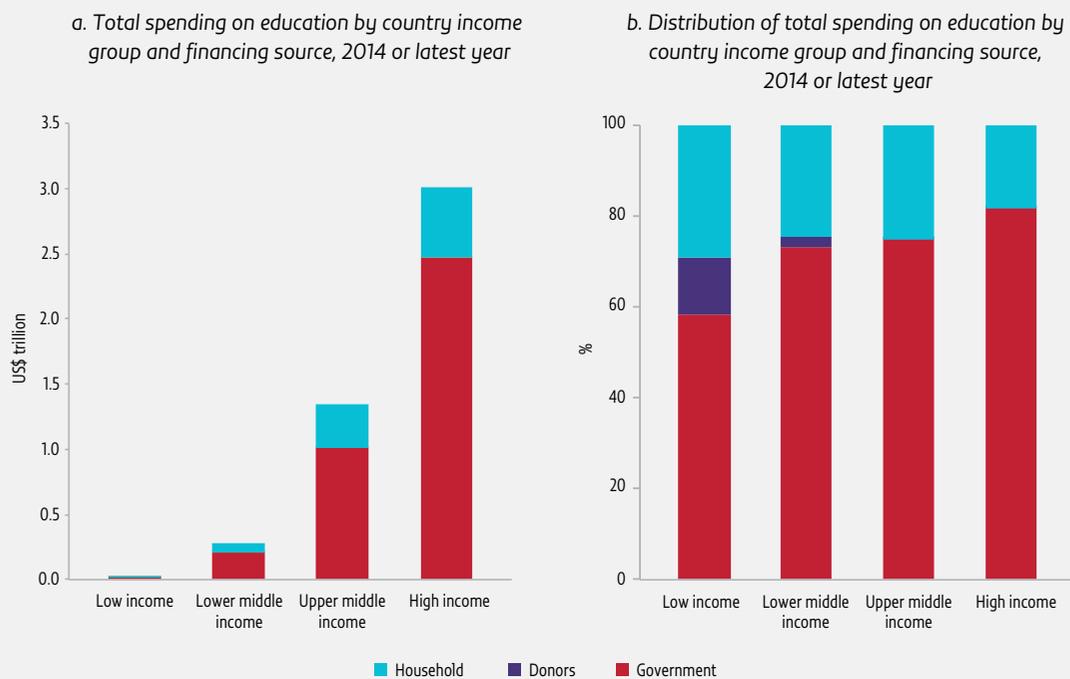
Sources: UNDESA (2014); UN Habitat (2016b).

Finance

The three main sources of education financing are governments, donors and households. Analysis for this report estimates annual spending on education at US\$4.7 trillion worldwide. Of that, US\$3 trillion (65% of the total) is spent in high income countries and US\$22 billion (0.5% of the total) in low income countries (**Figure 18a**), even though the two groups have a roughly equal number of school-age children. Governments account for 79% of total spending and households for 21%. Donors account for 12% of total education expenditure in low income countries and 2% in lower middle income countries (**Figure 18b**).

“ Annual global spending on education is approximately US\$4.7 trillion, of which 65% is spent in high income countries ”

FIGURE 18:
Governments account for four out of five dollars spent on education



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig19_1

Note: The analysis rests on three assumptions: (a) for countries without public expenditure data, amounts were imputed from GDP, public expenditure as share of GDP and average share of public expenditure allocated to education in the respective country income group; (b) 60% of aid expenditure is considered reflected in public budgets (therefore subtracted from government expenditure), with the remaining 40% allocated through other channels; and (c) the household share in total education expenditure is estimated at 18% in high income countries, 25% in middle income countries and 33% in low income countries.

Source: GEM Report team analysis based on the UIS (government and household) and CRS (donor) databases.

Public expenditure

Globally, median public education expenditure was 4.4% of GDP in 2017, above the minimum benchmark of 4% specified in the Education 2030 Framework for Action; by region, it ranged from 3.4% in Eastern and South-eastern Asia to 5.1% in Latin America and the Caribbean. The median share of total public expenditure dedicated to education was 14.1%, below the minimum benchmark of 15%, with regional rates ranging from 11.6% in Europe and Northern America to 18% in Latin America and the Caribbean. In total, 43 out of 148 countries do not meet either benchmark.

The median share of public education expenditure dedicated to primary education is 35%, in a range from 47% in low income to 26% in high income countries. A global median of 35% of total education spending was allocated for secondary education; the range was from 27% in low income to 37% in high income countries. Countries in Europe and Northern America spend the same amount per primary and post-secondary student. Sub-Saharan Africa spends 10 times more per post-secondary than per primary student.

Public debate often focuses on immigration's negative effects on host community welfare. On the one hand, immigrants are more likely than natives to be of working age but typically generate less tax revenue because they earn less. On the other hand, immigrants are more likely to depend on social benefits and use public services, such as education. However, public education expenditure on immigrant children is best understood as an investment: They typically contribute more in tax and social security contributions than they receive over their lifetime. The fiscal consequences of immigration are relatively modest – typically within 1% of GDP, whether positive or negative.

Aid expenditure

In 2016, aid to education reached its highest level since records began in 2002. Compared with 2015, aid to education grew by US\$1.5 billion, or 13% in real terms, to reach US\$13.4 billion. Aid to basic education accounted for two-thirds of the increase; aid to secondary and post-secondary education rose at a lower rate, so the share of basic education in total education aid reached its highest level at 45%.

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The share of basic education aid to low income countries fell from 36% in 2002 to 22% in 2016
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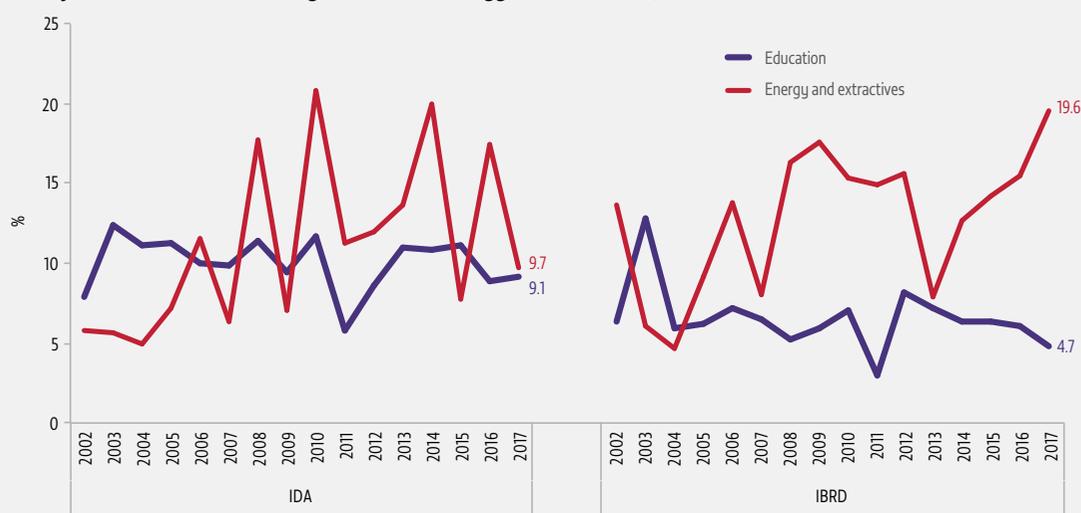
Aid disbursements to basic education are still not allocated to the countries most in need. The share of basic education aid to low income countries fell from 36% in 2002 to 22% in 2016. The share to least-developed countries was 34% in 2016, down from a 2004 peak of 47%.

Lower middle income countries also face a financing gap. Multilateral development bank lending for education in these countries remains low. For instance, the median share of education between 2002 and 2017 was 10.5% for concessional loans from the International Development Association (IDA) but only 6.4% for non-concessional loans from the International Bank for

Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). Moreover, the share of education in IBRD loans fell from 8.2% in 2012 to 4.7% in 2017, or one-quarter the amount for the energy and extractives sector (**Figure 19**). Deliberations continue on a proposal by the International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity to establish an International Finance Facility for Education to increase development bank lending for education in lower middle income countries.

FIGURE 19:**A low and declining share of World Bank non-concessional loans goes to education**

Share of total IDA and IBRD lending, education vs energy and extractives, 2002–2017

GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig19_9

Source: GEM Report team analysis based on selected World Bank Annual Reports.

USING AID AS A TOOL TO REDUCE MIGRATION

The idea that external assistance can reduce migration receives some support in policy circles. Raising disposable income in origin countries would reduce a key emigration incentive. The European Agenda on Migration and some countries' aid policies support the idea.

A study of migration flows from 210 origin countries to 22 donor (and destination) countries showed that countries sending large numbers of migrants received the largest amount of foreign aid. However, the causality of the relationship is difficult to establish. If aid reaches poorer families, it may help them finance their migration costs. Aid may also increase information on donor countries and lower migrants' transaction costs, encouraging emigration. Policy-makers may therefore need to temper expectations on the role aid can play in controlling migration.

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The causality of the relationship between international aid and migration flows is difficult to establish

”

The impact of education aid, in particular, on migration is very difficult to distinguish due to its small size. Even if aid for education contributes to reducing emigration, it is unlikely to do so quickly. However, education can have an important mediating role in migration for both origin and destination countries. A study of trends in migration from Northern Africa to OECD countries suggested that aid-induced income growth in origin countries was a push factor for migrants with low education. But satisfaction with local public services, including schools, may deter migration. And overall, demographic characteristics

of the destination country – population density, urban population growth, age dependency ratios – and rewards for education in destination countries were much more important in determining migration rates than aid levels.

IMPROVING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF HUMANITARIAN AID TO EDUCATION

Humanitarian aid increased in 2017 for the fourth year in a row, with global humanitarian funding to education reaching US\$450 million. However, education's share in total humanitarian aid was 2.1%, far below the target of at least 4%. Education has also historically had one of the lowest shares of funded requirements, compared

with other sectors. However, the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit included a new commitment to education in emergencies through the establishment of the multilateral Education Cannot Wait (ECW) fund.

Multiple layers of coordination mechanisms, both vertical (from global to local) and horizontal (across sectors and actors), make the humanitarian aid architecture complex and contribute to the difficulty of increasing education's part in emergency response. UN-coordinated interventions are organized in two ways. Humanitarian response plans (HRPs) provide a country strategy, usually over one year. Flash appeals propose responses to sudden emergencies to address acute needs over three to six months. HRPs have had limited education-related content, and education has often not featured in appeals.

There is no obligatory reporting system for international humanitarian assistance expenditure, making full tracking of education spending difficult. The OECD Development Assistance Committee Creditor Reporting System database does not break down humanitarian aid by sector, although it suggests that about US\$400 million of development aid was spent on refugee education in 2016. The voluntary United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs Financial Tracking Service tracks education, but 42% of funding in 2017 was in the multisector category, shared among sectors or unspecified, resulting in potentially inaccurate education spending estimates.

Education underfunding results from insufficiencies in several areas: political will, vertical and horizontal coordination, humanitarian actor capacity and information or accountability mechanisms.

A 2015 costing study calculated the funding gap at US\$8.5 billion, which would need to be covered by the international community. This amounts to US\$113 per child — a tenfold increase in current per-student spending. ECW aims to raise US\$1.5 billion per year and increase education's share of humanitarian aid by 1.2 percentage points by 2021. Its partners will need to share fundraising efforts, either prioritizing humanitarian objectives within development aid or increasing the priority of education within humanitarian aid.

Plans should not be determined by the activities organizations are used to implementing; rather, there is a need for actions that serve inclusive and equitable education of good quality. The Global Education Cluster has established guidelines for needs assessment. As a major new actor, ECW could enforce these guidelines by requiring partners to use them in programme design and developing their capacity.

Humanitarian aid has struggled with coordination among and within main actors. Education should be key in multisector humanitarian intervention plans. In the Rohingya crisis in Bangladesh, education was included from the first stage of relief response, and education service delivery began very quickly. However, lack of coordination meant learning centres were sometimes empty, as non-education interventions competed for children's time.

To meet even the most basic education needs of children in crises would require the share of education in humanitarian aid to...



Joint planning is also needed between humanitarian and development actors. While multisector planning helped ensure education's place in the Rohingya humanitarian response, it did not ensure inclusion in the Bangladeshi education system. Multiyear appeals in protracted crises have been underfunded, and national education plans have not historically focused on resilience or crisis response. Short-term humanitarian education planning frameworks need to be combined with more structural concerns, as in Uganda, where the government's Refugee and Host Community Education Response Plan, announced in May 2018, allocates US\$395 million over three years to reach about 675,000 refugee and host community students per year.

Donors such as Australia, Canada, Norway and the United Kingdom are shifting to multiyear funding frameworks to ensure predictable funding to humanitarian partners, and ECW has a 'multi-year resilience' instrument, which also aims to bridge the humanitarian–development divide. Accountability in humanitarian aid needs to be strengthened. ECW has emphasized transparency and results by setting high standards in its strategic results framework, which covers not only its ultimate results but, crucially, its way of working and its operational efficiency.

Household expenditure

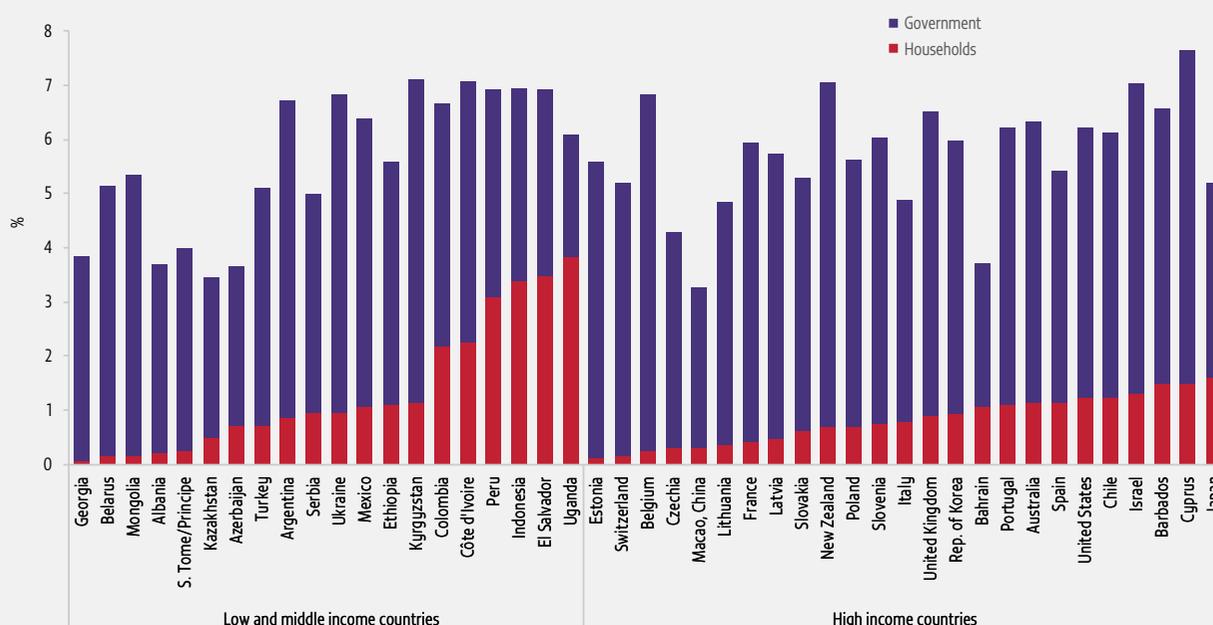
Lack of data on household contributions has long restricted analysis of total education expenditure. The UIS first released data for households in 2017, but coverage remains limited. The share of households in total education expenditure can be very high in some low and middle income countries, e.g. El Salvador (50%) and Indonesia (49%) (Figure 20).

In general, household expenditure data do not appear to change dramatically from year to year, with some exceptions. In Chile, massive student protests about insufficient government education financing caused changes in public policy. As a result, the household share of total education spending fell between 2005 and 2015 from almost 50% to below 20%.

FIGURE 20:

Household education spending is considerable in some low and middle income countries

Education expenditure as a percentage of GDP by source of funds and country income group, selected countries, 2013–2017



GEM StatLink: http://bit.ly/fig19_13
Source: UIS database.

Recommendations

This report calls on governments to address the education needs of migrant and displaced populations, and those of their children, with the same attention they give to host populations.

PROTECT THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION OF MIGRANTS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE

The principle of non-discrimination in education is recognized in international conventions. Discriminatory barriers, such as birth certificate requirements, should be explicitly prohibited in national law. Existing regulations should have no loopholes or grey areas left open to interpretation by individual local or school-level officers. Governments must protect migrants' and refugees' right to education irrespective of identification documents or residence status and apply laws without exception.

Respecting the right to education must go beyond legislation and administrative process. National authorities should mount awareness-raising campaigns to inform migrant and displaced families of their rights and of school registration processes. Planning authorities should ensure that public schools are within reach of informal settlements and slums and that they are not neglected in urban regeneration plans.

INCLUDE MIGRANTS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

Some education systems treat immigrants and refugees as temporary or transient populations, different from natives. This is wrong; it impedes their academic progress, socialization and future opportunities, and undermines progress towards diverse, cohesive societies. Public policy must include them in all levels of national education.

Inclusion of immigrants has several dimensions. While a new language of instruction necessitates preparatory classes, students should be separated as little as possible from their native peers. Education systems should not channel students with lower achievement, among whom immigrants are over-represented, into different tracks. Given the geographical concentration of immigrant students in many countries, education planners should use methods such as transport subsidies and random school assignment to ensure residential segregation does not result in education segregation.

Governments need to make sure that refugees' education is interrupted as little as possible. While exceptional circumstances – e.g. physical isolation of refugee communities or host system capacity constraints – may prevent full inclusion, governments need to minimize time spent in schools not following the national curriculum or not progressing towards recognized certificates, as such time compromises education trajectories.

UNDERSTAND AND PLAN FOR THE EDUCATION NEEDS OF MIGRANTS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE

Countries with large immigrant and refugee inflows need to capture data on these populations in management information systems to plan and budget accordingly. Providing school places or work opportunities for migrants and refugees is only the first step to inclusion.

School environments have to adapt to and support students' needs. Those transitioning to a new language of instruction need bridging programmes with qualified teachers. Those whose education was interrupted will benefit from accelerated education programmes enabling them to catch up and re-enter school at the appropriate level. Refugee inclusion in education will be more likely to succeed if it extends to social protection programmes to allow refugees to benefit, for instance, from conditional cash transfers that cover hidden school costs. In the case of internal migrants, notably children of nomads or seasonal workers, governments should consider flexible school calendars, education tracking systems and curricula relevant to their livelihoods.

Adults need support to develop their competences through technical and vocational education and training and to overcome constraints, such as low-skill occupations or high training costs, that discourage their investment in skills. They need financial education programmes so they can manage their economic circumstances, make the most of remittances and avoid fraud or financial exploitation. Non-formal education programmes, which can be offered at the local government level, can supplement efforts to strengthen social cohesion.

REPRESENT MIGRATION AND DISPLACEMENT HISTORIES IN EDUCATION ACCURATELY TO CHALLENGE PREJUDICES

Building inclusive societies and helping people live together requires more than tolerance. Governments must review education content and delivery, adapting curricula and rethinking textbooks to reflect history and current diversity. Education content needs to bring to the fore migration's contribution to wealth and prosperity. It also needs to recognize the causes of tension and conflict, as well as the legacy of migrations that displaced or marginalized populations. Pedagogical approaches should promote openness to multiple perspectives, foster the values of living together, and appreciate the benefits of diversity. They should challenge prejudices and develop critical thinking skills so learners can overcome uncertainties in interacting with other cultures and resist negative media portrayals of immigrants and refugees. Governments need to draw from the positive experiences of intercultural education.

PREPARE TEACHERS OF MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES TO ADDRESS DIVERSITY AND HARDSHIP

Teachers need support to become agents of change in school environments increasingly shaped by migration and displacement.

Current teacher education programmes addressing migration tend to be ad hoc and not part of the main curricula. Governments need to invest in initial and ongoing teacher education that builds core competences and ability to manage diverse, multilingual and multicultural contexts, which also affect native students. Raise awareness of all teachers about migration and displacement, not just those who teach diverse classrooms. Aspiring and practising teachers and school leaders should be given the tools to confront stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination in the classroom, the schoolyard and the community, and to strengthen immigrant and refugee students' self-esteem and sense of belonging.

Teachers in displacement contexts also need to be sensitive to the particular difficulties displaced students and parents face, and reach out to their communities. While teachers are not counsellors, they can be trained to recognize stress and trauma and refer those in need to specialists. If there are no specialists, teachers should be prepared to serve as some families' only access to such services. Teachers of refugees and displaced teachers suffer additional stress themselves. Management policies need to recognize and relieve the extreme hardships under which some teachers work, regulate and ensure equality among types of teaching professionals to maintain morale, and invest in professional development.

HARNESS THE POTENTIAL OF MIGRANTS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE

Migrants and refugees possess skills that can help transform not only their and their families' lives but also both host and home economies and societies, whether they return or support from a distance. Using this potential requires simpler, cheaper and more transparent and flexible mechanisms to recognize academic qualifications and professional skills (including those of teachers) and to account for prior learning that was not validated or certified.

Countries need to follow up on Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration commitments regarding mutual qualification recognition, and to conclude negotiations under the Global Convention on the Recognition of Higher Education Qualifications so it can be adopted in 2019. Assessment agencies, licensing bodies and academic institutions should harmonize requirements and procedures at the bilateral, regional and global levels, working with governments and regional and international organizations. Common degree standards, quality assurance mechanisms and academic exchange programmes can support qualification recognition.

SUPPORT EDUCATION NEEDS OF MIGRANTS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE IN HUMANITARIAN AND DEVELOPMENT AID

While two-thirds of international migrants are destined for high income countries, 9 out of 10 refugees are hosted by low and middle income countries, which require support from international partners. Meeting needs would require a tenfold increase in the share of education in humanitarian aid. A more sustainable solution is for the international community to fulfil the Global Compact on Refugees and the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework commitment to link humanitarian and development aid from the early stages of a crisis, supporting inclusive education delivery for refugee and host populations. Education should be included in response design, especially as regards early childhood education and care. It should also be part of a holistic package of solutions involving other sectors, e.g. shelter, nutrition, water, sanitation and social protection. Donors need to reflect these reforms in their humanitarian interventions. Using the momentum of the Education Cannot Wait fund, they need to develop need-assessment capacity and join up planning to bridge the humanitarian-development divide and catalyse predictable multiyear funding.

Migration, displacement and education:

BUILDING BRIDGES, NOT WALLS

The 2019 *Global Education Monitoring Report* examines the education impact of migration and displacement across all population movements: within and across borders, voluntary and forced, for employment and education. It also reviews progress on education in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

In view of increasing diversity, the report analyses how education can build inclusive societies and help people move beyond tolerance and learn to live together. Education provided equally builds bridges; unequal provision raises walls between migrants and refugees and their host communities.

Two new global compacts on migrants and refugees recognize education's role and set objectives aligned with the global commitment to leave no one behind. This report is a vital toolkit for these compacts. It covers policy issues that address seasonal migrants, rural school consolidation, intercultural curricula, refugee inclusion in national education systems and elimination of segregation, qualifications recognition, targeting of school funding, more effective humanitarian education aid and teacher preparedness for diverse classrooms in emergency, protracted and "new normal" contexts.

This summary of the 2019 GEM Report calls on countries to see education as a tool to manage migration and displacement and an opportunity for those needing one.

Education is a human right and a transformational force for poverty eradication, sustainability and peace. People on the move, whether for work or education, and whether voluntarily or forced, do not leave their right to education behind. The 2019 Global Education Monitoring Report underscores the huge potential and opportunities of ensuring that migrants and displaced persons have access to quality education.

António Guterres, United Nations Secretary-General

This report brings together the existing evidence on migration and education to paint a picture of incredible opportunity, as well as points to where and why educational disadvantage can occur. And this at a time in which the international community is striving to meet the SDGs and maximize the significant benefits of migration globally.

William Lacy Swing, International Organization for Migration Director General (1 October 2008 to 30 September 2018)

This report provides a compelling rationale for the emphasis on education in the Global Compact on Refugees and the imperative of including refugees in national education systems and Education Sector Plans.

Filippo Grandi, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

