



CONCEPT NOTE FOR THE 2019 GLOBAL EDUCATION MONITORING REPORT ON EDUCATION AND MIGRATION 10 APRIL 2017

BACKGROUND TO THE GEM REPORT

The *Global Education Monitoring Report* (or GEM Report), formerly known as the *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* (GMR), is an editorially independent, authoritative and evidence-based annual report that monitors progress towards global education targets adopted by UN member states as part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (September 2015). The GEM Report is funded by a group of governments, multilateral agencies and private foundations and published annually by UNESCO to serve the international community. It is widely recognized as an indispensable analytical and advocacy tool for ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning for all.

With a renewed mandate from the World Education Forum in May 2015, the GEM Report team launched a new series of internationally focused education monitoring reports in 2016. The 2016 GEM Report, *Education for People and Planet: Creating Sustainable Futures for All*, examined the links between education and major facets of sustainable development. It reported on progress towards the fourth global education goal (SDG4), as well as other global targets with an education focus. The second report, to be launched in October 2017, is tentatively titled *Accountability in education: Meeting our commitments*. It will examine the most common accountability approaches and whether and how they contribute to the aims of the global education goals: access, quality, equity and inclusion.

This concept note discusses the 2019 GEM Report on migration and education, as approved by the GEM Report International Advisory Board in June 2016.

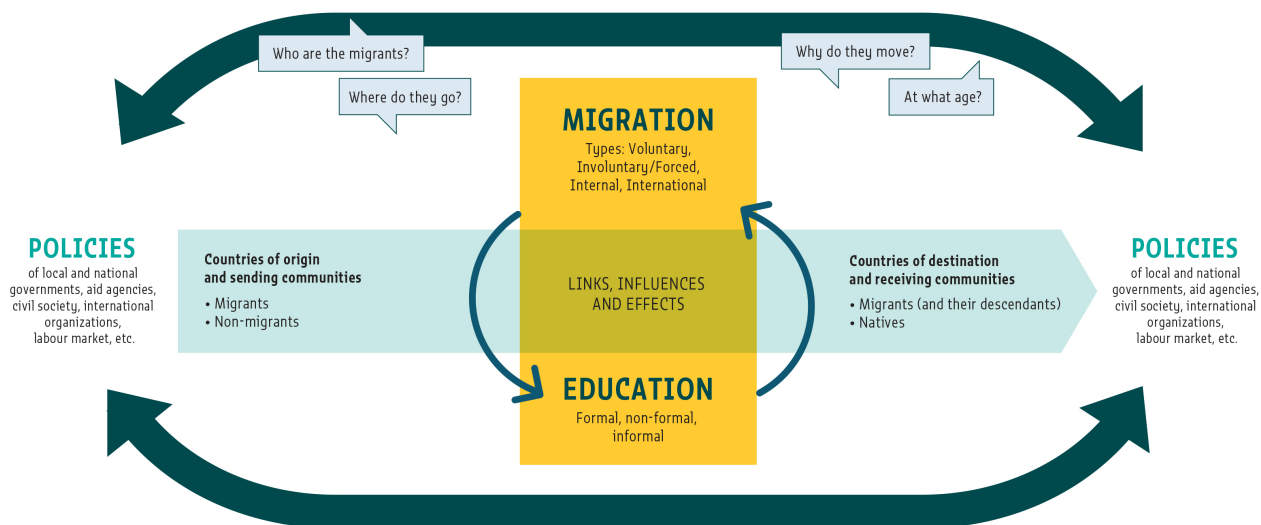
WHY A THEMED REPORT ON MIGRATION AND EDUCATION?

Migration and education are multifaceted processes involving individuals, schools, communities, regions and countries (Figure 1). They invoke temporal, spatial and intergenerational dimensions. The 2019 GEM Report will enhance understanding of migration and education dynamics. It will give voice to educational challenges and opportunities facing both voluntary and involuntary migrants in host and home communities. It will draw upon wide-ranging evidence from both quantitative and qualitative studies, and the analyses, conclusions and recommendations will advance the aims of SDG4.

Through migration and education individuals can develop knowledge, skills and competences, and contribute to social and economic development. Expanding access and funding to quality education not only can improve the lives of immigrants but also the overall development of host countries.

However, education and migration can also hamper development. Limited access and poor quality education may adversely impact people's life chances. International or internal migration driven by host labour markets may negatively influence home education systems if not planned or coordinated (brain drain). Forced migration and displacement may deprive home communities of fundamental skills and competences. Migrants themselves may lose valuable knowledge, skills and competences – or have it undervalued -- by having to accept jobs or training programmes misaligned with their talents or to delay their studies (brain waste). Forcible displacement strains psychological and emotional well-being, adversely affecting education achievements.

Figure 1: Migration and education dynamics



The 2019 GEM Report will explore two overarching questions:

1. Does migration accelerate or hamper progress in access to education? How?
2. How do migration patterns influence quality education?

And two key crosscutting issues:

3. In what ways do policies focusing on educational equity and inclusiveness improve educational outcomes among migrants and refugees?
4. In what ways can the voices of migrants improve our understanding of migration and education?

The Report will derive conclusions and policy recommendations in relation to the global goal on education (SDG4)

Note: Most data, research findings and policies in this field reflect the one-way migration movement portrayed in the Figure; however, some percentage of migrants do return to their home countries or communities and related issues will be considered in the 2019 Report.
Source: The GEM Report Team, 2017.

[Download Figure 1](#)

Scale, intensity and heterogeneity distinguish today’s migration movements. The International Office for Migration reports 244 million international migrants crossed international borders in 2015. Internal migration within countries was even greater; 865 million people now live outside their region of birth. The number of people displaced due to armed conflicts, persecution and human rights violations has also increased substantially. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 65.3 million people, nearly 21.3 million under 18 were forced into leaving their homes. Around 34,000 people suffer this fate every day, mostly in Somalia, Afghanistan and Syria. In an era of profound demographic, socio-economic and technological change, migration and forced displacement are topical policy issues and an essential element of the national, regional and international globalization debate.

A variety of forces and contexts prompt migration: demand for workers in factories, agriculture or extractive industries; limited employment opportunities in specialized fields; colonial ties and political trade agreements; ethnic or religious persecutions; armed conflict and violence; political crises; and the impact of climate change. The motivation to improve their or their children’s qualifications and skills through education is another key determinant of the decision to migrate. Educational qualifications affect labour market opportunities, income, health and quality of life. Where domestic labour markets are constrained, migration may open up education and employment prospects elsewhere. In the host country, human capital may increase directly, through increased learning, training or skilled employment, and indirectly, through exposure to different cultures, values and languages. Migrants’ educational background will impact their decision to return home, in which case their

experiences may affect the education of those who did not move, altering their aspirations, values, competences and skills.¹

Demographic shifts in many countries have implications for both migration and education. In high income countries, shrinking labour forces due to lower fertility foster demand for both skilled and unskilled workers. An ageing population increases demand for nurses and caregivers for example. Urbanization may cause excess supply of some professionals in urban areas but excess demand for the same professionals in rural areas. These trends affect decision-making as learners consider whether the skills, knowledge and qualifications offered are transferable and exportable. In low income countries, low wages, unemployment and underemployment in the agricultural sector (for example, due to seasonal crop production) influence the willingness to move in search of improved employment opportunities. Exhausted natural resources, natural disasters and political crises also motivate large waves of migration from less developed areas. All these affect the demand for education.

Increasingly sophisticated technologies alter demand for more and less skilled labour in much of the world. Higher education is expanding and diversifying to meet the demand for high-skill jobs and students are moving accordingly. But many adults migrate due to the demand for unskilled jobs. This phenomenon has generated a 'migration industry' in human smuggling and trafficking. People in these migratory flows are often irregular migrants, who lack access to basic services, including education. Education opportunities for vulnerable migrants are rare.

Recent years have witnessed a substantial increase in people fleeing due to armed conflicts, political or religious crises, persecution or climate change. These displacements are mirrored by a substantial increase in asylum seekers and refugees. At the same time, countries have introduced measures to deter the arrival of migrants, especially asylum seekers and irregular migrants. Education may reduce their propensity to move or permit more informed decisions on the final destination. It may also determine whether an individual seeks asylum. In fragile and conflict areas, education itself is heavily affected by loss of teachers, students and educational infrastructure.

The aspiration for better living conditions and education prospects is also behind teacher and student mobility. Both types of migration have important implications for educational systems. Because schools represent the main opportunity for young people from different countries to get to know and respect each other, they play a leading role in creating a more inclusive society. Migration can enrich education for all -- linguistic and cultural diversity provides schools with valuable resources, and can deepen and improve teacher pedagogy as well as student skill acquisition. By contrast, when linguistic, cultural and socio-economic disadvantages are combined in certain schools or areas, this poses a major challenge for education with important social implications. In receiving countries, regions and communities, migration influences the education of children even when their families enjoy a good socio-economic situation and a high level of education. Migrating children may suffer, at least in the short term, from the interruption of schooling or from the linguistic and cultural barriers they encounter.

Education can help overcome various forms of discrimination and stereotyping. The size of recent migratory flows has given voice to populist parties in Europe and the USA, many of whom are disseminating negative beliefs and opinions about migrants. Education can equip people to think critically, discard falsities, make informed decisions for or against some level of immigration, and contribute to civic education. Self-identification and feelings of belonging may depend on migrants' education too. Wrong incentives or poorly designed programmes may result in the unwillingness of migrants to attach themselves to the host country. Formal and non-formal education may moderate the extent to which this happens.

Given the multiple dimensions linking migration and education, an exhaustive understanding requires a sustained multidisciplinary effort. Alternatively, it may proceed from the knowledge of specific relevant aspects. It is mainly from the latter perspective that the 2019 GEM Report would like to address the theme. In seeking

¹ The migration of adults can affect the education of non-migrants through three channels: money remittances, increased demand for child labour to replace migrant adults and expected earnings. If expected wages in the destination country exceeds those in the source country wages, foregone earnings of staying at school one extra year are high, strongly incentivizing migrants to leave schooling for an earlier opportunity to find employment in the destination country.

explanations for the various dimensions of such an interrelationship and investigating how the adverse consequences could be mitigated and the positive effects strengthened, the GEM Report will build on global, regional and national evidence from quantitative and qualitative studies to support country efforts and give migrants a voice. Ultimately, the goal of the GEM Report is to contribute to SDG4, identifying policies that may improve access to quality, equitable and inclusive education.

CONCEPTS, DEFINITIONS AND DISTINCTIONS

The 2019 Report will draw on international definitions of migrants and migration. According to the International Organization of Migration (IOM), a migrant is ‘any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his or her habitual place of residence, regardless of (1) the person’s legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) what the causes for the movement are; or (4) what the length of the stay is’ [1]. This definition is not universally accepted or used. However, it is sufficiently broad to cover migration stocks and flows², different types of migrants – including internal, international, refugees, asylum seekers and economic migrants, be they temporary, permanent or circular – and different types of migratory flows.³ These definitions refer to individuals on the move and not to the movement of programmes, schools and universities, which the 2019 Report will also examine.

Notably, the IOM definition of migrant specifies movement of an individual from a place of birth to a different place of residence. It assumes authorities have valid information of both places at some point in time, although not necessarily a clear picture of all interim movements. Given that a birthplace may differ from one’s sense of national, cultural, ethnic or linguistic affiliation, examining subjective definitions of migration is justified, i.e. how and in what respects an individual considers himself or herself a migrant. Objective and subjective definitions of migration may affect how we establish links between migration and education and measure stocks and flows.

Contextualizing the issue in terms of these elements, as well as the size and composition of migratory flows, will be essential for the 2019 GEM Report. As the right to education and education opportunities are likely to differ across types of mobility and migrants, the GEM Report will try, where possible, to distinguish between:

- Different types of migration movements, e.g. international and internal; seasonal or short-term, circular migration vs. permanent migration; returning migration; documented and undocumented; refugees; asylum seekers; economic migrants; migrants for family reunification purposes; skilled or unskilled; teachers and students
- Directions of migratory flows, e.g. South–North or South–South; rural-to-urban or urban-to-rural
- Migrants themselves, e.g. adults and children; women and men; single individuals or families.

Building on the assessment of migration and displacement phenomena, the GEM Report will explore the following key questions:

- A. Does migration accelerate or hamper progress in access to education? How?
- B. Do migration patterns impact quality education?

² The flow of migrants is the number of people who move during a time frame from one place to another. The migrant stock is the number of people living in a different place than where they were born.

³ According to UNHCR, ‘refugees are persons fleeing armed conflict or persecution.’ ‘Refugees are defined and protected in international laws. The 1951 Refugee Convention and its 1967 Protocol as well as other legal texts, such as the 1969 OAU Refugee Convention, remain the cornerstone of modern refugee protection’. By these definitions, refugees and asylum seekers are those whose lives and fundamental freedoms are threatened in their own countries and who are therefore protected by international agreement. Unlike refugees, migrants are individuals who can safely return home and are dealt with by national laws and processes.

- C. The GEM Report will also focus on two key crosscutting issues:
- D. In what ways do policies focusing on educational equity and inclusiveness improve educational outcomes among migrants and refugees?
- E. In what ways can the voices of migrants improve our understanding of migration and education?

Most issues discussed apply to both voluntary and involuntary migration. However, aspects particular to forced or involuntary migration and education require a separate section before the discussion of crosscutting issues.

VOLUNTARY MIGRATION AND EDUCATION

A. DOES MIGRATION ACCELERATE OR HINDER PROGRESS IN ACCESS TO EDUCATION? HOW?

Access to education is fundamental to home and host communities, as it influences people’s opportunities in life, their economic and civic contribution and, eventually, their degree of integration. Through migration, for example, children born in rural areas may access education opportunities they otherwise would not, supporting overall attainment. Migrants may lack or have limited access to education over their lifetimes. This holds equally for children and adults, and formal and non-formal education. Reduced access to education that migrating parents or guardians experienced early in their lives is likely to influence negatively their children’s level of educational achievement and attainment [2].⁴ Leveraging particular policies for migrants might accelerate progress in access to education.

POLICIES TO RELAX FINANCIAL CONSTRAINTS OF MIGRANT STUDENTS AND THEIR FAMILIES

In many less developed areas, poor quality schools are an important determinant of child migration. Availability of grants and scholarship may reduce the propensity to move while fostering access in local schools. This result emerges, for example, from a recent study on access to secondary schools in Bangladesh [4].

Many higher education students would like to move to other regions or countries to continue or complete their studies but are unable. Common reasons include unaffordable travel costs and institution fees or lack of access to information that would allow them to move. The literature shows that grants and scholarships, by relaxing financial constraints, effectively expands education opportunities for many talented students.

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Local branches of foreign universities or collaborative efforts by institutions operating in less developed locations, which imply movement of teachers, programmes and curricula, may also foster access to education. Such initiatives have substantially increased in recent years in Arab and African states and may help to reach more students at home, especially talented students who cannot afford to move to a foreign country.

Students from certain universities and programmes may find it easier to move to some countries over others. Besides problems of home education structures, this mobility may be related to the fact that they belong to 'preferred groups' targeted by specific programmes abroad, e.g. Canada’s initiatives for highly educated students from African countries. Recent analyses suggest that students from sub-Saharan Africa are quite mobile. This

⁴ The literature also suggests [3] that the achievement gap varies a lot across migrant types and educational background. Migrant descendants are often found to be more upwardly mobile and less often downwardly mobile than their native peers in the majority of European countries studied. Longer duration of compulsory schooling also plays an important role in leveling the playing field.

creates new dynamics for education institutions, teachers and policies in home and receiving countries. For example, according to UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), Nigeria has experienced a 45% increase in the number of students enrolled abroad between 2010 and 2013. The preferred destinations are the United Kingdom, Ghana and the United States. Existing studies of mobility among African students show, however, that such new dynamics might deepen inequalities and perpetuate the cycle of disadvantage in home countries.

Analysing internationalization practices that succeeded in expanding education opportunities may shed light on the actors involved and how countries confront such situations. Analysing the characteristics of students and teachers who move might improve understanding of who most benefits from expanded access.

REMITTANCES

Remittances -- the financial transfers by immigrants to their home countries or communities -- have risen substantially over the past decade. How transferred funds are spent matters for growth and development, particularly when they are invested in human capital. The money remitted may influence the propensity to access education at both a micro level (for migrant family members left behind) and a macro level (when remittances are used to enhance educational infrastructure in the home country, region or local community).

Many studies have found remittances have a positive effect on investment in education by the family left behind. The effect varies, however, according to several factors, with some studies suggesting remittances may also negatively affect the education of children left behind, depending on the relative wealth of the household and the migrant parent's skill level. Unskilled migrants have difficulties finding well-paid jobs, often work in the informal sector and confront unemployment risk. As such, those left behind may reduce consumption, including of education. Why and how does this happen? What can be done to prevent this from happening? Does the benefit for education, if any, flow directly, with more money allowing continuing education, or indirectly, through the effects of better housing, food and health? Are there are differences in the effects of remittances by gender or rural/urban location?

Along with these factors, the effects of remittances on access to education may vary according to the educational background of the remitter or the countries, regions, communities and corridors through which remittances flow. Literature suggests that the higher the education level of the remitter, the higher the probability remittances are invested to deepen human capital beyond basic education. For example, a study in Nepal found that remittances can positively increase spending on education, although this varies by the quality of schooling and that internal remittances⁵, on average, have a greater impact on education than external ones [5]. Some studies suggest that the positive influence of remittances only applies when education is mandatory (e.g. in Tajikistan [8]), while others find a larger effect of remittances on higher education [9]. In Ecuador remittances positively impacted children's education, making education infrastructure more efficient [10]. In China, by contrast, remittances had a negative effect on the education of children left behind in rural areas (e.g. [11] and [12]).

Recent literature also suggests that the use of remittances may differ according to the formality or informality of the payment channel.⁶ This is a relatively unexplored area with important implications for education. Formal remittances are mainly transferred by the most educated and are more often associated with investment in human capital [13].

Some recent studies suggest that the net positive effect of remittances on per capita gross domestic product (GDP) is larger than development aid, especially official development capital (ODA). In 2011, the size of formal remittances to all developing countries was about US\$351 billion, while ODA from OECD countries represented

⁵ Internal remittances refer to remittances household members send due to internal migration, while external ones originate from international migration movements. Other studies report the same finding. *Cf.* [6] and [7].

⁶ Formal remittances flow through official banking channels. Informal remittances include money transfers, which occur through private, unrecorded channels.

about US\$134 billion. The literature cites advantages of remittances over ODA, including that they flow directly to families left behind and may thus be invested relatively freely, for example, on education. Administrative burdens and costs are also arguably smaller for remittances relative to ODA. Do education opportunities expand more quickly when there is greater complementarity between remittances and other forms of aid? Does the cost of sending remittances, or the lack of access to new technologies, create barriers to the potential of migrants to contribute to development goals?

CITIZENSHIP, NATURALIZATION AND RESIDENCY POLICIES

Policies determining the legal status of migrants in receiving communities may affect education opportunities at all ages. The GEM Report hopes to collect and analyse evidence on these issues to identify practices that may accelerate progress in access to education.

While access to basic education by undocumented children is granted in many countries, access to higher education is not. In the United States, for example, a decision of the Supreme Court in 1982 (*Plyler v. Doe*) guaranteed undocumented children free K-12 public school education. For higher education all states except Alabama, Georgia and South Carolina allow undocumented students the right to enrol. However, access to and take-up of post-secondary education may be severely constrained in practice by federal laws that prevent undocumented students from receiving financial benefits like federal funds to attend college.⁷ Lower educational attainment of undocumented migrants may persist over a lifetime and across generations. A recent study of Mexican immigration to the United States reported lower academic achievement by children of undocumented migrants relative to regular migrants and natives.

LEGAL AND RESIDENCY STATUS

Countries that condition access to education on the existence of an official residence permit or a lawful address penalize some types of migrants and their children. This was the case in China for rural to urban migration when the *hukou* system was in place. It is still the case in other countries and in other emergency contexts.

Slum areas represent a particularly complex challenge. Most cities of the world are increasingly characterized by large immigrant populations from rural areas or other countries and regions. These migrants are likely to settle in low-income neighbourhoods where they may lack access to basic services, including education.

With respect to legal status and residency requirements, the GEM Report will address additional questions. How 'free' are schools in practice and can migrant families choose which school to enrol their children? Are most migrant students concentrated in certain schools or districts? How does education provision respond to growing number of migrant families, including both the establishment of schools in urban areas and the closure of schools in rural areas?

RECOGNITION OF DIPLOMA AND CREDENTIALS

Foreign-educated migrants may face challenges accessing education or professional positions. These range from lack of recognition of credentials, diplomas and professional experiences acquired abroad, to learning the language, accessing the right information or being part of networks. To the extent that their educational qualifications are not recognized in full or in part, migrants are forced to prolong their education and training at additional expense or to forgo work or advanced training in their areas of expertise. The lack of recognition may

⁷ Only five states offer financial aid to undocumented students: California, New Mexico, Texas, Minnesota and Washington.

also push them to accept jobs for which they are over-qualified, with negative consequences to their human capital (brain waste).

Recognition of credentials varies. Evidence suggests that the higher the level of education, the greater the probability of recognition. A study reported that 31% of newcomers to Canada had their university degree recognized, compared with 20% for some with university or college education and below [14]. Similarly, high-skilled migrants may be given special treatment, including the smooth recognition of credentials and qualifications. The same problem arises for other categories of migrants, such as the highly skilled, e.g. the health workforce. Health is a very important topic on the international policy agenda. A highly qualified health workforce is key to addressing shortages of certain health professionals such as nurses, social workers and general practitioners, especially in rural and remote areas as countries strive for Universal Health Coverage. Health professional education plays an important role in this process. Addressing issues related to the internal and international migration of these workers and the recognition of their qualifications is part of the solution.

The GEM Report will explore evidence of practices permitting better coordination between sending and receiving countries in organizing the education and movements of such workers. What steps should countries, regional authorities and international agencies take to address the lack of recognition of qualifications and credentials? What policies have countries introduced to address these issues and speed up recognition of immigrant credentials?

B. DO MIGRATION PATTERNS IMPACT QUALITY EDUCATION?

Migration could influence the quality of education in several ways. On the one hand, large numbers of immigrant students may affect quality when teachers are not well-prepared and supported to face their specific needs, slowing the pace of instruction. Curricula and educational infrastructure may not be adapted to receive large number of foreign students with different culture and languages.⁸ On the other hand, the movement of teachers can affect education quality, although the impacts are likely to differ accordingly as mobility is driven either by personal or professional development reasons or by necessity. The extent to which societies and schools accommodate diversity and are able to face the needs of students, schools and teachers moving across borders and countries may bolster the quality of education.

EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE, CURRICULA AND PROGRAMMES

In the past, patterns of internal and international migration were largely driven by economic considerations and were more limited in scale. Today, the reasons, direction and scale of migration flows are changing, confronting policy-makers with new challenges to ensure good quality education. Many countries and regions are now experiencing significant migration flows for the first time, implying that the policy challenges to provide quality education to more diverse student populations are numerous.⁹

The GEM Report will address the implications of these changes and trends for the quality of education and educational systems in both sending and receiving countries. How has educational infrastructure been affected? How may links between school curriculum and employment be enhanced? How can curricula help in valuing cultures and building tolerance? To what extent are ethnicities, cultural diversity and the creation of multicultural societies taken into account in local development policies and programming of education policies? What does evidence say on quality of education and learning outcomes in schools which integrate migrant students into

⁸ Chin et al. (2012) found for example that that non-Spanish speaking students in Texas have higher test scores when they are in separate classes.

⁹ The IOM reveals that, in recent years, South–South migration movements are larger than South–North ones. In 2015, the largest increases in ‘regional migration corridors’ were Asia-to-Asia and Africa-to-Africa.

mainstream structure and support them with an intercultural approach relative to those providing separate education? What are the benefits and challenges, if any, of either? What are the benefits of investing in anti-segregation measures to combat learning disadvantages of some migrant students and/or discriminatory attitudes? How may flexible learning initiatives be used to ensure quality education for more people? How can a supportive learning environment be created?

TEACHERS AS MIGRANTS

In many parts of the world, teachers are also on the move. Some do so to acquire qualifications, since teacher training institutions are often urban-based. Others, upon completing their studies, seek professional opportunities in other cities, countries or regions. The movement of younger or more experienced teachers may influence, for example, teacher gaps, class sizes, positive role models, which affect the quality of education provided in both sending and receiving countries, regions and communities.

By exploring these movements, the GEM Report will address the following questions. Are certain fields of study, such as science, technology, engineering and mathematics, more affected by migrating teachers than others? How can good teachers be attracted, supported and retained? In what ways do current teacher training programmes prepare teachers to move and to meet the needs of schools and students in host communities?

EDUCATION FUNDING

Unequal funds across countries, regions and urban and rural locations may have consequences on the quality of education provided.¹⁰ Extra funds may, in fact, not be available to address the specific needs of migrant students. For example, the Zones of Educational Priority introduced in 1981 in France were meant to provide extra funding to schools in locations characterized by large immigrant populations. Assessment of this specific policy suggests its outcomes have not met initial expectations.

FORCED OR INVOLUNTARY MIGRATION AND EDUCATION

Education challenges and opportunities for forcibly displaced people require special consideration. Their right to education, enshrined in the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child and the 1951 Refugee Convention, may be weakened or barriers may render it ineffective.

Forced or involuntary migration can result from several life-threatening events, such as war, natural disasters and famine. Often these migratory flows involve large numbers of people of all ages and backgrounds, and the suddenness of the event lends a sense of urgency. The trip these people start is often never-ending. The physical and psychological threats they confront are several.

Large segments of the populations are harmed by conflict. Children, adults, men, women, students, teachers – all subject to the threat may eventually decide to move. The recent Syrian crisis, for example, has resulted in more than 4.5 million registered refugees fleeing their homes. In 2016, more than half of Syria's population was displaced. More than one-third of out-of-school children throughout the world live in conflict-affected areas, and 55% of these children are girls [15]. According to a 2016 Report by UNCHR, nearly 900,000 Syrian school-age refugee children and adolescents are not in school [16].¹¹

¹⁰ As with many others discussed under the previous sections, education funding matters for equity reasons too.

¹¹ See also UNHCR, 2016, Global Trends – Forced Displacement in 2015: <http://www.unhcr.org/statistics/unhcrstats/576408cd7/unhcr-global-trends-2015.html>

Whatever the cause, forced migration has important effects on education in both host and home communities. Material and immaterial educational resources are, in fact, lost during these events. Schools, books and other infrastructure are damaged or lost in armed conflicts or natural disasters. The role of international actors working to restore education in emergencies and post-crisis situations and to safeguard education systems against decline is clearly key in conflict zones. However, in such situations, education systems also lose teachers and students, with implications on the learning outcomes, skills and education of both. Teacher mobility may disrupt both student and teacher learning, while student mobility may deprive affected areas of fundamental skills and workforce, affecting future development patterns.

When people move because of natural disaster or famine, they do not necessarily cross international borders. Consider, for example, the current famine crisis in Nigeria, Yemen or the Horn of Africa. However, these movements frequently cause conflict between nationals who compete for scarce resources and opportunities. Broadly speaking, the arrival of large numbers of forced migrants in host communities often creates issues for education, at least in the short term. People in camps or slum areas may have no access to basic services, including education. Lack of birth certificates and other legal documents and visas may hinder access to basic and further education. For example, Jordan requires refugees who live outside of camps to register with the Interior Ministry and obtain 'service cards' to get access to schools and healthcare, often only in the district of registration. Many Syrian refugees who left the camps or children lacking birth certificates find themselves ineligible.¹²

Documentation requirements notwithstanding, refugee status gives access to basic education, but access to further education is often not ensured. The issue of undocumented migrants and higher education matters, particularly in less developed areas receiving large flows of displaced people, such as Syrian displacement to Lebanon. Evidence from the Institute of International Education suggests that the number of Syrian students enrolled in higher education and universities in Lebanon declined substantially between 2011 and 2014 [17]. Among the reasons mentioned are Syrian military service and a loss of incomes by the family who previously supported the students in Lebanon, Undocumented migrants may also only have access to jobs in the informal sector, with no opportunities to be trained further and to learn local languages, hindering their integration. With or without documentation, displaced people may also have their credentials, education certificates and diplomas not recognized in receiving communities.

On the receiving side, educational infrastructure and teachers in host countries and communities may be unprepared to accommodate large numbers of migrants with specific needs. Curricula may be unsuited for different cultural values or, more generally, for accommodating diversity. Refugee youth and children may lack appropriate skills or education with few opportunities to work. This can lead to distress and isolation and sow the seeds for recruitment into forced labour, military forces or prostitution. Displaced people may also suffer from bias in curriculum development, such as stereotypes and imbalances, or selectivity towards certain groups, including isolation. Funds may be insufficient to meet the education demands of large group of immigrants. For all these reasons, the recent literature emphasizes the crucial role of professional development for teachers and principals, along with intercultural support for migrants and their families and peace-building strategies in areas of immigration. Because lack of preparation and information on migrants have been related to anxiety and tensions in the education community [18], proactive rather than reactive educational strategies may help too.

Inflows of forcibly displaced people may equally present opportunities for education. In particular, recent studies highlight that female refugee teachers have intercultural skills and the ability to deal with learners and families of different backgrounds. Thus, they may represent a solution to enhancing diversity awareness in the teacher workforce. The GEM Report would like to answer several questions particular to forced migration and education. How can the negative effects of unpreparedness by both migrating and receiving populations be prevented? How can prior teaching and education qualifications be more widely recognized? To what extent do people and schools that move across borders face challenges from different curricula, languages and education programmes? How

¹² In a move towards more flexibility, Jordan's Ministry of Education has lessened this constraint by allowing public schools to enrol children without service cards in the fall 2016 semester.

may formal and non-formal education opportunities be expanded out of schools or within communities, for example through flexible learning initiatives and new technologies? How to ensure the quality of formal and non-formal education in emergency situations when the inflow of refugees or forced migrants increases rapidly? How to certify the credentials of education providers in crisis setting? How can teachers and students be supported in such situations? To what extent and how can actions and funding initiatives by different stakeholders in education and forced migration be better coordinated?

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

The two remaining sections concern subjects applicable to links between migration and access and quality in education, as considered above. It is convenient to treat them as cross-cutting issues rather than raise them within each section.

C. IN WHAT WAYS DO POLICIES FOCUSING ON EDUCATIONAL EQUITY AND INCLUSIVENESS IMPROVE EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES AMONG MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES?

Designing inclusive education systems is essential for people of all backgrounds to succeed. This is even more important for migrants who may confront additional difficulties adapting to the new culture, values and realities of receiving societies. ‘Leaving them behind’ may substantially affect their chances and opportunities to realize their potential and make it more likely they face different implicit and explicit forms of exclusion and segregation. Improving equity in education is, therefore, a policy priority on the international agenda as countries strive towards more inclusive societies.

THE DESIGN OF EDUCATION AND LEARNING SYSTEMS AND POLICIES

The ability of education systems and policies to address the socio-economic disadvantages and cultural and linguistic barriers experienced by migrants and their children – at all levels, at all ages, over lifetimes and across generations – has clear implications for the 2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development. The extent to which schools and teachers in both sending and receiving countries succeed in accommodating diversity and developing curricula that incorporates language support and multicultural approaches for teachers and students is important in this respect.

The GEM Report would like to interrogate these issues. To what extent does monitoring of intercultural education initiatives, including effective outcomes, occur in practice? To what extent does training in and out of the workplace allow migrants to overcome language barriers? To what extent do curricula accommodate for the needs of migrant students -- for example, in terms of language support or multicultural pedagogy? To what extent are teachers acquiring knowledge and skills to provide intercultural education? To what extent are parents and caregivers involved and supported in the learning processes?

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Relatively few studies focus early childhood education and care specifically for immigrant children. Spiess, Buchel and Wagner (2003) highlighted that immigrant children in Germany who attended kindergarten were much more likely to be enrolled in higher secondary education [19]. The extent to which such programmes are promoted in less developed areas (e.g. for children of internal migrants moving from rural to urban destinations or engaged in South–South migratory flows) may help to break the cycle of disadvantages. By contrast, such programmes that benefit only some migrants in some destination countries may perpetuate inequalities in both sending and receiving countries.

In this respect, it would be interesting to raise the following questions. How many children with a migrant background are enrolled in such programmes compared to native children? To what extent are family caregivers and parents integrated into the child's learning?

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

The proportion of students in private schools varies across countries. In principle, schools should not discriminate on the grounds of migrant and other background characteristics, but various studies suggest that this is effectively not the case. Private schools may charge extra fees for uniforms, extracurricular activities, catering, reading materials, etc., which the most vulnerable, among whom many migrants number, can seldom afford. This is an issue for more and less developed countries alike. In fact, the changing nature and direction of migration has opened opportunities for for-profit schools, even in countries or regions where they previously did not exist. For example, an estimated 70% of migrant children in Beijing attend migrant private schools whose tuition fees are lower than public schools charge students who are 'out of their district'.

Migrants attending private schools raises several questions the GEM Report would like to address. How does segregation of migrants in particular schools affect the quality of their education? If tuition fees are lower in private than in public schools, are such schools ghettoizing education? If so, what is the impact on student performance and expectations? By contrast, to what extent are private schools forming elites of migrant students in the South (e.g. sub-Saharan Africa) and creating a two-track education system that leaves the most vulnerable behind? Does this mobility depend on other informal education channels? Which social networks and resources are mobilized?

D. IN WHAT WAYS CAN THE VOICES OF MIGRANTS IMPROVE OUR UNDERSTANDING OF MIGRATION AND EDUCATION?

For migrants, migration is also a subjective process, which often raises questions about long-held beliefs, values, customs and worldviews. Listening to their voices may help to better understand how migration may enhance education and vice versa.

SELF-IDENTIFICATION AND BELONGING

Many individuals defined as migrants by international convention do not consider themselves as such, or the reverse may be true. The ways migrants see themselves and their attitudes towards their host societies may play a crucial role in their process of adaptation and integration. This holds for first generation immigrants and even more so for their offspring. Studies also report that education plays a crucial role in this process. Identification with receiving countries may also depend on the age at which people move. Adult immigrants generally forge their identity in their country of origin. The literature on these issues is relatively scarce and tends to be based on narratives of migrants' experiences, which indicate a variety of factors influencing migrant self-identification. For example, teenagers interviewed in a study on young Albanians immigrants in Greece define themselves through non-ethnic identity traits and their hobbies. A study for Germany reports that characteristics such as religion and education are important but play different roles by gender.

It would be interesting, therefore, to address some of the following questions in the GEM Report. What factors influence self-identification as migrants and with what impacts on education? Does the extent to which migrants feel accepted or isolated change according to their education level, or is it affected by access to certain types of education, schools and programmes? Does the way migrants see themselves affect acceptance in host societies and their chances of learning new cultures, habits and values? Does the way host societies see migrants affect how migrants see themselves or their sense of belonging? Is there any evidence of effects of pedagogy and materials that directly benefit migrant youth (and adults pursuing education and training in host countries) and help to promote perceptions and values useful to building inclusive societies in host and home countries? What

are the main educational challenges migrants face when they settle in a new community or country? How do the receiving countries contribute in practice to their integration into education institutions and the development of their sense of belonging (see for example evidence on Japanese migrants in Brazil)?

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

International evidence suggests that educational performance is typically lower for immigrants compared to their native peers, despite their relatively high educational aspirations and expectations. In some contexts, educational aspirations may play an important role in influencing student behaviour in school and in communities, which in turn affects educational performance.

Many scholars have explored theoretical explanations for this achievement–aspiration paradox. According to Haller (1968), people have both idealistic and realistic educational aspirations [20]. The former mirror educational wishes irrespective of constraints; the latter take constraints, such as socio-economic background and norms, into account. Idealistic and realistic aspirations are affected mainly through four channels: immigration optimism (see, for example, Kao and Tienda, 1995 [21]); blocked opportunities (see, for example, Heath and Brinbaum, 2007 [22]; Jonsson and Rudolphi, 2011 [23]); information bias about educational systems and processes in host countries; and the influence of the educational attainment and status of peers. Only a few studies have attempted to determine empirically the reasons for the achievement–aspirations paradox. One recent study suggests that, despite their lower education achievement, Turkish immigrant students in Germany have higher aspirations than their native counterparts and that the gap is mainly related to their desire for upward mobility [24]. It will be informative to collect other evidence on this paradox in the GEM Report and explore linkages to migrant self-identification processes.

POLICY RELEVANCE AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

A significant aspect of the GEM Report’s purpose and mandate with respect to the global goal on education is to propose policy recommendations emerging from evidence-based research into aspects of global education. In posing questions and evaluating evidence on migration and education, the GEM Report will derive policy solutions that support the 2030 Agenda in a world increasingly tasked with bettering the migrant condition. Recommendations regarding education will form an important section of the GEM Report.

Without prejudging research results, the GEM Report anticipates policy recommendations to address the impact of international and internal migration. These would consider, for example, enhancing education options for people in their current residence; accommodating diversity in host destinations while boosting opportunities for return home; improving coordination of education policies between sending and receiving countries; building sustainable migration and education policies involving governments, local communities, civil society and humanitarian aid agencies; developing policies and practices that support tolerance and protect the right to education of forcibly displaced populations and internal migrants; addressing the education challenges and obstacles faced by migrants in ways that foster growth and development; and enhancing funding to improve existing infrastructure.

Provision and access to good quality education over the lifetime is nowhere more relevant than among vulnerable migrant populations seeking just the opportunities for better lives and more inclusive societies education affords. Equipped with the rights skills, values, competences and abilities, all people touched by migration in the context of education may realize their aspirations and their full potential in life and ultimately benefit from the migration experience.

For this to happen, a shared vision for a more effective educational environment for migrants should be created. This requires coordinated actions of all actors involved, including governments, local communities, civil society and humanitarian aid agencies. The extent to which migrant voices are heard informs the effort too. To advance in these areas also requires a broad dialogue on the issues of migration and education, avoiding the drawbacks of a narrow theme. This is the aim of the 2019 GEM Report on education and migration.

REFERENCES

The references can be downloaded at the following link: [https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/sites/gem-report/files/migration references.pdf](https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/sites/gem-report/files/migration%20references.pdf)