Human migration and TVET

Discussion paper

UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre

UNESCO-UNEVOC is a key component of UNESCO's international programme on technical and vocational education and training and supports UNESCO Member States by strengthening partnership, capacity development, and knowledge sharing and development. This is done in collaboration with the UNEVOC Network, a global platform of TVET institutions.

University of Nottingham, Centre for International Education Research

The Centre for International Education Research is one of six research centres in the School of Education, University of Nottingham. Its research focuses on the current and historical role of higher, adult and vocational education in promoting human development, and the place of education in the global development agenda. The Centre has been a member of the UNEVOC Network since 2015.

The following discussion paper has been prepared in the context of UNESCO-UNEVOC's Bridging Innovation and Learning in TVET (BILT) project. The BILT project seeks to support TVET institutions in addressing the transformation challenges facing TVET systems today, and to explore innovative approaches and new practices.

The BILT Project is carried out in collaboration with the UNEVOC Network, coordinated by UNESCO-UNEVOC with the support of the German Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training (BIBB) and sponsored by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF).

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In the context of increased international migration, the importance of education and training and a global governance of migration is widely acknowledged in academic and international development debates.

However, immigration debates and the governance of migration are plagued with divisions and disagreements regarding the benefits and the costs of migration for migrants, origin and host countries. Although some are of the view that migration needs to be prevented, others note the need to better manage migration to minimise the costs while maximizing the benefits. Irrespective of these arguments, migration will continue to be prominent with increased conflicts, natural disasters, strained economies and development. An analysis of the relationship between migration and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is therefore needed to enhance the role that TVET can play in mitigating the causes and tackling the effects of migration.

The first part of this discussion paper describes the scale of migration and distinguishes between three types of migration: forced, labour and environmental migration. The underlying causes of the three types of migration, in addition to the peculiar issues that pertain to each are analysed. The main findings in this section are:

- Migration is multi-causal and needs to be addressed holistically. However, an understanding of the drivers pertaining to each type of migration is necessary to comprehend the role of TVET.

- The refugee population has increased by about 65% in the last 5 years and by the end of 2016 the number of refugees reached 22.5 million. The majority of refugees reside in developing countries which adds pressure to already strained public systems.

- Quantifying the scale of irregular migrants is a challenge conceptually and methodologically. This hinders their support and protection by states and international humanitarian agencies.

- An estimated 2.8 million asylum seekers are awaiting decision. With some exceptions, most host countries do not grant asylum seekers access to education or the right to work until their status is confirmed.

- Increased changes in the biophysical environment have the potential to drive irregular internal and international migration. Therefore, international agreement on the definition and recognition of environmental migrants is necessary to estimate the scale of those affected and to address their needs.

- Labour migrants constitute the majority of international migrants. In 2013, they numbered about 150 million, slightly below two-thirds of the total number of international migrants, which was 232 million. While this presents an opportunity for countries with aging populations, it raises implications for TVET and the recognition of skills.

The second part of this discussion paper describes some of the consequences of migration for migrants, host and origin countries. It concludes that migrants are bound by barriers that result from their migrant status. Mental health challenges, legal constraints, education and training obstacles and labour market barriers are discussed. In addition, the implications of migration for TVET and its organization in host and home countries are outlined. The main findings are:

· The recognition of prior learning and the articulation of qualifications across national systems is a mechanism for facilitating migration. Developing stronger international mechanisms, but also deepening cross-system understanding is essential, as is the ability to offer flexible courses that address specific gaps.

· The mental health of migrants is important for their education, training and social integration, although support for this is limited in refugee camps and educational institutions where they are mostly concentrated.

· More funding is needed to provide adequate teacher training and support for providers who are often overwhelmed by the increased responsibility associated with migration.

· While it is often taken for granted that teachers will be able to handle diverse students, it is found that they often lack understanding of intercultural education.

· Vocational education and training opportunities for adult migrants in current dual-track TVET systems are limited.

· Quality general language support for migrants is vital. However, TVET institutions and skills development programmes need to develop packages aimed at accelerating the vocational language proficiency of migrants to facilitate their entry into labour markets.

· Increased diversity resulting from international migration requires TVET curricula to incorporate intercultural modules that emphasize awareness of diversity, inclusion and cultural competences.

· Good career guidance is essential to enable migrants to navigate unfamiliar labour markets and education and training systems of host countries.

The final section of the report proposes a few key areas where the UNEVOC Network can begin to collaborate.

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Introduction

Migration is as old as human society and has been central to development. In recent times, it has reached unprecedented levels and consequently receives enormous attention from policy-makers, academics and the general public. It is central to the global development debate and important for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. On the one hand, its global importance originates from the social, political and economic benefits it has for individuals, their host and home countries. On the other hand, migration that is not orderly, safe, and regular negatively impacts human and social development. It is for this reason that migration and the needs of migrants feature prominently in the Sustainable Development Goals.

The trends, scale and dimensions of migration are constantly changing. Increased conflicts, climate change and economic crisis in some developing countries have led to many forced displacements and voluntary migration. Also, internationalization of higher education and freedom of movement within blocs such as the European Union facilitate voluntary migration in the region. In 2015, it was estimated that about one in every thirty people was a migrant (International Organization for Migration, 2017). This estimate excludes the millions who are internally displaced by conflicts and disasters within their country's borders or voluntarily move within countries for a range of reasons. These migration trends have implications for the migrants as well as the origin

and host countries. Most importantly for purposes of this discussion, it challenges vocational education and training systems to respond either to mitigate the causes of migration or facilitate the integration of migrants into host economies. Analyses of the causes of different types of migration and their consequences is useful to understand the role of TVET and this is the approach that this discussion paper takes.

The discussion paper reviews three types of migration, namely forced, labour and environmental migration. It then analyses its consequences for migrants, host and origin countries. It identifies the implications that these forms of migration have for different aspects of the TVET system including the recognition of skills, teacher education and curricula. The rest of the report proceeds as follows: section one briefly outlines the methodology and presents a conceptual framework for understanding the reasons for international migration. After that, brief overviews of displacement and international migration trends are presented. The third section clarifies important terminologies under forced, environmental and labour migration and reports on the scale of these migrations. The fourth section discusses the consequences that migration has for mirgrants, origin and host countries. The last section identifies the implications of the consequences and causes of migration for TVET and suggests some areas for further elaboration within the UNEVOC Network.

Methodology and conceptual framework

This discussion paper was commissioned by UNESCO-UNEVOC in order to provide a basis for discussion on migration and TVET and how the UNEVOC Network and individual UNEVOC Centres might begin to respond to the challenges that migration generates. The discussion paper is based primarily on a review of literature on migration generally, and the limited literature on TVET and migration and migrants. The literature in this field is wide ranging as the issue of migration is dealt with across many disciplines in the social sciences. This poses some challenges as the concepts and theories used in the different disciplines vary. It was thus necessary to spend some time trying to first understand the dimensions and scale of migration and clarify differences.

The education specific literature tends to be unpublished or grey literature with many useful reports being available directly from international agencies, non-governmental organizations and government departments. This literature was also reviewed.

Early versions of the concept paper were workshopped with the European cluster of the UNEVOC Network in March 2018 and again in the UNESCO-UNEVOC Learning Forum with a wider grouping in May 2018. Feedback from those workshops was incorporated into the report. In addition, suggestions and contributions were solicited through UNESCO-UNEVOC's online platform, the TVeT Forum, which resulted in additional input. Final drafts were sent for comment and versions of the paper have been presented at academic conferences such as the VETNET stream of the European Conference on Educational Research in September 2018.

Defining Migration

Migration is the movement of people from one place to another. It is classified into different types depending on: (a) destination (internal and international); (b) duration (seasonal, medium-term and permanent migration); (c) reasons (e.g. climate change, economic and political); and

(d) choice (forced or voluntary) (Waldinger, 2015, p. 5). This report focuses on international migration and emphasises three types of migration based on the reasons for migrating. These are forced migration, environmental migration and labour migration. A distinction has been made between the different types of migration because the underlying causes and consequences for each of these types raise specific issues for TVET. However, as will be seen in the discussion, the distinctions and consequences are not always clearly distinguishable.

In academic literature, there are different theories that explain the causes of migration. Some of these include the neoclassical macro and micro migration theories, dual labour market theory, push and pull factors and social capital theory (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). These theories are developed and used in different disciplines, mainly economics, politics, sociology and geography. While they enable detailed analyses of specific aspects of migration, this discussion paper adopts a simple categorization of these theories to explain the multi-causal nature of international migration. It adapts Faist's (2000) classification of the three levels on which migration theories function; these are macro, meso and micro levels. The extent to which they help explain the reasons behind forced, environmental and labour migration is discussed below and represented in Figure 1.

Macro-level theories

Macro-level theories mainly focus on the structural factors at the national level or world system that influence the movement of people across borders (Boswell, 2002; Faist, 2000). These factors act to either pull people to destination countries or push them from their origin countries (ibid.). Examples include economic factors such as employment opportunities or labour demand in host countries, and

political factors such as conflict and persecution in origin countries that force people to move to more peaceful and secure destinations. Structural factors also include environmental factors such as disasters and hazards, and social factors such as education and family.

Micro-level theories

Micro-level theories explain migration from the level of individuals (Faist, 2000). They attribute the decision to migrate to individual rationalization of the benefits and costs perceived. Characteristics of individuals that influence their ability to move are also emphasized (ibid.). However, analysis at this level also takes into consideration forced decisions taken on behalf of individuals (ibid.). Examples of micro factors that influence migration include age, education, gender, language, religion, wealth and marital status (Foresight, 2011).

Meso-level theories

Meso-level theories bridge the macro and micro theories of migration, to make up for gaps in the decision to migrate. They focus on the relational dimension of migration. These are the 'social and symbolic ties among movers and groups and the resources inherent in these relations' (Faist, 2000, p. 31). An example of such resource is social capital, which is the networks that people draw from (ibid). These networks and resources pertain to both origin and host countries. However, in the absence of social ties, other institutions like recruitment agencies and smugglers play the role of facilitating migrants' journeys or employment outcomes in destination countries (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). Meso-level theories also provide explanations for the perpetuation of migration (Faist, 2000) and in-depth views of enabling circumstances which then influence system feedback (Richmond, 1993). Nowadays,

Figure 1. Factors involved in migration decisions
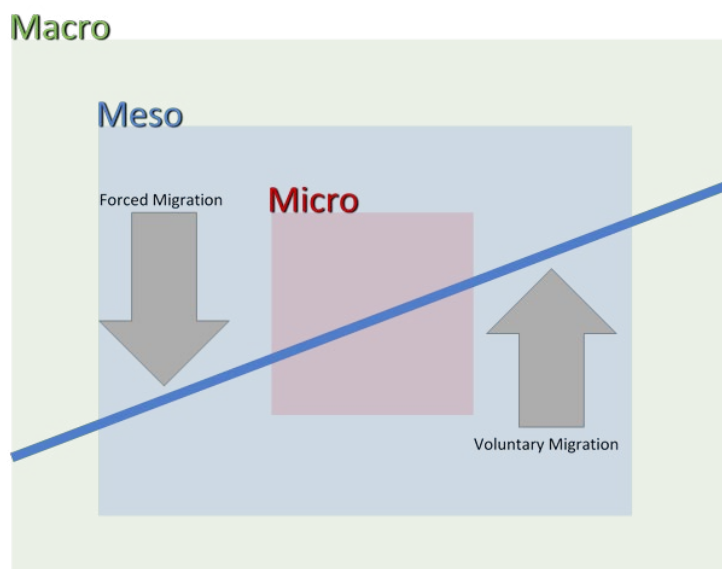
Adapted from Faist (2000)

the latter can be seen in government policies toward certain refugee nationalities. An example is the United Kingdom Syrian resettlement scheme (Home Office, 2017) which - due to the severity of the conflict in Syria - favours Syrian refugees over others. System feedback can be explained as the response of receiving countries to increased levels of migration that is perceived to threaten their stability (Richmond, 1993, p. 17). These responses range from immigration policies that seek to regulate the flow of migrants or policies that attempt to tackle the root cause of migration (ibid.).

It is important to note that theories or factors at the macro, meso and micro levels are useful in explaining aspects of the decision to migrate. Distinctively, each of them do not adequately explain the multiplicity of factors that characterize forced, labour and environmental migration. However, they are complementary (Faist, 2000, p. 34). Figure 1 represents the different factors explained above and how these intersect to drive the forms of migration discussed in this report.

In Figure 1, the diagonal represents a continuum along which migration could be voluntary or forced, that is the degree of autonomy or freedom within which individuals act (Faist, 2000, p. 30). This degree of freedom or autonomy derives from both micro, meso and macro factors. In the case of political migrants, structural factors such as conflicts or persecution push them to migrate from their origin countries. However, the decision to move, stay or the final destination to settle, is driven by other micro factors such as gender, marital status and education. Also, meso factors such as household characteristics, networks and immigration policies in destination countries influence where they settle. For forced migrants, macro factors play a major role in the decision to

migrate, however meso and micro factors are major influences on the destination choice. The decision to leave is complicated but most factors identified are conflict, age, gender and daily uncertainties regarding life and the future. Many of those who arrive in refugee camps take journeys further by sea or through other routes to seek livelihoods in more developed countries where employment or welfare support is available compared to residing in camps in neighbouring countries with a continuous uncertain future (Crawley et al., 2016).

Furthermore, environmental factors such as disasters do not necessarily mean that migration will occur (Foresight, 2011). Other micro and meso factors come into play. These micro and meso factors act as facilitators or inhibitors in a decision to migrate. On the other hand, environmental changes could itself inhibit migration, and hence create trapped populations (ibid.). It is important to note that migration that results from the interrelationship between environmental factors and the other macro and meso factors as explained in the conceptual framework pertain to voluntary migration, which is different from disaster displacement. In disaster displacement, individuals do not have the freedom to make decisions whereas environmental migration occurs when individuals voluntarily decide to move due to the intersection of environmental changes with other macro, micro and meso factors.

Regarding labour migration, the literature concurs that mainly macro factors such as wage differentials and differences in employment opportunities between origin and host countries drive migration (Mansoor & Quillin, 2006). But other meso and micro factors play a role in the choice of destination.
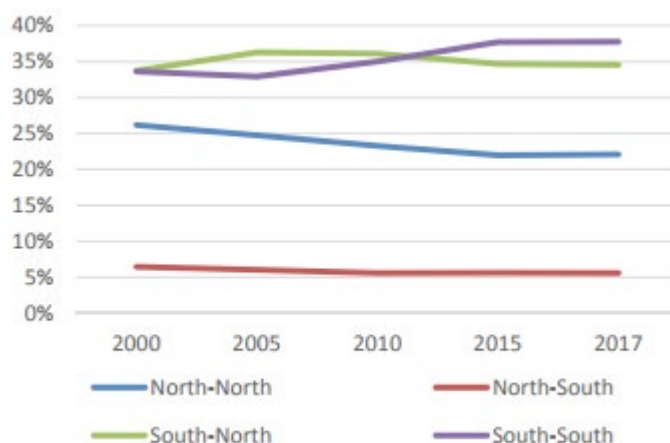
Trends in international migration

The scale and trend of international migration is constantly changing and improved data on migration is necessary to understand its importance and debunk false representations on the issue. In the absence of quality data, coupled with the complexity of defining migrants, national and international efforts at tackling migration, its causes and the issues associated with it becomes challenging.

Available data shows that the stock of international migrants rose vastly to 258 million in 2017, compared to about 150 million in 1990 (International Organization for Migration, 2017). This stock comprises refugees and asylum seekers, labour migrants and their families. The large numbers of international migrants have attracted the attention of the global community although it represents only 3.3% of the total global population (ibid.). This attention emanates from the benefits that orderly, safe and regular migration has for migrants, their home and host countries. Also, it relates to the negative consequences that result from precarious migration.

In 2017, out of a total number of international migrants, more than one-third (38%) moved within developing countries (South to South migration). Thirty-five percent moved from South to North, 20% migrated from North to North, while 6% moved from North to South (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division [UNDESA-PD], 2017, p. 2). This data is represented in Figure 2. Two-thirds of the estimated number of international migrants in 2017 originated from Europe or Asia, but most of the migration was intra-regional (ibid.). This shows that contrary to perceptions of the predominance of South to North migration, the largest migrant groups move from developing countries to other developing countries.

Figure 3 shows that 52% of international migrants in 2015 were male compared to 48% who were female. It also shows that 72% of international migrants were of working age. This high percentage of working age migrants presents opportunities for both origin and host countries if harnessed properly.

Figure 2. Distribution of international migrants by development group at origin and destination, 2000-2017

Source: UNDESA-PD

Figure 3. International migrants out of the global population
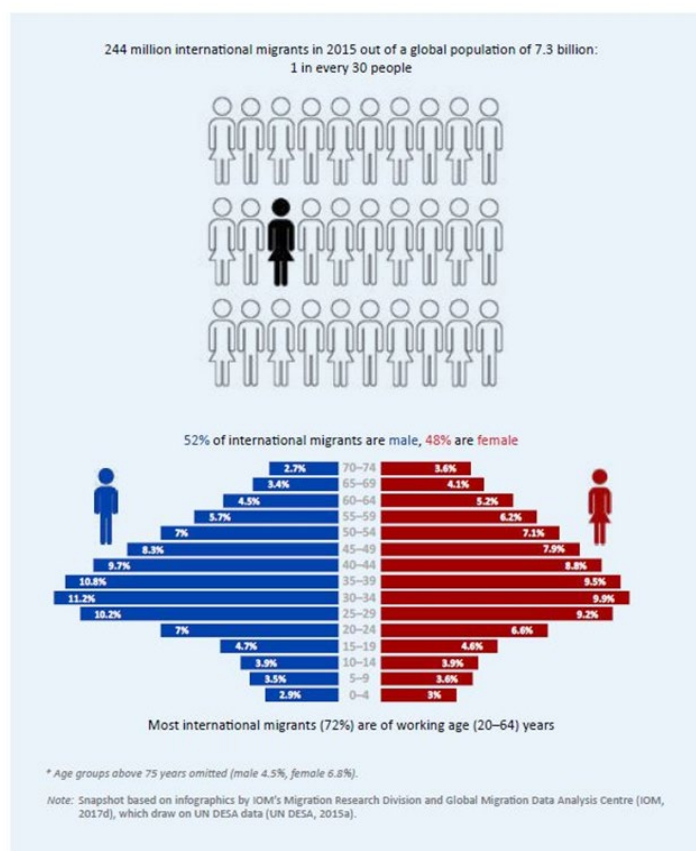
Source: International Organization for Migration (2017)

Figure 4. Twenty countries hosting the largest numbers of international migrants,
2000 and 2017 [numbers of migrants (millions)]
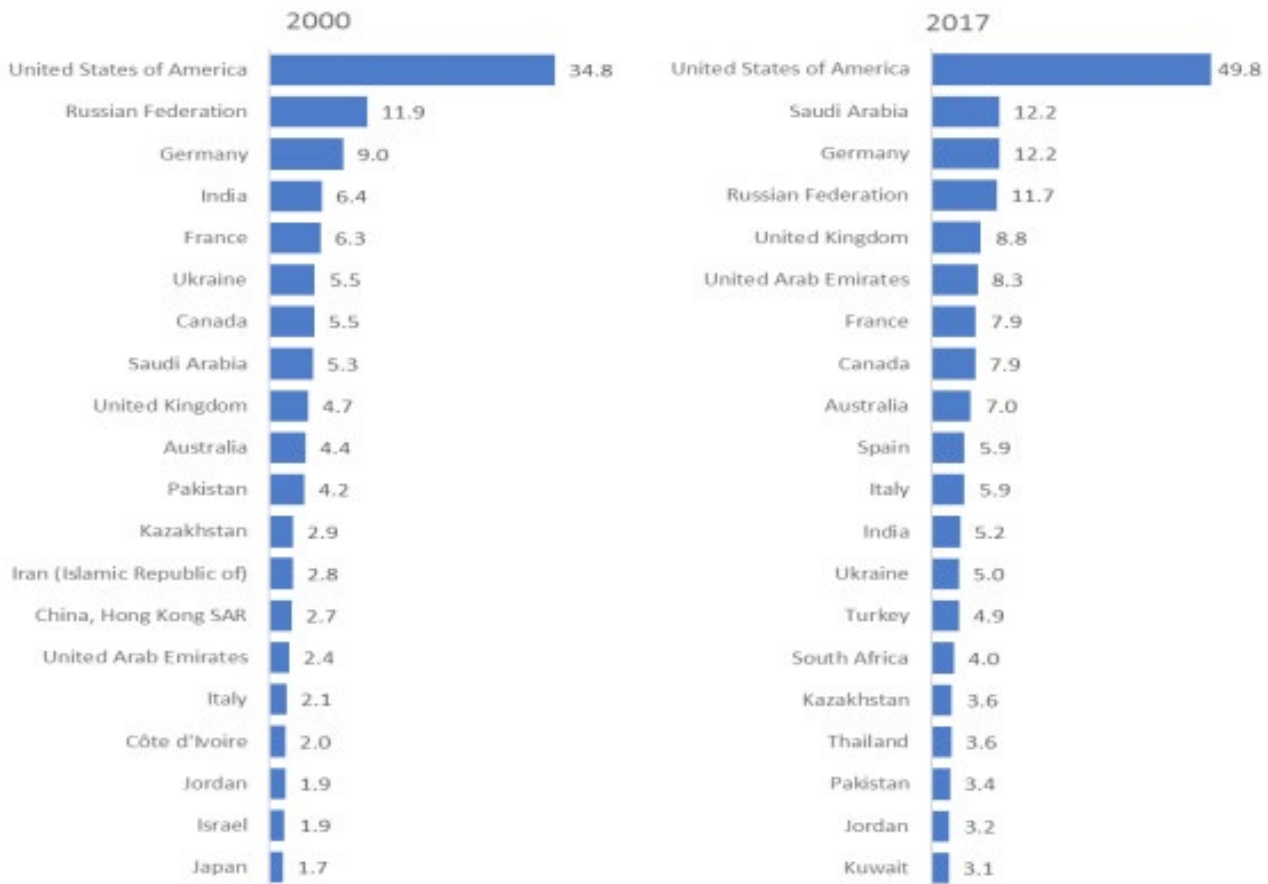
Source: UNDESA-PD (2017)

The international migration pattern shows an uneven distribution of international migrants by destination. In 2017, out of the total number of migrants, 49.8 million migrants resided in the United States of America, representing 19% of the world's total migrant population (UNDESA-PD 2017, pp 2-3). Saudi Arabia and Germany had the second largest migrant populations and hosted 12.2 million international migrants. This data is represented in Figure 4.

Types of international migration

Forced Migration

The term 'forced migration' is far from clear as it is used to describe irregular migrants, refugees, asylum seekers and stateless people. As was illustrated with Figure 1, the reasons for forced migration are complex, although political factors such as conflicts or insecurity, persecution or discrimination usually underlie such movements. This section will distinguish the different groups of forced migrants. The differentiation is necessary as these pose distinct implications for TVET.

Irregular Migrants

There is no universally accepted definition of irregular migrants (International Organization for Migration, 2016). Under the umbrella of irregular migrants, the literature includes human trafficking victims and undocumented migrants. This makes it very difficult to quantify the number of irregular migrants and different sources publish estimates that vary greatly. The limitation of enumerating irregular migrants is both conceptual and methodological (Koser, 2009). Thus, it is important to develop an understanding of the concept in a way that recognizes the differences within the group to distinguish their needs. Data collected on this category of migrants often come from arrests or employment and does not differentiate between stock and flow (ibid.).

Many refugees and asylum seekers resort to irregular migration to cross borders, making it increasingly difficult to distinguish them. Concerns about the accuracy of quantitative data on migrants are echoed in the literature (Clarke et al., 2003; Koser, 2009). Further research is needed to better understand the impact of irregular migration on individuals in order to identify ways in which they can be protected and supported.
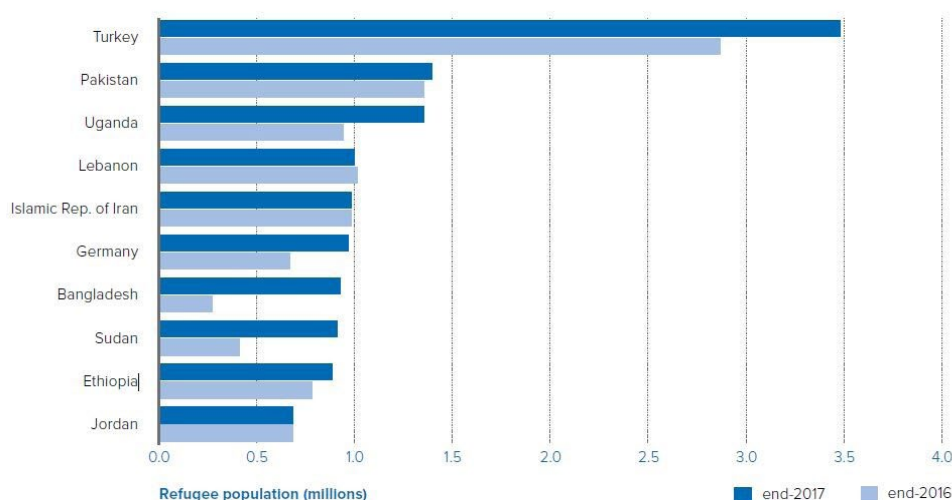
Refugees

The term refugee is defined by the 1951 United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees as individuals who:

> owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees [UNHCR], 2010).

By the end of 2017, the total global refugee population reached 25.4 million (UNHCR, 2018). A large proportion of refugees reside in developing countries. The figure below shows that out of the top ten countries hosting refugees, Germany is the only developed country (United Nations Statistics Division, 2018). Figure 5 ranks the major refugee-hosting countries globally. At the end of 2017, Turkey remains the country registering the largest number of refugees. Turkey has hosted 3.5 million refugees compared to 2.6 million hosted in the whole of Europe, of which 970,400 are in Germany (UNHCR,2018). Figure 5 also highlights the recent dramatic increase in numbers of refugees in Bangladesh which almost tripled compared to 2016, the previous year.

Figure 5. Major refugee-hosting countries

Source: UNHCR (2018)

The number of recognized refugees has increased by an estimate of 65% in the last five years (UNHCR, 2017). More importantly, the number of new refugees in 2017 has almost doubled compared to 2016 (UNHCR, 2018). The major source countries of registered refugees are illustrated in Figure 6.

In 2017, the number of refugees returning to their countries has increased to reach 667,400, compared with 552,000 in 2016 (UNHCR, 2018). Nevertheless, on average 44,400 newly displaced individuals every day have been registered (ibid.), which makes the number of returned refugees a very small proportion.

Asylum seekers

Asylum seekers are those waiting for a decision to be legally identified as refugees (UNHCR, 2015). The numbers of asylum seekers pending decision are 2.8 million worldwide (UNHCR, 2017). Asylum seekers are subject to more legal constraints compared to refugees, especially with respect to accessing work, education or training. The average waiting time for a decision on an asylum claim varies from one country to another. For example, in the United Kingdom, more than 50% of asylum claimants wait more than six months for a decision (Doyle & O'Toole, 2013) and in some cases asylum seekers wait ten years for a decision (Chadderton & Edmonds, 2015). Germany continues to be the largest recipient of asylum claims. Figure 7 includes the main countries who received asylum claims between 2008 until 2017 (UNHCR, 2018).

Statelessness

Perhaps the most challenging group of forced migrants are those under the UNHCR statelessness mandate. These individuals are not nationals of any state, and it is therefore very difficult to identify stateless people and report on the scale of this phenomena. National and international protocols related to migrants assume statehood, and stateless people become unaccounted. The UNHCR has launched an action plan to end statelessness through a framework that aims to develop a collection of quantitative and qualitative data on statelessness (UNHCR, 2017).

Figure 6. Major source countries of refugees
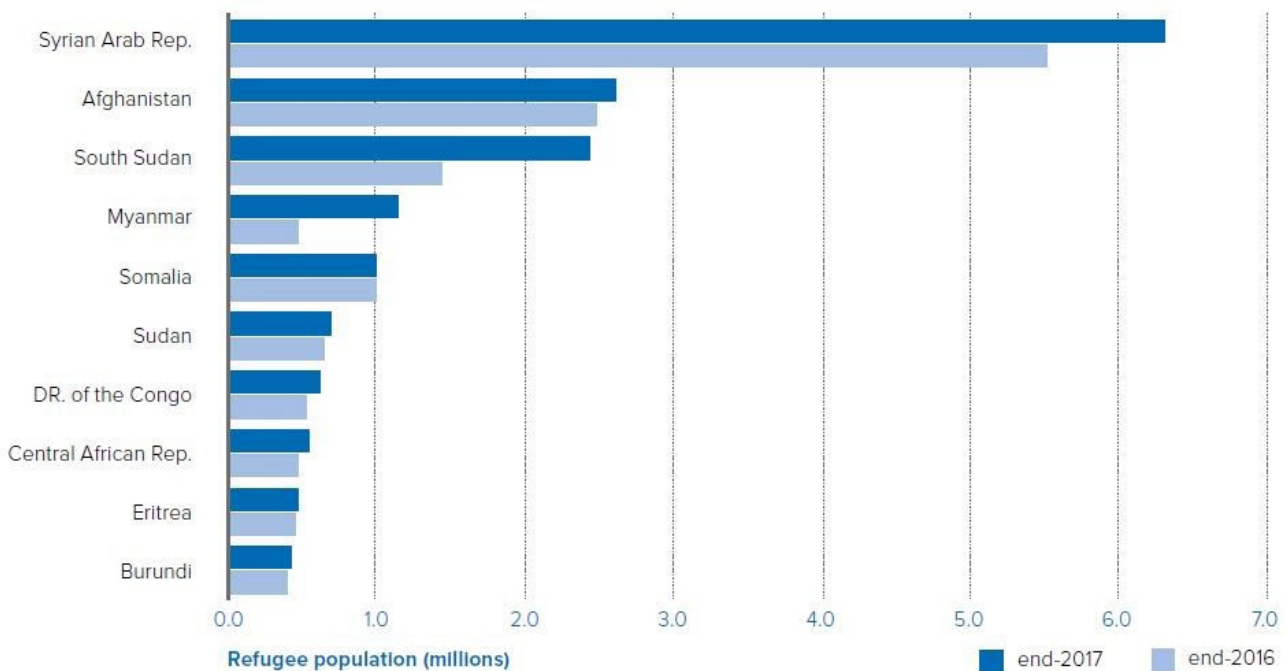
Source: UNHCR (2018)

Figure 7. Major destination countries of refugees

	'08	'09	'10	'11	'12	'13	'14	'15	'16	'17
Australia	7.3	8.4	11.0	15.4	20.1	16.0	15.2	16.1	33.5	36.2
Austria	12.8	15.8	11.0	14.4	17.4	17.5	25.7	85.8	39.9	22.5
Belgium	12.3	17.2	33.1	26.0	18.5	12.5	13.9	39.1	14.7	14.0
Canada	34.8	34.0	22.5	25.0	20.2	10.4	13.7	16.6	23.6	47.8
France	35.4	72.7	48.1	89.3	55.1	60.2	59.0	74.2	78.4	93.0
Germany	22.1	27.8	48.6	45.7	64.5	109.6	173.1	441.9	722.4	198.3
Greece	19.9	15.9	10.3	15.3	9.6	8.2	9.4	11.4	49.8	57.0
Italy	30.3	17.6	10.1	40.4	17.4	25.7	63.7	83.2	123.0	126.5
Malaysia	17.0	40.1	26.0	15.7	20.2	54.3	25.7	22.1	20.1	23.7
South Africa	207.2	222.3	180.6	106.9	82.1	70.0	71.9	62.2	35.4	24.2
Sweden	40.5	24.2	45.1	43.8	43.9	54.3	75.1	156.4	22.4	21.5
Turkey	13.7	8.9	9.2	16.0	26.5	44.8	87.8	133.3	78.6	126.1
Uganda	13.6	20.4	15.5	12.7	14.4	18.8	32.4	35.9	30.3	57.3
United Kingdom	33.8	30.7	22.6	25.9	28.0	29.9	32.3	38.9	38.5	33.5
United Rep. of Tanzania	0.0	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	1.0	1.7	6.7	36.5
United States of America*	49.6	47.9	54.3	76.0	70.7	84.4	121.3	172.7	262.0	331.7

Legend: >300 | 101-300 | 51-100 | 21-50 | 0-20

* Cases are multiplied by average number of persons per case.

Source: UNHCR (2017)

Labour migration

Labour migration is the cross-border movement of people seeking employment (International Organization for Migration, 2004) and a migrant worker is defined as a 'person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a national' (UNESCO, 2005, p. 25). As already mentioned in the introduction, labour migration dominates international migration. In 2013, the number of migrant workers reached 150.3 million, slightly below two-thirds of the total number of international migrants, which was 232 million (International Labour Organization, 2017, p. 28).

The labour shortage in oil rich countries increased the percentage of international migrants, who are estimated to reach 88% of the population in United Arab Emirates and over 70% in both Qatar and Kuwait (International Organization for Migration, 2017). The percentage of low skilled domestic and construction migrant workers is estimated at 95% in Gulf cooperation council countries (International Labour Organization, n.d.). While the majority of migrant workers voluntarily migrate, many are considered victims of forced labour migration (ibid.). Also, foreign labour government policies in Gulf cooperation council countries over the years have enforced discriminatory laws on labour migrants rendering them vulnerable. In Kuwait for example, these migrant workers are paid low wages and often live in work camps in remote locations with restrictions on bringing family members (Humphrey, Charbit, & Palat, 1991). Female migration is often on the side-line although estimates from 2015 show that 48% of migrant workers are women and they constitute 73.4% of all domestic workers (International Labour Organization, 2015, p. 201).

Figure 8. Migrant workers by gender and income level of destination country

	Low income			Lower middle income			Upper middle income			High income			Global Total		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Migrant workers (millions)	1.8	1.8	3.5	9.4	7.5	16.9	10.4	7.2	17.5	62.1	50.1	112.3	83.7	66.6	150.3
As a proportion of all migrant workers (%)	1.2	1.2	2.4	6.3	5.0	11.2	6.9	4.8	11.6	41.3	33.3	74.7	55.7	44.3	100

Source: International Organization for Migration (2017)

Figure 8 shows that in 2013, males constituted about 83 million of the total migrant workers, while females constituted about 55 million of the total. Over 112 million migrant workers resided in high-income countries, with 34.4 million in middle-income countries. Only 3.5 million migrant workers were in low-income countries (International Organization for Migration, 2017).

Disaggregating the share of migrant workers by sector shows that 106.8 million migrants worked in services (International Organization for Migration, 2017). 26.7 million worked in manufacturing and construction, while 16.7 million worked in agriculture (ibid.). Also in 2013, migrant domestic workers constituted 11.5 million. Out of this figure, more than 8 million were female (ibid.). Most of these migrant workers resided in high-income countries (ibid.).

The supply of migrants presents opportunities for countries with shortages of labour and aging populations. For example, the European labour supply is projected to fall to 9.2% between 2023 and 2060 which is equivalent to a shortage of about 14 million workers. The shortage is impacted by the aging European population (European Commission, 2015). However, these opportunities can be reaped when labour possesses the needed skills or when supply of labour meets demand.

Refugees and environmental migrants or displaced people are not classified as labour migrants. However, once they arrive in host countries or communities, their desire for employment add to the labour market pressure. Access to host countries' labour markets and education and training systems is particularly challenging for forced and environmental migrants due to the following difficulties:

· Administrative and legal barriers
· Labour market barriers
· Education and training barriers
· Cultural and social differences

(European Employment Policy Observatory, 2016)

Labour migrants also face obstacles in almost all the four dimensions above, although in different forms. These and further challenges that confront migrants due to their personal characteristics and external institutional arrangements are discussed in part two of this discussion paper. In addition, the implications that these consequences have for TVET as well as few examples of how some of these challenges have been addressed are discussed.

Environmental migration

There is no universally accepted definition of environmental migrants. In the academic and grey literature, terms such as 'environmental refugees' and 'climate change refugees' are used interchangeably to refer to persons who have moved from their homes as a result of changes in their environment (Dun & Gemenne, 2008). The International Organization for Migration's definition is often referenced in the literature due to its comprehensiveness. The International Organization for Migration defines environmental migrants as:

> 'persons or groups of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their homes or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad' (International Organization for Migration, 2008, p. 493).

This definition encompasses all the dimensions of environmental migration, namely; temporary, permanent, national or internal, and international migration. It also considers the reasons for environmental migration as comprising sudden changes in the environment resulting from sudden-onset events or disasters such as floods, earthquakes, typhoons, and progressive or what is referred to as slow-onset changes or events such as land degradation, rises in sea level, desertification. Lastly, the definition acknowledges that environmental migration can be forced or voluntary, depending on the threat to individuals' livelihoods and security. However, there are some issues in using this definition to understand environmental migration.

First, whereas it is comprehensive, it does not help to clarify the complex factors that influence people who move due to changes in their environment. This is because the definition considers the environment as the main factor for environmental migration, a view that is similar to claims espoused by 'alarmists'. Alarmists are those who view the environment as the main cause of environmental migration (ibid.). However, 'sceptics' argue that environmental migration is multi-causal, making it difficult to single out the environment as the only cause of migration (Foresight, 2011). This multi-causality is explained in the conceptual framework and demonstrated in Figure 1.

The difficulty in disassociating the environment from other drivers of migration as shown in Figure 1, contributes to the challenges in capturing data of environmental migrants and estimating the global scale. This is exacerbated by

the unavailability of instruments that capture the stock and movements of environmental migrants. Due to data limitations as well as methodological inconsistencies in estimations of the scale of environmental migrants, this discussion paper only provides information on the scale of internal displacement, mainly caused by disasters and this is shown in Figure 9. Within disaster displacement, Gemenne (2011) notes that estimates of people displaced as a result of sudden-onset disasters are less controversial compared to others that are predicted from slow-onset changes in the environment. The effects of slow-onset disasters such as droughts, land degradation and desertification take time to manifest and hence, the tendency for them to coincide with some other social and economic factors make it difficult to estimate movements resulting from these.

Figure 9. The global scale of displacement by disasters, 2008 - 2014
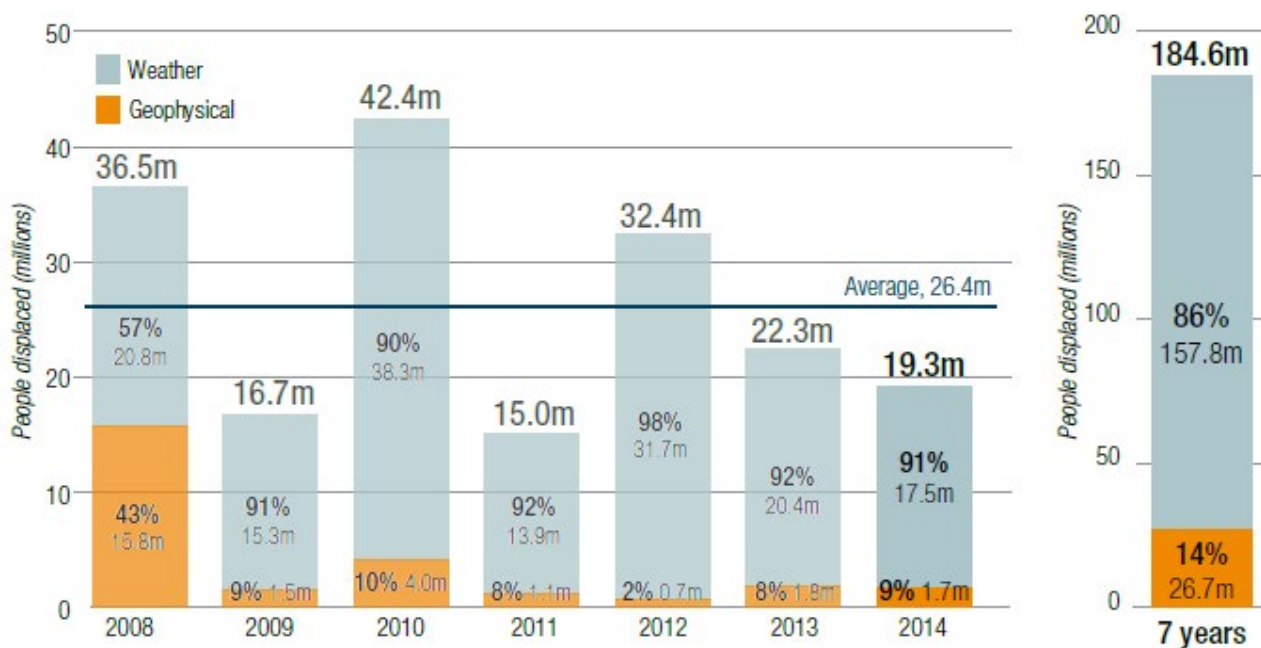
Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2015)

Internal displacement

Internal migration and displacement figures are not included in the international migration statistics. This is because internally displaced persons and internal migrants remain within their countries' borders. Internally displaced persons move within countries for the same reasons that international migrants move across borders. Forced internal displacement is a serious concern as internally displaced persons are amongst the most vulnerable people and their plight has grave consequences for human and sustainable development. Unlike refugees, internally displaced persons have no internationally recognized rights and are therefore dependent on their origin countries for protection. Also, internal displacement, if left unaddressed, could lead to irregular international migration. 2016 recorded an additional 31.1 million new displacements, 6.9 million displaced by conflict and 24.2 million by disasters (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre and Norwegian Refugee Council, 2017).

A clear distinction between two categories of displacement, namely conflict and disasters, is reflected in the quantitative data. However, it is increasingly difficult to differentiate due to the interdependent and multiple reasons behind the displacements (ibid.).

Figure 9 shows that most internal displacements were caused by weather related hazards as compared to geophysical hazards. Between 2008 and 2014, a total of 184.6 million people had been displaced globally by disasters. Out of this figure, 14% were caused by geophysical hazards, while 86% were caused by weather related hazards. A breakdown of the displacement by specific types of weather related and geophysical hazards are presented in Figure 10.

The challenges of internal displacement are far greater than the level of international attention extended to it. The number of internally displaced individuals is far greater than those internationally displaced; Figure 11 shows the trends of global displacements between 2007-2017.

Figure 12 shows the countries with the largest displaced population, the numbers include internally and internationally displaced individuals.

While working on solutions to support the livelihood of migrants, international and national

Figure 10. Countries with most people internally displaced by conflict and violence, as of 2016
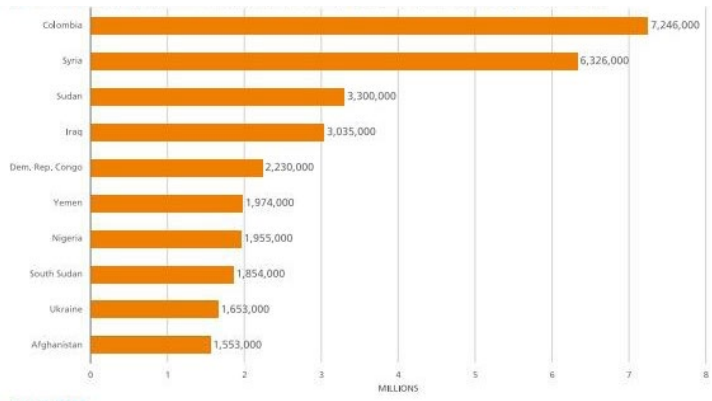
Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre and Norwegian Refugee Council (2017)

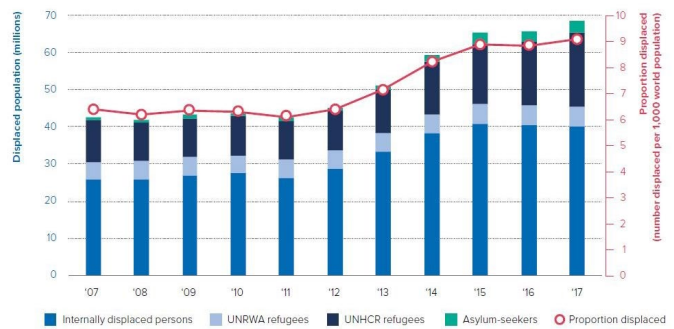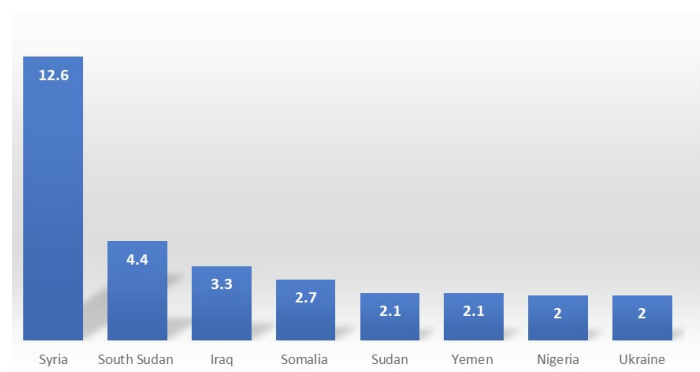Figure 11. Trends of global displacement and proportion displaced 2007-2017

Figure 12. Countries with the largest displaced population globally

Source: numbers from (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 2018)

agencies ought to consider internally displaced people, to ensure protection for those forced out of their homes. However, for purposes of this paper, the discussion will focus on international migration as the typical challenges to TVET systems do not arise in the same ways in relation to internally displaced persons.

Consequences of migration and its implications for TVET

The first part of this discussion paper discussed the nature and scale of migration and flagged important issues related to different types of migration and migrants. This section discusses the consequences of migration for migrants, home and host societies. In doing this, we do not discuss economic consequences to home and host countries such as labour market effects and economic growth, remittances and human capital losses or gains. This is due to the extensive literature available in this area. Rather this section focuses on the consequences of migration in relation to its implications for TVET and its delivery. The issues discussed are migrations' effects on migrants' mental health and well-being and challenges with migrants' labour market integration. In addition, variations in the legal and administrative framework of countries, as well as education and training systems and how these affect migrants are also discussed. Lastly the implications that these have for TVET in home and host countries are outlined and possible roles for the UNEVOC Clusters and Network are discussed.

Mental health and well-being challenges

The impact of migration on migrants' mental health and well-being is widely recognized (Lindert et al., 2009). However, the level of impact varies based on the type of migrant and multivariate factors that contribute to the decision to leave the country of origin (Figure 1). Forced migration and disaster displacement in particular leave individuals vulnerable to mental health problems. This is due to the macro factors that compel them to abandon their previous livelihoods, possessions, families and societies. In addition, the perilous journey many go through, coupled with financial, physical and emotional commitments involved in migration, also strain them (Aydin and Kaya, 2017). Furthermore, cultural, religious, and linguistic differences between home and host countries, as well as difficulties integrating into new environments can have psychosocial effects on all types of migrants. These problems challenge the capacity of TVET systems and teachers as well as relevant providers to adequately respond to the needs of migrants.

Administrative and legal barriers

There are many international legal instruments and conventions that exist to protect the rights of migrants and govern international migration. Some of these include the 1951 Refugee Convention, the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and

Members of their Families and the 2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons especially Women and Children (UNDESA-PD ,2013). However, not all countries have ratified these conventions and for those who have, variations exist in the way these are implemented. These variations consist of the period for reviewing asylum claims and the employment and education rights of asylum seekers and refugees. For example, although many asylum seekers are prohibited from working; countries such as Greece, Norway, Portugal, South Africa and Sweden grant asylum seekers the right to work as soon as they claim asylum. In the United Kingdom, asylum seekers wait twelve months to have the right to work, and in Ireland and Lithuania they have no access to the labour market at all until they are granted asylum and become refugees (European Employment Policy Observatory, 2016).

In Jordan and Kenya, many UNHCR recognized refugees are not allowed to leave refugee camps, whilst in Turkey, until January 2016, the government had allowed only Syrian refugees work permits to enter the labour market. It only issued 2000 work permits and those who found employment often faced exploitation and received low wages (Crawley et al., 2016). These examples show that despite some universal recognition of the rights of refugees and asylum seekers, the legal status extended to them is dependent on the host country. In most cases, the domestic politics of migration guide the national implementation of international conventions on the rights of migrants. However, challenges such as delays and errors on asylum applications are sometimes explained by the large numbers of applications vis-à-vis the administrative capacity of countries to deal with these. Aside from the politics and administrative challenges encountered by countries in handling migrants, the status of migrants also affect their recognition and treatment in host countries. For example, irregular migrants are denied access to human rights protection which contributes to their marginalization (Dembour & Kelly, 2011). This injustice is also experienced in attempts to access education and training in host countries as discussed below.

Education and training barriers

The transition into schools and access to education and training are major problems that migrants encounter in host societies, whether they are environmental, political or labour migrants. The circumstances that lead to forced migration mean that such migrants are sometimes not able to make

important decisions regarding their destination and education and training opportunities available in host countries. For forced migrants, documentation to prove previous education and training may not be available and this further complicates their integration into host societies.

Furthermore, different types of migrants encounter peculiar issues in accessing education and training in host countries. As highlighted earlier, variations in the implementation of international legal instruments and the lack of understanding of the rights of some groups of migrants is unhelpful. While most countries acknowledge the legal rights of undocumented migrants, some do not (Platform for International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants, 2012, p.2). It is argued that in some countries such as Hungary and Malta, the 'law states the right to education for children residing regularly, so implicitly excludes undocumented children' (ibid.). Although the rights of migrants to continuing vocational education and training is controversial, the lack of residency permits for undocumented migrants hinders their access to further education after completion of basic education (Platform for International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants, 2012, p. 3). Many forced migrants face educational segregation at an early age (Atanasoska and Proyer, 2018) and this segregation is often extended to other aspects of their lives. Therefore, recognizing that integration does not end with granting legal rights is essential for migrant's livelihood and empowerment.

Neighbouring countries to conflict affected areas host the majority of refugees, and hence are resource-constrained in integrating migrants fully in their education systems. In response to this, the non-governmental sector is playing a crucial role in filling the gap in education and training. It is however important to acknowledge that non-formal education provided by non-governmental organizations, businesses and corporate companies can be problematic. Concerns about such educational provision usually revolve around the ethics of motivation, limited coordination, and dominance of technology as well as lack of accountability. These constrain the benefits of such initiatives (Zakharia and Menashy, 2018). Nevertheless, there are examples of coordinated initiatives such as Kiron, an non-governmental organization led online university that has partnered with fifty-six global academic partners to achieve its aims to provide online courses for students in times of crisis to facilitate their access to higher education (Kiron, n.d.). In spite of the limitations associated with distance learning, such initiatives can be a step forward as they recognize the challenges associated with displacement and view its role as a pathway into formal higher education rather than a stand-alone education provider.

Additionally, features of education and training systems in host countries also impact on migrants' access to TVET and social integration (Konle-Seidl and Bolits, 2016). This is

the case of skills formation systems of some countries. For example in collective skill formation systems, entry into TVET is highly regulated, competitive and not easy for migrants with foreign education to access (Rietig, 2016). In cases where there are strong linkages between initial and continuing vocational education and training, as in the German system, deciding on the appropriate entry level for adult refugees or learners is challenging (Chadderton and Edmonds, 2015). Rietig (2016) further argues that employers may be reluctant to train adult learners as they 'see the VET system as a youth training system' (ibid., p. 6). But in the Netherlands, Desiderio (2016) notes that the 'emphasis on lifelong learning and non-linear education trajectories' (ibid., p. 27) makes the TVET system more responsive to the integration of foreigners.

Within liberal market economies where coordination among stakeholders is weak, variations exist within skill formation systems of countries under this classification, such as the United Kingdom and Australia. For example, the voluntarist nature of vocational education in the United Kingdom makes employers generally less committed towards training and especially for migrants. Chadderton and Edmonds (2015) state that, while the 'VET system is more flexible due to multiple providers and entry points, it is complex to navigate even for the indigenous population and more so for newcomers' (ibid., p. 144). These differences in TVET systems and difficulties that migrants may encounter in navigating these raise implications for TVET policy areas such as guidance.

It is important to realise that certain dimensions are key when considering developing policies for refugee education. Examples include the length of stay in the host countries and the intention to stay or return is almost never in the hands of refugees themselves, but it is decisive to the nature of education provided in host countries (Graham-Brown, 1991).

Labour market barriers

Economically, all types of migrants are more vulnerable in host countries. Their vulnerability stems from their education and training, language difficulties, administrative and legal constraints, initial unemployment or precarious employment. Migrants usually commit significant financial resources to their migration, with the hope of finding employment once they arrive in the host countries. However, the reality is often different from what was anticipated and this increases their financial or economic vulnerability. One of the problems they encounter in host societies is the lack of knowledge about employment opportunities, vacancies and how to search for employment, leading to initial unemployment (Cedefop, 2011, p. 10). Closely linked to information problems, are language barriers. Mostly, migrant workers, refugees, or environmental migrants are not proficient in the official language of their host communities and this increases the difficulties they face in looking for employment and making use of employment

agencies or services in host communities (Cedefop, 2011). Beyond the immediate need to be employed, language difficulties also affect the integration of migrant workers in their host communities and limit their accumulation of social capital and job-related information (ibid.). This problem applies to both skilled and unskilled migrants.

Another challenge that migrant workers face in host countries relate to undertaking unskilled jobs or being over-qualified for the work they take on. Cedefop (2011) report that this is a very common phenomenon in Europe. Migrants' employment decisions sometimes result from labour market restrictions and discrimination that they face in host countries, the lack of host-country working experience and skills mismatch. These lead to underutilization of their skills, with potential losses for them, their host and origin societies. Craw, Jefferys and Paraskevopoulou (2007) conducted a study of the skills needs of migrants in a borough in London, where they observed that a number of those who were professionals or had vocational qualifications from their home countries were found doing unskilled and low-paid jobs unrelated to their former trained occupations (ibid.). This results from the non-recognition of migrants' skills and the inadequate financial resources needed to undertake relevant training.

Occupational regulation is one of the characteristics of host-countries' labour markets that constrain migrants' integration. While these are high in some countries they are not in others. For example, in the European Union, licensing of occupations is high in Germany (33%) and other countries in Central Europe compared to 19% in the United Kingdom (Koumenta and Pagliero, 2016). In countries where occupational regulations are high, entry into these regulated occupations is often met with challenges, as many requirements in the host country need to be fulfilled. This can leave migrants frustrated as they are usually pressured to work in order to survive and to remit to their families at home.

The requirement to undergo education and training before acquiring licenses to practice has ramifications for retention in TVET. For example in Munich, Rietig (2016) notes that ' 70% of asylum seekers and refugees dropped out of their VET positions, compared to 25% of natives' (ibid., p. 7). The high dropout rate in TVET programmes can be partly explained by the opportunity cost of undergoing years of TVET, with low income compared to other low skilled jobs that pay better in the short run and are easily accessible (ibid.). As a result, policy-makers are encouraged to support migrants to pursue other pathways such as self-employment or entrepreneurship

(Rietig, 2016; Desiderio, 2016). For highly skilled migrants, support to pursue bridging courses would be useful, in cases where their qualifications are not equivalent to those in the host countries. In relation to refugees, work permits, and vocational education and training are among the major challenges (Takahashi et al., 2018). Positive approaches to overcome their challenges include facilitating private investment for refugees to start business, allowing refugees to provide services to each other and expanding access to information (ibid.). These are important for the recognition of existing migrants in host countries and also for facilitating their role to support new migrants to enter the labour market.

Challenges with skills recognition and certification is more pronounced in some highly skilled professions like medicine and health. In most cases, even when health personnel have acquired sufficient training in their origin countries, they are required to undergo further training and examination to be able to practice in host communities. This restricts labour market integration and mobility, contributing to labour shortages in some occupations. An example is the shortage of nurses in the United Kingdom's national health system because health care professionals, such as migrant nurses, find it difficult to get accreditation and provide the necessary documentation to gain work (Moyce, Lash, and de Leon Siantz, 2016).

For refugees, the legal and geographical barriers may have restricted their formal access to the labour market, but in countries such as Jordan a more sustainable model has emerged. Figure 13 shows the development of this model which went beyond the short-term charity response to create an economy that developed through different phases.

The Zaatari camp, where 461,701 refugees have passed through (UNHCR, 2018), has more than 3000 shops and businesses (Al-Husban and Adams, 2016). The economic activities have also outgrown the camp to provide trade to the local community, with these 'small-scale entrepreneurs […] currently generating an estimated ten million Jordanian dollars in revenue per month' (Al-Husban and Adams, 2016). Such examples could promote a more sustainable approach to migration, rather than the common short-term emergency model. Providing education and skills development in this context contributes to the development of a local in-camp economy that can eventually lead to the integration of a new town or city.

Figure 13. Sustainable model in Jordan
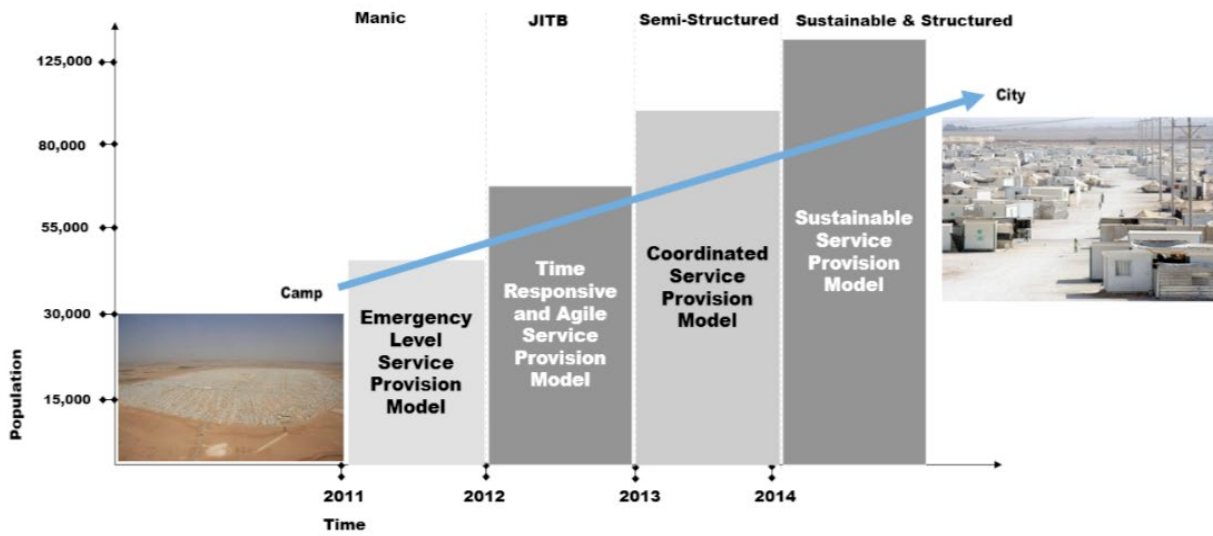
Implications and role for TVET

The consequences that migration presents for individuals and host countries have been discussed, with some recommendations of the role of TVET. This section turns to the implications that these consequences pose for education and training systems and the role TVET can play in mitigating some of the consequences as well as facilitating the labour market integration of migrants in host countries. Implications relating to the recognition of migrants' skills and qualifications, TVET curricula, language support, guidance, psychosocial support and labour market integration, and some progress made are discussed.

Access and provision

A basic challenge faced by host societies is ensuring sufficient provision to accommodate migrants. In countries with well-established TVET systems, this is not usually a problem, particularly as many of those societies have surplus capacity due to demographic changes or declining uptake of TVET programmes. However, in developing countries where the largest proportion of migrants are found, provision of TVET to migrants when the countries struggle to meet their own citizen's demands can be a challenge. When outside agencies provide specific training or resources for migrants that are not available to local people, resentment can build between local communities and refugees or migrants. It is thus critical that provision for refugees is integrated into the general support and development of the TVET system and does not create a sense of preferential treatment for migrants (British Council, 2018).

International recognition of skills and qualifications

The international recognition of migrants' skills and qualifications is very important for their integration into host countries' education and training systems and labour markets. Through UNESCO's leadership and with the cooperation of member states, substantial progress has been made regarding the global recognition convention, which seeks to strengthen existing regional conventions and agreements in the recognition of higher education qualifications. However, more work needs to be done on the international recognition of TVET qualifications (Marope, Holmes, and Chakroun, 2015). The challenge lies with the different conceptions, the quality, and institutional provisions of TVET across countries and regions. Bateman and Coles (2017) argue that the development of an international guideline on quality assurance is necessary and underpins the 'trust and transparency in qualifications, which are a prerequisite for comparability and international recognition of qualifications' (ibid., p. vii). As these have been developed for some countries in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region, its development in other regions will enhance progress towards an international guideline (ibid.). Also, an important step towards the international recognition of TVET qualifications is the development of country and regional qualifications frameworks. Good examples exist in Europe, Africa and Asia, although there is significant critique of the unintended consequences on local systems. Allais (2012) draws attention to the complexities of adapting a 'global toolkit' for VET in developing countries while also emphasizing McGrath's (2012) call for an expanded notion of TVET founded

on an enhanced understanding of the theoretical relationship between TVET and development. The 'global toolkit' borrowed from developed countries has aimed to redistribute wealth, tackle poverty and human rights issues through employer-centred TVET. However, 'despite the best intentions of policy-makers, the policy choices taken have entrenched a narrow idea of 'skills development' (skills as 'tasks') as a logical consequence of the notion of employer-specified competencies in an unregulated labour market' (Allais, 2012, p. 632). Therefore, a shift in focus to a more human-centred vocational education is pertinent for a fast changing labour market as it can go beyond the short term goals and aspire for lifelong skills and sustainable training (McGrath, 2012).

Nations exporting high numbers of migrants have also recognized the importance of qualifications. The ASEAN region has been formed to promote a regional response to economic and political challenges that contribute to the sustainability of its states . Their joint approach to occupational recognition does not only enable labour mobility across the states, but also contributes to quality and standards of the vocational qualifications gained by their members. In 2005 they introduced the mutual recognition agreements on engineering services and since then the agreements have been published in seven other occupations (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, n.d.). The mutual recognition agreements facilitate labour exchange as well as knowledge sharing to ensure best practice informs the quality and standard of qualifications.

Another example comes from the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority in the Philippines. This is in the form of an Onsite Assessment Programme which aims to support Filipino overseas workers in the Middle East. The programme provides the opportunity to Filipinos working in countries such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates to take assessment in a variety of vocations to earn certification from the Authority (Technical Education and Skill Development Authority, 2017). Officials assert that this helps Filipino workers out of low skilled work, improves their working conditions and their wages (ibid.).

Sweden's approach towards the recognition of migrants' skills shows that early intervention is necessary for migrants' integration into host economies. This is because it has the potential to reduce the levels of demotivation and the skill and CV gaps which often prohibit migrants' access to jobs (European Employment Policy Observatory, 2016). The country's migration agency carries out a general mapping of employment, education and occupational skills while asylum seekers are waiting to be granted status.

In Germany the Recognition Act 2012 was introduced. This is a nation-wide framework to allow all migrants to go through a recognition process to determine the equivalency of qualifications obtained abroad to that of Germany's (OECD,

2017a). Although this framework is open to all migrants, assessing the qualifications of asylum seekers and refugees is more challenging as documentation to prove previous training are usually unavailable (ibid.). The European Training Foundation recommends procedures for recognising qualifications that take into consideration the limitation of documents to be provided (European Training Foundation, 2017). The ENIC/NARIC E-Manual based on the advocated approach by the Lisbon Recognition Convention explains the procedures in details ("ENIC/NARIC," n.d.).

South Africa's Qualification Authority has mechanisms in place where migrants can submit qualifications for evaluation of equivalence which are recognized by all education providers.

The few examples show efforts made to address the low skills of migrants and the non-recognition of their skills in host countries. However challenges remain. Even with regional qualifications frameworks, employers are sometimes sceptical about migrants' formal qualifications, especially when the content differs from that of the host country. As a result, Cedefop (2011) suggests the establishment and subsequent communication between members of an international network of TVET providers as it will help to solve the challenge of comparability and acceptance of TVET qualifications across countries. Refugees and asylum seekers often come from countries where many occupations can be practiced without qualifications, which makes it more difficult for host countries with established occupational and vocational systems to recognize their skills. Regions and countries with effective vocational qualification frameworks can assist other countries, mainly in developing countries to establish National Qualification Frameworks. This will enhance labour mobility and the integration of migrants into host-countries' labour markets. However, there are challenges with National Qualification Frameworks that make it difficult for employers and educational recruiters to trust it. One is the different purposes for which frameworks are developed and used in national contexts (Young, 2007). For employers and educational providers to trust the qualifications and skills acquired abroad by migrants, communication between employers and providers across countries as suggested by Cedefop (2011) is important.

Language support

As highlighted earlier, language is one of the main barriers towards the integration of migrants into host-countries' labour markets, schools and society in general. Although language training is essential, migrants find themselves trapped in years of language training before they can enter host-countries' labour markets. In addition, provision for language training varies across countries, with some providing only basic or minimal training due to lack of funds. In the United Kingdom, underfunded and oversubscribed ESOL classes mean that

newly arrived migrants have to wait six months or more for a place. Charities and community organizations have tried to fill the gap but the lack of strategy and coordination has hindered their success (Craw et al., 2007). Financial cuts have also led to high teacher turnover in the United Kingdom ESOL division (Craw et al., 2007). In Belgium, teacher turnover is one of the main factors contributing to the lack of success of language classes according to refugees taking part in those courses (European Employment Policy Observatory, 2016).

It would be beneficial if migrants who are proficient in the language of a host country are recruited as teachers of new migrants. Their understanding of the background of migrants and their peculiar challenges can help them have more impact. In addition, they will serve as useful links between new migrants and their host country, assisting them to understand the new society and to integrate better. While many migrants are constrained by language competencies, highly skilled migrants with adequate language proficiency also face challenges in relation to employment communicative competencies (Madziva, McGrath and Thondhlana, 2016). Although linguistic abilities avail migrants to enter the labour market, often they find themselves unable to integrate socially in the work place (ibid.).

It has been recognized that language is an obstacle for migrants' access to information relating to education, training and work. Multicultural policies such as that of Sweden which allow migrants to access language classes in their native language at school and post-sixteen colleges is thought to be a positive step towards improving the educational attainment of migrants. Amongst others, translating the literature into different languages has also emerged as way to lower dropout rates of vocational training courses in Sweden (Personal communication from CFL-CENTRUM). Even though Sweden has revised its multicultural policy since it was first introduced, the core of this model is still visible and more open and tolerant compared to other Scandinavian countries such as Norway and Denmark (Brochmann and Hagelund, 2011).

In addition to general language courses, there is the need for skills development programmes for migrants and TVET institutions to develop packages aimed at accelerating the vocational language proficiency of migrants. Some countries, like Sweden, have pursued this by integrating language tutoring into vocational education and training. This enables migrants to acquire vocational language specific to their trade or industry (Guo, 2013). For TVET institutions and language providers, there is therefore the need to understand the different language needs of migrants and tailor training or pedagogy to meet these needs. A study of the experiences of African migrants in TAFE institutes in Australia by Onsando and Billet (2009) showed that there were differences in the language learning needs of adult and young refugees, however teachers did not comprehend this. This phenomenon has been observed in other countries and is partly explained by the fact that vocational teachers often lack the expertise to teach standard language courses, while other language providers lack the expertise to offer vocational language training (OECD, 2016, p. 89). As a result, strong coordination between the stakeholders involved is needed to address the gaps for the benefit of migrants. Also, while challenging, tailored language training is necessary to enable migrants to make the most of language opportunities provided (ibid.). Additionally, inclusive programmes that combine learning and work can help migrants build social capital and reduce frustration relating to unproductivity while learning new languages (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, Loescher, Long and Sigona, 2014).

Implications for and role of TVET curricula

The economic, political and environmental factors that drive the scale of migration require TVET curricula to undergo changes in order to help mitigate some of the causes and effects of migration. TVET's direct relationship with production, consumption and the world of work makes it particularly well placed to contribute to sustainable practices and skills. Skills that pertain to all three pillars of sustainability - namely economic, social and environmental - if incorporated into TVET curricula in home and host countries will contribute to the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. However, McGrath and Powell (2016) argue that for TVET to do this, the productivist account that underpins TVET has to give way to a transformative and human development approach. This is more pressing in the context of climate change and increased vulnerability of people. In relation to the environmental driver for migration for instance, Priority Action 3 of the Hyogo Framework for Action states the need to 'use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels' (International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, 2005, p. 6). In accordance with this action plan, the impact of disasters and consequently the pressure for environmental migration could be mitigated through TVET's contribution to reducing disaster risk. This involves the incorporation of disaster risk management strategies into school curricula and other forms of education, non-formal and informal. To deliver efficient results, disaster risk reduction needs to be context specific and integrated into occupational standards and workplace practices in sectors such as construction and manufacturing.

Furthermore, through TVET, people can be equipped with new skill sets to enhance their income diversification. Robinson-Pant (2016) notes the need to explore opportunities beyond agriculture and to combine hard and soft skills. Consequently, this can help reduce people's vulnerability to climate change. Also, it is necessary to enhance people's livelihoods and reduce pressure on the land. Such alternative economic activities can mitigate the pressures for migration in lean seasons.

Increased diversity resulting from international migration requires TVET curricula to incorporate intercultural modules that emphasize awareness of diversity, inclusion and cultural competences. Cultural competences in particular are important in the context of working with diverse people and therefore a concern for employers or educational providers in host countries (Brinkley, 2015). TVET providers can thus play a significant role in raising awareness of the host country citizens about the life histories of migrants and what their needs may be.

Implications for the role of teacher education

The large number of international migrants accessing education and training in host countries raises new challenges for teachers or instructors in schools and workplaces. Emerging trends in the literature show that teachers' attitudes toward migrants can enhance or hinder migrants' education and workplace integration (Rutter, 2006). Teachers are expected to deal with diverse students with different experiences of education and this task can be only achieved under circumstances of retraining. In-service training or intercultural pedagogy in the context of increased diversity is essential (Palaiologou and Faas, 2012). It will help teachers to respect and understand differences and know how to deal with issues on sites of learning. Intercultural education will help reduce the incidence of racism and discrimination in vocational schools and workplaces (Itkonen, Talib and Dervin, 2015). Aside from this, pedagogy in TVET institutions also needs to be adapted to suit the peculiar challenges of migrants.

In addition to the implications of migration for teacher education, teachers in countries with a large influx of migrants face enormous pressure meeting the needs of everyone and some express concerns over the effects that extra support for migrants and refugees can have on the education of citizens (Hannah, 2000). In Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey for instance, the lack of capacity to provide education for all migrants and refugees has led to the running of double shifts for migrants and refugees. While new teachers are recruited to assist with teaching, the poor and hasty training offered to these teachers can compromise the quality of education provided to migrants (Aydin and Kaya, 2017).

Implications for mental health provision

Regarding the mental well-being of migrants, refugees in particular often suffer from anxiety, emotional and cognitive problems which hinder their social integration in host countries (Simpson, 2018). However, even voluntary economic migrants face stress through the process of relocation. While teachers sometimes receive training on how to assist refugees to deal with the effects of traumatic experiences, they are limited in the extent to which they can do this. A study by Aydin and Kaya (2017, p. 464) revealed that Turkish schools lacked specialist psychological support for Syrian refugees. This finding also shows that although schools may not be the original sites of the provision of specialist psychological support, in the context of increased migration there may be the need to consider this as migrants may find it difficult to access these services in the relevant institutions.

Trauma sensitive approaches, peace education projects and psychosocial support are important to address the psychological barriers and mental health issues faced by forced migrants (Simpson, 2018). Nevertheless, the success of these approaches is influenced by other factors such as a receptive host society, access to work, education and health services (ibid.). Furthermore, it is important to place the voice of migrants at the centre of discourses relating to their livelihood and future as this will potentially enhance their mental health and well-being.

Few TVET institutions have placed much emphasis on psychological support systems and there is often resistance from TVET teachers to take pastoral and affective roles seriously. While training is required, there also needs to be cognizance taken of the impact of this sort of work on the teachers' workloads and the potential additional stress that can be associated with providing support to students.

Guidance

It has been argued earlier that migrants encounter difficulties in navigating the education, training and labour market environment of host countries. As a result, guidance in navigating these areas is very important. The different forms of TVET and the position it occupies in different countries can puzzle migrants. In countries where TVET occupies a central role in education, training, and labour market integration, TVET is often presented as an option to migrants. However, migrants' negative perception of TVET, due for example to its low status in their origin countries can be a major barrier (Chadderton and Edmonds, 2015). Therefore, information and career guidance are key to promote TVET as a viable option for entry into host-countries' labour markets. Among refugees and asylum seekers, a study in the United Kingdom and Australia found that most of the guidance for forced migrants is provided within communities and charity organizations where the focus is more on welfare and legal advice. Even though in some Australian centres there are dedicated employment and education officers, they are often ill-informed of international qualifications previously acquired by migrants. This leads migrants to undertake jobs they are overqualified for, further resulting in deskilling (Hannah, 2000). Also, policies such as that of Belgium to fast track refugees into low-skilled employment can discourage those with the potential for pursuing higher level studies (European Employment Policy Observatory, 2016). Adequate mapping

and guidance is relevant to ensure fair access for migrants to work and training.

It must be noted that guidance need not be limited to migrants, as providers of services for migrants also need to be informed about available services. This can be enhanced through the creation of awareness among service providers of the needs of migrants and how best they can be helped. Also, it is important to add an element of intercultural education to guidance. This is because the openness and tolerance of citizens and service providers in host countries is necessary as they are involved in the enactment and implementation of policies in localities. Discrimination faced by forced migrants in Denmark is a considerable hurdle to their labour market integration (Brochmann and Hagelund, 2011). Government policies for safeguarding and promoting equality in the work place are key as racial discrimination impacts migrants' access to employment and vocational education (Chadderton and Edmonds, 2015).

Facilitation of local work experience

TVET institutions in host countries can help reduce challenges that migrant workers encounter in seeking employment as a result of insufficient host-country work experience. With close links between providers of TVET and employers, trainees or workers could be linked to firms, so that they can acquire relevant work experience while undergoing training. Also, migrants have realised that volunteering is a useful way to acquire work experience in host countries. While some are able to use this to gain entry into their previous occupations (Webb et al., 2017), others are not able to and hence are trapped in positions that they are overqualified for. Such cases are common in countries where bridging courses are not accessible for migrants. For TVET providers and public employment services, connecting migrants with relevant employers is an important way to help them gain relevant work experience connected to their previous occupations. This, in addition to the provision of subsidised bridging courses and modularization, will ease migrants' acquisition of local qualifications and subsequently ease their transition into labour markets (Rietig, 2016). Cedefop (2011, p. 15) argues that internships and volunteering in particular can enable migrant workers to build social capital necessary for employment after training. In line with this, making these opportunities financially rewarding as well would increase access for those with limited financial resources.

Possible Roles for the UNEVOC Network

UNESCO-UNEVOC is uniquely placed to contribute both to the understanding of the role of TVET in relation to migration and to sharing of good practices and policies. Existing mechanisms such as Learning Forums, the TVeT Forum and virtual conferences organized on the online platform, Cluster and Network meetings and handbooks and manuals should be utilised to facilitate further discussion and knowledge sharing around the issues raised in this discussion paper. Some very specific focus areas are elaborated below:

- Firstly, because the network of UNEVOC Centres covers all manner of sending and receiving countries with diverse systems and diverse policies, the Network can highlight the complexity and variety of challenges. Simplistic solutions based on assumptions that all migrant needs are the same in different contexts can be avoided by continued sharing of information about the range of migrants and their diverse needs. As has been shown, the reasons for migration, the legal status of a migrant, their age, their experience, their language and culture, and their individual ambitions all shape their needs. Differentiated responses based on better understanding of the migrants are only possible if this understanding is developed across the Network.

- Secondly, the UNEVOC Network can strengthen international understandings of how TVET systems function so that host countries are better able to recognize prior learning and qualifications. This may be facilitated through the development of national and regional qualification frameworks, but is also an outcome of increased communication across systems so that policy-makers and practitioners understand the differences and similarities across national boundaries. Where there is a strong relationship between specific countries (for example where one country sends people to another), bilateral understanding of systems and requirements can ease the process of economic integration.

- Thirdly, the continued strengthening of TVET systems in sending and receiving countries can have an effect on mitigating the reasons for migration, ensuring easier absorption into new economies and potentially facilitating the return of migrants.

- Fourthly, the UNEVOC Network can facilitate the sharing of practical strategies adopted by TVET systems and institutions to address a range of issues that arise as a consequence of migrants entering the system. These could focus on teacher development strategies, curricula and pedagogy, inclusion and psychosocial support, work-placement, career guidance, and integrated language education to name but a few aspects.

- Finally, the UNEVOC Network is ideally placed to facilitate research on all of the above topics in order to deepen the knowledge base and provide evidence based options for institutions and systems.

Conclusion

This discussion paper has discussed three types of migration, namely forced, environmental and labour migration. The first section adapted Faist's (2000) categorization of migration theories to analyse the drivers for the three types of migration. The decision to migrate is shaped by a multiplicity of factors at the macro, micro and meso levels. The scale of migration was described, and important concepts relating to the three types of migration discussed. The second part of the discussion paper analysed the consequences of migration for migrants, home and host countries. It argued that migration negatively affects the mental health of migrants, who need extra support to overcome their past experiences. Also, problems regarding migrants' labour market integration and legal status in host countries affect their economic well-being and access to

education and training. These consequences are relevant to all three dimensions of migration but the level of impact differs based on the type of migration and individual migrant's circumstances. The discussion paper discussed broad implications of migration for TVET. Some of these included the need to recognize prior skills and qualifications, provide language and career guidance for migrants and ease their entry of migrants into labour markets. These will enhance migrants' human development and contribution to host economies. The possible role that the UNEVOC Network could play was outlined in the final section, focusing particularly on the sharing of information and strategies for addressing the most pressing issues.

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