

STRATEGIES, POLICIES AND DIRECTIONS FOR REFUGEE EDUCATION

INNOVATIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION TEACHING AND LEARNING

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INNOVATIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION TEACHING
AND LEARNING VOLUME 13

STRATEGIES, POLICIES, AND DIRECTIONS FOR REFUGEE EDUCATION

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Created in partnership with the
International Higher Education Teaching and
Learning Association



**Higher Education
Teaching & Learning**

<https://www.hetl.org/>



**emerald
PUBLISHING**

United Kingdom – North America – Japan
India – Malaysia – China

Emerald Publishing Limited
Howard House, Wagon Lane, Bingley BD16 1WA, UK

First edition 2018

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British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

ISBN: 978-1-78714-798-0 (Print)

ISBN: 978-1-78714-797-3 (Online)

ISBN: 978-1-78743-937-5 (Epub)

ISSN: 2055-3641 (Series)



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standard
ISO 14001:2004.

Certificate Number 1985
ISO 14001



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FOREWORD

Education in all its forms has a genuinely transformational quality; it transforms individuals, and it transforms the societies in which those individuals live and work. As someone who has spent their working life in universities, I need no convincing of the genuinely transformational power of education. I have seen how education enables individuals to excel and to realize their full potential, how it enables them make a positive impact on the lives of others and how sustained investment in education enhances economic, social, and psychological wellbeing. And of course this is one of the reasons why we see education as a fundamental human right – basic principles of fairness and equity suggest that we should be providing everyone with the opportunity to succeed and to realize their potential.

We live at a time when the numbers of people who have been forced to flee their homes (whether through war, crisis, or persecution) are unprecedented. The UNHCR suggests that there are over 65 million people forcibly displaced worldwide, over 20 million of these are refugees (half of whom are children), and a further 10 million are stateless people. Nowhere are the restrictions on access to the opportunities that education offers more clear evidence than in the refugee community – and yet these are also the very communities which have so much to gain. Education can provide them with protection, security, and the skills they need for the future and with the knowledge and understanding that they need to engage and integrate. In its latest education report, the UNHCR suggests in 2016 that over 3.5 million refugee children did not attend school. Their figures suggest that at primary level, some 91% of children worldwide had access to education, but for refugee children, this figure was only 61%. At secondary level, 84% of children globally accessed education compared with 23% of refugee children. At tertiary level the figures are 1% of refugee youth and 36% of global youth. A failure to provide opportunity to these young people denies them the right to realize their potential and it also denies us all the opportunity to benefit from what they may have to offer.

But, for so many of us, this problem is all too often simply not visible. The very nature of marginalized communities is that the mainstream will be unaware of or may even deny the existence of their manifold problems. And that is why the current volume of essays has such an important role to play. The contributors explore the experience of cross-border refugees, internal refugees, and those refugees who are further marginalized by the virtue of gender or disability. It is perhaps unsurprising that Syria features prominently as a source country in the discussion of cross-border refugees. Important parallels emerge from the experiences of refugees from Myanmar. These perspectives are complemented with studies on a range of host countries as diverse as Australia, Malawi, and Belgium. Internal displacement considers the experience particularly of Nigeria but also

South Sudan and Kurdistan. There is a welcome mix of country-specific studies and thematic work with the latter addressing issues as diverse as disability, home schooling, qualification recognition, and career development. The provision of education for refugee communities worldwide will remain a major and pressing challenge; our ability to address this challenge depends on rigorous empirical research, and our ability to learn from the experiences across a diversity of contexts. This book provides an invaluable contribution in our search for viable and sustainable solutions.

Professor Christine Ennew OBE
Provost, University of Warwick

SERIES EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

INNOVATIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION TEACHING AND LEARNING

The purpose of this series is to publish current research and scholarship on innovative teaching and learning practices in higher education. The series is developed around the premise that teaching and learning is more effective when instructors and students are actively and meaningfully engaged in the teaching–learning process.

The main objectives of this series are to:

- (1) present how innovative teaching and learning practices are being used in higher education institutions around the world across a wide variety of disciplines and countries;
- (2) present the latest models, theories, concepts, paradigms, and frameworks that educators should consider when adopting, implementing, assessing, and evaluating innovative teaching and learning practices; and
- (3) consider the implications of theory and practice on policy, strategy, and leadership.

This series will appeal to anyone in higher education who is involved in the teaching and learning process from any discipline, institutional type, or nationality. The volumes in this series will focus on a variety of authentic case studies and other empirical research that illustrates how educators from around the world are using innovative approaches to create more effective and meaningful learning environments.

Innovation teaching and learning is any approach, strategy, method, practice, or means that have been shown to improve, enhance, or transform the teaching–learning environment. Innovation involves doing things differently or in a novel way in order to improve outcomes. In short, innovation is positive change. With respect to teaching and learning, innovation is the implementation of new or improved educational practices that result in improved educational and learning outcomes. This innovation can be any positive change related to teaching, curriculum, assessment, technology, or other tools, programs, policies, or processes that lead to improved educational and learning outcomes. Innovation can occur in institutional development, program development, professional development, or learning development.

The volumes in this series will not only highlight the benefits and theoretical frameworks of such innovations through authentic case studies and other empirical research but also look at the challenges and contexts associated with implementing and assessing innovative teaching and learning practices. The volumes represent all disciplines from a wide range of national, cultural, and

organizational contexts. The volumes in this series will explore a wide variety of teaching and learning topics, such as active learning, integrative learning, transformative learning, inquiry-based learning, problem-based learning, meaningful learning, blended learning, creative learning, experiential learning, lifelong and lifewide learning, global learning, learning assessment and analytics, student research, faculty and student learning communities, as well as other topics.

This series brings together distinguished scholars and educational practitioners from around the world to disseminate the latest knowledge on innovative teaching and learning scholarship and practices. The authors offer a range of disciplinary perspectives from different cultural contexts. This series provides a unique and valuable resource for instructors, administrators, and anyone interested in improving and transforming teaching and learning.

Patrick Blessinger
Series Editor, Founder, Executive Director, and Chief Research Scientist,
International HETL Association

PART I

ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO REFUGEE EDUCATION: STRATEGIES, POLICIES AND DIRECTIONS

Enakshi Sengupta and Patrick Blessinger

ABSTRACT

This chapter highlights the plight of refugees and the strategies and policies crafted by international agencies and non-governmental institutions in providing better access to education especially for refugee children. The chapter explores some of the key terminologies that distinguish refugees from asylum seekers and internally displaced person. The terminologies are significant as the opportunities and facilities handed out differ significantly depending on their status. The chapter then talks about some of the policies toward imparting education and the school- and system-level factors responsible for accessing education. The last section of the chapter summarizes the overview of various chapters that will feature in this volume, talking about cases and interventions from Malawi to Australia.

Keywords: Migrants; internally displaced people; armed conflicts; stateless person; system-level factors; deportation; school-level factors

INTRODUCTION

The world is witnessing an era of unprecedented human mobility with a growing number of people fleeing every day from their home country to avoid being killed or used as a human shield by the extremists. Children comprise a sizeable proportion of

those fleeing their countries or as part of the resettled populations in the camps and other relief centers which have grown over the last seven years across Europe. School children numbered 154,680, aged 5–18, were resettled in the United States between 2002 and 2013 from 113 countries (Migration Policy Institute, 2014, pp. 4–5).

Almost all refugee children arrive in North America, Europe, and Australia lacking previous educational experiences. Most often it is found that these pre-resettlement experiences of refugee children constitute a “black box” in their post-resettlement education (Dryden-Peterson, 2015).

In addition to deprivation of education the other issues faced by the migrant population are labor demands and employment, economic crises, urbanization, entrenched poverty, political instability, and conflict with the host community. Managing migrant populations and providing basic social and educational services have become pressing concerns by both government and non-governmental bodies, especially that of the host countries.

Between January and September 2017, close to 145,000 refugees and migrants arrived on European shores, many losing their lives during the perilous journey. Two-thirds of them came through the Central Mediterranean Route. In just three months (July–September 2017), Greece saw over 10,500 arrivals (of whom 4,239 were children), compared to 9,272 during the entire first-half of the year. This is coupled with potentially new migration routes appearing through the Western Mediterranean, where 8,558 refugees and migrants (including around 8% of children) arrived between June and August 2017 (UNICEF, 2017).

Reception and resettlement conditions at refugee camps remain a cause of grave concern, particularly on the Greek islands, where the refugee and migrant stranded population increased by 27% in September 2017, leading to overcrowding and thus resulting in chaos and lack of basic services such as reception and holding area and also in the Identification Centers (UNICEF, 2017). The camps have also witnessed a growth of unaccompanied and separated children (UASC) in protective custody on the islands and other border areas – reaching up to 142 in August (compared to 50–60 in June 2017).

The European governments have taken commendable steps toward improving the access to education for refugee and migrant children in order to minimize the legal and practical barriers and protocols. A notable progress can be measured in enrolment of refugee and migrant children into formal education – reaching up to 40% of stranded refugee and migrant children in Greece and the Balkans, but the daily surge of migrants makes this relief effort look insignificant.

Studies conducted by UNICEF and other relief agencies have shown that less than half of unaccompanied children on the Central Mediterranean Route left home with the idea to come to Europe with the aim to access a better world comprised of opportunities for better education and human rights. In one-third of cases the main factor that led them to undertake such arduous a journey was violence. Four in every five adolescents travelling alone reported direct abuse, exploitation, and trafficking practices along the Central Mediterranean Route and mentioning their stay in Libya as the most traumatizing part of their journey (UNICEF, 2017).

Migration and asylum demand cannot be dealt with by one country alone and requires international cooperation and intervention because of the constant influx

of migrants and large populations involved. Accepting and processing applications for refugees can vary from country to country and has different designations such as guest, temporary stay, and permanent stay. Individual asylum seekers or groups of migrants consist of people who intend to stay permanently in the host countries. It is often found that large numbers of refugees who flee from extraordinary situations such as war return to their countries as peace prevails. The United Nations, the governmental and charitable organizations of the refugee hosting countries, and other national and international organizations cooperate in order to provide basic life requirements and education. They continue to craft strategies and directional policies to handle this sudden upsurge of refugee crisis.

IMPORTANT TERMINOLOGIES

The processes of migration and asylum are codified and processed according to the national and international legal texts, which results in a significant terminology of migration and asylum. There are various categories of migrants and are termed according to their need for assistance, and it ranges from refugees, asylum seekers, pending cases, internally displaced people (IDP) protected/assisted by UNHCR, returned refugees, returned IDPs, and stateless people. The term refugee is often used to identify a person who is entitled to benefit from the protection of the United Nations granted by UNHCR, regardless of being in a country agreeing with the terms of Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, Art. 1A (2), 1951 as modified by the 1967 Protocol, or being recognized as a refugee by a hosting country (IOM, 2014).

An asylum seeker differs in his need for assistance and is a person who looks for safety from oppression or serious damage in a country other than his or her own and files for an application and awaits for a decision on the application for refugee status under suitable international and national arguments. In case the decision differs from his/her desired one and turns out to be negative then the asylum seeker must leave the country unless authorization to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds (IOM, 2014).

People who are displaced (IDPs protected/assisted by UNHCR) are forced to leave their own house in order to avoid armed conflicts, general violence, violations of human rights, or the effects of natural or human-created disasters. These people do not cross their country's own borders but rather stay in some other part of their own country. Returned refugees, returnees, returned IDPs refer to those who actually return back to their own home once the conflict has been resolved. This return takes into consideration return of those displaced from their own countries, as well as refugees, asylum seekers returning from the host country to the origin country. Return categories are divided into voluntary, forced or deported assisted and spontaneous returns. A stateless person is one who is not accepted as a citizen by any State according to its law (Art. 1, UN Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons, 1954) as we are now witnessing the plights of the Rohingya Muslims who continue to be stateless in spite of having spent their entire lives and that of their forefathers in Myanmar. As such, a

stateless person lacks those rights attributable to national diplomatic protection of a State, with no inherent right of sojourn in the State of residence and no right of return in case he or she travels (Beltekin, 2016).

A migrant, on the other hand, or an immigrant is considered to be someone who chooses to move, motivated by the desire to seek better opportunities in life to avoid economic hardship and poor governance of their own country. Documented refugees are entitled to receive support from resettlement agencies in the form of economic support, employment services, education, and psychological services, while immigrants and undocumented refugees are largely left to fend for themselves, unless they are fortunate enough to find NGOs and other charitable organizations offering such assistance.

The Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees has included refugee educational status in addition to other facilities specified in the charter. The Convention was confirmed on July 28, 1951, in Geneva. It became effective on April 22, 1954. Article 22 concerns refugee education:

1. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education.
2. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favorable as possible, and, in any event, not less favorable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regard access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships (The Refugee Convention 1951, Article 22, p. 117).

MAIN OBSTACLES

A review of the available literature suggests a number of major challenges facing the education of migrant children. These can be broadly divided into two categories: system-level and school-level factors.

System-level Factors

Access to education is not universally guaranteed especially for children having irregular or undefined status. Such children have denied access to schools or charged fees beyond their means. A survey of migration policies in 28 countries, including 14 “developed” countries with high rates of human development and 14 “developing” countries with lower human development scores, found that 40% of the former and more than 50% of the latter did not allow children with irregular status access to schooling (Klugman & Pereira, 2009, p. 14). In addition to formal restrictions, migrants with an irregular status on their own avoid formal enrollment to schools for fear of revealing their identity which might result in detention or deportation. Children who migrate unaccompanied by adults are especially vulnerable, as work requirements to survive, poverty, poor health, and language

barriers are easily exclude from schools (UNDP, 2009). This educational gap in the future has significant impact and implications for employment and earnings. In situations lacking clear processing time of legal documents for refugees has resulted in people remaining in unauthorized status for longer periods, and educational inequalities persist.

Deportation policies have been found to have detrimental effect on migrant children and their education. Parental detention and deportation results in disrupting to education, causes economic strain and housing instability, and even adversely affects the health of children, through lack of food and increased cases of depression (Chaudry et al., 2010; Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002).

Studies conducted in the United States show that such segregation during the period of detention results in diminished academic achievement and learning outcomes, increased drop-out rates, and impaired intergroup dynamics and life-course outcomes (Mickelson, 2014; Mickelson & Nkomo, 2012).

Countries like the Netherlands have crafted the Educational Priority Policy which funds education for ethnic minority students (Karsten, 2006). A similar program, the British Excellence in Cities (EiC) program, targets students living in disadvantaged urban areas, which includes many migrants and refugees. The program provides support for teaching and learning, mentors, and ICT facilities, and have witnessed positive results (Kendall et al., 2005).

School-level Factors

Studies have demonstrated the impact of key school-level factors on the education of refugees including support for early childhood education; age of school entry; the prominence, timing, and consequences of ability grouping or tracking; school quality; rigor; diversity and responsiveness of curricula and pedagogies; and openness to cultural and religious diversity.

Support for language learning has been an essential component in providing for refugee children's education. Early childhood education greatly enhances the language learning of such children and enhances their reading readiness (Gräsel et al., 2004; Penner, 2002). Methodical and continuous language support is necessary at all levels of education especially for the refugees (Cummins, 1979). There are significant debates whether to provide second language education through immersion, transitional bilingual education, or true bilingual education (OECD, 2006; Slavin & Cheung, 2005). Countries have elected different policies and many have made sudden shifts in their policies. For example, mother tongue teaching was abolished in the Netherlands in 2004 (Driessen, 2005), while in Sweden students have a legal right to native language instruction and schools must provide it if at least five students with the same language live in the municipality.

Early childhood educational programs, whether home- or school based, have proven essential compensatory educational tools for children having refugee or migrant status (OECD, 2006). The provision of quality education for such deprived children depends upon recruiting and retaining skilled teachers. Teaching quality and pedagogy has a tremendous influence on student outcomes, regardless of student socio-economic and demographic background factors, and

yet migrant children are often least likely to experience that support (Field et al., 2007; [OECD, 2005](#)).

Finally, the curriculum and openness to diversity plays an important role in the characteristics of effective schooling. There have been widespread efforts to make curricula more culturally sensitive, although scholars have admitted that not much work has been done to make the curriculum inclusive ([Bennett, 2001](#)). Pre-service and in-service training on inter or multicultural education, social inequality, and equity is essential for the teachers, but unfortunately are rarely imparted to them. Further, teachers must be trained to use formative assessments and differentiated instruction to meet individual learning needs ([OECD, 2005](#)).

CURRENT POLICIES AND MEASURES

UNHCR has been strategizing and creating policies to align education of the refugee students as closely as possible to the country of origin, specifically in terms of curriculum and language, which will help facilitate the return of refugees to their countries of origin ([UNHCR, 2003](#)).

Current UNHCR policy lays stress to pursue “alternatives to camps” in order to remove the “limitation on the rights and freedoms of refugees” inherent in a camp structure ([UNHCR, 2014](#), p. 4). However, taking students out of refugee camps and placing them in the host community is an uphill task. Forty percent of refugees globally continue to live in refugee camps, and the camps still remain an important site of access to education for refugees globally.

When the refugee population can be settled in the host community then “integration of refugee learners within national systems” will need adequate attention from the school teachers ([UNHCR, 2012](#), p. 8).

Informal schools, initiated by refugee communities on their own, are also an important site of access to education for refugees. This is particularly true in countries of first asylum where the refugees have limited rights and limited access to opportunities including their free movement. In many countries of first asylum, Muslim refugee communities create *duksis*, or Koranic schools, to complement the formal education received by the students. In some cases more formal *madrassas* are set up inside the refugee camps, providing instruction in Arabic, mathematics, and history and sometimes other subjects ([Gerstner, 2009](#), p. 185; [UNHCR, 2013](#)). Low enrollments are still a problem in countries with protracted populations such as Pakistan where Afghans represent the largest protracted population globally ([UNHCR, 2015a](#)), and where only 43% of Afghan children access primary education. Many refugees express the idea that education is the one thing that cannot be left behind once they have sought basic safety ([Dryden-Peterson, 2011](#); Winthrop & Kirk, 2011). Yet pre-resettlement educational experiences of refugee children remain largely obscure to post-resettlement researchers and teachers. The case studies provided in this volume will give us a fair idea of the intervention undertaken by educationists and non-governmental organizations (NGO) to promote education. While some case studies highlight tertiary education, others speak about education for employment.

CHAPTER OVERVIEWS

In the chapter “The Role of Education in the Resettlement of Internally Displaced Persons in Nigeria: An Exploratory Discourse on the Plight of the Devastated Communities in the Northeast of Nigeria” written by Aliyu Musa and Gwadabe Kurawa highlights the plight in Nigeria. In July 2009, the Nigerian security forces had a major confrontation with members of a religious sect known as *Jama’atu Ahlusunna Lidida’awati wal Jihad* (translated as Movement for the Propagation of Tradition and Struggle) or Boko Haram. Boko Haram had been reclusive and almost entirely ignored, because it appeared to constitute little or no threat despite its leaders’ fierce anti-modernization sermons, running a state within a state and attracting thousands of youths.

The Boko Haram ideology totally abhors western education. The sect enforces this ideology by means of threat and violence. After its suppression in July 2009 the sect went underground and quietly remobilized and re-emerged to run a vicious campaign of robbery, abduction, rape and murder, so on. Schools, including teachers, education workers, and students became a principal target. A Human Rights Watch report (2016) says between 2009 and 2015, the insurgents killed 611 teachers, abducted more than 2,000 pupils, mostly females, destroyed 910 schools, and forced over 1,500 schools to close. In April 2014, insurgent made their presence felt on the world map of terrorism with abduction of 276 school-girls from the town of Chibok in northeastern Nigeria.

In this chapter the origin of the Boko Haram sect and ideology in Nigeria are discussed, linking them to and, chronologically, highlighting attacks in schools in the flashpoint states of Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa. The humanitarian crises arising from the conflict are also analyzed, as well as the various interventions. Following interviews with experts, human rights, and education activists, the chapter is concluded with an appraisal of the interventions in the education sector in the region and a call for a more articulated curriculum and support to motivate the displaced and affected families.

William E. Bunn in his chapter “Out of School: Home Education and the Refugee Crisis,” emphasizes the importance of home schooling. He adds that one of the truly devastating effects of the global refugee/IDP crisis has been the loss of an education for generations of these displaced persons. By some estimates, nearly 25 million children are not attending any school whatsoever, and those that do are often put in dangerous situations. While studies have called for innovative approaches to solve this problem, one educational option that has been growing exponentially in the United States over the past few years has not been considered: homeschooling.

After briefly looking into existing literature on the subject, this chapter is broken into two main parts. The first section, “Educational Challenges for the Refugee Population,” reviews the various problems faced by refugees when it comes to attaining even a basic education. The primary reason kids stay home even if there are schooling options is due to safety concerns, both at and en route to the school. In addition, the costs involved in building schools, establishing transportation, and finding and employing qualified teachers and administrators

can be prohibitive. Finally, certain challenges are unique to students in refugee families: discrimination at school and within the curriculum, language barriers between students and teachers, and the transitory nature of refugee students are among these factors.

Finally, after examining the recent growth experienced by the homeschooling movement, the author examines how providing a home education to the refugee population could solve the issues addressed previously. While not a panacea, simply placing existing educational tools in the hands of willing refugee parents could at least put a dent in the problem.

Radhi H. Al-Mabuk and Abdullah F. Alrebh in their chapter “Access to and Quality of Higher Education Available to Syrian Refugees in Jordan and Germany,” speak that war crisis, which is now in its seventh year, is recognized world over as the biggest humanitarian catastrophe of our century. One of its tragic outcomes is the displacement of millions of Syrian refugees in neighboring countries in the Middle East and North Africa as well as in many other countries around the world. The pre-war high literacy rate that existed in Syria is feared to have declined and produced a mass of uneducated, unskilled people. Thus, the need to provide access to quality education to Syrian refugees is paramount in order to prevent what some have referred to as “a lost generation.” The focus of this chapter is to compare access to higher education by Syrian refugees in Jordan and Germany. The number of Syrian refugees living in Jordan is estimated to be 1.3 million, 655,675 of whom have been registered with the UN. An estimated 90 % have settled in the capital Amman and other urban areas of northern Jordan (EPRS, 2017). The number of Syrian refugees who ended up in Germany is estimated to be around 507,795 (UNHCR, 2017). The comparative analysis of Syrian university-age refugee students living in Jordan and Syria focuses on these two central questions: Do political, social, and economic conditions of the host country provide college-age students opportunities to higher education? If so, what is the quality of the educational programs available to refugees? To answer these questions, we first provide a background of the Syrian refugee crisis and its scope a before delving into a description of the university-age population among Syrian refugees in both countries. The nature of access to higher education in both countries is examined next before conducting a comparative analysis of the two. Implications and recommendations for policy and practice are provided.

In the chapter “Workforce Transitions for MENA Refugee Women in the United States,” by Katherine Najjar, Tiffani N. Luethke, and Minerva D. Tuliao speak about the purpose of the chapter which is to discuss the challenges of Middle Eastern and North African (MENA) refugee women in transitioning to the workforce. Current workforce transition programs are also discussed. This chapter explores implications for crossover opportunities among community stakeholders such as NGOs, educational institutions, the labor market, and policy in helping MENA refugee women in their journey toward self-sufficiency. Little empirical research has been completed on the challenges that MENA refugee women encounter as they attempt to enter the US workforce (Fenster & Hamdan-Saliba, 2013). There is a gap in the literature examining this unique population, a population that researchers need to better understand because of cultural

restraints, family structure, past education experiences, and stress factors due to conflict and forced displacement. Among the increasing numbers of MENA refugees in the United States, challenges they face often include lack of prior training for the workforce, closed family groups, and low literacy rates, particularly among refugee women (Bloch, 2002). Workforce training for refugee women is critical because they – as half of any refugee population – are frequently heads of households and the primary income earner, whether due to spousal abandonment, death, or disability. This chapter contributes to discussions involving refugee workforce transitions and makes recommendations for researchers and practitioners toward the literature, support, services, and advocacy for MENA women transitioning to the workforce.

Joana Carneiro Pinto and Helena Rebelo Pinto in their chapter “What Do We Know about Refugees’ Models of Career Development and Their Implications for Career Counseling?” focus on the specific career counseling needs of refugees, by reviewing the existing models of career guidance and their supporting research, and providing suggestions for intervention that address those needs in a culturally sensitive manner. The chapter begins with a characterization of the challenge of refugees’ integration, at a global scale, given their social, cultural, political, and religious characteristics. We subsequently present a comprehensive overview of the existing vocational psychology models and explain how they can be useful to address the unique counseling requirements of this population. We then summarize the role of career guidance programs directed to migrants and refugees and introduce the example of one such program which is both socially relevant and scientifically sound – the international project Live2Work. We conclude with a few thoughts on how current knowledge on career guidance may be channeled and applied toward planning interventions aimed at meeting refugees and migrants’ needs in relation to employment and career development.

The chapter “The dynamics of the Boko Haram insurgency and Higher Education in Northeastern Nigeria” by Adole Raphael Audu has largely been shaped by the recent events in Nigeria, specifically the upsurge of insurgency in northeastern Nigeria generally and the Nigerian government responses. Insurgency has gone unabated owing particularly to the institutional framework adopted to manage peace and resolve the conflict with severe implication on higher education in the region. While the role of government and policies has become central to educational development in the country the effect of the activities of the Boko Haram insurgency has greatly affected students’ school enrolment and performance in Northeast Nigeria. Insurgency has caused catastrophic humanitarian crises through widespread infrastructural devastation, and massive dislocations and losses of human life. The incidence of insurrections, insurgencies and counter insurgency activities in each of the conflict clusters in the northeast geo-political zone of Nigeria has been associated with widespread human insecurity and displacement of populations. The chapter therefore examines IDPs and access to education in northeastern Nigeria. The chapter interrogates the role of the Nigerian state and agencies responsible for the management of IDPs in meeting their education needs in camps. It also examines the extent to which stakeholders in the management of IDPs have gone in initiating policies and programs

that will promote access to education in IDP camps in Northeast Nigeria. The chapter concludes that higher education which has remained one of the main targets of attacks has been particularly hard hit by the crisis. Through inter-agency collaborations, the chapter recommends for the protection of staff, students, and education workers working in the northeast region among others.

Thais Roque, Erica Aiazzi, Christopher Smart, Stacy Topouzova, and Chloé Touzet authored “Financial Support Is Not Enough!” They spoke about the number of displaced people reaching the unprecedented figure of 63.5 million (UNHCR, 2016), the issue of access to higher education for displaced students is of utmost urgency. Non-displaced students living in conflict-stricken areas also face significant barriers to accessing higher education. Although the right to education is consecrated in international law and conventions, UNHCR reports that only 1% of refugees attend university. Grassroots campaigns have mobilized to work with refugee and displaced students to increase access to post-secondary education.

The Oxford Students Refugee Campaign (OxSRC), launched in October 2015, aimed to establish a student-financed scholarship fund within the University of Oxford. As a result of the first year of campaigning, more than 12,000 students pledged to contribute to the fund at a ratio of one pound per month enabling the creation of the Oxford Student Scholarships for students whose education has been disrupted due to the political situation, or conflict, in their country of residence. To encourage applications, the campaign led an outreach effort through contacting organizations and educational institutions working in conflict-struck areas. Access to the scholarships was conditional upon admission to the University of Oxford; yet, students still encountered barriers in relation to the application process, thus requiring the campaign to take further actions.

The authors started by reviewing a set of financial barriers hindering access to the application process itself. Second, the various documentary barriers impacting students’ completion of applications are reviewed. Third, they examined psycho-social barriers that impinge on students’ preparations for their chosen program of study. They conclude by presenting the current outcomes of the campaign and reflecting on how a similar approach could be followed at other higher education institutions.

“Refugee Education: International Perspectives from Higher Education and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)” written by Stig Arne Skjerven and Roger Y. Chao, Jr. spoke about the ongoing refugee crisis, and increasing the volume of refugees going to Europe to past years, there is a real need to address the refugee issue. Education is a powerful tool to address refugee’s current and future situation, and is one of the many basic human rights. Refugee’s access to education has significant benefits to themselves, the host communities and countries, and to the global community. The recognition of refugee qualifications, however, faces significant barriers especially when it comes to providing sufficient documentation for assessment to allow their participation in various educational and professional trainings available to them.

A number of international efforts to address the refugee situation, and especially to address the recognition of their qualifications and increase access to

educational opportunities have been initiated over the past years. One of the more successful initiatives is the European Qualifications Passport for Refugees, which is the outcome document of a combination of a documentation analysis and the use of a structured interview by qualified credential evaluators. Its methodology is based on the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT) more than a decade experience in addressing recognition of qualifications of refugees, which has been institutionalized in Norway. Although the first few European Qualifications Passport for Refugees have been issued in 2017, increasing its usage and acceptance by the State parties to the Lisbon Recognition Convention and hopefully to a future Global Recognition Convention may just be what is needed to address the challenges to refugee education.

Come of this assessment process, a standardized document – European Qualifications Passport for Refugees – is known and widely accepted by the States party to the Lisbon Recognition Convention and hopefully to the future Global Recognition Convention.

“Educational Challenges in South Sudan” by Timothy P. Berke and Jane Sell considered the challenges to education in South Sudan by utilizing a national random sample of South Sudanese (provided by the BBC Media Action) and then interviews with eight education service providers. The authors found that the conflicts have large impacts on educational opportunities. States that experience greater conflict also experience greater poverty. Under such conditions, children are important for providing resources for the family and education can become secondary. In these conflict areas, respondents are more likely to agree that education is more important for boys than for girls. Service providers detail the large number of obstacles to delivering education. Displacement and fleeing danger creates problems with hunger, illness, and safety. Service providers discuss the variability of resources, the scarcity of schools and teachers, and the uncertainty of life in South Sudan. They also discuss triumphs they have experienced and suggest changes or interventions that could increase educational opportunities.

Tafadzwa Rugoho and Jenny Shumba in their chapter “Disabled refugee students in Zimbabwe” spoke about students with disabilities who face numerous challenges in the institutions of learning especially in developing countries. Refugee students with disabilities face far worse challenges. Refugee students with disabilities face double jeopardy. First they face discrimination because of their disability, and second because of their refugee status. In developing the rights of refugees with disabilities they are not well respected as enshrined in the international statutes. Universities in developing countries understand that refugees are part of the diverse population at their universities. They had acknowledged the presents of students with disabilities who are also refugees by adopting a number of initiatives to accommodate these students. The newly established Disability Resource Centers at these institutions have been given the leading role in helping student with disabilities who are refugees to feel at home. The student affairs department will also provide the necessary assistance that is required by the student. Refugees will require counseling to be able to deal with the past and the future challenges. Counseling facilities are provided by the universities so that students who are refugees mentally psychod so that they are able to perform well

in their class. Language barriers were also identified as a barrier to the success of refugees in their studies. Universities offer English language for free prior to the attendance of their degree programs. Challenges that are faced by refugee students with disabilities cannot be solved by government alone hence partnerships with NGOs. NGOs have been at the forefront of assisting these students with scholarship and assistive devices. Most students with disabilities do not afford to source for their assistive devices because of their high cost. In most cases these assistive devices are sourced from other countries because they are not manufactured locally. NGOs have been sourcing them and helping students with disabilities. Some NGOs are church related; hence their ability to provide spiritual guidance to these students.

Maria Aristorenas, Paul O’Keeffe, and Oula Abu-Amsha in their chapter “Jamiya Project 2016: Reconnecting Refugee Higher Education Networks” highlight the war in Syria which has left a trail of unprecedented displacement and disruption, and consequently the lack of higher education opportunities for tens of thousands of young Syrian. As of 2017, only 1% of the global refugee population is able to access tertiary education programs in stark contrast to the up to 26% university-level participation in Syria prior to the war. This leaves vast unmet demand for higher education access. Refugee higher education has recently gained momentum as a humanitarian priority. It was included for the first in the UNHCR education strategy 2012–2016.

The Jamiya Project, one organization that has aimed at improving access to higher education opportunities for Syrian students in the Middle East, piloted an Introduction to Java Programming course in the Fall/Winter of 2016/2017. The course was free to access, accredited by the University of Gothenburg, taught in Arabic, and delivered through a blended learning model alongside education technology partners and NGO-facilitated learning centers on the ground. Importantly, the Jamiya Project partnered with Syrian academics in exile in developing and delivering the course.

This chapter outlines the vision and the methodology behind the actions of the Jamiya Project during this pilot course and aims to share lessons learned from the experiences, reflections and iterations of research from the course with students and academics. While it is promising to see increased activity and investment in refugee higher education, the myriad of actors in the field cannot afford to act alone. There is no doubt a collaborative effort is required to mitigate the serious effects of this crisis. There is much to share in order to restore the higher education of an entire generation.

Enakshi Sengupta and Vijay Kapur authored the chapter on “Entrepreneurship Education to Create Livelihood among Refugees and Internally Displaced People in the Camps of Kurdistan.” They explored that by the end of 2015, 65.3 million individuals (ILO, 2017) had been driven from their homes as a result of persecution, conflict, generalized violence, or human rights violations, which means it is the equivalent of one person forced to flee every second (<http://www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2017/>) Of these, 21.3 million were refugees 140.8 million IDPs and 3.2 million asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2015a). While new conflicts erupt in different parts of the world, existing conflicts linger

and worsen and the root cause of forced displacement doesn't bring any apparent solution to the table. Apart from providing shelter and healthcare and catering to the basic needs of the refugees there has to be a focus on livelihood development. Donors and aid agencies need to engage with other multilateral financial institutions, the private sector, IDPs and host communities to plan and build an economic environment that can absorb the excess and sudden influx of labor and create greater opportunities for all. Entrepreneurship education and creating opportunities for employability in easily comprehensible language, delivery of entrepreneurship education with case studies supporting the curriculum becomes the need of the hour. This chapter will highlight some of the projects that have been undertaken by the NGOs in Duhok governorate of Kurdistan. The goal of these projects is to work toward creating a sustainable development of livelihood mainly for IDPs who have migrated from Mosul due to the ongoing crisis.

"The Political Economy of Public Higher Education in Malawi: Proposals for Extending Equitable Higher Education Access to Refugee Applicants" by Levi Zeleza Manda and Noel Drake Kufaine spoke about Malawi. Since the 1970s Malawi has a favored host for asylum seekers from fleeing from liberation and civil wars in Mozambique, Rwanda, Burundi, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Somalia, and the Zaire/Democratic Republic of the Congo (Makhema, 2009). While refugees from faraway places, such as Ethiopia and Somalia, have been relative easy to tame and host in refugee camps, those from Mozambique have been extremely difficult to isolate principally because Malawi and Mozambique share cultural and linguistic characteristics that make the borders between the two countries almost irrelevant. As signatory to international legal instruments government refugees and asylum seekers, Malawi, whose constitution advocates for education rights for all, is obligated to host the refugees and provide for their needs such as education, health, and security.

In this chapter, the author discussed the history of refugee flows into Malawi and refugee education policy within the national education policies in Malawi. In particular, the author argued that refugees are part of Malawi's reality and they should be factored into the country's higher education policy and national budget. We further suggest two higher education innovations, Satellite Campus and Sandwich approaches, to enable refugees in Malawi to be better served by both the Malawi Government, the UNCHR, and other refugee education support agencies such as the Jesuit Refugee Service and the World University Service of Canada (WUSC) whose policies on resettlement and placement of refugee students abroad need review in favor of supporting refugee resettlement and education financing in Malawi.

"From Pipedream to Possibility: Developing an Equity Target for Refugees to Study Medicine in Australia" is written by Ruth M. Sladek and Svetlana M. King. The chapter shows that even well-recognized students from refugee backgrounds are typically predisposed to social, economic, and educational disadvantage. These layers of disadvantage can negatively impact upon higher education participation, not only in undergraduate, but also postgraduate education. This is even more pronounced in high stakes courses such as medicine, where competition for entry is fierce. In countries like Australia, with a progressive trend

toward graduate entry medical courses, pursuing a medical career is arguably a pipedream for most immigrants from refugee backgrounds.

Incorporating a narrative, the authors presented the story of “Tamana” an unsuccessful applicant with a refugee background, who questioned why she was denied an opportunity to study medicine. Her appeal triggered the establishment of a refugee sub-quota into graduate entry medicine. This chapter presents a case study which describes the antecedents, development, and subsequent successful implementation of this sub-quota. The sub-quota’s broader implications for the healthcare system, patient care and medical education are discussed. This chapter concludes by urging higher education institutions to review their policies so that students with a refugee background are fairly represented across all courses and careers, providing them with the opportunity to convert their pipedreams into possibilities.

“Syrian Refugees’ Access to Higher Education: A Belgian Initiative” by Tuba Bircan explored the aftermath of Syrian civil war. Since World War II, one of the largest forced migrations has been experienced as a mass influx of Syrians. Recent refugee integration policy agendas include education on the lists, despite many other issues to address. A strategic point to be taken is that higher education can also be an instrument to prevent a generation of a war-stricken nation from becoming “lost” for not only for Syria but also for Europe. Following the drastic inflow of (mostly young) refugees, Belgian higher education institutions started to work on fresh strategies and initiatives to embrace refugees in their university and colleges. Yet, the number of Syrian refugees at the Belgian universities does not exceed 400, while the estimated eligible young people are above 1,500. In order to increase the participation in higher education, national authorities and higher education institutions should re-work on flexible but efficient procedures for the recognition of degrees and prior-gained qualifications. Moreover, all individual efforts by the colleges and the universities can be empowered by a collaborative network among all Belgian higher education institutes, governmental offices, and the NGO’s. Surmounting the lack of central coordination and developing a national action plan is needed. Short-term actions are immediately required to battle against the contemporary challenges with tertiary education access of the refugees; however, the need for actions that aim at long-reaching sustainability is eminent to secure refugees’ integration into their host communities.

Aslihan McCarthy authored the chapter “State-Civil Society Relations in Education Provision for Syrian Refugees in Turkey” where she wrote about the shadow of the Syrian conflict generating millions of displaced people, education provision for Syrian children has become one of the biggest challenges for Turkey. The power relations among different state and civil society actors, as well as the particular needs of the Syrian diaspora, have turned the education provision for refugees into a political problem that has generated its own paradigm. In that context, this chapter sheds light on the role of faith-based civil society organizations in education provision for Syrian children in Turkey based on the interviews conducted with representatives of state and civil society organizations. The study presents the wider socio-political context of Turkey to analyze the motivations of faith-based organizations in exercising education facilities for a linguistically and culturally different refugee population in a nation state. In that context this

chapter attempts to contribute to the fledgling literature on refugee education from an institutional perspective taking the intrinsically ideological and political nature of education into consideration.

In accordance with debates on Islamization of Turkey and the relevant changes in social policies and education, this study finds out that the motivations of faith-based civil organizations for providing education for Syrian refugees coheres with the ideology of Sunni-Islamist nationalism promoted by the ruling party AKP. Accordingly, these organizations aim at preventing the “assimilation” of Syrian children and conserve their religious identities as Sunni-Muslims through their operations in education sector for refugees.

Maya Cranitch and Duncan MacLaren highlighted the plight of Burmese refugees in their chapter “Building Intellectual Capacity for Burma: The Story of Australian Catholic University’s Tertiary Education Program with Burmese Refugee and Migrant Students.” There is much greater awareness nowadays of the necessity of providing higher education, and not just primary or secondary school education, to refugees than ever before. In the latest edition of *University World News* at time of writing, the editors insist:

In an era of increasing political instability, xenophobia, racism, religious and ethnic persecution, genocide and threats to democracy and human rights education, civic and other leaders should do more to ensure refugees have access to education, including higher education. (Blessinger & Sengupta, 2017, p. 1)

In the past, most tertiary educational programs for refugees have involved applying for a bursary to move to a university in another country but there are now a number of programs offering tertiary education to refugees in situ. This is, frankly, preferable so that the refugee then becomes an intellectual and social asset to his/her home country, region or, indeed, camp community rather than succumbing to the “Malawi-Manchester syndrome,” where there are more Malawian doctors working in the English city of Manchester than in the whole of their home country. This fear that students with higher education would become part of a diaspora by accepting resettlement in a third country rather than assisting their own people was uppermost for the leaders of community development organizations (CBOs) such as the Karen Education Department which serviced the schools in the camps and which were connected to the Thai-Burma Refugee program (Costello, Joyce, Smith, MacLaren, & Naing, 2011, p. 184).

The Thai-Burma Refugee Program of Australian Catholic University was one of the earliest higher educational programs to be offered to refugees in situ. The germ of an idea about such a program began in 2000 after a Jesuit priest, Fr Michael Smith, now in charge of education in the Jesuit Curia in Rome, returned to Australia after a visit to some of the nine refugee camps along the Thai side of the border with Burma. He witnessed the thirst for higher education among the talented Burmese students who had completed their secondary education in camp schools but could go no further. He contacted his friends in ACU and the first graduation in a Diploma in Business took place in 2006 (Costello et al., 2011, p. 173). Thirteen years later, the program, though in a very different form, is still going strong.

CONCLUSION

This volume examines how governmental agencies, non-profit organizations, and educational institutions are mobilizing their resources to promote inclusion of refugees and IDP. The grass root campaigns are working toward achieving participation and full involvement of disadvantaged groups toward equitable distribution of opportunities in both home and host countries. The case studies highlighted in the volume emphasize on effective cooperation and coordination toward multisectoral responses that recognizes the social and economic dimensions of inclusion.

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