BACKGROUND PAPER: MIGRATION

1. INTRODUCTION

International migration in Asia and the Pacific is on the rise. As of 2010, an estimated 61.3 million international migrants live in Asia, 6 million in the Pacific and a high number of undocumented migrants are present (UNPD, 2009). From South Asia to the Pacific Island countries, cross-border movements of labour have become an important feature of development, and growth in migration has been rising over two times faster on average than the growth of the labour force of the origin countries (ILO, 2006).

People migrate for economic, political and social reasons. For the individual migrants, the benefits of migration depend on their opportunities and participation in social services such as education, health and welfare and the labour market in the destination country, as well as how well they integrate into the new society without losing their own cultural values. The impact of migration varies according to the context of sending and receiving countries and their migrants. According to de Haas (2012), when there is structural inequality in socio-economic conditions and power in origin countries, coupled with conditions that restrict people’s access to public services and markets, it is more difficult for poor people to access non-exploitative or decent work. In this context, when poor people emigrate to seek better living conditions, they may experience similar barriers in the destination countries as they do not have social and economic resources to draw upon. Furthermore, there is a tendency for countries in Asia to welcome highly skilled temporary migrants and restrict low skilled migrants. Deterring the poor or socio-economically disadvantaged may push potential emigrants into illegal channels, impede their opportunities to have decent working and living opportunities in destination countries and consequentially prevent them from returning to their countries (Hugo, 2009).

This paper focuses on the impact of migration in terms of livelihoods of migrants and their children in the host countries. The challenges and opportunities for migrants and their families are discussed in light of their rights to economic opportunity, social security, access to quality education, cultural diversity, decent living standards and socio-psychological health. In particular, the paper seeks to describe how these dimensions may drive or be a driver of education achievement, and from that how policies may be designed and implemented to turn migration into a positive development, where social inclusion and equality of education achievement is encouraged. In this paper,

1 Prepared by UNESCO Bangkok (July 2012).
“migrants” and “immigrants” are used interchangeably, and refer to people who reside in countries that are not their countries of birth; “migrant students” refers to the children of migrants.

The first section of the paper gives an overview of the patterns of migration, types of migrants and selectivity of migration in the Asia-Pacific region. The second section analyzes the impact of migration in terms of the labour market as well as its socio-economic, socio-cultural and socio-psychological impacts on migrants in host countries. Drawing on examples from countries with high levels of migrants, the last section suggests some policy measures to support migrants and their children in integrating into host countries’ education systems.

2. PATTERNS OF MIGRATION AND IMPACTS ON DEMOGRAPHY

2.1 Trends in migration flow

In the Asia-Pacific (AP) region, one in three of the foreign population of 18 million people lives in North and Central Asia (UNESCAP, 2011). South and South-West Asia have the second largest foreign population with almost 16 million people (UNESCAP, 2011). These two sub-regions host nearly two thirds of the foreign population in Asia and the Pacific. The countries in the region that host the largest foreign population are India (5.4 million), Australia (4.7 million) and Pakistan (4.2 million) (UNESCAP, 2011). The five countries or jurisdictions with the largest share of foreign population are: Northern Mariana Islands, Macao (China), Nauru, Guam and American Samoa. Macao (China), Hong Kong (China) and Singapore are important destinations for labour migrants in the region and had large foreign population proportions in 2010, 55% per cent and 39 per cent, respectively (UNESCAP, 2011). Over 50 per cent of the migrants in the region come from South Asia (primarily from India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Sri Lanka), and the rest mainly originate from South-East Asia and the Pacific (Indonesia and the Philippines) (ILO, 2006).

While the majority of migrants in the AP region traditionally went to Europe, the United States, and the Middle East, the largest migration flows are now within the region. As of 2010, among the estimated number of international migrants originating from Asia, 50.67 per cent (39,467,000) reside in Asia, 23.63 per cent (18,408,000) in Europe, 17.93 per cent (13,965,000) in the Americas, 4.37 per cent (3,401,000) in Other South (which are unidentified developing countries/regions), 2.86 per cent (2,228,000) in Oceania and 0.44 per cent (342,000) in Africa. Also, among the estimated number of international migrants originating from Oceania, 55.54 per cent (913,000) reside in Oceania, 21.53 per cent (354,000) in the Americas, 16.85 per cent (277,000) in Europe, 3.77 per cent (62,000) in Asia, 1.22 per cent (20,000) in Other South and 0.30 per cent (5,000) in Africa (Migration Policy Institute, 2010).

2.2 Migration and the labour market

2.2.1 Trends in labour migration

There are broadly two types of temporary labour migration: unskilled and skilled labour contract workers. Unskilled and semi-skilled contract workers comprise the majority of total migration, and are much required in countries of the Middle East and Asia. The sending countries are mainly from South Asian nations, Indonesia, Thailand, the Philippines, China, Myanmar and Viet Nam. The highly skilled professionals mainly come from India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and the Philippines, and their destination countries are Australia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore
and Brunei Darussalam. Indonesia and the Philippines are unique in that they are both receiving and sending countries. Newly industrialized countries like Thailand have been experiencing skilled labour shortages due to a mismatch between the types of skilled graduates and the skilled labour demands of a rapidly restructuring and growing economy.

Features of South-North migration reflect OECD countries’ policies to attract and retain highly skilled labour in order to respond to increased global competition and declining fertility rates. The largest number of labour immigrants originates from large South-East Asian countries (Hugo, 2005). In general, the emigration rate for the tertiary educated is significantly higher than the total emigration rate, and the difference between the highly skilled emigration rate and total emigration rate is particularly high for Asian countries (Dumont et al., 2010). In the AP region, highly skilled migrants are mainly from South Asian countries such as India and Pakistan (Hugo, 2005).

Many people migrate to seek employment opportunities that do not exist in their home countries, in order to raise their standards of living, provide financial support for their children’s education and improve their social status. The importance of ethnicity and cultural affinity also facilitate migration, where friends and relatives provide information, assist in finding employment, obtain visas, finance the move and help newly arrived migrants to adjust to the host country’s culture and environment. The social networks as facilitator of migration have resulted in different densities of emigration and immigration in various regions within and across countries (Shah 1995).

Labour migration in Asia tends to be temporary and circular in that many migrants return home after a period of employment overseas. Given this trend, sending countries in the AP region are seeking ways to encourage return migrants to use their skills and experience to advance development for their home countries. For example, Chinese nationals have established quantitatively important bilateral trades with Chinese entrepreneurs in the United States. There are explicit attempts to build transnational community and link with business in China by bringing back expatriate professionals through meetings and conferences sponsored by governments. India has developed programs to attract the Indian diaspora back, heighten cultural attachment through the promotion of cultural events, attract investments and remittances, develop new markets for Indian good overseas and equip Indian firms with management expertise (Hugo, 2009).

There is a viewpoint that countries with high skilled labour emigration tend to have a large pool of domestic skilled workers unless the outflow is large, thus emigration of the highly skilled may not impinge on the skilled labour of sending countries (Schapiro, 2009). On the other hand, the argument of brain drain emphasizes undesirable consequences of skill loss for the origin country’s development progress when there is a mismatch between the skills of the population and the country’s need of those skills. The highest level of ‘brain drain’ is experienced in the Pacific countries (Gibson and McKenzie, 2010) where there is no circular migration, and in Sub-Saharan Africa (e.g. Cape Verde) and Central America where the largest fraction of the more educated population lives abroad (Hugo, 2009). In some Asian countries, the proportion of foreign born with tertiary qualifications may be much higher than that of the native population.

Developing countries with fast growing economies have experienced the migration of an increasing number of professionals, business entrepreneurs and staff from multi-national corporations (MNCs) to Europe, North America and Australia on a temporary to long-term basis. The mismatch between education and vocational training systems and the labour market in countries like Indonesia and Thailand has also resulted in an influx of expatriates in various fields such as information and
communications technologies (ICTs), engineering and financial services. Countries such as India, the Philippines, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh are producing more highly skilled graduates than their own labour market can absorb, resulting in an increasing number of highly skilled people from these countries moving to countries within the Asian region (Hugo, 2005). There is thus a consensus that labour migration is demand driven.

2.2.2 Policy trends in labour migration

Immigration polices tend to be consistent across Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong (China) and Taiwan (Hugo, 2009; Shah, 1995). First, governments are concerned about keeping the number of migrants low by limiting the number of legal migrants and imposing penalties, deportation or imprisonment for illegal migrants. Japan has increased the numbers of years of imprisonment and established higher penalties for illegal workers. Australia, Canada and some of the newly industrialized countries (NICs) prefer skilled migrants to unskilled workers. The government of Singapore imposes a higher levy for unskilled than for skilled labour in order to discourage immigration and especially immigration of unskilled labour. Such entry restrictions have become even more evident as more labour movement is experienced between countries within the region. For example, Pakistani nationals have to obtain working visas from their home country, and conditions are extremely strict. Labour importing countries in the Middle East have also expressed concern about the high numbers of foreign workers from Asia and have developed laws and regulations to curtail this phenomenon. As the competition in sending countries has increased and as a result of weaker employment growth from weaker economies globally and in the region, labour demand has decreased. However, as long as the wage gap between the home and host countries remains large, labour migration is likely to continue. As countries develop and the wage gap decreases, the supply of labour from sending countries may shrink (Hugo, 2005).

Policies of countries of emigrants tend to be pro-labour emigration, as they recognize the potential benefit of poverty reduction using remittances from overseas workers. In this way, emigration is viewed largely as temporary, and as an effective way of alleviating poverty and increasing individual immigrants’ living standards (Hugo, 2009). Governments recognize the need to regulate the process of labour migration and some have formulated laws and have created specific agencies to deal with this responsibility. With fewer job opportunities overseas, the chances of illegal migration have increased. However demand for unskilled workers is likely to persist.

2.3 Refugees

Asia is the region with the largest refugee operations and the region which produces the greatest number of refugees in the world (UNHCR, 2012). In the Asia-Pacific region, the total number of refugees, including those in situations of protracted displacement, was estimated at four million at the end of 2010, an increase of four per cent during the year. This was due in part to the revision of the estimated number of Afghan refugees in Pakistan from 1.7 to 1.9 million (UNHCR, 2011).

As of 2010, Pakistan was the country with the largest number of refugees (1.9 million) globally, nearly all from Afghanistan, with an increase of 160,000 in the total refugee population of the country. The Islamic Republic of Iran hosts slightly over one million refugees, again almost all Afghans, whose numbers remain virtually unchanged from 2009 (UNHCR, 2011). Bangladesh, Nepal and Thailand have also been hosting large numbers of refugees for more than 20 years (UNHCR, 2011). With more than three million refugees in 75 countries, Afghanistan remains the leading country of origin of refugees as of 2010.
2.4 Internal migration

Similar to the rest of the world, the AP region has experienced an increasing level of internal migration, with an estimated five-fold increase in the number of people living in urban areas between 1950 and 2000 (Martin, 2009). As of 2010, Asia and the Pacific is the second least urbanized region of the world with 43 per cent of the population living in urban areas; however, urban population in the region has risen by 29 per cent in the last two decades (UNESCAP, 2011).

Across the region, the urban population and urban population growth rates vary dramatically. The Pacific sub-region is the most urbanized with 71 per cent of the population living in urban areas (UNESCAP, 2011). In contrast, South and South-West Asia is the least urbanized sub-region, with only 33 per cent of the population living in urban areas; however, it also had the fastest urban population growth rate of all the AP sub-regions at an average of 2.4 per cent per year during 2005-2010 (UNESCAP, 2011). Rapid economic development has encouraged rural people to migrate to urban areas to improve their economic opportunities and access to services. The inability of households to sustain their lives in rural areas also became a push factor for urban migration. Another feature of urbanization is the growth of mega-cities, cities with populations of over 10 million. Of the world’s 21 mega-cities in 2010, 12 are in Asia, including seven of the largest 10 cities (UNESCAP, 2011).

Development projects and urbanization, including official projects such as dams, mines, forest reserves and irrigation can also be the cause of internal displacement (IOM, 1992). Environmental factors such as floods, cyclones, droughts and desertification have resulted in internal displacements of people such as the 1988 flood in Bangladesh, where 48 million people were affected and millions of homes destroyed, resulting in rapid movement towards urban areas. Consequentially, a very high and increasing level of urbanization is likely to result in urban crowding, slum growth, unemployment and underemployment (Shah, 1995).

2.5 Female migration

Feminization of migration is another key feature in the region. Women make up a significant share of migrants, especially from Indonesia, Myanmar, the Philippines and Sri Lanka (UNESCAP, 2011). Most female migrants work as domestic workers or in care and service industries. According to UNPD, female migrants as a percentage of the international migrant stock of age 20-64 in 2010 for Indonesia, Myanmar, the Philippines and Sri Lanka was respectively 43.4%, 50.0%, 50.9% and 48.7% (UNPD, 2011). The major destinations of domestic workers in Asia are Hong Kong (China), Singapore and the Middle East (Wickramasekera, 2002). Since domestic work is located in the homes of employers in the destination, it is open to greater risks of exploitation than factory employment (Hugo, 2005). There are also significant numbers of women migrants who work in the entertainment industry. Women migrants are one of the most vulnerable groups in all countries (Wickramasekera, 2002).

2.6 Undocumented migration

As argued by Castles (2003), the restrictive policies of permanent settlement and limiting unskilled workers have increased the level of illegal or undocumented migration in the region. Acute poverty and unemployment problems in origin countries, political suppression and armed conflict, malpractices of private recruitment agencies, high migration costs and the activities of criminal gangs and traffickers have also contributed to the rise in illegal migration (Hugo, 2005). However
there is not enough data about the level and motivation for undocumented migration as countries mainly focus on legal immigrants.

Many countries attempt to reduce illegal migration through rigorous policing and compliance measures, imposing sanctions on employers of illegal migrants and penalties for illegal migrants including physical punishment (Hugo, 2005). But these have acted to force illegal migrants into more dangerous avenues rather than deterring them from entering the destination countries. Where countries have attempted to legalize migration of workers, illegal operators have extended operation so deeply that it is difficult for illegal migrants to replace their illegal practices with legal ones. Many illegal migrants trust illegal operators more than governments. Migration compliance activities become more expensive and time consuming under these conditions (Hugo, 2009).

3. IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION FOR EDUCATION

3.1 Rights of migrant workers

Whilst the economic motivation and consequences of migration have been well researched, the social impact of migration on migrants and their children has not been given adequate attention (Schapiro, 2009). The need to preserve cultural homogeneity has led to the policy ethos of exclusion for many Asian countries. Many Asian nations (for example Japan) have continued to create demand for unskilled, low-paid labour. However the country has resisted legal immigration as a solution to this need and thus has witnessed a large-scale inflow of undocumented migrants. Rather than establishing managed or controlled intake of migrants which can act to protect migrants' rights, barriers in migration policies have created illegal and criminal activities including exploitation of workers.

The other challenge for certain nations in the region (for example Malaysia and the Philippines) is their ethnically diverse populations. In the context of migration, countries have to balance between the establishment of national identity and embracing ethnic diversity. For many nations in Asia, national identity has been more important than transnational ethnicity and cultural diversity. This in turn has resulted in emphasis and development of national language and culture and downplaying of local and minority languages and cultures (Schapiro, 2009).

Migrants experience social exclusion or discrimination at various levels. Unlike highly skilled migrants, unskilled labour migrants are restricted in bringing families with them and in their choice of job and/or employer. They do not have access to basic workers’ rights, the capacity to approach employers or to citizenship. In addition, they face a high level of stigmatization and stereotyping (Hugo, 2005).

One of the key areas of concern in regard to labour migration relates to the abuse and exploitation of migrant workers, and the challenge lies in creating policies to protect their rights. Overseas unskilled workers are frequently marginalized in destination countries, as evidenced in their lack of access to quality education and social services, involvement in vulnerable occupations with low income and low status and habitation in slum dwellings or areas with hazardous living conditions. They do not have the necessary social and personal resources to protect themselves, nor adequate information about their rights. There exists limited commitment by governments from both sending and receiving countries to support and protect their rights.

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3.2 Migration and education

Migration affects young children in various ways. Some children move with their parents, some stay behind and some migrate by themselves. According to UNHCR, children under five make up approximately 11 per cent and children aged 6-17 make up 32 per cent of those in forced migration and seeking asylum, whether they are with their families or unaccompanied (UNHCR, 2011). The children of these migrants are likely to be disadvantaged in terms of enrolment, type of school they attend, period of school attendance, achievement levels and levels of education.

3.2.1 Children of labour migrants

As family composition changes due to migration, children may be required to take on additional household chores and responsibilities and work to support household income. Migrant children face significant emotional stress in absence of their families or communities. Research findings have suggested that the impact of migration on children depends on types of migrant, reasons for migration, individual characteristics, socio-economic status of their families, level of education of parents, circle of friends, familial networks and wider community networks, as well as local economic factors and destination countries’ social welfare policies (Schapiro, 2009). Children who migrate alone are most disadvantaged and face huge barriers in access to quality education, financial support and emotional loss from not having parents around, all of which affect their ability to attend and remain at school. For low skilled migrants, their children face extreme poverty, arduous work, poor health, language difficulties and social marginalization (Sabates-Wheeler, 2009). While research has highlighted positive outcomes of migration, mainly for children in home countries who receive remittances from highly skilled migrant parents working overseas towards their education or living support (Schapiro, 2009), the extent of negative consequences of migration for children of low skilled and undocumented migrants remain under researched.

3.2.2 Internal migration and its implications

Little is known about educational impacts from internal migration except that it varies depending on the context and thus is diverse in experience. Some studies have shown that outcomes are better for migrants who migrate from rural to urban areas, as these children have the opportunity to obtain a better education. Inadequate public services including poor education provision often serves to push people to move and seek better schooling for their children. On the other hand, for some urban migrants, the objective is to enter a stronger labour market and return to their home region later on. These families have little incentive to acquire education beyond basic education or literacy and numeracy. For example most rural Chinese migrants only have primary or junior high school education and often look for employment in cities, which leads them to drop out of school before completing senior secondary school. However, these workers send money home to support education for their younger siblings, as a commitment to family responsibilities (Schapiro, 2009). In addition, urban migrants tend to live in slum dwellings, and many cannot have access to affordable schools in the slums. The quality of schools in these areas is poor, overcrowded, lacking in teachers and textbooks and is often far from where they live. All of these factors act to demotivate them from attending school.

For rural-to-rural and seasonal migrants, the outcomes are more pessimistic as children are seen to be missing out on school when they migrate (Smita, 2008). These families often send children away to work in neighbouring villages in times of economic hardship. Dhaka in Bangladesh presents another phenomenon in that it is a receiving city for young women from rural areas in the garment
industries, especially young low-skilled women who bring their children with them. These children often work with their mothers or become employed themselves. In a survey by UNICEF in 1997, 48 per cent of these migrant children in Bangladesh never attended school, and the majority dropped out of school before reaching year five (Shah, 1995).

### 3.2.3 Migrant students and educational achievement

The impacts of migration on education attainment vary extremely between countries and types of migration. Some studies show positive effects (more for highly skilled who migrate for employment opportunity to advanced economies), but some show adverse effects (for low skilled migrants, seasonal migrants and refugees and undocumented migrants) (Dustman and Glitz, 2011). The labour market structure can accentuate the negative effects of the migration and education linkage. As with any situation and context, social systems interact with changing economic opportunities to shape educational and labour market outcomes. In the case of migrants, the social determinants of access and participation in education represent other variables linking education to employment (de Haas, 2012).

According to the OECD (2011), educational achievement of migrant students is comparatively higher in countries with lower economic inequality, high investment in child care and well developed systems of preschool education. The more favourable school results appear to be related to strong educational level of parents and aspirations of immigrant families. The educational level of parents, their social class and the size of their families are often influential factors in determining their children’s education outcomes. The scope of the discussion of education achievement here is confined within the boundaries of the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) scores. It must be noted that this is not a holistic viewpoint, given that the body of research on migration’s impact on education suggests varied findings of both positive and negative education attainment.

Migrant students tend to attend schools with lower economic, social and cultural status than their local peers. However, parental background and home environment generally contribute significantly as predictors of performance (Schapiro, 2009). The exception to this tendency in the OECD countries is Australia, where migrant students show better performance on PISA than their local peers. This appears to reflect the country’s selective migration policy, by which the migration sphere is dominated by legal, well-educated and wealthier migrants than in other OECD countries. In Australia, half of the migrant children come from high-income origin countries, where parents have higher educational qualifications than their local peers, thus these children perform better than local children in terms of educational attainment. However, using PISA results as an educational achievement indicator and drawing on some empirical evidence of lower achievement by migrants compared to local students in most contexts, the discussion here highlights the risks of under achievement of migrant children.

Language also plays a central role in the integration and educational achievement of migrants and is one of the primary obstacles for migrant students. Migrant students need proficiency in the language of destination countries in order to understand, learn and socialize. Education is delivered through language instruction, which is thus not only a condition for educational participation and achievement but also a mechanism to develop relationships with other members of the community. In that sense, the national language of the host country may present a handicap for migrant students who do not know it. Furthermore, language is a marker of ethnic belonging and difference.
Language and language activities are mutually constructive in the integration process of migrants and are instrumental in shaping prospects for migrant inclusiveness or exclusion.

Cultural differences are an additional factor in precluding migrant students from participating in the schooling environment of host countries. This does not suggest a cultural deficit model of migrants, but emphasizes that cultural difference as experienced by migrants, including different ways of learning and school life, may disadvantage migrant students. For example, there is limited coverage of migrant students’ backgrounds in the school curriculum or pedagogy; schools are accustomed to their ways and dominant cultures and thus may reject people who do not fit in this model. Without explicit mechanisms to accommodate migrants, the normal modality of schooling and teachers’ expectations and behaviours may exclude migrant students from socialization into the school’s norms. In addition, schools for migrants may set up norms and procedures that segregate migrants from local people, in order to receive funding or fit into the institutional norms of the host country.

Schools are the main agents for cultural integration where students are enabled to understand the country’s culture, language, norms, values and habits, without giving up their family cultural background (Inglis, 2008). Migrant students whose parents are low-skilled migrants or urban migrants with little formal education in their countries of origin do not have the learned skills or knowledge of standards in the new education system. Their limited cultural capital is devalued through migration due to their lack of knowledge about society, functioning of schools and career systems and social customs in general. Families with high levels of skills or high levels of cultural capital may integrate faster as they can rely on knowledge learned in home countries, though they may still experience difficulty transferring formal qualifications and knowledge from their home countries. The unequal education outcomes for migrant students thus have to be seen and understood in light of these cultural differences or cultural practices of schools (NESSE, 2008). Consequentially, policies can be shaped to embrace the cultural diversity of schools rather than the cultural deficits of migrant learners. In such a context, a quality school is a school which enables integration of migrants so as to improve their educational achievement.

The disconnection between families and schools constitutes ethnic differences that further limit resources relevant for migrant children’s education in new countries. It takes a period of time for migrant students to understand new social norms of schooling, and only through connection between schools, their families and themselves can they internalize the education standards of new education systems and adopt appropriate behaviour to fit in with those systems. This form of cultural capital development is dependent on the levels and forms of social networks which students have (Bourdieu, 1986). Thus for migrant children, the early period of migration presents challenges in the processes of adaptation to teachers, peers, curriculum, language of instruction and pedagogy.

The different contexts and types of migrants contribute to their varied status and rights in certain countries. However, most migrants face difficulty in accessing social welfare or services (Smita, 2008). In the same vein, stereotyping migrants can produce societal and individual negative attitudes about certain migrant groups. In the school environment this can lead to bullying or other acts of exclusion, which can undermine the school performance of migrant students.

4. POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND POSSIBILITIES

4.1 Education policies
Cross-border migration has the potential to both benefit and impede the development progress of both sending and receiving countries. Similarly, internal migration can be both beneficial and harmful for economic growth or income production. The linkage between migration, cross-border and internal, and education rests on human development and the countries/jurisdictions’ conditions of development. The effect on education from migration is highly contextual and thus countries’ intervention policies to manage migration need to be specifically designed to address each type of migrant, selectivity of migration and destination of migration, as well as the local cultural, economic and social context of immigrants. The causal relationships between migration, education, society and economy are complex and are affected by various channels, monetary and non-monetary, which impact household and individual behaviour. Furthermore, research findings about the magnitude of migration impact across different studies are not easily comparable because of varied methodologies and non-comparable definitions and intensity of migration. The policies suggested in this section draw on case studies of countries to illustrate their potential benefits in various contexts. There is not enough data and evidence to describe the results and generalize for universal measures, but the lessons learnt from these programmes warrant further research and policy design to support migrants and their families.

4.1.1 Early childhood learning

Investing in quality early childhood care and education (ECCE) is crucial, as it is at this stage that the foundations are laid for learning. More importantly, research has shown that the cycle of poverty and disadvantage can be broken if ECCE is provided. According to (Abramovich et al., 2011), migrant children are less likely to enroll in ECCE programmes, and if they fall behind at an early age the gaps in cognitive, linguistic and social skills will be difficult to overcome later on in life. Early childhood education for migrants needs to focus on both access and quality in order for its benefits to be realized and sustained. Studies looking at early childhood education of migrant children in Germany have suggested that attendance of pre-school helped to narrow the gap between them and local children (United Nations Children's Fund, 2008). A well-developed ECCE system includes programmes for disadvantaged students and parents for general development, language learning and socialization.

4.1.2 Overcoming cultural disadvantage

School is the place to enable migrant students to integrate into the culture of destination countries, and schools must thus create opportunities to help migrant students to cope with cultural disadvantage. The presence of migrants in school curriculum, textbooks, school activities and school ethos is important for migrant students to develop their self-esteem and maintain their identity and traditional cultural values. For migrant students, school is the place where they experience cultural difference. Thus it is important that they feel comfortable and confident of their identity to enable them to understand and absorb the new culture and at the same time not have to contest their own cultural makeup. The integration of origin countries’ cultural elements in the curriculum and pedagogy serve as cultural presentations of migrants in school life and can act to connect differing worlds of migrant students. There must be a joint effort of schools, education authorities and community associations to create migrant networks to ease people into social networks in the new country and to enable trust between migrants and local people. When implemented as part of an overall migration management strategy, this initiative generates the basis to share language, customs and experiences (NESSE, 2008). In Australia, efforts by migrant and ethnic communities in the 1970s shifted policy focus towards cultural maintenance in the school systems, through the implementation of after-school language classes, Saturday schools and appointment of bilingual
teachers. In addition, anti-racism policies are enforced across all schools targeting Aboriginal students and those from non-English speaking backgrounds. The multicultural perspective in education has resulted in much attention to curriculum and in-service training for teachers in culturally diverse settings (Inglis, 2008).

4.1.3 Language promotion

Language proficiency is an important factor in educational achievement (NESSE, 2008), and many countries have adopted policies that focus on improved language competency of migrants. For example in Australia, the Adult Migrant English Programme offers basic English skills tuition to adult migrants and other language support programmes to overcome language barriers; in Australia and the United States, English as Second Language (ESL) is delivered as part of the formal curriculum. Foreign language learning is a tool, not only for enhancing cultural dialogue and cultural exchange and understanding, but also for knowing other cultures. There is pertinent development in language learning in the region given its linguistic diversity. Language teaching in the curriculum can help to maintain cultural values of migrant students and help to maintain communication within migrant families, which can contribute to academic success (Inglis, 2008). The inclusion of languages in the formal curriculum also has to consider pedagogical approaches in teaching English to migrants, teaching native languages to migrants and teaching foreign languages as a way to encourage cultural diversity. Bi/multilingual education programmes, through formal and non-formal education, can help to prepare ethnic minority learners for literacy in both mother tongue and national languages in some countries in Asia (UNESCO, 2012).

4.1.4 Teacher training

Schools with large numbers of migrants need quality teachers who are trained in teaching students from diverse backgrounds and different language skills. Unfortunately much research has suggested that qualified and experienced teachers tend to be deployed to schools with higher numbers of local students (Schapiro, 2009). Policies should be designed to encourage teachers to teach at schools with large numbers of migrants and to improve teacher training to meet the needs of diverse student populations. Classes with migrant students should have low numbers of pupils in order to allow adequate teaching time. Evidence has suggested that reducing class sizes may have a positive impact on educational achievement in the early years of education in particular (United Nations Children’s Fund, 2008).

It is also important that teachers are trained to have equal expectations of migrant and local students. Teacher expectations affect their behavior and feedback towards migrant students and the extent to which they give additional material to meet students’ needs or opportunities to encourage students to participate in class. Schofield (2006) suggests that migrant students who lack language proficiency in destination countries may not be able to verbalize and interact with teachers, which in turn affects teachers’ expectations and relationships with them and can impact their education performance.

4.1.5 Integration

Programmes that allow integration of migrant students rather than segregating them from local students are suggested to be more beneficial for them, particularly when segregation is based on socio-demographic characteristics such as ethnicity which can result in clustering disadvantaged students in one group. One way to improve this is to allow migrant parents a choice of schooling. For
example, governments can provide financial incentives for schools to take on migrant students (Field et al., 2007). It is important that parents have necessary information so they can understand and recognize that they have choices of schools for their children. Migrant parents also need logistical support to allow them to enact their choice on an informed basis. Other ways include adapting diagnostic tools for teachers to eliminate potential bias towards migrant children and postponing early tracking of students’ performance to permit migrant students time to catch up or readjust to new learning environments. Concentration of migrants hinders their academic performance, as migrants tend to perform better when they have higher education aspirations or associate with peers who do (Schapiro, 2009).

Parental involvement in students’ school life is an aspect of integration that is seen as positively associated with the achievement of children (NESSE, 2008). Parents or other family members can be involved if they have language confidence and understanding of their choices and rights. Research suggests that migrant parents tend not to seek contact with schools because they feel isolated, alienated and powerless (Schofield, 2006). SPARKS, a civil society action group in Australia, runs a volunteer programme of visiting migrant or refugee children and families after school hours, where volunteers inform parents about various aspects of schools, and assist students with their homework. This strategy reinforces the bond and kinship within the family, and at the same time, emphasizes the need for parents to support migrant students. Parents are encouraged to take an interest in the educational and social mobility of their children, something that they may have lacked in their home countries. Furthermore, migrant parents who may have different ideas on how they can support their children at schools are empowered to close the social distance between schools and families through better understanding of the role of the school. Parents as Teachers (PAT) is another initiative in the United Kingdom, where parents are visited at home and given information about housing, schools, health and other developmental issues in regard to their children. Parent focus groups are held where parent educators and parents can meet to exchange knowledge and experiences about child development (Schapiro, 2009).

4.1.6 Improving living conditions of migrants

According to Schapiro (2009), policies to improve localization of migrants may involve creating attractive specialized schools and improving the quality of schools in disadvantaged areas or in schools with large numbers of migrants. For example, Switzerland has developed QUIMS, a programme for quality assurance in multi-ethnic schools where migrant students make up at least 40 per cent of the student body. These schools are entitled to additional financial resources and support to raise their performance and to discourage local families from moving away. This weakens the likelihood of segregation by encouraging local people and migrants to live together. Setting quota systems with a limited number of migrants in an area may also lessen negative attitudes or flight of local families. Other attempts to allow integration of migrants in the local communities call for improvement of physical infrastructure of old inner-city or industrial areas where migrants of low socio-economic may live. A deliberate investment in urban planning or urban renewal may increase attractiveness of these areas and bring in local people or people of different social classes (NESSE, 2008).

4.1.7 Targeting undocumented migrant children

It is critical that policies are set with clear and enforceable targets of education access for undocumented migrant children without discrimination. This requires clearer, simpler and more transparent documentation processes at the national administration level in order to allow
undocumented migrants easy ways to obtain documentation or registration of their identity. For example in 2004, the Thai government introduced a scheme to register foreign workers in Thailand. The objective of this scheme was to improve the workers’ children’s access to social services. It is important that the legal rights of undocumented migrants be respected and recognized in practice across all sectors and levels of education (Schapiro, 2009). It should also be noted that policies to improve the situation of migrants may result in increasing the number of potential migrants or permanent settlement. Thus for many destination countries, the potential impact on the country’s educational system and social fabric has to be balanced with service provision for undocumented migrants.

4.1.8 Targeting internal migrant students

Children of families that migrate internally or seasonally often have to work while also attending school. There should be programmes of schooling with flexible hours or even schooling programmes in the home region to cater for the educational needs of these children (Smita, 2008). Evidence of this type of policy is scarce in research literature as well as in practice. Case studies from India and Bangladesh, where high levels of internal migration takes place, indicate that the role of government and civil society is paramount in supporting these children (Smita, 2008). The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), which is the Indian government’s programme for the achievement of universal elementary education, supports the provision of mobile schools, examinations on demand, bridge courses, residential camps and drop-in centres for children living in slum dwellings. There have been hostel schools run in India in high migration districts such as Bolnagir and Nudapa since 2004, which allows parents to leave their children behind when they migrate seasonally for work. A UNICEF supported program in Andhra Pradesh runs a residential school for children of migrants in the high migration area of Narayanhked. It also allows children to stay in their villages to study while their parents migrate to work. Schools in Bangladesh offer two-hour school days to cater for children who have to work (NESSE, 2008). The timing of these school hours are decided jointly by the Parents and Teachers Association.

4.1.9 Funding

A focus on migrant education through school policies requires additional education funding and strategies to efficiently allocate additional resources. Policy makers can set target groups for funding and decide the level of the schooling system which should benefit. Examples of funding schemes for migrants include French Priority Education Zones, British Excellence in Cities and the British Ethnic Minority Achievement grant (Schapiro, 2008). It is important that there be partnership between funding authorities and schools to allocate funding in order to produce good results (Schapiro, 2009). Designating migrant education rather than education in general helps to target specific groups and also enables schools with migrant children to receive appropriate funding entitlements. This would give migrant parents the choice of schooling for their children without fear that the schools may reject their enrolment based on inadequate funding.

4.1.10 Discrimination

Discrimination affects migrant children psychologically and impacts their school attendance and performance. The difficulty for policy and practice in responding to discrimination in the school system lies in measuring discrimination and its educational effects. Despite this difficulty, it is critical that there is an awareness of the extent of discrimination which may exist, whether it is perceived discrimination, individual or group discrimination or at the institutional level where migrants are
denied support where needed (Gomolla and Olaf, 2002). In addition, concerted effort must be made to address discrimination at all levels of the education system and in society. Anti-discrimination policies tend to be effected through complaints of people experiencing discrimination, while it may be better to take a preventative approach and implement policies to prevent discrimination at various levels within the education system and society as a whole (NESSE, 2008).

4.2 Labour migration policies

To enhance the benefit of labour migration for host countries, sending countries and individual migrants and their families, some policy considerations may be made at the various stages of migration. Prior to leaving, aspiring migrants can be provided with timely and accurate information about job opportunities and working conditions to prepare them for work in new countries and to deal with crises (Hugo, 2009). The Philippines’ Overseas Workers Program advises potential migrants about work choices and living conditions in certain countries. There is a need for effective implementation of regulatory policies to restrict exploitation of workers by agents in sending countries. Additionally, governments can assist in placing potential migrants into networks, both at home and abroad, to provide them with training or information. The Philippines has advocated for fair treatment for its workers in the Gulf by focusing on vulnerable groups such as domestic servants and illegal workers (Hugo, 2005).

Policies to assist temporary labour migrants during their stay in destination countries remain light, with programs initiated mainly by NGOs. These organizations may have the international networks which allow cooperation between sending and receiving countries. Religious or civil society organizations have shown that they can help in lobbying, providing information and raising awareness for migrants’ protection in both locations (Hugo, 2009). It is in the interest of receiving countries to provide opportunity for migrants to integrate because when migrants develop skills and integrate well into the new society and economy, they are less likely to depend on social benefits. This, in turn, leads to the reduction of negative effects on local employment and the promotion of social harmony. It is also important that governments in the home countries design strategies to maximize the skills and financial resources acquired by migrants when they return home. Returnees possess entrepreneurial skills, may be highly motivated and can be supported to participate in urban and rural growth projects. (Hugo 2009).

As the trend of migration within the AP region is set to continue, cooperation among countries in the various-sub regions is necessary in order to address the common problems that are faced by their workers. However, much care and sensitivity is needed in formulating policies in these areas so as to maximize human welfare and not threaten host country stability.

4.3 Migration data improvement

There is a need to improve data on the stocks and flows of all types of migration within and across countries in order to better understand the linkages between macro and micro-economic conditions and triggers, and the demographic, political, social and cultural factors that govern migration. Understanding these linkages will help to promote realistic policies and planning for future emigration.

Migration’s impact on educational outcomes depends on various factors such as the reasons for migration, migrant families’ education choices or preferences and their expenditure on education and other socio-economic effects. It is important that more empirical research in these dimensions is
conducted so as to provide policy makers with information on appropriate policies. Such research would undoubtedly be difficult, with methodological challenges due to the difficulty in defining migration and education quality and the lack of relevant data for non-English speaking countries. It is also necessary to integrate a multidisciplinary approach to research to understand the effects of migration on migrant families in terms of knowledge transfer and values exchange within families or communities, as well as emotions and identities of children in migrant families. Regional and international collaboration is recommended for the conduct and dissemination of such research.

4.4 Sector wide approach

Migration policies have to go hand in hand with other national policies such as economic, social and development policies. Countries need to develop policies for income distribution, social development, welfare systems, employment and population issues, in order to remove pressures of unemployment, poverty or social mobility from home countries that push people into moving abroad.

There is a general agreement that it is best to adopt migration management policy that maximizes the benefits of mobility for national interest and at the same time preserves the nation's border security and respect for the human rights of immigrants (Hugo, 2009). In Asia, regional cooperation is evidenced in the development of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) and the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), and the upcoming ASEAN +3. So far these bodies tend to focus on the free movement of goods and trade and business and have yet to give great consideration to human migration. As ASEAN states comprise both emigrants and immigrants there would be much benefit in harmonizing policies in cooperation with other states.

Following from the success of the Business Mobility Group (BMG), APEC country leaders have begun steps in harmonization with the region. The Republic of Korea, the Philippines and Australia initially trialed BMP practices, and that trial has spread to 15 APEC countries, with the remaining six to follow. Bilateral negotiation and agreement may be useful to achieve minimum standards for workers’ rights and related areas. The UN Convention on Migrant Workers (ICPRAMWF) of 1990 can be used as a basis for improving the immigration policies for countries in Asia. Most countries in Asia have not ratified this convention. The strategy for developing a coherent framework is to provide policy makers and planners with information about the nature, causes and consequences of the various types of migration and how these movements may impinge or benefit their countries (Hugo, 2005).

4.5 Combatting illegal migration

It is important that the increased focus of governments on migration policies should not place additional burden or transaction cost for migrants seeking work, as this would increase the opportunity for corruption and illegal operations and potentially shift migrants into the undocumented sector. Illegal migration issues are best addressed in dialogues where exchange of information and ideas are encouraged. As countries with a high level of undocumented migrants, the Republic of Korea and Japan have made a joint effort to promote legal movement and strategies to curb irregular migration (Hugo, 2009). Lessons can be learned from this experience.

4.6 Collaboration with civil society

Foundations and other civil society organizations have collaborated in their efforts to create programmes for migrants and their children (NESSE, 2008). These efforts can help to combat
discrimination and the image of migrants as a primarily disadvantaged group with potential problems. When delivered in cooperation with education support at the family and home levels, these programmes are effective in helping migrants to integrate socially and empower them to create role models for their own communities.

5. CONCLUSION

In any education system, the social and economic resources of families have a strong effect on their children’s levels of educational achievement. Schooling provides the means to participate in society fairly so that people are not disadvantaged by their levels of cultural, social and economic resources. In an age of increased migration, the capacity of the education system to bring about equality, opportunities and self-empowerment for its migrant learners depends on sector-wide collaboration and implementation of education policies, migration policies, labour policies, social policies and urban planning policies with a coherent view towards the rights of migrants. Education policy-making in this context requires regional collaboration for the development of policies to manage migration in a way that protects the human security of migrants and national interests. The competing demands and complexity of migration, coupled with limited empirical data about the role and impact of migration at various levels of society and economy, necessitates a multitude of policies, programmes and measures.
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