



Inclusion of Refugees in
Technical and Vocational
Education and Training:
An Exploration into Funding,
Planning and Delivery

Implementing Agency

This document has been developed as part of the VET Toolbox project.

The VET Toolbox was created in 2017 and provides partner countries with know-how, tools and advice to improve the effectiveness and inclusiveness of VET reforms supported by the European Union.

It focuses on supporting VET systems to:

- become more demand-driven, with more effective private sector engagement.
- become more responsive to labour market needs.
- provide increased access to (self-) employment, including for disadvantaged groups.

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The intended beneficiaries of the VET Toolbox are:

- National vocational authorities and regulatory bodies, including training funds.
- National and international enterprises involved in VET partnerships.
- Quality assurance organisations responsible for learner assessments and examinations.
- Public, private or mixed VET training institutes and VET pre-service and in-service instructor training institutes.
- National, regional and sectorial business and professional associations and civil society organisations.

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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

An unprecedented number of individuals are fleeing their home nations to seek safety in foreign countries as refugees. At such a time, when the resources available to support refugees are insufficient, it is vital to review the impact of interventions so that policies and systems can be improved and resources can be channelled to the most effective initiatives.

Inclusion in life-long learning is an issue of growing interest to countries across the world as they seek to improve the effectiveness of their vocational education and training systems to address demographic, economic and social demands. In particular, inclusion of refugees offers the prospect of tapping into an immense though not obvious resource potential. Refugee law and international human rights law guarantee any person with refugee status the right to study, work or set up a business; however, statistics show that refugees are up to six times more likely to be unemployed than non-refugees.

We have observed that in many countries where we work, governments and donors are increasingly interested in addressing barriers to life-long learning and access to employment for refugees as part of their technical and vocational education and training (TVET) reform agendas. Research from 2016 demonstrates that developing countries play the greatest role in sheltering the world's displaced (UNHCR, 2017:14). Pakistan, Ethiopia and Jordan are all major refugee hosting countries with well in excess of half a million refugees each. While it is crucial to look at how countries with very large refugee populations such as these are planning and funding education, it is also helpful to look at the experience of countries which have a long history of hosting refugees such as the UK, or have hosted significant numbers of refugees in recent decades such as South Africa.

This research by the British Council examines the inclusion of refugees in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in five countries – Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan, South Africa and the UK. An index and supporting analytical report were created through evidence gathered from interviews with stakeholders in these countries and a desk review. The index and report compare TVET for refugees across these countries through the themes of *availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability*. The main findings of the research are:

- TVET for refugees exists in all of the countries but it is never universally available to all refugees
- refugee policy and bureaucratic practices create barriers which deny refugees access to TVET; however, policymakers in some countries have relaxed policies in order to enable refugees to access TVET
- TVET often fails to provide refugees with learning opportunities that are personally acceptable. The training on offer rarely takes account of refugees' prior learning, work experience, cultural practices or aspirations for the future
- policymakers, funders and education providers make a reasonable effort to adapt existing policies, funding systems and programmes to the needs of refugees.

Based on the aforementioned themes, the report makes the following recommendations to improve the inclusion of refugees in TVET:

Availability – for consideration by policymakers and funders

1. Where TVET systems are weakly established within an administration, consideration should be given to improving the state of the wider TVET system in the host country as well as the integration of refugees into that TVET system.
2. Governments of host countries should regularly update existing asylum and refugee policies to include education entitlement.
3. UNHCR's future policies and strategies should stipulate requirements for state signatories in respect of TVET, as this may encourage signatories to improve the availability of public TVET for refugees.

Accessibility – for consideration by policymakers and funders

4. Where access to TVET is restricted by local institutions or officials in a way which is contrary to national policy, funders should seek to use whatever influence they have to bring attention to, and so help rectify this.
5. Those involved in funding TVET should identify a single official, or point of contact, to gain an overview of the TVET profile of the country in which they are working, to seek to assess the relevance of the provision on offer to local employment patterns, and to promote and explain the distinctive nature of TVET.

Acceptability – for consideration by education providers, funders and NGOs

6. There should be research into the quality of non-state-funded TVET provision within those administrations with weak or no TVET systems. Policymakers and donor agencies should conduct more independent impact evaluations of TVET interventions for refugees. We suggest that these evaluations are publicly available. This will enable stakeholders to learn from each other's experiences and use this learning to improve the planning, funding and delivery of TVET for refugees. Funders should use impact assessments to determine which programmes are meeting objectives so that funding can be channelled to the most successful initiatives.
7. These assessments should include a mapping of destinations. Preferential funding should be given to that TVET provision which can demonstrate good progression in to work. Measures should be proposed to improve refugee access to the formal economy in the host country.

Adaptability – for consideration of policymakers and donor agencies

8. Priority in funding should be given to projects which are longer-term and have the potential to be sustainable, rather than short-term, temporary schemes.
9. Organisations concerned with improving refugees' access to TVET should seek to collaborate with actors delivering other support services in order to develop more far-reaching and long-term solutions.
10. Policymakers and funders should take measures to expand the provision of TVET within areas that host large concentrations of refugees, such as camps and villages.
11. Planners and funders of skills training should create systems which draw on evidence about the cultural and personal expectations of refugees as well as their prior educational attainment.
12. Policymakers and donor agencies should consider how strategies for refugee inclusion can be included in broader development policies which also demonstrate clear benefits to the nationals of refugee host countries.

The research demonstrates that some of the most promising interventions are emerging in developing countries. Despite having to deal with severe economic, political and social challenges unrelated to the refugee crisis, as well as mounting pressures resulting from growing refugee populations, developing countries such as Ethiopia and Jordan are working with international partners to implement innovative solutions which are helping to include refugees in TVET.



2. INTRODUCTION

Persecution, violence and war are forcing an unprecedented number of individuals to flee their home nations and seek safety in foreign countries. Refugees represent a significant proportion of the world's displaced population; by the end of 2016, the number of refugees under the mandate of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the United Nations refugee agency that co-ordinates international efforts to protect refugees, exceeded 17 million (UNHCR, 2017: 14). This represents an increase of 65 per cent from 2011 to 2016 (*ibid.*: 13). As the number of refugees increases, host countries and the global community face increasing pressure to help these individuals to rebuild their lives. The resources of governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), intergovernmental organisations (IGOs) and donor agencies are under increasing strain. UNHCR has spoken openly about severe budgetary constraints and the implications for its work, stating:

'The numbers and needs of people of concern have been growing considerably faster than the level of funding available globally for humanitarian aid. In 2010, funds available to UNHCR represented 64 per cent of its comprehensive budget; while by the end of 2015, the Office anticipates being able to cover only 47 per cent of its comprehensive budget.' (UNHCR, 2015: 19)

This research by the British Council aims to support efforts to improve provision of TVET to refugees by examining the inclusion of refugees in TVET across five countries – Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan, South Africa and the UK, referred to collectively in this report as the study countries.

Research into education opportunities for refugees has focused on opportunities for children and young people at primary and secondary levels of education. There are a small number of studies which explore TVET but they are mainly concerned with interventions for young refugees. Concern about the livelihoods of refugee children is understandable: 51 per cent of the world's refugees are under 18 years of age (UNICEF, 2016: 4) and the educational needs of 41 per cent of children in emergency situations are not met (UNICEF, 2017: 22). This may explain why efforts to improve refugee education focus on addressing the needs of children and young people. The prioritisation of the needs of non-adults is demonstrated by UNHCR's *Education Strategy: 2012–2016*. This sets out nine key objectives, only one of which focuses on addressing the educational needs of adults compared to six focusing on children and young people (UNHCR, 2012: 8).

Although the importance of educating children and young people of school age cannot be disputed, there is a strong case to be made for the education of adults (i.e. post-16). Given their age, with effective educational interventions, adults can enter the formal labour market more quickly than young people, and therefore transition more quickly to financial independence. Furthermore, there have been a plethora of studies which examine the relationship between a parent's educational attainment and that of his or her offspring. According to Ermisch and Pronzato:

'More educated parents have, on average, better educated children. The policy implications of a link between parental education and children's education are huge. Increasing education today would lead to an increase in the schooling of the next generation and, in this way, to an improvement of later life outcomes such as health, productivity and wealth.' (Ermisch and Pronzato, 2010: 2)



Clearly, the education of refugee children is of fundamental importance but addressing the educational needs of adult refugees is also of value.

Educating adults will yield a double advantage because it will benefit the individual livelihoods of those individuals as well as the future of the children and young people who depend upon them.

There is a growing recognition of the potential of TVET to encourage the development of both people and economies. This is demonstrated by Hollander and Mar, who state that TVET:

‘...is often considered as a mechanism for poverty alleviation and a vital contribution towards the attainment of international development goals (such as the Millennium Development Goals and Education for All) as well as towards sustainable development.’ (Hollander and Mar, 2009: 42)

Despite the growing esteem of training, there is little understanding of how adult refugees – a disadvantaged social group that could benefit from TVET – are included in this form of education.

Although relatively few in comparison to studies about the education of refugees of school age, there has been some exploration of the impact of TVET as an aspect of livelihood programmes for adult refugees, which aim to improve the living standards of disadvantaged individuals by encouraging them to acquire new skills or giving them access to resources which have previously been restricted. These reports, such as Mcloughlin’s (2017) *Sustainable Livelihoods for Refugees in Protracted Crises* examines TVET as an aspect of livelihood programming as opposed to a valuable intervention in itself.

This study aims to address the lack of attention devoted to TVET as a standalone intervention by TVET inclusion for refugees over the age of 16. The British Council selected these study countries because they demonstrate particularly interesting characteristics in respect of their roles as refugee hosts. Ethiopia, Jordan and Pakistan have been selected because they host large refugee populations (see index for country context indicator), South Africa because of its liberal government policies towards refugees, and the UK because of its long history of hosting displaced people.

In 2017, the British Council and UNHCR commissioned Dr Kathleen Fincham to conduct a study – *Young Syrians’ Perceptions and Experiences of Education Opportunities for Refugees in Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey: The Next Step*. This examined Syrian youth’s views of and



engagement with higher education across the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. Using participant observation, semi-structured interviews and focus groups, Dr Fincham analysed participants' perceptions of the availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability of higher education.

The TVET research presented in this report draws on the analytical framework adopted in Dr Fincham's paper and is divided into four main sections:

- availability – what TVET opportunities exist for refugees?
- accessibility – what barriers and enablers do refugees encounter when pursuing TVET?
- acceptability – how useful is the provision to refugees?
- adaptability – what efforts do policymakers, funders and providers make to include refugees in TVET and accommodate their needs?

It examines the challenges and successes of refugee inclusion raised in each section in order to make recommendations to actors involved in TVET for refugees. In addition, this research identifies examples of best practice in including refugees in TVET and presents them as case studies within the four main sections. The British Council hopes that a wide range of stakeholders can draw upon the recommendations and the case studies in order to improve the inclusion of refugees in TVET.

Terminology

Terminology is an important factor in this research because it deals with two concepts – ‘TVET’ and ‘refugee’ – that lack universal meaning and can be interpreted in different ways.

For the purpose of this research TVET is defined as education and training which prepares the recipient to enter a specific profession and therefore excludes literacy, numeracy and general skills instruction.

The UNHCR definition of ‘refugee’ has primarily been used to ensure consistency, particularly as much of the secondary research draws on UNHCR reports. UNHCR defines a refugee as:

‘...someone who has been forced to flee his or her country because of persecution, war, or violence. A *refugee* has a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group.’

In addition, we have defined a refugee as an individual who has been granted official refugee status by the government of the host country or UNHCR and meets the above criteria. Given this definition, the research does not explore the inclusion of other displaced groups such as asylum seekers.

According to UNHCR, an asylum seeker is:

‘...someone who has applied for *asylum* and is waiting for a decision as to whether or not they are a refugee. In other words, in the UK an *asylum seeker* is someone who has asked the Government for refugee status and is waiting to hear the outcome of their application.’

In some countries such as South Africa, asylum seekers constitute a large proportion of the displaced population. Furthermore, it can be common for asylum seekers to have different entitlements to individuals who have been granted official refugee status. We therefore recommend that another study is conducted to explore the inclusion of asylum seekers in TVET. This research focuses on refugees who are 16 and above.



3. METHODOLOGY

This study is composed of two elements – an index and a narrative report. The Index is a table which compares TVET inclusion across the study countries using four broad indicators – availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability. Each broad indicator includes multiple detailed indicators which relate to the theme of the broad indicator. The indicators build a picture of the extent to which refugees are included in TVET in each country. Across the study countries a score has been given for each detailed indicator as follows:

- 2 available evidence demonstrates that the country entirely reflects the indicator
- 1 the indicator is partially reflected to an extent
- 0 the indicator is not reflected at all

Unknown it has not been possible to give a score owing to a lack of information.

The scores for all detailed indicators within a broad indicator are added together to provide an overall score for the broad indicator for each country. The scores for each broad indicator of a country are added together to provide a total TVET inclusion score. Through this scoring system, the index provides an overview of TVET inclusion and allows the reader to quickly acquire a sense of how the study countries compare in respect of this area of education for refugees.

Given the vastly different contexts in which refugee engagement in TVET is carried out in the study countries, the index should be considered alongside the analysis in the report. This analysis describes the complexities of refugee inclusion and helps to explain some of the disparities between countries which are evident in the index.

The index can also be used to trace an individual country's response to refugees over time. Therefore, the index can be repopulated in five years, ten years or 15 years so that we can analyse the extent to which a country's approach to refugees has changed.

The narrative report provides an analysis of each of the broad indicators in the index, giving an insight into the context in which the scores were given.

This research draws on interviews and a desk review of literature. Across the study countries, we interviewed respondents who collectively provide the system, institutional and practitioner perspective.

This study focuses primarily on qualitative data collected through interviews. The majority of interviews (13) were conducted with individuals working for locally based (in the refugee host country) organisations involved in the planning, funding and delivery of skills training for refugees. However, refugees were not consulted for this study. We interviewed representatives from the host country government, leaders of TVET providers and skills instructors. In addition, a smaller number of interviews (two) were conducted with individuals working for organisations that advocate for refugee interests. These individuals were engaged in order to provide the observer's perspective. A number of respondents requested anonymity and in order to respect this and ensure consistency, respondents have been anonymised.

This report is not intended to provide a comprehensive account of refugee engagement with TVET in the selected countries given the multiplicity of TVET in the study countries, difficulty experienced gaining access to frontline staff in some countries (mainly Ethiopia and South Africa) and interviews with refugees not being conducted. Instead, this report aspires to stimulate discussion about steps that can be taken to improve refugee access to and completion of meaningful skills training. We hope that the research will inspire the development of and lay the foundation for a more in-depth investigation of the study countries in the future.



4. COUNTRY CONTEXTS

This section provides background information about each study country. It discusses issues such as the general state of TVET within the host country and the size of the refugee population. In doing so, this section aims to help the reader to understand the factors that have shaped each country's approach to the inclusion or non-inclusion of refugees in TVET. The reader can gain a snapshot of this section by referring to the country context indicator in the Index.

Ethiopia

Ethiopia, situated in the Horn of Africa, is one of two African countries examined in the study. With a population exceeding 102 million people it is the most populous landlocked country in the world and the second most populous country in Africa (Nigeria being the first). Ethiopia borders Eritrea in the north and the north-east, Djibouti and Somalia to the east, Sudan and South Sudan to the west and Kenya to the south.

Ethiopia is the least developed country in the study, ranking 174th out of 188 countries in the Human Development Index (HDI). Furthermore, it is the only country in the study which features in the Least Developed Country section of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) list of official development assistance (ODA) recipients. In recent years, the country has made great progress in terms of economic growth and achieving its Millennium Development Goal of attaining middle income status by 2025. For example, according to the World Bank website, the Ethiopian economy experienced, '... strong, broad-based growth

averaging 10.5% a year from 2005/06 to 2015/16, compared to a regional average of 5.4%.¹ The World Bank goes on to add:

‘In the past two decades, there has been progress in key human development indicators: primary school enrolment has quadrupled, child mortality been cut in half, and the number of people with access to clean water has more than doubled. There have also been more recent moves to strengthen the fight against malaria and HIV/AIDS.’

However, Ethiopia faces severe environmental, political and social challenges which threaten to stall the progress it has made over the past 13 years. Since 2016, the country has suffered the worst drought that it has experienced in 50 years, affecting more than ten million people. In addition, political instability which has arisen from ethnic tensions has resulted in regular states of emergency. Like its political system, wider Ethiopian society is marked by ethnic tensions and feelings of marginalisation among some identity groups, such as the Oromo and Amhara.

The population of Ethiopia is highly diverse in terms of ethnicity, with more than 80 different ethnic groups. This diversity has led to the division of Ethiopia into nine ethnically based and politically autonomous regional states, a process which started in 1992 under the Transitional Government of Ethiopia which oversaw the country’s adoption of a new constitution in 1995 and its rebirth as the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

Despite its development challenges, Ethiopia has experienced more political stability and economic prosperity than a number of its war-torn neighbours in east Africa. These factors, as well as a perception that Ethiopia is welcoming of displaced individuals, have driven high numbers of people from the bordering nations of Eritrea, Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan to seek refuge within its borders. In 2014, it was the fifth largest refugee host globally according to UNHCR (UNHCR, 2014: 9) and by mid- 2017, the number of refugees hosted by Ethiopia had increased to 841,285 refugees.²² Although Ethiopia is a signatory of the 1951 UNHCR Refugee Convention, through its own national policies it exercises a number of reservations including in the areas of education. Refugee issues are overseen by the Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs (ARRA). Responsibility for the planning of TVET is shared by the Ministry of Education and the Federal TVET Agency.

¹ www.worldbank.org/en/country/ethiopia/overview

² This figure includes individuals with official refugee status granted by UNHCR as well as people in refugee-like situations. Data drawn from *UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip), Tab 3.1 Column M* March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opendocAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64

Jordan

Jordan is situated in the Middle East, in an area known as the Levant. It borders Saudi Arabia to the south, Iraq to the north-east, Syria to the north, and Israel and Palestine to the west. It is small (89,342 km²) compared to other nations in the Middle East, and with a population of ten million. Ninety-five per cent of Jordanians are Sunni Muslims and most of the remaining five per cent are Christians. Jordan is ruled through a system of constitutional monarchy but the ruler (King Abdullah II) has great executive and legislative power.

Jordan ranks 86th out of 188 countries in the HDI and is considered a Lower Middle Income country according to the DAC list.³ Unlike many of its neighbours in the Middle East, it has few natural resources, and in recent years economic growth has slowed considerably, averaging two per cent per year. Amid rising conflict in the region, it has enjoyed relative peace compared to other Middle Eastern nations. However, its economic slump can in part be attributed to the fall-out from neighbouring conflicts. For example, military expenditure has increased in an effort to protect borders, and trade with Syria has collapsed as a result of the Syrian Civil War. The economic downturn has had a severe impact on society. For example, in the first quarter of 2017, unemployment reached 18.2 per cent, the highest level in 25 years.

In spite of its economic challenges and not being a signatory of the UNHCR Convention, Jordan has offered refuge to a constantly increasing number of displaced people. According to UNHCR, in 2014, Jordan was the sixth largest refugee hosting country in the world (UNHCR, 2014: 9) providing refuge since 2011 to approximately 650,000 Syrians (UNHCR, June 2017: 7).⁴ However, its role as a refugee hosting nation dates back nearly 60 years when it began hosting Palestinian refugees who in fact represent the largest nationality group of refugees in Jordan.

The recent influx of Syrian refugees has placed additional pressure on public systems which were already struggling, including education. In respect of TVET, the government has made significant investments in an attempt to improve the state of TVET, for example, through the creation of the Crown Prince Foundation. However, vocational training continues to suffer from low prestige and a lack of buy-in from the private sector. Issues relating to refugees are overseen by a variety of government departments and agencies. The multiplicity of actors can perhaps be attributed to Jordan's large refugee population. Secondary research revealed that the Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Interior,

³ Refer to the Country Context section of the index for more detailed source information.

⁴ UNHCR data does not appear to include Palestinian refugees in its data. According to UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestinian refugees) there are 2,175,491 registered Palestine refugees in Jordan. www.unrwa.org/where-we-work/jordan

the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, Syrian Refugee Affairs Directorate (responsible for Syrians) and Department for Palestinian Affairs (responsible for Palestinians) all contribute to the government's efforts to address refugee issues. Responsibility for TVET is also shared between a number of government departments – the Ministry of Education, the Employment Technical and Vocational Education and Training Council, and the Ministry of Labour.

Pakistan

Pakistan borders India in the east, Afghanistan in the north-west, Iran in the south-west, and China in the far north-east. It has a population of 193.2 million inhabitants, which makes it the fifth most populous country in the world and the most populous country in the study. It ranks 147th out of 188 countries in the HDI, making it the second lowest ranking country in the study. Education is an area in severe need of investment and development and this includes the technical field.

The Federal Ministry of Education and the National Vocational and Technical Training Commission (NAVTTTC) are responsible for directing TVET at the national level within the government. The Ministry of Education has general oversight of the planning, policy and co-ordination of training including curriculum, learning materials and standards. NAVTTTC provides more specific policy direction and regulates TVET. TVET is delivered through both public training providers (federal and provincial institutes) as well as private providers. TVET in Pakistan faces a number of obstacles such as poor links between employers and training (provided by government and private training providers) which lacks industry relevance.

Despite its development and economic challenges, Pakistan hosts a very large number of refugees –1,406,794 according to UNHCR⁵. It has the largest refugee population in the study and according to UNHCR, it is the second biggest refugee hosting country globally (UNHCR, 2017a: 3). Following the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan in 1979, Pakistan has accepted a large number of refugees from Afghanistan and according to UNHCR, there are 1,394,987 Afghans considered to be people of concern in (UNCHR, 2018a:1).

At the national government level, the Ministry of States and Affairs and the Office of Chief Commissioner for Afghan Refugees are responsible for refugee issues. Pakistan is not a signatory of the 1951 UNHCR Refugee Convention and our research could not identify concrete evidence of a national policy on refugees. The closest initiative to a policy appears to be the Solutions Strategy for Afghan Refugees (SSAR) which is a regional, multi-year project

⁵ This figure includes individuals with official refugee status granted by UNHCR as well as people in refugee-like situations. *UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip)*, Tab 3.1 column M March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opensslAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64



involving the governments of Afghanistan, Iran and Pakistan as well as development and humanitarian actors such as UNHCR. According to the UNHCR website, the aim of the SSAR is ‘to help facilitate voluntary return and sustainable reintegration, while at the same time providing assistance to host countries’ of Afghan refugees. Evidence indicates that Pakistan’s approach to Afghan refugees is largely non-inclusive. Anecdotal evidence suggests that refugees live an unstable and dangerous existence where, despite their status, expulsion from Pakistan is an ongoing concern and they are vulnerable to harassment from the police. For example, during the writing of this report, Reuters published an article which stated: ‘Pakistan’s government has extended the stay of Afghan refugees in the country for 60 days, a shorter-than-recommended time that revives fears Islamabad is preparing a forced return of hundreds of thousands to violence-plagued Afghanistan’ (Shahzad, Reuters website).

Immigration status has a far-reaching impact on refugee inclusion, and its impact on access to TVET will be discussed in the section on availability.

South Africa

With a population slightly over 56 million people, South Africa is the fourth most populous country in the study. It borders Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe to the north, Mozambique to the north- east and Swaziland to the east and surrounds Lesotho. The South African economy’s strength and potential for growth is demonstrated by its status as a BRICS



nation⁶. Despite South Africa's relative economic strength when compared to the other study countries, it only ranks 119th out of 188 countries in the HDI and holds the middle position for human development among the study countries.

The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) is responsible for directing TVET (otherwise known as further education training in South Africa) at the national level within government. Its function includes policy formulation, creation of standards and oversight of funding. DHET also manages the country's 50 public TVET colleges and works with the private colleges that operate in South Africa.

Recently, the South African government has made a significant investment in improving access to TVET. For example, in 2016, DHET began constructing 12 new TVET campuses (DHET, December 2016: 1). Despite this investment, there is evidence that the TVET system has major obstacles to overcome if it is to reach its full potential, including those related to student financing, quality issues and administration.

South Africa faces significant development challenges but its relative economic and political stability compared to its neighbours has encouraged large numbers of people from the continent to seek refuge within its borders. The Department for Home Affairs is responsible for refugee issues at the national government level. According to UNHCR figures from mid

⁶ BRICS is a collective term given to Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa due to their fast-growing economies.

2017, the total number of asylum seekers at the time was 215,860 and the number of refugees stood at 92,296.⁷ It has not been possible to determine where most of the refugees originate from because figures published by UNHCR in 2015 amalgamate displaced populations living in South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland.⁸ However, information published by UNHCR in 2009 states that at the time refugees originated from 52 countries and ‘...most are from Angola, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo..., Rwanda, Somalia and Zimbabwe’ (UNHCR, 2009: 213).

South Africa is a signatory of the 1951 UNHCR Refugee Convention, and traditionally its national policies towards refugees have been considered rather inclusive. However, some media reports over the past few years refer to an increase in xenophobia towards refugees. In June 2017, South Africa passed the Border Management Authority Bill. This legislation created an entity called the Border Management Authority (BMA) which is responsible for managing South Africa’s ports of entry including the air, land and sea. The bill permits the BMA to search migrants without first obtaining a warrant, which some believe represents an erosion of migrant (including refugee) rights in South Africa.

UK

The UK is a sovereign state composed of four countries – England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. As a result of devolution, the latter three countries operate with a degree of autonomy in terms of governance. Oversight of publicly funded TVET (or further education and skills as TVET is sometimes referred to in the UK) is devolved, which means that within each country, a local government department is responsible for TVET funded by the government. In England, responsibility lies with the Department for Education and the Department for Business, Energy, and Industrial Strategy; in Northern Ireland, the Department of Education Northern Ireland; in Scotland, the Advanced Learning and Science Directorate and the Fair Work, Employability and Skills Directorate; and in Wales, the Department for Education and Skills. Across the UK, the vast majority of TVET is delivered by public institutes such as further education colleges and some private training providers and employers. Collectively, we will refer to these organisations as ‘TVET providers’. Great efforts have been made to raise standards within TVET. For example, TVET providers are subject to regular and robust external quality inspections which include observation of TVET instruction. Furthermore, the delivery of qualifications which are certified by awarding organisations ensures that irrespective of the training provider, learners training at the same level within the same professional field acquire the same standard of professional competency.

⁷ This figure includes individuals with official refugee status granted by UNHCR as well as people in refugee-like situations. Data drawn from *UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip), Tab 3.1 Column M* March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opendocAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64

⁸ www.unhcr.org/afr/protection/operations/524d87689/south-africa-fact-sheet.html

Although relatively advanced, TVET in the UK faces a number of obstacles which have the potential to undermine the quality of provision if not well managed by TVET providers. For example, in 2015, funding for 16- to 19-year-olds fell by 13.6 per cent in real terms (Sibieta, 2015: 1). Funding reductions require providers to continue delivering high-quality TVET programmes with a reduced budget. Without alternative sources of funding to supplement this loss of income, providers are faced with the prospect of terminating TVET programmes which, although valuable to the local community, are too costly to operate. If providers continue to deliver programmes which lack sufficient funding to cover delivery costs, they could run the risk of jeopardising the quality of TVET if they cannot afford to resource programmes to the same level as before.

Unlike TVET, immigration issues (including those that relate to refugees) are not devolved, and responsibility is held by the Home Office, which is a centralised government department which operates across the UK. The UK has a long history of hosting refugees which dates back nearly 460 years when it offered sanctuary to Dutch protestants who fled religious persecution in the Netherlands. The UK is a signatory of the UNHCR Convention, and like South Africa, its national policies regarding refugees are relatively liberal. Among the study countries, the UK is the most developed. It ranks 16th out of 188 countries in the HDI which places it in the Very High human development category. Furthermore, it has the strongest economy and it is the only study country which does not feature in the DAC list.

In spite of these factors and its status as a signatory of the UNHCR Refugee Convention, the UK hosts a relatively small number of refugees. The total number of refugees residing in the UK currently stands at 121,280⁹, which means that the state hosts the smallest number of refugees per 1,000 inhabitants among the study countries (see Index). Despite the UK's long history as a refugee host, misconceptions persist about refugee rights and entitlements which limit refugees' inclusion in society. The impact of this lack of understanding of refugee rights will be discussed in more detail in the section on accessibility.

⁹ Data drawn from *UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip), Tab 3.1 Column M* March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opendocAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64



5. AVAILABILITY

This section explores what TVET opportunities, if any, exist for refugees in each country. We discuss whether UNHCR and host government policies make training in public institutes available, how funding affects the programmes that exist, the levels of TVET that are available, whether refugees are offered preparation for the same professions as nationals, and how the capacity of the host country's TVET system affects the availability of TVET for refugees.

UNHCR policy

As discussed in the introduction, UNHCR plays a key role in co-ordinating the approach that many host countries adopt towards displaced people as well as overseeing national and regional support services for displaced communities and individuals. Most of the study countries – Ethiopia, South Africa and the UK – ratified the 1951 UNHCR Refugee Convention.¹⁰ This is the key legal document which underpins the work of UNHCR and sets out the rights of displaced people as well as the obligations of state signatories to these individuals. The Convention can be interpreted as encouraging host countries to support training for refugees.

It does not specifically refer to TVET, but training could be interpreted as falling under the umbrella of 'education other than elementary education' within the Convention. Article 22

¹⁰ Convention and protocols relating to the status of refugees – www.unhcr.org/uk/3b66c2aa10

of the Convention states that: ‘The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education...’ (UNHCR, 1967: 24).

The use of the wording ‘as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances’ indicates that host nations are not obliged to provide post-primary education, which we must assume includes TVET. Instead, it renders host nations free to decide what public TVET, if any, they deem acceptable for refugees. This is in stark contrast to the Convention’s assertion that host nations ‘... shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education’. In respect of public primary education, host nations are expected to provide refugees with the same opportunities as nationals. The Convention’s divergent expectations towards elementary and non-elementary education encourages signatories to prioritise the provision of primary education and devote most of their resources to making this level of learning available to refugees, potentially to the detriment of the availability of post-primary education opportunities, including TVET.

It could be argued that the Convention may benefit from an update, as it has not been revised since the protocol was approved in 1967. At that time, there were fewer protracted conflicts which led to long- term or permanent displacement. In order to offer more effective solutions to the refugee crisis, UNHCR policy needs to reflect the fact that many displaced people are unlikely to be repatriated to their home country in the near future or at all, and they will likely have to build a life in their host country.

In light of this, refugees require a means to enter the labour market so that they can achieve financial independence and contribute to the productivity and prosperity of their host nations. Given TVET’s potential to prepare learners to enter the workforce, if used correctly, it could play a key a role in helping refugees to achieve these objectives.

In order for this to happen, UNHCR policy needs to do more than encourage host countries to make TVET available to asylum seekers and refugees; UNHCR policy needs to make it an obligation.

Unlike the Convention, UNHCR’s education strategy specifically mentions TVET and presents objectives for the training of displaced people. The strategy is laid out in the document

2012–2016 Education Strategy.¹¹ It presents TVET related objectives such as a ‘100% increase in young people accessing post- secondary technical/vocational/para-professional training leading to certificates and diplomas’ (UNHCR, 2012: 21). According to the document, UNHCR aspires to achieve its TVET objectives through activities such as ‘Advocacy with Ministries of Education and local institutions aiming to reduce barriers to refugees accessing tertiary education,

including nationality requirements, school certificates, and other documentation’. The mention of advocacy demonstrates once again that UNHCR’s official stance towards TVET is to encourage signatories to make training available to asylum seekers and refugees as opposed to obliging them to open this educational route.

Although not autonomous, UNHCR is a highly influential organisation within the field of forced migration. According to Loescher, ‘While UNHCR is constrained by states, the notion that it is a passive mechanism with no independent agenda of its own is not borne out by the empirical evidence of the past five decades. For example, it seems clear that the autonomy and authority of UNHCR has grown over the years and the office has become a purposive actor in its own right with independent interests’ (Loescher, 2001: 33–56). Therefore, we believe that UNHCR could do more to use its influence to encourage state signatories to make public TVET available to refugees.

Host government policy

Across the majority of the study countries – Jordan, Pakistan, South Africa and the UK – we could not identify evidence of government asylum and refugee policies which directly prohibit asylum seekers or refugees from pursuing public TVET on the basis of their identity. Ethiopia is the exception, which makes it the only state signatory within the study to make a reservation to the UNHCR Convention. According to Ethiopia’s *2004 Proclamation*:

‘Every recognized, refugee, and family members thereof shall, in respect to ... education, be entitled to the same rights and be subjected to the same restrictions as are conferred or imposed generally by the relevant laws on persons who are not citizens of Ethiopia’ (Ethiopian Government, 2004: 2671).

The restrictions to education placed upon non- citizens referred to in the Proclamation can be inferred from the Ethiopian Constitution. The Constitution reads, ‘...policies shall aim to provide all Ethiopians access to public education...’ (Ethiopia: 10). The absence of

11 www.unhcr.org/uk/protection/operations/5149ba349/unhcr-education-strategy-2012-2016.html

a reference to immigrants is an implicit indication that the government is not obliged to make education available to refugees. Refugee policies in the other countries do not directly prohibit refugees from pursuing public TVET but equally, they do not stipulate any statutory requirements on the host country governments to provide education, including TVET, to displaced people. In fact, the refugee policies of Jordan¹² and the UK¹³ make

no mention of refugee entitlement to education in the academic or vocational sense. Furthermore, according to UNHCR, Pakistan has no legal framework which stipulates how refugees should be treated (UNHCR Pakistan, 2018). South Africa's Refugees Act is the only refugee policy that mentions any sort of education in the non-religious sense. It should be noted that the act only refers to primary education and the government does not have a statutory requirement to make primary education available to refugees. According to the act, refugees have the right to primary education from 'time to time' (South African Government, 1998: 20).

Although national refugee policies in the study countries are often unclear about entitlement to public education, we have identified instances in at least South Africa and the UK where refugee entitlement to public TVET can be gleaned from

other government-owned sources of information. In the case of the UK, the Department for Employment and Learning in Northern Ireland owns a document entitled *Access to further education classes for asylum seekers and Syrian refugees resettled in Northern Ireland under the Vulnerable Persons Relocation Scheme (VPRS)*. Although the UK's Immigration and Asylum Act does not mention refugee entitlement to education, this circular, which is owned by the government in Northern Ireland, sets out the entitlement to further education including TVET for displaced people meeting specific criteria. In the case of South Africa, guidance on the website of the Department for Home Affairs provides more extensive information about refugees' entitlement to education than the national Refugee Act. The guidance says that an asylum seeker in possession of a Section 24 permit has the right to study (South Africa, 2018).

Although it is helpful that these alternative sources of information clarify refugee entitlement to public TVET, the absence of a single authoritative source of information which sets out the rights of asylum seekers and refugees in South Africa and the UK means that the availability of public TVET is likely to depend upon the awareness of entitlement held by the refugee or the government official or TVET institute admissions officer dealing with the displaced

¹² Due to the absence of a legal framework on refugee rights in Jordan, we are referring to the *Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of the H.K. of Jordan and the UNHCR*, which was adopted on 5 April 1998.

¹³ UK Immigration Act 1971 and subsequent amendments made to the act since its passing to the present day.

person. The general lack of clarity around the refugee entitlement to public education within government asylum and refugee policy means that the availability of learning opportunities, including TVET, is at risk of being based on arbitrary decisions by government officials and learning institutes.

The impact of funding

Evidence indicates that the governments of the majority of the study countries – Jordan, Pakistan and South Africa – do not subsidise TVET for refugees either within or outside of state-managed TVET institutes. Although we did not ask respondents to explain why this was the case, Respondent A stated that limited government funding, an over-burdened public education system, high levels of unemployment among nationals and growing hostility from host communities towards refugees were cited as reasons why the Jordanian government does not subsidise skills training for refugees. Although not raised by Respondent A, the high number of displaced people living in Jordan (see Index) is likely to be another factor which has prevented the Jordanian government from funding training for refugees. The country contexts section demonstrates that Pakistan and South Africa are dealing with economic and social challenges similar to those that face Jordan, for example the high level of youth unemployment in Pakistan as well as growing xenophobia towards asylum seekers and refugees in South Africa. For this reason, it can be inferred that the governments of Pakistan and South Africa face some of the same pressures raised by Respondent A.

Although Ethiopia is the least economically developed country in the study according to the DAC and it faces profound economic and social challenges like the other developing countries in the study, there is evidence that the Ethiopian government provides funding which, in principle, makes TVET available to some refugees. According to Respondent B, the government contributes 75 per cent of the cost of TVET for refugees and UNHCR contributes the remaining 25 per cent. We have not been able to determine whether the government's contribution is limited to study in either state-managed or private TVET institutes or whether it is available to refugees studying in both the public and private systems. According to respondent N, these TVET scholarships are open to refugees of any nationality. This is in contrast to similar funding for university programmes which, at its inception, was exclusively available to Eritrean refugees and expanded to refugees of other nationalities in 2012 (UNHCR, 2013: 2). We have not been able to determine whether the availability of funding for TVET also depends upon the nationality of refugees.

It is not possible to say with any certainty why Ethiopia is the only developing country in the study where the government provides funding for TVET for refugees. In Ethiopia, refugees



represent the second smallest percentage of the national population when compared to the other study countries. It could be argued that this means that displaced people place less pressure on Ethiopian state resources than they do on the resources of the governments of the other developing countries in the study. However, this argument is completely undermined once one gains an understanding of the severely challenging economic, social and political conditions in which the Ethiopian government is operating. Evidence suggests that the Ethiopian government's investment in TVET for refugees may in part be the result of a more effective partnership between the Ministry of Education and UNHCR. According to Respondent B, the ministry and UNHCR have been working closely since 2016. This is corroborated by the UNHCR paper *Working Towards Inclusion: Refugees within the National Systems of Ethiopia*. The paper reads, 'Over the last few years, the collaboration with Ministries at the Federal and State levels has grown. ARRA, UNHCR, sister UN agencies and NGO partners are increasingly relying on the technical support of line Ministries to deliver basic services to refugees in key sectors, such as education, health, child protection, and water and sanitation...' (UNHCR, 2017: 10). The report goes on to say, 'The value added of this approach is clear: by facilitating the inclusion of refugees in the national systems, the Government ensures a more holistic, cost-efficient and coordinated response that can benefit both host and refugee populations alike'. The report argues that in the case of Ethiopia, co-operation between government bodies and humanitarian agencies is encouraging the inclusion of refugees in national systems.

Although this report discusses education, it does not specifically mention TVET. However, evidence of co-operation within TVET is provided by the sharing of tuition costs between UNHCR and the Ethiopian government raised by Respondent B.

Apart from Ethiopia, the UK is the only other country where the government provides funding that makes TVET available (under certain conditions) to refugees. Furthermore, this funding allows refugees to pursue TVET in public institutes. For example, in England, refugees who meet particular criteria are entitled to fee remission up to and including their first full Level 3 qualification pursued in institutions in receipt of public funding (Respondent D). In Pakistan, although the government does not fund TVET for refugees, there is evidence that UNHCR distributes funding which at least makes TVET available to refugees within some government institutes such as the Advanced Government Technical Training Centre in Peshawar. It has not been possible to determine whether UNHCR provides this funding to other TVET institutes in Peshawar or institutes in other provinces.

Although we were able to identify sources of funding in Pakistan and the UK which enable refugees to pursue TVET in public institutions, this funding is not universally available to all refugees; funding recipients are required to meet stringent criteria in order to benefit from any sort of subsidy. In England, entitlement to fee remission depends upon multiple factors including the refugee's age, legal residency status and whether or not the refugee is employed. For example, in England, refugees over the age of 24 are treated in the same way as UK nationals and they are expected to pay their tuition fees in full (Respondent G).

Furthermore, asylum seekers have no entitlement to fee remission if they have waited less than six months for a decision on their asylum claim. It should be noted that neighbouring Scotland offers more extensive fee remission for displaced individuals. For example, asylum seekers who are waiting for the Home Office to make a decision about their application (regardless of how long the application has been pending) are entitled to fee remission and financial assistance for study and travel costs for part-time advanced or non-advanced courses in public TVET institutes (Scottish Funding Council, 2018).

In the case of Pakistan, evidence strongly suggests that funding for training, whether it takes place in or outside of public institutes, is exclusively available to refugees of Afghan descent. According to data, Afghans represent the largest national identity group within Pakistan's refugee population. We found that none of the interview respondents spoke about refugees other than those of Afghan descent.

Furthermore, we could not identify any references to non-Afghan refugees enrolled in TVET through the desk review. There are reports that Pakistan hosts relatively small numbers of asylum seekers from Somalia, Iraq and Iran. However, we could not find evidence that asylum seekers or refugees belonging to these nationalities were enrolled on subsidised training programmes.

As with Pakistan, in Jordan we could not identify evidence that the government subsidises training for refugees. Respondent A informed us that funding for TVET is provided by donor agencies such as Agence Française de Développement, Department For International Development, United States Agency for International Development and UNHCR. We also identified another similarity to Pakistan: funding for subsidised programmes often only exists for refugees of a specific nationality. Similarly, in Jordan, where nearly all of the subsidised training programmes raised by respondents are targeted at Syrian refugees and, in some cases, Jordanian nationals who live in the same communities as Syrians. This means that for the most part, training programmes funded by donors are not available to non-Syrian refugees, such as the 10,000 Somali, Sudanese and Yemeni refugees registered in Jordan (UNHCR, 2017). There is a growing understanding of and interest in the lack of resources available to non-Syrian refugees in Jordan. For example, there is evidence of a lack of financial support available to refugees who are not Syrian. It reads, 'With the exception of Syrians, all non-Jordanians must pay a 40 JOD annual fee to enrol in public schools. Coupled with the cost of books, materials and transportation, schooling can be prohibitively expensive for families with little income. While Sudanese have recently been granted extra cash assistance for schooling costs, and despite the fact that UNHCR and certain NGOs cover school fees for some Somalis and Sudanese, costs remain a barrier' (Mixed Migration Platform, April 2017: 5).

It was not possible to identify funding in South Africa that makes state-managed TVET available to refugees. Respondent E informed us that refugees are expected to pay the same tuition fees as South African nationals for TVET in public institutions. The low-income status of refugees in South Africa means that they can rarely afford to pay the tuition fees for skills training. Respondent F discussed the availability of scholarships for TVET students. South African nationals can apply for means-based scholarships which discount the cost of fees.

However, we found evidence that UNHCR makes training available to some refugees. For example, through the desk review, we identified a tender issued by UNHCR in 2017. The tender called for organisations to express interest in implementing a livelihood project for refugees which would include the provision of TVET (UNHCR, 2017: 1).

A positive finding of our research is that across all of the study countries, there is evidence of funding which makes TVET available to refugees. Most often, this funding is provided by donor agencies, and in a few instances it is provided by the government of the refugee host nation. There is also evidence that at times this funding takes an inclusive approach by enabling refugees to pursue TVET in the public system. Less positively, in the majority of cases, refugees are required to meet stringent criteria in order to benefit from this funding. This means that refugees are frequently excluded from funded opportunities on the basis

of conditions which they have no control over, such as age or nationality. We believe that funding could be used more effectively to widen participation within refugee populations.

TVET levels and technical fields

It is challenging to compare the levels of TVET available to refugees through subsidies (either provided by the host government or donor agencies) across the study countries. This is because perceptions of education levels are highly variable and can differ widely depending on factors such as the country, region or training provider. Therefore, when discussing training levels with interview respondents, we encouraged the use of the terms basic and advanced with basic level programmes aiming to prepare graduates to enter a profession at the lowest level and advanced programmes preparing them to enter roles above the lowest level.

Evidence suggests that in a few of the study countries, subsidised TVET for refugees is limited to basic level programmes. We could not obtain evidence about the breadth of TVET levels available to refugees through subsidies in Pakistan and South Africa. However, in Jordan (Respondent H) and the UK (Respondent G), interview respondents informed us that funding is not available for intermediate and advanced training programmes. Ethiopia appears to be the exception and Respondent N informed us that refugees in receipt of the previously mentioned TVET scholarships are enrolled on training programmes beyond the basic level. Furthermore, we could not find evidence that these scholarships are restricted to particular technical fields. For example, official guidance on applying for DAFI¹⁴ lists a broad range of potential programmes of study ranging from drama to electrical engineering (UNHCR, October 2009: 45).

However, selection criteria for applicants calls for the field of study to have ‘...relevance to employment possibilities’ (*ibid.*: 12). The selection criteria also prioritises ‘...development-relevant courses, preparing the future graduates for the reconstruction of their country of origin.’ (*ibid.*: 13). Similarly, specific professional fields are not mentioned in government funding guidance in the UK. For example, in England, the document *Adult education budget: funding and performance management rules 2017 to 2018* (Education and Skills Funding Agency, October 2017)¹⁵, which sets out the funding entitlements in England, makes no mention of specific technical fields. Although the funding that exists for TVET in Ethiopia and the UK is not restricted to particular professions, evidence suggests that the funding provided by donor agencies in Jordan, Pakistan and South Africa does not permit refugees to freely select the professional field they wish to enter.

¹⁴ UNHCR’s higher education scholarship programme.

¹⁵ www.gov.uk/government/publications/adult-education-budget-funding-and-performance-management-rules-2017-to-2018

Instead, refugees apply to enrol on programmes which provide training in a specific vocational field which is decided by the donor agency. For example, in November 2017, the Jordan Times published an article about a Livelihood Programme delivered by Oxfam on waste management and recycling¹⁶. Similarly, the website of the Jesuit Refugee Service discusses training in fields such as cookery delivered in South Africa (Jesuit Refugee Service, 2018)¹⁷.

In Pakistan, we were able to identify evidence that refugees are dissatisfied with the perceived limited range of training available. For example, the UNHCR report, *RAHA: Moving forward. A lessons learned review of the Refugees Affected & Hosting Areas (RAHA) initiative*, reads, 'Beneficiaries in the target areas noted that the number of skills offered are limited for men...' (UNHCR, n.d.: 21). Furthermore, the report recommends, 'In addition to providing more courses in conventional trades, trainings on carpet weaving; polishing and grinding of precious and semiprecious stones; and farming and agriculture should be considered in the future.' (*ibid.*: 21).

We believe that the sometimes limited range of technical fields available to refugees in Jordan, Pakistan and South Africa is a direct result of training being financed through programme funding. Programme funding is limited and it aims to achieve specific measurable targets within a finite timeframe, which in our experience typically ranges from several months to one year. For this reason, it is not feasible for programme funding to finance refugees to follow TVET already being delivered within the host country public TVET system. The breadth of TVET within the public system has the potential to undermine the specificity of targets required by programme funding. Furthermore, the length of training courses delivered in public institutes often exceeds the delivery periods permitted by the donor agencies that fund programming. Although livelihood programming in its current form creates TVET opportunities for refugees, it also limits the breadth of the opportunities that are available to displaced individuals. Furthermore, it does not permit refugees to participate in public education systems.

Capacity of the host country's TVET system

The research demonstrates that in the vast majority of the countries – Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan and South Africa – donor agencies, particularly UNHCR, play a prominent role in the implementation of TVET for refugees. Respondents across these countries often discussed UNHCR's creation of training programmes as well as its distribution of funding for such programmes for asylum seekers and refugees. For example, Respondent A cited UNHCR as

¹⁶ Jordan Times, 23 October 2017 – www.jordantimes.com/news/local/refugees-turn-waste-work-zaatari-camp

¹⁷ http://en.jrs.net/campaign_detail?TN=PROJECT-20171214065519

one of the main funding bodies for training programmes in Jordan. In contrast with the other countries, respondents in the UK did not mention UNHCR at all, although the IGO has a presence in London.

Information on the UK pages of the UNHCR website¹⁸ indicates that in the UK, it does not have a directorial role over asylum and refugee issues. This is vastly different to its role in the other countries. The website suggests that in the UK, UNHCR's main role is the provision of advice on refugee and asylum laws, lobbying and legal advocacy in the interests of displaced people hosted in the UK and delivering training to those who work with asylum seekers and refugees. The website reads, 'In the UK, UNHCR provides guidance on refugee and asylum law and policy to the UK government, legal practitioners, non-governmental organisations and many others.'

Where appropriate UNHCR takes up cases and raises issues of concern with our counterparts in the UK government. We intervene in court proceedings, which are precedent-setting for the international protection of refugees. We also provide training on a range of issues to those working with asylum-seekers and refugees.' Due to the UK's strong economy and relatively small refugee population (both proportionally and overall), UNHCR may believe that the UK has a greater capacity to address the needs of its refugee population than the countries where UNHCR has decided to take a directorial role.

As demonstrated by the index all of the study countries excluding the UK have developing economies. Furthermore, as indicated in the country contexts section, there is evidence that all of these developing economies are contending with major challenges within their TVET systems. If a host country is struggling to address the training requirements of its nationals, then its capacity to help asylum seekers and refugees will be severely limited.

There is growing recognition of the impact that the growing refugee crisis is having on developing countries which host displaced people.

According to UNHCR's report, *Global Trends: Forced Displacement*,²⁰ 'Developing regions hosted 84 per cent of the world's refugees under UNHCR's mandate, with about 14.5 million people. The least developed countries provided asylum to a growing proportion, with 28 per cent of the global total (4.9 million refugees)' (UNHCR, 2017a: 2). The report goes on to state, 'Already limited resources were further strained by the rapid increase in refugees from some of the world's poorest countries fleeing to some of the world's least developed countries. While the magnitude of the refugee population is an important factor, the size

¹⁸ www.unhcr.org/uk/protecting-refugees-in-the-united-kingdom.html

of a host country's population, economy and development level are also central when considering the burden of hosting' (UNHCR, 2017: 20). Within the context of developing countries, strategies to support refugees to gain employment which focus solely on their skills development and do not seek to improve the general economic conditions of host countries are counterproductive. As Hollander and Mar state: 'In a situation of economic stagnation or jobless growth, even the well-trained and best-educated have problems finding employment and earning a living, let alone the poor and marginalized who often do not even have access to education and training. For TVET to effectively contribute to (self)-employment and poverty alleviation there needs to be a labour market which can absorb the TVET graduates and provide them with decent work...' (Hollander and Mar, 2009: 42).

Furthermore, strategies for which refugees are the sole beneficiaries run the risk of exacerbating hostility between overburdened host communities and the displaced. Strategies to support refugee self-sufficiency in developing countries must do more than prepare the displaced to enter the workforce; it is also necessary for strategies to uplift overburdened host communities and improve the productivity and prosperity of the host nation and thereby increasing their capacity to host refugees.

Increasing numbers of displaced people are seeking refuge in developing countries that are already struggling to address the needs of their nationals.

In order to alleviate the burden that displaced individuals exert on the developing countries that host them, it may be that policymakers and funders should seek to devise and finance multi-faceted strategies which aim to enhance the productivity and prosperity of nations that provide refuge, improve the life chances of refugees and uplift their host communities. In light of this suggestion, we would like to bring the reader's attention to an initiative called the EU–Jordan Compact.

CASE STUDY: THE EU–JORDAN COMPACT

Jordan has hosted a large number of refugees for nearly 60 years. Since the outbreak of war in Syria, Jordan has received 650,000 refugees from its Middle Eastern neighbour. This influx has placed further pressure on the country's economy and public resources, which were already under strain and failing to meet the needs of nationals and more established refugee communities such as Palestinians.

Within the global humanitarian community, there is growing recognition that the needs of the displaced and their host communities in Jordan cannot be met by traditional relief strategies. Jordan is a developing country and the number of refugees it hosts is significant and will continue to grow due to conflicts in the Middle East. In the past few years, governments, donor agencies and IGOs with an interest in the Syrian conflict have developed and adopted a new approach to support Jordanian nationals and refugee communities. This new approach is outlined in the EU-Jordan Compact.

In October 2016, the EU and the Jordanian government agreed to The EU-Jordan Compact. The overarching objective of the Compact is to encourage the development of Jordan by stimulating business and economic growth through improved access to the EU market. Of specific interest to this study, among its pledges, the Compact commits to improved access to TVET for refugees and their host communities.

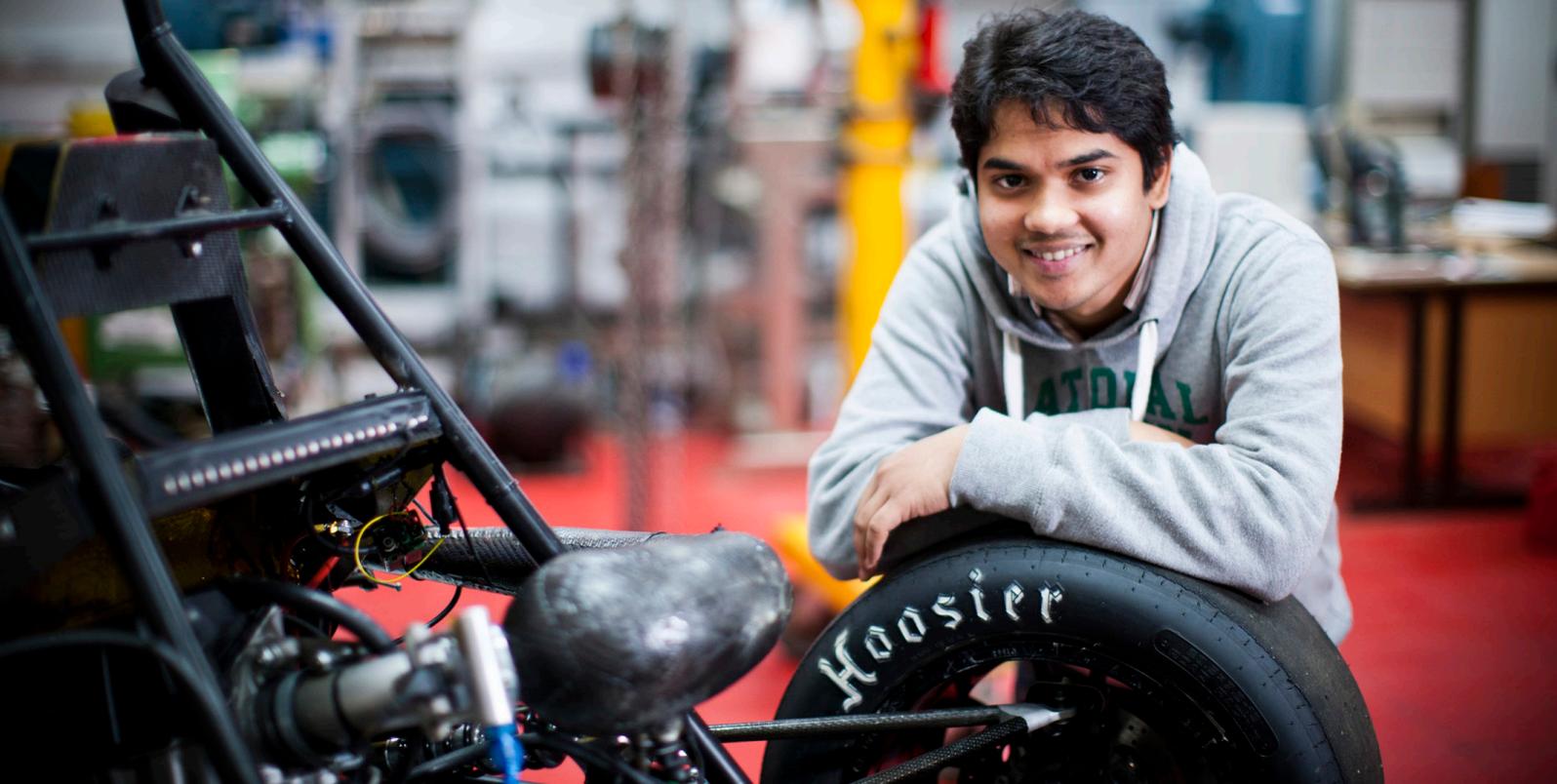


It is not clear why the Jordanian government has accepted the Compact but has refrained from signing the UNHCR Refugee Convention. The Compact's appeal may lie in a number of factors:

- It is underpinned by a collaborative approach to the refugee crisis. The Compact treats the refugee situation as a responsibility that should be shared globally and it does not expect Jordan to accept sole responsibility for addressing the challenges raised by the influx of displaced people. The agreement depends on the strategic and operational input of various international actors such as governments, donor agencies, NGOs and IGOs.
- It acknowledges and seeks to address the wider challenges that Jordan is facing today. Not only is the Compact trying to help refugees to rebuild their lives, but some of the programmes that it offers are also open to vulnerable Jordanians. Furthermore, Jordan will receive support to boost its productivity and economic standing through the relaxation of EU rules of origin for Jordanian exports.
- The Compact comes with funding. It includes a minimum of €747 million for 2016–17, including €108 million in humanitarian aid and €200 million in macro-financial assistance. This is in addition to the already foreseen bilateral funds.

The Compact is in the early stages of implementation so it is difficult to determine how effective it is. However, the Jordanian government's adoption of the agreement suggests that

policies and strategies for the inclusion of refugees in TVET are more likely to secure buy-in from the host country if they encourage a collaborative approach to refugee inclusion, they seek to support the wider objectives of the host country and they carry a financial commitment which does not simply redirect existing funding.



6. ACCESSIBILITY

In the previous section, we explored the TVET that is available, in principle, for asylum seekers and refugees. In this section, we will discuss the barriers that prevent and the enablers that support displaced people from accessing the training that exists for them. We will discuss how refugees' access to TVET is affected by factors such as legal status, the right to work, freedom of movement, support for costs other than tuition fees and language training.

Legal status

Across all of the study countries, a refugee's ability to prove their identity either directly or indirectly affects their access to the services available to them, including training. In all of the study countries, displaced people are expected to demonstrate their identity through possession of official documentation issued by the governments of either their home or host country or UNHCR.

The desk review indicates that in Ethiopia, displaced people seeking protection are expected to register through reception centres managed by ARRA and UNHCR. Once registered, refugees are issued with a Food Ration Card which in most cases appears to be the sole form of documentation which proves the refugee's status. Although not explicitly stated, we get the impression that without registration, displaced people cannot reside in camps, which according to Respondent N is where most of the refugee support services are available.

Secondary research indicates that in Jordan, refugees require a multitude of different identification documents in order to access services. One such identification is the Asylum Seeker Certificate, which according to the European University Institute, ‘... is indispensable for obtaining Ministry of Interior (MoI) Service Card for refugees’ access to public ... education services in host communities.’ (Achilli, 2015: 5).

In Pakistan, refugees require a form of identification called a Proof of Registration (PoR) card which is issued by the government and UNHCR. A PoR card is a form of identification which is supposed to provide Afghan refugees with temporary legal stay and freedom of movement in Pakistan. However, refugees are frequently required to present their cards in order to access the services of humanitarian agencies, and according to Respondent I, refugees in Pakistan must present their cards in order to enrol on TVET provided by NGOs.

However, when the card expires, so too does the cardholder’s official entitlements, including access to skills training. Card expiration is a regular occurrence. For example, all PoR cards expired on 31 December 2017 and they were renewed a few days later and extended until 31 January 2018. On the one hand, PoR is helpfully providing Afghan refugees with a means to temporarily escape persecution and violence in Afghanistan; yet on the other hand, the system forces Afghan refugees to lead an unpredictable and unstable existence which could prevent them from accessing services such as skills training on a continuous basis. Respondent C informed us that despite PoR expiration, UNHCR continued to fund TVET to refugees already enrolled on programmes. However, we were not able to determine whether other funders were as flexible.

In the UK, the Home Office issues asylum seekers with a document called an Application Registration Card (ARC). The ARC confirms the holder’s identity and that they going through the asylum determination process. When an asylum determination process concludes with the applicant gaining refugee status, the Home Office issues a Biometric Residence Permit. Secondary research indicates that asylum seekers and refugees in the UK must provide proof of their immigration status in order to access subsidised TVET programmes. For example, a report by the Refugee Council talks about the challenges that asylum seekers face when trying to prove their immigration status in order to enrol for post-16 learning which includes TVET (Doyle and O’Toole, 2013: 32) reads, ‘...learners talked about the difficulties and the lengths asylum seekers have to go to in order to prove their immigration status before being accepted onto a course.’ However, there appears to be no single document of asylum or refugee status that providers expect prospective students to present. On the one hand, this could provide the asylum seeker or refugee with the flexibility to present any number of documents in order to enrol on a TVET programme. On the other hand, it could mean that a displaced person’s ability to access a training course will often be dependent on the

extent to which the training provider understands the documentation which proves asylum or refugee status.

In South Africa, individuals seeking protection are expected to report to a Refugee Registration Office. If the asylum applicant produces the required documentation, they are entitled to an Asylum Seeker's Permit which is otherwise known as a Section 22 permit. If the asylum seeker is subsequently granted refugee status, they are then entitled to a Section 24 permit. Both the Section 22 and Section 24 permits authorise the holder to access education, including TVET, delivered in public institutes.

Stakeholders in South Africa frequently mentioned the challenges that asylum seekers face when trying to obtain official documentation to prove their status. Under South African law, asylum seekers are permitted to work and study during the refugee status determination period. Department of Home Affairs officials are required to issue an asylum seeker with a Section 22 permit that indicates the bearers' entitlement to work and study. In order to obtain the permit, prospective asylum seekers must report to a refugee reception office. Anecdotal evidence from prospective asylum seekers which was gathered during the desk review describes the challenges they face attempting to obtain or use a permit. For example, a report produced by Human Rights Watch in 2005 contains accounts of individuals who were denied access to refugee reception offices on the basis of their nationality due to quotas enforced by reception staff (Human Rights Watch, 2005). Respondent F discussed instances when refugees in possession of Section 24 (the document required by refugees) permits have not been able to enrol on TVET programmes because their documentation did not clearly indicate their entitlement to public education. In order to attempt to enrol again, prospective students have to return to the refugee reception office where they face long queues in order to meet with officials who can rectify their documentation (Respondent F). Although not mentioned by respondents, it is possible that when faced with these challenges, applicants who would benefit from skills training may decide to abandon the application process. Anecdotal evidence provided by Respondent E brought our attention to confusing refugee application processes, and research by Alfaro-Velcamp et al. (2017: 216–236) suggests that the challenges of the asylum and refugee systems persist 12 years after the publication of the Human Rights Watch paper.

Although arguably not on the same scale as South Africa, Ethiopia has also faced challenges in its refugee application process. In an effort to adopt a more holistic and streamlined approach to the needs of displaced people, in 2017 Ethiopia introduced a Biometric Identity Management System (BIMS) for refugees. BIMS was created following the signing of a data sharing agreement between UNHCR and ARRA. The new system involves a continuous registration process to update data and record details of newly arrived refugees. UNHCR

and ARRA envisage that all refugees will be registered on the system by the end of this year. BIMS is designed to capture a range of data including information related to a refugee's skills, profession and household income. According to UNHCR, the agencies that support refugees can draw on this collective data to help their clients access more interventions, such as education. If effective, this service will be particularly valuable to urban refugees who often find it more difficult than those residing in camps to access services such as entry to skills training. BIMS is a new intervention and it will take a number of years to assess how effectively it is helping refugees to access education, but Ethiopia's efforts to register refugees is a positive step towards protecting their rights. Refugee access to TVET is not a standalone issue. The wider system that receives and supports refugees must work effectively in order for refugees to access education.

Across the study countries, refugees require proof of status in order to access training.

However, obtaining this proof can be problematic. Refugee access to TVET can be improved if measures are put in place to make it easier for them to obtain proof of status.

The right to work

In the section on availability, we established that throughout the study countries, subsidies for TVET for refugees are always limited. This means that in the most restrictive funding scenarios, refugees are expected to finance their own TVET at any level, and in the least restrictive, they are expected to fund skills training beyond a certain attainment level. Despite the general onus on refugees to self-fund TVET, in the vast majority of the study countries – Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan and South Africa – refugees (even those who possess proof of their legal status) do not have the right to access formal work in the host country indefinitely and without restrictions on the type of work. According to Respondent B, Ethiopian law currently does not permit refugees to work. Recent developments indicate that Ethiopia is relaxing its approach to refugees and employment. On 20 September 2016, at the Leaders' Summit on Refugees, the Ethiopian government made a number of pledges regarding the employment rights of refugees. For example, it promised to provide work permits to refugees with permanent residence IDs in the areas permitted for foreign workers. Furthermore, it pledged to work with international partners to build industrial parks that could employ up to 100,000 individuals, with 30 per cent of the jobs to be reserved for refugees (Respondent B). Currently, it is not clear when the new work permits will be available to refugees, when they will be able to apply for job openings in the industrial parks and what criteria they will be expected to meet in order to gain this employment.

In Pakistan, employment in the formal economy depends upon possession of a Pakistan National ID Card. Refugees are not entitled to this card so those who wish to work must enter the informal economy, where they may be subject to poor working conditions such as low pay and no job security (Respondent C). According to the website of the Department for Home Affairs in South Africa (South Africa, 2018), refugees who hold a Section 24 permit are allowed to work, which suggests that there are no legal barriers to their entry into the formal economy. We could not identify evidence that refugees are excluded from entering particular industries or roles. The website also states that Section 24 permits are valid for two years, and upon expiration the refugee must apply for the permit to be renewed if they wish to remain in South Africa.

The desk review indicated that the expiration date of permits is prohibitive to the employment of refugees. For example, according to a legal guide published on the website of the South African NGO ProBono.org¹⁹, 'Many employers are reluctant to employ asylum seekers or refugees because of the expiration date indicated on the permit'.

Although the Constitution of Jordan does not explicitly mention the employment rights of foreign nationals, its wording indicates that employment is reserved for Jordanians. Article 23 of the Constitution reads, 'Work is the right of all citizens, and the State shall avail it to Jordanians by directing and improving the national economy' (Jordanian Government, 2011). Over the past two years, the Jordanian government has taken measures to introduce new policies and initiatives intended to make it easier for refugees to enter the formal job market. For example, in June 2017, the General Federation of Jordanian Trade Unions signed an agreement with the Ministry of Labour to allow the Federation to issue 10,000 non-employer and non-position-specific work permits each year (*Jordan Times*, 2017). Prior to this agreement, a refugee's permit was linked to a particular employer. The employer was responsible for applying for the permit, which authorised the refugee to hold a specific position. Despite efforts made by the Jordanian government to support refugees to secure employment, local laws continue to restrict refugees' access to the formal job market. Respondents informed us that refugees are disqualified from entering certain sectors and taking up particular roles – for example, refugees are prohibited from becoming secretaries (Respondent J).

The UK is the only study country which provides refugees with completely unrestricted access to the formal job market. Refugees are free to work in any sector and hold any position. However, a lack of awareness on the part of employers means that they may overlook

¹⁹ www.probono.org.za/Manuals/Refugee-Manual/2015_Asylum_seeker_guide_Rights_and_Duties_of_asylum_seekers.pdf



refugees when recruiting staff. According to Sheila Heard of Transitions²⁰, ‘many employers don’t know what refugee status means, and imagine there’s a lot of hassle involved in taking someone on’ (Forrest, 2015). We identified obstacles to the employment of refugees in the formal economy across all of the study countries. Although these obstacles can vary widely in terms of their severity, they all have the potential to push refugees towards low-salaried work in the informal job market. Furthermore, they may disincentivise refugees from seeking any sort of employment. Without regular work that pays a decent salary, refugees are less likely to be in a position to finance skills training which falls outside of the limited or non-existent subsidised opportunities available in the host country. If policymakers, NGOs and IGOs are committed to encouraging refugees to pursue TVET and expect refugees to fund this training themselves, we recommend that measures are proposed to improve refugee access to the formal economy in the host country. Employment in the formal economy is more likely to provide refugees with the financial means to self-fund skills training.

Data

Across the majority of the study countries, we could not determine the number of refugees enrolled on skills training programmes. Ethiopia was the exception. Data published by the Ethiopian government indicates that 6,773 refugees were enrolled in TVET in 2017 (Ethiopia 2018). In addition, across all of the study countries, we could not identify how much funding has been invested in skills training for refugees, the number of refugees who manage to

²⁰ <https://transitions-london.co.uk/about-us/>

complete a training course or data which indicates the number of refugee students who progress to employment or further study. By contrast, the desk review revealed a more substantial body of data about refugee engagement at the primary and secondary levels.

The general lack of data on refugee inclusion in TVET suggests that it is a low priority for organisations involved in the planning and funding of refugee education in the study countries. Without this data, the organisations responsible for the planning, funding and delivery of TVET are not in a position to identify which initiatives are working. They lack a body of reliable evidence which can be drawn upon to create more effective training programmes in the future.

Jacobsen and Fratze discuss the challenges caused by a lack of evaluation of livelihood programmes. They state, ‘The evidence base is weak in terms of how livelihood programs impact the wellbeing, self-reliance, and durable solutions of refugees ... It is impossible to determine whether current refugee livelihood programming practices are having a positive and especially long-term impact’ (Jacobsen and Fratze, 2016: 28). The need for an evidence base for refugee education is also made in the Save the Children report *Promising Practices in Refugee Education*. The report states: ‘There is clearly a need for a more robust evidence base for education in emergencies and refugee education specifically – and an effective, collaborative approach to achieving this. There must be a concerted effort to expand our knowledge of “what works” in securing quality learning outcomes for refugee children, specifically answering how, for whom, where and under what condition’ (Bergin, 2017: 26).

Although this report concerns the education of refugee children, our research indicates that the need for robust data also applies to TVET for adult refugees. Like Jacobsen and Fratze,

we recommend that policymakers and donor agencies conduct more independent impact evaluations of TVET interventions for refugees. Furthermore, we suggest that these are publicly available. This will enable stakeholders to learn from each other’s experiences and use this learning to improve the planning, funding and delivery of skills training for refugees.

Freedom of movement

The majority of the study countries – Jordan, Pakistan, South Africa and the UK – permit refugees with the correct legal documentation to move freely within the host country. Ethiopia is the only country which employs an encampment policy. According to the Refugee

Proclamation of Ethiopia, ‘the Head of the Authority may designate places and areas in Ethiopia within which recognized refugees, persons who have applied for recognition as refugees, and family members thereof shall live...’ Although the other countries have laws in place which are supposed to protect the free movement of documented refugees, respondents from some of the study countries spoke about additional measures that documented refugees must go through in order to move between different areas in the host country. For example, Respondent H spoke about refugees in Jordan requiring permits to leave their camps and having to pass through security checkpoints in order to travel to training outside of their camps. Although not implied by the respondent, we can imagine that these additional measures may deter some refugees from venturing outside of their locale in order to pursue TVET. Restricting the movement of refugees denies them access to skills training delivered outside of their local area. However, the relaxation of restrictions on the movement of refugees may be in breach of the host country’s security policy. In these circumstances, in order to encourage more refugees to pursue TVET,

we recommend that policymakers and funders take measures to expand the provision of TVET within areas that host large numbers of refugees, such as camps and villages. This will help refugees to access skills training outside of their local area.

Across the majority of the study countries – Ethiopia, Jordan and Pakistan – we identified funding which helps refugees with study costs other than tuition fees. In Ethiopia, UNHCR and TVET institutes provide refugees with scholarships which cover a broad range of costs including tuition fees, accommodation (when their registered home is a substantial distance from the place of training), clothing, food and stationery (Respondent B). The respondent also informed us that the scholarships are competitive but we were not able to establish whether the supply of TVET outweighed demand among refugees.

In Jordan, UNHCR also runs a scholarship programme which helps refugees to pay for skills training.

According to Respondent H, education providers bid to deliver skills training funded by donor agencies, NGOs and IGOs. The successful bidding organisation launches a scholarship programme. Refugees apply for the scholarships which typically cover the cost of tuition fees and, on occasion, also provide the students with stipends which help with the cost of travel to and from the training facility and the cost of a snack during training days. Respondents informed us that these programmes are severely over-subscribed (Respondent A) and the majority of applicants do not secure places on training programmes. In Pakistan, some skills programmes provide refugees with stipends which help to cover the costs of travel to and

from the training facility (if the student lives in a refugee village) and food during training days (Respondent I).

In the UK, we could not identify funding which helps refugees with study costs which fall outside of tuition. In fact, the desk review revealed anecdotal evidence of refugees finding themselves in a more disadvantaged financial position when pursuing further education. The Refugee Council report *A Lot to Learn: refugees, asylum seekers and post- 16 learning* raises the issue of refugees losing government benefits when they enrol on training programmes. The report presents the following excerpt from an interview with a refugee:

‘I thought that if you were a refugee you would get help ... I was on Jobseeker’s [Allowance]²¹ when I started the course, they said you don’t pay [fees] if you are receiving any benefits, you don’t have to pay, but if you’re working you have to pay ... but then the twist is that when you are on Jobseeker’s Allowance you are actively seeking work so when you tell them you are going on a full time course they stop all that. They stop your JSA, they stop your housing benefits, they stop everything. I didn’t know that stopped the Housing Benefit and everything ... so that’s when I fell behind with my rent and I just couldn’t cope so I had to stop the course and go back on JSA’ (Doyle and O’Toole, 2013: 42).

Whilst it is helpful that in the majority of the study countries, some refugees receive funding for training costs other than tuition fees, this funding is limited to those individuals who are awarded with scholarships. Furthermore, at times, the demand for these scholarships greatly outweighs the supply, which means that the majority of refugees who wish to pursue TVET cannot enrol on their programme of choice. This indicates that the funding invested in TVET for refugees is insufficient.

Within this era of growing displacement, funders are under pressure to meet a multitude of demands and it may not be possible to allocate more funding to TVET for displaced people. Therefore, we recommend that funders use impact assessments to determine which programmes are meeting objectives so that funding can be channelled to the most successful initiatives.

²¹ Jobseeker’s Allowance (JSA) is an unemployment benefit paid to those who are actively seeking work.



7. ACCEPTABILITY

This section explores how useful TVET provision is to refugees. It specifically discusses the quality of provision and whether TVET addresses cultural and personal expectations.

Quality of provision

Evidence presented in the section on availability demonstrates that for many refugees, TVET outside of the state system presents their only opportunity to receive skills training. However, skills provision which is designed, delivered and monitored outside of government-supported systems may fall short of national standards and have limited benefits for students. For example, Respondent J highlighted the lack of standardised curriculum among training providers delivering TVET to refugees in Jordan, which means that refugees are potentially graduating from TVET programmes lacking the competencies and skills required for the workplace. Respondent C painted a similar picture for Pakistan and informed us that currently, unlike Pakistani nationals, refugees who complete skills training are not entitled to take the trade board exams which qualify them to work as professionals.

Meeting cultural and personal expectations

According to UNHCR, women and girls make up about 50 per cent of the world's refugee population (UNHCR, 2018b). According to some respondents, female refugees find it difficult to pursue TVET in the host country because the opportunities available are not considered acceptable for women within their culture. For example, Respondent H spoke about the

difficulty experienced by Syrian women who try to pursue employability programmes because their community traditionally expects them to be homemakers. In Jordan, training on self-employment helps female refugees to enter the labour market without undermining cultural expectations because they can work from home (Respondent H). We were not able to determine whether these self-employment opportunities are widespread within Jordan.

Respondent K spoke about Syrian refugees' reluctance to enter TVET in Jordan because they do not plan on staying in Jordan in the long term. Ultimately, they hope to return Syria or to resettle in a third country.

In the majority of the study countries – Ethiopia, South Africa and the UK – we identified initiatives which can draw on refugees' previous educational attainment in order to establish their level of professional competency within the host country. In Ethiopia, refugees who cannot produce educational certificates from their home country can take a placement examination provided by the government (Respondent B). Respondent F spoke about the South African Qualifications Authority, which can assess a refugee's prior documented educational attainment and officially declare which South African qualification it equates to. However, in order to use this service, refugees have to pay R1,010 (around £60), which they may not be able to afford considering the limited employment opportunities available to them.

The desk review revealed that in the UK, moves are under way to help refugees to prove their prior educational attainment through an initiative called the Qualifications Passport for Refugees. The initiative was created by UK NARIC in collaboration with its Norwegian counterpart NOKUT, and a pilot is currently under way in Greece, which is a major entry point for refugees who want to settle in Europe. The scheme is designed to help refugees with partial or missing documentation for their qualifications. Refugees undergo interviews with experienced credential evaluators in order to determine their qualifications and skills. The initiative aims to assist refugees to integrate more quickly into their host communities and help host communities to benefit from the skills of refugees. We were not able to identify such initiatives in Jordan or Pakistan. Although not raised by respondents, refugees whose prior educational attainment is not accepted in the host country may deem TVET opportunities in the host country as unsuitable because they are expected to enter basic-level TVET programmes although their skills may be at an intermediate or advanced level.

In order to improve the suitability of TVET opportunities for refugees, we recommend that wherever possible, planners and funders of skills training create programmes which take into consideration the cultural and personal expectations of refugees as well as their prior educational attainment.



8. ADAPTABILITY

This section examines the efforts made by policymakers, funders and providers to include refugees in TVET and accommodate their needs. It focuses on the extent to which refugees are included in national policy and the TVET certification that refugees can acquire.

Inclusion of refugees in national policy

There is a universal acceptance of the importance of policy in the planning, funding and delivery of education. According to Rizvi and Lingard, policy is ‘...the authoritative allocation of values. But values can be allocated in a number of ways for a variety of purposes. Most frequently, policies are designed to steer actions and behaviour, to guide institutions and professionals in a certain direction’ (Rizvi and Lingard, 2009: 8). Given the importance of policy to education, it is vital to examine how the policies of the study countries address the needs of refugees.

The government of each country in the study owns some sort of formal document, whether it be a policy or strategy, which sets out its national ambitions for TVET and details its approach to this area of education (please see the Index).

The skills policies and strategies of the vast majority of the study countries – Ethiopia, Pakistan, South Africa and the UK – do not specifically refer to refugees. Jordan is the exception; its *National E-TVET Strategy 2014 – 2020* states that refugees have put additional pressure on a system that is already struggling (Jordanian Government, 2014: 13). *The National E-TVET*

Strategy also acknowledges that the current system is not addressing the needs of refugees and proposes a solution. It states, 'Based on the findings of a skills audit of recent immigrants and refugees, identify and recruit qualified and experienced TVET teachers/trainers with industry experience' (p33).

The brief mention of refugees in Jordan's national strategy can perhaps be attributed to the fact that refugees comprise a significant proportion of the national population. In fact, when compared to the other study countries, the population of Jordan has the highest percentage of refugees. The other study countries have relatively small proportions of refugees, so including displaced people in national TVET policies and strategies may not be considered feasible. Furthermore, the inclusion of refugees in national policies and strategies does not align with the separatist approach that a number of the study countries have traditionally adopted in respect of refugees.

Although refugees are absent from the national TVET policies and strategies of the vast majority of the study countries, we were able to identify standalone policies or initiatives endorsed by their national governments which encourage the provision of

skills training for refugees. This was the case across the vast majority of the study countries – Ethiopia, Jordan, Pakistan and the UK. The exception was South Africa, where we could not identify a policy adopted by the government which encourages skills training for refugees.

Respondent B informed us of UNHCR's *Ethiopia Refugee Education Strategy 2015–2018*. The strategy, which was co-created by ARRA, UNHCR and UNICEF, sets out a localised vision of UNHCR's Global Education Strategy and includes plans for TVET. In Pakistan, the government is similarly working with UNHCR to address the educational needs of refugees through an initiative called the Refugee Affected and Host Areas (RAHA) programme (Respondent I). RAHA, which launched in 2009, delivers a wide variety of interventions including skills training for refugees and their Pakistani host communities.

Within the UK, the Scottish government recently launched the *New Scots Refugee Integration Strategy: 2018–2022*. The strategy lays out Scotland's plans to address a number of obstacles which prevent refugees from integrating into wider Scottish society. It specifically refers to challenges that refugees encounter in the area of TVET. For example,

the strategy promises to ‘Support development of a model for a recognition and accreditation process to identify prior qualifications, skills and learning, and develop sector specific employment pathways. Improve availability and access to appropriate ESOL²² - (Scottish Government, 2018: 38).

Certification

According to the Index, there is evidence that the national TVET system in Pakistan offers some certified learning opportunities. Evidence is provided by the website of NAVTTC. The website does not indicate whether all training in the national system is certified but it indicates that certification exists. For example, the website talks about an initiative called Competency Based Training and Assessment. It states, ‘Through competency based assessment, the trainees will be assessed after completing the programme and awarded high quality national vocational certificates. Likewise, skills of the individuals from outside the formal system are also recognized through Recognition of Prior Learning/ Recognition of Current Competencies’²³

Although certified TVET is available in some instances through Pakistan’s national system, secondary research indicates that refugees have limited opportunities to gain certification (see the Index).

UNHCR’s plan for Afghan refugees in South-West Asia sets out the IGO’s objectives for this refugee group in the region. It states that among other objectives in Pakistan, the IGO will focus its attention on initiatives that, ‘Equip young people with transferrable skills through enhanced access to national (certified) vocational training facilities.’ (UNHCR, n.d.: 24).

UNHCR’s prioritisation of certification suggests that, at present, refugees have limited access to certified training. A UNHCR report on the education of Afghan refugees discusses TVET within the context of non- formal learning, which further suggests that most TVET for refugees is not certified. The document reads, ‘The availability of non-formal education options, such as accelerated learning courses, vocational, technical and skills training are therefore vital for the Afghan refugee community’ (UNHCR, September 2015: 9). The lack of certified training opportunities available to refugees in Pakistan exacerbates their exclusion from mainstream society and places them at a disadvantage when competing for jobs.

²² ESOL – English for speakers of other languages.

²³ www.navttc.org/SnC.aspx



9. CONCLUSIONS

TVET systems in developing economies are often underdeveloped and limit opportunities for both nationals and refugees. Generally, we identified very few policy barriers to TVET; restricted access is often caused by local discretion. Obstacles are frequently the result of the application of bureaucratic systems around proving identity and residence rights, not about access to education and training as such.

Decisions are often made at a local level by minor officials. In certain circumstances this creates opportunities for subjective decisions which do not reflect official policy. It is important that TVET articulates with employability – there should be some potential for access to work post-training. There is evidence of some preferential treatment of some refugee cultural or national groups at both the policy and the local level. Charities and NGOS are generally positive and flexible in adapting to local contexts.

This study demonstrates that the inclusion of refugees in TVET is challenging regardless of the economic status of the host country and irrespective of the level of development of the host country's skills system. The problematic nature of refugee inclusion may be attributed to the fact that traditionally, refugee interventions have focused on providing displaced individuals with short-term access to basic services. This is because host countries have treated refugees as temporary inhabitants who will eventually return to their home countries. However, many of the conflicts which are forcing people to flee their home countries have become protracted and they are unlikely to reach a peaceful resolution in the near future.

It is becoming increasingly likely that host countries will become locations of permanent resettlement for refugees. The most promising interventions identified through this study recognise this and they seek to help refugees to integrate into host communities whilst improving the economic opportunities for both refugees and their host communities.

Key findings

- Some policy statements, and indeed some of those interviewed, demonstrated limited understanding of the distinctive nature of TVET. This makes comparisons difficult, as definitions and provision can vary between administrations. At times TVET is confused, unhelpfully, with basic education.
- This study demonstrates that the inclusion of refugees in TVET is variable between administrations, and further conclusions and recommendations would apply to the individual nations.
- Even in those countries with more developed economies and skills systems there are barriers to entry for both native and refugee populations. In the UK, for example, there is no discrimination in access to TVET across the four nations, even though practice varies across those nations. In other administrations there is clear discrimination.
- Access and funding are different issues. In the majority of cases, where access is possible, funding remains a major barrier.
- The problematic nature of refugee inclusion may be attributed to the fact that traditionally, refugee interventions have focused on providing displaced individuals with short-term access to basic services, as host countries have treated refugees as temporary inhabitants who will eventually return to their home countries. However, many of the conflicts which are forcing people to flee their home countries have become protracted and they are unlikely to reach a peaceful resolution in the near future. It is becoming increasingly likely that host countries will become locations of permanent resettlement for refugees. The most promising interventions identified through this study recognise this and they seek to help refugees to integrate into host communities while improving the economic opportunities for both refugees and their host communities. Employability assists with integration.
- TVET systems in developing economies are often underdeveloped and limit opportunities for both nationals and refugees. In some countries there is no formal system. Access to TVET in these circumstances is through NGO and other aid agencies. It has not been possible to assess the quality and economic viability of this provision for inclusion in this

report.

- It is important that TVET articulates with employability. It is not always clear that provision has the potential for access to work post-training. Not all provision is linked to an individual's capacity or aspirations.
- Generally, we identified very few policy barriers to TVET at the national level. However, restricted access is often brought about by the local discretion of junior officials.
- Refugees are not spread evenly through a country, but are often found in heavy concentrations within camps and certain towns and villages.
- Obstacles are frequently the result of the application of bureaucratic systems around proving identity and residence rights, not about access to education and training as such. Decisions are often made at a local level by minor officials. In certain circumstances this creates opportunities for subjective decisions which do not reflect official policy. In these circumstances it is difficult to ensure that there are no corrupt practices.
- There is evidence of some preferential treatment of some refugee cultural or national groups at both the policy and the local level.
- There is also concern at the potential impact on the local population if refugee groups are perceived to be at an advantage in access to resources that are in short supply.
- Charities and NGOS are generally positive and flexible in adapting to local contexts.



RECOMMENDATIONS

Availability – for consideration by policymakers and funders

1. Where TVET systems are weakly established within an administration, consideration should be given to improving the state of the wider TVET system in the host country as well as the integration of refugees into that TVET system.
2. Governments of host countries should regularly update existing asylum and refugee policies to include education entitlement.
3. UNHCR's future policies and strategies should stipulate requirements for state signatories in respect of TVET, as this may encourage signatories to improve the availability of public TVET for refugees.

Accessibility – for consideration by policymakers and funders

4. Where access to TVET is restricted by local institutions or officials in a way which is contrary to national policy, funders should seek to use whatever influence they have to bring attention to, and so help rectify this.
5. Those involved in funding TVET should identify a single official, or point of contact, to gain an overview of the TVET profile of the country in which they are working, to seek to assess the relevance of the provision on offer to local employment patterns, and to promote and explain the distinctive nature of TVET.

Acceptability – for consideration by education providers, funders and NGOs

6. There should be research into the quality of non-state-funded TVET provision within those administrations with weak or no TVET systems. Policymakers and donor agencies should conduct more independent impact evaluations of TVET interventions for refugees. We suggest that these evaluations are publicly available. This will enable stakeholders to learn from each other's experiences and use this learning to improve the planning, funding and delivery of TVET for refugees. Funders should use impact assessments to determine which programmes are meeting objectives so that funding can be channelled to the most successful initiatives.
7. These assessments should include a mapping of destinations. Preferential funding should be given to that TVET provision which can demonstrate good progression in to work. Measures should be proposed to improve refugee access to the formal economy in the host country.

Adaptability – for consideration of policymakers and donor agencies

8. Priority in funding should be given to projects which are longer-term and have the potential to be sustainable, rather than short-term, temporary schemes.
9. Organisations concerned with improving refugees' access to TVET should seek to collaborate with actors delivering other support services in order to develop more far-reaching and long-term solutions.
10. Policymakers and funders should take measures to expand the provision of TVET within areas that host large concentrations of refugees, such as camps and villages.
11. Planners and funders of skills training should create systems which draw on evidence about the cultural and personal expectations of refugees as well as their prior educational attainment.
12. Policymakers and donor agencies should consider how strategies for refugee inclusion can be included in broader development policies which also demonstrate clear benefits to the nationals of refugee host countries.

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List of abbreviations

ARC	Application Registration Card (UK)
ARRA	Refugee and Returnee Affairs (Ethiopia)
BIMS	Biometric Identity Management System (Ethiopia)
BMA	Border Management Authority (South Africa)
BRICS	A collective term given to the five major emerging economies of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DAFI	Albert Einstein German Academic Refugee Initiative
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training (South Africa)
EU	European Union
ESOL	English for speakers of other languages
E-TVET	Jordan national employment-technical and vocational education and training strategy
HDI	Human Development Index
IGO	Intergovernmental Organisation
JOD	Jordanian dinar
JSA	Jobseeker's Allowance – an unemployment benefit paid to those who are actively seeking work (UK)
Mol	Ministry of Interior (Jordan)
NARIC	National agency for the recognition and comparison of international qualifications and skills (UK)
NAVTTTC	National Vocational and Technical Training Commission (Pakistan)
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NOKUT	Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education
PoR	Proof of Registration (Pakistan)
RAHA	Refugee Affected and Host Areas (Pakistan)
SSAR	Solutions Strategy for Afghan Refugees
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund

APPENDIX: LIST OF RESPONDENTS

Respondent	Country of operation	Type of organisation
A	Jordan	Education provider
B	Ethiopia	NGO
C	Pakistan	NGO
D	UK	Government department
E	South Africa	Education provider
F	South Africa	Education provider
G	UK	NGO
H	Jordan	Education provider
I	Pakistan	NGO
J	Jordan	NGO
K	Jordan	NGO
L	UK	NGO
M	Jordan	NGO
N	Ethiopia	NGO
O	Pakistan	NGO
P	Ethiopia	Education provider

ANNEX



ANNEX I: INDEX

Table 1 - Comparison of study countries by population, economy and refugees hosted

BROAD INDICATOR	COUNTRY	ETHIOPIA	JORDAN	SOUTH AFRICA	PAKISTAN	UNITED KINGDOM
	Detailed indicator					
Country Context	Continent	Africa	Middle East	Africa	Asia	Europe
	Ranking in Human Development Index out of 188 countries in 2015 ⁱ	174	86	119	147	16
	Human Development Category according to the Human Development Index ⁱⁱ	Low	High	Medium	Medium	Very High
	Level of economic development using the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) List as far as possible ⁱⁱⁱ	Least developed	Lower Middle Income	Upper Middle Income	Lower Middle Income	N/A
	Total population in millions (estimate)	102.4	9.46	55.91	193.2	65.64
	Total number of refugees and people in refugee-like situations according to UNHCR data from mid-2017 ^{iv}	841,285	692,240	92,296	1,406,794	121,280
	Refugees to Gross Domestic Product (PPP) per capita (according to UNHCR Data from mid-2015) ^v	469.41	61.64	8.74	322.47	2.94
	Refugees to 1,000 inhabitants (according to UNHCR data from mid-2015) ^{vi}	7.24	89.55	2.12	8.33	1.82
Which country do most refugees originate from?	South Sudan	Syria ^{vii}	Somalia according to UNHCR www.unhcr.org/afr/protection/operations/524d87689/south-africa-fact-sheet.html Zimbabwe ^{viii}	Afghanistan	Data not available.	

i The full ranking of the Human Development Index is available at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/HDI>

ii The full categorisation of the Human Development Index is available at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/HDI>

iii The DAC list effective for reporting on 2018, 2019 and 2020 flows is available at:

www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-standards/DAC_List_ODA_Recipients2018to2020_flows_En.pdf

iv This figure includes individuals with official refugee status granted by UNHCR as well as people in refugee-like situations. Data drawn from UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip), Tab 3.1 Column M March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opendocAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64

v www.unhcr.org/statistics/mid2015stats.zip (Tab 14, second column)

vi www.unhcr.org/statistics/mid2015stats.zip (Tab 14, third column)

vii This is based on UNHCR data which does not appear to include Palestinian refugees. According to UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestinian refugees) there are 2,175,491 registered Palestine refugees in Jordan. www.unrwa.org/where-we-work/jordan

viii Anecdotally, the highest number of refugees in South Africa are from Zimbabwe, but the total number of Zimbabwean refugees in South Africa is not available according to Immigration South Africa www.immigrationsouthafrica.org/blog/the-status-of-zimbabwean-immigrants-in-south-africa-the-3-year-extension/

Table 2 Part 1 - Analysis of countries according to TVET provision for refugees

BROAD INDICATOR	COUNTRY	ETHIOPIA	JORDAN	SOUTH AFRICA	PAKISTAN	UNITED KINGDOM
	Detailed indicator					
Country Context	Example of a key challenge facing state TVET system	Lack of qualified instructors	Low prestige of TVET	Poor administration	Lack of industry engagement	Reduced funding
	National government department responsible for refugee issues	Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs	Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, Syrian Refugee Affairs Directorate (responsible for Syrians), Department for Palestinian Affairs (responsible for Palestinians)	Department of Home Affairs	Ministry of States and Affairs, Office of Chief Commissioner for Afghan Refugees	Home Office
	National government department responsible for TVET planning	Ministry of Education, Federal TVET Agency Ethiopia	Ministry of Education, Employment Technical and Vocational Education and Training Council, Ministry of Labour	Department of Higher Education and Training	Federal Ministry of Education, National Vocational and Technical Training Commission	Department for Education (England), Department for Business and Innovation (England), Department of Education (Northern Ireland), Department for Education and Skills (Wales), Advanced Learning and Science Directorate (Scotland), Fair Work, Employability and Skills Directorate (Scotland)

Table 2 Part 2 - Analysis of countries according to TVET provision for refugees

BROAD INDICATOR	COUNTRY	ETHIOPIA	JORDAN	SOUTH AFRICA	PAKISTAN	UNITED KINGDOM
	Detailed indicator					
Availability	Ratification of the UNHCR Refugee Convention	2	0	0	2	2
	National law reflects the Convention's education clause	0	0	0	1	1
	National refugee law grants refugees the right to pursue education	0	1	1	1	1
	Existence of funding for refugees to study in state-managed TVET institutes	1	0	1	0	1
	Existence of funding for refugees to study TVET outside of state-managed TVET institutes	1	1	1	1	1
	Funding available for all technical fields	1	0	0	0	2
	Funding available for all levels of TVET	1	0	Unknown	Unknown	0
	The national TVET system is well developed	1	1	1	1	2
	Overall availability score	7	3	4	6	10
Accessibility	Refugees can access TVET without possessing a government-issued identity document which demonstrates their status	0	0	0	0	0
	Refugees with official documentation have the right to formal employment in the host country indefinitely and without restrictions	0	1	0	1	2
	Refugees with official documentation have the right to move freely in the host country	0	2	2	2	2
	On the basis of their refugee status, refugees can access funding to help with TVET-related costs other than tuition fees i.e. transportation and food	1	1	Unknown	0	0
	Overall accessibility score	1	4	2	3	4

BROAD INDICATOR	COUNTRY	ETHIOPIA	JORDAN	SOUTH AFRICA	PAKISTAN	UNITED KINGDOM
	Detailed indicator*					
Acceptability	TVET delivered to refugees outside of the state system undergoes the same quality assurance as TVET delivered in the state system	Unknown	1	Unknown	Unknown	2
	Available TVET opportunities are considered culturally acceptable for Muslim female refugees	Unknown	1	Unknown	Unknown	1
	The host country has measures in place which allow for the recognition of prior educational attainment or professional experience of refugees	1	1	0	1	1
	Overall acceptability score	1	2	0	1	4
Adaptability	The government's national TVET policy or strategy includes refugees	0	1	0	0	0
	The national government endorses an alternative policy/strategy/initiative which encourages the provision of TVET for refugees	1	1	1	0	1
	TVET for refugees is linked to the labour market of the host country or the home nation of the refugee	1	1	1	Unknown	1
	There is data which allows for the analysis of refugee inclusion in TVET	1	0	0	0	0
	Overall adaptability score	3	3	2	0	2
	Overall TVET inclusion score	12	12	8	10	20

Guidance on the scoring methodology

- 2 available evidence demonstrates that the country entirely reflects the indicator
- 1 the indicator is partially reflected to an extent
- 0 the indicator is not reflected at all

Unknown it has not been possible to give a score owing to a lack of information.

The scores for all detailed indicators within a broad indicator are added together to provide an overall score for the broad indicator for each country.

The scores for each broad indicator of are added together to provide a total TVET inclusion score for each country. Through this scoring system, the index provides an overview of TVET inclusion and allows the reader to quickly acquire a sense of how the study countries compare in respect of this area of education for refugees.

The maximum overall score that a country can receive is 38. A score of 30 or above indicates that country's TVET policies and systems are well developed to allow a high degree of refugees' inclusion. A score between 19 and 29 indicates that country's TVET policies and systems are partly available and suggests a moderate degree of refugees' inclusion. A score of 18 or less suggests a low degree of refugees' inclusion and insufficient TVET policies and systems.

As the context in which TVET contributes to the inclusion or refugees in each country is so vastly different, this index is more appropriate as a self- assessment tool which countries can use to compare their progress over time than to directly compare and rank their refugees' inclusion status internationally.

* (Indicators within the Availability, Accessibility, Acceptability and Adaptability sections carry scores.

i The full ranking of the Human Development Index is available at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/HDI>

ii The full categorisation of the Human Development Index is available at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/HDI>

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iv This figure includes individuals with official refugee status granted by UNHCR as well as people in refugee-like situations. Data drawn from UNHCR mid-year trends, June 2017 – Annex tables (.zip), Tab 3.1 Column M March 2018, available at: www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home/opendocAttachment.zip?COMID=5aaa50c64

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ANNEX II: THE EU-JORDAN COMPACT

A New Holistic Approach between the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan and the International Community to deal with the Syrian Refugee Crisis.

Jordan has assumed a heavy burden due to its hosting of refugees and is carrying out a global public good on behalf of the international community.

The latest refugee influx due to the war in Syria has stretched already limited resources and imposed severe stress on Jordan's economy, host communities, fiscal position and public services. The international community has helped; but matching resources with needs is increasingly difficult.

Continuation of the existing approach means urgent needs will not be met. A new paradigm is necessary, promoting economic development and opportunities in Jordan to the benefit of Jordanians and Syrian refugees.

New investment in Jordan is needed. A vital part of attracting business and stimulating economic growth is improved access to the EU market. Host communities need to be better supported. Support is needed urgently to address Jordan's fiscal problems, ideally through grants and as part of an approach agreed with the IMF. Progress on these issues will define progress on commitments made in this compact on overall development and the job opportunities available.

Specifically, this approach is anchored on three interlinked pillars, to support Jordan's growth agenda whilst maintaining its resilience and economic stability:

1. Turning the Syrian refugee crisis into a development opportunity that attracts new investments and opens up the EU market with simplified rules of origin, creating jobs for Jordanians and Syrian refugees whilst supporting the post-conflict Syrian economy;
2. Rebuilding Jordanian host communities by adequately financing through grants the Jordan Response Plan 2016–2018, in particular the resilience of host communities; and
3. Mobilizing sufficient grants and concessionary financing to support the macroeconomic framework and address Jordan's financing needs over the next three years, as part of Jordan entering into a new Extended Fund Facility program with the IMF.

The Government of Jordan is committed to improving the business and investment environment and is taking forward a detailed plan on what measures, changes to regulation, structural reforms and incentives can be offered to domestic and international businesses.

The aim is to produce this by the summer with technical assistance provided by key donors and World Bank/IMF. The Government has followed IMF advice on sound macroeconomic and fiscal management, and will embark on a new program with the IMF (Extended Fund Facility) as a continuation to its fiscal adjustment and structural reforms that are also in line with the Jordan 2025 Vision.

An integral part of incentives to businesses is access to European markets under easier terms than those currently available. The Government intends, as a pilot, to designate five development zones and provide these with maximum incentives under the new investment law. These have the potential to provide additional jobs for Jordanians and Syrian refugees. In addition to the existing preferential access to Jordan's products into the EU market, such as zero tariffs, and no quotas for most traded goods, the EU will accelerate plans to revise preferential rules of origin with a view to an outcome by summer 2016 at the latest. The more generous the access to EU markets, the greater number of jobs likely to be created. Changes to preferential access to the US market provided a transformative export boost.

Jordan has significant fiscal needs of its own, exacerbated by conflict in the region, the cutting of its principal exports routes and markets and the cost of hosting refugees. It needs additional funding to provide direct support for Syrian refugees, as well as ensuring that the communities hosting them are not adversely affected. Jordanians need to see that the international community is not prioritising support to refugees to their detriment.

Pledges made in London amount to around \$700 million of grants in support of the Jordan Response Plan for 2016, the majority for priorities outlined in the resilience component of the plan targeting host communities. Additional pledges already made will contribute to the aim of providing around \$700 million in grants for 2017 and 2018 too. Donors will support job creation programmes such as P4P for Syrian refugees and host communities. The Multilateral Development Banks have identified the potential to increase their financing from \$800 million to \$1.9 billion. It will be important this funding is provided on as concessional terms as possible.

Additional pledges of around \$300 million of grant or grant equivalent have already been made. More is expected. The current levels will be sufficient to reduce the terms of around half of the MDB lending to IDA equivalent terms. The aim is to provide at least similar amounts in future years, thereby contributing to debt sustainability. The international community commits to continuing to work with Jordan in the years ahead to manage any remaining financing gaps.



The Government will undertake the necessary administrative changes to allow Syrian refugees to apply for work permits both inside and outside of the zones. These will be renewed annually in accordance with prevailing laws and regulations.

In addition, Syrian refugees will be allowed by the summer to formalise their existing businesses and to set up new, tax-generating businesses, including access to investor residencies, in accordance with the existing laws and regulations. The Government of Jordan will also provide for a specific percentage of Syrian involvement in municipal works, through private sector employment on a contract basis, with no pension or other long-term financial obligations, for projects funded by donors in areas with a high ratio of non-Jordanian workers.

The number of jobs will depend on the level of international support. Any restrictions preventing small economic activities within the camps hosting Syrian refugees, and on commerce with people outside the camps, will be removed.

We encourage municipalities and communities in donor countries to strengthen collaboration with municipalities and communities in host countries e.g. by sharing know-how through a network of experts.

What we are announcing today is the start of a process. With the right investment and access to EU markets, the designated development zones could provide hundreds of thousands of jobs for Jordanians and Syrian refugees over the coming years. Outside the zones, the sectors where there is low Jordanian participation and a high ratio of foreign workers (e.g. construction, agriculture, service industry, cleaning) and where there is a high degree of skills match (e.g. handicrafts, textiles), could provide roughly 50,000 job opportunities for Syrian refugees over the next year. Cumulatively these measures could in the coming years provide about 200,000 job opportunities for Syrian refugees while they remain in the country, contributing to the Jordanian economy without competing with Jordanians for jobs.

Co-hosts and others will work closely with the Government of Jordan to put in place by the summer a mechanism for implementing, communicating and monitoring the commitments on both sides.

All services have been adversely affected in Jordan, but education deserves a special mention. The war in Syria has disrupted the education of a whole generation of children. It is vital that all children in Jordan can access learning. A lost generation of Syrian children will not only cause social tensions in Jordan but also prevent these children playing a full role in a post conflict Syria. Education needs should be addressed as part of the overall requirements set out in the Jordan Response Plan.

Tremendous leadership by the Government has in recent months sped forward a landmark commitment to ensure that every child in Jordan will be in education in the 2016/17 school year. This level of ambition is ground-breaking and met with equal measures of substance. A cross-donor group of education technical experts have verified that the Jordanian 'Accelerating Access to Quality Formal Education' plan presented at this Conference represents a credible plan to achieve the ambition of all Syrian children in education. The inclusion of Syrian children in Jordanian schools must not endanger the quality of education provided to Jordanian students.

Every school will offer a safe, inclusive and tolerant environment with psychosocial support available to refugee children. Access to vocational training for Syrians and to tertiary/higher education opportunities for all vulnerable youth (Jordanian and Syrian) will be increased.

The Government estimates that delivery of this plan will cost up to US\$1 billion finance over the next three years. The International Community recognises the scale of this requirement, welcomes the resources mobilised at the London Conference to support delivery of the plan and endorses Jordan's call for donors to provide predictable, multi-year funding to meet the

timeframes committed to by the Jordanian Government. Financial pledges will include the cost of construction to build new and refurbish existing classrooms as outlined in the Jordan Response Plan 2016–2018. The Government of Jordan will implement the plan in proportion to the resources the International Community provides for the aforementioned costs.





Would you like to know more about this topic?

Please contact us!

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