People on the Move

International mobility is on the rise, and the growing number of people coming and going across borders leads to increasingly diverse communities. Education has an important role to play in developing the competencies required for our increasingly global world.

Growing mobility, increasing diversity

The UN estimates that about 250 million people can be considered international migrants. The number of international migrants worldwide has increased by about 100 million over the last twenty-five years. This reflects increased international mobility from the Global South to the North and also growing international South-South migration (IOM, 2015). The growing number of countries of origin, languages, cultural and religious practices present in our societies has an impact on our communities. Ensuring that individuals enjoy equitable opportunities and are treated as full members of the societies in which they live requires recognising and integrating difference in public life and providing the public services required. Mobility can be a powerful lever for human and economic development, but we must create the appropriate conditions for individuals to reach their full potential.

Figure 1: Trends in international migrant stock by millions of people, 1990-2015

Note: Migrant stock refers to the numbers of individuals living in region who were not born in that region.
Learning in diverse classrooms

Internationally mobile students can face obstacles to accessing quality education. Many of these challenges are closely related to their socio-economic and cultural status, which is determined by a number of elements, such as parental occupation, educational level and resources, and related environmental factors such as school segregation and parental involvement in education.

However, even when socio-economic status is taken into account, mobility still matters. Children of migrants are on average less likely to attend pre-primary education, miss more days of school than their peers, often receive education in a language different than their mother tongue, and are frequently concentrated together in the same schools (OECD, 2015).

PISA 2015 results show that some countries do better than others in addressing immigrants’ needs (Figure 2). For example, while the attainment gap is small or almost non-existent for migrants in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and New Zealand when comparing non-migrant and first-generation students, it is quite substantial in France, Germany, Slovenia and Sweden, where the difference is around 90 mean score points. Once the socioeconomic and cultural status (ESCS) of students is taken into account, this gap is reduced in France, Slovenia and Sweden, but also in Greece, the Netherlands and the USA, where differentials decrease by more than 25 mean score points after accounting for ESCS (OECD, 2016a).

Figure 2: Student performance in science on PISA 2015, by immigrant background

![Chart showing student performance in science on PISA 2015, by immigrant background](Image)

Note: Only countries where the percentage of immigrant students is higher than 6.25% are shown. Countries and economies are ranked in descending order of the mean science score of first-generation immigrant students.

Source: OECD (2016a), Figure I.7.4.
Multiculturalism and education

Increasing variation in backgrounds, cultures, languages and religious practices has led some to call the current age a time of ‘superdiversity’ (Vertovec, 2007). Education systems face two main responsibilities here: On the one hand, they must adapt teaching and learning to reflect and respond to this diversity and address the educational needs of all students. On the other hand, as principle public spaces for initial socialisation, education systems play an important role in developing the intercultural skills that multicultural democracies require.

Multiculturalism in education (Banks, 1993) includes adapting content to racial, ethnic, and cultural diversity; fostering non-discriminatory attitudes and values through explicit instruction; adapting teaching strategies by recognising diverse ways of learning and knowing; adopting multiple perspectives in the construction of knowledge; and restructuring school culture and organisation to reflect diversity.

Language, culture and the school

Proficiency in the language of instruction is a key to school success. Systematic and ongoing language support is necessary at all levels of education and particularly important for students arriving at a later stage in their education.

Characteristics of education systems more successfully supporting students’ competence in the language of instruction include: sustained language support across grade levels; teachers who are specifically trained in second language teaching; assessment of individual students’ needs and progress; early language interventions and parental involvement in language stimulation; and appreciation of different mother tongues (OECD, 2010a). The combination of language and content learning is central to this: placing newly arrived children into mainstream classes as soon as it becomes feasible is the most effective way to integrate them into the education system (OECD, 2015).

Second Language Learners in Ontario, Canada

An initial assessment of language skills takes place when they enter the school system. This includes testing their language proficiency and other tests in order to identify their educational background and needs. The assessment determines the type and amount of support students need to develop second language skills and bridge gaps in learning. An individual plan is elaborated on the basis of this assessment. Students have access to both English and French as Second Language programs, which can be taken together.

Where special education needs have been identified, either in the initial assessment or through later assessments, students are eligible for second language learning and special education services simultaneously.

More information: http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/
But it is not only about mobile students catching up with their native peers. National curricula in many countries are increasingly focused on developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to succeed in the 21st century. Being able to speak multiple languages and understand and interact with different cultures than one’s own are important skills in globalised societies (see Coste, Moore and Zarate, 2009; Della Chiesa, 2012).

However, neither open-mindedness nor multilingualism automatically guarantee intercultural connection or willingness to interact with others (Kymlicka, 2003). Fostering intercultural dialogue requires careful attention. Making sure positive values and attitudes towards multiculturality are central in teaching is part of the OECD’s global competence approach. This is a key to avoiding perceptions of tokenism and fostering authentic intercultural dialogue (OECD 2016b).

Schools can take advantage of diversity in promoting multicultural skills. For example, in Sweden, students who speak a language other than Swedish at home have the legal right to receive instruction in their family language. The benefits of mother tongue instruction can be extended to all pupils if integrated as part of the general educational offer of the school. Immigrant children can also provide useful contextual and global experiences to other students when they are integrated into school.

### Multicultural education as a market

Economic globalisation has increased interest in multiculturalism in the business field (Resnik, 2009). Companies operating transnationally require employees that can work effectively in multicultural and multilingual environments, both internally in the organisation and externally with partners and clients. Individuals’ capacity to adapt to such diverse settings is a key to their competitiveness in the global market.

Skills such as tolerance, global-mindedness, collaborative problem-solving and communication in diverse settings are highly valued assets. The demand for learning contexts that incorporate these elements into their curricula is growing. The International Baccalaureate (IB) programmes, for example seek to foster “intercultural understanding and respect, not as an alternative to a sense of cultural and national identity, but as an essential part of life in the 21st century” (IB, n.d.). These programmes have grown considerably in recent years (see Figure 3).

Traditionally, these international programmes attracted expatriate families. Today, middle class families in their own countries are increasingly seeking to enrol their children in such schools to provide them with competitive advantages for later life (Hayden and Thompson, 2008). Acquiring a global competence is important for all individuals in contexts of high mobility and diversity. Whether the access to such sought-after international programmes is equitable for all children, however, remains a question.
Teaching in diverse classrooms

As diversity in our classrooms grows and the importance of multicultural education increases, there is also the need for teachers to be prepared to support pupils from different backgrounds. Strengthening professional capacity for teaching to diverse groups (Severiens, Wolff & Van Herpen, 2014) includes improving knowledge about second language development; strengthening teachers’ competency in the use of diverse didactic resources, and instructional approaches to better support the learning of all pupils. Other important elements include improving awareness of stereotyping, teacher expectations and ethnic-identity issues; and increasing capacity to engage parents and the community in supporting students’ learning.

As part of this, education systems need to develop tools for valid assessment of diverse learners and prepare teachers to make appropriate use of them (OECD, 2010b). Capacities for assessing migrant students’ prior knowledge and skills are key (Moll et al., 2001) but vary considerably across countries (Migration Integration Policy Index, 2015). So too does capacity in the use of data for educational monitoring among practitioners (Garnett, 2010).

Teacher education for diversity, The Netherlands

Teacher education in The Netherlands must include courses for all teachers in pre-service and in-service training on 1) intercultural education and the appreciation of cultural diversity, and 2) teachers’ expectations of immigrant students and specific migrant pupils' learning needs.

Knowledge of cultural diversity and their implications for teaching and learning are a prerequisite for qualifying as teacher for primary, secondary education and vocational training. The regulation also requires continued in-service development of all competences, including those related to diversity at the school (cultural understanding, etc.).

More information: www.overheid.nl/
Teacher education for diversity varies greatly across OECD countries. In some cases, this element is mandatory in either pre- or in-service education (e.g. The Netherlands, New Zealand and Norway). In others, training is offered extensively, but it is not compulsory or standardised (e.g. Germany, Portugal, UK or Sweden), or its provision substantially differs across provinces and states (e.g. Australia, Canada, USA). Still, and despite ongoing trends in migration, opportunities for teachers’ multicultural education in some countries (e.g. France, Japan and Spain) are limited or offered in ad hoc basis (Migration Integration Policy Index, 2015).

Teacher induction programmes, professional learning communities and partnerships with foundations or NGOs can play an important role in supporting teachers’ work with diverse classrooms (Severiens, 2014). Education systems can also recruit more diverse school leaders and teachers to better reflect the diversity in their student populations. This can be done either by encouraging and facilitating minorities to pursue careers in teaching education and/or by recognising previously obtained teaching qualifications from other countries (OECD, 2010b).

The central role of the family

Children’s environments have an enormous impact on attitudes to and expectations of education. Reaching out to parents is crucial to enhance both children’s opportunities for accessing educational opportunities and the acquisition of multicultural skills.

Local storytellers, foreign language assistants and foreign pupils can contribute to the diversification of teaching and provide more tailored support to students.

Figure 4: Countries with measures to support migrant parents and communities, 2014

Note: Measures to support migrant parents and communities include: a. community-level support for parental involvement in children’s learning (e.g. community outreach workers); b. school-level support to link migrant students and their schools (e.g. school liaison workers); c. measures to encourage migrant parent involvement in school governance. A country is considered favourable when carries out two or three of these policy options, halfway favourable when only one is applied, and critically unfavourable when no specific policy measure targeting migrant parents and communities with regards to education is in place.

Source: Migration Integration Policy Index, www.mipex.eu/
Assisting migrant families to navigate the educational system is important, as they may lack basic knowledge of the enrolment process, existing educational opportunities (including non-formal education) or entitlement to financial assistance and other forms of educational support. As Figure 4 shows, countries have developed a number of different ways to assist families in these regards.

Denmark, for example, has home visits, workshops, meals in special cultural traditions, home-work cafés, and a more extended use of interpreters in home-school contacts and parent meetings (Ravn, 2009). Similarly, in New South Wales, Australia, interpreter services and key information in several languages are provided in schools to assist students, parents and community members. A range of consultative structures and advisory bodies are also in place to ensure effective communication with parents, communities, employers and other organisations regarding the education and training needs of a diverse student population (NSW Multicultural Plan 2012-2015).

Community can be also a valuable resource for additional educational opportunities. In Canada, for example, family and community support is integral to Heritage language programmes (Canada’s provision of home language education) to make instruction, relevant cultural events, and learning materials available. Family members can participate in the provision of native-language instruction courses, inside or outside the school or act as role models through mentoring (Sacramento, 2015).

Immigrant students that have done well in education can be also valuable role models and mentors for younger immigrant children (Crul and Schneider, 2014). Adult education programmes can be offered in schools after regular teaching times. These are opportunities for parents to improve their education and network with the school community and the neighbourhood (Nusche, 2009).

**Rising hypermobility**

More effective and affordable transportation allows for circular migration cycles, in which individuals seeking economic advantages or trying to preserve ties to their culture of origin may prefer frequent border crossings to permanent relocation. The fact that many people move but do not permanently settle challenges the distinction between temporary and permanent migrants. This “shift” creates specific challenges for education systems.

Syllabi, teaching methods and schooling materials change across countries and schools. This means that student transition from one place to another is not always smooth. Some of the issues are logistical: for example, the transfer of records may not occur in a timely fashion or contain required information.
Immigrant children are more likely to enrol in schools after the school year starts and more likely to leave their previous school before the year ends. As shown in Figure 5, migrant students were almost 10% percent more likely to miss more than two months of schooling than their non-immigrants peers on average across OECD countries. The differences are particularly large in Finland, Ireland and Italy.

Figure 5: Students who lost more than two months of schooling, by immigrant background

Note: Statistically significant differences between the two categories of students are indicated numerically. Countries and economies are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of first-generation immigrant students.
Source: OECD (2015), Figure 4.17.

Education systems can set up systematic strategies to deal with circular migration, particularly in countries or regions where patterns are more stable (Chinese-born immigrants to Australia, for example (Hugo, 2013)).

Residence status can affect educational access, particularly pre-primary, vocational training and tertiary education. In France, The Netherlands or Spain, for example, access is a legal right for all categories of migrants regardless of resident status (including undocumented migrants). In other countries such as Australia, Germany or Hungary it is not (Migration Policy Integration Index, 2015). For refugees, the situation is exacerbated. Displacements due to armed conflicts or prosecution last 17 years on average (OECD, 2015), and often entail extended stays in asylum countries, with limited and disrupted education (Dryden-Petersen, 2015).
A global tertiary education landscape

The link between hypermobility and education is most clearly visible at the tertiary education level. As research and professional services become increasingly globalised (OECD, 2009), international experience is prized and many individuals move across borders seeking the advantages of studying at prestigious post-secondary institutions abroad. Within OECD countries, the percentage of foreign students has risen steadily in the last decade (see Figure 6).

![Figure 6: Evolution in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship, by region of destination 2000-2012 (Million students)](image)

International students can contribute to research and development in the host country, and many of them stay on as researchers. Tertiary institutions seek to retain and attract globalised talent through a number of initiatives. These include the language of instruction, dominated by English as the lingua franca of research worldwide, the quality and cost of education, as well as factors such as migration policies and the recognition of qualifications at home and internationally (OECD, 2016c).

While international mobility might contribute to a loss of human capacity (‘brain drain’), it also improves knowledge production and mobilisation (‘brain circulation’) (Gribble, 2008). Individuals that have acquired new skills and knowledge abroad return with international personal and professional networks that can serve as the basis for transnational entrepreneurship and partnerships. Building on the beneficial effects of mobility on international development, however, requires us to think about appropriate mechanisms to govern tertiary education globally. Better regulating international collaboration and mobility includes aspects such as improving the recognition of foreign credits and qualifications (OECD, 2017), common quality standards and broader, comprehensive and transparent quality assurance mechanisms beyond international rankings.
Towards the future

A globalised world requires mobility and diversity-proof education systems (Benton, McCarthy and Collet, 2015). Meeting the needs of mobile pupils requires more flexible and adaptive education. At the same time, increasing linguistic, cultural, religious and ethnic diversity require our schools to transform diverse classrooms from a challenge into an advantage to educating for a diverse world.

Questions for the future:

1. It is projected that wealth is going to be massively transferred to current middle-income countries in the next decades. What will this mean for mobility flows? And what implications does this have for education in terms of teaching and learning multicultural competences?

2. Imagine that we are advancing towards a future of both extreme digitalisation, parental and community involvement in education, and extreme international mobility. What would education look like? Would schools play such a central role? What about teachers?

3. Advances in translation technology and human-machine interfaces might radically change the way human beings communicate with each other in the future. How could these developments impact education policies and curricula with regards to linguistic competence?
References


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