

Chapter 5

Enhancing migration-led development by facilitating investment in education

Access to quality education plays a critical role in promoting national development and enhancing the welfare of households and individuals. This chapter empirically investigates the interlinkages between migration and education in the ten IPPMD partner countries. It analyses the role of education in the decision to migrate, and how migration influences school attendance and educational expenditures. In addition, the chapter investigates the link between existing education policies and migration outcomes. The chapter points to a number of supportive policies that are important to realise the potential of migration to strengthen the positive synergies between education and development.

Quality education is fundamental to individual and economic development and key for reducing poverty, improving health outcomes and promoting gender equality. Education and human capital generally play a critical role in driving economic growth in both advanced and emerging economies. Access to education and basic literacy skills in developing countries has improved in the last decade, and global enrolment in primary education reached 91% in 2015. However, the global number of out-of-school children of primary school age amounts to more than 59 million and gender disparities in access to primary school remain (UNESCO, 2015). Substantial progress in these areas will be required to achieve Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4, which calls for access to quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all by 2030.

Against this backdrop, migration can play an important role in improving educational outcomes at individual and national level. Migration and education decisions are closely linked in many ways, and there are several channels through which migration can affect the education sector. Migration can change the skills composition in both countries of origin and destination. Remittances can relax household credit constraints and allow households to invest in their children's education. At the same time, educational policies may also influence emigration and return decisions, remittance patterns and the integration of immigrants.

The first part of the chapter gives an overview of the education sector in the ten IPPMD partner countries. The second examines the direct role of education in the decision to migrate and how the various dimensions of migration as defined in the IPPMD project – including emigration, remittances, return migration and immigration – influence school attainment and educational expenditures. The third part of the chapter analyses the role that existing education policies can play in these dimensions of migration.

Table 5.1. **Migration and education: Key findings**

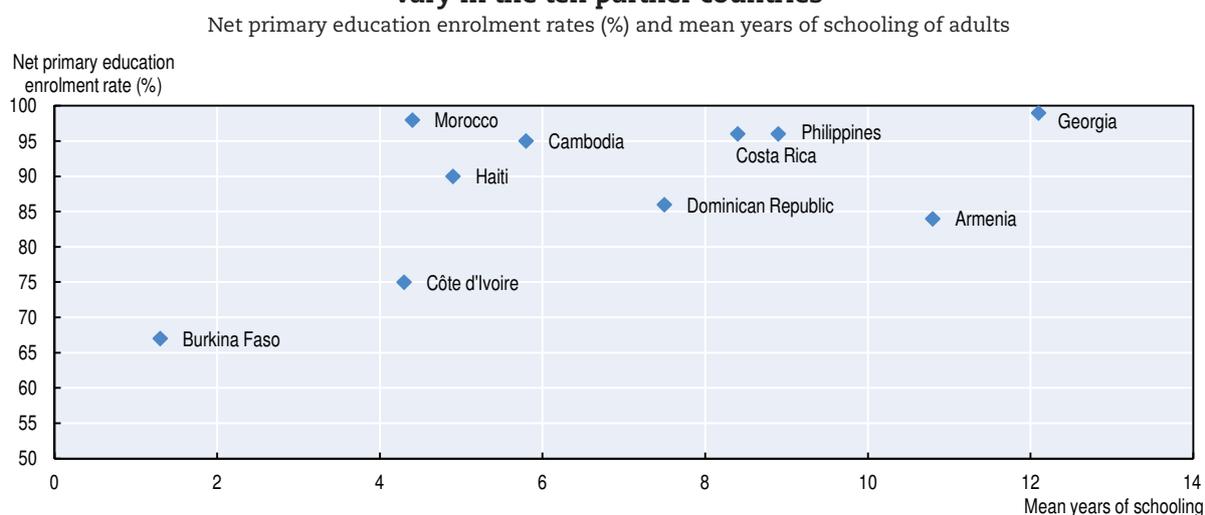
| How does migration affect education? | How do education policies affect migration? |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emigration of highly educated people can negatively affect human capital, at least in the short-term. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most education programmes do not seem to have a significant impact on migration outcomes. |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Even though only a limited share of the highly skilled return, they help raise the stock of human capital in origin countries. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cash-based educational programmes contribute to deterring emigration when conditions are binding. |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Remittance-receiving households often invest more in education and increase the demand for quality education. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conditional cash transfer programmes are linked to the probability of receiving remittances, but not to the amount of remittances received. |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low-skilled emigration can in some cases encourage young people to drop out of school. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Broadening access to education contributes to immigrants' integration and human capital gains. |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Immigrant children are less likely to attend school than native-born children. | |

Note: These findings do not apply to all countries. More country-specific findings can be found in the IPPMD country reports.

Overview of the education sector in the ten partner countries

A comparison of key statistics related to education levels and government spending in the education sector reveals some important differences among the ten IPPMD partner countries. Primary education net enrolment rates range from 67% in Burkina Faso and 75% in Côte d'Ivoire to above 95% in Costa Rica, Georgia, Morocco and the Philippines (Figure 5.1). The lower rates in the sub-Saharan African countries are in line with global statistics showing that among the 59 million out-of-school children of primary school age, more than 56 million reside in sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2015). Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire also have the population with the lowest average education among the partner countries – on average 1.3 years in Burkina Faso and 4.3 years in Côte d'Ivoire.

Figure 5.1. **Net enrolment rates in primary education and mean years of schooling vary in the ten partner countries**



Note: Haiti primary education enrolment rate is for 2012; all other indicators from 2013 or 2014.

Source: World Bank, *World Data Bank*, <http://databank.worldbank.org>; UNDP, *Human Development Reports*, <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/mean-years-schooling-adults-years>.

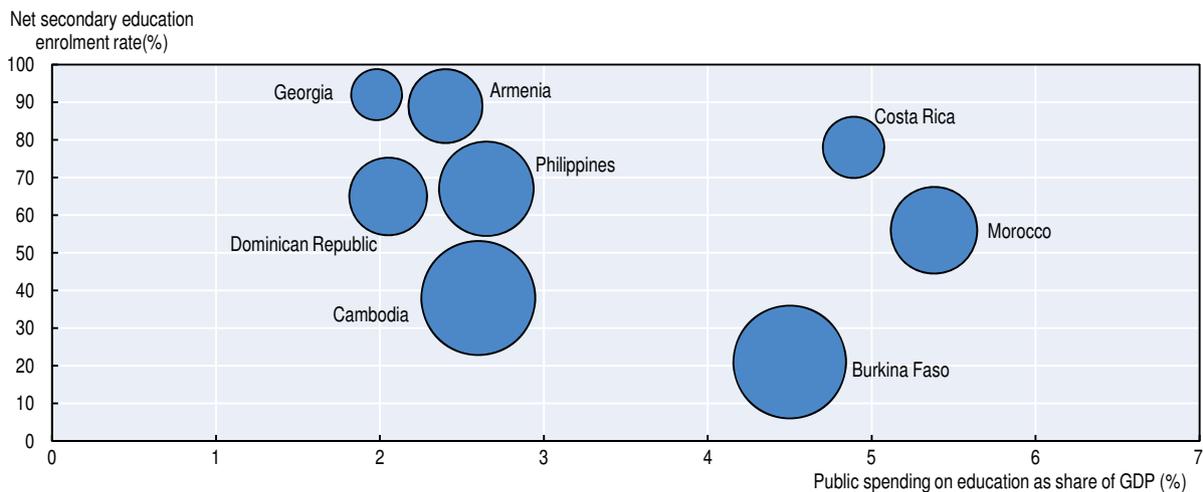
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Morocco and Costa Rica have the highest educational expenditure as a share of gross domestic product (GDP) (Figure 5.2), while Haiti has the lowest at 1.7% (not displayed in the Figure due to data limitations). Public expenditures on education and educational outcomes are not necessarily linked. Armenia and Georgia have the highest secondary education enrolment rate and, together with Costa Rica, the lowest pupil-teacher ratios but are among the lowest spending countries on education as share of GDP, in the sample. A linear relationship between resources and outcomes may however not be expected, since the level of public spending on education does not provide a full picture of the school system.¹ The level of spending also says little on how the expenditures are distributed.

The share of the population with post-secondary education varies across the partner countries (Figure 5.3). A similar pattern as primary and secondary education enrolment rates also holds for higher education: Armenia and Georgia have the most educated populations in the sample (close to 50% of the adult population in both countries has post-secondary education), while Burkina Faso and Cambodia have the least educated populations.

Figure 5.2. Public spending on education is not necessarily linked to enrolment rates and the pupil-teacher ratio

Net secondary education enrolment rate (%), public spending on education (% of GDP), pupil-teacher ratio in primary education

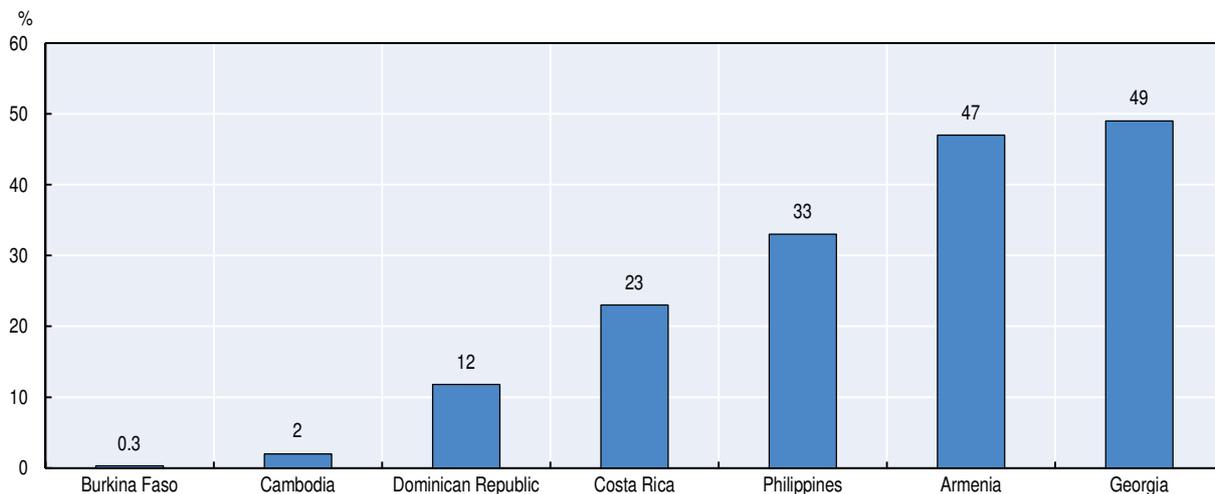


Note: The size of the circles reflects the pupil-teacher ratio in primary education. Georgia has the lowest pupil-teacher ratio in the sample with 9 pupils per teacher, while Cambodia has the highest with 45 pupils per teacher. Data for the net secondary education enrolment rate are not available for Haiti and Côte d'Ivoire. Educational expenditures as share of GDP for Côte d'Ivoire are 4.7% and for Haiti 1.7%.

Source: World Bank, World DataBank, <http://databank.worldbank.org>; UNESCO, Institute for Statistics (UIS) database, <http://www.uis.unesco.org>.
StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933417869>

Figure 5.3. Share of population with post-secondary education varies significantly across countries

Share of population aged 25 years and above with post-secondary education (%)



Note: Post-secondary education includes both non-tertiary and tertiary education (The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 4-8). Data for Côte d'Ivoire, Haiti and Morocco are not available.

Source: UNESCO, UIS database, <http://www.uis.unesco.org>.

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How does migration affect education?

The literature shows that migration and remittances can affect education through several different channels (see for example Cox-Edwards and Ureta, 2003; de Vreyer et al. 2010; Dustmann and Glitz, 2011). The main channels, leading to both structural effects at national level and effects at individual/household level, are:

- Emigration and immigration can modify the **stock and composition of human capital** available in both countries of origin and destination.
- Return migration can **bring back new knowledge and skills** to the country of origin.
- Migration can lead to **education incentive effects** if returns to education are higher/lower abroad.
- Remittances can loosen credit constraints and **stimulate investments in education**.
- Migration can affect household compositions and children's well-being and thereby decrease **educational attendance** of children left behind.

These channels are explored in this chapter, drawing on the analysis of IPPMD data from the ten countries studied.²

Emigration is more likely among the best and the brightest

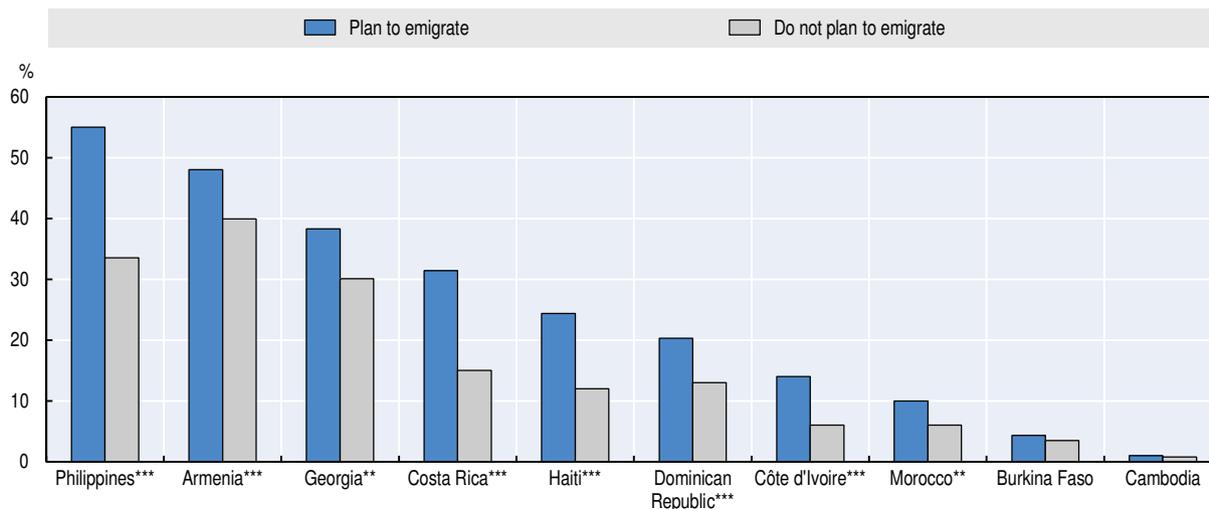
Analysing how education influences people's decisions to migrate helps determine how emigration affects human capital in the country of origin. High-skilled emigrants may be more prone to emigrate due to larger wage differentials for high-skilled than low-skilled. A higher education level may also facilitate migration, as low-skilled emigrants may face higher emigration costs and more barriers. The loss of human capital through the emigration of highly skilled can have negative consequence in the country of origin, commonly referred to as "brain drain". The prospects of emigration however, may also increase the number of individuals obtaining high levels of education, by raising the expected return on education and inducing additional investment in education, a phenomenon which has been termed "brain gain" (Beine et al., 2001). Emigration of highly educated individuals may also lead to positive effects through remittances, where more educated migrants with higher salaries can translate into greater volumes of remittances (Bollard et al. 2011), and skills transfers through return and circular migration.

The emigration of highly skilled people was one of the most commonly recurring topics in the stakeholder interviews on education in the partner countries. In most countries, respondents expressed a concern that such emigration could lead to productivity losses and hamper development. The emigration of teachers was also mentioned as a concern by respondents in Armenia, Cambodia, Côte d'Ivoire and Haiti.

Previous studies looking at the role of education in migration decisions typically find that education, especially higher education, has a positive effect on the probability of emigrating (Faini, 2006). However, other studies show a negative influence of education on emigration (e.g. Danzer and Dietz, 2009; de Vreyer et al. 2010).

How do the IPPMD data shed light on the issue? Figure 5.4 compares the education levels of individuals who intend to emigrate in the future with those who do not. For all countries, the share of individuals with post-secondary education is higher among individuals who are planning to emigrate than among those who are not. The difference is particularly pronounced in the Philippines, Costa Rica and Haiti, and it is statistically significant in almost all countries. The two exceptions are Burkina Faso and Cambodia, which have the lowest share of individuals with post-secondary education.

Figure 5.4. **Individuals with post-secondary education are more likely to plan to emigrate**
Share of individuals with post-secondary education (%), by whether they plan to emigrate



Note: The sample includes individuals aged 20 years and above. Statistical significance calculated using a chi-squared test is indicated as follows: ***: 99%, **: 95%, *: 90%. Post-secondary education includes tertiary education and post-secondary vocational training.
Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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The role of education in the decision to emigrate was further analysed by controlling for individual and household characteristics.³ The results, summarised in Table 5.2, show that education levels are positively linked to emigration in all countries except Cambodia and Costa Rica. In Burkina Faso, education only influences the intention to emigrate of females with secondary education. This may reflect a higher demand for low-skilled male workers in the destination countries, which makes education a less important determinant for men than for women.

In Cambodia, there is a negative link between educational levels and plans to emigrate. This is in line with Cambodian emigrants being from a poorer background and in general leaving to Thailand where the demand for low-skilled workers is high.

The education effect is stronger in magnitude in urban than in rural areas in about half of the countries in the sample. The link between education levels and intention to emigrate does not differ much between men and women. The positive influence of education on plans to emigrate is slightly stronger in magnitude for men in Armenia and Georgia.

Overall, the results indicate that better educated individuals are more likely to plan to emigrate in the future in a majority of the countries. If these plans to emigrate are realised, the effect on human capital and the skill base may be negative. However, the negative effect could be mitigated by skills transfers through return migration and immigration. This will be investigated further in the sections which follow.

However, in Burkina Faso and Cambodia, where education levels are low, education has a limited or even negative influence on migration intentions. This may be linked to the incentive effects from emigration. For example, well-educated people who emigrate might inspire others to acquire education, while emigration of less educated individuals may decrease the incentives to get an education and could increase dropout rates of potential migrants (see Batista et al., 2007; McKenzie and Rapoport, 2006).

Table 5.2. The role of education in the decision to emigrate

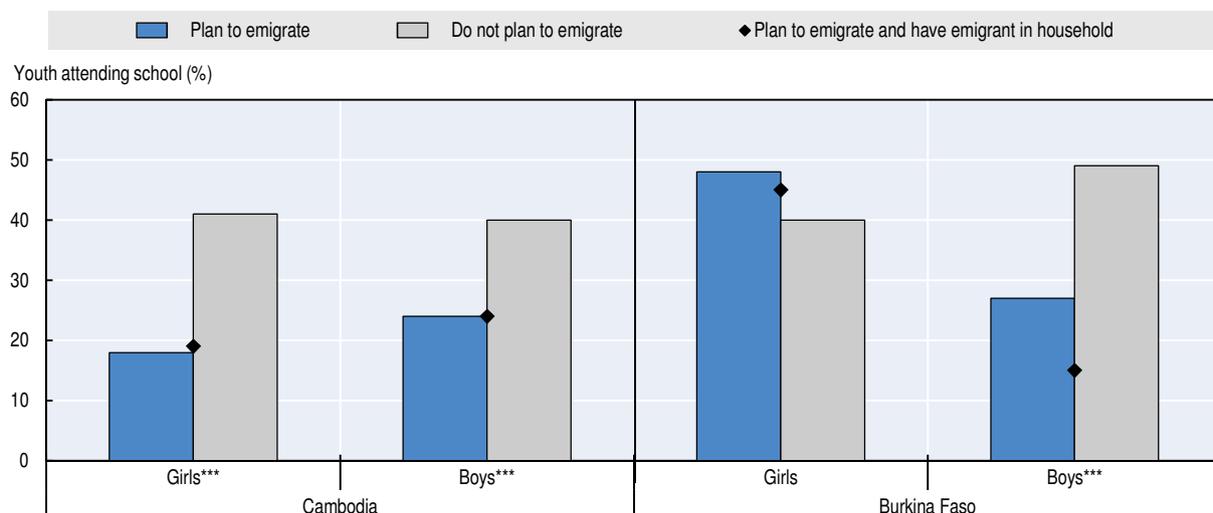
| Sample: | Individuals 20 years of age and above, and: | | | | |
|--------------------|---|-------|---------|-------|-------|
| | All individuals | Males | Females | Urban | Rural |
| Armenia | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ |
| Burkina Faso | | | ↑ | | |
| Cambodia | ↓ | ↓ | | | ↓ |
| Costa Rica | | | | | |
| Côte d'Ivoire | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ |
| Dominican Republic | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | |
| Georgia | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ |
| Haiti | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | |
| Morocco | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ |
| Philippines | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ |

Note: The variable of interest (education level) is divided into five education categories 1) no formal education, 2) primary education, 3) lower secondary, 4) upper secondary and 5) post-secondary education. The regression includes four binary variables, no formal education being the reference category. The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive (upwards arrow) or negative (downwards arrow) relation between the dependant variable and at least one of those dummies. The sample is restricted to individuals 20 years and above to capture individuals that have reached/completed higher education.

Comparing education levels with future plans to emigrate among youth in Cambodia and Burkina Faso reveals that young people who plan to emigrate are much less likely to attend school (Figure 5.5). This is particularly true for young men in Burkina Faso, especially in households with a current emigrant. For girls the pattern is the reverse: those who plan to emigrate are more likely to be in school than those who do not. Hence, in countries with low-skilled emigration, migration intentions and school attendance are interlinked.

Figure 5.5. Links between school attendance and plans to emigrate, Burkina Faso and Cambodia

Share of youth (aged 15-22) attending school, by gender and whether they plan to emigrate



Note: Sample only includes individuals aged 15-22 years. Statistical significance calculated using a chi-squared test is indicated as follows: ***: 99%, **: 95%, *: 90%.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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Emigration and return migration can help develop skills back home

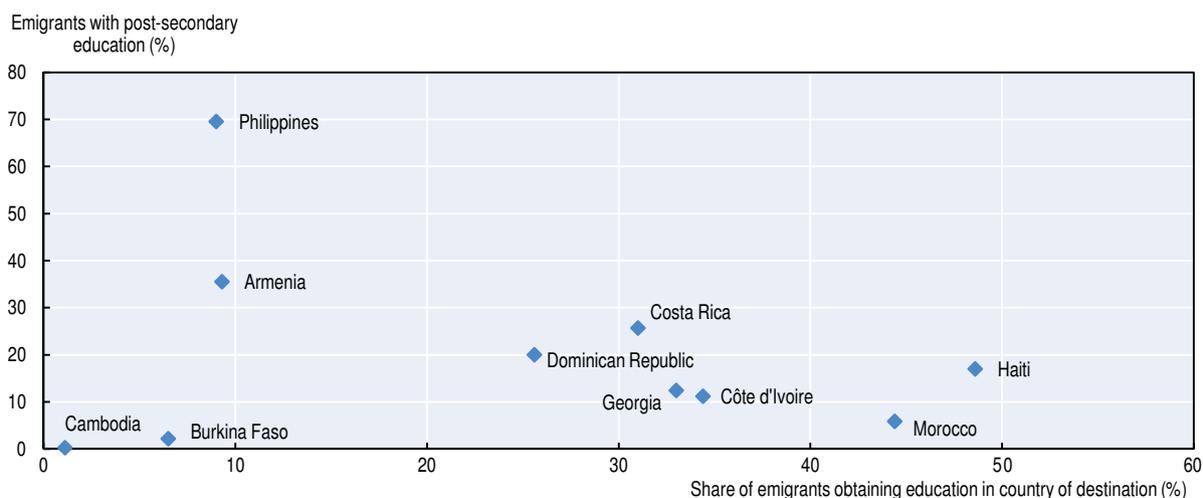
There are two main elements to migration and human capital accumulation in the origin country – the degree to which emigrants improve their skills during their migration period and the degree to which they bring these skills back on their return. These two aspects are explored in this section.

Whether or not migrants acquire education and skills in the destination country is important for the economic payoff of migration (Dustmann and Glitz, 2011). Better-educated return migrants can increase human capital in their home country, thereby alleviating the “brain drain” effect (OECD, 2008). Figure 5.6 displays the education level of migrants before emigrating and the share of migrants who acquired any education in the country of destination. The share of emigrants with post-secondary education before leaving is highest in the Philippines, at almost 70%, followed by Armenia, at around 35%. In other countries, especially Cambodia and Burkina Faso, a much smaller share of emigrants have obtained post-secondary education before leaving. This is not surprising given the low share of the population with post-secondary education in these countries (see Figure 5.3). Few Haitian emigrants have acquired a post-secondary education at their departure, but close to half of them obtain education abroad. In Armenia and the Philippines, emigrants are in general more likely to have a post-secondary degree when leaving the country but not as likely to acquire more education abroad than emigrants in other partner countries.

The pattern in the figure is also in line with the share of emigrants stating that their main reason for emigrating was to improve their education. The share was highest in Costa Rica (13%), Georgia and Haiti (both 8%). The share for the rest of the countries was 3% or less.

Figure 5.6. Emigrants from Côte d’Ivoire, Haiti and Morocco are the most likely to enhance their skills through migration

Share of emigrants with post-secondary education (%) and share of emigrants obtaining education in country of destination (%)



Note: The vertical axis displays the share of current emigrants having obtained a post-secondary education before leaving the household. Post-secondary education includes tertiary education and post-secondary vocational training.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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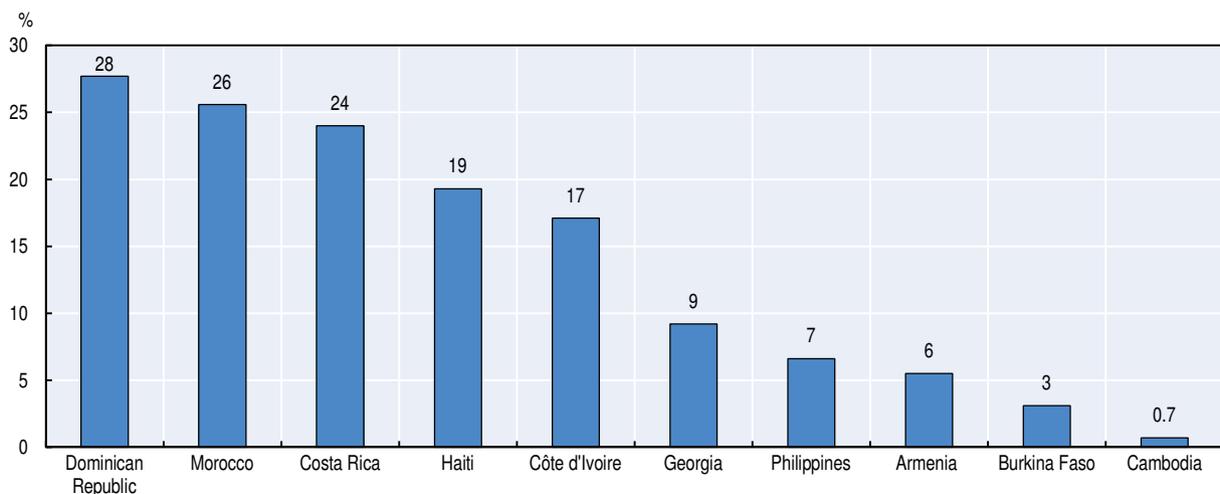
Chapter 10 confirms that return migrants tend to be better educated than non-migrants, with the exception of Burkina Faso, Cambodia and Morocco, where education levels in general are significantly lower than in the other countries. The higher level of educational attainment among return migrants might reflect the fact that emigrants are more highly educated in the first place or that they have acquired education or training abroad, or a combination of the two.

Figure 5.7 shows the share of return migrants who acquired any education (regardless of level) in the destination country. Migrants returning to Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic and Morocco are the most likely to have obtained education while abroad (24%, 28% and 26% respectively), followed by those from Haiti, at 19%. Compared to the educational acquisition by emigrants currently abroad (Figure 5.6), return migrants tend to have acquired less education. The exception is migrants returning to the Dominican Republic, where about 25% of both existing and return migrants have obtained education abroad. While almost half the current emigrants from Haiti have acquired education abroad, only about one in five return migrants acquired education while they were abroad.

The results indicate that emigration and return migration can lead to skills transfers in origin countries, but that the full potential of these skills transfers are not realised as emigrants receiving education abroad are not returning to the same extent as migrants who did not acquire education.

Figure 5.7. **A large share of migrants return to the Dominican Republic, Morocco and Costa Rica with additional skills**

Share of return migrants who acquired education in the destination country (%)



Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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Remittances are often invested in education

To what extent does migration influence the education of children left behind in emigrant households? There are two main channels through which migration and remittances affect the education of children and young people: school enrolment and educational expenditures. Remittances can alleviate households' credit constraints and increase their investments in child and youth schooling (Cox Edwards and Ureta, 2003;

Hanson and Woodruff, 2003; Yang, 2008). On the other hand, the departure of a household member due to emigration may require the remaining children in the household to take on more housework, farm labour or to work outside the household, thereby forcing them to drop out of school. Parental migration may also result in a decline in children's psychological and emotional well-being (Save the Children, 2006), which in turn can negatively affect school attendance and performance (Cortés, 2007; Salah, 2008). However, some studies find no such negative impact (Gassmann et al., 2013).

The link between migration and educational attendance was analysed using regression analysis, controlling for individual and household characteristics (Table 5.3).⁴ The analysis shows relatively weak links between migration, remittances and school attendance, with no statistically significant effects found for most countries. However, in Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire there is a statistically significant relationship between remittances and youth school attendance rates, especially for boys. In Armenia, girls from emigrant households are less likely to go to school. These results may be explained by the fact that boys receive preference for schooling, while girls tend to be expected to do household chores.

Table 5.3. The links between migration, remittances and youth school attendance

Dependent variable: Youth school attendance
Main variables of interest: Individual belongs to a household having an emigrant and individual belongs to a household receiving remittances
Type of model: Probit
Sample: Youth 15-22 years old

| Sample: | Youth aged 15-22 | | Youth aged 18-22 | | Boys aged 15-22 | | Girls aged 15-22 | |
|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | Having an emigrant | Receiving remittances |
| Armenia | | | | | | | ↓ | |
| Burkina Faso | | | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | | |
| Cambodia | | | | | | | | |
| Côte d'Ivoire | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | ↑ | | |
| Dominican Republic | | | | | | | | |
| Georgia | | | | | | | | |
| Haiti | | | | | | | | |
| Morocco | | | | | | | | |
| Philippines | ↑ | ↓ | ↑ | ↓ | | | ↑ | |

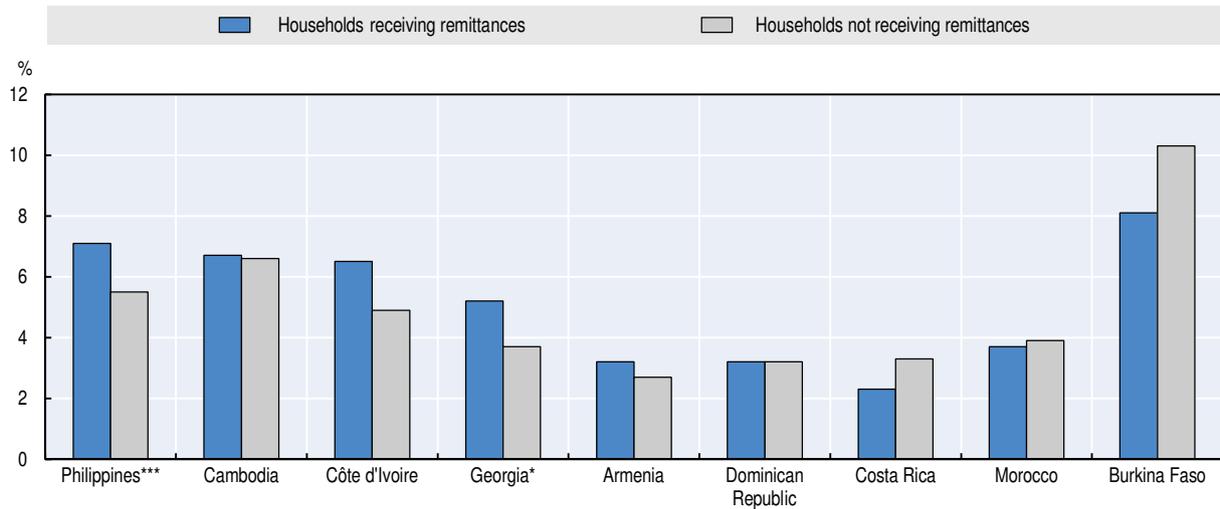
Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main independent variable of interest. The remittance variable covers all remittances, i.e. both from former household members and migrants who were never part of the household. The sample consists of people aged 15-22. No analysis was carried out for Costa Rica due to the small sample size for this age group.

Another way in which migration can affect child and youth education is through educational expenditures. Households receiving remittances may decide to invest more in their children's education, for example by buying text books and other materials, hiring private tutors, or moving children to better schools. The descriptive statistics show that the share of total household expenditures on education is higher among households receiving remittances in five out of nine countries: the Philippines, Cambodia, Georgia and Armenia (Figure 5.8). A statistical test reveals that the difference is only statistically significant in Georgia and the Philippines.

Descriptive statistics also show that households in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, the Philippines, Cambodia and Georgia on average devote a relatively higher share of their budget to educational expenditures than households in the other countries (Figure 5.8).

Figure 5.8. **Households receiving remittances spend more on education in five out of nine countries**

Share of household budget spent on education (%), by whether they receive remittances



Note: The sample only includes households with children of primary and secondary school age. Haiti is not included as the response rate was low for the expenditure questions. Statistical significance calculated using a t-test is indicated as follows: ***: 99%, **: 95%, *: 90%.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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Table 5.4 shows the results of a regression analysis of the relationship between remittances and total yearly educational expenditures and educational expenditures as a share of the total household budget.⁵ Remittances are measured as amounts the household has received from former household members in the past 12 months. The results show that remittances are positively linked to educational expenditures in Armenia, Cambodia, Côte d'Ivoire, Georgia and the Philippines. In Armenia, Côte d'Ivoire, Georgia and the Philippines remittances are positively linked both with total educational expenditures and the share of expenditures in the household budget. In Cambodia remittances were only linked positively to the share of household budget allocated to education. No statistically significant effects were found in Burkina Faso, the Dominican Republic or Morocco.

Table 5.4. **The links between remittances and educational expenditures**

| Dependent variables: Educational expenditures (absolute amounts and as share of total household budget) | | |
|---|---|---|
| Main variable of interest: Amount of remittances | | |
| Type of model: Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) | | |
| Sample: All households | | |
| Dependent variable: | Educational expenditures, share of household budget | Educational expenditures, absolute values |
| Armenia | ↑ | ↑ |
| Burkina Faso | | |
| Cambodia | ↑ | |
| Côte d'Ivoire | ↑ | ↑ |
| Dominican Republic | | |
| Georgia | ↑ | ↑ |
| Morocco | | |
| Philippines | ↑ | ↑ |

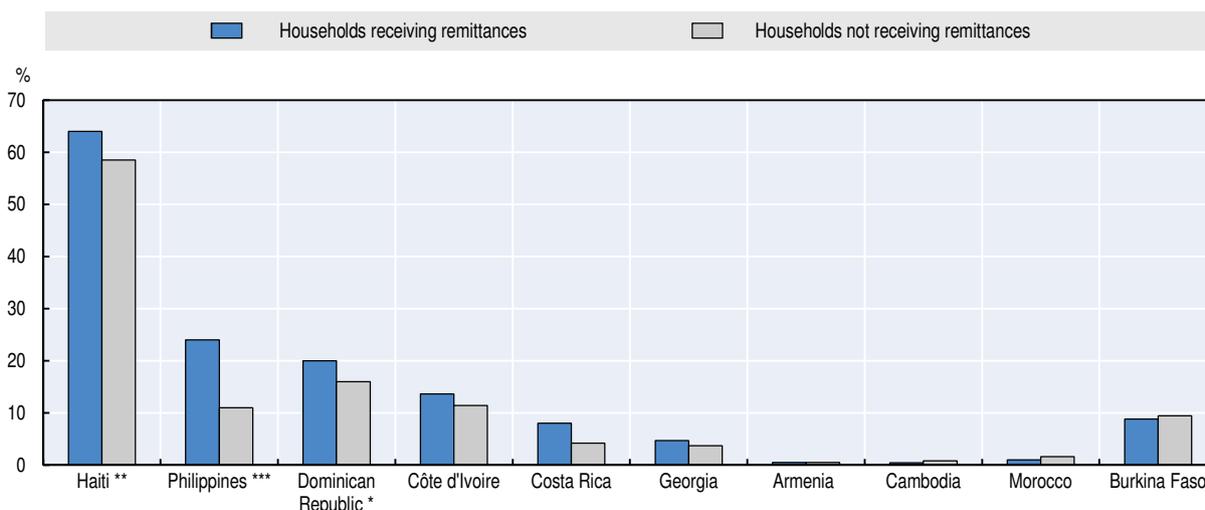
Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. The remittance variable covers all remittances, i.e. both from former household members and migrants who were never part of the household. No analysis was carried out for Costa Rica and Haiti due to the small sample size for this age group.

The fact that remittances are positively linked with educational expenditures in five of the eight countries investigated suggests that the links between migration and education go beyond school attendance. Households receiving remittances are more likely to spend the income on other educational expenditures. This finding is in line with several other studies (e.g. Chappell et al., 2010; Medina and Cardona, 2010).

One potential use of remittances is on private schools. For example, there is some evidence that children in remittance-receiving households in Latin America are more likely to attend private schools (Medina and Cardona, 2010; Jakob, 2015). The descriptive IPPMD statistics indicate that parts of the increase in education investments due to remittances may be directed towards private schools, which are often more costly but may offer higher quality education.⁶ According to the IPPMD data, in most countries, children in households that receive remittances are more likely to attend private schools. The share of children at private schools (both primary and secondary) varies significantly across the ten IPPMD countries (Figure 5.9), and is highest in Haiti, at 60%. The difference is statistically significant in the countries where private school attendance is the highest: the Dominican Republic, Haiti and the Philippines. The quality of private education is however not always guaranteed. In Haiti, the shortage of public institutions has led to the proliferation of private schools in response to demand, especially after the earthquake in 2010 where many of the public education institutions were destroyed. However, a majority of the private institutions in Haiti operate without a formal license, highlighting the need for standardisation to ensure quality. In the Philippines, public-private partnerships (PPPs) in the education sector have been used to address problems of overcrowded high-schools. A voucher scheme has been set up between the government and the private sector to ensure access to schooling for all.

Figure 5.9. **Share of children attending private schools is higher among children in remittance-receiving households**

Share of children attending private schools (%), by whether they receive remittances



Note: The sample only includes children between 6 and 17 years old. Statistical significance calculated using a chi-squared test is indicated as follows: ***: 99%, **: 95%, *: 90%.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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In sum, the increase in demand for education in general and private education in particular may put pressure on the educational infrastructure. Previous studies have shown that a better supply of educational infrastructure is crucial for the positive effects of remittances on child education to fully materialise (Benedictis et al., 2010). Hence, investments in educational infrastructure in areas with high emigration rates can enhance positive linkages between remittances and education investments.

Return migration has little impact on school attendance or educational investment

Return migrants may accumulate savings while abroad that can finance educational investments for their household members. They may also influence the education incentives of children and youth in their household in a positive or negative way, depending on the demand for low- or high-skilled labour in the countries of destination. Table 5.5 investigates these relationships further. The results show little link between return migration and youth education enrolment rates, and the effect is actually negative in Armenia and Cambodia. This is possibly linked to education incentives, at least in the case of Cambodia, where return migrants are low-skilled. Armenian return migrants are also fairly low-skilled, so return migrants may decrease the incentives to accumulate more education among those who plan to emigrate in the future. On the other hand, return migration is linked to higher educational expenditures in the Dominican Republic and the Philippines.

To sum up, the link between return migration and educational investments seems weaker than the links with current emigrants, remittances and educational investments explored in the previous section.

Table 5.5. The links between return migration, school attendance and educational expenditures

| Dependent variables: School attendance for youth and household educational expenditures (absolute amounts and as share of total household budget) | | | |
|--|-------------------|---|---|
| Main variable of interest: Household has a return migrant | | | |
| Type of model: Probit, OLS | | | |
| Sample: Youth aged 15- to 22 and all households | | | |
| Dependent variable: | School attendance | Educational expenditures, share of household budget | Educational expenditures, absolute values |
| Sample : | Youth aged 15-22 | All households | |
| Armenia | ↓ | | |
| Burkina Faso | | | |
| Cambodia | ↓ | ↓ | |
| Costa Rica | | n/a | n/a |
| Côte d'Ivoire | | | |
| Dominican Republic | n/a | | ↑ |
| Georgia | | | |
| Morocco | | | |
| Philippines | | | ↑ |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. The remittance variable covers all remittances, i.e. both from former household members and migrants who were never part of the household. Haiti is excluded from the analysis due to limited information about educational expenditures and a small sample of return migrants.

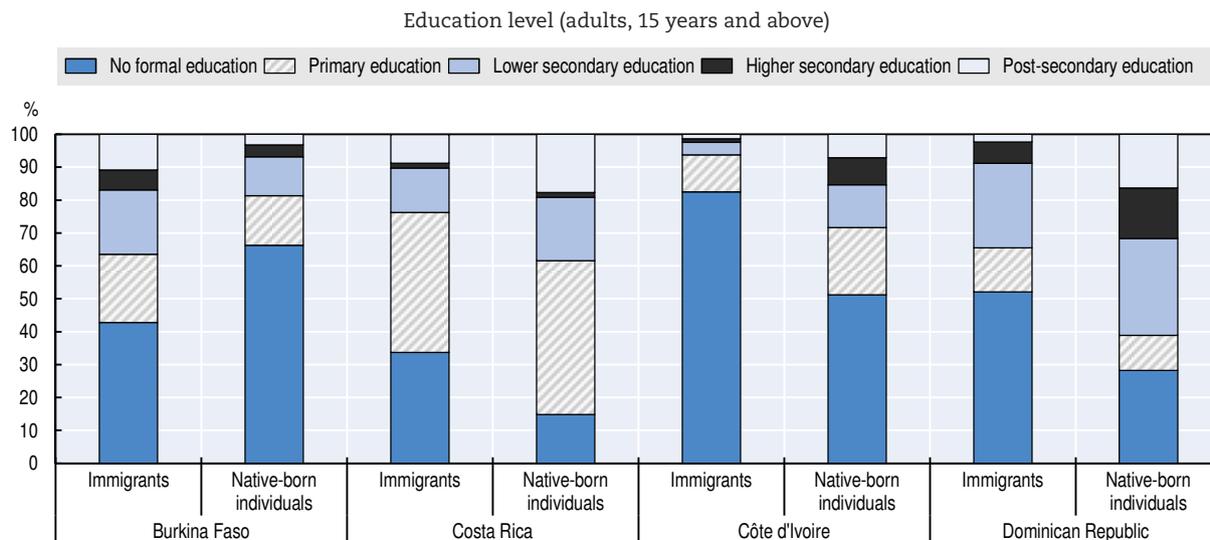
Educational levels matter in immigrants' decisions to return

The newly adopted Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) mark a common effort to ensure the well-being of current and future generations around the globe. SDG 4 seeks to achieve universal access to quality education and lifelong learning opportunities. Achieving this goal will require that migrants and their children are able to access education in the

country of destination. This applies to children who are immigrants themselves, as well as children of immigrant parents born in the host country. Access to education is also a key determinant of immigrant integration and an opportunity for future human capital accumulation for both immigrant origin and destination countries. The following section will look more closely into the links between immigration and education.

Figure 5.10 displays the differences in education levels between immigrants and the native-born population in the countries with a significant share of immigrant households in the sample: Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, the Dominican Republic and Costa Rica. In Burkina Faso, immigrants have a higher education level than native-born individuals. For example, 11% of the immigrants have a post-secondary education, compared to only 3% among native-born individuals. In the remaining three countries, immigrants have a lower education level overall than the native-born population. In the Dominican Republic, the share of individuals with post-secondary education is 16% among the native-born adult population and 2% among immigrants. In Costa Rica the share of immigrants with post-secondary education is 10%, compared to 19% of the native-born population. The share of immigrants with no formal education is also considerably higher than among native-born people in all three countries. This is not surprising as the large majority of the immigrants in the Dominican Republic and Costa Rica originates from less developed neighbouring countries (Haiti and Nicaragua respectively) where educational levels are lower.

Figure 5.10. **Immigrants tend to have a lower level of education than native-born individuals**



Note: The sample includes immigrant, return migrant and non-migrant adults 15 years old and above. The education codes follow the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) standardised system. No standardised ISCED codes exist for Costa Rica, hence the education codes are slightly adjusted.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933417949>

Many people migrate in order to acquire education. In the IPPMD sample, this is particularly true for immigrants in Burkina Faso, where almost 25% of the immigrants stated that they immigrated for education purposes. Education was not as strong of a driver in the other countries, where economic motives such as job prospects and wages were more common reasons (Chapter 8). In Costa Rica, about 5% of immigrants immigrated because of

the better education opportunities; for the Dominican Republic the share was 3%. Around 6% of the adult (15 years old and above) immigrants interviewed in Costa Rica and 2% of those in the Dominican Republic were enrolled in education at the time of the survey.

First and second generation immigrants are less likely to attend school

Another important link between immigration and education is access to education for immigrant children and children of immigrants. In Table 5.6, child and youth school attendance among immigrants and the native-born population is investigated in a regression framework.⁷ The results show that immigrants and children in immigrant households in Côte d'Ivoire and the Dominican Republic are less likely to attend school than native-born students. In Costa Rica, while there is no difference in educational enrolment between children living in immigrant households and those without immigrants, being born abroad is negatively associated with youth school attendance. School attendance seems to be lower among immigrant children and young people in the Dominican Republic, Costa Rica and Côte d'Ivoire, which may have consequences for their integration into their host country and their future employability. In Burkina Faso, no difference in school attendance between immigrant and native-born students were found.

Table 5.6. **The links between immigration and school attendance rates**

| Dependent variable: School attendance | | | |
|---|---|---|----------------------------|
| Main variables of interest: Individual is an immigrant and individual lives in a household with immigrants | | | |
| Type of model: Probit | | | |
| Sample: Children and youth (6-17) | | | |
| Sample: | Children aged 6-14) | Youth aged 15-17 | Youth aged 15-17 |
| Variable of interest: | Individual lives in a household with immigrants | Individual lives in a household with immigrants | Individual is an immigrant |
| Burkina Faso | | | |
| Costa Rica | | | ↓ |
| Dominican Republic | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |
| Côte d'Ivoire | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. The first two columns analyse the link between school attendance and children (aged 6-14) and youth (aged 15-17) living in households with immigrants (regardless of whether the child was born abroad or not); the third column analyses first generation youth (aged 15-17) immigrants, i.e. youth that were born abroad.

How do education policies affect migration?

Education policies can affect migration patterns in various ways. Generally, educational policies that aim at non-discriminatory treatment, retention and mandatory years in the system can improve human capital and help nationals find alternatives to emigration. However, when other sectors such as the labour market do not improve in tandem, an increase in human capital can spur migration, as the divergence in wages between countries grows wider with higher levels of education and as workers become more employable in other countries.

Adults may also decide to emigrate if educational conditions are not up to standard for their children in the home country. If there are not enough schools locally, families may decide to migrate with or send their children to school in other parts of the country or abroad. Thus, education policies aiming at improving the education system may increase the incentives to return to the country of origin, especially for migrants with children of school age.

More specific education policies and programmes can decrease the incentives to leave if the motivation for emigration was to finance their children's education. Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) which pay households to send their children to school can either encourage

or deter migration. On the one hand, a government transfer to support child schooling can reduce the pressure to emigrate if remittances and cash transfers are viewed as substitutes by households with potential migrant members. The conditionality of the programme, that requires members of the household to be physically present to obtain the transfer, also induces a cost on migration which may deter flows (Stecklov et al., 2005). On the other hand, receiving a cash transfer can relax credit constraints and encourage migration if remittances and cash transfers are complements and the transfer is used as a means to finance migration.⁸ CCTs may also increase emigration if the transfer received is not large enough to satisfy the financial needs of the household, the programme leads to human capital accumulation that increases the returns to migration or if the conditionality of the programme does not apply to all members of the household (Hagen-Zanker and Himmelstine, 2013). Finally, CCT programmes may affect the level of remittances received by the household as households may be less dependent on remittances for educational investments when they receive public government support which lowers the incentives for the remittance senders.

The IPPMD household surveys conducted in the ten partner countries included questions about a variety of education programmes.⁹ These can roughly be divided into three categories (Box 5.1):

- **In-kind distribution programmes**, such as the distribution of school textbooks, uniforms and free school meals. These are the most common types of programmes, implemented in all ten countries.

Box 5.1. Education policies and programmes covered in the IPPMD survey

The household and community surveys distributed in the ten IPPMD countries identified a large set of existing educational programmes. The questionnaires were tailored to each country's context, with the aim of capturing the most widespread and relevant programmes currently in place. Both national and locally implemented policies and programmes were taken into account. The survey considered both programmes funded and implemented by national and local authorities, international organisations and NGOs. Figure 5.11 displays the various programmes included in the household questionnaires, by type of programme. Some of the programmes were unique to one or a few of the countries in the project, while others exist in more or less all countries. Apart from the education policies mentioned here, questions on vocational training programmes were also included in the survey and are analysed in the labour market chapter (Chapter 3). Annex 5.A1 provides an overview of the specific programmes included in the household survey.

Figure 5.11. Education policies explored in the household surveys

| In-kind distribution programmes | Cash-based programmes | Other types of programmes |
|---|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of school textbooks • Distribution of uniforms • Distribution of school supplies • School meal programmes • Distribution of computers • Take home rations¹ | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scholarship for primary education • Scholarship for secondary education • Scholarship for tertiary education • Conditional cash programmes • Education service contracting² | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literacy campaigns • Boarding schools • Home-based education programmes • School transport programmes • Support programme for young parents • Language classes • School fee subsidies • Medical check-up |

Notes: 1. Take home rations consist of monthly food rations of rice given to children from poor families when they attend school in Cambodia.

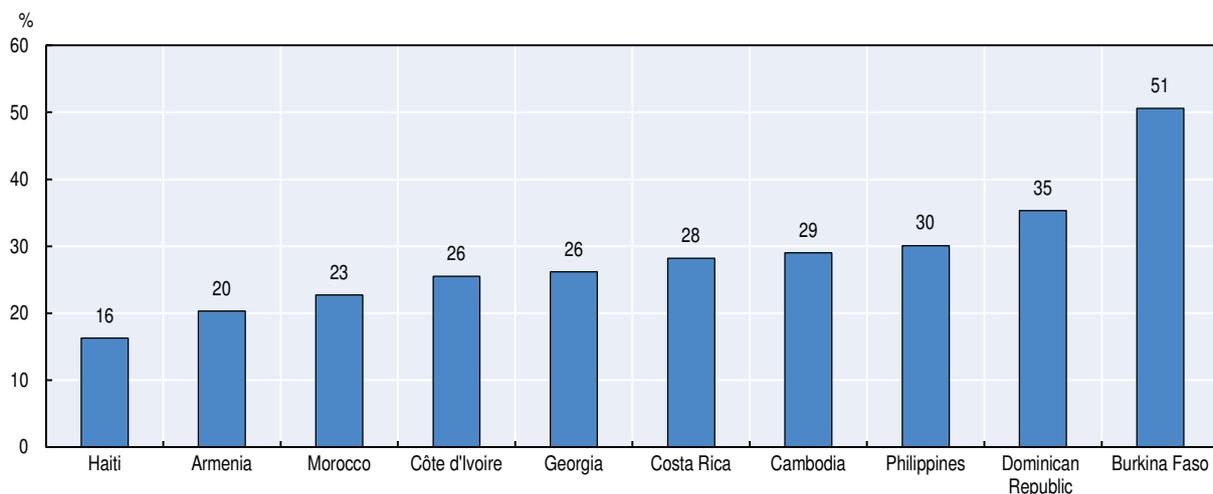
2. Educational service contracting is a programme in the Philippines providing grants to households to finance private schooling (when public schools are overcrowded).

- **Cash-based programmes**, such as conditional cash transfer (CCT) programmes and educational scholarships. Seven of the countries have implemented CCT programmes, but the participation rate was very low among the surveyed households in some of these countries. Scholarship programmes were identified in all countries but Georgia.
- **Other types of educational support programmes**, such as school transport programmes, literacy programmes and support programmes to allow young parents to stay in school. Some of these programmes are very country specific and exist in only a few countries, while literacy campaigns and boarding schools are more common.

Figure 5.12 displays the share of households benefiting from any of the education policies included in the IPPMD household survey (Box 5.1). In most countries this share is around 25%, ranging from a low of 16% in Haiti to a high of 51% in Burkina Faso.

Figure 5.12. **The share of education policy beneficiaries varies across countries**

Share of households who benefitted from education policies in the past five years (%)



Note: Benefiting from an education programme means that the household has benefitted from any of the education programmes included in the survey in the past five years, excluding literacy programmes.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933417959>

Most education programmes do not seem to affect migration and remittance decisions

As discussed above, the link between education programmes and migration is not immediately clear. The policies outlined above may reduce the need to emigrate by improving access to education, or by reducing credit constraints they may actually finance the emigration of a household member, thereby increasing emigration flows. To analyse these patterns, the link between migration, remittances and any of the types of education policy programmes listed in Box 5.1 is investigated. The results show very limited associations between households benefiting from an education programme and migration and remittance patterns for most countries (Table 5.7).¹⁰ In the Philippines, there seems to be a correlation between benefiting from an educational programme and having a household member planning to emigrate in the future. In Cambodia, households that are beneficiaries of any education policy programme are more likely to receive remittances and also receive more remittances in actual fact.

Table 5.7. **The links between education programmes, migration and remittances**

| Dependent variable: | Household has an emigrant (past 5 years) | Household has a member planning to emigrate | Household receives remittances | Amount of remittances |
|---------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Armenia | | | | |
| Burkina Faso | | ↓ | | |
| Cambodia | | | | ↑ |
| Côte d'Ivoire | | ↓ | | |
| Dominican Republic | | | | |
| Georgia | | | | |
| Haiti | | | ↑ | |
| Morocco | ↑ | ↓ | | |
| Philippines | | ↑ | | |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. The variable of interest indicates if the household has benefited from any of the education programmes (specified in Box 5.1) in the past five years prior to the survey. Costa Rica not included in the analysis due to small sample size.

The migration impact of cash-based educational programmes is mixed

Although the results above indicate only a weak link between the full set of education programmes and emigration and remittance decisions, the link to migration decisions may depend on the nature of the programme and the households and individuals it is targeting. This section therefore looks at the three categories of education programmes separately.

The literature finds mixed results regarding the link between CCTs and migration outflows. Some studies of the Mexican conditional cash transfer programme *Oportunidades*,¹¹ for example, found that it increased international emigration (Angelucci, 2004; Angelucci, 2012; Azuara, 2009), while other studies found that it decreased it (Behrman et al., 2008; Rodriguez-Oreggia and Freije, 2012; Stecklov et al., 2005). Studies of other CCT programmes in Latin America also diverge in their assessment of the impact on migration. One study found no effect of CCTs on migration flows in Honduras, while in Nicaragua CCTs increased emigration by male household members, who were not constrained by any of the conditions of the programme (Winters et al., 2005).

What do the IPPMD data tell us about the subject? All IPPMD countries in Latin America and Africa, along with the Philippines, have both types of cash-based programmes (scholarships and CCT programmes) (Annex 1). Cash-based education programmes are much more limited in the two Caucasus countries: Georgia and Armenia. Seven countries have some form of CCT programme: Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Morocco and the Philippines. However, the number of households receiving conditional cash transfers is very low in Burkina Faso (only six households in the sample benefited) and in Morocco (42 households). These countries were therefore not included in the analysis.

The Filipino Conditional Cash Transfer Programme (*Pantawid ng Pamilyang Pilipino Program* or 4Ps) is the largest social protection programme implemented by the government, and targets extremely poor families with children under 18 years old.¹² The programme provides monthly cash assistance of PHP 500 (about USD 10) to help families with health and nutrition expenses and PHP 300 per child (for up to three children) for educational expenses. The cash assistance is conditional upon mothers seeking pre-natal and/or post-natal care and

children attending school. In Costa Rica, the CCT programme *Avancemos* was introduced in 2006 to encourage young people in secondary school from poor backgrounds to stay in formal schooling. The monthly cash transfer amounts to between USD 26 and USD 87 per child depending on the school grade. The CCT programme *Solidaridad* in the Dominican Republic provides cash transfers to poor households to invest in education, health and nutrition. Households receive about USD 75 per month if they comply with the following conditions: school enrolment and attendance by all children in the household and regular health check-ups for children under five.

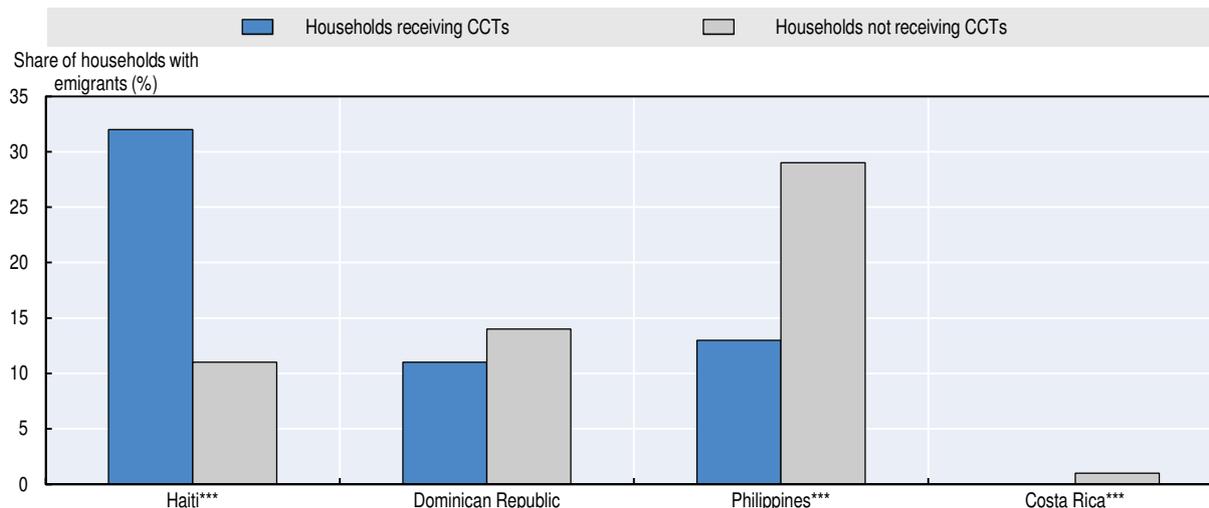
Haiti does currently not have a large-scale cash transfer programme. Instead various decentralised cash transfer programmes run by either the government or NGOs and international organisations have been initiated, especially since the earthquake. The *Ti Manman Cheri* (TMC) government-led programme was initiated in 2012 with funds from the Venezuela's PetroCaribe fund.¹³ The Government of Haiti directly controlled and disbursed the funds. The programme aimed to complement and strengthen the universal access to education programme, *Lekol Timoun Yo*, by providing a small monthly cash transfer to mothers with children in grades one through six. The contribution was conditional on the children's continued enrolment in school.

The IPPMD survey collected information on households benefiting from education programmes in the past five years prior to the survey, and information about the emigration of former household members. As the survey did not specify in which year the household benefited from a programme, this information is not enough to determine whether someone left the household to emigrate abroad after the household benefited from a policy. However, it is possible to restrict the sample to households that benefited from the policy and had members emigrating at around the same time. The analysis shows that in the Dominican Republic and the Philippines, households that benefited from conditional cash programmes are less likely to have an emigrant (Figure 5.13). In Haiti on the other hand, households receiving cash transfers are more likely to have an emigrant. In Costa Rica, none of the households receiving conditional cash transfers had an emigrant (although the sample of emigrant households was limited, at 29 households).

The relationships between receiving conditional cash transfers and migration and remittance patterns were also investigated in a regression framework, presented in Table 5.8.¹⁴ The results show that in Costa Rica and the Philippines, households that received conditional cash transfers are less likely to have emigrant members or members planning to emigrate. In Haiti, receiving conditional cash transfers seems to be positively associated with members emigrating abroad. A possible explanation for these results is that the programmes in Haiti are less binding. Many programmes in Haiti seem to have handed out the cash transfers without any conditions, which remove some of the barriers and induced costs to migration. The programmes in Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic and the Philippines are, in contrast, national government programmes with a clear conditionality component (the households receive transfers provided that their children enrol in school and attend regular health check-ups). Furthermore, receiving CCTs is linked to a lower probability to receive remittances in the Dominican Republic and the Philippines, but a higher probability in Haiti. This may be linked to emigration decisions. The link to amounts of remittances received could only be tested in two countries due to limited sample size. No link between receiving CCTs and the amount of remittances received was found.

Figure 5.13. **Conditional cash transfers for education may reduce emigration in the Dominican Republic and the Philippines**

Share of households with emigrants who left in past five years (%), by whether they receive conditional cash transfers



Note: The figure shows the share of households with emigrants who left in the five past years prior to the survey. No households with emigrants received CCTs in Costa Rica. The sample only includes households with children in school age (6-20 years old). Statistical significance calculated using a chi-squared test is indicated as follows: ***: 99%, **: 95%, *: 90%.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

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Table 5.8. **The links between conditional cash transfer programmes, migration and remittances**

Dependent variable: Household has an emigrant (who left in the past five years), household receives remittances and amount of remittances
Main variable of interest: Household benefited from CCT programme
Type of model: Probit, Tobit
Sample: Households with children (robustness checks with all households)

| Dependent variable: | Household has an emigrant | Household receives remittances | Amounts of remittances |
|---------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| Costa Rica | ↑ ₁ | | n/a |
| Dominican Republic | | ↓ | n/a |
| Haiti | ↑ | ↑ | |
| Philippines | ↓ | ↓ | |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. 1. Given the limited sample size of emigrants who left within the five years prior to the survey in Costa Rica, the dependent variable in the analysis for Costa Rica is having a member planning to emigrate in the future.

Information about scholarship programmes was collected in all of the countries studied except Georgia. Scholarships are offered for different levels of education: from primary school to tertiary education. The sample of households benefiting from the scholarship programmes, however, is too small to allow for disaggregated analyses of each type of scholarship. Scholarship programmes for all levels of education have therefore been merged for the analysis presented in Table 5.9.¹⁵ The results show that households with children that received a scholarship in the past five years have a higher probability of receiving remittances in Burkina Faso and Costa Rica. In most countries, however, no link was found between receiving a scholarship and having a migrant or receiving remittances.

Table 5.9. **The links between scholarship programmes, migration and remittances**

| Dependent variable: | Household has an emigrant (past 5 years) | Household has a member planning to emigrate | Household receives remittances | Amount of remittances |
|---------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Burkina Faso | ↑ | | ↑ | n/a |
| Costa Rica | | | ↑ | n/a |
| Côte d'Ivoire | | | | |
| Dominican Republic | | | | n/a |
| Cambodia | | | | |
| Haiti | | | | |
| Morocco | | ↓ | ↓ | n/a |
| Philippines | ↓ | ↑ | | |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. The variable of interest indicates if the household has benefited from any scholarship programme in the five years prior to the survey. Given the limited sample size of emigrants who left within the five years prior to the survey in Costa Rica, the dependent variable in the analysis for Costa Rica is having a member planning to emigrate in the future.

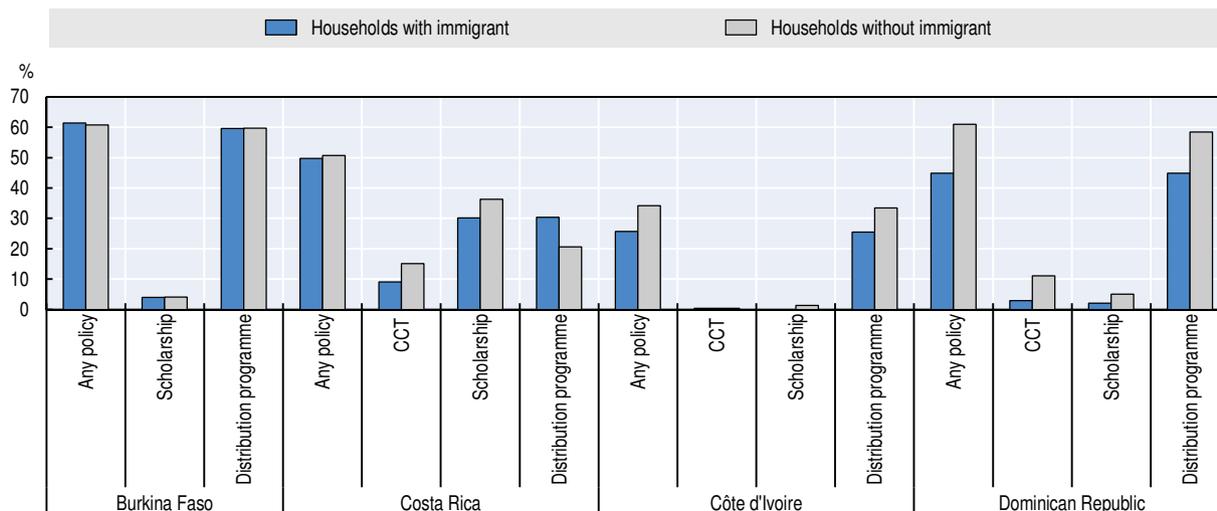
Households with immigrants could benefit more from education programmes

The quality and provision of education may both spur and deter migration. Adults may decide to emigrate if educational conditions, for themselves or for their children, are more favourable abroad. Educational policies addressing access and quality of education thus have the potential to influence migration decisions and integration processes.

Having access to education is of the utmost importance for the integration of first and second generation immigrants and for human capital accumulation in host countries. Access to the type of educational programmes described in this chapter may play an important role in improving school enrolment rates for the population in general, and for immigrant households in particular, who often constitute a vulnerable part of the population. IPPMD data from the three main immigrant countries – Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire and the Dominican Republic – show that although immigrant households do benefit from education programmes, it is not always to the same extent as households without immigrants (Figure 5.13). In Costa Rica households with immigrants are more likely to benefit from distribution programmes than native-born households but less likely to benefit from scholarship or CCT programmes. In the Dominican Republic, households without immigrants have better access to all types of programmes.

Apart from contributing to more education investments and better integration, education programmes may also affect immigrants' intentions to return to their countries of origin. For example, scholarships that enable young people to be educated in the host country may allow them to become better integrated in the labour market later in life, thereby decreasing their incentives to return. The correlation between education policies and immigrants' intentions to return is investigated in Table 5.10.¹⁶ The results show that immigrants in Costa Rica who benefited from scholarship programmes are significantly less likely to state that they intend to return to their countries of origin compared to immigrants that did not receive scholarship programmes.

Figure 5.14. **Households with immigrants have less access to education programmes**
Share of households benefiting from education policy programmes (%), by whether they have an immigrant



Note: For Burkina Faso, CCTs are not included due to low participation rate.

Source: Authors' own work based on IPPMD data.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933417976>

Table 5.10. **Education policies and immigrants' intentions to return**

| Variable of interest: | CCT programmes | Scholarship programmes | Distribution programme |
|---------------------------|----------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Costa Rica | | ↓ | ↑ |
| Côte d'Ivoire | n/a | n/a | |
| Dominican Republic | n/a | n/a | |

Note: The arrows indicate a statistically significant positive or negative relation between the dependent variable and the main variable of interest. Few immigrants benefited from scholarship programmes in Côte d'Ivoire and the Dominican Republic, so the analysis is restricted to Costa Rica. Burkina Faso is not included in the analysis due to small sample planning to return to country of origin (11 individuals).

Policy recommendations

Universal access to quality education plays a key role in sustainable development, poverty reduction and other development outcomes in both developing and developed economies. Migration has the potential to contribute to current and future human capital formation and sustainable development through its close links to education investments. With supportive policies in place, migration can strengthen the positive synergies between education and development.

Firstly, education is shown to be an important determinant of the decision to emigrate. Higher education increases the propensity to plan to emigrate in the future in most countries. The departure of well-educated individuals is partly compensated for by emigrants obtaining education abroad and returning with new skills. However, the results indicate that the potential of these highly skilled migrants will not be fully realised as not all of them will

decide to return. Policies to attract back current migrants, especially the highly skilled, can contribute to enhancing the positive links between migration and human capital. Such policies can include measures to facilitate the recognition of qualifications acquired abroad, and offering refresher trainings for professionals working abroad. A broader monitoring and mapping system of the education background and specialisation of current emigrants could help better forecast future human capital supply and potential skills shortages due to emigration.

The research also found that remittances lead to increased investments in child and youth education. Remittances are linked to higher educational expenditures in a majority of the countries analysed. Remittance-receiving households are more likely to have children in private schools than households that do not receive remittances. An increase in the demand for educational services from remittance-receiving households requires investments in the supply of education services in order to meet the potential excess demand. One potential way to address increasing demand for schooling is public-private partnerships (PPPs) in the education sector. PPPs can help expand education provision and increase efficiency and choice to ensure education access for all and improve education outcomes. An increase in the demand for private schools in particular implies that quality of schooling is a key aspect in the link between migration and education. This also calls for measures to assure the quality of both private and public school services.

Access to education in the countries of destination plays an important role in the integration of immigrants. The results show that immigrant children are less likely to attend school than native-born children despite having a legal right to attend school. This effect is more prevalent for first generation immigrants and highlights an important shortcoming. Access to education may also influence the length of immigrants' stay in the host country. Implementing targeted policy programmes, such as cash transfers and scholarships for vulnerable groups, including immigrants, can remove barriers to education. Immigrant flows may also affect the access and quality of education available to native-born students, as an increased demand for school services may lead to overcrowded schools and a decrease in education quality. This may in turn affect social cohesion in communities with a large share of immigrants. Investments in educational infrastructure in areas with a high immigration incidence can ensure quality of schooling and avoid negative impacts on social cohesion.

Furthermore, the results indicate that cash-based programmes can play a role in emigration and remittance decisions. Conditional cash transfer programmes seem to discourage emigration when conditions are binding but encourage emigration when conditions are less clear. CCTs are also linked to the probability of receiving remittances. Conditionality hence becomes an important aspect in the design of CCT programmes to ensure that the transfer is used for the intended purpose. CCTs also seem to lead to changes in the probability of receiving remittances, and could lead to a reduction in remittances in countries where CCTs are binding. In order to anticipate and monitor the full welfare impact of CCT programmes it is thus important to also take changes in remittance income into account when designing and evaluating CCT programmes.

Table 5.11. **Enhancing migration-led development by facilitating investment in education**

| Policy recommendations | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Emigration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Map the education and training levels of emigrants to better forecast future human capital supply and potential skills shortages. ● Enforce conditionality measures in cash-transfer programmes to reduce the use of transfers to finance emigration and to ensure that the programme objectives are fulfilled. |
| Remittances | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Invest in educational infrastructure and trained teachers to meet the demand for education services from remittance inflows, while ensuring that remittance-driven demand does not affect universal access to education. ● Enforce and ensure quality in educational institutions when faced with higher demand for private schools due to remittances. ● Collect migration and remittance information in conditional cash transfer programme data to monitor remittance income changes over time and better understand the full impact of the programme. |
| Return migration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Facilitate and improve the recognition of qualifications acquired abroad to help return migrants validate their skills. ● Offer training and refresher courses to potential return migrants, especially those with an education diploma, to facilitate their reintegration into the labour market in the country of origin. |
| Immigration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide equal access to education in general, and to immigrant students in particular, for example by implementing targeted policy programmes, such as cash transfers and scholarships for vulnerable groups, including immigrants. ● Invest in educational infrastructure in areas with increased education demand from immigration to ensure universal access, good quality schooling and social integration and cohesion. |

Notes

1. Studies of the impact of educational expenditures on school outcomes from developed and developing countries have reached mixed conclusions, partly due to challenges when it comes to data and estimation strategies, but likely also because of the complexity of the relationship (Leclercq, 2005).
2. Additional channels through which emigration could affect education have also been identified in the literature. For example, remittances and diaspora investments can also improve the educational infrastructure in the country of origin and foster human capital investments beyond migrant families. These potential effects will however not be analysed in this chapter due to data limitations.
3. The control variables included in the regression were the following: age, gender and employment status (unemployed or not), household size, number of members with tertiary education, mean education level of adults in the household, urban/rural location, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).
4. The control variables included in the regression were the following: age and gender of child/youth, household size, dependency ratio (share of children and elderly to working age population in the household), urban/rural location, number of children in the household, male-to-female ratio, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).
5. The control variables included in the regression were the following: household size, dependency ratio (share of children and elderly to working age population in the household), urban/rural location, mean education level in the household, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).
6. No regression analysis was carried out due to the limited sample size.
7. The control variables included in the regression were the following: age and gender of child/youth, household size, dependency ratio (share of children and elderly to working age population in the household), urban/rural location, number of children in the household, male-to-female ratio, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).
8. Cash-based educational support is given out to finance child and youth education and may hence not directly finance migration. But because money is interchangeable, the funds could free up resources in the household budget that enables the household to send an emigrant.
9. Apart from the questions on education programmes in the household surveys, information about the availability of education programmes in the survey locations was also collected through the community survey.

10. The control variables included in the regression were the following: household size, dependency ratio (share of children and elderly to working age population in the household), urban/rural location, mean education level in the household, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).
11. *Oportunidades* is the principal anti-poverty programme of the Mexican government and the first programme of this kind to be introduced (originally the programme was named *Progresa* but the name was changed in 2002). *Oportunidades* provides cash transfers to households with children conditional on regular school attendance, along with health measures such as visits to health clinics and nutritional supplements intake.
12. The coverage of families with children up to 18 years old applies from 2013. When the programme started in 2007, the coverage was for families with children aged 14 and below.
13. The programme does no longer exist, but was still included in the questionnaire as it asks about programmes that household benefited from in the past five years.
14. See endnote 10.
15. See endnote 10.
16. The control variables included in the regression were the following: age, gender, education level and employment status (unemployed or not), household size, number of children, dependency ratio (share of children and elderly to working age population in the household), urban/rural location, region in which the household is located, and household wealth (measured by an asset index).

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ANNEX 5.A1

List of educational programmes included in the IPPMD household survey, by country

| | Armenia | Burkina Faso | Cambodia | Côte d'Ivoire | Costa Rica | Dominican Republic | Georgia | Haiti | Morocco | Philippines |
|---|---------|--------------|----------|---------------|------------|--------------------|---------|-------|---------|-------------|
| Literacy campaigns | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Scholarship for primary education | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| Scholarship for secondary education | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| Scholarship for tertiary education | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| Scholarship for technical vocational training | | | | | | √ | | | | |
| School meal programmes | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| Take home ration ¹ | | | √ | | | | | | | |
| Conditional-Cash Transfers | | √ | | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| Distribution of school textbooks | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Distribution of school uniform | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Boarding school | √ | √ | √ | √ | | √ | √ | √ | √ | |
| Inclusive and home-based education | √ | | √ | | | | √ | | √ | |
| Distribution of school supplies | √ | | | | | | √ | | | √ |
| Education service contracting ² | | | | | | | | | | √ |
| School transport programme | √ | | | | √ | | | | √ | |
| Support programme for young mothers and fathers | | | | | √ | | | | | |
| Distribution of computers | √ | | | | | | √ | | √ | |
| Language or other catch-up classes | √ | | | | | | | | | |
| Medical checkups | | | | | | | | | √ | |
| School fee subsidies | | | | | | | | | √ | |

1. Monthly food rations of rice given children from poor families when attending school.

2. Government provided funds to enable students to enrol in private schools.



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