GCRF
Global Challenges Research Fund

SUEUAA

Thematic Paper Series TPS102/19

The Role of Higher Education for Displaced and Marginalized Peoples – The SUEUAA project

Nematollah Azizi, Katarzyna Borkowska, Muir Houston, Kamal Ketuly, Sizar Abid Mohammad, Mpoki Mwaikokesya, Joanne Neary, Charles Nherera, Michael Osborne, Zenaida Reyes and Elena Swanepoel

An introduction to the thematic paper series and the SUEUAA project

Muir Houston[1]; Mike Osborne[1]

[1]University of Glasgow, Scotland

The collection of papers in this series of Thematic Papers published by the SUEUAA (Strengthening the Urban Engagement of Universities in Africa and Asia) team focus on topics of relevance to project partners and the city regions and institutions they represent. Papers in this series cover: Migration, Gender, Sustainable Energy, the Environment, the Economy and Policy Rhetoric. Each paper is co-authored by a member of the University of Glasgow SUEUAA team, and at least two other partner Institutions from cities in the Global South. The following cities are represented in SUEUAA: Sanandaj, Islamic Republic of Iran; Duhok, Iraq; Manilla, Philippines; Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania; Johannesburg, South Africa; and, Harare, Zimbabwe.

The SUEUAA project was funded by the British Academy under the Cities and Infrastructures Programme part of the UK Government's £1.5 billion Global Challenges Research Fund 'to support cutting-edge research that addresses the challenges faced by developing countries through:

- challenge-led disciplinary and interdisciplinary research

- strengthening capacity for research and innovation within both the UK and developing countries

- providing an agile response to emergencies where there is an urgent research need'[i]

The SUEUAA project addresses a core problem in emerging economies of strengthening the urban engagement role of universities, and ways they contribute to developing sustainable cities in the context of the major social, cultural, environmental and economic challenges facing the global south. It uses a set of well-proven benchmarking tools as its principal method, and seeks to strengthen the capacity of universities to contribute to city resilience towards natural and human-made disasters. Examples of urban engagement include supporting the development of physical infrastructure, ecological sustainability, and social inclusion (including of migrants). It calls upon contributions from science and engineering, the arts, environmental sciences, social sciences and business studies. It assesses the extent to which universities in 6 countries (Iran, Iraq, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) respond to demands of society, and how through dialogue with city stakeholders this can be enhanced and impact on policy; it uses a collaborative team from the UK and emerging economies.[ii]

---

[i] https://www.britac.ac.uk/global-challenges-research-fund-resilient-cities-infrastructure
[ii] http://sueuaa.org/

The Role of Higher Education for Displaced and Marginalized Peoples – The SUEUAA project

Nematollah Azizi,[1] Katarzyna Borkowska,[2] Muir Houston,[2] Kamal Ketuly,[3] Sizar Mohammad,[3] Mpoki Mwaikokesya,[4] Joanne Neary,[2] Charles Nherera,[5] Michael Osborne,[2] Zenaida Reyes[6] and Elana Swanepoel[7]

Abstract

This thematic paper is a contribution to our understanding of ways in which universities within the Global South can and do engage with the challenge of internal and external migration. Migration is one of the most significant global challenges. According to the United Nations *International Migration Report* (2017), the number of international migrants worldwide has increased significantly from 173 million in 2000 to 258 million in 2017. In 2017, over 78 million international migrants lived in Europe, 80 million lived in Asia, and 25 million lived in Africa. Despite these patterns of migration, a Western-centric perspective dominates the literature and research with the focus being on Global South to Global North migration (i.e. migration to Europe or North America) or exclusively migration within the Global North. Less is known about Global South-Global South migration.

[1]University of Kurdistan, Iran; [2]University of Glasgow, UK; [3]University of Duhok, Iraq; [4]University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; [5] University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe; [6]Philippine Normal University, Philippines; [7]University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction

This thematic paper is a contribution to our understanding of ways in which universities within the Global South can and do engage with the challenge of internal and external migration. Migration is one of the most significant global challenges. According to the United Nations *International Migration Report* (2017), the number of international migrants worldwide has increased significantly from 173 million in 2000 to 258 million in 2017. In 2017, over 78 million international migrants lived in Europe, 80 million lived in Asia, and 25 million lived in Africa. Despite these patterns of migration, a Western-centric perspective dominates the literature and research with the focus being on Global South to Global North migration (i.e. migration to Europe or North America) or exclusively the migration within the Global North. Less is known about Global South-Global South migration.

Material presented within this paper forms part of the work of a project entitled, *Strengthening Urban Engagement of Universities in Asia and Africa (SUEUAA)*, funded by the British Academy under the Cities and Infrastructure programme of the UK's Global Challenges Research Fund (GCRF), which considers the role of universities in six countries with lower than average GDP.

The research described is a development of the PASCAL Universities Regional Engagement (PURE) project, (2008-2013), funded by 17 city and regional governments in four continents (Duke, Osborne and Wilson 2013). This mapped the regional development role of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) using *inter alia* benchmarking tools in line with methods originally developed by Charles and Benneworth (2001). It drew on theories of Mode 2 knowledge production (Gibbons *et al.* 2004) in its consideration of how universities can help to address regional and city challenges. PURE focused on challenges that were inter-disciplinary in nature, and often were based upon principles of knowledge co-construction with communities (Wenger 1998). We were concerned in PURE with the 'engaged university' where teaching and research are explicitly used for the benefit of local communities (Bjarnason and Coldstream 2003; Watson *et al*. 2011), and the implications for society of such work (Novotny, Scott and Gibbons 2001).

In this previous work, our analysis of engagement was informed by Charles and Benneworth's (2001) eight-fold categorisation:

- ➢ Embedding engagement in institutional practice
- ➢ Developing Human Capital
- ➢ Developing Business Processes and Innovation
- ➢ Developing Regional Learning Processes and Social Capital
- ➢ Community Development Processes
- ➢ Cultural Development
- ➢ Promoting Sustainability
- ➢ Enhancing regional infrastructure

PURE explored the wider impact of HEIs on issues such as infrastructure planning, strategic planning of HE, and in one case (Melbourne, Australia) influenced aspects of a White Paper. While these discussions enabled a rich understanding of the role of HEIs in the "learning city" model, the majority of case study regions (with exception of Gaborone in Botswana and the country of Lesotho), were in the Global North. This is in keeping with much of the work that has been undertaken in the field of universities and their engagement with communities (see Mohram *et al.* 2009; Inman and Schuetze, 2011).

2. Strengthening Urban Engagement of Universities in Asia and Africa

By contrast, in SUEUAA we seek to address this disparity of knowledge between Global North and South HEIs. The project considers the range of contributions and engagement activities of HEI systems exclusively within Global South contexts. Using adapted forms of the proven benchmarking tools of Charles and Benneworth (2001) illustrated above, we explore the urban engagement role of universities in contributing to city resilience towards natural and human-made disasters. In doing so, we document the ways they contribute to developing sustainable cities in the context of the major social, cultural, environmental and economic challenges facing the Global South.

It calls upon contributions from science and engineering, the arts, environmental sciences, social sciences and business studies. It assesses the extent to which universities in six countries (Iran, Iraq, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) respond to demands of society, and how through dialogue with city stakeholders this can be enhanced and impact on policy; it uses a collaborative team from the UK and emerging economies.[1] The following cities are represented in SUEUAA: Sanandaj, Islamic Republic of Iran; Duhok, Iraq; Manilla, Philippines; Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania; Johannesburg, South Africa; and, Harare, Zimbabwe.

Whilst a range of domains of engagement are tackled in the project in this paper, we limit our reporting to the issue of migration.

The overall programme within which SUEUAA is located, the GCRF, is influenced by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the UN-led process involving its 193 Member States that replaced the Millennium Development Goals which ended in 2015. The SDGs are referred to as the Post-2015 Development Agenda, or the "2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development". There are 17 goals in total, with 169 targets related to these goals. These goals cover a broad range of socio-economic development issues, including issues of poverty, hunger, health, education, climate change, gender equality, water sanitation, energy, social justice, environment, and urbanisation. They cover the entire life-course, are gender sensitive, and are applicable both to the Global North and South. Our focus is SDG 11 (sustainable cities and communities), and when discussing this goal, the UN states that:

---

[1] http://sueuaa.org/

> *"The challenges cities face can be overcome in ways that allow them to continue to thrive and grow while improving resource use and reducing pollution and poverty. The future we want includes cities of opportunities for all, with access to basic services, energy, housing, transportation and more"*

This is in keeping with the main remit of SUEUAA, exploring the challenges of cities in the Global South and highlighting the ways in which Universities can play a role in supporting change and sustainable development.

GCRF is a UK government initiative, which forms part of its overseas aid commitment has been initiated in order 'to support cutting-edge research that addresses the challenges faced by developing countries through:

- challenge-led disciplinary and interdisciplinary research
- strengthening capacity for research and innovation within both the UK and developing countries
- providing an agile response to emergencies where there is an urgent research need'[2]

All the UK's research councils and many of its learning societies are involved in GCRF, which to date has been allocated some £1.5bn of funding. The SUEUAA project is one of 17 funded under one of these learned societies' contribution, that of the British Academy's, Cities and Infrastructure programme.

3. Migration

The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines migration as a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes. Migration as a term encompasses movement of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification. A 'migrant' is therefore defined as a person who is moving either across an international border or within a State away from their habitual place of residence. This is regardless of legal status, whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary, what the causes of movement are, and what the length of stay is.

The UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) perhaps the main supranational organisation in the field has highlighted several 'populations of concern'. These include refugees, asylum-seekers, internally displaced people (or IDPs), returned refugees, returned IDPs, stateless persons, and others of concern. Globally there are over 258 million migrants living outside of their country of birth, of which 68.5 million are forcibly displaced migrants that includes 40 million internally displaced people; 25.4 million refugees (over half of whom are under 18); and, 3.1 million asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2018).

Table one below provides brief details of the UNHCR classification of these 'populations of concern':

---

[2] https://www.britac.ac.uk/global-challenges-research-fund-resilient-cities-infrastructure

Refugees	Individuals recognised under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees; its 1967 Protocol; the 1969 OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa; those recognised in accordance with the UNHCR Statute; individuals granted complementary forms of protection; or those enjoying temporary protection. Since 2007, the refugee population also includes people in a refugee-like situation.
Asylum-seekers	Individuals who have sought international protection and whose claims for refugee status have not yet been determined, irrespective of when they may have been lodged.
IDPs (Internally Displaced Persons)	People or groups of individuals who have been forced to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights, or natural or man-made disasters, and who have not crossed an international border. For the purposes of UNHCR's statistics, this population only includes conflict-generated IDPs to whom the Office extends protection and/or assistance. Since 2007, the IDP population also includes people in an IDP-like situation. For global IDP estimates, see www.internal-displacement.org.
Returned refugees	Former refugees who have returned to their country of origin spontaneously or in an organised fashion but are yet to be fully integrated. Such return would normally only take place in conditions of safety and dignity.
Returned IDPs	Those IDPs who were beneficiaries of UNHCR's protection and assistance activities and who returned to their areas of origin or habitual residence during the year.
Stateless persons	Persons who are not considered as nationals by any State under the operation of its law. In other words, they do not possess the nationality of any State. UNHCR statistics refer to persons who fall under the agency's statelessness mandate because they are stateless according to this international definition, but data from some countries may also include persons with undetermined nationality.
Others of concern	Individuals who do not necessarily fall directly into any of the groups above, but to whom UNHCR extends its protection and/or assistance services, based on humanitarian or other special grounds.

Table 1: Populations of Concern (Source: UNHCR, 2018)

Migration takes several forms with internal migration given significantly less attention than international migration (in part, as there are logistic difficulties in evaluating the scale of this

type of population movement especially in developing countries). For example, in 2017 there were 258m international migrants, compared with 763m internal migrants (World Economic Forum, WEF, 2017). Countries with the highest numbers of internal migrants (including internally displaced people) contain the most conflict-affected regions of Western and Eastern Asia, and those also most affected by environmental disasters.

Much of overall population growth related to migration is absorbed by cities. It is estimated that the number of people living in cities will almost double to some 6.4 billion by 2050 (International Organisation for Migration (IOM), 2015), and much of that is because of migration from rural areas. Consequently, migration places significant demands on city infrastructure and their ability to provide public services such as education, employment, adequate housing, electricity, water and food supply. These issues are associated with various forms of inequality faced by migrants and raise challenges related to economic inclusion and social cohesion.

Consequently, the impact of migration has to be recognised and analysed not only from a Western perspective where conflicts and disasters are less prevalent, but also from the perspective of the Global South where many migrants, particularly those from populations of concern, inhabit the overcrowded metropoles of Asia, Africa and Latin America.

In looking for solutions to the increased levels of uncertainty and austerity faced by migrants (and other disadvantaged groups), a growing number of HEIs throughout the world position themselves as key local stakeholders (along with the local government, industries and civil society) in supporting economic and ecological sustainability, equity and social inclusion, and health and well-being. While research and teaching are commonly identified as main missions of higher education (Duke, Osborne and Wilson, 2013), this concept of regional engagement (also referred to as the '3rd mission' of higher education) (Trache, Schuetze and Osborne, 2008) can play a significant role in improving quality of life and providing more opportunities for local communities including migrants.

The SUEUAA project, and more specifically its migration strand, aims to enhance the capacity of universities in our six case-study cities to optimise their current engagement practices and to identify the potential for enhancing the integration of migrants within the context of developing sustainable cities.

The next section of this paper will focus on providing an overall picture of (a) international migration; (b) internal migration (from rural to urban areas); (c) reasons for migration and (d) challenges of migration. These will be discussed in reference to the six SUEUAA study locations: Tanzania (Least Developed), Zimbabwe (Low Income Country), Philippines (Lower Middle Income) and South Africa, Iraq and Iran (Upper Middle income).

4. Drivers of migration

Theoretical discussions surrounding migration often focus on the migration from Global South to Global North, and conceptualise the drivers of migration as purely economic, through the lens of movement from a low to high income country. However, migrants from

the South are as likely to migrate to other countries of the Global South as those of the Global North (Ratha and Shaw, 2007). As discussed by Nawyn (2016), if we solely focus on the economic drivers of migration to the Global North, we ignore both the wider motivations of migration, but also the drivers of South-South migration. By ignoring the latter, we risk a partial picture of migration, and a simplification of reasoning behind drivers of migration. Given the high rates of South-South migration (Abel and Sander, 2014), this is a key area that requires attention. For example, Ponce (2014) suggests that in terms of South-South migration, economic penetration is not a significant driver of movement, but rather cultural similarity and geographic proximity are seen as important.

In the context of this paper, migration is understood as a response to a wide range of factors and circumstances, which have an impact on the decision to move (this perspective is rooted in the Everett Lee's model of push/pull factors). In Lee's (1966) model, migration was understood to fall under four areas: environmental, economic, cultural, and socio-political. These areas could be seen as being 'push' factors (those factors forcing individuals to move as they would be at risk were they to stay), and 'pull' factors (those factors that attract individuals to move as they are likely to have better conditions than if they stayed). Examples of push factors include conflict, drought, famine and war; whereas pull factors include better economic opportunities, better housing, peaceful area.

For the purposes of this paper, we focus on three factors: livelihood migration, conflict migration, and environmental migration. We acknowledge that these three factors alone are inadequate to explain patterns and dynamics of all migration, as they do not account for motivations or wider socio-political structures within which individuals make decisions. We also acknowledge the interaction between these three factors, and the impact these may have on a person's decision making. However, in saying this, we believe that these three factors enable an exploration of some of the variation present in our study cities.

4.1 Drivers of migration: livelihood

Livelihood as a driver of migration can be seen as a response to the unevenness of the development process. In this context population movements are triggered by the search for economic opportunities. It can also be viewed as a common livelihood strategy used by the working age population, challenging the Global North assumption that sedentary patterns in society are the norm. In much of Africa and South Asia, livelihood migration is the norm, with a long history in many countries (Siddiqui, 2005; McDowell and de Haan, 1997). Specifically, in Sub-Saharan Africa, Potts (2010) suggests that contrary to the dominant theory of uni-linear movement from rural to urban contexts, much of the internal migration in Zimbabwe and contingent states for economic reasons is seen to be circular with flows of people from the rural homelands to urban centres and back again and that this circular migration has been increasing. Despite centuries of livelihood migration, policies of commercialisation, liberalisation, agricultural reforms and industrialisation have increased demands of population movement.

4.2 Drivers of migration: conflict

The dominant paradigm in conflict migration suggests that migration occurs when threats to security rise beyond the acceptable level (Raleigh, 2011). The UNHCR (2012) comment:

> *While wars today seem to kill fewer people than past conflicts, greater numbers of civilians appear to be exposed and vulnerable to violence, especially where the state offers little protection for citizens. In these situations, citizens may further suffer the impacts of government dysfunction, loss of livelihoods, shortages of basic necessities, as well as natural disasters and demographic pressures—all of which contribute to their insecurity, displacement and vulnerability*

Conflict migration is shaped by political insecurity and state fragility, with conflict causing economic underdevelopment and state militarisation. There has been a significant increase in forcibly displaced people in recent years with an increase from 40m in 2011 to 68.5m in 2017 (World Bank, 2017). As noted above, the numbers that were forcibly displaced (as a result of persecution, conflict, violence or human rights violation) in 2017 includes 25.4 million refugees, 40.0 million internally displaced people (of which 16.2 million were newly displaced in 2017), and 3.1 million asylum-seekers (UNHCR, 2018). Van Hear, Bakewell and Long (2017) discuss the influencing factors of having pre-existing labour networks or cultural familiarity with migration as a livelihood strategy, or the environmental stressors of drought and famine as further influencing emigration from one country in time of conflict to another (or to another area of the same country).

4.3 Drivers of migration: environment

The adverse effects of global warming and climate change are most felt among developing countries and may lead to environmental migration. In some areas of sub-Saharan Africa, and Asia, we can see the role of climate change in further developing patterns of urbanisation (Barrios, Bertinelli and Strobel, 2006). This is particularly significant when looking at change in rainfall, or extreme weather conditions, as they affect agricultural production (Bohra-Misha *et al.,* 2016). It is believed that significantly larger numbers of people will be displaced by climate change, due to the increased scarcity of resources. While most of the displacement caused by these events is internal, they can also cause people to cross borders. None of the existing international and regional refugee law instruments, however, specifically addresses the plight of such people. Exploring the slow-onset effects of climate change also highlight issues of drought, desertification, rising sea levels can also lend itself to a better understanding of displacement of populations.

While some believe this will cause an increase in hostility, recent literature has highlighted that the picture of migration is much more complex, and to assume a simple direct relationship between migration, environmental change, and conflict is incorrect (Brzoska and Frohlich, 2015). However, what can be seen is that conflict is often compounded by drought and other major weather events which exacerbate issues of food production and livelihoods (IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute), 2018).

5. International and internal migration trends

Migration is a complex process, which triggers significant structural transformations in developing countries. First, we look at overall trends in migration in the six participating countries in SUEUAA:
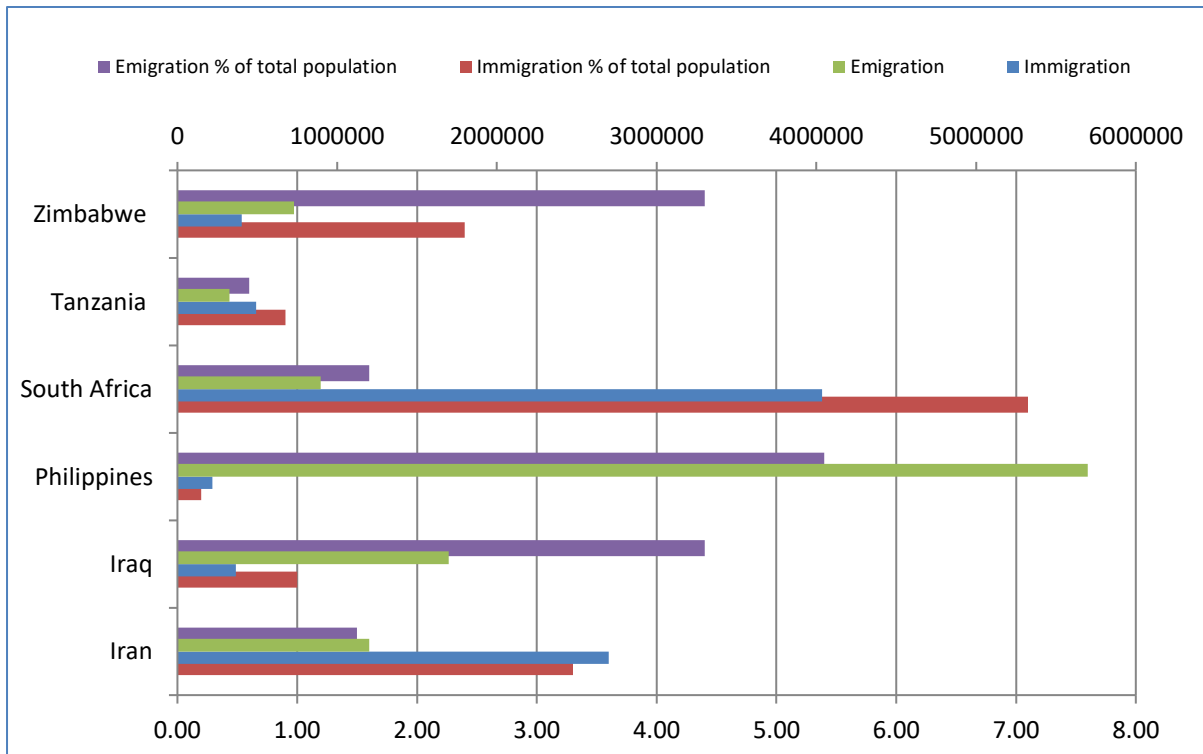

Figure 1: International migration and emigration: % = Bottom axis; N = Top axis (Source: UNHCR, 2017a and Migration Data Portal, 2018)

As can be seen in Figure 1, migration patterns vary substantially across the analysed countries, both in absolute and relative terms. South Africa with just over 4 million and Iran with 2.7 million hosted the largest number of international migrants in 2017. For reasons associated with geopolitics, demography and economic opportunities, these two countries amongst those in our study are the primary destinations for migrants. However, it has to be highlighted that migration for many is not a choice, but is forced with no viable alternatives available. Iran, for example, remains one of the largest refugee hosting countries with over 3m refugees mostly from Afghanistan and Iraq (UNHCR, 2017b)[3]. In terms of the other countries studied, we see higher rates of emigration rather than immigration. For example, since 2000, Zimbabwe has experienced a relatively large outward migration triggered not only by the severe economic crisis, and a decline in formal economic activity but also by political instability especially surrounding presidential and parliamentary elections with the majority (around 400,000 or 80% of the total) moving to South Africa in this period.[4] In Iraq, civil war triggered high rates of emigration (over 1.4 million in 2015) but armed conflict in Syria (the neighbouring country) resulted in Iraq accepting over 231,000 Syrian refugees in 2016 (UNHCR, 2017c). Looking at the Philippines, seen as the second largest exporter of human labour in the world (Castro-Palaganas *et al.,* 2017), we see relatively high levels of

---

[3] Figure 2 captures IOM's global statistics that classify refugees and migrants under the same category.

[4] http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/persons_of_concern

emigration with low levels of immigration but as will be seen relatively high levels of internally displaced people. It is also seen as relatively advanced in relation to migration management policy particularly in relation to overseas remittances which in 2014 were valued at around £3.7 billion.[5]

The UNHCR Population Statistics provides a longitudinal database dating back to the 1950s. This not only classifies people in relation to the various 'populations of concern' identified above, but also records the origin of the incoming populations. This allows one to track flows of migrants across time and place to not only get some idea of who is moving where but also to suggest possible links between some of the most significant movements of people and crisis events including western interventions, religious and regional conflicts, environmental disasters, and the aftermath of the 2008 financial crisis.

Examining the UNHCR data for Iran, we can see the impact in the late 1990s and early 2000s of the Afghan civil war and takeover by the Taliban resulting in over 1 million Afghani refugees in Iran with the majority still there in 2017. The second most common origin of refugees to Iran were from neighbouring Iraq and peaked around the turn of the 21st century with just over 0.5 million refugees although this fell dramatically after the fall of Saddam Hussein in 2003.

In Iraq, according to UNHCR data, the largest contingent of refugees from the late 1990s until the fall of Saddam were the Palestinians reaching a peak of 100,000 in 2002. However, a hostile climate after the Second Gulf war and regime change meant a reduction to just over 20,000 (Wengert and Alfaro, 2006). The aftermath of the western military intervention and regime change resulted in 1.2 million IDPs in 2005 rising to 2.3 million by 2007 and peaking at 4.4 million in 2015. The data also shows the impact of the Syrian conflict with numbers increasing from less than 2,000 refugees and asylum seeker in 2011 to a peak of just under 0.25 million in 2017. Iraq also hosted a large number of people identified as 'Stateless' whose numbers peaked at 230,000 in 2009 and fell to just under 50,00 by 2017. In total, according to the UNHCR data there were 4.5 million people of concern in Iraq in 2017.

In relation to the Philippines, data illustrate that, in general, refugees and asylum seekers were recorded in very low numbers in comparison with the data for some of our other partners.[6] However, the range of country of origin is relatively diverse and while small numbers might be expected regionally and from other Asian countries there are a relatively large number of African and Middle-East countries of origin although as noted numbers were small. The largest population of concern were IDPs as a result of internal tensions including violence and conflict and natural disasters. According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) disasters including earthquakes, floods and typhoons displace millions of people across the Philippines each year with over 2.5 million new displacements as a result of disaster in 2017; and, partly as a result of decades multiple internal armed conflicts just under 0.45 million existing IDPs and 0.65 million 'new' displacements (IDMC, 2018).

---

[5] https://psa.gov.ph/content/statistical-tables-overseas-contract-workers-ocw-2014

[6] Generally numbers were in the low double figures

South Africa, as already noted, is host to a relatively large international migrant population and it draws people not only as might be expected from neighbouring states but from across Africa, Asia, the Middle-East and India and small numbers from a number of European countries. It may be that the strength of the South African economy and its regional dominance is one driver for immigration from the Global North and from the Global South. However, in relation to populations of concern as identified by the UNHCR, as suggested above drivers are often internal and regional conflicts, civil war, famine and environmental disasters. Among the origins of largest proportion on refugees and asylum seekers noted in the 2017 Mid-Year Estimates, there were around 9,000 from Burundi; around 14,000 from the Congo; nearly 60,000 from the Democratic Republic of the Congo; 65,000 from Ethiopia; 30,000 from Somalia; and, around 24,000 from Zimbabwe down from a peak of 62,000 in 2015.

Tanzania has been also subject to increasing flows of migrants as a result of conflicts both regionally and on its borders although in general numbers are very low. In 2017 the two main sources or origins of people of concern were from Burundi with a total of just under 450,000 asylum seekers, refugees and others of concern; and, from the Democratic Republic of the Congo with a total of over 82,000 asylum seekers, refugees and persons of concern although this was down from a peak of over 150,000 in 2003.

The UNHCR data for Zimbabwe suggests that while there are small flows from regional neighbours and also from Africa more generally numbers are in the low double or treble figures with only a few exceptions. As with Tanzania and South Africa the impact of conflict is apparent with the Democrat Republic of the Congo featuring as having relatively high flows of people of concern with a total of just under 9,000 recorded in 2017 and Mozambique with a similar number of asylum seekers entering Zimbabwe. There have been improvements in internally displaced people with this category no longer recorded after a peak of over 60,000 in 2013. Also worthy of note was the relatively high number of stateless people recorded in 2015 at over 300,000 but who no longer feature in the data for subsequent years.

The consequences of migration can be extensive for host countries. Destination countries face multiple challenges related to heavy financial burdens, inadequate migration management policies, rising xenophobia, and high prevalence of communicable diseases (such as tuberculosis, HIV and AIDS), poor infrastructure, sanitation and housing conditions.

5.1 Rural to urban migration

As we reported earlier, internal migration is far more significant globally than international migration, with urbanisation a driver of movement. Kofman and Raghuram (2012) suggest that in areas of Africa, Asia and Latin America, rural-urban migration accounts for 40% of urban growth. One challenge facing researchers is the relative lack of data on rural-urban migration (Adepoju, 2018), particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, with poor recording of internal migration in panel surveys and different conceptualisations of what is meant by 'urban' in different countries, particularly in areas where urban areas have expanded to include previously rural areas (de Brauw, Mueller and Lee, 2014).
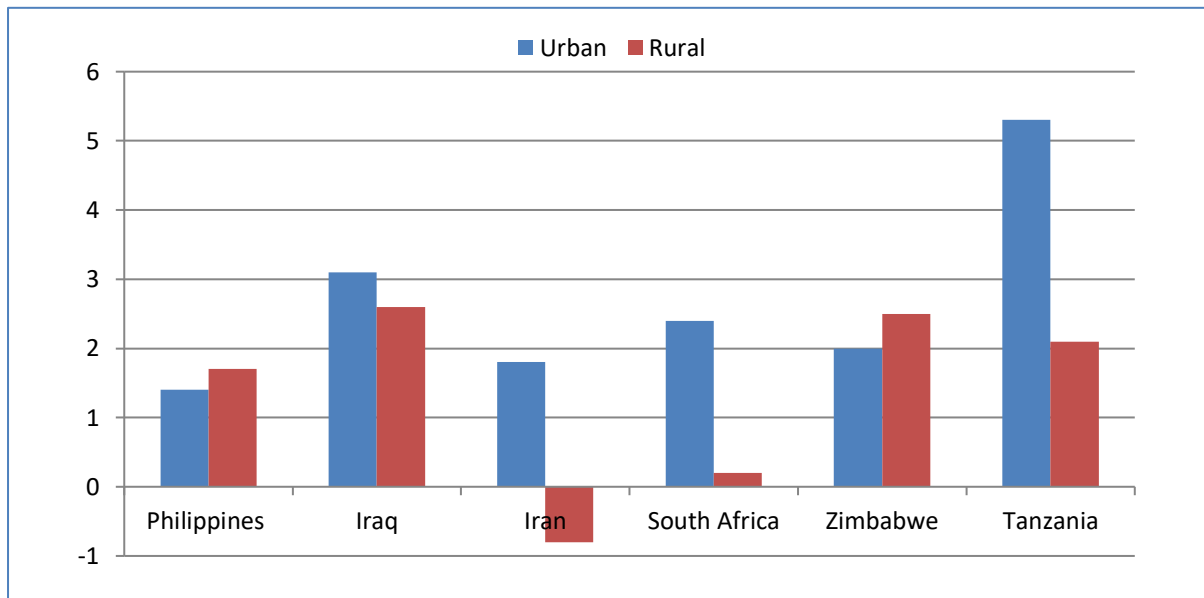
Figure 2: Rural and urban population growth (%) (Source: The World Bank Data on urban and rural population growth (2016)7

In four of the countries, there is a higher urban population growth than that in rural areas. This is most notable in Iran where rural population growth is declining, and in South Africa and Tanzania where the urban growth rate is relatively high in relation to that in rural area, and in relation to other countries. While rural to urban migration is an inherent part of the economic development process (de Brauw, Mueller and Lee, 2014), as labour migrates from agriculture to manufacturing and service sectors, we acknowledge workers may also be driven by issues of climate change, better employment opportunities, or lifestyle factors. These workers may also support the economy in rural areas through remittance payments, although to what extent this can be evidenced is unclear (de Brauw, Mueller and Lee, 2014; Clemens *et al.,* 2014). In the Philippines and Zimbabwe, rural growth rates buck global trends and are higher than in urban areas. In Zimbabwe, this may partly be caused by the land resettlement programme which may drive urban dwellers to return to rural areas with promise of land.

6. Exploring drivers of migration in the six cities

6.1 Livelihood

The lure of the informal economy can be a major driver of internal rural to urban migration and the informal sector is a major contributor to people's livelihood in Harare, Dar es Salaam and Johannesburg. By its very nature the scale of the informal economy can be hard to define and measure however, according to a report by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Women in Informal Employment: Globalising and Organising (WIEGO) for all reporting countries in Sub-Saharan Africa informal employment accounts for a significant

---

7 Derived from World Bank staff estimates based on the United Nations Population Division's World Urbanization Prospects: 2018 Revision at http://data.worldbank.org

percentage of total non-agricultural employment. According to the latest data available for each country, the scale of the informal economy was 32.7% in South Africa, 51.6% in Zimbabwe and 76.2% in Tanzania. (ILO/WIEGO, 2013). Migration and the economy interact in a number of ways and while as we note a desire to improve economic circumstances can be a pull factor for internal migration from rural to urban centres, it can ultimately also be a cause of increasing levels of unemployment or economic inactivity and thus as in the case of Zimbabwe becomes a push factor particularly in relation to cross border migration to South Africa as noted below. However, migration can also have a negative effect on an urban economy in terms of the demands that it can place on public services and infrastructure and the city of Duhok which has a significant number of refugees is an example of where the sheer scale of the influx has had a severe impact on the economy of the city.

In terms of livelihood as a driver for migration, it is also important to acknowledge the significance of remittance payments. While there is no consensus on the definition of remittance, two significant remittance payments are financial transfers and consumer goods. These are paid by individuals who have travelled from their community of origin for employment to support family back home. These payments are often seen as helping to support more developing economies. For cities such as Manila, the remittance payments from migrants who work overseas is a significant part of their local economy. This is also the case in Zimbabwe. A study by Maphosa (2007) highlighted that for Zimbabwean migrants working in South Africa, a significant proportion of their income is sent to their community of origin, which has the effect of becoming an important source of income in these areas. This was confirmed in a later study by Crush *et al.* (2017) who suggested that over a third of respondents to a survey send monthly remittances and only 12% never remitted funds. In addition, there was a gender imbalance in terms of economic migrants as the majority of informal entrepreneurs operating in South Africa were male, while females dominated the informal cross border trading sector. However, the scale of economic migration from Zimbabwe (and other countries) to South Africa has resulted in tensions between migrants and the host population with an increase in xenophobia and violence against both people and businesses and enterprises operated by Zimbabweans (*Ibid.*).

6.2 Conflict

As stated above, the dominant paradigm in conflict migration is that it occurs when threats to security rise beyond the acceptable level. In our study, Iraq presents perhaps the most extreme example. In Iraq, there are many overt political push factors including war crimes, violation of international humanitarian law and human rights abuses (Amnesty International, Iraq, 2018). Since December 2013, conflict between the Iraqi Security Forces and Islamic State Armed Groups (IS) has resulted in considerable population displacement. Military operations to retake IS-held territory in the Mosul corridor that started in June 2016 caused further violence and persecution of civilians. IOM in Iraq (2017) has identified that over 3 million Iraqis have been internally displaced, sheltering in informal settlements, with local communities or in Internally Displaced Person (IDP) camps. As two groups of Muslims Shia (the government) and Sunni (IS forces[8]) fight to gain control over the country, civilians

---

[8] It has to be pointed out that Sunni Muslims around the world condemn actions and violence of IS soldiers.

(including non-Muslim religious groups such as Yazidis who has been persecuted by the IS) are trapped in conflict and violence. Personal economic status might influence the spatial choices made to escape direct violence. Those with fewer assets (land, property, savings), education, skills and experience move a shorter distance to the next safe place, and are often unable to migrate (Van Hear, 2004). Until now, in Iraq less than 1.5 million civilians have returned to their places of origin (IOM in Iraq). Similarly, in Philippines, the Battle of Marawi a five-month-long armed conflict (23 May-23 October 2017) between Philippine government security forces and militants affiliated with the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISLI) resulted in half a million people being internally displaced (UNHCR, 2017a). Tanzania and Zimbabwe ha**ve** also experienced conflict migration, with the refugees from the Democratic Republic of Congo (50,3000; 5,900 respectively).

6.3 Environment

In the Philippines, extreme weather events such as flooding, earthquakes and typhoons have a number of health consequences (e.g. water contamination poses serious threats to health from cholera, typhoid and dengue) and challenge food security (e.g. crop failure and the reduction of agricultural productivity). Similarly in each of the African countries under study, droughts and desertification force people to look for new land and water sources. Water scarcity and food insecurity in rural areas push people to move to urban centres.

As recently as in 2017 Philippines experienced two tropical storms (Pakhar and Jolina), three typhoons (Hato, Doksuri and Nesat), four earthquakes (Leyte, Sarangani, Batangas, Surigao) and floods (Visayas and Mindano). In November 2017 an earthquake of 7.3 magnitude hit the border region of Iran and Iraq. At the beginning of 2017 Zimbabwe was affected by floods, which were followed by a severe drought. In 2016 Tanzania experienced significant flooding and an earthquake of 5.9 magnitude. In May 2017 South Africa's Western Cape province declared formally that it was experiencing drought.

7. The role of the university in supporting cities affected by migration

With all types of migration discussed above, there are issues in terms of health requirements, housing, education and employment. This is not an exclusive list the focus for the illustrations we provide from our cases. We argue that these are issues that universities in the Global South could assist with, and ensure that there are sustainable solutions in place for the migrant populations. The interventions that the universities within our study are making can be conceptualised with the idea of the Third Mission of Universities, and we highlight practices currently being undertaken by universities in the six cities which fall under this framing.

In the most general terms, the Third Mission of Universities focuses on activities outside of the traditional remits of teaching and research, and focuses on how University contributions to wider society (Zomer and Benneworth, 2011). However, what the 'third' arm of University activities is has been debated and adapted over time. While, arguably, Universities have long histories in contributing to society, in recent times this has taken on new meaning. Initially,

Third Mission activities were discussed as being connected to the entrepreneurial University (Saunders, 2010), with economic drivers such as commercialisation, patents, and licensing in partnership with private companies at the core. Critics suggest that this focus on boosting the economic face of Universities favours physical and hard sciences as they are better able to engage with industry and generate income through intellectual property transfer (Trencher *et al*., 2014).

For the purpose of this paper, we focus on the Third Mission literature which focuses on the social justice agenda, and the links to sustainable development. While some suggest that these activities are outside of the remit of Third Mission, others suggest it is a welcome evolution of the term. Universities with a social justice focus are seen as having the potential to become leaders in the social and economic transformation of the 21st century (Douglass, King, and Feller, 2009). In this area, Universities are key actors in discussions of sustainability across social, economic, environmental, and political spheres, offering expertise to central and local governments. The ability of Universities to work in interdisciplinary ways, link to communities, and generate income may enable more effective remedies for the embedded and wicked challenges facing cities today (Trencher *et al.,* 2014).

7.1 Health interventions

In a number of cities within our study we can observe community outreach activities that focus on health issues. In Iraq, for example, Duhok City Health authorities in collaboration with the University of Duhok's colleges of Medicine, Pharmacy, and Dentistry provide health services for IDPs and refuges. Moreover, in partnership with German humanitarian agencies, a group of University of Duhok undergraduate psychology students work regularly in IDPs and refugee camps to provide psychological rehabilitation and support. In Dar es Salaam the Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences (MUHAS) is Tanzania's main health research university. It is also the main university hospital in the country. One of its specialisms is the treatment and research of non-communicable diseases such as malaria. While malaria is not simply an issue for migrant populations, the access to healthcare and treatment is often more difficult in migrant populations. The MUHAS has been involved in developing a national testing strategy and identified ways to diagnose malaria faster than has been possible previously. It has also been involved in projects relating to HIV/AIDs epidemic in Dar es Salaam and other regions of Tanzania.

Challenges to health and well-being are exacerbated by environmental disasters, particularly in the case of the extreme weather events in the Philippines. As a result of this, the Philippine National University has organized extension programmes to increase environmental awareness to promote and develop resilience to natural disasters. This is of particular importance to those communities living in informal settlements who may be at greatest risk of harm during extreme weather events such as typhoons or flooding.

7.2 Housing interventions

One of the consequences of the high rate of urban migration and population growth is the rise of unplanned settlements (slums). Cities struggle to find resources and expertise to adequately accommodate existing citizens and newly arriving people. Similarly, as a result of

conflict-migration, internally displaced people are forced to live in informal settlements or makeshift camps within municipalities that struggle to support them. Providing adequate shelter and living environments for a growing number of people is a crucial issue. Of course, crowding people in housing with poor sanitation, drainage and water supplies can lead to many health risks as are outlined in the thematic paper by Burnside *et. al.,* (2019).
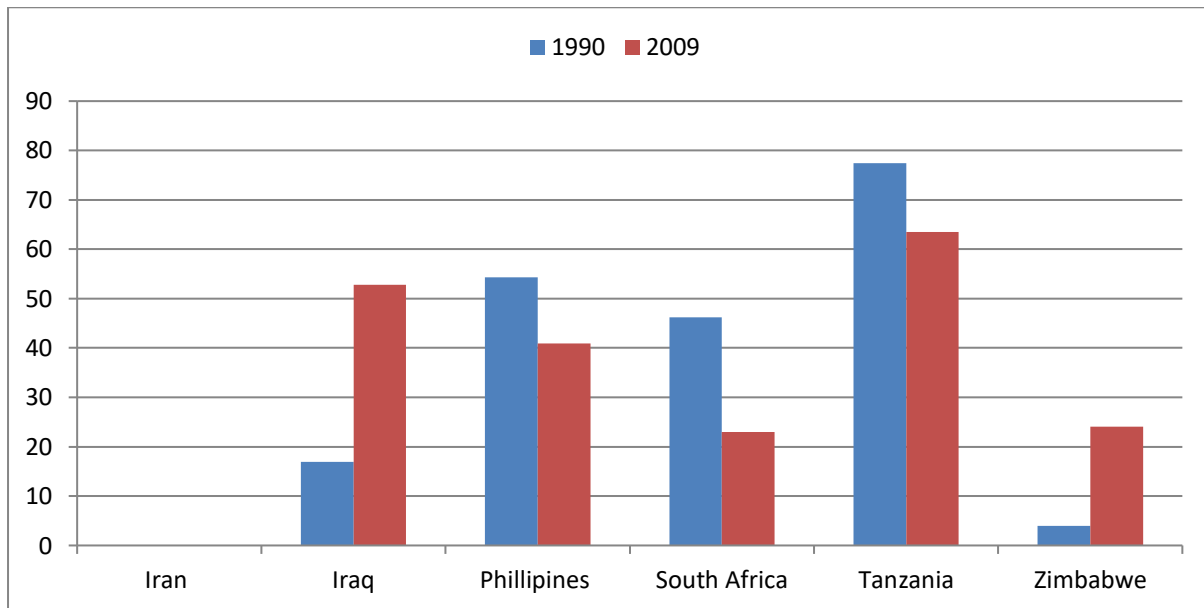

Figure 3: Population living in slums (% of urban population) (source: UN Habitat, 2012)
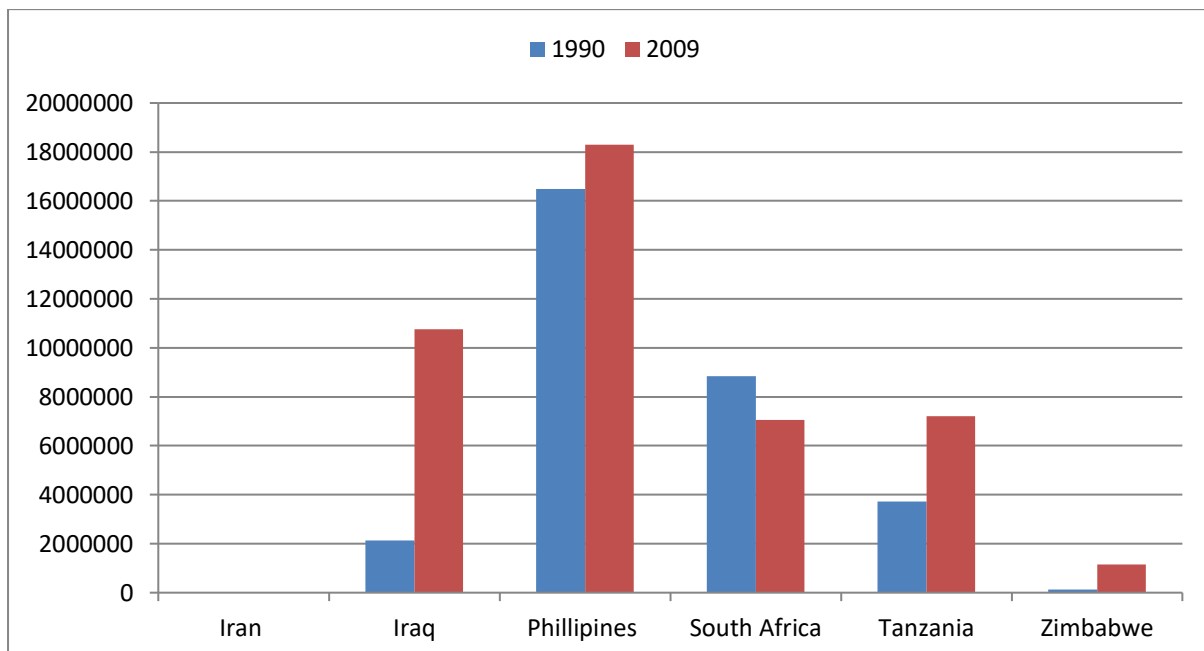
Figure 4: Urban slum population at mid-year (source: UN Habitat, 2012)[9]

According to the UN Habitat Report ('*State of the World Cities*', 2012), amongst the countries within our study, the percentage of the urban population living in slums was highest in Tanzania (63%), Iraq (52.8%) and Philippines (40.9%). In South Africa and Zimbabwe the percentage of slum population is at the levels of 23% and 24.1% respectively. There was no

---

[9] No data was available for Iran

data available for Iran. Many of those living in slum areas and informal settlements are migrants, driven to urban areas by a perception of an improved quality of life, although evidence suggests that suggests that in reality they are often poverty traps with poor economic and health prospects (Currie and Vogel 2013). Clearly the upgrading of physical and economic structures within informal settlements could reduce social disadvantages, and meeting the social and economic needs of these communities has a vital role in creating a vibrant, socially inclusive, and growing economy. An example of the potential role of universities can be found in ongoing work in Johannesburg, South Africa. By partnering with local communities to gather sector specific data, the University of Johannesburg has mobilised cross-disciplinary research networks to drive social innovation in the township economies. These initiatives are developed to respond to social demands that are traditionally not addressed by the market or existing institutions. These initiatives include (a) identification of social needs; (b) co-creating new solutions in response to these social needs; (c) evaluation of the effectiveness of new solutions based on social, environmental and economic impact; and (d) scaling up of effective social innovations. The university partners with the local government, to address its Township Revitalisation Goals and Food Resilience Strategy priorities. The research and applied research activities promote a development strategy based on the sustainable livelihoods framework and seek to create inclusion and prosperity opportunities for those in townships. Perhaps most interesting here is the acknowledgement of the knowledge that exists in communities, and the idea that communities themselves can co-construct solutions with universities in line with the ideas of Lave and Wenger (1998) and with mode 2 knowledge production (Gibbons *et al.*, 2004) based on tackling specific problems in an interdisciplinary fashion.

In the case of Dar es Salaam, efforts have been made to deliver improved sanitation in informal settlements. The limited access to infrastructure services, particularly sanitation facilities, poses potential risks to residents' health and the environment. Consequently, the Department of Urban and Regional Planning at Ardhi University conducted research, which examines how and to what extent residents in informal settlements get access to improved sanitation. The findings suggest that the existence of community-based groups for dealing with sanitation issues significantly contribute to educating the local communities. However, the study calls for the involvement of the local government to improve sanitation conditions. Ardhi University's on-going work on improving infrastructure services in informal settlements has influenced the National Urban Development and Management Policy (2012) and National Housing Policy (2014).

In the search for solutions, the University of Duhok (Iraq) is involved in the development of physical infrastructure, where the College of Engineering in collaboration with the city authorities, coordinates water irrigation programmes. This supports the water supply from Duhok and Mosul Dams, the purification of rivers and distribution systems, and wastewater treatment. They also have extended the pure water supply to the refugee camps and installed wastewater treatment in these camps.

In Iran, many immigrants have settled in the marginal and low-income areas of the cities and have been provided public transportation and health care services. Many others have settled

in informal settlements which, by law, are considered as 'not recognized areas'. The consequence of this is that delivering services to these areas is considered illegal.. Due to the continuous economic crisis in recent years, informal settlement areas around the cities have been expanded rapidly creating so many economic, social, mental and family problems and crimes causing an overload on the urban public transportation and health care services. Despite this, Ministry of Health and Medical Education, which governs the Kurdistan University of Medical Sciences along with 148 urban and rural Health Care Centres provides health services include vaccinations, care for pregnant women, elderly dental services, occupational health, and treatment of infections and non-infection diseases. In addition, in Sanandaj, there are small interventions offering subsidized travel and housing for those of low income and from immigrant communities. Individuals are offered subsidized bus tickets to travel from the city to the surrounding housing areas, and housing projects (funded by the Ministry of Road and Housing) are building affordable housing in all suburban areas of Kurdistan cities.

7.3 Education interventions

In terms of educational interventions, many attempts have been made to increase participation in education among rural communities. As stated above, this population are likely to migrate to cities for job opportunities or through experience of environmental disasters, it is important that they have access to quality education that may not be locally available. Some of initiatives we have identified involve early intervention within schools, which cannot be effective without enhanced teacher education, which in turn is dependent on the involvement of HEIs. For example, in Iran, in order to improve access to education for all a number of plans have been launched by the Kurdistan Department of Education including building more schools in rural areas and informal settlement around cities, employing more qualified teachers, promoting teachers' technological and pedagogical skills and improving their qualification base. Other initiatives take the form of 'second chance education' and involve forms of flexibility in access to higher education that have been promoted for some decades in the west, in some cases without significant success. A specific example is demonstrated by the universities in Duhok in their recognition of prior learning of IDPs and refugees (e.g. from Syria and Turkey), allowing students to be admitted to higher education programmes and continue studying at the same level as they had previously before having to flee. The arguments for and challenges of such initiatives are well rehearsed by Ellis *et al.* (2016) in the context of refugees within the UK and is of course linked to employability.

Within other education interventions, we also see the acknowledgement of cultural pluralism, and respecting the multiple cultures that are represented within migrant populations. An important element of addressing cultural pluralism is providing opportunities for those newly arrived to learn local language(s) and obtain cultural knowledge. For example, in Tanzania, the University of Dar es Salaam (the Institute of Kiswahili Research) and the Tumaini University, offer Kiswahili language courses. Similarly, in Iraq, both the University of Duhok and Duhok Polytechnic University provide Kurdish language courses for refugees and IDPs. These programmes are designed to help inform about the local Kurdish culture including regional costumes, history, geography, tourist attractions, music and local food. People are

also invited to take part in local and national Kurdish celebrations and festivals. The local NGOs promote and provide information about these programmes.

7.4 Employment interventions

A major obstacle to sustainable urban development is the inability to provide employment for a growing labour force. An influx of migrants in developing countries undermines further existing employment opportunities. People often migrate in hope of finding a better life elsewhere, but some of them end up shifting from one disadvantaged environment to another. In many developing countries, *entrepreneurship* is seen as a sensible strategy to address the lack of opportunities in the formal economy (for both local people and migrants) and our research provides particular cases.

For example, the University of Zimbabwe is developing a range of programmes to improve the capacity of the informal sector and strengthen entrepreneurship skills. These include designing new products, producing high quality artefacts, and improving competences in costing and marketing products. The training also aims to cover development of soft skills (e.g. communication) and basic academic skills related to mathematical, scientific, technological and engineering competences. Similarly, the University of Dar es Salaam offers a range of courses to facilitate the development of entrepreneurial capacity in Tanzania. The University aims to position itself as an effective catalyst for job creation, economic development and poverty alleviation through providing training such as entrepreneurial business, business planning and growth, governance, negotiation skills and effective leadership. Similarly, the University of Kurdistan (Iran) in the light of its strategic vision to strengthening its ties with surrounding local community has tried to offer many learning opportunities, placements, applied courses and Start-ups or incubators for empowering undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate students with entrepreneurship skills, key qualifications which fosters their self-employment. Furthermore, in order to improve the graduate employability and entrepreneurship, University of Kurdistan runs regional and national Weekend Start-ups and Business Ideas at least twice a year in close cooperation with relevant public bodies and private business. In Iraq, the Kurdistan Regional Government (KGR) Ministry of Higher Education in collaboration with the University of Duhok and Duhok Polytechnic University provide *astathafa* programmes (student-exchange) with both national and international partner institutions. This gives students an opportunity to increase their employability skills

Having limited opportunities to produce goods and create an income, many people migrate from the countryside. Hence, in addition to support those who migrate, there are interventions in some countries to support rural areas to become more sustainable by improving their economies, through for example improving food production and consequent improving standard of living. For example, in Tanzania the Sokoine University of Agriculture, offers training and courses for farmers. These programmes aim at working with the local community to teach natural farming methods, reducing soil erosion and improving water-holding capacity of the soil. The importance of improving the skills base of the informal sector has also been recognized by the World Bank in its 2013 report Improving Skills

Development in the Informal Sector: Strategies for Sub-Saharan Africa (Adams, de Silva and Razmara, 2013).

8. Conclusions

From our analysis of the varying forms of engagement that are occurring in the six cities within our study, we can observe a range of initiatives that demonstrate a commitment to both internal and international refugees by universities. These cross a range of domains of activity within the "Third Mission", and many parallel activities we are familiar with in Western societies. For example, initiatives to recognise the qualifications of refugees are underpinned by arguments that are well rehearsed by Ellis *et al.* (2016) in the context of refugees within the UK and more widely in Europe; and, are of course linked to employability. An OECD analysis of the situation in Europe reports:

> *… low employment and high overqualification rates at arrival and shortly thereafter, some progress in employment rates but not enough and little improvement with regard to overqualification.*
> (OECD/European Union, 2014: 371)

On the other hand, what is clearly different is the scale of the necessary interventions in areas of housing, health, education, and employment. For example, in countries such as Iraq refugee numbers are so much greater in comparison to the host population, but the resources available to the HE sector to support these interventions are limited.

Therefore, while the forms the engagement take have parallels in universities in other parts of the world, the context is different; with the scale of populations with needs and demands much higher than in the North, and less developed infra-structures within universities. It is also the case that most interventions tend to be 'top-down' and supply-led, rather than reflecting the demands of potential beneficiaries and with related limited evidence of knowledge co-construction based around the problems identified by civil society actors. This of course also parallels the much of the activities of universities in the north. There are however, examples of activity that is much more significant that those which exist in the north. In South Africa and the Philippines, the notion of the Third Mission is not an add-on for staff in universities: service and community engagement is the core aspect of academic work for public universities and is mandated by state, and there is much that can be by the rest of world from these countries. The resources of our universities represent the most significant reservoir of knowledge in all cities, but too often they are not utilised effectively at a local level in these days when internationalisation is at the fore.

References

Abel, G.J. and Sander, N. (2014) Quantifying Global International Migration Flows. *Science, 343*, 1520-1522.

Adams, A. V., de Silva, S. J., Razmara, S. (2013) Improving skills development in the informal sector: strategies for Sub-Saharan Africa. World Bank http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/736731468194635805/pdf/786870PUB0EPI10Box0377351B00PUBLIC0.pdf

Adepoju, A. (2018) Rural–urban socio-economic links: the example of migrants in South-west Nigeria. In S. Amin, *Modern Migrations in Western Africa*. London, Routledge

Amnesty International (2018) *Iraq 2017/18.* Available at https://www.amnesty.org/en/countries/middle-east-and-north-africa/iraq/ (accessed 15 September 2018).

Barrios, S., Bertinelli, L and Strobel, E. (2006). *Climatic Change and Rural Urban Migration: The case of Sub-Saharan Africa*. CORE Discussion Paper 2006/46. Available at http://webdoc.sub.gwdg.de/ebook/serien/e/CORE/dp2006_46.pdf (accessed 6 October 2018)

Bjarnason S. and Coldstream P. (eds) (2003) *The Idea of Engagement: Universities in Society*. London: ACU.

Bohra-Mishra, P., Oppenheimer, Ruohong, C., Feng, S. and Licker, R. (2017) Climate variability and migration in the Philippines. *Population and Environment* (2017) 38:286–308

Brzoska, M. & Fröhlich, C. (2016) Climate change, migration and violent conflict: vulnerabilities, pathways and adaptation strategies, *Migration and Development*, 5(2), 190-210

Castro-Palaganas, E. *et al*. (2017) An examination of the causes, consequences, and policy responses to the migration of highly trained health personnel from the Philippines: the high cost of living/leaving—a mixed method study, *Human Resources for Health 15*,25

Charles D. and Benneworth P. (2001) *The Regional Mission: The Regional Contribution of Higher Education: National Report*. London: UUK.

Clemens, M. A., Özden, C and Rapoport, H. (2014). *Migration and Development Research Is Moving Far beyond Remittances.* CGD Working Paper 365. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development.

Crush, J., Tawodzera, G., Chikanda, A., Ramachandran, S. & Tevera, D. (2017): *The Double Crisis – Mass Migration From Zimbabwe And Xenophobic Violence in South Africa*. Migrants in Countries in Crisis (MICIC) South Africa Case Study. Accessed https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/SA_Case_Study_FINAL.pdf

Currie, J., and Vogl, T. (2013). Early-life health and adult circumstance in developing countries. *Annual Review of Economics 5*, 1–36

de Brauw, A., Mueller, V, and Lee, H. L. (2014) The Role of Rural–Urban Migration in the Structural Transformation of Sub-Saharan Africa. *World Development 63*, 33-42

Douglass, J., King, C., & Feller, I. (2009). *Globalization's Muse: Universities and Higher Education Systems in a Changing World.* Berkeley: Public Policy Press/Center for Studies in Higher Education: Institute of Governmental Studies.

Duke, Osborne and Wilson (2013). *A new imperative: Regions and higher education in difficult times*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Ellis, T., Myer, W., Reynolds, E, and Upadhyay, K. (2016*) Refugee Qualification Equivalence: Improving Integration through Skills Recognition.* Cambridge, Wilberforce Society.

Gibbons M, Limoges C., Nowotny H., Schwartzman S., Scott, P. and Trow, M. (1994) *The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies*. London: Sage

IDMC (2018) Country Information: Philippines. Available at http://www.internal-displacement.org/countries/philippines (accessed at 10 November 2018)

Inman P and Schuetze H (eds) (2011): The Community Engagement and Service Mission of Universities, Leicester: NIACE

International Food Policy Research Institute (2018) *Conflict, migration and food security - The role of agriculture and rural development* Washington D.C.: International Food Policy Research Institute

International Organisation for Migration (2015). *World Migration Report 2015. Migrants and Cities: New Partnerships to Manage Mobility*. Available at https://www.iom.int/world-migration-report-2015 (accessed 4 October 2018).

ILO/WIEGO, (2013) Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture (2nd edition).

Kofman, E. & Raghuram, P. (2012). Women, Migration, and Care: Explorations of Diversity and Dynamism in the Global South. *Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State and Society 19*(3), 408-432.

Lee, E. (1966) A Theory of Migration. *Demography 3*(1), 47-57.

McDowell, C. and de Haan, A. (1997) *Migration and Sustainable Livelihoods: A Critical Review of the Literature.* IDS Working Paper 65. Brighton: University of Sussex, Institute of Development Studies.

Migration Data Portal (2018) Available: https://migrationdataportal.org/data?focus=profile&i=stock_abs_&t=2017&cm49=716 (accessed 20 December 2018)

Mohram K, Shi J, Feinblatt S, Chow K (eds) (2009) *Public Universities and Regional Development*, Sichuan: Sichuan University Press

Nawyn, S. (2016) Migration in the Global South: Exploring New Theoretical Territory. *International Journal of Sociology* 46(2), 81-84

Novotny, H., Scott, P. and Gibbons, M. (2001). *Rethinking science: knowledge in an age of uncertainty*. Cambridge: Polity Press

OECD (2014) *International Migration Outlook 2014*, Paris: OECD

Potts, D. (2010) Circular migration in Zimbabwe and contemporary sub-Saharan Africa, London, James Currey.

Raleigh, C. (2011) The search for safety: The effects of conflict, poverty and ecological influences on migration in the developing world. *Global Environmental Change 21*, Supplement 1, S82-S93

Ratha, D. and Shaw, W. (2017) *South-South Migration and Remittances.* Word Bank Working Paper 102. Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Saunders D. (2010). Neoliberal ideology and public higher education in the United States. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies, 8*, 41-77

Siddiqui, T. (2005). International migration as a livelihood strategy of the poor: The Bangladesh case. In T. Siddiqui (Ed.), *Migration and development pro-poor policy choice* (pp. 71–103). Dhaka: DhakaUniversity Press.

Trache, M., Schuetze, H. and Osborne, M. (2008) University continuing education: third mission or first? *Journal of Adult and Continuing Education*, 14(1),105-111.

Trencher, G., Bai, X., Evans, J., McCormick. K., & Yarime, M. (2014). University partnerships for co-designing and co-producing urban sustainability. *Global Environmental Change, 28*, 153-165.

UN Habitat (2012) *State of the World's Cities 2012/2013: Prosperity of Cities* http://mirror.unhabitat.org/pmss/listItemDetails.aspx?publicationID=3387

UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) (2017a). *Global trends: Forced displacement in 2016*. Geneva: UNHCR.

UNHCR, Global Focus (2017b). *Iraq.* Available at http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/2547#_ga=2.227578587.713846050.1529065067-1093822439.1529065067 (accessed 6 October 2018).

UNHCR, Global Focus (2017c). *Islamic Republic of Iran*. Available at http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/2527 (accessed 6 October 2018).

UNHCR (2017) Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 Revision. Available: http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/docs/MigrationStockDocumentation_2017.pdf (accessed 20December 2018)

UNHCR (2018a) Figures at a Glance. Available at https://www.unhcr.org/uk/figures-at-a-glance.html (10 November 2018)

UNHCR (2018b) Population Statistics. Available at http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview (accessed 10 November 2018)

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017) *International Migration Report 2017.* Available at http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2017_Highlights.pdf (accessed 5 October 2018)

Van Hear, N., Bakewell, O. and Long , K. (2017) Push-pull plus: reconsidering the drivers of migration. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies 44*(6), 927-944

Watson D., Hollister, R. and Babcock, E. (2011) *The Engaged University. International perspectives on Civic Engagement.* London: Routledge.

WIEGO, (2014) Statistics on the Informal Economy: Definitions, Regional Estimates and Challenges . Working Paper No. 2

Wenger E. (1998) *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning and Identity.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wengert, G. and Alfaro, M. (2006) Can Palestinian refugees in Iraq find protection? *FMR* 26 *Palestinian Displacement*, pp19-22. Available online https://www.fmreview.org/sites/fmr/files/FMRdownloads/en/palestine.pdf (accessed 10 November 2018)

World Bank (2017). *Forcibly displaced: Toward a development approach supporting refugees, the internally displaced, and their hosts.* Washington D.C.: World Bank

World Economic Forum (2017). *Migration and Its Impact on Cities.* Available at http://www3.weforum.org/docs/Migration_Impact_Cities_report_2017_low.pdf (accessed 15 September 2018).

Zomer, A., & Benneworth, P. (2011). The Rise of the University's Third Mission. In A. Zomer, P. Benneworth, J. Enders, H. de Boer, & D. Westerheijden (Eds.), *Reform of Higher Education in Europe* (pp. 81-101). Sense Publishers.

Strengthening Urban Engagement of Universities in Africa and Asia

TPS 102/19: The Role of Higher Education for Displaced and Marginalized Peoples – The SUEUAA project

www.sueuaa.org