Universities’ community engagement in Europe and Southeast Asia: supporting immigrants and refugees

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Universities’ community engagement in Europe and Southeast Asia: supporting immigrants and refugees

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Abstract In this paper, we consider the roles that HEIs can have with wider society in pursuit of an agenda of social responsibility through contributing expertise to the service of communities that reflects locally defined needs and demands. In particular, our concern will about the role played by HEIs in overcoming the refugee and migrant crisis that many countries face and contributing to development of societies capable in handling the diversities and differences in society. We posit that there is potential for a new model of societal impact that might surface, more willing “to positively recognize diversity and help minorities maintain cultural and religious practices while integrating them into public life” (Wright & Bloemraad 2012, p. 78), as well as to foster greater social cohesion (Koopmans 2013) if these activities are strengthened as a part of institutions’ activities.

Keywords: Universities, migration, communities, activities, migrants, development
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1. Introduction

Despite the growing importance given to supporting the transition of migrants and refugees into HEIs, universities internationally appear to be reacting slowly to new challenges in this area where they have had little no previous experience. In some societies this in part reflects their historic focus on two missions only: teaching and research.

However, whilst the role of HE has traditionally been conceptualised around these two activities, the so-called Third Mission (TM) has gradually grown in importance and is reflected in co-operation with agencies beyond academy, notably governments and industry in what has been described as the Triple Helix Model (Etzkowitz 1998). This model has been developed with an additional focus on contributions to and from the community and civil society in the Quadruple and Quintuple Helix Models (Carayannis, Barth and Campbell, 2012), although arguably in some societies this form of engagement pre-dates or at least parallels working with government and industry. Indeed, in countries that include many within Latin America, as well as South Africa, Tanzania and the Philippines, engagement with communities is at the forefront of the university and manifested in the core and often prescribed role for service learning by their students.

Typically, engagement with civil society occurs within the confines of the immediate locality of universities at urban and regional level. The potential involvement of the University in city development concerns the possibility for HEIs, thanks to a holistic, progressive and sustainable view of regional development, to emphasise its role together with civil society in tackling local and regional disadvantage, inequality and poverty (Pike et al. 2007). These ideas in recent times have been crystallised in aspects of the idea of building a learning city

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1 This work emanates from two funded projects within CR&DALL. The SUEUAA project (Reference CI170271) was funded by the British Academy under the Cities and Infrastructure programme, which is part of the Global Challenges Research Fund, itself, part of the UK's Official Development Assistance (ODA) commitment. The Widening Access to TVET project was funded by the UK's Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) through an Impact Acceleration Grant (IAA), ES/M500471/1.
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or region, the historical antecedents of which have been reported by Osborne, Kearns and Yang (2013).

In analysing the role of the university in fostering the integration of migrants, the aim of our contribution is to consider two geographically and institutionally distant realities (Philippines Normal University and the University of Catania in Italy) that share the need to support migrants and refugees in their integration. Our aim is to identify how they have conceptualized their role in contributing to immigrants’ social inclusion and which solutions, in terms of policy approaches and related strategies have been assumed and implemented at the strategic level. There are few comprehensive, cross-nationally comparable data on university policies on immigration (e.g., Crosier, & Kocanova, 2019) and this make it extremely difficult to make claim about universities’ orientations, roots, or strategies for supporting immigrants in a comparative perspective. Our paper presents some preliminary data to address this problem by comparing policies and strategies with a particular focus on third mission activities.

We report material derived from two transnational studies. The first study, Strengthening Urban Engagement of Universities in Asia and Africa (SUEUAA) covers six cities in six different low-income countries in Asia and Africa: Sanandaj, Islamic Republic of Iran; Duhok, Iraq; Manilla, Philippines; Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania; Johannesburg, South Africa; and, Harare, Zimbabwe. SUEUAA has been funded by the British Academy under the Cities and Infrastructure programme of the UK’s Global Challenges Research Fund (GCRF). For the purpose of this paper, we focus on the Philippines case. The second study, Widening Regional Engagement of HE and TVET (WREHTE), considers four cities in four different countries in ‘developed’ nations in Europe and Asia: Perth, UK; Catania, Italy; Hong Kong and Taipei, Taiwan. WREHTE has been funded under the aegis of a grant provided to the University of Glasgow under an Impact Acceleration Award by the UK’s Economic and Social Research Council. From this study we focus on the Italian case.

Both projects are a development of the PASCAL Universities Regional Engagement (PURE) project, which was actioned over a five-year period from 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 the many challenges that universities can contribute to addressing regional and city challenges. The issues addressed in that work were in the main 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 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

Within the two studies we report only on one subset of engagement within selected universities in the Philippines and Italy, that related to addressing migration and the challenges of refugees. This focus crosses a number of the eight categories of the engagement model above, most particularly, embedding engagement in institutional practice, the developing human capital and community development processes. More detailed reports of the totality of each project have been reported (Neary and Osborne 2018) or are forthcoming.

We consider the drivers for both internal and external migration, and how the university sector has been responding in cities in these countries using adapted forms of the benchmarking tools of Charles and Benneworth (2001) in the form of interviews with key stakeholders and through policy analysis at university and city level as our starting point for gathering data. We assess the extent to which universities in the Philippines and Italy respond
to immigration challenges, and how through dialogue with city stakeholders this can be enhanced and impact on policy.

2. 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 low-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.

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.

We focus on three factors in this paper: livelihood migration, conflict migration, and environmental migration, as explicated in a recent SUEUAA paper (Azizi et al. 2019). 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.

2.1 Drivers of migration: livelihood
Livelihood as a driver of migration might 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). For example, in Sub-Saharan Africa, Potts (2010) suggests that contrary to the dominant theory of unilinear movement from rural to urban contexts, much of the internal migration in Zimbabwe and contingent states for economic reasons is 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.

2.2 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). Of these UNHCR suggests that 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 2017). Van Hear, Bakewell and Long (2017) discusses 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).

2.3 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, for example, 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 in the future 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).

3. Migration: The Philippines Case

There are two main types of migration phenomena in the Philippines. First is internal migration where people flock to large cities such Metro Manila and Metro Cebu, resulting to increased urbanization. The second type of migration is external whereby skilled and
professional Filipinos-Overseas Filipino Workers (OFWs), go abroad to work or settle. In 2018, there were about 2.2 million OFWs of which 1m were male and 1.2m were female, who remitted some US$29m back home. For the purpose of this paper, we deal only with Internal migration.

Several contextual factors can be attributed to internal migration such as poor and imbalanced development of other regions in the Philippines, peace and security issues, poor services in the region, and the lure of living in the cities. Thus, livelihood and conflict migration are pre-eminent, and are exacerbated by environmental factors, notably extreme weather and seismic events.

The centres for business, trade and industry, education, health and major cultural events are found in urban settings with young people in particular from the provinces and rural communities flocking to Manila and nearby cities in search for jobs, good business opportunities, and good schools and universities. Parents of these young adults strive hard so that their children will get the good education and the associated benefits of subsequent high-status jobs. Since these young people then are established in their early adulthood in big cities, they tend to stay in the cities indefinitely. The presence of skilled workers and professionals in turn encourages further investments in the city resulting in the creation of relatively good infrastructure, social services, and other facilities for the urban dwellers. Meanwhile, the facilities and services in rural areas is decline, resulting in increasingly uneven development between urban and rural in the Philippines.

Furthermore, poor development in the countryside has attracted communist and Muslim insurgents to strengthen and expand their operations. The Communist Party of the Philippines (CPP) and the New People’s Army (the armed group of CPP), since its establishment in 1967 in Central Plain of Luzon, has not ceased its operations in fighting the government. The Muslim insurgency began in the 1970s when several groups of Muslims were organised to fight against the government; the most recent event was the Battle of Marawi a five-month-long armed conflict (23 May-23 October 2017) between Philippine government security forces and militants. It continues to be easy for these groups to create armies in the rural areas since people are so poor. Joining the insurgent groups is in essence a source of employment for them. This seemingly never-ending insurgency has resulted in the creation of an internally displaced population who move to the cities in search of security. Those who do not migrate
or join insurgent groups do not have equitable access to training in order to obtain high status jobs and investors despite the availability of cheap labour and a lower cost of living do not locate in rural areas.

Lifestyle is of course another factor. Manila and cities in NCR are home to the entertainment industry and it is also the centre of fashion industry, and other socio-cultural events. This city lifestyle further encourages young people to stay in the cities for the rest of their adult lives. Some may return in the provinces when they retire, but most settle in the cities.

Many migrants from rural areas do not have such positive experiences. The high cost of land in Manila has resulted in the growth of informal settlements (popularly known as squatters area) in the City of Manila. These informal settlers take two forms in Manila: those living on public and private land with temporary housing structures (which became permanent concrete houses in time) and the street dwellers. The poor and unskilled rural dwellers who flock to Manila are also the poor dwellers of these informal settlements.

Much poverty in Manila is attributed to the population who are unskilled and found in these informal settlements, which are located along creeks (esteros) in some coastal areas, on a few islets of Manila Bay, and in other public and private land. Many problematic issues are connected to poverty, including: a) unemployment, b) criminality (though the big time criminals are not poor!), c) drug abuse (though the big time drug syndicates are operated by the rich), d) illiteracy, e) poor health, f) violence directed towards women and children, g) pollution a indicated by unclean water, garbage, smog and noise, h) human-made disasters such as fires and various forms of accidents, i) subhuman living condition, and j) conflicts in many forms, caused by differences in language, tradition, mindsets, socialization, and other cultural attributes. Almost all these problems are interrelated with each other.

Migration in the Philippines is also driven by environmental factors. 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). As recently as in 2017, the Philippines experienced two tropical storms (Pakhar and Jolina), three typhoons (Hato, Dokuri and Nesat), four earthquakes (Leyte, Sarangani, Batangas, Surigao) and floods (Visayas and Mindanao).
4. The role of universities in Manila in supporting the city in the field of migration: some cases

Higher Education Institutions in the Philippines are mandated to perform three functions: instruction, research and extension (CHED Memorandum order No. 48 s. 1996). These three functions are strengthened by the Republic Act 7722, otherwise known as Higher Education Act of 1994. Extension as the third function of HEIs is articulated in other government policies such as in the quality assurance system, promotion of faculty members, the basis for performance-based bonuses, and criteria for national and local awards. Hence, HEIs must apportion their budget for programs and activities for extension or community engagement. Another law that enables universities to implement community extension is the National Service Training Program or Republic Act No. 9163. The law declares that all tertiary level students should fulfil their civic obligation by choosing one activity from the three programs: Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), Literacy Training Service, and Civic Welfare Training Service. The Literacy Training Service and Civic Welfare Training Service encourage the students to do community work.

These underpinning policies are the primary bases for HEIs based in Manila to work in informal settlements of Manila and nearby cities.

Some examples of budgeted programs for extension programs in informal settlements are as follow:

- The Philippine Normal University’s Program, ACTLIFE (a program for sustainable communities through literacy), has established various literacy programs for informal settlers in BASECO (Bataan Shipping and Engineering Company) Compound in Tondo, Pandacan, and Sta. Ana in Manila;
- The Mapua Institute of Technology has designed a reclamation settlement for informal settlers in Tondo, Manila. This was done in collaboration with the Urban Settlement Office of Manila City Hall;
- De la Salle University has assisted the Manila Traffic Bureau in solving the heavy flow of traffic along the Taft avenue in Manila, a problem in part related to internal migration;
• St. Scholastica’s College has established a program “from streets to strings” for street children to learn the violin. They also offered “Bahay Tuluyan” (a house to stay) for street families to take a bath and wash their clothes;
• Adamson University has developed a chemical compound to clean the waterways and water waste of Manila. This will benefit the city as a whole, but especially the informal settlers who live in creeks of Manila;
• The Technological University of the Philippines offers technical and vocational courses for informal settlers in Ermita and Balic-Balic, Manila; and
• The Far Eastern University offer peace literacy and livelihood projects of informal settlers of Sampaloc, Manila.

For overseas migrant teachers who work as domestic helpers and caregivers, the Philippine Normal University’s Department of Education, and the national Department of Labor and Employment has collaborated on the program Sa Pinas, Ikaw and Ma’am at Sir (in the Philippines ‘Sirs’ and ‘Madames’ refer to teachers). Here, PNU designed modules for teachers abroad as refresher courses before they apply to become public school teachers. As a result, significant numbers are now employed in the Department of Education as teachers.

These examples of extension activities and other outreach projects of universities start with needs assessment of communities. What is actually offered through this needs assessment is usually driven by the specialisation of institutions e.g., PNU for literacy, Mapua Institute of Technology for engineering and architecture and so on. Hence, to an extent what is on offer does fit with bottom-up demand-led process reflects the needs of communities.

5. Migration: the Italian Case

Since the 1980s Italy has become a destination for many migrants coming, often illegally, from Eastern Europe and non-European countries from the Middle East and from Africa, both nearby. In the late 1980s, the flow of migrants from non-EU countries was approximately 100,000 annually. The numbers decreased during 1990s, and by 1999, it was estimated that about 1,500,000 migrants lived in Italy, amounting to 2.3% of the domestic
population. In a few decades, Italy underwent a rapid transformation: from being a country of emigration – as many as 13 million Italians left their country of origin between 1880 and 1976 – it became a country receiving migrants from different parts of the world. Between 1992 and 2002, foreigners increased in number by 264%, reaching over 5 million in 2010 (Zanfrini, 2013). By 2018, 8.3% of Italy’s population were immigrants (5,144,440), compared to a EU28 average of 6.9% (ISTAT 2018).

By 2015 Italy ranked the eleventh country in the world with the highest number of migrants and refugees (Caritas, 2015), fuelling acrimonious debates on the assimilation of foreigners (D’Agostino et al, 2016) and their right to integration. Indeed, the absence of adequate policies to regulate the absorption of arrivals into the labour market has led to what we can refer as ‘subordinated integration’, with many remaining ‘extracomunitari’ – literally, ‘outside the community’ (Piazza et al, 2017).

Few young immigrants are benefiting from support in accessing vocational training and in making the transition to work. A MIPEX (2015) report notes, for instance, that according to 2011/12 estimates, only 5% of working-age non-EU citizens had access to education and training in Italy. The report concludes that this is the lowest uptake of education and training among European countries, where the average is 17% . They nevertheless face more difficulties in attaining stability in their employment; and suffer higher rates of unemployment and underemployment (OECD & EU, 2014). Almost 60% of highly educated immigrant workers are employed in jobs below the level of their qualifications, when the corresponding figures for Italian born workers is 16% (MIPEX, 2015: 27-29).

Italian universities meanwhile appear to have reacted slowly, although sometimes spontaneously, without any clear national regulation to a new situation that they have had no experiences of in recent history and which call for activities which will have a strong impact on societal change. Considering that around 50% of asylum seekers in EU countries are in the 18 to 34 age group (European Commission / EACEA / Eurydice, 2019), it is clear that above all higher education plays a considerable role in supporting their integration process. Nevertheless, only recently, in correspondence with the huge migratory flux of 2015 and 2016, has political debate been raised in Europe generally and Italy specifically on the positive role that universities can play (Levantino, 2016, 89).
TM has been recently introduced in the Italian Universities’ Evaluation System as part of the core university activities. In Italy, the evaluation of third mission activities is assigned to ANVUR, the Italian National Agency for the Evaluation of the University and Research Systems. However, implementation of University TM, conceived as application and exploitation of knowledge to the benefit of social, cultural, and economic development of cities, require the need to become more aware about the external role played by the University in addressing a range of societal challenges, including overcoming the challenge of refugee and migrant crises. A new model of societal impact could, thus, be about to surface, if these activities are strengthened as a part of the institutions’ activities.

Even though TM is in its infancy we can identify already some activity.

6. The role of universities in Catania in supporting the city in the field of migration: some cases

There is evidence in Europe that suggests that strong HEI governance systems lead to stronger commitment and involvement in the support of refugees and migrants, and hence to a larger number of implemented support activities with high quality standards\(^2\). Furthermore, this EU funded research project has argued that the more a national government is committed and sets out strategies to support and to integrate refugees, the more substantial and improved are the quality of services provided by each university. The different services offered, as well as level of implementation, suggest a picture of HEIs that can be summarized as a pathway “from a fragmentary to a holistic attitude”, where the fragmental approach is represented by “the implementation of services at a minimum degree of involvement and commitment, while the comprehensive and holistic attitude reveals deep engagement, complexity, participation, and connection of the offered services” (InHERE project, 2017, 5).

Analysing the University of Catania’s activities towards supporting refugees, our analysis shows that it is not fully aware of the part it should play in defining strategies regarding migrants’ integration and make itself a driving force within the community. However, the University of Catania is potentially able to play a leading role within the local community: the knowledge created, the experience possessed, the professionalism of the educators involved, the relationships and connections made at all levels (local, national and global) and

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access to sources of funding constitute essential elements could be used by the leadership of the university to provide many services at different levels and to be committed with regard to refugees. However, whilst activities carried out by the university show that interest in the integration of migrants is strong, at the central level of the university co-ordination and awareness of its social role is lacking. There is no evidence of strategic planning, describing approaches that can be adopted to support access and integration measures of migrants and refugees, nor of activities that can be implemented once these students have enrolled in the university to support them throughout their course of studies.

A call promoted by the University's Research Centre on Community Engagement (CUrE) in 2018, aimed at mapping what activities were carried out in favour of migrants and refugees in the University, and this uncovered richness and diversity of the initiatives implemented\(^3\). Many academics, senior and junior joined a day of presentation of their activities, often carried out in collaboration and partnership with NGOs, local associations, local and regional authorities or with students as part of their service role. Almost all the initiatives presented had been carried out at departmental level, and only few had been authorized and promoted centrally.

Activities at the University of Catania can be categorized in for ways:

1) Access, dedicated to services/activities that can be implemented to facilitate refugee/migrant enrolment to universities  
2) Integration, which includes services/activities to support immigrants in their assimilation to the daily life in Italy  
3) Training of trainers and operators working with migrants  
4) Student training

Here are listed some examples of the activities carried out in the university that relate to these categories:

1) Activities promoted by the University concerning the recognition of access qualifications for migrants and economic support for enrolment using European Regional Development Funding (ERDF).

\(^3\) See [http://www.cure.unict.it/la-responsabilit%C3%A0-sociale-dell%E2%80%99universit%C3%A0-%E2%80%99ateneo-catanese-i-rifugiati-e-i-migranti](http://www.cure.unict.it/la-responsabilit%C3%A0-sociale-dell%E2%80%99universit%C3%A0-%E2%80%99ateneo-catanese-i-rifugiati-e-i-migranti)
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2) The school of Italian language for foreign people has offered courses held in collaboration with adult education centers (CPIA, Local Centres for Adult Education), aimed at supporting immigrants in their process of integration\(^4\). The Project "Pro-Access - Improve access to sexual and reproductive health services for refugees and asylum seekers of SGBV", managed by LILA Catania (Italian League for the Fight against AIDS) and with the support of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), launched in September 2017, is aimed to promote services related to sexual and reproductive health of migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, with a particular focus on survivors of sexual and gender-based violence\(^5\).

3) Regarding the training of trainers, there exists: a training course organized for experts in guidance to welcome unaccompanied minors\(^6\); a program, promoted by Intersos and UNHCR and aimed at all refugee associations and organizations rooted in the territory, provides for a training course from June to October 2019 and is aimed at strengthening the skills in refugee protection\(^7\); a course providing specialized training for professionalization of staff of the Public Administration who work in the field of immigration, the governance of local migration processes, supporting integration of migrants and their families\(^8\).

4) Many activities are carried out to promote awareness among students. In Lampedusa, the School of Higher Education in Sociology of the Territory, which is a non-profit association, has as its objective multidisciplinary training courses (based on political and social sciences, law and architecture), to help outline the profile of technicians and hospitality professionals who know how to support institutions that manage migratory flows. Alongside the academic training, it is intended to privilege field research activity for the design of projects for supporting sustainable reception\(^9\). Activities concerned student training relate to internship activities. An agreement between University and the Court of Catania provides students with an internship with the judges of the civil section of the Court who decide if

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\(^4\) See [http://www.italstra.unict.it/](http://www.italstra.unict.it/).


\(^8\) See [http://www.lpss.unict.it/activities/education/master/immigrazione-integrazione-nella-legalita.](http://www.lpss.unict.it/activities/education/master/immigrazione-integrazione-nella-legalita.).

migrants requesting political asylum are eligible\textsuperscript{10}. Another initiative, the online communication laboratory organized as part of the "Peer to Peer: Facebook Global Digital Challenge" initiative is a training course for students aimed at developing an online communication campaign aimed at effectively contrasting extremism and hatred on social media on global scale\textsuperscript{11}. A final example is the EUMedEA Crash Course “Managing Crises at the EU (Med) Borders”, an advanced study and training event for PhD and MA students interested in EU external action and the management of crises at the EU borders, migration in particular. The crash course is run by leading scholars in the field, civil society organizations’ representatives and practitioners so to favour mutual exchange between students, academics and practitioners\textsuperscript{12}

7. Concluding Remarks

We can observe in Manila that migration is driven by each of the three main factors identified: livelihood, conflict and environment. Much of the migration in that city is internal from other parts of the Philippines or of expatriates returning. In the case of Catania, issues of conflict, particularly in the Middle East, and of livelihood are pre-eminent.

In relation to the role of universities in the Philippines and in Italy, the two countries are at different stages of development. The existence of a third mission role for academics and commitment that students should offer a service to their communities has been embedded in the University system of the Philippines for some time. By contrast this is an emerging part of the role of universities in Italy as a part of a new system for evaluating the quality of universities. The social responsibility of universities is once again called into question, which goes beyond the "philanthropy" of the past (Vasilescu et al, 2010) to refer, rather, to all aspects of universities’ impacts on society, both in terms of direct engagement and internal strategic practices "(Wallace & Resch, 2017, p. 1).

Concerning the Italian context, recent reforms have addressed the measurement gap of third mission activities as public outcome. In particular, the National Agency for the Evaluation of University and Research Systems (ANVUR), has moved from a perspective based on output,
only considering the number of third mission activities carried out by each university, to a perspective based on the process. This is certainly an attempt to reduce the diffused lack of systemic vision, as well as the difficulty to assess and measure the value and impact of such activities. However, the risk is that the meaning of third mission activities is downgraded to an empty bureaucratic task (Frondizi et al 2019, 18).

In practice we are able to identify a range of activities across a range of universities in Manila and within the Catania and its wider region that pertain to two issues raised by the influx of migrants and refugees. These cover range of the domains that we identified at the beginning this article, and conclude the development of human, social and cultural capital. Some of the activities tend to be ‘top down’ and devised from the perspective of universities themselves rather than stakeholder communities, though in the case of Manila processes of needs assessment through discussion between universities and communities indicates that the quadruple helix is emerging. In Manila successful extension projects are those where the needs of communities and programs of universities have more or less a perfect fit. However, there may be instances where needs and demands do not match supply.

In our ongoing work we are investigating where there is also significant evidence of the co-construction of innovative initiatives, based not only on needs and also expressed demands by communities and the extent to which universities are able to act flexibly in generating novel forms of supply. In such circumstances communities become actors rather than those who are acted upon, and the quadruple helix become even more visible.
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References


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