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Young Refugees' Participation in Post-Compulsory Education: Mapping Policies, Challenges and Ways Forward in Mainland Greece

Little is known about young refugees'¹ post-compulsory educational trajectories in Greece, despite high numbers of teenagers continuing to arrive and integration policies being implemented. While access to education has been increasing since 2015, enrolment and attendance rates for 15 to 18-year-olds remain low and drop-out rates are high. Based on findings from a doctoral study, this chapter explores the macro-level factors – relating primarily to policy and organisation – which constrain and enable this age group's participation in post-compulsory learning. Data was generated through semi-structured interviews with refugee youth, their parents, their teachers and other education stakeholders, and triangulated via document analysis and participant observation as a volunteer teacher in the region. The key challenges identified related to coordination, preparation (of staff and students), segregation and the impact of uncertainty and poor reception conditions. The ways forward proposed by participants included promoting training, flexibility, alternative routes and a holistic and cohesive response.

Key words: secondary education; refugees; youth; policy; inclusion; Greece

Introduction

Since 2015, more than a million migrants have entered Greece (Clayton and Holland, 2015). In the early days of the 'crisis', the leftist Syriza government's unofficial strategy was to facilitate transfers from the Aegean islands to the northern borders as quickly as possible – allowing newcomers to pass through the country and continue their journeys to Northern and Western Europe in as little as 48 hours (Crawley, et al., 2016; Afouxenidis, et al., 2017). However, due to various controversial migration management strategies – including the EU's approval of the Dublin III Regulation in 2013, the closure of borders along the 'Balkan route' from 2015 and the so-called 'EU-Turkey deal' in 2016 – 121,400 refugees have become trapped in the country (Stathopoulou, 2019; UNHCR, 2020). An estimated 45,300 are under 18 (UNICEF,

¹ In this chapter, the term 'refugee' refers to both those who have been granted protection under the 1951 Refugee Convention and those who have applied for it, for brevity and to align with the international literature; while recognising that terminology does not reflect experience.

2020). While 12% of these minors are unaccompanied – being mostly teenage boys aged 15-17 – the majority of young refugees arrive with families, are of all ages, are fairly gender-balanced, and are accommodated on the mainland (UNICEF and REACH, 2017a; UNICEF, 2019; UNHCR, 2020).

During the 2018-19 school year, only 57% of upper-secondary age refugee youth (15+) living in managed accommodation² were enrolled in formal education (UNICEF and REACH, 2017b; ESWG, 2019). Even if young refugees do enrol, their attainment has been described as ‘very limited’ (Simopoulos and Alexandridis, 2019, p.28) and their rate of drop-out reported as 45-56% (Tzoraki, 2019, p.1). Previous statistics from the non-formal education sector have suggested that school-age youth prefer non-formal education (NFE)³; and yet, still only a quarter were said to participate, and their attendance was inconsistent (UNICEF, 2017; UNICEF and REACH, 2017b). There is a need, then, for knowledge on the multi-level factors which constrain and enable young refugees’ participation in post-compulsory education; as well as the resources and relationships which can be leveraged to support their continued learning. This chapter is drawn from an ongoing doctoral study which aims to fill this gap, and is intended to contribute to the literature on macro-level barriers and supports in particular.

The chapter has three aims: firstly, to map the (inter)national educational inclusion policies targeting young refugees aged 15-18; secondly, to describe how they have been implemented in (mainland) Greece, and the actors involved; and thirdly, to argue that despite some supportive measures, multiple interrelated, structural factors work against integration initiatives and prevent this age group from learning. It begins by providing some background on the ‘refugee crisis’ in Greece and the methodology of the wider doctoral study. It then presents the relevant educational policy, rights and legal frameworks and how these have been implemented in the country. Following this, it discusses the ongoing macro-level challenges for this population’s educational participation and potential ways forward to promote engagement; based on the

² Managed accommodation refers to Reception and Identification Centers (RICS), ‘open sites’ (i.e. camps), apartments, hotels, shelters, ‘safe zones’ and supported independent living (SIL) schemes managed by the state or partners such as UNHCR; as opposed to being private or ‘informal’ (UNICEF, 2020).

³ The Council of Europe (2019) defines ‘formal’ education as that which takes place in educational systems, follows a syllabus and involves assessments; while ‘non-formal’ education – despite also being organised and intentional – mostly takes place outside of the formal system and does not result in accreditation. It may be more focused on particular activities, skills or areas of knowledge and take place in community settings such as non-governmental organisation (NGO) centres.

perspectives of the refugee community, teachers and other education stakeholders in Greece.

Methodology

Data was generated during eight months of ethnographic fieldwork with refugees in Thessaloniki, Northern Greece between October 2019 and June 2020. This involved participant observation as a volunteer English teacher; semi-structured interviews with 38 educational stakeholders (such as parents, teachers, assistants and coordinators); individual and pair semi-structured interviews with 12 refugee and asylum-seeking youth (aged 15-25); and analysis of relevant policy documents, news articles and research reports from the humanitarian sector. This combination of methods enabled triangulation of findings. The themes of the interviews were the multi-level factors constraining and enabling young refugees' participation in post-compulsory (15+) education (both formal and non-formal), with particular attention to social relationships. In this chapter, I focus on participants' responses regarding key challenges and supports, and their suggestions for promoting participation. All interview and field note data was entered into NVivo and coded according to the principles of constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006): meaning that the analysis involved a process of open coding, axial coding and then organisation into themes. Due to the sample size and design, findings are not generalisable; instead, they offer themes and recommendations for further exploration.

Young participants were interviewed in pairs, and those over 18 were interviewed individually (or also in pairs, where requested). As COVID-19 caused all in-person educational activities to be suspended from March 2020, all interviews and teaching activities between March and June 2020 took place online via Skype, Zoom, Viber or WhatsApp. Participants were recruited via convenience and snowball sampling and identified as Greek, Afghan, Syrian, Iraqi, Iranian, British, Albanian, Palestinian, Kurdish, Congolese (DRC) and American. While all participants were periodically reminded that interviews could be carried out in the language of their choice, with an interpreter (of their choosing) assisting, all decided to continue in English (with translations provided in Greek and French where I was able). To protect participants' identities, I avoid using their or their organisations' names in this chapter. Ethical

approval for the study was granted by the Social Sciences and Humanities Interdivisional Research Ethics Committee at the University of Oxford.

Education Policies, Rights and Responses for Refugees in Greece Aged 15+

Until 18 years of age, young refugees' and asylum seekers' right to education is protected by Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (in countries party to the Convention). It is also written into Article 2 of the European Convention on Human Rights, and in Sustainable Development Goal 4 on Education (FRA, 2017). Provision of education to all asylum applicants is also a minimum obligation in the recast Dublin Regulation (Recital 22) for all EU Member States. Beyond the primary level, there were calls for universal access to secondary education at the World Economic Forum in 2015; and for inclusivity and lifelong learning in the 2015 Incheon Declaration and at the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit (Bessler, 2016; UNESCO, 2016; IIEP-UNESCO, 2019). The need to ensure access to (quality) post-primary education during and after crises is also reflected in the education action plan in the Global Compact on Refugees (United Nations, 2018) – endorsed by all 193 UN member states in December 2018 – and UNHCR's (2019c) Refugee Education 2030 strategy. This integration drive for older displaced children is a fairly new endeavour, based on the recognition that displacement is increasingly protracted. In 2016, the constitutional right and legal requirement for 6 to 15-year-olds in Greece to attend public schooling was extended to include refugee and asylum-seeking children (AIDA, 2020). Law 4540/2018 (Article 13) determined that access should be permitted even when children are missing documents (such as previous school certificates), and that reaching 18 should not prevent enrolment in secondary education.

However, in practice, secondary-level responses have been delayed and limited. While reception classes (RFRE) were promptly established in primary schools in 2016, the scheme was only extended to include the Aegean islands and senior high school (*λύκειο*) in the 2018-19 school year (Ministry of Education, 2018). In theory, students aged 15-18 can now follow the RFRE 'core curriculum' of language and mathematics in general or 'intercultural' high schools, or attend vocational high schools. Teachers from the public system have also been seconded as Refugee Education Coordinators (RECs) to liaise between schools, refugee families, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other stakeholders to support and encourage integration (OECD, 2018). They may

enrol in public schools at any time during the school year (Palaiologou, Michail and Toumpoulidis, 2018). Those over 18 may also attend a Second Chance school for two years, which is taught in Greek, to gain the equivalent of a junior high school (*γυμνάσιο*) certificate.

The Ministry of Education (2017) has claimed itself that the many gaps in the state's response have been filled by intergovernmental organisations (IGOs) – such as UNICEF – and by civil society. These actors support the state's integration drive by providing teacher training, parent and guardian information sessions, interpretation services, school supplies, e-learning platforms, transport and other logistical assistance; as well as facilitating school access for youth in managed accommodation and organising homework support and language classes in public high schools (ESWG, 2018a; 2018b; 2018c; UNHCR, 2019; UNHCR, IOM and UNICEF, 2019). Beyond this, IGOs and NGOs provide a range of free learning opportunities: from employability and language training (mostly Greek and English) to arts and parenting workshops. These diverse NFE programmes are said to be active in 95% of the camps in the country, as well as across urban centres (OECD, 2018).

Challenges for Young Refugees' Post-Compulsory Educational Participation

Despite the above measures, participation rates among 15 to 18-year-old refugees in Greece remain low. During interviews, participants noted multiple interrelated, structural factors which work against inclusion initiatives and make it challenging for youth to continue learning. These are enumerated in the following section and can be grouped into three categories: reception, education system and school-level challenges.

The first challenge is the treatment young refugees receive on arrival in Greece. If they survive the sea crossing to the Aegean islands (or the land crossing in Evros), they may then encounter illegal pushbacks, detention and police brutality (Ferris and Kirişci, 2016; UNHCR, 2018a; CoE, 2019). Following this, they face containment in inhumane, overcrowded camp conditions on the islands, where children may be detained for months without outdoor exercise (Koulocheris, 2017; Save the Children, 2017; Baster and Merminod, 2019; RRE, 2019; Smith, 2019a). These experiences lead to reports of self-harm, suicide, aggressive behaviour, anxiety and depression (Farmakopoulou, Triantafyllou and Kolaitis, 2017; UNHCR, 2018b; CoE, 2019). The

longer they spend in these conditions, the more difficult youth may find it to transition back into 'normal' life in the new society – including in schools.

The second challenge is enduring uncertainty. Young refugees reported having limited resettlement options, uncertain legal statuses and increasing difficulty in being granted international protection. This is due to convoluted, shifting and severely delayed asylum procedures (UNICEF and REACH, 2017a). These issues were exacerbated by the return of the New Democracy party in July 2019, who immediately vowed to abolish appeals to asylum rejections (Smith, 2019b). Those aged 16-17 may, therefore, reach adulthood before receiving a decision, and thus lose protections or accommodation (EPIM, 2019; Mishra, 2019). According to participants, many youth live waiting for opportunities to leave, potentially via smugglers. This precarity affects their ability to attend school regularly and learn; as in physical terms, they may relocate at short notice, and psychologically, they live waiting for interviews and news about their asylum status or relocation possibilities. Young participants who were still waiting were also experiencing growing hostility: from bus drivers segregating passengers to verbal abuse on their way to school.

The third challenge is the type and location of their accommodation. The majority of young refugees are on the mainland, in somewhat better conditions than the islands (UNHCR, 2020). However, many are still in overcrowded camps which the Ministry of Education (2017, p.14) has itself described as 'horrendous'. These arrangements are a key predictor of school enrolment and drop-out rates, for several reasons: firstly, accommodation or residency arrangements may change suddenly, which adds to drop-out rates and means young refugees must begin the enrolment process again in another area; secondly, those in managed accommodation receive support with school enrolment; and thirdly, being accommodated in isolated camps and RICs far from urban centres means little infrastructure, limited transport to high schools, insufficient resources, less access to support networks and limited learning opportunities (UNICEF and REACH, 2017a; ESWG, 2018a; EPIM, 2019; Mishra, 2019; AIDA, 2020; UNHCR, 2020). Young participants complained about four-hour round trips to attend school, which required them to leave at 5 o'clock in the morning and return late in the evening.

The fourth challenge is the lack of long-term educational planning for older teenage refugees. While volunteers were quickly mobilised, RECs appointed and substitute teachers deployed to deliver reception classes, these actions were intended as

a temporary solution – based on a belief that most refugees would eventually be relocated or returned (OECD, 2017; Skleparis, 2018). The lack of long-term planning has particularly affected young refugees aged 15 and above: as being beyond compulsory schooling age, they were not deemed a priority for the same targeted actions as their younger peers (Ziomas, Capella and Konstantinidou, 2017; OECD, 2018). Participants described how teachers and RECs had to ‘press the issue’ in order for 15 to 18-year-olds to gain access; and then, when the secondary-level RFRE scheme did eventually start, enrolment procedures were unclear and severely delayed (ESWG, 2018a; 2018d; NCR, 2018). Even in early 2020, participants complained that reception class teachers were being appointed several months into the academic year. Until they arrive, refugee youth can only ‘observe’ regular classes with very little understanding or interaction. Outside of high schools, NFE provision was described as ad hoc, and often dependent on short-term volunteers and funding. This can result in programmes being discontinued, disrupted, inconsistent and repetitive.

The fifth challenge relates to young refugees’ limited progression pathways. Students in reception classes suffer from a lack of learning support, attainment, recognition of NFE achievements and willingness to support their transitions into ‘mainstream’ classes (Ziomas, Capella and Konstantinidou, 2017; Nagy, 2018; Simopoulos and Alexandridis, 2019). While a small number of Second Chance schools exist for those aged 18 and over (who have a primary school completion certificate or ability to pass a basic entrance exam in Greek), there is, as yet, no framework to integrate refugees into these structures. Various barriers prevent access to higher education: including the lack of scholarship programmes available; the need for certification of prior learning; and the challenge of passing the notorious Panhellenic exams to enter. These challenges, combined with a lack of support in transitioning to employment, deprive youth of future possibilities and cause them to lose their motivation to continue learning. As senior high school is not compulsory, high levels of personal motivation are crucial.

The sixth, related challenge pertains to the administrative difficulties of monitoring and coordinating refugee education for a ‘fluid’ and heterogeneous population (Ministry of Education, 2017). Funding for both formal and NFE initiatives, mostly originating from the European Commission and ECHO grants, has been described as unreliable, uncoordinated, badly absorbed and insufficiently monitored, and especially lacking at the secondary level (Koulocheris, 2017; OECD, 2018;

Anselme, Ghosn and van de Brug, 2019). On top of this, Greece is still recovering from the major economic crisis of 2008 and severe resource constraints in the entire public education system. With a plethora of actors involved, coordination has also presented an issue (Nagy, 2018). Participants lamented the lack of clarity on roles and responsibilities; the instability and lack of responsiveness of the public education system; the increasing bureaucracy for NFE providers; and an overall lack of state support for educators. Teachers complained that they had no appropriate materials for a multilingual student population and no coordination with the non-formal sector to share resources. Refugees themselves lack sufficient information on procedures and available services, and rely on NGOs for support (UNHCR, UNICEF and IOM, 2019).

The seventh challenge is segregation. Some believe that the system of reception classes in public schools has led to a segregated system which – while aiming at providing ‘normality’ – results in a reflection of the ‘ghettoised life’ of camps (Simopoulos & Alexandridis, 2019, p.28). Rather than facilitating their social integration, this has in fact contributed to their social exclusion (NCR, 2018; Skleparis, 2018). One reception class teacher described how she rarely sees teachers of morning classes around the school, as their contracted hours have finished by the time she arrives. This means that reception class teachers cannot attend the same meetings or coordinate with subject teachers on the support refugee students most require.

Exacerbating their social exclusion is the eighth challenge: the language barrier. While newcomers and their families speak myriad languages, they may not have had exposure to Greek prior to their arrival. Beyond being able to communicate with staff and peers, a high level of proficiency is required to study at the high school level; as well as to safely enter potentially hazardous environments (such as laboratories) in vocational high schools. While some roving interpreter schemes exist for the public sector, they are insufficient, and their remit only involves facilitating school-parent meetings.

The ninth challenge is the content and delivery of the upper-secondary curriculum. *Lykeio* is very much oriented towards university, and as such involves a demanding preparation programme for the Panhellenic exams. This puts pressure on teachers, who have a standardised curriculum to deliver and may not be adequately trained in adapting their materials and practice for a linguistically and culturally diverse student population. Refugee students may simply not be able to follow the curriculum, and so lose motivation – resulting in high drop-out rates. IGOs and NGOs are

attempting to fill this teacher training gap, but attendance is based on individual teachers' and principals' willingness to participate and the perceived needs of their institution.

According to participants, the education-related challenges described above are symptomatic of a system which was already struggling with inclusivity and funding even before the 'refugee crisis'. Rather than being the cause of its problems, this 'influx' – according to one coordinator – only brought pre-existing issues to the surface.

Ways Forward: Promoting Young Refugees' Post-Compulsory Educational Participation in Greece

This section details the actions participants believe the Greek state, IGOs and civil society should take to better support young refugees' access to and attendance in post-compulsory education. They include expanding learning opportunities; enriching existing structures; building (trusting) relationships; improving coordination and communication among all stakeholders; responding holistically; and promoting local-level responses.

Firstly, participants recommended expanding learning opportunities for 15 to 18-year-olds. This could take the form of a broader 'integration programme' for all newcomers, starting from the moment they submit their asylum application and covering language and various aspects of Greek life. At the European and national levels, participants strongly recommended targeted strategies for this age group in particular – as, according to one coordinator, 'everybody knows that this age group is the most vulnerable ... but nobody really does anything'. To do so, funds need to be earmarked for such purposes. The strategy should prescribe a long-term plan which takes into account refugees' multiple possible futures; whether in Greece, elsewhere in Europe or in their home country. As one teacher reflected, often when young refugees arrive, they do not even know which language to learn. She praised the non-formal alternatives available, such as arts and other technical courses, which promote motivation and self-efficacy; more so than the public system's 'very simplistic, focused, strict programme'.

More hours of instruction in schools were also recommended for young refugees, as well as supporting them to exploit the vocational route if do not wish to aim for university. However, it should not be a case of sending students to a vocational

school just because it is nearby; as one teacher put it, it requires coordination and counselling so that young refugees understand their options and can choose their own path. Second Chance schools may be a good option for those over 18 who have sufficient Greek and a desire to gain a junior high school certificate. However, these schools are few, and applicants must provide a primary level certificate or complete an entrance exam. As all routes through the public system require linguistic competency, a thorough preparation programme is required which covers language skills and an introduction to Greek school culture. In a similar vein to successful models in other contexts (OECD, 2018), this could start prior to the new school year – with language, arts and mathematics instruction – and gradually introduce students to more demanding academic subjects from September. This would avoid issues of youth being only ‘observers’ for several months, and could be organised at the local level, according to demand. If such a preparation programme is not possible, every effort should be made to ensure reception class teachers are in schools from the very beginning of the school year.

Secondly, besides opening up more learning opportunities, participants recommended enriching and broadening the existing system. For example, staff in high schools and Second Chance schools could benefit from support and training on inclusive education to make these spaces accessible and welcoming; not only for newcomers, but for all youth. This could involve training on new approaches, taking an international outlook and working to improve levels of understanding between all members of the school community. Participants described the underfunded education system as being in dire need of upheaval: particularly in terms of allowing teachers the flexibility to adapt methods and materials according to their increasingly diverse student body’s needs. As one teacher put it, the public sector can learn from NFE that ‘it doesn’t matter if you don’t have all the materials [or] a modern building ... you can shift your mentality’. At the national level, this flexibility could include recognising achievements in non-formal courses, especially when youth are missing school certificates; or being provided with a European ‘qualifications passport’ to certify diplomas from their home countries. This has been discussed for some time, but roll-out has been slow (Skleparis, 2017; CoE, 2021). Youth would also benefit from individualised plans which take into account their aspirations, prior learning, linguistic skills and whether they are accompanied, have financial support and other such factors.

Thirdly, youth also need time to get used to the new learning environment and build trusting relationships with staff and peers. While IGOs and NGOs have done ‘community sensitisation’ work in this regard, participants recommended that schools should also aim to build relationships with parents and guardians to counteract their distinct lack of trust of the government and its services. They could increase actions such as question-and-answer sessions, welcome days, after-school activities which foster friendships and opening up the space of the school to refugee-led events to increase their sense of belonging. Beyond this, families and youth need to see clear benefits of attending, particularly when it incurs costs: in terms of the time taken to travel long distances to school, money spent on materials and the inability to engage in income-generating activities. One particular support in this area is the RECs, whose mandate on paper is to make home visits across urban and camp settings, record absentees and collect statistics (Nagy, 2018; Tzoraki, 2019). In practice, they play an important role in mediating and building relationships between stakeholders and have a positive impact on participation rates. Refugee communities, in turn, rely heavily on their support in navigating complicated enrolment processes (*Refugee.info*, 2019). Participants recommended increasing the number of RECs and making them permanent Ministry of Education staff to improve engagement further. At the very least, showing young refugees that someone expects something of them – especially when they are unaccompanied – can have an important, positive psychological effect.

A focus on relationship-building would also address the reported issues of coordination and communication among the many actors involved in the educational response. While the inter-agency Education Sector Working Groups were praised for making progress in this regard – particularly through their support for school enrolment and monitoring activities – participants suggested that further relationships could be built between reception class teachers and wider school teams; between schools, families and social workers; between other state and non-state actors; and among civil society organisations. In schools, substitute teachers appointed for reception classes suggested having their contracts extended by as little as four extra hours per week, to allow them to participate in staff meetings, train colleagues in intercultural educational methods and learn which subject-specific language skills are most needed in regular classes. This would also help to tackle language issues; as would working more closely with non-formal providers to share useful, free materials such as multilingual dictionaries. To further promote language skills – as well as build confidence and new

relationships – youth could also be encouraged to participate in drama and other arts workshops organised by IGOs and NGOs.

Fourthly, the need for coordination and communication speaks to a greater need to respond holistically: to involve all actors in the response at all levels, and address the ways in which broader conditions for refugee youth impact their participation. For example, single female youth have complained about being placed in mixed accommodation with men, leading to safety concerns; and young mothers do not have the space or time to study alongside taking care of their children (UNHCR, 2018c). Listening to these needs and finding solutions – for example, by making efforts to provide single-sex housing and access to national childcare arrangements – would provide a secure psychological foundation and the freedom to not only access educational opportunities, but also to participate more fully. A holistic approach also recognises that friction between the wider public and the refugee community may also limit attendance. To simultaneously aim at social cohesion and ‘participatory parity’ (Fraser, 2009), the state’s actions should be inclusive of all those who require linguistic or psychosocial support. In this way, they will not appear to privilege newcomers over migrants who arrived before the current ‘crisis’, and could ease tensions with local communities; particularly in more deprived areas, where residents feel that their needs are being neglected while new arrivals benefit from Greek, European and other international support.

The final theme across interviews – as well as participatory assessments previously conducted in Greece (e.g. UNHCR, 2018c) – was the need for localised responses. This would mean devolving more powers to municipalities, handing over international initiatives to Greek partners and making greater efforts to leverage the skills and experience found in the refugee community. For local authorities, it would involve deciding for themselves what actions to take, based on their understanding of the particular needs of their residents and ability to meet them. For Greek and international NGOs, community-led responses would involve recruiting refugees as staff and volunteers – including youth, who would then gain work experience and employability skills – as well as adapting programming, curricula and teaching materials to the local context. Overall, it requires a recognition that young refugees do not integrate into a country or continent, but a local community; one which, in the case of Greece today, is increasingly a site of ‘overlapping displacements’ (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, 2015) and contestations of what it means to be ‘local’.

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to map out the (inter)national educational policy and rights frameworks concerning young refugees; how these have been implemented in Greece; the challenges of doing so; and potential ways forward, as suggested by interviewees and the wider (grey) literature. While young refugees' right to education is written into international conventions and Greek law, chronic underfunding, a lack of coordination and other administrative and political issues surrounding implementation have kept enrolment and attendance rates among 15 to 18-year-olds low. Participants called for a clear plan to support an age group which often slips through the cracks. This should, according to educators and other stakeholders, be a long-term strategy with targeted funding which devolves responsibility to the local level; permits flexibility; involves tailored support; and tries to overcome the fraught relationship between the public and non-state sectors to better coordinate resources and training opportunities. The goal should be to support youth, for as long as they remain in the country, and to set them on a positive path towards further education or employment; whether that is in Greece or elsewhere.

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Abbreviations

EU	European Union
IGO	Intergovernmental organisation
IOM	International Organization for Migration
NFE	Non-formal education
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
REC	Refugee Education Coordinator (<i>Greece</i>)
RFRE	Reception Facilities for Refugee Education (DYEP; <i>Greece</i>)
RIC	Reception and Identification Center (<i>Greece</i>)
SIL	Supported independent living
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund