Data Collection and Evidence Building to Support Education in Emergencies
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Data Collection and Evidence Building to Support Education in Emergencies

Guest editor
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Foreword

Four years ago, in its review of progress on the 2015 Education for All agenda, the 2015 Global Monitoring Report (GMR)1 deplored that more than 35% of out-of-school children live in conflict-affected areas. One year later, UNHCR claimed that only one child out of two living in conflict-affected areas is able to attend primary education, compared to a global trend reaching over 90% of primary school attendance2. The 2016 ODI report Education Cannot Wait further estimates that 75 million school-aged children and youth “are in desperate need of educational support”3. In addition, available data highlights that factors of marginalization in situations of conflict are not only being perpetrated but even increased, notably for girls who are 2.5 times more likely to be out of school than boys4. Emergency situations, which include both human conflicts and natural disasters, frequently span longer than a typical basic education cycle of 12 years. Despite education’s critical role in helping maintain some sense of normalcy, in protecting children by providing them with a safe place in precarious environments, and in preparing a future post-conflict or post-disaster, evidence and funding to improve education in these situations is woefully inadequate. What we do know highlights the urgency of seeking appropriate, effective and sustainable responses.

This NORRAG Special Issue focuses on why data and other kinds of evidence are nevertheless crucial for understanding and addressing situations of emergency and protracted crises. It also aims to provide insight into the ethical and material challenges to overcome in gathering evidence when priorities can seem to make such efforts both morally questionable and logistically impossible. Urgency stemming from immediate safety and health needs combined with inadequate human and material resources compel actors to give low priority to what can be seen as technocratic concerns. Research in emergency settings is complicated by safety concerns but also sensitive political, social and cultural environments making identification of “what works” a rather daunting task. The ecological validity of findings is usually limited to very specific contexts owing to the idiosyncratic nature of conflict and emergency situations. These in turn lead to weaker advocacy and lobbying power, critical to increase the level of support to EiE (education in emergencies).

The articles in this special issue, guest edited by Mary Mendenhall, Associate Professor of Practice in the International and Transcultural Studies Department at Teachers College, Columbia University, give details about the lack of data and evidence about good practices and critical needs of children in emergency situations. Many of the SDG indicators cannot be produced for children in conflict-affected areas, either at the global or at the local level. The lack of data and evidence severely undermines the ability of countries to develop sound and articulated education sector plans and long-term recovery. It also hampers appropriate monitoring and evaluation as well as the search for funding.

The present issue is organized in five different sections, which speak directly to policymakers, scholars, practitioners, civil society organizations, and stakeholders. Part 1 gives an overview of the states of research in EiE, emphasising opportunities and gaps. It provides a cartography of initiatives both at the global and local levels, perceived as opportunities to improve research in EiE fields. Authors share the view that there are important challenges and limits to be addressed.

Part 2 draws more specifically on methodologies for understanding “what works”, and therefore provides advice on “what did not work”. It highlights how complementary approaches are key to the design of effective, rigorous, participative and inclusive research frameworks.

Part 3 provides a panorama of promising practices for data
and evidence. Contributions from practitioners directly involved in the field give examples of effective education interventions while also raising concerns about the numerous challenges that they face in situations of forced displacement.

Part 4 digs into how data building and evidence tend to overlook critical EiE issues, especially when it concerns populations already marginalized before the emergency. Authors make the call for a greater anticipation of this issue, to reduce disparities in data building and evidence that could potentially harm the most vulnerable.

Finally, part 5 offers a reflection on ethics and quality research in EiE fields. Authors share their experiences conducting research in the EiE field and the challenges that they confronted; they conclude with strong advice for future stakeholders regarding data and evidence building in the EiE field. Overall, this issue provides contributions that further exemplify the call for more and better data in EiE, with specific programmatic actions to be taken by institutions as well as policy planning and implementation that needs to be undertaken by governments. Additional multimedia pieces to feed the discussion are shared on NORRAG’s website at https://www.norrag.org/ni-02.

Continuing on the work initiated in NORRAG Special Issue 01, launched in 2018, entitled “The Right to Education Movements and Policies: Promises and Realities”, this issue seeks to include contributions from various countries. NSI02’s call for papers encouraged submissions in Arabic, English, French and Spanish from researchers, scholars and practitioners.

Mary Mendenhall carries out research on education in emergencies, with particular emphasis on refugee education policies and practices. Her research interests and expertise look at the quality, relevance, and sustainability of educational support provided by international and national actors for displaced children and youth in conflict-affected and post-conflict countries. Her extensive experience gives her the unique position of bringing together scholarship and practice. She currently leads several projects, involving scholars, students and alumni, that aim to build on collaborative partnerships between Teachers College and international organizations, including the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) and the larger international education community.

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Introduction

The second NORRAG special issue is dedicated to data collection and evidence building to support education in emergencies (EiE). As many parts of the world continue to experience protracted conflict and displacement, the various stakeholders that make up the EiE field—the communities directly impacted by crises; national governments in both crisis-affected and host countries; local, national, and international organizations; academic institutions; and donors—must continue our collective efforts to generate robust, quality evidence to support effective policies, programs, and practices in these settings. It is apparent from the enclosed articles that there is no single way to measure effectiveness, and challenges to providing quality EiE require creative and holistic approaches across the qualitative-quantitative spectrum. A strong evidence base reflects the needs of those most acutely affected by crisis and conflict through responsive, timely, and participatory methodologies.

While education is now recognized as a critical sector in humanitarian response, it is still one of the most underfunded sectors. This means that our response to the growing emphasis on data and evidence must be both thoughtful and strategic. Every effort must be made to engage in collaborative processes and to share research approaches, findings, and recommendations through open-source mechanisms to ensure that we are learning from one another, not duplicating efforts unnecessarily, and not repeating mistakes learned by other actors in different settings. NORRAG and the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) are working hard to support different platforms for sharing our collective learning. As guest editor of the second NORRAG Special Issue, I have the pleasure to present the enclosed articles to NORRAG’s readership. I hope that you will finish reading this edition and feel informed, inspired, and energized to continue working for and with the students, teachers, community members, and education authorities, among others, in their efforts to provide a quality education for all.

Opportunities, but Mostly Gaps, in the Field

Montjouridès and Liu open the first section by capturing what we know and what we do not know about the field of education in emergencies, with an emphasis on the real and persistent gaps in compiling quality data and evidence. They recount the work that NORRAG and INEE have been engaged in to help make existing data and evidence in EiE more accurate, available, and accessible. Building on the “New Way of Working” momentum ignited by the World Humanitarian Summit in 2016, Buckner, Smiley, and Cremin highlight an opportunity to bridge the humanitarian-development divide by thinking differently about data. Informed by their work in the Middle East, the authors suggest that we look at data usage across various types of actors as a starting point for promoting data sharing and tool development for data collection and dissemination. They argue that these efforts are needed as protracted crises require humanitarian and development actors to approach their work through a more integrated approach, whether they are focused on sector coordination, program design, evaluation, policymaking, or advocacy.

While the EiE field is eager to seize on opportunities to improve data- and evidence-generating approaches, significant gaps must be addressed in this process. Anselme, Ghosn, and de Brug point out that despite the inclusion of adolescents and youth and corollary notions of lifelong learning in international education agendas, there are a lack of quality data and education indicators about the lives and needs of young people (both in and out of school). To make more informed and evidence-driven decisions about programming and policies for youth, the authors highlight the need for: more and better data about individuals over 18 years old, including the quality of the formal and non-formal programs they are participating in; clarity about which actors are best placed to collect these data and the capacities and skills needed to do this well; and a push towards systematized and harmonized approaches to ensure quality, comparability, and generalizability of data across actors, programs, and contexts.

Dutton echoes the disconnect between the lifelong learning agenda on the one hand and the lack of attention paid to tertiary education for displaced populations on the other hand. Drawing on the Syrian refugee response in Jordan, he illustrates numerous lessons learned when different actors
tried to collect more robust data through disparate and untethered initiatives and how a harmonized approach could lead to more comprehensive data and sustainable systems. Dutton also reminds us that the data collection process can contribute to raising expectations among participants, and lead to frustration when the needs of young people aspiring to begin or continue tertiary education are not met.

Halman captures the challenges that aid workers face to collect meaningful data in the aftermath of natural disasters. In the post-earthquake response in Nepal, Halman depicts the geographical and social barriers that aid workers confronted in their efforts to assess damages and needs among the local population. He discusses the need for aid workers to draw on local and indigenous knowledge and capacities to overcome these barriers, and the existing local staff who are already in place in long-standing operations to support crisis responses.

Both Yusuf and Achraouaou, in their respective articles, point to the need for better information and data management for improving humanitarian response. Yusuf reflects on his organization’s work responding to the crisis in Syria and the critical need for databases to be integrated across sectors to ensure more comprehensive responses to the needs of those affected by the crisis. Achraouaou shares insights about the state of the field in Morocco and the need for institutional changes that bring together government entities and research centers in order to better utilize and analyze languishing raw data that could be used to inform education program design and implementation. Mert and Kesbiç draw on existing literature to illustrate the education policies for Syrian refugees living in Turkey and commend the Turkish government for its efforts to include this population in the national system. However, they also make the case for maintaining quality, assessing both academic and social outcomes, and combatting social exclusion in schools. Further, the authors cite the critical need for more and better data about gender and education, causes of dropout in later grades, inclusion and exclusion of refugees with special needs, and language issues.

Finally, Thompson, Lahmann, and Burde reflect on their collective experiences working on INEE’s Journal on Education in Emergencies (JEiE) and the Journal’s efforts to create a research community among academics and practitioners and to establish a platform to publish robust findings from the EiE field. The authors share the steps they have taken and the challenges they have worked to overcome to compile a high-quality resource that ensures a diversity of perspectives from around the world. The Journal will continue to be an important resource for generating and sharing evidence about our collective learning and research in the EiE field.

Methodologies for Understanding “What Works”

The needs of those most affected by crisis and conflict are diverse. As such, EiE research requires varied methodological approaches that ask a range of pertinent questions and illuminate different understandings about what is happening across EiE/crisis settings. Kelcey and Monaghan draw on their respective scholarly projects to reconstruct the education histories of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and to highlight the importance of historical approaches for present-day efforts to improve EiE research, and education policies and programs. Given the complicated nature of conflict and crisis, historical approaches help us better understand and examine power, politics, and other undercurrents affecting education in these settings. Rodríguez-Gómez sets her sights on the limitations and possibilities that researchers face when carrying out ethnographic research in armed conflict settings. She reflects on her own work with Colombian refugees in Ecuador and the care that needs to be taken when designing research approaches, as researchers and study participants might have different understandings of public policy categories, such as “refugees,” “ex-combatants,” and “guerrillas.” She further points out that the use of these terms and/or the dissemination of research findings through inappropriate channels can also compromise the safety of both participants and researchers in these settings.

Bogdanov, Basenko, and Zaleska draw on research about the effects of the conflict between the Ukrainian Army and Russia-supported separatist fighters in Eastern Ukraine on children’s psychosocial well-being, to demonstrate how a Ukrainian university, the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, and a United Nations agency worked together through a meaningful partnership to support quality education and psychosocial support interventions. The early use of qualitative approaches created opportunities for the researchers to draw on local conceptualizations of resilience rather than imposing pre-existing conceptualizations from other contexts. The project’s mixed-methods approach also allowed researchers to benefit from the advantages inherent to each method at different stages of program development, piloting, monitoring, and evaluation.

Thomsen shares findings from the USAID-funded Nigeria Education Crisis Response, which sought to provide access to quality education to children and youth in northeast Nigeria. To respond to the challenging and ever-changing context in this region, USAID and its partners facilitated feedback loops with local stakeholders to ensure that any program interventions would continue to be flexible and responsive to the needs of the local community. This approach created opportunities to respond to concerns about girls’ enrollment in school, teachers’ disciplinary practices, and the need for more support from government partners. Thomsen also shares the challenges and lessons learned that arose during the project in trying to manage continuous assessments and to measure social-emotional learning outcomes.
Brown and Ngoga lament the poor quality of data that can emerge due to the numerous challenges present in the EiE field. Drawing on their work with a randomized field trial in Niger, the authors share how some of these challenges can be avoided through the establishment of core competencies, professional development, and ongoing quality supervision of enumerators, while also noting the need for additional research about the dispositions, skills, and behaviors that predict high-quality enumerator performance.

Kennedy, Moghli, Chase, Pherali, and Laurillard share the promising co-design methodology they are using to develop and test the use of what they call “Massive Online Open Collaborations (MOOCs),” which involve blended learning approaches for teacher professional development. The authors show how digital technology provides a platform for teachers to be both teacher educators and researchers as they share their experiences, knowledge, and skills of what works in their own settings. Continuing the focus on participatory approaches, Kurawa considers different research perspectives on the role that children with special needs might play in research activities. He compares and contrasts emancipatory, empowerment, and interpretivist research designs and argues that there are different models of inclusion across this spectrum. Oddy discusses child participation approaches among refugee children and youth in northern Uganda who missed out on primary education and later participated in an accelerated education program. Although working with children and youth in this way may take longer and might entail heavier involvement by implementing agencies and researchers, Oddy indicates that the advantages in recognizing children as active agents in the research and evaluation process outweigh the disadvantages.

Promising Practices for Data and Evidence in Forced Displacement Contexts

In order to understand the effectiveness of education interventions, practitioners are translating the diversity of methodological approaches into data collection tools, information system strengthening processes, and monitoring and evaluation designs. This section shares promising approaches from practitioners working in contexts of forced displacement while highlighting the specific challenges to data collection and evidence building in displacement situations.

Tolani, Morales, and Wheaton discuss USAID’s Rapid Education and Risk Analysis (RERA) tool and its use in South Sudan to show the effect of the interactions among the root causes of conflict, community dynamics, and context on the education sector. RERA draws on mixed-methods approaches and a combination of conflict, disaster risk reduction, and resilience frameworks to derive findings that can immediately inform programming designs and activities. In South Sudan, the RERA found that the conflict has exacerbated the challenges for out-of-school children and youth, orphans and separated children, girls, and pastoralists, which ultimately led to renewed attention and expansion of protection services in USAID-funded programming.

Hure and Taylor draw on their work with UNHCR in Kenya to depict a promising approach to partnerships where government, development, and humanitarian actors work together to create an education information management system that promotes inclusion of refugee learners in the national education system. They stress the point that accurate and comprehensive education data on the refugee population need to be accounted for in national processes; however, they also indicate that the system must be flexible to account for varying types of identification and documentation that refugees may possess. It must also be ethical to ensure protective measures are put in place to ensure confidentiality. The new national system also needs to take into consideration the information and data needs of humanitarian and development agencies in an effort to streamline systems and processes for data management in the country for citizens and refugees alike.

Krupar, D’Sa, Westrope, and Finder Johna highlight the need for rigorous assessments of learning and equity, and the interactions between the two, in contexts of conflict and displacement. They share results from a new, rapid assessment tool—Holistic Assessment of Learning and Development Outcomes (HALDO)—developed by Save the Children that measures literacy, numeracy, social and emotional learning, and executive functioning. Their pilot study conducted in Dadaab, Kenya examined the psychometric properties of the tool and found that the tool was accurate for determining an aggregate baseline of learning for 4 to 12-year-olds; however, they remind users that this tool requires contextualization and adaptation to each new setting and is not meant to be used at the level of individual learners. Focusing on a different tool developed by Save the Children, Bashir and Bali discuss how the Improving Learning Environments Together (ILET) resource uses assessments for improving learning environments in humanitarian settings through community participation. ILET includes data collection tools, real-time analysis, and data visualization through a web-based platform. Anecdotal evidence from a pilot in Uganda indicates that teachers, parents, and children, as well as EiE experts in local, national, and international agencies, who were engaged in the process found the participatory and transparent approach valuable.

MacEwen reflects on UNESCO’s International Institute for Educational Planning’s (IIEP) capacity development process for supporting crisis-sensitive planning work in Ethiopia. As Ethiopia works toward national inclusion of refugees in its education system, UNESCO IIEP is poised to build on its ongoing work in the region. MacEwen shares the promise of this approach as well as the challenges (e.g. outdated population data, misalignment between refugee vs. host community data, lack of access to needed hardware and software to support
accurate data collection, engagement by local, political stakeholders. As a precursor to the more comprehensive education sector planning addressed above, Segniagbeto, with UNESCO IIEP in Dakar discusses the importance of education sector analysis in Central and West Africa. He reminds us that while the ravages of Ebola cannot be forgotten, there are other chronic vulnerabilities in the region (e.g. chronic food insecurity, natural disasters, attacks on schools) that cause equal damage to access and quality of education.

Davis and Payan share promising findings from the USAID-funded Asegurando la Educación project on school safety in Honduras. They show how school communities responded to the results of survey findings about school safety and put in place timely and cost-effective policies and practices to reduce school-based violence. This approach further underscores the importance of sharing research findings with those affected by crises (and not just the academic community, implementing organizations, etc.), since they may be most compelled to make needed changes.

Amidst the steady growth of educational technologies and actors in the field of EiE, El-Desouky acknowledges the lack of evidence about the effectiveness of these approaches. Reflecting on his work with Libraries Without Borders’ Ideas Box among Congolese children in Burundi, he examines the organization’s efforts to better measure learning outcomes and psychosocial well-being among refugee children and adolescents. Initial findings show that students whose lessons took place within the Ideas Box space experienced improved psychosocial well-being and scored higher on academic tests than the control group. Qualitative interviews with the teachers indicated that students who attended lessons in the Ideas Box space expressed more curiosity, classroom engagement, and interaction than students in the control group. El-Desouky rightfully points out that the impact study only looked at whether or not the classes were held in the Ideas Box and that future studies would need to take into consideration other factors (e.g. teachers’ experiences, preparation, and motivation, among others).

More Data Needed about Critical EiE Issues

The EiE evidence base is growing quickly; however, there continue to be gaps in our knowledge and evidence, particularly around the needs of students with disabilities, languages, community responses to school violence, and teacher management. Through a case study of Turkey, Acar, Pinar-Irmak, and Martin examine the dearth of available data in the EiE field about children with special needs. They point to a lack of trained practitioners, limited assessment tools with good psychometric properties, and language barriers as key challenges that hinder the identification and assessment of children with special needs. Where services and programs do exist, there are a lack of data about their quality. The authors call for more rigorous data collection efforts that result in publicly accessible databases, a universal assessment system, and ongoing training for educators to learn how to conduct quality assessments.

Turning the focus to language issues, van Ginkel and Fadil examine linguistic diversity in Afghanistan and how language mapping research can contribute to the quality of education. In their study of a USAID-funded primary education initiative, Afghan Children Read, the authors studied the linguistic realities in and around schools and what classroom practices teachers were using when students did not speak the language of instruction. Despite some challenges related to security concerns and the gender of data collectors, the research illustrates that quality data collection can be conducted to help inform evidenced-based education policies in conflict-affected settings.

Symmonds writes about the successes and challenges of a community-based education initiative for girls across 16 provinces in Afghanistan. The consortium of partners involved in the project applied a quasi-experimental external evaluation methodology to help determine what works for girls’ education. Results showed positive effects on girls’ access, learning, and retention; however, findings also pointed to concerns about the need for broader engagement of female teachers and the overall sustainability of community-based approaches. The results of this study have helped to scale up project activities and to inform the development of national community-based education policies and girls’ education strategies.

Bengtsson, Hinz, Naylor, and West draw on available data about teachers of refugees in Ethiopia in order to identify key evidence gaps and related barriers to effective teacher management in refugee contexts. They advocate for studies that would generate more data about teachers’ lives and their interpretations of education policies, and share initial findings from field work they are conducting to fill these gaps. The early qualitative data findings reveal explanations for high turnover among teachers, including low pay and disproportionate and inequitable policies for teacher compensation, to cite just one example.

Conducting Quality Research

The final section of NSI2 tackles the equally important issues of researcher preparation, knowledge creation and exchange, and ethics in EiE research approaches.

Maglio and Pherali provide a comprehensive overview of the ethical dilemmas that researchers confront when conducting studies in conflict-affected and crisis settings. They wrestle with the tensions between researchers’ roles in safeguarding research participants and the overall lack of professional development that is needed to help prepare researchers to carry out ethical projects in humanitarian contexts. The authors cite the critical gaps that often exist when different agencies hire research consultants; the agencies often do not have ethical standards
and oversight in place, and the researchers are working under tight timelines that may lead to shortchanging more ethical approaches. Adelman and Chopra continue this line of inquiry by reflecting on the challenges that doctoral students face as they conduct research in EiE contexts, often disconnected from local organizations and with varying degrees of human, financial, and security-related support from their home institutions. They address the different considerations that need to be made when: introducing yourself and establishing your presence at a research site; building rapport, managing expectations, and navigating relationships with research participants; and tending to personal security, self-care, and well-being while conducting research in challenging contexts.

Martin and Umubyeyi share their experiences working together through a community-based action project that created opportunities for co-researching, co-authoring, and co-presenting with participants-as-researchers. The approach that Martin and Umubyeyi engaged in shows how co-researching supports self-determination and agency among research participants and creates meaningful opportunities for community members to speak for themselves.

Last but not least, Steele illustrates the process that she and her Syrian research partners engaged in to safely and ethically collect data amidst active conflict in Syria. In her discussion, she shares some of the steps the research team took to: protect the identities of key informants and enumerators; establish clear guidelines on which team members would collect certain types of data; and mitigate the influence of Western priorities and perspectives on the research study. The explanation of the team’s use of informal money transfers, offline data collection, low bandwidth communication protocol, and trusted networks will be helpful for other researchers contemplating research in conflict settings.

Summing Up

NSI2 captures new ways of thinking about data across humanitarian and development spheres, promising methodologies and tools, and strategies for overcoming the significant challenges of conducting quality research studies in EiE and protracted crisis contexts. The authors offer clear recommendations for establishing a robust evidence base to better inform policies and programming and the benefits of feeding real-time results back into programmatic designs and community-based decision-making processes. They advocate for partnerships across different actors that emphasize the strengths of each, including closer and more meaningful engagement with research participants and better use and integration of data into national systems. They continue to call for multi-year funding that allows adequate space for researchers and evaluators to measure educational change over time. The examples presented in this issue demonstrate the strengths of different types of methodological approaches, and of never favoring one approach over another, but rather allowing the research questions and the objectives of the research to drive these decisions. There is a clear mandate for our collective EiE community to develop data management and analysis systems that are systematic, harmonized, sustainable, and yet flexible to the ever-changing circumstances inherent to crisis-affected settings. These characteristics are not mutually exclusive. Finally, there is a clarion call to uphold research ethics, improve researcher capacities, and ensure safety for participants and researchers alike, despite the challenges that we face in conducting this work.

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Part 1

Opportunities, but Mostly Gaps, in the Field
Data and Evidence on Education in Emergencies: Linking Global Concerns with Local Issues

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Summary
This article discusses how the global education community is still missing a global approach to foster access, production, and dissemination of data and evidence in EiE. Despite early warnings about the critical lack of data and evidence in EiE and against unprecedented trends of violence and natural disaster occurrences many of the issues highlighted in the past remain very much valid today.

Keywords
Global Governance
Data Gaps
Research
SDG4

Data and Evidence in Education and Emergencies: A Recurrently Pressing Issue
At the beginning of this decade, the critical lack and poor quality of data in conflict-affected areas was identified as one of the main failures of the global education community, adding to the four other failures recognized by the Education for All Global Monitoring Report: protection, provision, reconstruction, and peacebuilding (Montjourides, 2013; UNESCO, 2011). This echoed broader concerns emerging from the academic community about the scarcity of research in education in emergency (EiE) settings. At the time, the state of affairs was clear: specific geographic regions were under-studied, so were specific crisis contexts (e.g. the long-term impact of natural disasters and chronic emergencies on education), and vulnerable groups were left behind. One notable example was the case of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), who, although more numerous than refugees, were significantly under-studied and dramatically absent from the global education statistical picture (Conflict and Education Research Group at Oxford University & Teachers College International Education Group, 2010; Montjourides, 2013). The question is, eight years down the road (the typical duration of a lower secondary education cycle), has this changed? Have we made progress while violence reached an all-time high in 2016 and remains at unprecedented levels (Dupuy & Rustad, 2018)? How are we faring against the surge of weather-related disasters that have increased by almost 50% since 2007 (Hawkes, 2017)? Has the commitment of the global education community matched these dramatic trends? It would take more than the space allocated for this short piece to answer these questions but our assessment suggests that the answer lies in the realm of “probably not enough” progress has been made. There have been new developments, yet some of the issues raised yesterday remain valid today. The prerequisite of available and accessible data and evidence has not been met yet and continues to undermine efforts of the global education community to tackle the challenge of providing quality education opportunities to children in emergency settings.
What We Know Is That We Do Not Know

A few key facts highlight the continuing urgency of the situation. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), there are 69 million forcibly displaced people worldwide, 40 million of whom are IDPs and 25 million refugees. Between 2005 and 2014, there were more than 3,500 disasters; 80% were extreme climate events that affected a total of 1.7 billion people (Guha-Sapir & Hoyois, 2015). Nearly half of the world’s refugees are below 18 years of age and disasters predominantly affect the most vulnerable populations, notably children. In more than 80% of cases, the duration of conflict is longer than a typical upper secondary education cycle (12 years) and it was estimated that 75 million children were in need of support as the result of crisis situations in 2015 (ODI, 2016).

While these numbers provide important reference points, what is also critical to acknowledge in this global picture is an issue that is well-known to cause headaches for statisticians: missing data. Besides the obvious issue of timeliness of data collection, which is recurrent in emergency situations, there are additional examples of the poor quality of data in these settings, most notably the gaps in existing data. For instance, the most recent UNHCR report about refugee education provides only a few global statistics on enrollment and out-of-school children (UNHCR, 2018a). The report does not provide any global numbers on learning, early childhood, gender parity, or even teachers. This almost seems to be a step back from what was possible under UNHCR’s previous monitoring system—the Standards and Indicators—which made it possible to look at gender disparities and pupil-teacher ratios (Montjourides, 2013; UNESCO, 2011). It is notable that within its strategic priorities, UNHCR assesses the educational situation of children in its countries of operation solely based on the share of children enrolled in primary education (UNHCR, 2018b). This assessment approach is a far cry from the list of targets and indicators against which all countries will have to demonstrate progress and report on as part of their commitment to achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 (United Nations, 2015).

At the global level, there is not enough consistent data collection to produce a robust and credible number of out-of-school children in conflict-affected countries and crisis situations. Recent attempts by the Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Report and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics stopped in 2016 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics & Global Education Monitoring Report, 2016), and even the 2019 Global Education Monitoring (GEM) report on migration and displacement was not able to produce global figures on the educational situation of children forcibly displaced by crises (UNESCO, 2018). Again, this is worlds apart from the list of 46 SDG indicators that ought to be reported for each of the 200+ countries in the statistical tables of the GEM report.

Addressing Data and Evidence Issues: Making Existing Resources Available and Accessible

Data are only one part of the story. NORRAG is working together with the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), including members of the Data and Evidence Collaborative and the INEE Education Policy Working Group (INEE, n.d.) to address some of the key issues raised by members of the INEE network, namely: the absence of systematic mechanisms to make existing data and evidence in EiE available to a wider base of users, and the absence of tools and methodologies to collect and disseminate education-related data and evidence in EiE. As part of this collaboration, NORRAG analyzed survey data from 290 respondents (all INEE members) about two potentially critical resources for stakeholders involved with EiE: the INEE Academic Space and Data and Statistics webpages (INEE, n.d.). Respondents described the two resources as limited in terms of providing up-to-date research and data in general, as well as lacking materials about ongoing crises and emergencies and local and smaller scale programmes. Local and smaller scale programmes, in particular, are the norm rather than the exception in emergency settings with dozens of institutional actors often involved in emergency responses. For example, the Syrian regional response includes more than 130 stakeholders in education (United Nations, 2019). Yet, there are a critical lack of data and evidence collection mechanisms that would enable education actors to take advantage of the wealth of programmatic evidence being produced on the ground. Other needs expressed by members of the INEE network include the need for more impact evaluations and qualitative empirical research, and the need to produce and curate methodologies and tools to support education interventions and analysis in emergency situations. Additionally, almost half of all respondents highlighted the issues of inclusive education and conflict sensitive education as thematic areas where more data and evidence are needed.

Towards an EiE Knowledge Hub?

While these results reflect only the needs of a small portion of the education community they tend, together with the current quality of the global education statistical picture, to validate the idea that much more is needed to appropriately address building an evidence-based picture of the educational situation of children in emergency situations. The absence of a central and structured repository of data and compendium of evidence in EiE generates high transaction costs for those who seek to rapidly produce a situational analysis or design an intervention based on existing best practices. It also means that the balance of power remains tilted in favor of stakeholders from the Global North who have better access to scarce but existing data and research on EiE through their knowledge management infrastructures, and are thus better equipped to respond to calls for proposals, which increasingly demand evidence-based approaches. More than two-thirds of all respondents to the INEE survey are based in...
the Global South, showing the importance of soliciting feedback and integrating inputs from all actors as we seek to improve the production, collection, and dissemination of data and evidence in EiE. Additionally, the production of global evidence is undermined by difficulties related to collecting and harmonizing existing data from multiple actors and often produced under severe time and resource constraints. Under these settings, business-as-usual approaches of piecemeal funding and sporadic estimations of a few global figures will continue to generate a sub-optimal response to a dire global need. It is thus important that the global education community comes up with a sustainable solution that fosters not only evidence-based approaches for and by all but also addresses the issue of uncoordinated data and evidence production in an environment characterized by a multiplicity of actors, issues, processes, and funding sources. In the absence of such a response, any future prospect to produce sound global numbers will be undermined, thus perpetuating the exclusion of children in emergency settings from the global education picture, weak Education Sector Plans, insufficient and misallocated funding, and inefficient policy interventions. It is hoped that the current momentum around the production of global public goods and the increase in resources and focus on EiE will enable global education actors to produce a viable and sustainable platform, which can serve as the reference knowledge hub on EiE and contribute to substantial improvements in the quality of analysis, research, funding allocation, and advocacy in education in emergency situations.

References
A New Way of Thinking About Education in Emergencies Data

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Summary
This article summarizes findings from 35 interviews with key stakeholders working in the Middle East on their data needs. It argues that one potential entry point for transcending the humanitarian-development divide in data systems is to focus on data usage and concludes with an analytic framework for education in emergencies data that discusses the needs and challenges associated with different data uses.

Keywords
Data
Data Usage
Middle East

A New Way of Thinking About Education in Emergencies Data
In conflict-affected contexts, timely and accurate data can be difficult to access. A lack of data poses challenges for educational organizations providing programs to children in need. Publicly available data are often fragmented or difficult to navigate online, as the humanitarian-development divide is reflected and reproduced by data systems that differ in process and structure.

This article draws on 35 stakeholder interviews to understand the data needs of organizations working in Education in Emergencies (EiE) in the Middle East, spanning both humanitarian and development sectors. We found that different actors produce and use data for different purposes, which complicates data sharing and navigation. We argue that one potential entry point for transcending the humanitarian-development divide in EiE data is to focus on data usage as a starting point for promoting data sharing and developing tools for data collection and dissemination.

The Humanitarian-Development Divide in Data for Education in Emergencies
Differences between the humanitarian and development sectors are long-standing and seemingly intractable due to the sectors’ distinct mandates, time frames, funding mechanisms, and relationships with political actors (Mendenhall, 2014). However, the division of labor between humanitarian and development programming seems increasingly unsustainable due to a dramatic rise in protracted conflict.

A new framework for strengthening humanitarian-development coherence was adopted at the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS) in 2016, in which global leaders called for a “new way of working” that transcends the long-standing divide between...
humanitarian and development actors (CIC, 2016). The “New Way of Working” (NWOW) is based on the idea of achieving collective outcomes, building on the comparative advantages of a diverse range of actors over multi-year timeframes (CIC, 2016). The NWOW begins by defining collective outcomes, or shared results, to reduce risk and vulnerability (UNOCHA, 2018). It then draws on the concept of comparative advantage to outline how humanitarian and development actors can work to deliver on outcomes together. Although the NWOW is still in its early stages of implementation and subject to debate, there is optimism over the potential of the NWOW to bridge seemingly intractable divisions between sectors.

However, what the NWOW means for questions of data collection and dissemination has received less attention. Addressing the NWOW for EiE data is an important issue, given the fact that the humanitarian-development divide is reflected and reproduced by data systems that differ in terms of data collection purposes, processes, dissemination structures, relevant indicators, and time frames. In this article, we suggest that the focus on collective outcomes advocated by NWOW indicates a need for “A New Way of Thinking About Data,” that can facilitate a NWOW for education in conflict-affected settings. Below, we present findings from a stakeholder consultation and present a new framework for thinking about data in EiE, which foregrounds data usage.

Findings and Discussion
The overarching finding from interviews was that different actors produce and use data for different purposes, which presents challenges for data sharing and dissemination. Below, we categorize respondents’ primary uses of data into five categories.

Sector Coordination: Within the global humanitarian sector, interviews pointed to an extensive network of organizations supporting data collection at the global level, and strong partnerships among various actors working in EiE. United Nations (UN) agencies, through the OCHA Cluster System, and UNICEF as the lead in education, have systematized data collection and dissemination by partners through an online platform called ActivityInfo, where data on the humanitarian response are collected and reported directly by partners related to their own programming and beneficiaries. Relevant indicators include the total number of beneficiaries receiving programs; children receiving education grants; children enrolled in formal or non-formal education, etc.

However, partners’ participation is voluntary and definitions of educational programming can vary tremendously, meaning that current mechanisms do not capture the full picture of the educational programming youth receive. Moreover, there are more data on the supply of educational services than on demand for education, including total number of children in need. In some cases, educational targets are set very crudely — multiplying the total number of refugees or internally displaced people by proportion of the population that is school-aged. Stakeholders stressed that there is a need for more accurate and localized data on children in need of education.

Program Design and Evaluation: The key finding from consultations with NGOs is that educational program providers working in EiE use data to inform program design and implementation. These actors want data for needs assessments and they seek validated tools to determine program effectiveness. When faced with a lack of data, educational providers often depend on other partners’ data to inform understandings of context and capacity. Despite using data in similar ways, stakeholders emphasized that the conflict dynamics matter, and dramatically affect the types of possible programming, and therefore shape data needs and uses. Interestingly, stakeholders explained that contexts of protracted conflict have forced actors to re-think their historic distinctions. Some humanitarian actors are increasingly adopting long-term perspectives; for example, stakeholders in the BPRM stated that they wanted to collect data on students’ learning outcomes. Meanwhile, in Yemen, USAID is funding humanitarian organizations and interventions through recent programs and are directing...
funding to UNICEF to fund the International Rescue Committee and Save the Children to do remedial educational programming. These shifts suggest changes in programming. Measuring student learning outcomes was typically viewed as in line with the capacity-building mandate of the development sector, while humanitarian funding was typically short-term and focused on access to schooling to restore normalcy to children’s lives.

**Policy and Decision-Making:** In our interviews with a diverse range of U.S. government actors, we found that donors need data to be able to make strategic decisions about where and what to fund. Actors in these settings wanted more timely data. For example, we found that the USAID team in Yemen was feeding indicators on education to mission staff in order to facilitate scenario-based planning that is flexible to the changing conflict dynamics and humanitarian crisis.

**Conclusion**

The well-established humanitarian/development divide in EiE is reproduced by data systems that collect different types of indicators, at different intervals, and disseminate them on distinct platforms. This article argues that we must foreground data usage in conversations about educational data in conflict-affected areas, moving away from talking about data in EiE in the abstract to specifying data for what, where, and for what purpose. More broadly, the findings point to a need to improve the navigability of EiE data for data consumers by curating education data sources via a data usage approach. Our ongoing work on data for EiE in the Middle East points to the fact that there are many disparate forms of data and various dissemination venues for EiE data, making it difficult for non-specialists to find up-to-date and relevant data needed to answer specific questions. New initiatives to improve the accessibility, reliability, accuracy, and consistency of data collection and dissemination of EiE data are needed, but these new initiatives must also account for the varied data needs of different actors and must consider how data needs and uses vary by conflict context, existing infrastructure, and the experience and capacity of users.

**Advocacy:** Finally, another important usage of data in EiE is advocacy. Humanitarian organizations and governments are using data to advocate for certain policies or to seek funding. Stakeholders said that advocacy often relies on narrative; both aggregated statistics are needed to present the scale of a crisis, but stakeholders stressed that personalized narratives of individual students and impact are also powerful.

Table 1 summarizes the primary data uses and audiences for EiE data. They are not meant to be representative of all uses, however. Moreover, we emphasize that within these overarching categories, data needs and uses are adapted to what is possible and desirable in a given conflict context and to the capacities and needs of specific users.

**Table 1: Primary Data Uses and Audiences in EiE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Usage</th>
<th>Typical Data Audiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sector coordination</td>
<td>UN agencies; humanitarian organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiding program design</td>
<td>Education specialists; technical officers in implementing partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating effectiveness</td>
<td>Monitoring and evaluation officers; program officers in implementing partners; researchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiding policy and decision-making</td>
<td>Funding agencies and donors; national governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>Advocacy organizations (UN agencies; Human Rights Watch); national governments advocating for funding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References**


Data and Evidence Gaps in Addressing the Educational Needs of Vulnerable Adolescents and Youth in Situations of Crisis

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Summary
Based on RET International’s project experience in Afghanistan, Chad, Kenya, Lebanon, and Turkey, this article examines recurrent data and evidence gaps on adolescents and youth in situations of crisis that pose constraints on designing and improving education responses in the areas where we work. The article explains how RET addressed these challenges and shares concrete recommendations on how the situation could be improved.

Keywords
Education  
Displacement  
Data and Evidence Gaps  
Adolescents and Youth

Introduction
Recent developments in the international agenda have started to impact the field of education in emergencies, particularly the transition from a prioritisation of primary education towards a focus on life-long learning. This is visible in international frameworks like the Sustainable Development Goals, the World Humanitarian Summit’s Global Compact for Young People in Humanitarian Action (2016), and the Education Cannot Wait (ECW) initiative, all of which implicitly or explicitly refer to the need for secondary education and beyond for children, adolescents, and youth in crisis situations. Whereas this shift is visible in international frameworks as well as in the aspirations of humanitarian and development actors, this transition is neither reflected in systematic funding allocation to youth education programmes nor in data and evidence available to describe young people’s situations. While it is generally acknowledged that it is more challenging for adolescents and youth to access education than it is for children, and that this problem tends to be worse in situations of crisis, there are hardly any consistent data or education indicators available for crisis-affected adolescents and youth (INEE, 2010).

RET International is an international non-governmental organization (INGO) that provides education and protection, in the broadest sense, to adolescents and youth in situations of crisis, with a focus on women. For our work, the lack of reliable data on adolescents and youth poses challenges in determining baseline situations and developing evidence-based education programmes, especially when the urgency and nature of the context do not allow for a thorough data generation process.
Challenges Caused by a Lack of Reliable Data

The main challenge in designing programmes in emergencies is the lack of disaggregated, reliable, and up-to-date data. Available statistics generally come from government authorities and United Nations (UN) agencies. These often date from before the onset of a crisis and are limited in scope; data collection tends to be focused on enrolment and successful completion, rather than on the quality of education and retention rates. In crisis contexts there is generally no comprehensive education data collection system in place, so implementing actors have to start from zero to establish their own evidence base for programmes. This explains why indicator definitions and data collection methods vary widely between implementing partners (e.g., the calculation of enrolment and dropout rates may differ considerably across organisations depending on strategies that favour access or quality). This generates, at best, a fragmented system where different types of data are collected and no systematic and compulsory information-sharing system is in place. This leaves little opportunity to learn from and apply best practices (Cambridge Education, 2017). In addition, the little information that is available quickly becomes outdated, particularly when it comes to populations on the move. The fact that a considerable share of refugees and internally displaced persons are not registered poses an additional complexity.

This challenge can be illustrated by several examples. For instance, RET has accompanied Afghans returning home from Pakistan since 2007 and has implemented an accelerated basic learning programme for young females in 19 locations across northern and northeast Afghanistan. RET relies on the minimal available information provided by provincial authorities, who collect data on in-school learners only. Rough estimates are available for those whose education has been interrupted due to displacement, with estimations becoming less specific as the age of the target group increases. Actors concerned with education data in Afghanistan have underlined the poor quality and unreliable nature of statistics on the out-of-school population (HRW, 2017; UNICEF, 2018), which undermines the effectiveness of programmes designed to address youth’s needs. Hence, while RET’s education programmes have been successful in allowing crisis-affected young women to complete their basic education, it is difficult to ascertain whether RET’s programmes have actually reached the most vulnerable due to a lack of baseline information in remote areas.

In Kenya, RET started working in the Dadaab refugee camps and in Eastleigh (greater Nairobi) in 2012. Among other services, RET provides alternative learning at the secondary level and basic education programmes (coupled with life skills) for out-of-school adolescents and youth. UN agencies manage the camps in Dadaab and provide basic statistics on youth education and estimations on the out-of-school population. However, for out-of-camp peri-urban locations, such statistics are much more difficult to obtain. Recent efforts have been made by UN agencies to gather evidence on the educational needs of children and adolescents, but information becomes much scarcer for persons over the age of 18, especially for youth who have missed years of schooling.

In addition to the limited scope of data available, RET has encountered situations where resources could have been allocated more effectively had there been more data and evidence on the context in which the resources were being used. In Turkey, RET has implemented a non-formal education programme in the southeast since 2014 to facilitate the (re)integration of out-of-school Syrian refugees in the formal education system. Despite considerable efforts by national authorities, many barriers to enrolment of Syrian refugees in public schools were encountered. As research was limited and varied in terms of rigour and generalisability (Dorman, 2014), less common, yet important barriers were not documented, such as the limited knowledge amongst some school administrators of regulations that apply to Syrian refugees. The programme, therefore, had to be adjusted through advocacy efforts for equal access to education for refugees.

RET has worked in the Chad/Sudan border area since 2005 to increase the protection, resilience, and self-reliance of vulnerable adolescents and youth through education. Since 2017, RET has also worked as an implementing partner of the ECW fund to meet the educational needs of Chadian and Central African refugees. At the onset of both projects, despite close collaboration with Chadian authorities and UN agencies, insufficient data were available to establish baselines for each performance indicator. There was no national data system functioning for education, and the available data were not disaggregated by region, location, or school. This situation in Chad is exemplary of many fragile contexts in which RET works: the lack or inefficiency of national structures for managing data systems undermines the potential to reach out to those left behind and to establish baselines, thereby affecting the efficiency of resource allocation and the quality of the response.

Moreover, although existing efforts to generate more harmonised data exist and significantly improve coordination amongst educational actors, these efforts can still generate data that are incomplete and difficult to compare, particularly when organisations are using different data collection tools. This is even more difficult when no widely recognised systems are established to regularly monitor the quality of the data.

Finally, another structural challenge is the lack of data and evidence on the role of non-formal education in bridging the gap to formal education and/or in teaching employability skills for sustainable livelihoods (Annan & Aber, 2017; Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann & Al-Abbadi, 2015).
Conclusion and Recommendations

UN agencies, implementing partners, and (donor) governments should increase efforts to ensure more structured and broader data generation. This means collecting data on persons over the age of 18, including out-of-school youth and displaced populations in non-camp settings. Of equal importance is the need to collect data on the quality of education and retention rates, as well as to make non-formal learning processes and outcomes visible. In addition, implementing agencies should advocate internally for the allocation of resources to conduct adequate situational assessments and establish strong data collection and monitoring and evaluation systems, which recognise and contribute to the work of other actors working in the same context. This would require a shift in what collaboration means and how it is operationalised.

Yet, it must be noted that systematic collection and management of data is beyond the regular mandate of implementing agencies in emergencies, whose primary focus is to provide services and programmes. When fragile states are unable to fulfil this responsibility, there is a need to clarify which actors have the international endorsement, competencies, and funding to assume this role, including building the capacities of governmental authorities. Multi-year funding would allow implementing agencies to play a supporting role in building national and/or local capacities on data generation and systematisation, while reinforcing the evidence base to deliver more impactful education programmes. Academics are also considered to be an important partner, as they can play a role in helping to generate reliable data and use existing evidence. It is therefore crucial for donors to invest in partnerships between implementing agencies and academia to advance the right to education for all.

Finally, the international community needs to invest significantly in the dialogue on data collection among all actors. Data collection should be done in a systematised manner, based on indicators with clear and common definitions, methodologies and tools, to then be applied by all stakeholders on a regular basis. Ongoing initiatives to consolidate existing indicator registries for humanitarian response, while extremely important, will need to lead to the development of a harmonised and largely endorsed monitoring and evaluation framework to overcome challenges of rigour, comparability, and generalisability of data. Only when a mechanism is able to combine the knowledge of all key stakeholders, can this information be deployed effectively to fulfil the educational needs of the most vulnerable young people.

Endnotes

1. The older the refugee camp, the more, and better quality, education data available. However, this raises concerns about designing education responses at the onset of a crisis, or about instances where there are no data being collected on young people.


3. An example is Activity Info, a software tool for data collection and reporting for humanitarian operations, which was implemented in response to the Syrian crisis.

References


Introduction
The importance of including tertiary education1 as part of a refugee response is gaining traction. International commitments, such as the Sustainable Development Goals,2 have placed a strong emphasis on the importance of lifelong learning and the inclusion of vulnerable populations, including refugees and internally displaced persons (UNHCR, 2015a). The Syria crisis has also created a very visible and strong reaction from the international community that a traditional education response is insufficient and that responses must look beyond supporting basic education (UNESCO & UNHCR, 2017a). While much progress has been made globally to raise awareness about the importance of tertiary education, it is still not well-integrated into planning processes and there is limited access to pursuing higher levels of learning in refugee contexts (UNESCO & UNHCR, 2017a). One reason is that the lack of robust data has contributed to a limited understanding and appreciation of the nuances and various actors involved in the provision of tertiary education opportunities for refugees (UNESCO & UNHCR, 2017b).

Who is Involved and What are Their Needs?
There are five categories of providers and users of data. They are: 1) potential students1, 2) hosting governments, 3) education and training institutions, 4) funding providers, and 5) international partners. Potential students require information about programs that match their interests, funding opportunities, and application procedures, including the potential risks involved with accepting a scholarship to a third country. Hosting governments require data about who potential students are and how many they are. Governments also need data to further understand the policy considerations associated with having an influx of individuals accessing higher levels of education and training, specifically related to the impact on the labor market. Education and training institutions, both within a hosting country and those in a third country, require data on individuals’ prerequisites and prior education, and on the availability of authenticated documentation, such as transcripts and diplomas. Funding providers, which include scholarship providers and other

Summary
The importance of tertiary education as a part of a refugee education response is gaining traction. While there remains a gap in collecting and using data to develop an evidence base for increased support for tertiary education in emergencies, innovations in Jordan demonstrate that stakeholders are working to identify solutions.

Keywords
Education in Emergencies
Jordan
Right to Education
Tertiary Education

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non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that provide financial support to students, need to understand overall demand and the number of students who are eligible to participate in education and training programs. Finally, international donors, including the European Union and multilateral organizations such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), rely on an amalgamation of data to help inform policies, ensure that learning opportunities target those who are in need, and support linkages between governments, service providers, education and training institutions, and importantly, potential students. Each entity relies on the others to share data, but accessing and making use of this information, particularly at scale, can be difficult.

A Balance Between Collecting Too Much or Not Enough

It is important to make decisions early regarding the type of data that is available and the frequency of data collection. Often during the onset of a crisis, only a few data points can be collected, but as the response matures and, as is often the case now, crises become protracted, it becomes increasingly important to introduce a more sophisticated approach to data collection. An initial response is to collect basic data disaggregated by sex, age, and previous education history. This is important if there is an interest in generating a basic overview of a population, but this approach has limited practical application. An alternative approach is to go to the opposite extreme and collect data on many variables. This could extend to collecting data on availability of documentation, language skills, geographical preference for study, top three fields of interest, etc. Such comprehensive data sets yield rich insights, especially if the system also collects information on available scholarship opportunities. This offers the potential to provide more targeted support to both refugees and other actors. Yet, in both cases, the data must be regularly updated, readily accessible, and organized in a meaningful way. This requires that a system is in place to receive information, that the system is flexible enough to adapt to changes, and that it can be sustained over the long term.

Establishing Systems to Develop an Evidence Base

There are recent examples from Jordan that offer insight into the opportunities and limitations of developing systems that respond to the demand for more robust data sets. From 2014-2018, as part of the Syria crisis response, a number of projects were developed in Jordan, such as the UNESCO Jami3ti Initiative, EU-MADAD HOPES Project, IIE PEER Platform, and the enhancement of UNHCR’s RAIS database to include a more robust tertiary education module. Each took complementary, and in some cases duplicative, approaches, yet, no one initiative seemed to address all of the needs. These initiatives each produced rich data sets, such as those from the UNESCO and UNHCR systems. It became possible to collect data on availability of documentation, language skills, geographical preference for study, students’ top three fields of interest and previous education history, and more. This offered the potential to provide more targeted support to both refugees and other end users. For instance, the UNESCO platform helped link scholarship providers to Syrian youth as well as provided a searchable database of scholarship opportunities accessible by registered refugee youth. The UNHCR system allowed for the verification of applicants as registered refugees, identification of multiple scholarship awards, and the ability to follow refugees through their tertiary education careers. The IIE Peer platform sought to provide services similar to those on the UNESCO platform, but it also had an ambitious five-year plan to expand its direct service offerings and a more US-centric approach. The HOPES project complemented the sharing of scholarship opportunities and, importantly, conducted research to inform policy dialogue.

Each initiative has generated a significant amount of data and contributed to advancing the dialogue and focus on tertiary education in emergencies, especially in Jordan. Yet, there were two main challenges related to these efforts. First, when multiple data collection systems exist, refugees question how their information is being used and for what purpose, especially if it only seems that data is collected and opportunities are not provided. Often systems are created in competition likely ensuring that the systems cannot interface. This limits collaboration and potentially creates a lot of duplicative data with little efficiency. Second, the sustainability of such initiatives as long-term projects is a challenge. Building the technology is possible, but sustaining it requires a significant investment in human and technical resources and a massive network. The advantage of the UNHCR system is that it is part of a global network, which means that it is not dependent on short-term project funding.

One solution is to enhance coordination with national authorities, such as the ministry of higher education. Integration with existing national systems offers the opportunity to strengthen government accountability while ensuring sustainability in the future. In the case of Jordan, preliminary efforts were underway to transfer data to the government after upgrading the ministry’s Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS).

Strengthened Coordination Contributed to Improved Data and Collective Decision-Making

UNESCO and UNHCR established the Jordan Tertiary Education Coordination Group (TECG) in 2015, partly in response to the growing interest in tertiary education
opportunities for Syrian refugees and the need to advocate for greater inclusivity by the government of Jordan, particularly in its response plans. Utilizing the various systems in place, the TECG was successful in developing an evidence base for tertiary education. This proved valuable in high-level discussions with the government to increase access to tertiary education opportunities, increase funding requests in the Jordan Response Plans, and inform advocacy in international forums, such as the London and Brussels conferences. A review of the education plans in the Jordan Response Plans from 2015 to 2018, illustrates year-over-year increases in funding and in the number of tertiary education opportunities available to refugees (Jordan Response Platform, n.d.). Additionally, the TECG was able to use the data sets to establish proxies for demand and response rates for applications. Furthermore, when partners began to share additional information, organizations such as the Norwegian Refugee Council were able to translate this information into relevant programming; for example, to address the need for youth to strengthen prerequisite knowledge and skills to be ready to apply for tertiary education opportunities.

Summing Up

Much progress has been made at the global level to ensure that for refugees, the education continuum includes access to tertiary education. While there remains a need to harmonize actions related to data collection and data access, there have been promising examples that offer innovative approaches to addressing existing gaps. Including national partners in the process of data collection will ensure sustainability and create an enabling environment to facilitate access to learning opportunities for refugees. Ultimately, with an improved evidence base for tertiary education, governments will be able to make more informed decisions, financial providers can increase their support, and displaced men and women can have the opportunity to continue their education.

Endnotes

1. Tertiary education builds on secondary education, providing learning activities in specialized fields. It aims at learning at a high level of complexity and specialization. Tertiary education includes what is commonly understood as academic education, but is broader than that because it also includes advanced vocational or professional education (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012).

2. Target 4.3: By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university. Target 4.4: By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs, and entrepreneurship.

3. The term potential students is used rather than a conventional higher education age cohort (i.e. 18-24 year-olds) as protracted crises often delay entry into tertiary education programs.

References


Introduction

Education aid workers face a range of challenges when operating in disaster zones. Disasters, whether the result of natural hazards or human-made conditions such as conflict, can be exacting, and these conditions can present frequent and, at times, seemingly insurmountable barriers to the successful implementation of education in emergencies (EiE) programs. These barriers can compromise the accuracy of the data that underpin the education activities and drive the implementation of humanitarian aid. Incomplete or inaccurate data—gathered under the pressure of humanitarian contexts—can misinform needs assessments, interfere with timely and effective aid delivery such as the construction of Temporary Learning Centres (TLCs), and skew evaluations that seek to shed light on success or failure in meeting education outcomes. In 2015, the humanitarian response to the earthquakes in Nepal presented just such an environment that tested the ability of responders to deliver aid in a manner that would meet the education expectations of communities and donors alike. This was partially due to the multiple layers of complexity that are experienced in a country such as Nepal, which presented barriers that were both geographical and social in nature.

Nepal, 2015

In 2015, Nepal was struck by an earthquake and major aftershock that caused widespread devastation. Early estimates spoke of severe damage to infrastructure in central and northern districts, including in the capital Kathmandu, and a death toll nearing 9,000. Educational infrastructure was particularly affected, with more than 25,000 classrooms destroyed and a further 22,000 rendered unusable through significant damage (Ireland, 2016). Overall, 870,000 children lost their classrooms, and more broadly, 2 million children had their education disrupted in some form. The government was quick to declare an emergency.

Humanitarian emergencies, such as the one in Nepal, are commonly experienced in countries that have limited means to respond to such events on their own. Developing countries make
up the lion’s share of those requesting international assistance (ALNAP, 2018; WHO, 2018), highlighting the limited resources available to countries affected by disasters. They are often characterised by inadequate transportation systems; infrastructure that is limited in capacity and serviceability; and government services such as education and healthcare that are poorly funded, poorly staffed, and poorly resourced (UNDP, 2016). The ability to gather accurate and complete data on the state of education is severely compromised when communities cannot be accessed as a result of poor transportation infrastructure. It is also compromised when communities lack the education to communicate or participate effectively in the data gathering process, such as a national census or development initiatives. Such an environment that exists prior to a disaster is likely to exacerbate the impact of a humanitarian emergency, as it did in Nepal (Halman, van de Fliert, Khan, & Shevellar, 2018; Robinson-Pant, 2010; UNDP, 2009). Without accurate and complete information—such as the damage to schools, student and teacher casualties, and impacts on marginalised groups—the government of Nepal could only offer unverified estimates in the development of the Post Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA), which was used to determine the distribution of education aid.

### Geographical Challenges

Adding to the humanitarian context in Nepal were geographical characteristics that compounded the effects of the earthquakes, while also impeding the ability of EiE responders to gather relevant information. For example, the high mountains of the Himalaya are prone to earthquakes and landslides, presenting multiple hazards. Schools perched precariously on the sides of mountains sit on unstable ground, and those in the valleys face constant threats of landslide. During the earthquakes in 2015, communities were confronted by both of these hazards, and the result was frequent cases where the educational infrastructure was completely destroyed (National Planning Commission, 2016).

Poor transportation routes were also physically damaged in many areas, affecting the accessibility of these regions for EiE specialists. This caused significant delays in reaching remote communities. Again, education specialists were unable to gather complete data on the level of destruction to schooling facilities or other educational resources. This caused great logistical strain on the stockpiling and distribution of education aid into those regions. For example, construction materials for TLCs and Child Friendly Spaces are commonly sourced from within communities as part of the participatory responsibilities outlined in the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Minimum Standards for Education (INEE, 2010). Yet, as a result of the lack of data from remote regions, EiE specialists were unable to ascertain whether materials existed in situ, or needed to be transported in. If feedback from affected communities in Nepal, this was highlighted as an issue of dissatisfaction, with some perceiving—not without cause—that communities located closer to large population centres or transportation routes received preferential treatment for the delivery of education aid (IFRC, 2015; World Vision, 2016).

Whilst aid workers cannot change the geographical layout of their operating zone, greater effort can be made to position resources beyond the most visible zones of destruction, and to communicate effectively with local communities. Local or indigenous knowledge of alternative transportation routes, for example, could provide opportunities for access to otherwise inaccessible areas, and help reduce the geographical barriers to gathering data for effective education aid activities.

### Social Complexity

Beyond the broader development and economic context of the humanitarian environment, and the geographical limitations, education specialists also face a host of social challenges. In the case of Nepal, responders were met with a complex set of social conditions. These conditions served to compound the impact of the earthquakes, as well as impede the ability to gather accurate and complete data. A range of social indicators highlight the layers of complexity. Literacy rates in rural areas in Nepal, for example, are half that in urban zones — 42% compared to 84% (UNDP, 2016). Recent census data also show that there are 123 different languages spoken as mother tongues, across 126 ethnicities and castes recognised throughout the country (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2014). In addition, the traditional role of women in society has produced marked gender differences in activities such as education and participation in the work force (ADB, 2016; Banskota, 2011; Manandhar & Leslie, 1994; Robinson-Pant, 2010; Subasi & Kehrberg, 1998). As a result of these social characteristics, certain groups traditionally marginalised in Nepalese society commonly experienced greater impact from the earthquakes (CDPS, 2016).

The ability of education aid workers to gather data that can inform EiE activities can be, and was in the case of Nepal, compromised by these social complexities. How do education workers assess the needs of communities with such linguistic diversity? How can they ensure that communities participate effectively in education programs, as the humanitarian standards require (CHS Alliance, 2014; INEE, 2010; Sphere Project, 2011)? If a section of the community is unable to explain their educational needs, such as reconstruction of schools, psychosocial support for traumatised students, or the loss of culturally appropriate educational resources, due to social or linguistic barriers, then the data set will be incomplete. Decision-making with deficient data has the potential to compound inequality and lead to an inappropriate and ineffective education response. These are just some of the challenges that aid workers face.

Perhaps the answer lies in how organisations utilise local capacity. Commonly, the development arm of major aid organisations such as Save the Children, Oxfam, Plan International, World Vision, and various United Nations agencies already maintain a presence in many countries, undertaking development projects in the education sector. As a result, these organisations have
built up local networks, employ local nationals in key roles in education development, and partner with local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that have connections to education issues in the local communities. When these same communities are affected by a humanitarian disaster, there is an opportunity for these organisations to capitalise on the years of knowledge from the communities built up through education development activities. In Nepal, international NGOs are compelled to work with local partners to implement development activities. Although this requirement is waived in the first stages of a disaster, many NGOs retained their local partners, such as women’s groups and Dalit advocacy organisations, and continued to use them to gather local knowledge and build an inclusive picture of the education situation. This may be the key to overcoming the barriers to gathering data and information for education aid as a result of social complexity, and implementing effective strategies to contextualise the education program to cater to community strengths.

Conclusion

In closing, the example of Nepal presents an opportunity to recognise that geographical and social complexities are inherent in many operating environments for education aid workers, impeding their ability to gather accurate and complete data to inform their aid activities. Nevertheless, the case of Nepal also points to strategies that can be implemented to mitigate these challenges. Local and indigenous knowledge can be the key to finding alternatives and managing expectations, as well as utilising the local capacity already built into aid organisations through their education development activities. After all, local communities have been facing these, and other, challenges perhaps throughout their history, building resilience within their own social and cultural context.

References


The Importance of Data

Emergency and long-term responses to the education needs of people affected by conflict and natural disasters are among the most important humanitarian activities conducted by both civil society organizations and governments. Preparedness, effective design, and planning are an essential foundation that can contribute greatly to the sustainability and success of education responses, especially during emergencies (INEE, 2010).

For planning and programming, humanitarian response depends on available data in order to understand the context and the affected community’s needs. The greater the availability, clarity, detail, and precision of data and information, the higher the indicators of success for the response, planning, design, and implementation processes (GEC, 2010).

Complementarity and Integration of Data

While the availability of data plays an important role in preparation, planning, and short- and long-term responses, it is not possible to rely solely on needs assessments and data from a specific sector, such as education. Coordination with other sectors, such as health, water, nutrition, and protection (especially child and gender-based protection) is vital, particularly in humanitarian settings. A lack of coordination can cause a serious gap in the design and implementation of quality response programs, which has a negative impact on the sustainability of those programs; sometimes even leading to the failure of the response program as a whole (GEC, 2016).

When we obtain assessment results and data on an education response program through people involved in the education process, such as teachers, students, principals, education officers, civic councils, and others without linking to data collected in other sectors or further contextualizing the information, it will lead us to create an educational program that is detached from its context and does not respond to the community’s needs. Neglecting to incorporate relevant
information from other sectors such as health, including psychological support needs, child and gender-based protection, nutrition, and other sectors within the process of preparing datasets further inhibits us from understanding the holistic needs of a community. Without a cross-sectoral understanding of a community’s needs, the foundation for an education program’s continuity will be weak and disjointed. There may also be unanticipated problems that arise and inhibit the delivery of the education program, leading to a decrease in the quality of outcomes and an inability to improve the quality of education programming (USAID, 2018).

Lessons Learned from the Syrian Response

Most societies affected by crises and disasters rank education as a basic need alongside food and health. Education provides those who are living in an emergency context with a feeling of protection and safety. On that basis, there must be a focus on the comprehensiveness and integration of data across sectors in order to achieve the best response and best practices (USAID, 2018).

Syria is an example of one of the most complex crises in the world. The deteriorating humanitarian situation is among the most difficult for the people affected by the crisis. Internal displacement is ongoing, with approximately 6.1 million internally displaced persons (Whole of Syria Strategic Steering Group, 2018). According to a United Nation’s needs assessment in Syria, 5.8 million school-aged children and youth including IDPs and host communities from pre-school to secondary age and over 300,000 education personnel are in need of education assistance inside Syria (UN OCHA, 2018). In the first half of 2018, an area in Syria’s Idlib Province, Al Ma’ra district, received a large number of displaced families coming from other areas in rural Damascus and Northern Hama countryside areas that were more heavily impacted by the conflict. This influx of IDPs led to an increase in the rate of out-of-school children and dropouts in the host villages. Many organizations working in the area began their humanitarian response operations by identifying displaced persons in displacement camps or within the host villages and by providing basic necessities. Education was neglected for more than six months because priority was given to providing services related to shelter and food. Recognizing this gap in services, teams from the Sadad Humanitarian Organization, along with education sector specialists from other agencies, began assessing educational needs and conducting surveys to gather evidence and information.

Data were collected by conducting surveys, personal interviews and focus group discussions with representatives from the displaced population and host communities in different villages. Additionally, people who worked in the education sector before being displaced were interviewed, as well as officials from the host villages. The data was collected, and the situation and education-related needs were identified. The data included the number of school-aged students, the number of out-of-school students by length of time out of school, the type of curriculum being used, number of teachers, number of classrooms, and the existing schools’ capacity for absorbing the displaced students.

Through the collected data, and due to the delay of the education response, we noticed increasing dropout rates and thus an increased level of educational needs among the children. We also observed numerous challenges that affected the success of the education response in these areas and added challenges that had not been taken into account during initial data collection, such as the high number of working children inside and outside the camps, or children’s engagement with armed groups in the area due to the absence of educational opportunities.

To design the education response, Sadad relied on datasets developed through surveys and interviews. The response included supporting temporary education centers, as well as incorporating a cohort of displaced children living outside the camp into schools in the host villages. The children were divided into groups according to their academic capacities, the curriculum was identified, and the response operation initiated. After the students started registering with the new education centers, and after the educational work began, we noticed the emergence of problems related to the insufficient data that we had collected for designing the educational program. For example, there was no information or data about the children’s psychological state and the widespread problems related to child protection, especially post-traumatic stress, which afflicted many of the children. Consequently, no strategies were developed to integrate child protection into the educational response in order to alleviate or respond to protection risks. This led to the proliferation of psychological and even behavioral problems among the children, and an increase in the school drop-out rate. These problems also impacted the students’ ability to assimilate and learn. Furthermore, during design and data collection, there was also no consideration of health information, in particular the displaced children’s current health needs and health situation in the community, especially for children with injuries or special needs. There was no understanding of problems or needs that the children were expected to face during the school year, especially health problems attributed to being displacement (e.g. malnutrition, psychological problems, etc.); thus, no response strategies were adopted because the interventions were only committed to the identified and more narrowly defined education needs demonstrated in the program. This led to the outbreak of certain contagious diseases (e.g. lice, leishmaniasis, and scabies) among the children in the schools. The absence of immediate response strategies contributed to the
outbreak of these diseases, and many children left or missed school as a result. To address these problems, the Sadad team coordinated with the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and explained the problems and asked for cooperation with other community-based organizations working within the same areas. One organization expressed interest in collaborating and provided health-related interventions for affected children within the schools.

Data on the education sector, particularly in emergencies, should provide a multi-sectoral picture, as education is linked to other sectors, and education systems affect and are affected by other sectors. Data collection processes should be cross-sectoral bringing the other sectors into the basic needs assessment process. One way to do this is by developing complementary questions across the different sectors (e.g. education, health, nutrition, protection, food security, shelter, and others) and incorporating these questions into the surveys and assessments administered in each sector. This approach would make it easier to integrate data and evidence across sectors and enable a more effective, contextually-relevant and holistic education response.

In addition, we must also call attention to the importance of accountability to beneficiaries at all stages of educational program design and implementation, and of ensuring the continuous updating of the datasets related to the existing program. The process of involving and integrating beneficiaries or stakeholders of various types in the design, development, and implementation of the educational program is one of the things that strengthens the response operation(s) because the beneficiaries from the target population are the ones who can best define their needs and accurately explain their context(s).

The process of involving beneficiaries has to begin in the early stages of data collection, via individual meetings and surveys or focused discussion sessions with students’ guardians/parents, the students themselves, teachers, and parties involved in the educational program. All suggestions and recommendations should be recorded and taken seriously for use in designing and developing intervention strategies to ensure the best possible response. The role of the party conducting the survey at this stage should be to provide advice and guidance, for example by presenting some lessons learned especially if such lessons or practices apply to the same humanitarian context (USAID, 2018).

Accountability to beneficiaries and stakeholders, and the process of involving them regularly, should continue throughout the educational program, through assessments, ongoing discussion meetings, and surveys to monitor the effectiveness of the educational work and other associated services. Through these efforts, they can help to identify points for improvement, discuss best practices, and share ideas about the continuity of developing the response and enhancing the existing program. This will also contribute to monitoring difficulties that hinder service provision and attempting to solve and overcome those difficulties.

Conclusion

We can see the important role that the collection and preparation of integrated data collection processes plays during education responses in emergencies and the extent to which such data impact the quality and effectiveness of the preparation, design, and implementation of education programs. Collecting data and developing comprehensive datasets relies considerably on the principles of comprehensiveness, integration with other sectors, diversity of information sources, and the involvement of different types of beneficiaries and stakeholders during the data collection process and throughout program implementation. Care should be taken to include assessments of anticipated risks and challenges, and possible methods to mitigate and address them.

References


The Role of Education in Emergencies and Crises

Education is one of the basic human rights for all people. Societies consider education a priority in times of crisis because schools and other educational institutions are often at the center of those societies; they symbolize opportunities for future generations and hope for a better life. The role and importance of education in emergencies is clear in several ways. It not only provides knowledge and skills, but it has the potential to save lives and preserve human dignity.

When children are in a safe learning environment, they become less vulnerable to sexual or economic exploitation, early and forced marriages, and conscription into armed forces, militant groups and organized crime groups, to name a few. Through education, children acquire coping mechanisms and skills to overcome challenging conditions, to protect themselves, to gain access to health, nutrition, and psychological and social support (INEE, 2017).

In conflict and emergency contexts, education is not always a mechanism that helps to preserve survival, stability, and order. Education can exacerbate existing tensions and divisions, reproduce structures of exclusion and inequality, and promote harmful practices and violent behavior (INEE, 2017). As a result, investment in education in emergencies as a positive mechanism to achieve security, stability, and promotion of social cohesion, requires careful planning. It also requires a set of conditions that facilitate coordination, engage all stakeholders, and provide for careful time management. Of the utmost importance is the effective utilization of available information and data by those managing crisis responses.

The Importance of Information in Managing Education in Emergencies

Quality data are an essential element for reducing doubt and increasing the degree of confidence in any particular situation or decision. The value of information provided by the data is determined by its ability to provide accurate indicators for better management and design of education programs. The absence or inaccuracy of information can result in making
inappropriate and harmful decisions. The importance of information in crisis management is reflected in information’s ability to help with making decisions in a timely manner, achieving goals, addressing unplanned challenges, and enhancing the flexibility of programs to respond to a crisis and its negative consequences.

During crisis management, information is connected to several levels. “The first level is related to the planning stage, when those who are managing the crisis need inputs and accurate information related to the intervention” (Lagrini, 2014, p. 48). In this case, the availability of an information bank—an integrated set of accurate, structured, and comprehensive information, collected in a participatory manner—with updated data on education is critical. The data needed in this case are not only quantitative (e.g. number of schools, teachers, students, and so on); there is also a need for qualitative data that will add depth and contextualization to the numbers. Here, communities affected by crisis and those actors working to support them must rely on the accumulation of information banks that are transparent, detailed, and accurate and available to the public.

The second level is related to institutional structures. In order to achieve education goals, there is a need for coherent and integrated data that are longitudinal and cross-sectoral. This can be achieved by ensuring the clarity of synergies between the data sets from different sectors and the systematic organization and accessibility of available information (Lagrini, 2014). It should be noted that gaining access to information that will be used to inform the emergency response requires the participation of all stakeholders. Educational authorities and other stakeholders should ensure community participation in the organization of the educational institution(s). These other stakeholders include a broad group that encompasses school principals, teachers, parents, caregivers, civil society organizations, governmental and non-governmental organizations, traditional leaders, etc. There should be an inclusion of the most vulnerable groups in the community in the decision-making process, which includes ensuring their access to available information.

The third level is related to coordination which refers to coordination between the work of all stakeholders and decision makers. The availability of information to all is vital to ensure transparency and avoid duplication (Lagrini, 2014). There are many stakeholders involved in humanitarian response, hence, there needs to be a coordination committee that effectively works with the different agencies and bodies as well as the local community. The coordination committee should ensure the best use of resources and guarantee the respect of the principles of equality, responsibility, and accountability to achieve the expected results from coordination.

The fourth level is monitoring and evaluation. At this level, information is produced by analyzing and evaluating the impact of interventions and the impact of efforts at all the previous mentioned levels. Information at this stage allows education specialists? to ensure that the planned schemes and programs have achieved their goals and are implemented according to predefined indicators (Lagrini, 2014). This also requires data verification and accurate clarification of the indicators, data sources, and sampling criteria, as well as clear identification of analytical procedures. Assessments require the educational sector to work with other sectors such as health, security, shelter, nutrition, water, and sanitation. Affected groups, especially vulnerable groups, should be included in assessments. Finally, the educational authorities should share assessment results and standardize data findings in order to facilitate their continued use.

**Arab Societies and the Importance of Information in Education in Emergencies: The Case of Morocco**

There are great efforts in Arab societies to keep up with the age of information. While there are efforts dedicated to creating and building information banks that can be used in the service of education in emergencies, what actually exists is a culture where information is kept as raw data without making use of it in designing and managing programs in times of emergency and crisis. This can be seen on several levels: lack of operationalization of results of research; lack of connections between universities, research centers, and policy makers; scarcity of research centers interested in managing crisis; lack of studies on measuring and managing crises and emergencies; and the absence of academic and professional structures capable of managing crisis and emergencies. In Morocco, for example, there is only one research center that focuses on “crisis management,” which is affiliated with the Cadi Ayyad University in Marrakech.

In the Moroccan context, there is a great focus on the technical information produced by a formal organizational structure within the sector, and a lack of openness to more practical uses of available information, especially that which is provided by research centers and research institutions. The reality is that there is a disconnect between the formal and governmental bodies and research centers. There is a great opportunity to link governmental institutions, training centers for teachers, and research centers with policy makers to make better use of the available data. Information banks can be used in this case as depositories for the raw data that are ready to be analyzed and utilized by practitioners and policy makers once they are categorized and disaggregated properly.

What is new in the Moroccan case is the role of the Supreme Council of Education which represents an independent
advisory body created according to article 168 of the Moroccan Constitution. Its function is to provide advisory opinions on all of the public policies and the national cases related to the fields of education, training, and scientific research. One of the council’s roles is to inform the decision-makers, relevant stakeholders, and public opinion through the constant and accurate quantitative and qualitative assessment of all the elements of its education, training, and scientific research systems. Different bodies in the country can join efforts to establish information banks but, unfortunately, the reality is that there is no coordination of efforts among all actors. Also, stakeholders are not engaged on the grassroots level; the role of teachers, for example, is marginalized.

Readiness to face emergencies depends on accumulating information and organizing it in a manner that prepares us for immediate use and informed decision-making. This is the only way to face all the risks a crisis may cause. However, Moroccan society does not believe in the importance of accumulating information in this way at this time. So, we need organizations specialized in this field and independent institutions that can work to create and build educational information banks.

References


Introduction
The Syrian civil war has displaced over 5.6 million people since the start of the conflict in 2011 (UNHCR, n.d.). The majority of those who were displaced have sought asylum in neighboring countries. Turkey, the primary host country in the Middle East region, hosts around 4 million refugees; 3,622,366 of whom are Syrian (UNHCR, n.d.). According to UNHCR (n.d.), Syrians under temporary protection in Turkey make up over 60% of the total number of Syrians displaced by the conflict. The rapid increase in the number of Syrian refugees since the beginning of the conflict is also reflected in the number of school-aged children under protection in Turkey, which eventually led to a heightened focus on providing education in times of emergency (MoNE, 2018a).

Although the recent discussions on refugee education in Turkey focus on Syrian children, it is important to note that there is a considerable non-Syrian refugee population in Turkey. Citing UNHCR, the Education Reform Initiative (ERG) highlights the fact that “there are 370,400 school-aged asylum seekers and refugees from countries other than Syria,” and there is inadequate information regarding their access to education (ERG, 2018a, p.13).

Syrian Children in the Turkish Education System
During the first two years of Syrians’ exodus to Turkey, the government was not directly involved in the education of refugee children. Instead, the government opted to delegate its authority to certain non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and international organizations (Arık Akyüz, Aksoy, Madra & Polat, 2018). One of the major reasons behind this choice was the widespread belief among authorities, including the government, that the Syrian crisis would end soon and, therefore, that most refugees would go back to their home country (Aras & Yasun, 2016; Seydi, 2014). As the following years led to political deadlock in Syria, during which time conflict was deepened and clashes were intensified, the importance of integrating Syrians into Turkish society became

Summary
This article provides a brief overview of the education policies developed for Syrians under temporary protection in Turkey. It then highlights and evaluates the main education indicators related to school-aged Syrians under temporary protection, and presents a case for improved data collection and sharing to improve the education services offered.

Keywords
Syrians Under Temporary Protection
Turkey’s Refugee Education Policies
Refugee Education
In order to increase the school enrollment of Syrian children under protection, the government implemented several provisions to establish their right to receive education services and modified requirements for documentation to enroll in schools (Ark Akyüz et al., 2018; Unutulmaz, 2018; see Appendix A). In April 2013, the Law on Foreigners and International Protection was published in the official gazette, which granted educational rights to foreigners with residence permits in Turkey (ERG, 2018a). In September of 2013, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) declared the right to education for all Syrian children under temporary protection, which helped increase the number of school-aged Syrian children enrolled in schools (Ark Akyüz et al., 2018). As of December 2018, there are 1,047,536 school-aged Syrian children in Turkey; 645,140 of these children are enrolled in school (61.59%) (MoNE, 2018a). Of the 645,140 children enrolled in school, 317,761 are girls (49%) and 327,379 are boys (51%) (MoNE, 2018a).

The Turkish government displayed a commendable effort to increase Syrian children’s access to educational services. However, the process of ensuring a standard in education presented yet another challenge (Unutulmaz, 2018). Initially, MoNE and the Disaster and Emergency Management Authority (AFAD) coordinated efforts to provide educational services to Syrian children hosted in the temporary refugee centers, with support from UNICEF (Ark Akyüz et al., 2018). As the number of refugees increased and Syrians under temporary protection moved outside the camps, many civil society organizations (CSOs), including Syrian refugees living in cities, NGOs, and faith-based organizations established informal schools (Ark Akyüz et al., 2018; UNESCO, 2018). These schools offered instruction in Arabic according to a modified Syrian curriculum, and were “largely unregulated, operated outside the national system and had very limited quality assurance and standardization of certification at the end of grades 9 and 12” (UNESCO, 2018, p. 62).

In the following years, these schools were labelled and regulated by the MoNE as Temporary Education Centres (TECs) and Syrian parents were given the right to make the decision to send their children to either public schools or TECs. However, there is a growing consensus that providing education using different curricula and within separate school environments are both major delaying elements of integration in the host country (UNESCO, 2018). As a result, in order to ensure the integration of Syrian children into Turkish society, the MoNE initiated steps to regulate and transform TECs. First, the Ministry announced in August 2016 that it aimed to close down all TECs by the end of 2020, thus encouraging Syrian families to send their children to public schools. Second, in this process, TECs became considered “transitional schools” where Syrian children would receive preparatory education and improve their Turkish language skills before attending public schools (Ark Akyüz et al., 2018). To this end, the MoNE increased the number of Turkish language classes in TECs from five hours to 15 hours per week (MoNE, 2018b; Taştan and Çelik, 2017). Nevertheless, CSOs, teachers, and practitioners in the field highlighted the need for better monitoring and evaluation tools, as well as a more holistic approach to collecting evidence on the success of these programs (Aras & Yasun, 2016; Gökçe and Acar, 2016; Tüzün 2017).

The Need for Data as a Pressing Issue

Although Turkey’s efforts to include refugee children in education and to raise the number of children enrolled in either public schools or TECs have been quite successful, there are also certain areas where the absence or lack of data hindered the decisions of policy-makers. First, the number of enrolled children does not specify the enrollment rate of girls and boys by age or grade level. The enrollment rate is 33% in preschool, peaks at 97% in elementary school (grades 1-4), and plummets to 54% in middle school (grades 5-8) and 26% in high schools (ERG, 2018a). There is a lack of data and research on the decreasing enrollment of refugee children after primary education. Data on attendance/absenteeism of Syrian children in schools are also missing, making it hard to track attendance throughout the year. Second, there is no information on the disability status or special needs of school-aged refugees. Third, although some qualitative research on language and academic proficiency of refugee children has been conducted (Aydin and Kaya, 2017; Çelik and İçduygu, 2018; Emin, 2018), these works are generally based on limited fieldwork and therefore unable to give a coherent picture of the effects of language and academic proficiency on other results for refugee children, such as rate of attendance and absenteeism.

The MoNE Directorate General for Lifelong Learning released the 2018 Monitoring and Evaluation Report, which provides an overview of the enrollment rates of Syrian children and highlights the language services provided by the government and various partners such as UNICEF. According to the document, Turkish language services include 990,000 level 1 and 2 Turkish language kits and 5,959 education personnel to assist in language learning (MoNE, 2018b). The report also includes the successful completion of support and development courses by Syrian participants but information on the demographics, geographical distributions, and ages of the participants, as well as the content of the courses is
unavailable. Furthermore, the educational indicators appear to focus on numbers (e.g. numbers of language kits provided, numbers of Syrian children enrolled in schools, etc.) and not on the impact of the services provided or the benefits gained by the recipients.

The 2018 monitoring report is a very positive step. However, there is room for improvement including collecting new data, disaggregating existing data by variables, such as disability, socio-economic status, academic achievement level, and importantly, language proficiency. Sharing such data with relevant parties, including educators, would not only benefit students because their needs would be addressed more effectively but also allow for more efficient allocation of resources.

Conclusion
Turkey merits praise for its efforts to include Syrian children in the national education system. On the other hand, Turkey’s experience serves as a good example of the challenges involved in education in emergencies. Education is both a right and a medium for refugee children to process and overcome the adverse effects of the conflicts from which they fled, as well as to gain skills to better integrate in their host countries (UNESCO, 2018). Ensuring access to schools is a critical first step. However, maintaining a standard of quality through curriculum and a framework for education, followed by establishing measures to appropriately assess academic and social outcomes, as well as taking precautions against refugee children’s social exclusion in schools, are essential to attain the promises of education.

Appendix A

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<tr>
<th>April 2011</th>
<th>Syrian crisis begins after local protests spread nationwide, and refugees start entering Turkey.</th>
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<td>May 2011</td>
<td>The first Temporary Refugee Center (TEC) is opened by the Disaster and Emergency Management Authority (AFAD) in Hatay.</td>
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<td>October 2011</td>
<td>The government of Turkey declares an open door policy and introduces a legal framework known as “temporary protection” for Syrians.</td>
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<td>April 2013 (implemented in April 2014)</td>
<td>Law on Foreigners and International Protection establishes the General Directorate for Migration Management (GDMM), affirms Turkey’s commitment to non-refoulement, and broadly defines the educational rights of Syrian refugees.</td>
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<td>September 2013</td>
<td>The Ministry of National Education (MoNe) circular specifically declares the right to education for all Syrian children who are under temporary protection.</td>
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<tr>
<td>September 2014</td>
<td>Education Services for Foreign Nationals remove the requirement for Syrian children to have a residence permit to enroll in schools.</td>
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<tr>
<td>October 2014</td>
<td>Temporary Protection Regulation provides registered Syrians access to basic services, including education.</td>
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<td>August 2016</td>
<td>The MoNE announces plans to gradually close down TECs until 2020.</td>
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<tr>
<td>October 2016</td>
<td>Promoting Integration of Syrian Children to the Turkish Education System (PICTES) launched.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 2017</td>
<td>The government brings more strict regulations to non-governmental organisation (NGO) activities related to work with refugee children.</td>
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Source: ERG, 2018a
Endnotes

1. In line with common use, the terms “Syrians under temporary protection”, “Syrians”, and “refugees” are used interchangeably in this article and do not indicate a legal status.

2. Established in 2003, ERG, is an independent and not-for-profit think-and-do-tank that contributes to systemic transformation in education for development of the child and society through sound evidence, constructive dialogue, and innovative/critical thinking. For more information, see http://en.egitimreformugrisimi.org/

References


Introduction

The Journal on Education in Emergencies (JEiE) was created by the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) in November 2013 in response to a growing recognition among humanitarian organizations that they lacked easily accessible, rigorous evidence on which to base education programming (Burde, 2014). JEiE’s mandate is to develop and publish high-quality scholarly research and practitioner field notes on education issues facing communities affected by disaster, crisis, and conflict. This article lays out JEiE’s progress on bridging the work of academics and practitioners and creating a research community to promote the production, sharing, and use of rigorous evidence in education in emergencies (EiE). We also discuss the variety of ways JEiE broadly disseminates this evidence and encourages its uptake — such as with its new podcast, Behind the Pages.

Identifying a Need, Offering a Solution

State development agencies, ministries of education, and international humanitarian organizations collect data on the conditions under which the students in their constituencies learn and on the effectiveness of their educational interventions. However, while these agencies’ reports frequently contain up-to-date information, they are typically focused on a single country or project context, tend to collect data less systematically than academic research, and offer little analysis grounded in theory or statistical methods. Consequently, despite the abundance of data from these sources, their applicability outside of immediate policy or programming questions is limited. Although some research designs have fortified state and agency data by pairing...
them with qualitative methods like classroom observation and interviews to answer practical research questions (see Mendenhall et al., 2015), there is a need for a sustained effort across the EiE field to transform data into insightful, actionable evidence that can guide decision-making and daily work.

Until recently, the field lacked a centralized scholarly space dedicated to reporting EiE research. As King (2014) found, for example, scholarly studies in the peace and conflict literature that acknowledge a relationship between education and conflict have been rare, but were also dispersed among journals related to a number of different topics, including comparative education and international politics.

EiE began as a field of practice, but the creation of JEiE has helped solidify it as a field of study, as well. JEiE offers an important space within the EiE information ecosystem for improving learning in and among academic institutions, policy institutes, and agencies doing EiE work and for supporting policy and programming. As such, JEiE is part of a larger movement to build collective knowledge and consolidate EiE research around a set of standards for producing reliable, practical, and rigorous evidence. JEiE’s standards for inquiry, research design, data collection, and analysis, and its commitment to double-blind peer review, enable JEiE to publish rigorous articles that promote sound evidence, collective knowledge, and the professionalization of the EiE field.

**What We Publish and Our Reach**

JEiE is a double-blind peer-reviewed academic journal that publishes qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods research on education in emergencies, which INEE (2010) defines as “quality learning opportunities for all ages in situations of crisis, including early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education” (p. 117). Each issue of JEiE contains research articles, field notes, and book reviews. JEiE research articles are theoretical or empirical pieces that address key questions facing education systems or their stakeholders at any point along the emergency continuum: prevention, preparedness, mitigation, recovery, and development. Field notes address innovative approaches to EiE; progress and challenges in designing, implementing, and evaluating initiatives; and debates and commentary on research work. Practitioners or academic-practitioner teams frequently author field notes about educational initiatives on which they work. Since its inception, JEiE has published four volumes, which have been downloaded a total of over 27,000 times.

Its association with INEE provides JEiE with a ready-made network of over 14,000 potential readers, and in 2018, there were as many as 3,943 unique visitors to the JEiE webpages on the INEE website. While JEiE’s primary audience includes practitioners, academics, and policymakers, it has worked to create a secondary audience through its podcast, *Behind the Pages*. *Behind the Pages*’ episodes offer accessible, digestible insights from the field through compelling author interviews. These interviews humanize the research published in JEiE by telling the stories of the authors, students, teachers, families, and communities affected by emergency situations and who stand to benefit from the education policies and programming under study. *Behind the Pages* presents findings in a format that reaches general interest listeners; people who work on the ground in conflict and crisis contexts, including teachers and administrators; and people who study education in conflict, including students and faculty in institutions around the world. Presenting EiE evidence through non-traditional media is a critical way in which JEiE both scales up findings and raises awareness of new knowledge in the field. To date, *Behind the Pages* episodes have received 1,462 views across SoundCloud, iTunes, and YouTube.

**Our Standards**

JEiE defines high quality, rigorous research as that which, first, meets standards of critical inquiry set forth by the Journal, and second, is critiqued and revised through a process of double-blind peer review. Peer review gives readers confidence that the findings JEiE publishes were derived through appropriately designed and properly executed research methods, that the data and the research framework support authors’ claims, and that the conclusions reported in the article are sound. JEiE also conceives of this review process as one in which work of sufficient potential can be elevated to publishable quality through targeted recommendations for revision from a group of peers. JEiE has a diverse pool of reviewers, both in terms of geographic distribution as well as on dimensions such as methodological training, location, language, race/ethnicity, and subject expertise.

Peer review is also important for creating community among members of the EiE field. JEiE’s nearly 400 peer reviewers volunteer their time to contribute their feedback for the wider benefit of the field. Although peer review is the standard way that academic journals determine which research manuscripts it will publish, JEiE is unique in also putting field notes through the same process. The practice of putting a manuscript through peer review is beneficial for authors of both field notes pieces and research manuscripts because it gives authors the opportunity to receive individualized feedback on their work.

Every JEiE article is available for free on the INEE website and published under a Creative Commons License — a form of copyright that permits readers to download, save, make
copies, and distribute articles for any non-commercial purpose as long as they provide proper attribution to the authors, JEiE, and INEE. Maintaining this open source stance, granting broad permission to share EiE evidence, and not charging subscription or download fees positions JEiE as a global public good. This helps JEiE fulfill its mandate to reduce the divide between academia and the field and promote learning across higher education institutions, policy institutions, and service-delivery organizations.

Challenges and How We Address Them

Peer review is an intense and time-consuming process, but it is ultimately worthwhile. Yet several challenges affect this process. First, there is a significant potential for EiE scholars from the Global South to contribute to knowledge creation in the field, but these scholars may belong to institutions that do not incentivize publication in scholarly journals the same way that this kind of publication is a requirement for upward career mobility in the U.S., U.K., and Canadian higher education institutions. Second, authors from non-Western, non-English-speaking institutions may experience barriers (resources, language, writing style, etc.) to access when attempting to place their work outside of their home countries. In cases in which pieces have demonstrated strong potential and clear benefit to the field, JEiE has offered research support to these Global South scholars in the form of partnerships with qualified graduate students who have competence in the author’s language and experience with the subject matter of the piece. This is one way that JEiE supports the successful navigation of these pieces through the peer review process, and ultimately, broad representation in the final publication.

Practitioners also want to disseminate critical reflections of the progress and challenges to their work for the benefit of the field, but many have not considered doing so in an academic journal. Working in the field can, of course, preclude practitioners from writing and submitting analyses of their work in real time, and practitioners are often also committed to internal reporting for their organizations. Many who work in EiE do so on the basis of temporary contracts for particular projects. Over the course of the six- to 12-month period between submission and publication, practitioners may move on to a different project or location and lose access or rights to the proprietary information and key contacts they need for writing field notes manuscripts.

There is a need to support authors in the field by developing familiarity with peer review, finding ways to translate the writing process for reports into field notes, and maintaining institutional knowledge in spite of staff turnover. JEiE is working to demystify peer review, including by hosting a webinar in which the process is explained. JEiE has published on its website the precise questions reviewers answer when providing feedback on field notes, as well as other documentation of its criteria for these pieces and research articles.

Conclusion

Given its close relationship with INEE, JEiE offers a platform for transforming thousands of EiE experts’ firsthand knowledge into public information. Through its double-blind peer review process and its commitment to professionalizing the EiE field, JEiE not only publishes EiE evidence, but it also plays an important role in the development of both research and a community of researchers. The Behind the Pages podcast is a venue for JEiE authors to tell about their findings in ways that encourage dissemination and uptake of EiE evidence. JEiE is a platform for amplifying the voices of practitioners and scholars seeking to build evidence about what solutions, tools, and approaches support educational attainment in situations of crisis and conflict and to support the work of teachers, humanitarians, and public officials in the provision of the same.

Endnotes

1. INEE maintains JEiE webpages in all five of its official languages (English, Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Arabic). This figure represents the sum of visits to the main JEiE landing page in all five languages.

References


Part 2
Methodologies for Understanding “What Works”
Why History?
Most education in emergencies (EiE) scholarship comprises qualitative case studies or, to a lesser extent, quantitative impact evaluations. These research designs tend to ask and answer questions that focus on proximate and short-term objectives such as access to schooling, performance on standardized tests, or broader concerns such as how education processes and structures relate to the factors underlying conflict. Interactions with historical research are, by contrast, generally limited to a paragraph in a dissertation, journal article, or the background section of a funding proposal. This present-ist bias reflects a broader concern with the need for “policy-relevant research”: or the presumed need to undertake studies that explicitly address the here and now of policy-makers’ concerns. But to properly inform policies and practice, we also need research that takes a more distal approach, including research that looks back to the past.

Consider, for example, Lebanon. In August 2017, the Lebanese Foreign Minister posted an old photograph of Ein al Hilweh Palestinian refugee camp in South Lebanon on Instagram, accompanied by the caption: “Do not accept [Syrian refugee] camps, oh Lebanese”, “So that the country remains ours” (Bassil, 2017). The post is a reminder of the lasting and tangible ways in which the past shapes contemporary responses to the Syrian refugee crisis. Yet, very little research concerning Syrian refugees considers these historical linkages and lessons (Irfan, 2017). EiE policies and interventions are always, however, the logic of previous historical arrangements. This does not mean that past events or historical context predict the present, but it can and does mean that a more thorough and critical understanding of what happened and why can make visible the operations of power, and contingencies and contestations that shape EiE programs and policies today. Finally, historical research is especially relevant for the field of EiE given the protracted nature of many conflicts and the continued legacies of these conflicts.

Summary
This article discusses the overlooked importance of historical research for the education in emergencies field. Drawing on our research reconstructing education histories of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), we argue that it is only by looking backwards that we can better understand the present and make impactful changes to future education in emergencies policies and programs.

Keywords
Historical Research
Refugee Education
Kenya
Palestine
UNHCR
UNRWA
What is Historical Research?

History, like many disciplines, has a contested ontology and comprises diverse methods. At one end of the spectrum are positivistic stances which see history as the uncovering of “truths” about the past. At the other end, constructivist approaches posit historical narratives as one fiction among many about the past. We argue that the most fruitful way of viewing history is as a social process that is produced through “the uneven contribution of competing groups and individuals who have uneven access to the means for such production” (Trouillot, 1995, p.xix). In other words, history requires a critical appreciation of power and its uses. For example, archives were produced by individuals with the power to make consequential decisions on behalf of others. In addition to what they reveal about the past, they should, therefore, be analyzed as systems of administrative power that establish particular ways of seeing and knowing (Foucault, 1972). Oral histories, on the other hand, can privilege the recollections and memories of the less powerful. And, although memories need to be critically examined for their fallibility, the meaning-making and silencing that takes place through the act of recollection offers highly valuable lessons in and of itself (King, 2009). Finally, historians have the power to frame and reframe understandings of the past through their methodological and interpretative choices, including the selection of timeframes and the relative onus they place on events, facts, or people. In other words, good historical research requires careful, critical sensitivity to narratives, structures, and researcher positionality.

Historical Data

The identification and collection of historical sources pose particular challenges. Wars, natural disasters, and displacement rarely support the preservation and protection of records. And, since history itself is often contested in conflict-affected contexts, access to records that do exist may be curtailed. We encountered such difficulties in our own research. One of us (Jo) viewed primary sources from seven archives in four countries. In the process, she discovered that important documents had been destroyed, stolen, lost, and re-appropriated, sometimes in a conscious effort to control the historical narrative (see for example Aderet, 2017; Sleiman, 2016). Further, each archive imposed different access requirements that needed to be considered during data collection, analysis, and interpretation. And, as Chrissie discovered in her research, regardless of the rise of global and transnational histories, the discipline (much like education) is a state-centric enterprise. For example, there is no archive dedicated to Dadaab or Kakuma camp, and no records of either camp maintained in the Kenyan National Archives. Instead, ad-hoc records are kept at the UNHCR archives in Geneva. As such, transnational spaces, including many refugee camps, are “places without history,” despite hosting refugees for decades. To highlight the contributions historical research can make to our field, the next section offers insights from our own research.

Historical Insights on Refugee Education

The Development of UNHCR Education Programming in Kenya’s Dadaab and Kakuma Refugee Camps

Today, there exist frameworks (e.g. the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Minimum Standards for Education) and policy precedents that position education as a life-saving, protective service that are leveraged by UNHCR education officers to advocate for funding for education in refugee camps. However, almost three decades ago when many camps were rapidly established throughout the world in response to large influxes of refugees at the end of the Cold War, such documents and tools did not exist. Answers to questions regarding what to teach, to whom, and for how long were contingent, debates surrounding them often contentious, and the decision-making process constrained by a wide range of competing if not divergent interests of the UNHCR and the individuals working within it as well as host states, UNHCR’s donors, and of course refugees themselves. Reconstructing the education histories of Kenya’s Dadaab and Kakuma refugee camps, until recently the two largest camps in the world, helps make clear how refugee education policies and programs are developed, implemented, and changed over time, yet why challenges (e.g. high numbers of out of school children; high student to teacher ratios) persist in both camps and many others, despite such changes. These camps’ education histories also make clear how particular institutional and ideational constraints determine some of the challenges to refugee education (e.g. UNHCR’s one year-funding cycle) and, critically, the importance of agency, and how it was exercised by refugees as well as a handful of policymakers at key moments to change institutional structures (Monaghan, 2015). Such lessons can be usefully applied by policymakers and program officers to address persistent challenges in refugee education in Kakuma and Dadaab and other longstanding camps, as well as in the development and implementation of refugee education in new camps (e.g. Kutupalong in Cox’s Bazaar, Bangladesh).

Including Refugees in Host State Education Systems: Insights from the Palestinian Case

In 2011, UNHCR began to promote the inclusion of refugee students in host state education systems. Before, most refugees were taught their home country curriculum in separately administered schools. UNRWA’s history offers an interesting perspective on this policy shift. When UNRWA began operations in 1950, in addition to establishing its own schools, it subsidized thousands of Palestinian refugees to attend public and private schools in Gaza (under Egyptian administration),
Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, and the West Bank (under Jordanian administration). This helped to rapidly expand access to education among the refugee population. It did not, however, promote refugees’ inclusion because host states continued to socially, politically, and economically exclude or segregate Palestinian refugees and because refugees themselves wanted to retain their Right to Return. Subsidies were finally abandoned in the 1970s, owing to funding cuts that caused considerable tensions with host governments.

Today, most UNRWA refugees learn the host government curriculum in separately administered schools. Although this facilitates educational accreditation, it may have an ambiguous impact on learning outcomes. For example, learning the Lebanese curriculum while simultaneously experiencing exclusion from Lebanese society has been associated with reduced student and teacher motivation and school dropout (Al Hroub, 2011; Sayigh, 2017; Shuayb, 2014). Among the lessons of UNRWA’s history is the importance of ensuring that education objectives align with the wider policy environment, that refugees’ perspectives are reflected in policy-making, and that the financial sustainability of policies is considered in light of the often-protracted nature of displacement.

Driving Forward with the Rearview Mirror

As we have argued elsewhere, diverse forms of research are needed to capture the multifarious and multifaceted ways in which education and conflict interact (Kelcey & Monaghan, 2018). Historians’ tools of evidence and accuracy can be utilized by EiE scholars to ask new and different questions about refugee education policies and programs. This includes why specific policies and programs were implemented, whether, why, and how the EiE field has changed over time, and crucially, what the responsibility and accountability of different stakeholders are in program and policy development. By understanding what has come to pass we are better positioned to produce scholarship that assists policymakers and practitioners in moving forward. Possibilities are on the horizon for choosing and even making the road ahead, but we must navigate with these new maps and drive forward with the help of the rearview mirror.

References


“That word is not used here”: Challenges of Qualitative Research in Areas Affected by Armed Conflict

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Summary
While we have notions about which methodologies are appropriate for research in education in emergencies, little has been written in this field about the limitations and possibilities faced when carrying out qualitative research in contexts affected by armed conflict. In this article, I offer reflections on the use of public policy categories in the formulation and implementation of ethnographic approaches in war-affected areas.

Keywords
Qualitative Methods
Ethnographic Methods
Public Policy
Armed Conflict
Colombia

Introduction
My first visit in 2013 to the town of La Misericordia in the eastern part of the Colombian-Ecuadorian border revealed to me that my proposed research design did not respond to the conditions of the community in which I now found myself. The original aim of the study was to understand the trajectories of Colombian refugees as they sought to gain access to the Ecuadorian education system in an area of the country where the former Revolutionary Armed Front of Colombia (FARC), a leftist guerrilla organization, exerted influence. Towards the end of the pilot study, I asked a school teacher: “How do you deal with the guerrillas?” In contrast to the sweet tone that she had previously used, she forcefully responded: “That word [guerrillas] is not used here.” Her answer pushed me to rethink the methodological design of my study. Before I continued collecting data, I had to answer: What other categories were not used here? Who vetoed them? Why? What risks would my participants and I take when using them?

In this article, I present the strategies that I have developed to refine my methodological approach while carrying out two ethnographic studies in areas affected by the Colombian armed conflict. The first study, carried out between 2013 and 2014, analyzed how Colombians with refugee status and actors in the educational and humanitarian systems used the category ‘refugee’ in two locations in Ecuador. The second study, conducted between 2017 and 2018 in Arauca—a border area between Colombia and Venezuela governed by the Domingo Lain Front of the National Liberation Army (ELN)—analyzed the social practices that give form to peacebuilding policies in the education sector. To do so, I followed a school principal as she interacted with municipal, departmental, and national governmental and non-governmental institutions.

The structure of this article mirrors the arc of an ideal research process: 1) study design, 2) data collection and data analysis, and 3) dissemination of research findings.

Study Design
The fact that diverse actors can profit from the knowledge produced by scholars of education in emergencies (EIE)
confirms the political dimension of working in this field. For this reason, research decisions must be oriented to ensure that the results of the study do not compromise the safety of the communities where we work and those directly involved in the research.

From the moment that a researcher decides to work with “victims”, “refugees”, “combatants”, “displaced children”, “child soldiers”, “gang members”, or “drug traffickers”, she begins to make decisions that can dramatically affect her participants. These categories are not neutral. The choice to use one of these terms to define the target population of a study is also a choice to position individuals and communities in relation to the armed conflict. While some are positioned as perpetrators (e.g. “ex-combatants” or “guerrillas”), others are cast as victims (e.g. “child soldiers”, “internally displaced”, or “refugees”).

Labeling an individual with one of these categories entails two risks. The first risk is that the study may inadvertently reveal to the participants’ community their personal affiliation to the armed conflict, and thus make them identifiable. For example, in my research on the Colombian-Ecuadorian border, participants requested I keep their status identifiable. For example, in my research on the Colombian-Ecuadorian border, participants requested I keep their status secret for fear of being recognized as victims by armed actors and thus becoming military targets again. This consideration regarding how we use public policy categories in research must be reflected in our data-collection instruments. Instead of assuming that a person can be classified a priori with a given category, ask open questions about their relationship to the armed conflict, and how they make sense of their personal affiliation with it.

The second risk is that a study may produce knowledge that fuels decisions that perpetuate the violence generated by armed conflict. While this risk is based on an optimistic perspective regarding the potential of academic research to influence high-level decision-making, we should consider the different uses that actors can make of our findings and arguments. Some questions to keep in mind are: What are the implications for the participant community to be recognized as belonging to one of these categories? Which actors at the international, national, and local levels could be interested in this data, and for what purposes? What decisions could be substantiated by the argument and evidence presented? Are there any possibilities that this data will serve to support military interventions? One useful measure to assess the potential consequences of the research is to ask yourself whether you would be willing to share these questions and answers with the study participants. If the answer is negative, it may be advisable to modify, postpone, or even stop the study.

Data Collection and Data Analysis
In the process of data collection, it becomes clear that public policy categories are much more unstable than we think. This instability is manifested in the potential gap that exists between the conceptual tools that researchers bring to the field and how people make sense of their own experiences. In my work in Ecuador, I learned that while the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and non-governmental organizations designed and implemented interventions prioritizing people’s migratory experience, my informants did not necessarily integrate the notion of refugees into their day-to-day lives (Rodríguez-Gómez, 2016).

Another form of instability is evident when several policy categories are used within a single testimony. While carrying out in-depth interviews with parents in Arauca, I found that three public policy categories overlapped in their narratives: “ex-combatants,” “victims,” and “farmers.” Each of the three categories fulfilled a specific purpose when accounting for their intimate relationship with the armed conflict. This finding illustrates how arbitrary it is for the researcher to choose beforehand one category over another in making sense of participants’ experience.

Finally, public policy categories are not always apparent in ordinary language. In order to protect whoever uses them, such categories frequently appear in what Cobley (1994) calls “war narratives,” meaning a set of words, silences, and metaphors that serve as explanatory frameworks to rationalize violence and displacement that social suffering has caused. In the two studies mentioned here, participants avoided using direct terms about the conflict. For example, the word “guerrilla” was replaced with “boys,” “groups,” or “organizations” and the term “war” with “the situation” or “the problem.” This highlights the need for research to account for the multiple ways of naming and discussing war in each context.

From this perspective, data analysis requires that the researcher avoid choosing a priori one category over another. All the categories that emerge in the process of coding and writing notes should be considered in accounting for how participants frame and experience their relationship to the armed conflict.

Dissemination of Research Findings
Although the researcher will want to share the results of the research study with participants, in places affected by armed conflict, this process has unexpected implications for the security of all parties. For example, the end of the ceasefire between the government of Colombia and the ELN on January 10, 2018, and the subsequent resurgence of the conflict in the area made it impossible for me to return to the
school where data were originally collected. Faced with this situation, I opted to share the results of the study with the principal during a short visit that she carried out to Bogotá, Colombia’s capital. Due to the delicate nature of the content of the final report, which discussed the guerrilla presence at the school, I opted not to circulate the document via email, but instead shared it only in printed format. In the case of the study conducted along the Colombian-Ecuadorean border, sharing the findings was possible; however, once the principal read them, he requested that they not be shared with the rest of the community. From his perspective, the risk lay in making public the educational community’s knowledge regarding the modus operandi of the armed conflict actors in the area. To remain faithful to the principle of producing knowledge that is shared in order to generate opportunities for social transformation, I have explored other formats for disseminating the results of my research, such as producing educational guidelines and teacher training workshops, for example, instead of written reports.

Conclusions

The field of EiE examines the relationships that arise between various types of crisis and the guarantee of the right to education, and therefore it requires conflict-sensitive guidelines to shape the research process. This article invites researchers—regardless of methodological preference—to frame their studies with questions that consider the dynamics that produce and expand armed conflicts and to refrain from using public policy categories unquestioningly to label human groups.

References


Introduction
The military conflict between the Ukrainian Army and Russia-supported separatist fighters has been going on in Eastern Ukraine since 2014. Five years of armed confrontation has negatively affected children, teachers, education facilities, and the wider education system (OCHA, 2019). Over 400,000 children live, learn, and play near the front line where shelling occurs every day. According to the Education Cluster, within the 20-kilometer “contact line”, 60% of schools observe the impact of the conflict on children’s ability to learn and/or on their wellbeing, making the availability of psychosocial support even more important (OCHA, 2019).

Apart from the immediate physical dangers facing children and educators, educational professionals face new challenges associated with the rapid increase in the number of children suffering from psychological trauma and a demand for new teaching approaches to meet the psychosocial needs of these children (UNICEF, 2018). Fortunately, the Ukrainian educational system has professional psychological services available within schools; almost every educational facility has a school psychologist on staff (Panok, 2005). However, these specialists are not always trained in evidence-based psychosocial interventions for emergencies.

In the first days of the armed conflict, the National University of Kyiv-Mohyla Academy (NaUKMA) in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (MoES) and the UNICEF Office in Ukraine joined efforts to address the
aforementioned challenges. This fruitful cooperation resulted in the development and implementation of an effective multi-layered system of psychosocial support in education facilities built upon the existing psychological school aid network (Bogdanov et. al., 2017a).

In 2014, NaUKMA researchers started to explore psychosocial problems and coping strategies of conflict-affected children. Eight focus groups with 50 school-aged children and two focus groups with 27 parents were conducted in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts (regions). The children reported having the following difficulties: sleep disruption, nightmares and disturbed dreaming, waking up in cold sweat or with screaming, fear of being left alone, high temperature when nervous, frequent urination, stuttering, rudeness, aggressiveness, emotional instability, weak memory skills, whining, and nervousness. Being fearful was the most prevalent problem among all parents. Various coping mechanisms were used by children in order to overcome stress, namely listening to music, reading books, physical activity, creative art activities, interacting with peers, pursuing the support of close relatives and friends, and having meaningful and emotional conversations. These qualitative results were used to guide the development of a multi-layered package of educational and psychosocial intervention to help teachers (Bogdanov et al., 2017b) and school psychologists (Bogdanov et al., 2017c) support learner’s well-being. The model includes training teachers on resilience strengthening at the first layer and training school psychologists in the SAFE SPACE methodology (Bogdanov et al., 2017c) of creating and running recovery groups at the second layer.

**Effectiveness of Teacher and School Psychologist Interventions**

It was hypothesized that teacher training sessions would positively impact the well-being of children. The participatory training enabled teachers to acquire skills of emotional communication, understanding psychosocial stress reactions, and building trusting relationships with affected children. Overall, 3,842 teachers from five districts in Eastern Ukraine were trained.

The practical support for children and educators was imbedded within a research design that used representative samples of school classes in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts during the period of February-March 2016. The study used a repeated measures design, and the second wave of data was collected after the teacher intervention in November 2016. Teachers were randomly selected for training and outcomes were evaluated for students. Sixteen classroom teachers of children (N=314) from the treatment group underwent training sessions, whereas thirteen classroom teachers of children (N=372) from the control group did not.

Relative to the control group, children in the treatment group showed statistically significant improvement in prosocial behavior, emotional comfort, relationships with peers and behavioral problems. However, the study has found no statistically significant difference in levels of traumatic stress between children from control and treatment groups after the intervention.

The effectiveness of the SAFE SPACE intervention was measured in another study from January-March 2015. We evaluated the psychological condition of students who had been referred to a psychologist for support at baseline and after they had participated in seven group sessions provided by trained school psychologists. On the baseline level, the more psychologically-affected students from Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts were selected based on the psychologists’ assessment of their stress level and present functional difficulties. From the 1,365 children who participated in these group sessions, 130 children were randomly selected for follow-up outcome measurement.

After the intervention, the number of children with high levels of traumatic stress symptoms and hyperactivity decreased. Similarly, the number of children who scored low on ‘prosocial behavior’ slightly decreased.

**Promising Practices in Data and Evidence Related to Psychosocial Support Interventions in Schools**

Here we summarize some of the practical aspects of the research approach applied by NaUKMA researchers:

1. **Applying qualitative research methods for investigating children’s socio-ecological context, understanding of their psychosocial problems, and coping strategies.** This strategy is in line with findings from a 2013 meta-analysis of resilience strengthening programs among children that suggests considering local cultural resilience characteristics and the dynamics of conflict instead of coming in with a fixed set of resilience determinants and trying to adopt diverse local contexts to existing tools (Tol, Song & Jordans, 2013). Using this approach helped to ensure that the intervention was addressing an existing need and built support from the community, schools, and management partners.

2. **Using existing evidence-based approaches for psychosocial program development.** Using evidence-based approaches helped to build support and led to the success of the project. The focused group intervention SAFE SPACE (mentioned above) incorporates common components of cognitive behavioral therapy including cognitive coping, relaxation, and behavioral activation.
(Berkowitz et al., 2010; Murray et al., 2014; Bryant & Harvey, 1995), and provides social support to affected children, which is also an effective strategy in reducing traumatic stress.

3. Experimental and quasi-experimental research design for testing program effectiveness and for continual program improvement. This approach allowed implementers to combine ethical aspects of psychosocial support in emergencies with conducting research that meets high scientific standards. The project was developed to provide access to services for children in need; however, we were also able to use this project to conduct research investigating the effectiveness of these interventions in the local context. Additionally, available trained mental health professionals, as well as well-established data collection procedures in schools, contributed positively to obtaining critical evidence.

4. Mixed-methods approach based on the use of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Using this approach is in line with the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) recommendation on monitoring and evaluation of psychosocial programs in emergencies (IASC, 2017) and allows researchers to benefit from the advantages of each type of method at different stages of program development, piloting, monitoring, and evaluation in emergencies.

5. Applying validated instruments to collect data. Using the Ukrainian version of the global Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997) helped to ensure the validity of our results. Other measures for studying post-traumatic stress like the widely used Children’s Revised Impact of Event Scale (CRIES-8) (Perrin et al., 2005) were also used to gain a holistic understanding of the experience of psychological trauma, its impact on mental health, and coping strategies of children and families.

**Conclusion**

The approach presented is one example of how academic partners working with government, United Nations (UN), or other implementing agencies can fill critical gaps in education in emergencies data and evidence. Both interventions within the model (the teacher training and school psychologist training) proved effective at reducing the numbers of children with difficulties related to the stress and trauma of living in a conflict zone. These results provide evidence for a model of effectively integrating quality education and psychosocial support in emergency settings. The synergistic effect of positive and emotionally safe school classroom environments, where children are actively supported by trained teachers and with more targeted school psychologist interventions, made a significant difference in the well-being of affected children and opened new perspectives for their personal growth. Such synergy was possible because both interventions were developed and tailored through systematic reflection on qualitative and quantitative research findings. This mixed-methods approach provides an in-depth understanding of contextual information, highlights the strengths of each intervention, and assists in developing referral mechanisms between the two service levels. Utilizing partnerships between Ukrainian universities and international organizations, implementing evidence-based approaches, and conducting quality mixed-methods research has proven to be an effective approach to meeting some of the mental health needs of the children along the conflict line in Ukraine and could be adapted to carrying out future projects in this region.

**Endnotes**

1. Despite the fact that the presented study applies a clustered randomized trial design, analyzing multi-level regression or clustering standard error were not used to examine the effect of the teacher intervention on continuous variables, because of the limited possibility to control the size of school classes across the initial sample which varied from small (less than 10 students) to large (more than 30 students).
References


Introduction
Historically, northeast Nigeria is a marginalized region, characterized by high poverty levels, inefficient government services, and weak institutional capacity. Over the last decade, it has been marred by violent insurgency which has further exacerbated social and economic hardship. This conflict has been particularly devastating to the region’s already fragile education system, leaving nearly three million young people with no access to quality education (Humanitarian Response, 2018). The USAID-funded Nigeria Education Crisis Response (ECR) made significant efforts to adapt to this volatile context. Over its 39-month lifespan (from October 2014 to January 2018), ECR employed a mixed-methods approach to data collection and evidence building, refining its design to maximize effects. The project applied feedback loops at multiple levels with a broad network of stakeholders to expand education access to more than 80,000 internally displaced and out-of-school children and youth (age 6 to 17) in the country’s conflict-affected northeast (USAID, 2018).

Emphasis on Learning
The fluid operating environment required ECR to adopt a flexible implementation model. In this ever-changing context, entire communities were displaced and lacked basic necessities, unpredictable attacks had traumatized many teachers and students, and there were few safe learning environments.

ECR emphasized collaboration with local partners to learn and adapt, developing a mixed-methods approach to collecting and processing data and information, reviewing progress, and allowing for decision-making built on collective input (USAID Learning Lab, n.d.). This approach was responsive to beneficiaries and built sustainability through local ownership. Furthermore, the approach embodied an emergent theory of change that used feedback loops to address equity and access issues and develop local actors’ capacities to make informed decisions.
Feedback Loops

ECR employed feedback loops at multiple levels to gather and analyze evidence, then alter implementation as needed. ECR used both formal and informal strategies to establish dynamic, continuous feedback loops.

Formal feedback loop mechanisms regularly generated evidence through structured data and information collection and exchange. Examples include learning assessments, rolling assessments, and weekly progress reports. In addition, ECR convened a wide range of stakeholders for work planning sessions and technical summits. For instance, mentors and teachers met every two months to review quality assurance officers’ reports. Participants discussed teacher performance, identified gaps in instructional skills, and retrained teachers in specific areas.

In contrast, ECR’s informal feedback loops were open, collaborative fora, often in the form of unstructured dialogue with stakeholders, that generated informal data and evidence. This iterative learning approach included informal discussions with community coalitions and teachers to learn about their needs and challenges. Additionally, staff and sub-grantee officers made periodic visits to traditional leaders to solicit support for education and learn from their perspectives. Such opportunities allowed for spontaneity and authentic information sharing. Informal feedback loops became ingrained in ECR’s culture—there was a process for getting the necessary feedback (which often did not come through formal data collection), analyzing it, and using it to make informed decisions.

Through its various feedback loops, ECR analyzed implementation progress in access and learning, which informed adaptive management. One issue addressed at the end of the first year was low girls’ enrollment. Meetings were held with staff, local government education authorities, and communities to brainstorm evidence-based solutions. Participants were guided to reflect, identify opportunities, set goals, develop action plans, assign roles, and schedule follow-up meetings to track progress. Through this process, ECR made a number of changes, including: establishing girls-only learning centers close to communities; training teachers to use gender-sensitive pedagogy; providing hygiene supplies and locally-relevant vocational skills; recruiting more female teachers; and launching mothers’ clubs to promote girls’ education. This experience was shared with stakeholders in new target states as the project expanded, enabling them to use similar feedback loops to diagnose needs in their geographic areas. At least partly as a result of these changes, ECR showed an increase in girls’ enrollment from 48% in year one, to 56% by year three.

Successes

ECR achieved several successes using its mixed-methods approach. Project staff and government partners demonstrated their appreciation for how feedback loops could be used to solve problems that would not have been mitigated without such broad and ongoing engagement. Moreover, communities themselves helped identify alternative solutions to local problems, countering corporal punishment by replacing abusive teachers, and advocating for both financial and in-kind support from local government education authorities.

Through its collaborative approach to evidence building, ECR took root in communities, fostering trust among stakeholders who developed a commitment to the shared work. The project guided more than 50 sub-grantees through needs-based trainings, helping them identify their assets and develop into more self-sufficient organizations. In turn, communities were empowered to identify priorities, mobilize resources, and advocate for their own children and youth. Positive results included communities establishing 27 additional learning centers using non-project funds; addressing safety and security concerns by pooling funds to repair boreholes; and training community members to monitor learning centers during class time.

As it evolved over three years of implementation, ECR generated significant development outcomes, including instructional topics and vocational training tailored to local demand and increased support for teachers through a multi-layered monitoring system. In terms of gender equity, 33% of the project’s 1,456 learning centers served girls exclusively, and 55% of the total learners enrolled across all centers were female.

Challenges and Lessons Learned

Despite its successes, ECR did experience challenges in conducting high-quality research in a conflict-affected setting.

Measuring Learning Gains

ECR realized impressive gains in literacy and numeracy; however, the team found it more difficult to measure social-emotional learning (SEL) outcomes. At start-up, the project utilized an adapted version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Youthmind Ltd., n.d.). Although the SDQ’s advantages include its brevity and ease of administration, there were several disadvantages:

- It was developed as a preliminary diagnostic tool for children considered at low risk in general education, not for assessing those affected by trauma and loss, nor for
capturing changes over time.

- Reports from both learners and teachers were problematic. Learners likely had a social desirability response bias when self-reporting on sensitive survey questions about undesirable behavior. For teachers, who at baseline had only known learners a short time, but were easier to locate than parents, it was likely difficult to answer questions that required a familiarity not yet developed.

- The use of reverse-scored questions negatively affected the tool’s internal consistency, thus distorting results on individual SEL subscales.

As these issues came to light, ECR collaborated with its partner, the International Rescue Committee, to analyze and validate six alternative tools in the final year of implementation contributing to the important research around SEL measurement in conflict-affected contexts.

**Doing Rolling Assessments Right**

ECR also documented lessons learned from its Community Education and Conflict Assessment (CECA), one of its central feedback loops (USAID, 2017). Conducted every six months, the CECA sought to capture the changing nature of education and conflict within communities. The CECA covered vulnerability, access and protection, teaching and learning, and parental participation, among other topics.

While initial assessments conducted in each target state effectively informed activity design, ECR found that doing meaningful rolling assessments rapidly and nimbly was not a straightforward task. It can be difficult to design a sampling approach that provides a representative sample from each community/state and then balance these requirements with the substantial resources (human and financial) and skills needed to use the tool. Furthermore, one must determine the analytical capacity and time needed to analyze both quantitative and qualitative (open-ended) data, particularly from focus group discussions; and consider the trade-offs between primary and secondary data—while primary data is real-time and specific, it is costlier and takes longer to collect. Moreover, an initial assessment capturing critical data points around access to education at the project start-up might cover different topics than a quick pulse-check on the two-way relationship between education and conflict during implementation. For instance, one might vary tool usage depending on the context, using some tools in certain places, and others elsewhere, based on community type (urban/rural) or severity of the conflict. Likewise, if children’s safety on the way to/from centers is flagged as an implementation challenge, a more flexible rolling assessment approach might be most effective for exploring gender differences or specific nuances related to such risks.

Implementing partners also should consider a phased approach to data collection when conducting rolling assessments. While the CECA design used a convergent parallel approach, where stakeholder interviews and discussions were conducted during the same timeframe and analyzed in tandem, it might be useful to use a sequential approach in future iterations, where a quantitative data collection phase is followed by a qualitative phase. This approach would allow for digging deeper on key questions, especially when survey results show large differences in experiences or impacts between target groups or when results are unexpected or difficult to understand.

In retrospect, ECR’s mixed methods approach to data collection demonstrated agility and responsiveness in many ways. However, it could have benefited from a more agile rolling assessment approach to enhance its evidence building and adaptability to on-the-ground realities.

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Examining the Enumerator Effect: Improving Data Quality Through Enumerator Observation

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Introduction
Conducting research in conflict, crisis-affected, and emergency contexts is rife with challenges: the environment is highly unpredictable, necessitating that research staff—many of whom may be unfamiliar with data collection procedures—navigate complex decisions, while security restrictions often prevent close monitoring and supervision by lead researchers (Pennell & Cibelli Hibben, 2016). Consequently, the resulting data can contain a myriad of quality issues; data errors are not only resource-intensive to identify, verify, and repair, but they can also cast doubt upon the integrity of the data set as a whole. At best, the collection of invalid data represents a missed opportunity to generate rigorous evidence for beneficiaries in emergency contexts; at worst, drawing conclusions from such data risks misinforming policy and practice. In this article, we argue that data quality can be improved via the use of a field-feasible observation protocol which focuses on core competencies of enumerator quality. Evidence on these core competencies can serve as the foundation for training, monitoring, and ongoing support.

Data Quality
Data quality is most often defined as data that can be confidently employed in the way it was intended; to operationalize, we narrow our focus here to the characteristics of completeness, accuracy, and validity, or the degree to which the data fully and precisely represent the intended construct. Traditionally, data quality is assessed after its collection by calculating rates of non-response and missing data (Koch, Blom, Stoop, & Kappelhof, 2009). While these qualities are important, they tell us little about the data’s accuracy and virtually nothing about their validity. For example, non-response is a result of the interaction among the enumerator, the respondent, and the context; it’s not clear how to disentangle one of these influences from the others. Similarly, non-response patterns do

Summary
In this article, we introduce a field-feasible method of monitoring data quality: an observation protocol designed around core competencies of enumerator (data collector) performance. We argue that evidence-based competencies can be utilized for enumerator selection, training, monitoring, and ongoing support.

Keywords
Data Collection
Data Quality
Enumerator Training

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not provide diagnostic information regarding what behavior(s), skill(s), or practice(s) are producing the variation in response rates. Finally, participant cooperation—while certainly a first and important step of data collection—tells us little to nothing of the resulting data quality.

In order to fill this crucial knowledge gap, we must understand more about the process of measure administration, with a focus on the interactions between the enumerator and the respondent. Unlike post-hoc calculations of response rates, in situ observation of enumerator quality is a proactive method of data quality monitoring, providing immediate and actionable evidence of enumerator performance. Observational data can be used beyond monitoring to minimize errors through training, remediate weak skills, and provide an evidence base for enumerator selection.

**Enumerator Quality**

It is widely understood that those hired and trained to collect research data can have large and lasting effects on resulting data quality (Groves, 2004)—particularly in emergency contexts—yet we have virtually no evidence-based practices to guide the hiring, training, and monitoring of these key personnel. Prior research on enumerator effects is mostly limited to observable characteristics such as sex and race, despite mixed evidence of their effects on respondents (Groves, 2004). To our knowledge, no standardized measure currently exists to build an evidence base around high-quality skills and traits of enumerator performance.

We aim to establish a set of core competencies of enumerator quality or core knowledge and skills that we expect enumerators to be able to perform in the field. Given the nascent state of the literature on enumerator quality, the identification of these core skills will likely be a mixture of those identified in the literature as well as during field observation. For example, there is a strong evidence base that establishing rapport with a respondent is a core competency of enumerator performance, leading to more accurate and complete data (Bell, Fahmy, & Gordon, 2014). In our field observations, we have found that utilizing a response scale—that is, ensuring that the respondent understands the response scale and properly eliciting and placing the participant’s response at the right scale score—is a skill that both varies widely among enumerators and affects resulting data quality (Brown & Ngoga, in preparation).

**Observation in the Field: The Case Study of 3EA**

In this section, we detail the opportunities for using a coherent framework of enumerator competencies to systematize enumerator hiring, training, and monitoring for improved data quality. We draw both from the literature as well as our experience utilizing an enumerator observation protocol as part of the 3EA: Education in Emergencies, Evidence for Action study, involving a randomized field trial in Diffa, Niger (Brown, Kim, & Yagoda, 2018).²

**Structured Training**

While it has been demonstrated that training results in improved performance of enumerators (Billiet & Loosveldt, 1988), few resources exist to operationalize which core skills and competencies should be targeted in their training. The introduction of a conceptually-based observation protocol provides not only a set of research-based core competencies to anchor enumerator training but also a quality spectrum of each practice. In other words, it provides a framework for what it would look like to perform each practice—for example, establishing rapport—poorly, adequately, and exemplarily. Core competencies should provide the foundation of enumerator training, upon which specific measure information is built.

**Building Supervisor Capacity**

Crisis settings rarely coincide with a strong tradition of research (Pennell & Cibelli Hibben, 2016). Building a structured supervisory process upon standardized enumerator practices provides a unique opportunity to build data management capacity. In our experience, supervisors can be identified during the training as those who have high interpersonal skills and a strong conceptual and technical grasp of the measures. They are subsequently trained to achieve reliability on the observation protocol.

Supervisors’ primary role is to provide intense monitoring at the beginning of a data collection wave, when the majority of errors occur. If the data collection period is long (i.e. more than three weeks), supervisors can also act as a reserve workforce to buffer against enumerator attrition and subsequent data collection delays.

**Field Monitoring**

Direct observation of enumerators provides several important but distinct additions to the current state of field monitoring and supervision. First, it ensures that enumerators are monitored closely and frequently during measure administration. The knowledge that one will be observed to ensure high-quality performance can increase the probability of protocol adherence on its own (Lied & Kazandjian, 1998). Second, close monitoring can prevent high-stakes errors—for example, our supervisory protocol allowed immediate intervention if the enumerator had not properly adhered to consent procedures.

Finally, the data produced by daily enumerator observations provide immediate and actionable information about the state of data collection in a setting where researchers are often unable to be physically present (Koch et al., 2009). This information can be utilized to describe the state of data
collection quickly and efficiently. For example, in 3EA, daily observation scores were aggregated by competency and reported out on a weekly basis. Figure 1 displays enumerator performance in the first week of data collection for the competency of utilizing a response scale.

Figure 1: Utilizing a Response Scale

Ongoing Remediation and Professional Development
Unlike traditional measures of monitoring, enumerator observations can be used diagnostically to inform ongoing enumerator capacity-building. In 3EA, remediation occurred in one of two distinct ways: first, field supervisors used data gathered from observations to provide personalized feedback to enumerators in one-on-one debriefs. During these exchanges, the observation protocol serves as a scaffold for supervisors, narrowing their focus on a finite set of conceptually and practically important competencies rather than extraneous or superficial aspects of measure administration; meanwhile, the quality spectrum ensures that supervisors can give targeted and specific feedback for improvement. Second, observation data were aggregated across enumerators to diagnose and remediate common errors and patterns, which were addressed weekly in whole-group sessions. Aggregated information was also used diagnostically to improve subsequent waves of enumerator training.²

Research for Improvement of Enumerator Performance
Information collected on each enumerator’s individual performance continues to add value beyond the data wave itself; hiring and demographic data can be used in conjunction with observation data to generate evidence of which dispositions, skills, and behaviors predict high-quality enumerator performance. This information can refine subsequent selection criteria and focus recruitment efforts. For example, in 3EA we increased the minimum education requirement based on information that those without the equivalence of a bachelor’s degree were under-performing relative to peers. With wider usage of such protocols, the field could generate a knowledge base of which traits predict performance in various contexts and/or measure administrations. This knowledge could be used to target hiring or differentiate training, which could substantively increase the validity of data collected and subsequent conclusions drawn from such data.

Conclusion
With so little rigorous research conducted in emergency contexts, it is imperative that the data collected in these settings and, more importantly, conclusions and recommendations derived from such data, are as accurate as possible. The lack of a standardized observation instrument to monitor and improve enumerator—and, ultimately, data—quality prevents the field from learning from and with one another on how to fulfill this promise.

Endnotes
1. Data collection protocols included child report measures of social-emotional competencies, enumerator report of child behavior during the measure administration, and direct performance assessments of executive functioning, math, and literacy skills.
2. Enumerators and supervisors were hired locally in 3EA by the International Rescue Committee. Supervisors held different titles and a higher pay grade based on their job responsibilities. Enumerator data were used formatively, and enumerators were not differentially compensated based on the results of supervisor observations.
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A Co-design Methodology for Blended Teacher Professional Development in Contexts of Mass Displacement

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Summary
Teachers working in challenging contexts of mass displacement need both expert and peer support. This article shares a co-design methodology being used to develop and test the use of what we are calling Massive Online Open Collaborations (MOOCs) which involve blended learning approaches for teacher professional development.

Keywords
Mass Displacement
Teacher Professional Development
Co-design Methodology
MOOCs
Lebanon

Background
As emergencies caused by conflicts and disasters become more protracted, the need to protect, promote, and fulfil the right to education becomes ever more pressing. Mass displacement strains state education services of the host country, creating an enormous demand for teachers who are appropriately trained to deal with the complex educational challenges they face (Ring & West, 2015).

Teachers are in the classroom responding to the needs of learners every day. They see what works and invent solutions in situations where conventional methods of teaching and learning are not suitable. The challenge for teachers is that they are often required to manage on their own, with few opportunities to know what other teachers are doing in similar situations. Teachers of refugees, who are either refugees themselves or the host country nationals, need support to navigate an unfamiliar context for which they are not usually trained (Burns & Lawrie, 2015).

How can we respond to these situations? How do we scale up effective approaches to meet the demands for education in emergencies (EiE)? In this paper, we argue that one of the most effective and evidence-led approaches is to use digital technology to facilitate teachers sharing of knowledge and skills, and their experiences of what works in their own challenging contexts.
The Study
Our project investigates a co-design research model that collects teachers’ and researchers’ current knowledge about effective practices in EiE, generalises and shares this knowledge, and then supports teachers in recontextualising it to generate local versions of practices that have been tested by other teachers.

Scaled-up online and blended learning is central to this approach. We use the form of a MOOC, but not in a way that is typically understood. MOOCs are usually defined as Massive Open Online Courses, which deliver online learning to mass participants from a distant authority. We re-envision the MOOC as a Massive Open Online Collaboration. We show how MOOC platforms can be used to engage teachers as researchers (Laurillard, 2008), designing, adapting, and testing learning designs and techniques in the classroom, collecting data, and sharing what they learn with each other.

This is the approach that the Future Education research team within the RELIEF Centre at University College London is currently using in Lebanon. We use a co-design approach that:
• works with teachers and education leaders in local communities to elicit their current experiences and expertise in providing EiE (Pherali, Abu Moghli & Chase, forthcoming);
• conceives of the classroom as a living laboratory, where teachers conduct experiments, observe problems, investigate what is needed, design solutions, and evaluate outcomes;
• engages these teachers to help us articulate and generalise their practice for others, to identify the successes, the problems, and the changes they made;
• co-designs the curriculum for a MOOC to share these practices with many more teachers working in formal or non-formal contexts, public, private, or voluntary.

We build the MOOC together by conducting participatory workshops to co-design learning activities and identify places to film teachers demonstrating effective practices. Working teachers from the community, therefore, become teacher-educators via the MOOC. The rich video resources and collaborative activities designed around them encourage other teachers to test new ideas in their own teaching and learning spaces.

A purely online course can be difficult for overstretched teachers and may have additional challenges related to fragile infrastructure, such as poor internet connectivity, electricity, or equipment. The first phase of the co-design research is, therefore, to create face-to-face support in collaboration with two partner universities in Lebanon by blending the MOOC into their existing teacher professional development activities. This approach means we can anticipate the challenges facing the purely online participant teachers who may otherwise drop out.

The second phase is to embed the blended MOOC-based programme into their existing teacher training courses to create a path to accreditation, which is critical for refugee teachers. This phase will be assessed, discussed, and implemented based on the evaluation of the first phase.

The ultimate aim of this co-design research is that this investment from the community will motivate the continuous cycle of redesign to sustain the MOOC as a collaborative online community of teacher-researchers, pooling evidence of what works from individual classrooms into a dynamic process of collaborative innovation.

For the first phase we held four co-design workshops in Beirut and Beqaa’a, and a three-day workshop in London, bringing together Lebanon’s teachers and teacher-educators from private, public and NGO schools, public and private universities, and government departments responsible for teacher education. Through the co-design process, the workshop participants agreed on the following themes for the MOOC:
• imagining the ‘ideal’ teaching and learning space;
• considering various existing learning spaces practitioners work in;
• moving from existing learning and teaching spaces towards transformative learning and teaching spaces for unknowable futures; and
• understanding how to deal with the limitations and challenges teachers face in their own contexts of mass displacement.

This mix of stakeholders creates value in and of itself because their activities are easily siloed, particularly in a context with internal political divisions where even small-scale successes are not normally shared. By co-designing a MOOC, the stakeholder representatives worked together to create shared ownership. For example, since the co-design process began, co-designer Lebanese American University (LAU) has broken new ground by hosting colleagues from Lebanese University (LU) for a blended learning workshop. This supports cross-sector, technology-enhanced learning since LAU and LU train teachers respectively for the private and public sectors.

The filming of practice for the MOOC includes teachers and teacher trainees from NGO schools, private, public, and United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) schools. Each teacher reflects on how they have adapted to the challenges they face and shares how they achieved their aims, as well as their responses to failures. When the MOOC runs, activities encourage participants to adapt these ideas to their own situation, articulate and refine their pedagogy, peer review each other’s ideas, and report back with evidence of what works.

The Research
In terms of collecting data, MOOC platforms automate the collection of reliable digital data on local effectiveness in many forms. Available data sets include enrolments, learning activity
participation and completion, quizzes, video use, submissions, peer reviews, and discussion contributions. When external tools are embedded in MOOCs as collaborative activities, participants can share their own resources or build resources with other teachers. Through such a method, MOOCs enable the crowdsourcing of effective practices. Participants often gain as much learning from peers as from the official resources (Laurillard, Kennedy, Wang, Escorcia, & Hooker, 2018).

Through the different activities in the MOOC, the participants are encouraged to share and reflect on their practices and engage in reflexive comments and discussions. These reflections and discussions are documented through external tools such as Padlets. All this data will be interpreted and shared through reports that are open source and accessible to practitioners and policymakers, and will inform further development of the MOOC and other resources for teacher training.

The methodological approach extends our understanding of value creation within MOOCs at many levels. Drawing on the work of Wenger, Trayner & De Laat (2011) we can see that immediate value can be gained from simply engaging in the social learning community. Potential value involves new knowledge, which becomes applied value when put into practice in the classroom. When the teacher collects evidence of their own learners’ progress, realized value is produced, and when participation causes teachers to reassess their institution’s entire approach this becomes transformative value. In addition, we use classroom observations and follow-up interviews, in the form of value creation stories, to discover what happens after the MOOC has been completed.

Evidence from co-designed teacher professional development MOOCs such as Blended Learning Essentials (University of Leeds, & UCL, n.d.) and Becoming Better Teachers (British Council & UCL, n.d.) shows that this approach works (British Council, 2017; Deepwell, 2017; Laurillard, Kennedy, Wang, Escorcia, & Hooker, 2018). To turn the MOOC into a research tool, we must facilitate and monitor teacher sharing and adaptation of resources, along with their own evidence of learner success. Digital tools together with our model of co-design and embedding of the MOOC within existing practices will enable an ongoing relationship with participants, enabling us to investigate this method of collecting the evidence of what works in education, based on data provided by teachers-as-researchers.

Conclusion

This approach is a model that can be used in any EiE situation so that we continually build on what we have already learned. In Lebanon, we used the MOOC to orchestrate the developing expertise of teachers. Our continued research will advance our understanding of this innovative methodological approach.

Endnotes

1. The RELIEF Centre is a transdisciplinary research collaboration that focuses on one of the world’s pressing challenges of the moment: how to build a prosperous and inclusive future for communities affected by mass displacement. The Centre’s research focuses on how we can measure prosperity and growth in Lebanon—a country that is experiencing a massive displacement of people—moving beyond indices like GDP to include measures of wellbeing, health, employment, and education.
2. The private Lebanese American University (LAU) and the public Lebanese University (LU).
3. Padlets are online pinboards for sharing ideas, see https://padlet.com/gallery

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Improving the Quality of Inclusive Education in Emergencies: What Are Our Methodological Choices for Engaging Children in Knowledge Generation?

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Introduction
Research in the Special Education Needs (SEN) field assumes a proclivity towards participants’ involvement in research. This approach is concerned with generating knowledge that aims to help children with SEN; it also often aims for emancipation and empowerment among research participants. The term SEN is referred to here as the broad social construct that encompasses a range of disabilities and children with SEN; it also identifies a sub-group of the larger population being researched in the education in emergencies (EiE) field. Asked simply, what role or power do children with SEN have over the generation of knowledge about them?

The Role and Involvement of Research Participants in Research
Emancipatory research advocates for the idea that individuals with SEN have privileged access to knowledge and understanding of their own experiences, and thus only they can develop meaningful knowledge related to members of their group (Oliver, 1992). In other words, if individuals with SEN are not able to be active participants in the research process themselves, there is less possibility of developing an empirical and theoretical understanding of their experiences (ibid). The distinction between emancipatory and empowerment research lies in the degree to which participants are actively engaged in and driving the research process, and the role, if any, of outside researchers in the process (Hickey & Mohan, 2005). Implicitly, both emancipatory and empowerment methodologies challenge the marginalisation and silencing of the researched perpetuated by conventional, interpretivist researchers.

However, some conventional researchers who might facilitate the participation of those being studied in their research emphasise that when the purpose of the research is to develop research-based empirical and theoretical knowledge,
the researched persons’ experiences can sometimes be a hindrance (see Fay, 1996 below). Outsider researchers who study the experiences of the researched at a distance argue, in some cases, that they are in a better position than the participants themselves to understand certain experiences (ibid).

Fay (1996, p. 21) suggests that “being immersed in a certain way of living or acting may prevent one from knowing what one is.” Secondly, knowledge “consists not in the experience itself but in the grasping the sense of this experience” (ibid, p. 27). Thirdly, while those being studied have access to many of their individual actions and activities through shared reflection, outside researchers gain this perspective through their observations of the researched participants’ actions and activities. This means that conventional researchers are also in a position to propose interpretations and perspectives on actions and activities, including tentative interpretations of what the actions, activities, and events might mean to the researched participants.

This approach to research participant knowledge and experience is considered flawed by emancipatory and empowerment researchers. There is, for example, evidence that researchers who adopt an interpretive approach are more likely to exclude the voices of powerless participants in the process of their investigations (see Kugelmass, 2001). Danieli and Woodhams (2005) argue that emancipatory and empowerment researchers also exercise power over research participants when they reveal their theoretical starting point which is likely to influence the choice of paradigm assumptions of less confident participants when they are collecting and analysing data. This suggests that power relationships exist between the researched and the researchers in emancipatory, empowerment, and interpretive research approaches. This further suggests that a stance that researchers should follow when involving participants in the research process is to embrace the principles of inclusion, which can both identify and minimise power imbalances that already exist.

**Research Participants’ Role in Participatory Research**

The ideals of inclusion require that everyone be involved and ensure that all voices be heard. I argue that research in the field of inclusion should be grounded in methodologies that speak to these ideals. Inclusion can take different forms, varying from the passive, active, and representative to more dynamic forms of participation. Pretty (1995) identifies research methodologies that reflect these different degrees of inclusion. His broadened seven-fold model of participation distinguishes between representative and passive participation, consultation, participation involving sharing resources, and functional participation. Higher levels of participation involve interactive participation and self-mobilisation, which are valued most by researchers predisposed to participatory research. This approach favours the involvement of the researched at every stage of the research.

In practice, participatory researchers usually do not allow participants to take initiatives independently or afford them equal status as researchers in the research design process or in the implementation of research. I also adopt the view that to be a participatory researcher and ensure the inclusion of all participants does not necessarily require this level of engagement from participants. Treating those being studied as active participants, not as subjects, but also not as researchers, may be appropriate for EIE studies that aim to allow all participant voices to be an important part in the development of better policies and programmes that benefit those being studied.

This interpretation of participation does not conform to the high levels of participation proposed by Pretty (1995). One problem with those high levels is that their essentialist position appears to devalue other types of participation. This is the reason that I specify the type of participation I follow, as those types will threaten rather than support the ideals of including everyone and ensuring every voice is heard. What is important in participatory EIE research is to shift away from the interactive and self-mobilisation bottom of the continuum towards a passive, representative, and active participation. I argue that the term participation can be resolved into these three types. My basic understanding of passive, representative, and active participation is described below.

Active participation requires participants to engage with other participants in face-to-face discussion and analysis throughout the research process. Representative participation mainly involves investigators constructing meaning about and reporting what they uncovered from their face-to-face interview with participants. Passive participation subtly engages participants in providing or choosing a closed set of responses from structured or fixed-response questions. Determining the most appropriate methodology and what level of participation may be preferable would depend on the research question and context. There are times when more passive approaches might be needed while we still advocate for more participatory approaches.

That said, I am also aware that it is uncertain whether an investigation will be considered participatory only because it is engaged with a range of perspectives, particularly where participation is passive. Passive participation may be insufficient for developing more comprehensive perspectives and experiences by the research participants. This requires active participation, which places value on dialogue.
Engaging research participants in dialogue, it should be noted, does not necessarily mean that the approach is more participatory or that the findings will accurately reflect participants’ opinions, perspectives, or ideas. However, everyone has his or her own point of view that needs to be taken as a contribution to understanding the problem under study, and as shown from previous research (Kurawa, 2010), some participants may express themselves meaningfully through passive forms of participation.

What is stressed here is that the emphasis when doing research should be on all participants and their voices and not just on those who are traditionally included (adults) or excluded (children) in research. This is related to the wider notion of inclusion, as discussed in Kurawa (2019), and the aim of research with children to look at the opportunities provided for everyone to be involved and how everyone is encouraged to be involved. The challenge is how researchers can also engage themselves and research participants in critical self-reflection, which can help ensure more genuine deliberation, together and alone. Researchers should come to their research with no fixed beliefs that they would not subject to rational scrutiny by the data. Their examining of the research transcripts, revising and revisiting them, and asking what the evidence is telling them would be an element of that test.

That said, researchers should be aware that the evidence given, and its interpretations, would not be value-free. As such, they should consider sensitive, value-laden issues related to the relationships between the researched and other adults working with them, and how those relationships affect children’s behaviour and educational experiences. These are issues that are identified in much literature and in interviews, as shown in Kurawa and Azare (2014), that have been simmering in challenging contexts and that have also stirred public debates. Researchers should seek out the voices of children and adults working for or with them as contributions to burgeoning issues. Individual texts of the contributions should be sent back to most participants to privately reflect, rework, and approve them so that rationally defensible empirical evidence would emerge.

Conclusion

In this article, I have shown that there are different approaches to conducting research on SEN and that each approach has its advantages and disadvantages (interpretivist or participatory). The approach taken should be informed by the research question, the aims of the research, and the context. Participatory approaches are not the only approach. If and when researchers choose to engage in participatory approaches, there are certain things of which they need to be mindful.

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Participatory Research with Refugee Children in Uganda

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Summary
This article discusses the importance of using child participatory research methods when conducting educational research with children in humanitarian contexts. It shares an example from a recent Save the Children study on transitions between accelerated education programming (AEP) and post-AEP opportunities in Uganda.

Keywords
Children’s Participation
Uganda
Participatory Research Methods
Accelerated Education

Introduction
In 2018, Save the Children (SC) commissioned a qualitative study to explore the factors that refugee children, parents, teachers, and educational stakeholders identify as having supported or hindered transition between Accelerated Education Programming (AEP) cycles and post-AEP opportunities in three refugee-hosting locations in Uganda. Typically, AEP condenses primary school curriculum and aims to support older children who have missed out on education to catch up in a short time frame (AEWG, 2017).

Using participatory research methods for this study was a priority for the SC country office. At the World Humanitarian Summit in 2016, SC committed to promoting meaningful engagement with children and youth as a mandatory component of humanitarian preparedness and response (Save the Children, 2016). Listening to children contributes towards accountability to affected populations (AAP). AAP is understood as ‘an active commitment by humanitarian actors and organizations to use power responsibly by taking account of, giving account to, and being held to account by the people they seek to assist’ (IASC, 2018). Participatory research methods with children not only capture diverse experiences of education in displacement, but also enable children to participate in and play an active role in decisions that will impact their lives, well-being, dignity, and protection.

Background
Throughout 2016 and 2017, Uganda was impacted by three parallel emergencies from South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), and Burundi (UNHCR, 2018). Today, with over 1.1 million refugees, Uganda is Africa’s largest refugee-hosting country and at least 61% of the total refugee population are children under the age of 18 (MoES, 2018). Due to the nature of displacement, many children have already missed out on accessing primary education prior to arrival in Uganda, and over-crowded classrooms, as well as socio-economic factors, make enrolling in primary school difficult, particularly for older children. Since 2017, SC has supported 2,984 boys and girls to access AEP centres (Oddy, 2019).
Problem statement

Children affected by emergencies should be encouraged and enabled to participate in identifying and analysing their situation and prospects. However, we are yet to see a paradigm shift in humanitarian responses that put children at the centre of the humanitarian programmatic cycle (O’Kane, 2013). This matters because children’s participation can minimise risks and ethical challenges, strengthen ethical and methodological precision, and recognises children’s rights as active agents (Groundwater-Smith, Dockett & Bottrell, 2015). According to Boyd (2018), “very often children understand the problems they face, the dilemmas they are in, the dilemmas their families face, the difficult decisions that must be made, but they also have ideas about solutions.” At the time that SC’s research was conducted in Uganda, despite several agencies implementing AEP, there had previously been no consultation with children around their thoughts, experiences, and perceptions about their transitions during or after AEP.

Methods

One hundred forty-five girls and boys between the ages of 10-18 participated in the workshops (74 aged 10-14 and 71 aged 15-18) in Rhino, Rwamwanja, and Adjumani settlements. 36% (n=53) of the children who participated identified as unaccompanied and separated children (UASC), a reflection of AEP programming which aims to support the most marginalised learners. The children came from Uganda, Rwanda, Ethiopia, and Sudan, with most participants from South Sudan and DRC. During the research design, it was decided that SC staff would be the data enumerators. Whilst this raised methodological concerns around possible power dynamics and bias due to conflicts of interest, the team also considered the importance of positionality. Positionality refers to the stance or positioning of the researcher in relation to the participant group of the data collector (Groundwater-Smith et al., 2015). When conducting research with children, trust, rapport, and socio-cultural competencies are key (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014).

In addition, when conducting research with children, it is crucial that adequate time and resources are allocated to participatory action research skills training. This is to ensure facilitators are equipped with the appropriate skills, knowledge, and confidence, a thorough understanding of consent/assent, and knowledge of risk and referral mechanisms should a child safeguarding incident arise. As such, the four-day research training course that was developed for this study aimed to ensure that staff had the capacity and confidence to replicate and adapt the training in response to different contextual realities, and participant needs and circumstances. The course sought to help adults listen to, understand, and act on the views, experiences, and information that children and young people provide. Staff also contributed to the research design tools, making sure that they were culturally appropriate, useful, and relevant (Tuhiwe-Smith, 1998).

A combination of a snowball sampling method (where identification of potential participants, introductions, and approval of study objectives and researchers are assured through personal endorsement) in combination with cross-referencing school enrolment data was the preferred approach. It has been acknowledged that when attempting to study hidden populations for whom adequate lists and consequently sampling frames are not readily available, snowball sampling methodologies may be the only feasible methods available (Faugier & Sargeant, 1997, p. 794). Recognising that this approach can lead to bias, selection and gatekeeper bias was emphasised extensively throughout the research training programmes and staff cross-checked with school personnel to make sure there was diverse engagement from the school population. In addition, staff engaged extensively with teachers, families, and children to underline that participation was voluntary and age-appropriate. Informed consent was sought by all children and their parents/guardians.

Notwithstanding, there were some limitations to ensuring that all groups were engaged in the study. For example, due to inconsistencies across field sites in formats used to register students, existing data on children with disabilities were not readily available. While interviews with teachers indicated that there is a very small minority (at least 3%) of children with recognised disabilities attending AEP centres, more work needs to be done to make sure that children with disabilities participate in research studies.

The data collection tools drew heavily on UNHCR’s Listen and Learn: Participatory Assessment with Children and Adolescents which promotes consultations with children that are age-appropriate, inclusive, and aim contribute to their feelings of self-worth (Skeels, 2012). The children were separated into separate workshops for girls and boys and further divided into two age groups (ages 10-14 and ages 15-18). Each group participated in interactive structured activities that included puppetry, role-play, and dedicated time to suggest child-led solutions as well as recommendations for implementing partners.

Findings

The findings from the children’s workshops enabled the SC research team to gain a rich understanding of the everyday lived experiences of children and young people in the settlements and, in part, this can be attributed to the participatory methods that were used. The workshops were structured yet used methods that were less threatening, allowed for children to have more autonomy and control.
in the research process, and incorporated several communication styles which support children to feel more comfortable. One of the key findings highlighted that all of the children who participated in the study stated that once enrolled in AEP programmes they did not want to transition back into the formal primary school system (Oddy, 2019). 100% of girls wanted to continue to secondary school but noted that there were many challenges for them to continue on their educational pathway (Oddy, 2019). By desegregating the results, the findings enabled a more nuanced understanding of how different groups of children experienced AEP. This is critical since, while gender is often considered, research in education in emergencies is still in its infancy and yet to seriously consider the politics of ‘intersectionality’ which refers to the ways in which race, class, gender, age, sexuality, disability, and other categories of difference interact and the implications of these interactions for relations of power (Hill & Bilge, 2016). Nuanced differences between girls, boys, ability status, and where children are in their life course rarely feature in literature and contextual understanding of the opportunities, limitations, and complexities of children’s agency continues to be lacking in research. Arguably, this is a reflection of refugee research in general, whereby diverse individuals are subsumed under the marker “refugee children” and there is a “propensity to represent refugees in essentialist ways and through a binary logic e.g. victim/survivor” (Doná, 2007, p. 221).

In 2019, SC will explore ways of producing a child-friendly version of the report, ideally to be developed and shared by the children and families who participated in the study. This is critical if humanitarian actors are truly striving towards Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP), and is an active commitment by humanitarian actors and organisations to use power responsibly by taking account of, giving account to, and being held to account by the people they seek to assist (IASC, 2018).

Conclusions

Participatory research with children can and should be done in humanitarian contexts if practitioners want to ensure interventions targeting children are fit for purpose. Whilst participatory research can take more time, the dividends are clear. These opportunities will lead to enhancing children’s lives as engaged, active agents who have expertise regarding their own lives and the ways in which they are lived (Groundwater-Smith et al., 2015).

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Part 3

Promising Practices for Data and Evidence in Forced Displacement Contexts
Introduction

Ever since armed conflict erupted in South Sudan in 2013, the education sector has suffered significant challenges. The last five years of war have been particularly damaging for the education sector. According to reports issued by UNOCHA (2017), the Education Cluster (2017), the World Bank (2012), and UNESCO (2011), schools were destroyed, damaged, or occupied by combatants and internally displaced populations, teachers, and students were killed. School-going children were targeted for sexual violence or recruited into armed groups, so parents continue to fear sending their children to school, especially girls. The attacks on education have led to one of the highest rates of drop-outs in the world, with an estimated 2.2 million children and youth in South Sudan out of school.

Rapid Education and Risk Analysis (RERA) is an innovative approach that USAID developed to understand how drivers of conflict, community-level dynamics, and contextual risks (e.g., political, social, economic) interact with and impact the education sector. The RERA integrates key elements of three analytic frameworks—conflict, disaster risk reduction, and resilience—and employs rapid, adaptive data collection and analytic methods to facilitate real-time programmatic decisions.
Given this context, the purpose of the South Sudan RERA was to:

- Gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between the conflict and the educational system through consultation with multiple stakeholders;
- Identify the risks associated with access to education by studying its link with other sectors and helping inform risk mitigation strategies;
- Consult with a wide range of national— and community—level actors to better understand their perceptions of how education mitigates the effects of conflict.

Carried out in partnership with Management Systems International (MSI) in South Sudan in 2017, the RERA was guided by a USAID and State Department Advisory Group. Given the highly conflicted context of South Sudan, we further adapted the RERA by grounding our data collection approach in the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Minimum Standards for Education domains (INEE, 2010), including: 1) Access and Learning Environment, 2) Teaching and Learning, 3) Teachers and Other Education Personnel, 4) Education Policy, and 5) Coordination.

MSI used a mixed-methods approach, capturing the perceptions of almost 1,000 informants across 27 community sites in five former States: Jonglei, Upper Nile, Unity, Western Equatoria, and Central Equatoria. Quantitative activities included math and reading assessments with grade three and four learners; secondary data documenting enrollment and other critical educational statistics for learning sites; and surveys with community-level informants on topics such as education access, facilities, and quality. Qualitative activities included interviews with religious and traditional leaders, secondary data documenting enrollment and other critical educational statistics for learning sites; and surveys with community-level informants on topics such as education access, facilities, and quality. Qualitative activities included interviews with religious and traditional leaders, youth and women’s group leaders, community members, children, teachers, and other stakeholders such as Ministry of Education officials, international non-governmental organization (NGO) staff, and donor representatives.

Data Collection Concerns in High Conflict Contexts

For the data collection planning and activities, local research team members were recruited in accordance with the language skills necessary for communicating with a variety of informants and with gender-balance in mind. Team members also brought substantial assessment experience in South Sudan which contributed to their remarkable readiness to collect data during ongoing conflict.

Ensuring the team’s safety and security was paramount to MSI throughout the assessment. The data collection team experienced two security issues that affected their ability to conduct data collection. In one instance, a threat was made by the Bor Community Youth Association against Equatorians working with international NGOs, United Nations (UN) agencies, and community-based organizations in Bor, which ultimately required intervention by state-level authorities. In a second instance in Bentiu, an increase in tensions led to the postponement, and ultimately, cancellation of data collection activities. These shifts point to the adaptive management practices that are inherent to the RERA approach, as well as the security-related challenges of collecting data in conflict-affected settings.

Using RERA Data for Action and Impact

The data emerging from RERA have been a game-changer for USAID and have tangibly supported the development of the Agency’s current Integrated Essential Services approach to education. This approach links humanitarian and development assistance, uses a conflict-sensitive lens, strengthens community resilience, and supports pathways to recovery for children and youth in South Sudan. The RERA found that the conflict has magnified the challenges experienced by groups most likely to be out of school: orphans and separated children, girls, and pastoralists. School closures due to the conflict have further reduced the number of accessible schools. As one community leader noted:

Because of the rampant fighting education always get interrupted. Children are always kept on [the] run for their lives, and again start learning again. When child[ren] hear the gunshots [they] get confused and even the mind is not ready to learn. Children stay in fear when they hear guns. Children are not able to follow their classes (Individual interview, June 2017). Interestingly, the RERA found that ethnic identity seems to have little influence on access to school in Protection of Civilians (POC) sites and in certain surrounding communities (this is likely due to the mono-ethnic makeup of those areas). As one head teacher interviewed by the RERA
team explained, “school is like hospital, school has no tribe. It considers everybody; you just want to transfer knowledge to all children [who are the] future generation” (Focus group discussion, June 2017).

RERA data tangibly influenced USAID-funded programming in South Sudan, in areas such as access to education, provision of quality education services, scale of service delivery, and national/sub-national policy. For example, prior to the RERA, the Emergency Education Program focused on the provision of psychosocial support and child protection services to children and youth, as well as monitoring of “attacks on education.” The RERA process and resultant data helped USAID/South Sudan make choices to increase the depth and level of protection-oriented activities in order to elevate the importance of safe learning spaces for children and youth. RERA data also pointed to a need for a deeper analysis of trends in “attacks on education” in order to ensure timely responses to attacks, accountability for perpetrators, and prevention of future attacks. As such, under the current Integrated Essential Emergency Education program, USAID/South Sudan has increased activities designed to prevent gender-based violence, and strengthened links between education and health programs in order to more effectively target the needs of “the whole child.” The program also now focuses on strategic and meaningful engagement with multiple Ministries on key legislation, such as the Education Act and the Safe Schools Declaration, to support recovery and build resilience among communities and institutions.

Exercises such as the RERA highlight the critical role of the community and challenge the humanitarian sector to think innovatively about the work we undertake to improve children’s access to quality education, even in the poorest and most fragile contexts. The RERA study in South Sudan consulted a range of community members, stepping beyond a traditional needs assessment that captures data from students, teachers, and parents. Education programs implemented in conflict zones must consider a broader set of perspectives, including the perspectives of those without direct links to schools. The RERA approach is flexible and inclusive of voices of traditional and religious leaders, as well as women and youth representatives. As a result, we tapped directly into community-level values and emerged with a firmer understanding of what local constituencies support and, importantly, why they may challenge educational opportunities for girls, boys, and youth.

Endnotes
1. The RERA is an open source tool that is publicly available at https://eccnetwork.net/resources/rapid-education-risk-analysis/.
2. PoC sites refer to situations where civilians seek protection and refuge at existing United Nations bases when fighting starts. The creation of PoC sites on such a scale as the bases of the UN Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) is unprecedented in UN history. For example, between October 2012 and November 2013 more than 12,000 civilians sought protection at UNMISS bases on 12 separate occasions. The United Nations Peacekeeping site provides additional details: https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/protection-of-civilians-mandate.
3. According to the Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA), “attacks on education are any intentional threat or use of force—carried out for political, military, ideological, sectarian, ethnic, religious, or criminal reasons—against students, educators, and education institutions” (GCPEA, n.d.).

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Education Data: A Key to Inclusion of Refugee Learners in National Systems

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Introduction
Critical to effective planning, policy, resource allocation, and decision-making are accurate and comprehensive data. While data and information hold eminence in any education programme and response, refugee learners are often excluded from national education sector planning and priorities, as they are not adequately accounted for in national data collection processes. This exclusion precludes access to quality education, appropriate financing mechanisms, long-term sustainability, and predictability of education services, and results in waning confidence among displaced populations in the merit of education offered.

While some national governments may intentionally exclude refugee learners from education policy and planning, others simply lack the capacity to include them, or assume that education services for refugees are the responsibility of the international community. Even where parallel services exist (managed by the international community), maintaining education data in refugee settings is problematic. Large populations of learners with limited education personnel and poor capacity for record keeping, reliance on paper-based methods, and a lack of vision with regards to the management of education information has detrimentally impacted educational planning and reporting for refugee populations, with particular deficits in the recording of individual attendance and progress.

This article considers the case study of Kenya, where Government, development, and humanitarian actors are working collaboratively to establish a robust education information management system that promotes the inclusion of refugee learners in the national education system, as well as better learning outcomes and protection for all learners.

Kenyan Context
Kenya is one of the countries hosting the highest number of refugees globally with over 460,000 as of 2018. The majority
of refugees in Kenya reside in the two camps of Dadaab and Kakuma, with a minority in urban areas across the country. The refugees originate from a number of countries in the region including from Somalia, South Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sudan, and Ethiopia. Over half of the refugees are under the age of 18.

Refugees in all locations follow the Kenyan curriculum and sit for Kenyan national examinations. Refugees and asylum seekers residing in urban areas across Kenya can be mainstreamed in the national education system and benefit from full government support. They have opportunities to attend public schools alongside their Kenyan counterparts, and in many cases, their refugee status is not known to those around them. However, for the vast majority (around 90% of refugees hosted in Kenya) who reside in camps, education services are managed by the international community. This type of parallel service delivery is less sustainable, often of lesser quality, and with fewer mechanisms for learners’ formal completion and certification.

In the past, national education policy and planning have only peripherally addressed the educational needs of the refugee population, and most often with refugee learners seen as a risk, negatively affecting regular service provision. Data and information on the enrolment and transition of refugees at all levels of education have been collected, analysed, and managed by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and other international organisations.

In instances where refugee schools were sent the national school data collection forms, there was no provision to capture different refugee nationalities, making it impossible to use the information for any meaningful planning, advocacy, and decision-making.

**Renewed Momentum for Inclusion of Refugees in the National Education System**

Kenya has recognised the need for greater responsibility-sharing to protect and assist refugees and support host states and communities by acknowledging the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) and the Global Compact for Refugees (UNHCR, 2018). In January 2018, the Djibouti Declaration was signed emphasising the inclusion of refugees in the national education system. Kenyan legal instruments provide a solid foundation for the inclusion of refugee learners in the national education system. For example, the Constitution of Kenya (2010) and the Basic Education Act (2013) stipulate access to education as the right of every child in Kenya, including non-citizens.

The Ministry of Education (MoE) has made significant progress with respect to the international commitments made on the inclusion of refugees and asylum seekers. The MoE is presently developing a policy that will provide a legal precedent and guide the transition from a parallel system to one that is integrated and inclusive at all levels and aligned with Kenya’s international and national commitments — one of the first policies of its kind globally. Refugees are also mainstreamed in the 2018-2022 National Education Sector Strategic Plan (NESSP). Allowing refugees to benefit from national education services and integrating them into national development plans is essential for both refugees and the communities hosting them and is consistent with the pledge to “leave no one behind” in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015).

However, for efforts towards the inclusion of refugees to be meaningful, accurate and comprehensive education data and information on the refugee population must be available and included in national processes. In the past year, there have been efforts by the MoE to improve the information environment of the education sector through the introduction of the National Education Management Information System (NEMIS). NEMIS is a web-based data management solution that collects data and information from education institutions, processes the data, and reports the status of designed indicators. NEMIS was conceptualised to manage data and information inconsistencies across Kenya’s large and complex education sector and to provide information for evidence-based planning, budgeting, monitoring, and policy development.

The introduction of NEMIS by the Kenya MoE presented an opportunity for refugee data inclusion as the system was open to all public and private schools in Kenya. Refugee learners are progressively being included in the NEMIS, which will enable them to be captured in national and county plans and strategies. However, as the system is rolled out, there are specific considerations that are necessary to ensure and enable the inclusion of refugee learners.

**Integrating Refugee Education Data into the National EMIS**

While the MoE allows the use of alternative documentation in place of birth certificates for enrolling learners in NEMIS, the system itself may need to be adapted to accommodate the unique type of documentation that refugees can provide. The introduction of the NEMIS must be lauded but, at the same time, investment in ensuring the necessary infrastructure (information and communications technology equipment, power, connectivity, digital cameras, etc.) and capacity at the school level is critical, especially in remote locations, and including those schools located in refugee camps.

Additionally, there are specific protection concerns that need to be addressed when integrating refugee data in national systems. Such considerations include data confidentiality.
protocols and lack of identity documents or different documentation from Kenyan learners that is not accepted by, or compatible with, the national system.

The potential presented by the deployment of NEMIS has spurred government, development, and humanitarian actors to work together to establish a robust education information management system that not only promotes the inclusion of refugee learners in the national education system but also meets the information needs of humanitarian agencies providing protection and assistance to refugees. The system replaces the paper-based basic EMIS which was inefficient, time-consuming, and does not maintain individual student information critical to tracking individual student progress.

**Recommendations**

- To successfully include refugee learners in the national education data systems, effective and consistent technical collaboration and coordination with the MoE and other relevant line ministries, such as the Ministries of Interior and Foreign Affairs is critical.
- Investment in technical and managerial capacity, infrastructure, and equipment must be provided and sustained.
- Sustainable financing mechanisms must be put in place to ensure the successful roll-out and maintenance of the system.

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Developing a Holistic Assessment of Children’s Learning in the Context of Forced Displacement: Case Study from Dadaab, Kenya

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Summary
Without identifying what children already know in the immediate aftermath of forced displacement, education practitioners are often unable to address gaps and challenges learners face. This article examines the validity, reliability, and feasibility of a new rapid holistic learning assessment tool, providing readers with our reflections on how to understand children’s learning needs in situations of forced displacement.

Keywords
Displacement
Refugee Education
Assessment
Psychometrics

Introduction
Over the last decade, learning assessments have become more common in low—and middle—income countries (UNESCO, 2018). For example, the Early Grade Reading Assessment, the citizen-led Annual Status of Education Report, and the International Development and Early Learning Assessment all support evidence-based education programming and decision-making in low- and middle-income countries. This revolution, however, has yet to influence education programming in situations of conflict and forced displacement.

Restricted resources, low teacher capacity, and limited information on children’s learning needs often hinder education in emergencies programs (Nicolai, 2003). This can lead to programs designed on long-held assumptions and the status quo. Learning assessment data can help us challenge assumptions and design or modify programs to address the needs of displaced children. However, assessments in emergencies have largely focused on access or teachers’ qualifications rather than on learning. Even newer tools—like the Rapid Education and Risk Analysis Toolkit (USAID, 2018) that integrates conflict analysis, disaster risk analysis, and resilience analysis with a rapid education analysis—fail to take up learning.

With recent headway into adaptive teacher professional development through the Teachers in Crisis Contexts (TICC) initiative (INEE, 2016), there has been a push to improve and
expand support to teachers during emergencies to improve education quality. However, TiCC programmatic improvements need to be measured by feasible, rigorous assessments that provide not only a holistic picture of learning but also compare equity dimensions such as gender, socio-economic status (SES), and differences in ability that may affect how children learn and interact within programs (EERI, 2016).

HALDO: A Rapid Assessment

To understand learners’ needs in displacement, Save the Children developed and piloted the Holistic Assessment of Learning and Development Outcomes (HALDO) in 2018.1 HALDO is designed to support practitioners’ understanding of children’s (4-12 years) development in four domains: literacy, numeracy, social and emotional learning (SEL), and executive functioning (EF). The assessment focuses on a wider age range than other available assessments to account for varied skills in emergencies. Because the assessment is designed for rapid deployment with minimally trained assessors in the immediate onset of displacement, it is not a comprehensive measure of each domain but uses dynamic scoring to assess children’s skill levels from emergent to advanced, with more advanced questions skipped for those with more emergent levels. HALDO takes 30 to 40 minutes to complete and includes 16 items measuring emergent to advanced SEL skills, six measures of emergent to advanced literacy skills, seven measures of emergent to advanced numeracy skills, and ten measures of EF focusing on memory. These are calculated together to identify skill scores. To identify potential contributing factors, HALDO also includes demographic questions about sex and age as identified in school registers, and self-reported questions about SES, disability status (WGDS, 2017), and the home learning environment.

HALDO assumes that by using a rapid, yet holistic, assessment implementers can build on what learners already know and address skill gaps through programming. This article presents the findings from a HALDO pilot in Dadaab, Kenya to draw conclusions and recommendations on HALDO’s effectiveness in that particular emergency response.

The refugee population in Dadaab, predominantly comprised of Somali refugees, has been arriving since 1991. Although pressure for repatriation is high (UNHCR, 2013), over 200,000 refugees still live in the three camps that make up the Dadaab refugee complex: Dagahaley, Hagadera, and Ifo. Given the longevity and size of the camps, education programs have been in operation in various forms since the mid-1990s (Meyer et al., 2018) but have never been able to accommodate all school-aged children (UNHCR, 2011). Although Dadaab is host to a protracted refugee environment, the rapid HALDO assessment was piloted here to better understand how it can inform existing programming and to test for feasibility. As programming continues, education implementers in Dadaab have identified that there are learning gaps that programming ought to accommodate (e.g. Flemming, 2017). Our pilot study tested HALDO to understand gaps and inform programming.

Methodology

The Dadaab pilot included 852 children (48% female) from 27 centers and schools. The sample included five Alternative Basic Education centers targeting 4 to 10-year-old learners who were behind grade level, 20 primary schools targeting 4 to 12-year-old learners, and three Accelerated Learning Programs targeting 10 to 12-year-old learners who had spent significant time out of school. Trained enumerators collected data one-on-one with children.

Results

To understand HALDO’s efficacy through the pilot, we analyzed the tool’s psychometric properties. Psychometrics tell us if the tool reliably measures the same concept between assessors, if each domain reliably measures similar concepts (e.g. literacy), and if the tool validly measures each concept across the age range.

Reliability

To identify if HALDO consistently measured learning outcomes we focused on: 1) interrater reliability, i.e. assessor agreement in responses when working in pairs, and 2) internal consistency reliability, i.e. how well the domains in HALDO measured similar topics. With 20 percent of the sample (170 children) assessed in pairs, we found strong agreement levels between assessors for all HALDO domains using kappa and intra-class coefficient (ICC) measures. Using Cronbach’s alpha, we also found that domains had good internal consistency, with the weakest being in Somali literacy.7 The reliability testing showed that HALDO consistently measures learning outcomes both between assessors and within the assessment, supporting confidence in the findings.

Validity

Lacking a comparable assessment of children’s learning outcomes in the sample, we used children’s ages to understand whether the tool would, as hypothesized, measure increasing skills by age. We tested whether older children had higher HALDO scores. The results in Figure 1 show increasing scores in all domains with large effect sizes for literacy and numeracy outcomes. A one-year difference in age was associated with a 2-6 percentage point difference in the percent of items a child answered correctly, and these age differences were statistically and practically significant. Effect sizes verify that HALDO has predictive validity: it measures the developmental nature of child literacy, numeracy, SEL, and EF. These differences also suggest that HALDO is sensitive to changes in children’s learning and development and can evaluate potential intervention impact. The lowest effect size was for the SEL domain (14%) suggesting that we would need longer and more focused programming in this area to capture changes in this domain accurately.
Feasibility
HALDO’s feasibility was assessed through qualitative observation and open-ended surveys conducted during assessor training in Dadaab. During training, assessors field-tested the assessment with 80 children. After field-testing, adaptations focused on improving the tool’s user-friendliness and how to expedite the training. In post-training surveys, 100% of assessors agreed that they felt confident to administer the tool, suggesting the tool’s feasibility. Assessors recommended detailed focus on translation prior to training, training for complicated data collection sections such as the literacy reading passage, and further instruction on how to identify language of instruction with teachers or staff prior to assessment.

Equity
In Dadaab, we tested whether there were differences across key equity dimensions: sex, SES, home learning environment, and disability (EERI, 2016). We found that the average male performed significantly better than female counterparts on all domains except SEL, with boys answering 3% more questions correctly overall, 5% more literacy questions, 3% more numeracy questions, and 3% more EF questions. Seeing someone reading at home, implying literate family members, was a strong predictor of higher learning outcomes in all domains except Somali literacy, likely related to limited Somali texts available. Children who reportedly saw someone reading at home scored 9% more questions correctly overall, 11% more literacy questions, 10% more numeracy questions, 9% more SEL questions, and 9% more executive functioning questions than their peers. SES was only predictive of numeracy outcomes with the average high-SES child answering 17% more numeracy questions correctly than their low-SES peers. Self-reported disability was correlated with lower outcomes overall (6% fewer correct questions overall, 7% fewer literacy questions, 7% fewer numeracy questions, and 6% fewer EF questions), except for SEL. These equity findings suggest that the tool is sensitive to relevant demographics and that program implementers can use HALDO to identify specific recommendations (e.g. additional programming targeting girls and family members) that could improve outcomes equitably.

Lessons Learned
Lessons from this study focus on HALDO’s psychometric properties and our reflection on potential applications of the tool. Importantly, HALDO was not designed as a diagnostic tool to assess individual children in a classroom; results should be analyzed at an aggregate level (e.g. school, center, region), rather than at the child level. Teachers and administrators can receive information on the average child in their classroom, center, or school, but cannot make judgments about the needs of individual children. HALDO could only be an individual assessment if we tested false positives and negatives in each context and coupled findings with rigorous teacher training on diversified instruction.

In Dadaab, assessors agreed on most responses and the responses themselves consistently measured similar topics within each HALDO domain. Additionally, scores increased predictably by age, signifying that the tool measured skills that follow expected child development trajectories. Given HALDO’s
strong reliability and validity, we concluded that HALDO can accurately identify a baseline of learning for 4 to 12-year-olds in Dadaab. However, HALDO is not an “out-of-the-box” tool. It requires contextualization to relevant local social and cultural norms. Although HALDO is designed for rapid response, it still requires time for translation, contextualization, assessor training, and pilot testing in each new context in order to ensure reliability.

Finally, testing the psychometric properties of HALDO is only the first step. We have to connect the learning and development profiles from the tool to (a) actual programming content or (b) the development of new content. This is an ongoing process already underway, which requires program implementers to possess a strong understanding of developmental theory and sequenced learning in order to provide teachers with explicit and strategic programming guidance. Nonetheless, the data from HALDO put us further along on the path to quality learning for children in emergencies so that, with more information about the learning needs and gaps among displaced populations, practitioners can better target programming.

Endnotes
1. HALDO is an open access assessment. If you are interested in learning more about HALDO or using the tool in your programming, please contact Save the Children at learningassessment@savechildren.org.
2. The analysis included multivariate regressions to identify relationships between equity variables and then specific analysis on effect sizes between ages for each domain score: literacy, numeracy, SEL, and executive functioning.
3. In Dadaab, teachers use Somali in early grade instruction. However, 125 children over age 7 were assessed in Somali, signifying that older children may be instructed in Somali or that assessors may have incorrectly assessed older children in Somali. Additionally, Somali literacy instruction is not consistent and texts in Somali are limited.

References
Promising Practice for Evidence-Based, Community-Driven Improvements in Quality Education in Emergencies: Improving Learning Environments Together (ILET)

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Introduction
Improving Learning Environments Together (ILET) in emergencies is an innovative package that uses assessments for improving learning environments in humanitarian settings through community participation. ILET empowers communities to improve the quality of the learning environment through a data-driven and participatory process of implementing school or Temporary Learning Space (TLS) improvement plans. Through a five-step guided process, ILET offers a set of easy-to-use data collection tools, real-time analysis, and visualization via a web-based platform and offline mobile application for data collection. To date, ILET has been piloted in Syria and Uganda (between 2017-2018) and is currently being implemented in Colombia, Niger, Mali, Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan, and Lebanon.

This article describes the main problem ILET responds to, then presents how ILET builds evidence in education in emergencies (EiE) contexts while putting the community at the center of efficient data collection and analysis to improve learning environments collectively. The article also discusses methodology, data quality, and some tensions encountered when using ILET in the field.

Problem Analysis
ILET addresses challenges related to gaps in measuring quality in EiE, the narrow scope of existing humanitarian education interventions, and a lack of meaningful child and community participation for evidence-based planning and improving learning environment in emergencies. More specifically, ILET responds to a lack of rigorous needs assessment and implementation plans, poor real-time data, absence of baseline data on quality education in emergency settings,
and insufficient analysis in cases where assessment data exist (Nicolai et al., 2016). These gaps in data on quality EiE limit the scope of humanitarian education interventions to output-level programming measuring mainly quantitative achievements (e.g. number of classrooms, number of teachers trained, etc.) instead of targeting key areas for improving learning environments. Coupled with these data challenges is a lack of systematic and transparent mechanisms for sharing assessment findings with communities and local education authorities, as well as difficulties mobilizing children and communities given the unclear understanding of needs.

Responding to the Problem: Building Evidence and Democratizing Improving Quality Learning Environments

ILET responds to the abovementioned gaps by quantifying quality education and democratizing the process of improving learning environments. The former is fulfilled by operationalizing Save the Children’s Quality Learning Framework (QLF), (Save the Children, 2017), shown in Figure 1. ILET translates theoretical concepts into measurable, concrete, and quantifiable questions recognizing a holistic, child-focused, and child-rights informed definition of quality education. The first two steps of the ILET process focus on program design and training. In step three, with the assistance of a web-based data management platform, the collected data is automatically analyzed and converted into visual, easy-to-understand findings cards for each school or TLS. In step four, the findings cards are shared, discussed, validated, and used by the school communities to complete step five, community mobilization for improving the learning environments.

Quantifying Community-Driven Quality Learning Environments in Emergencies: Assessment, Triangulation, Weighting, and Scoring

In order to operationalize the QLF, ILET breaks down the framework’s five foundations into four layers: components, sub-components, question labels, and questions (see Figure 2). To ensure broad community participation, the questions are posed to different groups from the school community.

Assessing Learning Environments

There are five data collection tools used to assess the quality of the learning environment:

1. School checklist and head teachers’ questionnaire
2. Teachers’ questionnaire
3. Students’ participatory tool
4. Classroom observation tool
5. Parents’ questionnaire

The questionnaires are comprised mainly of scored, close-ended questions, though some are accompanied by non-scored, open-ended, follow-up questions designed for elaboration. The content of the questionnaires and checklists is based around the QLF and

FIGURE 1: SAVE THE CHILDREN QUALITY LEARNING FRAMEWORK (QLF), 2017

FIGURE 2: ILET BREAKING DOWN THE QLF INTO FIVE LAYERS ENDING WITH CONCRETE QUESTIONS

FIVE LAYERS OF THE FRAMEWORK

Moving from foundations to QLF to Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAYER 1: FOUNDATIONS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Emotional and Psychosocial Protection</td>
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<td>2. Physical Protection</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Teaching and Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Parents and Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. School Leadership and Management</td>
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<tr>
<th>LAYER 2: COMPONENTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Safe and Accessible Learning Spaces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.3 Health and Nutrition</td>
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<td>2.4 School Safety Management</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>LAYER 3: SUB-COMPONENTS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.4a A school safety plan exists</td>
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<td>2.4b A school safety management system is functional</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.4c Students and staff practice safety drills</td>
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<tr>
<th>LAYER 4: QUESTION LABEL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.4a Q1 Safety posters exist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4a Q2 School safety plan exist</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>LAYER 5: QUESTIONS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Examples of questions:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ head: “Do we do fire drills in this school?” Teachers: “What do you think is the best way to learn about safety?” Teachers and head teachers tools: “Does the school/learning space have a fire exit?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Steps five, community mobilization for improving the learning environments.
has been checked against the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery (2010). In order to accommodate the different needs and resources in often over-stretched EiE responses, ILET offers different versions of these data collection tools in terms of their comprehensiveness, length, and resource demand (see the step-by-step guide in Save the Children, 2018).

**Triangulation and Scoring Methodology**

Collecting data from different sources enables Save the Children to triangulate information which improves data quality. This means that, depending on its relevance, the same question can be included in all five of the data collection tools. For instance, we ask teachers, parents, and students about teaching methodologies used in the learning process. However, recognizing that parents, teachers, and students vary in their characteristics and levels of involvement in the school and inside the classroom, each source of information is assigned a weight for every question based on the following two influencing factors:

1. **Objectivity**: who the respondent is and what their lived experience is in relation to the topic of the question (to gauge whether their answer may, or may not, be biased in some way);
2. **Completeness**: how much information the respondent may have to answer the question.

Once data is entered into the web-based data management platform (Save the Children, n.d.), the score for each question per tool is calculated automatically by taking into account its assigned weight, triangulating, and averaging with corresponding answers from other tools. These scores are then aggregated to compose the fourth layer of the framework, question label, which in turn informs the score of the third layer and so on, until each school gets a score for each of the five foundations (i.e. layer one). After calculating the scores in the platform, the results are transformed into an easy format to be shared back with the communities. The data management platform generates a simple school findings card for each school or TLS. The findings card disaggregates the overall score by the five layers and includes comment boxes, questions to support further exploration of unclear results during feedback sessions, comparison tables for different information sources, and recommendations for further actions. To enrich the analysis process, the data management platform also allows users to apply various comparisons when looking at the results dashboards. For example, comparisons across questionnaires, sampled groups within one type of questionnaire, schools, or comparisons over time.

In order to test for data reliability and validity, measures and statistical tests were taken such as inter-rater reliability and various levels of validity exercises. More detailed information on these tests is available in the ILET Data Management Handbook (Bashir, 2018)

**Improving Learning Environments**

As previously mentioned, the main outcome of the data collection and analysis step is a visual, easy-to-understand findings card for each school or TLS (see Figure 3). These cards are then used in feedback sessions with community members to exercise accountability, enforce transparency, validate the findings, and establish a platform for the final step: using the assessment results to develop and implement an evidence-based school improvement plan (SIP). In both Syria and Uganda, findings from round two of data collection which took place two and three months after the implementation of the SIPS, respectively, showed improvement in the schools’ scores on each of the QLF foundations.

Lessons learned from both pilot countries (Bali, 2019) showed that school community members including teachers, parents, and children, as well as EiE experts in local, national, and international agencies, valued the ILET process. More specifically, both education staff and various members of school communities expressed the need for such a comprehensive theoretical framework which helped them define and discuss quality education and mobilize local resources around a robust and evidence-based process that facilitated efficient use of the data to improve their learning spaces.

Anecdotal evidence from both pilot countries shows that sharing the findings with the communities allowed for an open and transparent discussion. For example, in Uganda, based on the findings cards, children raised questions about Save the Children’s delay in providing scholastic materials. The findings cards have also opened up a parallel conversation with the District Education Office and the United Nations High

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**Figure 3: Snapshot of the school findings card**

![Figure 3: Snapshot of the school findings card](image-url)
Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), as quality education assessments were aggregated to provide a bird’s-eye view on the schools supported by various actors. These discussions, which are grounded in data that capture children’s and communities’ perspectives, have led to increased commitment and improved division of responsibilities. For instance, the district and UNHCR, responding to major gaps found in relation to the QLF’s foundation two (physical protection), provided boreholes, latrine stances, and furniture.

Limitations and Possible Tensions
Since ILET relies on quantitative data to assess quality learning environments, it is important to note that the tool does not provide a detailed narrative or analysis of quality education in a given school or TLS. Rather, ILET generates an overview of the situation in the learning environment assessed, shown by automated, visual snapshots, i.e. the school findings cards. Further, through step four—feedback and discussion of findings—collected data are validated and discussions are generated, thus providing an opportunity to capture qualitative data.

While ILET is based on a participatory approach and aims to enable school communities to take evidence-based decisions and actions to improve their learning environments, the supporting agency, whether local or international, still plays an important role and drives key decisions during the process. Further, since access to technology and data is, in most cases, exclusively managed by agencies, they have influence over information sharing and ultimately planning of school improvement plans. Therefore, it is important to consider the power dynamics generated when using such an approach.

Assessment fatigue is another challenge to including communities in emergency settings in assessment processes. What mitigates this challenge and distinguishes ILET from many assessments, however, is the fact that results are shared with communities. This effort was welcomed positively by communities in both Syria and Uganda; during feedback sessions, community members told program staff that they had not believed them when they said they would come back.

Finally, interviews from Uganda (Bali, 2019) showed that teachers were already self-organizing and advocating for the rights of children before Save the Children began to support them. In instances like this one, ILET can be of great value, generating data and evidence to support communities’ demands and framing their already existing efforts within a rights-based discourse.

References

Endnotes
1. The package is available for download and public use. See Save the Children, 2018.
Crisis-sensitive Educational Planning for Refugees and Host Communities in Ethiopia

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Introduction

In early October 2018, Ethiopia hosted 928,000 refugees. As one of the first countries to apply the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF), Ethiopia has pledged to include refugees in its national education system. In order to provide equal opportunities for host communities and refugees alike, this integration needs to be carefully planned and decisions for the provision of education need to be based on evidence.

Since 2017, UNESCO’s International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), in partnership with UNICEF, has supported crisis-sensitive educational planning for refugees and host communities in Ethiopia, in order to analyse disparities between the two groups and rationalise resources. This technical cooperation is supported financially and technically by UNICEF, with funding from the UK’s Department for International Development (DFID) programme, “Building self-reliance for refugees and vulnerable host communities by improved sustainable basic social service delivery”.

DEFINITION: Crisis-sensitive planning in education involves identifying and analysing existing risks of conflict and natural hazards and understanding the two-way interaction between these risks and education to develop strategies that respond appropriately. It aims to minimise the negative impacts of risk on education service delivery and to maximise the positive impacts of education policies and programming on preventing conflict and disaster or mitigating their effects.

Joint planning in Ethiopia requires capacities and information from a variety of sources, including from the national government, the Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs (ARRA), and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). In a highly decentralised context such as Ethiopia, this involves several different administrative levels: federal, regional, and woreda (local) level. However, challenges can arise as capacities and resources for data and evidence in Ethiopia’s education sector are unevenly...
distributed and, in many cases, data sets are not comparable.

This article describes the technical cooperation process that has been used in five refugee-hosting regions in Ethiopia, and highlights some of the complexities of crisis-sensitive educational planning.

Rationale

Until recently, educational planning for refugees in Ethiopia had been very limited outside of the refugee camps, and joint planning by the Ministry of Education (MoE), UNHCR, and ARRA had not taken place. This is in spite of the fact that UNCHR, ARRA, and the MoE have been collaborating since 2014 to put in place an education management information system (EMIS) for refugees as an integral part of the national EMIS. In its Ethiopia Education Strategy for 2015-2018, UNHCR called for more integrated refugee education planning within the local and national education systems (UNHCR, 2015).

In early 2017, planning by organisations working with refugees was primarily organised around an annual budget and related work planning decoupled from the national education system. There was limited crisis-sensitive educational planning. Planned activities were not regularly monitored against a systematic results-based framework. One aim of the technical cooperation initiative was to reinforce joint planning between host communities and refugee schools, in order to strategically use the human and financial resources available. Joint planning and the effective coordination of educational planning and management between all partners is a key element for the successful implementation of refugee education services and the foundation for ensuring equity in the provision of education both in and out of the refugee camps. In a country like Ethiopia that is exposed to natural hazards (GFDRR, 2017), planners also need to better understand what risks school communities are confronted with and what risk reduction measures are in place.

Objectives

The overall purpose of IIEP’s cooperation is to strengthen the capacities of government and refugee coordinating bodies in analysing the performance of the education system and in developing education sector plans that are crisis-sensitive. The collaboration targets stakeholders at federal, regional, and woreda levels, including the MoE, ARRA, and UNHCR, in five refugee-hosting regions (e.g. Gambella, Tigray, Benishangul Gumuz, Somali, and Afar). In addition, bringing together the multitude of education stakeholders through joint planning processes, it aims to enhance collaboration between the refugee and host education management and coordination structures.

The following activities have been implemented through this collaboration:
1. Introductory workshops on crisis-sensitive planning
2. Specialised training on education indicator analysis
3. Data collection for risk reduction planning

Specialised Training on Education Indicator Analysis

Following an introductory workshop that aimed to establish a shared understanding of crisis-sensitive planning and begin the process of analysing the risks facing the education system, participants came together to calculate education indicators for refugee and host community schools in their woredas (districts). After calculating indicators of access to education (e.g. gross enrolment rate, gross intake rate) and quality of education (e.g. pupil-teacher ratio, pupil-section ratio), participants worked on developing priority strategies for their woredas and regions. In addition to the noticeably lower gross enrolment rates in most of the refugee camps, the most significant disparity in many of the participating regions was the pupil-qualified teacher ratio: some refugee settings had only one qualified teacher for more than 100 students.

Data Collection for Risk Reduction Planning

In order to plan for risk reduction, educational planners need to understand the risks their school communities are facing. Woreda education officers, together with ARRA, UNHCR, and UNICEF representatives developed a questionnaire to gather these data in the five regions, with support from IIEP. The questions aimed to identify the most problematic risks for schools and looked at whether schools had risk reduction measures in place. The data collection was piloted in refugee and host community schools in the Somali region in June 2018, using touch tablets. The results suggested that refugee schools had experienced crises more frequently in the academic year, with 92.9% of the refugee schools sampled reporting having experienced an emergency, as opposed to only 44.9% of host community schools surveyed. With regard to risk reduction measures, 59.2% of all of the schools reported that they had a school safety committee, and 64.4% indicated that they provided staff and student sensitisation on personal safety and security at least twice per term.

Complexities of crisis-sensitive planning

Data Difficulties

One key challenge to joint planning is the unavailability of recent population data. The latest census dates back to 2007; however, since then, new administrative lines have been drawn throughout the country. This means that in Somali woredas like Dollo Ado, Awbarre, and Kebrabeyah, population data are vastly overestimated, making it difficult to determine net enrolment rates, particularly as this involves looking at
only one year of enrolment, rather than its evolution over time. It is hoped that the forthcoming census will help clarify these data-related concerns.

An additional challenge is the incomparable nature of data from refugee and host communities. Due to the different planning cycles of the MoE and of UNHCR and ARRA, data are collected at different times of the year. UNHCR and ARRA data are collected at the beginning and at the end of the school year, while the MoE collects data mid-year. As there are significant and ongoing population fluxes in participating woredas, this can lead to unreliable and incomparable data. Significant efforts have been made to consolidate data from UNHCR and ARRA into the MoE’s annual statistical yearbook, which should help ensure that data from both communities can be analysed.

The Importance of Individual Capacities and Political Will

A key tool that was used to calculate indicators and to analyse the disparities across settings was Excel. However, in several of the participating woredas, access to computers, internet, and even electricity, is very limited. In several cases, the training also, therefore, consisted of lessons on using Excel, and in the case of the data collection, on using tablets. Ideally, moving forward, woreda-level planners should have access to computers and be supported with capacity development to ensure an adequate level of computer skills.

Additionally, it is important for regional bureau heads and their technical colleagues to have a good understanding of the challenges of refugee education. This requires continual information sharing and advocacy across stakeholder groups.

Political Solutions

The debates that occurred during the workshops on priority strategies indicate that further discussions on decreasing disparities and integrating refugees in the national education system are warranted at both federal and regional levels. Political issues will require political solutions. For example, around the issue of compensation for refugee teachers; refugee teachers are paid by ARRA or international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in some areas, and receive more than double the salary of a national teacher in host communities.

Ensuring Sustainability

To ensure the sustainable application of knowledge on crisis-sensitive planning, as well as education indicator analysis and data collection on risk, the trained officers, both from regions and woredas, must share their knowledge and analysis on refugee education and disparities between refugee and host communities with supervisors and colleagues. This is particularly important if the woreda and regional education annual plans are to address refugee education. To this end, a second round of training will take place in early 2019, to build on the capacities acquired in 2018 and to support the integration of joint priorities for refugees and host communities in woreda annual operational plans. In the coming year, work will also be undertaken to support the MoE to include questions on conflict and disaster risks in their school supervision tools, so as to gather these data on a regular basis.

Finally, as Ethiopia will soon embark on the development of their next education sector development programme (ESDP VI), continued collaboration with the MoE, UNHCR, and ARRA will take place in order to include refugees in the strategic sector plan, and to align refugee data systems with national systems. This comes at a time when Ethiopia has committed to taking considerable measures to facilitate the integration of refugees in the country.

Endnotes

1. In adopting the New York Declaration on Refugees and Migrants in September 2016, all 193 Member States of the United Nations committed to deliver more comprehensive, predictable, and sustainable responses to address large-scale refugee movements. Since the Declaration was adopted, 15 countries have started to roll-out the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) indicated in Annex I of the text (CRRF, n.d.).

References

Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF)


References
Incorporating the Dimensions of Crisis in Education Sector Analyses and Policies

Universal quality basic education will not be realized without taking into account crises and their impact on education systems. As of 2018, nearly one third of all out of school children aged 5 to 17 — an estimated 104 million people — live in countries affected by emergencies (UNICEF, 2018). At the primary level, 52% of the world's out of school children live in emergency countries (UNICEF, 2018). The international community has been aware of this for a relatively long time. For several decades, organizations such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)’s International Institute for Educational Planning and its Dakar Pole (IIEP-Pôle de Dakar) and the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) have been working to take education into account and give it its full importance in crisis situations. But to make this awareness part of a sustainable development process, it is necessary that the relationship between education and crisis go beyond emergency and humanitarian issues to become part of national education sector planning processes. As a starting point for the planning cycle, education sector analysis (ESA) provides the ideal framework to take crises into account in education sector plan (ESP) development processes. ESA is the first step in sector planning and consists of conducting an in-depth and holistic diagnosis of recent trends and of the current status of the education system to identify strengthens, opportunities, and weaknesses. It is with this in mind that IIEP-Pôle de Dakar, in collaboration with partners such as UNICEF, committed itself to incorporate the dimensions of crisis and disasters into the sectoral analyses carried out in recent years in West and Central African countries.

It may come as a surprise today that for many years, public education policies were put in place in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) without taking into account the conflict in one part of the country and its consequences on school access and the internal efficiency of the education system. Similarly, it may be hard to believe now, but the dysfunctions due to the fragility of the political and institutional context since independence were almost
ignored until recently in the development policies and programs of Guinea Bissau’s education and training sector. It is now relatively easier to define strategies to correct the effects on the education system of two decades of socio-political crises in Côte d’Ivoire, or Ebola Virus Disease (EVD) in Guinea, because the respective sectoral diagnoses have reported on these crises. This article summarizes the main lessons learned from these experiences and focuses on data availability challenges, proposing that resolving these challenges would provide a better understanding of the mechanisms for achieving sustainable development goal four on quality education.

A Diversity of Crises with Varying Effects on Education Systems

The ESA exercises have shown that crises education systems are facing in Côte d’Ivoire and in Guinea are not limited to the sudden and dramatic emergencies that make the headlines in national and foreign media. There are also less visible crises that are no less devastating for the education system. While memories are still vivid of the outbreak of the EVD in Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone, including the resulting school closures, the fact remains that lesser-known phenomena such as food insecurity and strike-related dysfunctions are causing almost as much damage to education access and quality. In terms of effects on the system, it is becoming clearer that conflicts resulting from human interactions compete with natural disasters. In Niger, the yellow floods of the Niger River, with 22 deaths and 50,000 people affected in 2018 according to the Minister of Humanitarian Action, are just as deadly as Boko Haram’s attacks on schools in the southwest of the country, with about 200,000 people displaced in 2017 according to OCHA (Niger, in press). Moreover, although the risks may be external to the education system, they are just as present within it; for example, gender-based violence in schools continues to persist. Through concept clarification and a thorough examination, ESAs have made it possible to draw up a typology of risks in different countries, making the sector’s development strategies more sensitive to these little known aspects to the education systems.

The ESAs carried out also made it possible to better assess the effects of risks on the education system. These effects can be of two kinds. On the one hand, because of the insecurity they generate or the damage to infrastructure they are likely to cause, crises prevent school-aged children from accessing school and can discourage parents from sending students to school. On the other hand, because of learning time reduction, crises interfere with student performance and can negatively affect the effectiveness of the system. In the DRC, for example, it has been observed that approximately 2.3 million out-of-school children and adolescents, or two thirds of all out-of-school individuals in the country, live in the six most conflict-affected provinces (RDC, UNESCO — IIPE Pôle de Dakar & UNICEF, 2014). In addition, these same regions have primary completion rates that are eight percentage points lower than the national average, thus undermining student retention in the classroom (RDC et al., 2014). In Chad, analyses have shown that second- and fifth-grade students in regions most at risk from natural disasters and conflicts have learning outcomes that are on average 10 percentage points lower than the country average on PASEC assessment tests (Chad, UNESCO — IIPE Pôle de Dakar & UNICEF, 2016). This is unsurprising since we know that crises reduce learning time, as observed in Guinea Bissau (in 2013) or Niger (in 2017) where up to one-third of the duration of the school year has been lost in some regions due to teachers’ strikes (Niger, in press).

Understanding the myriad of challenges facing these contexts is critical in the process of building a sustainable strategy for the development of the education sector.

Data: A Challenge for Crisis-Sensitive Analysis

In order to develop crisis informed CSAs, data are essential. Currently, available data are mostly of a secondary nature and come from reports produced not by ministries of education, but rather by other government agencies or bilateral and multilateral international organizations. Although essential, these data have at least three major shortcomings. First, they are often partial and they rarely cover all risks or the entire geographical territory of a country. Second, while they are prolific in terms of the risk severity and of their impact on the relevant area, they generally say very little about the specific effects on the education sector. They are, therefore, more in line with the agenda of the agency producing the report, and for this reason, may lack relevance to national educational priorities. This is the main reason that often justifies the execution of a specific survey to assess the relative importance of risks in relation to their effects on education. Finally, in addition to the inconsistency or incoherence of the secondary data available, these data are not regularly or systematically produced, in particular within the framework of an Education Management Information System (EMIS).

Indeed, nearly all west and central African countries now update EMIS on a more or less regular basis, using data collected annually from schools. While organized to store information on usual indicators (e.g. enrollment, teaching staff, infrastructure, etc.), this is the main source of information for ESA and ESP. In their current configuration, however, EMIS systems do not include data on the risks and vulnerabilities that education systems are facing, despite all of the attention they deserve. A specific survey that provides information on the scale, frequency, and impact of these risks and vulnerabilities on education systems may be useful. However, in the absence of such a survey, it is essential that EMIS consider crises, for example in the form of specific
modules within questionnaires, to facilitate the sustainability of information on the effects of crises on education systems and thus facilitate the inclusion of this information in education sector policies and plans.

References


Evidence-based Programming: Incorporating Baseline Findings into Immediate Program Interventions to Reduce School-Based Violence in Honduran Schools

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Summary
The findings from the USAID-funded Asegurando la Educación project’s school safety study conducted in 66 Honduran schools have provided a unique opportunity for school officials, parents, and teachers to develop immediate policies and practices in and around schools to mitigate violence. This article provides examples from schools in Honduras, in which the school communities developed immediate, cost-effective policies and practices to reduce school-based violence, all in the span of a few months after learning of the survey findings.

Keywords
School-based Violence Prevention
Survey
Safe Learning Environments
Honduras
Research-Practice Divide

Introduction
The findings from the USAID-funded Asegurando la Educación (Asegurando) project’s school safety study on school-based violence (SBV) in 66 Honduran public schools is a rare case where findings from a baseline survey have immediately informed practice and policy decisions to reduce violence. Connecting research findings to practice remains a challenge for many reasons, including the fact that findings are not made available to key education stakeholders. In their 2004 article, Gore and Gitlin referenced the research-practice divide in science education. This divide, however, is also a challenge in other fields within the education sector, including school safety. Working with the study findings at the school-level has become a unique opportunity for school officials, parents, and teachers to develop immediate policies and practices in and around schools to mitigate violence. In a country that experiences one of the highest homicide rates in the world and with high levels of other forms of violence, such as sexual aggression and extortion, promoting school safety is both a challenge and a priority.

This article provides examples from schools in Honduras, in which the school communities developed immediate, cost-effective policies and practices to reduce school-based violence, all in the span of a few months after learning of the survey findings. The project is also sharing its findings with national authorities, such as the ministries of education and security. We believe these findings will result in a stronger collaboration between the education and security sectors and a smarter allocation of resources to promote safer learning environments.

The Study
Conducted in April and May of 2018, the study asked over 7,000
educators, principals, and students from 4th to 9th grades in 66 Honduran schools across five cities their perceptions of security, their first-hand knowledge of the types and intensity of violent incidents in schools, and their knowledge of external factors contributing to school-based violence, such as arms and drugs.

Beginning in August 2018, just three months after the completion of the study, the Asegurando team began to present the findings to the school community.

At the national level, 24% of Honduran students had experienced some type of physical aggression committed by their peers. Just over 46% had experienced some type of emotional aggression, while 36% reported that within the previous 30 days, they had felt sad, hopeless, and had thoughts that life had no meaning.

When the school communities learned of the school-specific findings, they often developed preventive measures. The following are concrete examples of how school safety data were turned into cost-effective and sustainable practices to promote safer learning environments.

**Physical and Verbal Aggression and Self-inflicted Violence**

Parents and teachers at a primary school in Tela learned that 60% of boys and 33% of girls had fallen victim to verbal assaults, and 40% of boys and 24% of girls had been slapped or struck with a fist. In addition, 47% of boys and 24% of girls had performed some type of self-mutilation while 47% of boys and 29% of girls had felt that life was not worth living, all within the previous 30 days.

The school principal said that the findings were eye-opening. “Students don’t usually share thoughts of suicide or incidents of physical violence with teachers”, she said (personal communication, October 9, 2018). Supported by Asegurando’s university fellows, the school committee and teachers conducted the school’s first anti-bullying workshop in October 2018. Later that month, the school community conducted a school-driven anti-bullying awareness campaign, including an anti-bullying film, followed by discussion groups to attempt to confront the causes of, and offer solutions to, bullying.

In a primary school located in Choloma, 23% of the children had reported falling victim to physical aggression in the 30 days prior to the study. 52% of children reported having been insulted, and nearly 44% had personal items stolen, hidden, or broken. For minority students, the findings were much worse. The sole ethnic Lenca member reported suffering physical and emotional some of the time. Disabled students reported emotional bullying all of the time and half of them suffered physical aggression in the previous 30 days.

As a result of these findings, teachers incorporated anti-bullying messages through art and sports activities in the school’s existing clubs. They invited student anti-bullying champions from other school shifts to attend the clubs and promote teamwork, tolerance, and social inclusion. The teachers also invited Ciudad Mujer (Women’s City)—a women’s protection organization—to hold talks with students to raise awareness about gender-based violence and discrimination. Since taking these actions, the teaching staff has observed a reduction in bullying.

**High Perceptions of Insecurity**

Across all five cities, the study found that restrooms are where students experience the highest insecurity and fear. In another elementary school in Choloma, some 77% of girls expressed insecurity going to the restroom. In response, parents from the school community committee worked with school officials to change the restroom monitoring policies and practices to ensure restrooms were locked at all times and keys managed by adults—parent volunteers during recesses and the security guard during classes. Improved control of these individual unit facilities and better key management and accountability ensure that now only one student at a time can enter.

Upon learning that 87% of boys and 74% of girls felt unsafe going to the restroom in one San Pedro Sula school, teachers could not believe this was accurate. “We were shocked to hear about some of these incidents”, said a fifth-grade teacher. But some students confirmed the findings. “We will take action with the administration and parents to mitigate these instances”, the teacher said (personal communication, August 27, 2018). Indeed, teachers increased bathroom monitoring and began sending students to the restrooms in pairs. “I feel better now that the teachers understand what happens in the bathrooms… Going to the bathroom in pairs will help,” said the student (personal communication, August 27, 2018).

**External Contributing Factors to School-Based Violence**

At a secondary school in Tegucigalpa, 85% of teachers reported that drugs like marijuana or crack cocaine could be found just outside the school. Three out of seven said that drugs were available inside the school while four out of seven said alcohol was available at the school. And three out of seven said that they had witnessed students taking drugs or alcohol at school, all in the first three or four months of the school year. Although school officials knew about the drug problem, they feared broaching the subject of substance abuse because the students who sell illegal drugs often misinterpreted the counseling as law enforcement.

After Asegurando shared the baseline results, school officials approached the National Directorate of Social Intervention...
(DINIS)—the government agency responsible for social protection—for help. DINIS has since launched an initiative at the school to train teachers on how to conduct practical lessons on substance abuse without raising the suspicions of drug dealers. DINIS is also now providing clinical therapy to students most affected by substance abuse. “We will now be able to give talks to the students on the dangers of drug use,” said the teacher (personal communication, October 10, 2018).

**Conclusion**

The fact that school communities responded so quickly after seeing the findings from the baseline survey—establishing cost-effective policies and practices to reduce violence in their schools—has demonstrated the commitment that educators, parents, students, and authorities have to making schools safe spaces for learning. These measures—monitoring restrooms, sending students to the bathrooms in pairs, police patrolling school environs at peak hours, anti-bullying campaigns, and engaging government social protection support, among others—also represent low-cost, sustaiable models that the public education system can replicate in other schools.

With the start of the 2019 school year in February, in partnership with the Secretariat of Education, Asegurando will expand its school safety study to 125 new schools. The project will work with teachers, parents, and students to systematically address the findings with responses for converting uncertain environments of fear, violence, trauma, and bullying into safe learning spaces. The project is also sharing the findings with other key stakeholders such as the Secretariat of Security and USAID, to strengthen protocols and systems that can make all Asegurando intervention schools safer and to develop guides and policies with national coverage. We believe these policies and practices will result in a stronger collaboration between the education and security sectors and a smarter allocation of resources to promote safer learning environments, not only for Asegurando partner schools, but for the more than 23,000 Honduran public schools.

**Endnotes**

1. Asegurando is a five-year USAID-funded project designed to improve access to quality education—retention, completion, and student performance—by reducing school-based violence in five major cities with the highest incidence of gang- and drug-related violence: Tegucigalpa, San Pedro Sula, Choloma, Tela, and La Ceiba.

**References**

Introduction
Conflicts and chronic emergencies harm children and adolescents; particularly by restricting their mobility, access to learning opportunities, and ability to make life choices, which significantly affects the shaping of their personalities, mental health, and overall future prosperity.

In emergency contexts, where access to conventional information and quality learning materials might be limited, there is a conviction that communication technology and mobile learning have tremendous potential to support learning and personal development for crisis-affected populations (Miao et al., 2018). Guided by this conviction, there are numerous initiatives that attempt to integrate technology-based educational practices into humanitarian response and programs; nonetheless, studies that investigate the effectiveness of these practices remain limited (Miao et al., 2018). To help fill the research gap around the effectiveness of educational technologies, Libraries Without Borders (LWB) has been working on a series of impact studies to demonstrate the effectiveness of the Ideas Box—an innovation that merges offline and digital educational resources—on the learning outcomes and psychosocial well-being of refugee children and adolescents.

Education and Psychosocial Resilience Are Priorities for Children and Adolescents in Emergencies
LWB argues that once vital survival requirements (food, water, shelter, and clothing) are secured for emergency-affected children and adolescents, humanitarian actors should address their intellectual and psychological needs. LWB embraces this argument for three key reasons. First, investing in psychosocial support enables coping mechanisms that help children mitigate the negative psychological consequences (e.g. post-traumatic disorders) of emergencies. Second, education in emergencies
bridges the gap in children’s knowledge resulting from dropping out of school and, therefore, supports learners’ re-enrollment in school once the emergency context is mitigated. Third, students’ gains in well-being are not defined solely by their cognitive outcomes, but also by their abilities to utilize those cognitive outcomes to their personal benefit. These abilities are often referred to as psychosocial or non-cognitive skills and constitute socially desirable traits and behaviors such as perseverance, effective communication, and teamwork (Kattan, 2017; Zhou, 2016) that leverage students’ well-being gains from cognitive education in the long run.

**Ideas Box Innovation**

LWB’s Ideas Box (IDB) is a portable multimedia center which contains a server, a generator, tablets and laptops, a cinema, games, arts and crafts, and a stage for music and theatre (LWB, 2018). A typical IDB schedule consists of five free-access days per week, seven hours per day.

The IDB is able to reach and benefit populations in the most remote areas because of the offline server it contains. This server enables users to access digital educational materials even when online connectivity is limited or completely absent. The IDB is not a replacement for educational interventions being developed by governments and humanitarian actors for emergencies. Instead, it is a supplementary toolkit that can be tailored to support any kind of educational programming in emergency settings.

**IDB’s Impact on Cognitive and Psychosocial Outcomes**

After a three-year trial period, two mixed-methods studies were conducted to demonstrate the results of the IDB on psychosocial well-being (PSW) and learning outcomes. The first qualitative study was conducted by a professional psychiatrist in Kavumu and Bwagiriza refugee camps in Burundi. The assessment was undertaken after one year of deploying the IDB in the two camps and included interviews with 180 refugees (15 focus groups and 18 personal interviews) (Lachal, 2015). Congolese children and adolescents (1 to 17 year-olds) represented roughly 47% of the interviewees. The PSW needs of kids between 1 and 3 years old were tested through interviewing their mothers. The assessment highlighted that Congolese children and adolescents, including children, are impacted by various levels of psychological traumas and distress. For instance, residents of the camps tended to reproduce the ethnic tensions from which they had fled and practiced violent behaviors against one another (Lachal, 2015).

The study revealed that the IDB had positive implications for children’s PSW (Lachal, 2015). The IDB provided children and adolescents with a safe space where they could express and speak freely about their own experiences without feeling intimidated by prejudices, abuse, or any type of social violence (Lachal, 2015). This safe space was reinforced by qualified program facilitators (mostly recruited from the local community) and the provision of safe and protective learning and recreational (online/offline) resources and materials. Through its contents, the IDB works to stimulate imagination, encourage self-reflection on positive and negative experiences, and help children envision different futures, full of prospects that they want to pursue (Lachal, 2015). The study revealed that this fostered children’s self-image, including improved self-awareness, hope, and trust in the future. In addition, the IDB contributed towards boosting self-confidence among youngsters, which was reflected by openly expressing and discussing their thoughts and personal ideas with their peers, instructors, and program facilitators.

The ex-post qualitative study was an opportunity to collect and analyze primary evidence and direct testimonies from IDB’s users on the dynamics through which the IDB impacts the PSW of children and adolescents. However, a lack of a comparison group or baseline data deprived the study of having a frame of reference that would have allowed for a more robust assessment of the effect size of the IDB. Moreover, the main data collection methodology, focus group discussions (FGDs), in and of itself, may have produced a bias. Since FGDs, by definition, lack anonymity, there is a risk that some testimonies were contaminated by peer pressure or socially desirable responses, therefore skewing some of the findings. To address these limitations, LWB should consider using more substantive PSW measurements in the future. Since the study, LWB has started testing the use of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ), a standardized quantitative index that measures developments in children’s and adolescents’ PSW. This tool has the potential to reach a larger IDB user/non-user sample with lower administrative costs and to provide consistent and comparable cross-cultural results.

The second study used a randomized experiment to investigate for associations between Mathematics’ and French language’s test scores and IDB participation of Congolese refugees in the Bwagiriza camp’s school in Burundi (Peich, 2016). The school had two classrooms for each educational level, of which, one classroom at the primary four level and one classroom at the second year of secondary level were randomly picked to be the treatment classrooms and to hold their mathematics and French classes within the IDB for 12 weeks. Since the experiment was at the beginning of the schooling year, LWB and the camp school could randomly assign teachers to the classrooms, to reduce the likelihood of a selection bias that might result from invariant teachers’ characteristics if they were assigned on a non-random basis. In total, there were 120 primary education pupils (60 treatment and 60 control), and 68 secondary education pupils (38 treatment and 30 control) (Peich, 2016).
The Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA) were utilized to measure the educational outcomes because of their wide validity and acceptability.

Empirical findings confirmed that students benefited from holding their classes within the IDB’s space; those who did, achieved, on average, 23% higher test scores than the control groups (Peich, 2016). Students who were scoring in the lowest quartile on the tests before using the box were the ones who improved the most (Peich, 2016). Interviews with teachers provided more insight into the improved test scores; teachers reported increased curiosity, classroom engagement, and interaction from students who had their lessons in the IDB space. The study suggested that providing a supportive learning environment and tailoring content to students’ and educators’ needs resulted in students’ improved motivation and classroom engagement (Peich, 2016). Furthermore, teachers reported that the content offered by the IDB was useful for them while preparing their lessons and enabled them to introduce innovative teaching methods and materials in the classroom.

Despite the relative importance of the experiment, there are a few considerations that future evaluations must keep in mind in order to strengthen the conclusions about the effectiveness of the IDB. For instance, the study assumed that the only structural difference between treatment and control classrooms were the settings in which the classes took place. The results might not hold if there were differences in teachers’ qualifications and motivations that were not taken into account. In this regards, the random assignment of teachers might still produce a bias, since the small sample size (n=4) is not sufficient for averaging out structural differences in teachers’ characteristics. Additionally, the study did not report explicitly on the statistical power of the experiment, or the statistical significance of the results. Finally, future evaluations should explore whether the improved scores are generated as a result of the IDB’s digital and traditional content, or because of students’ excitement about the introduction to and the novelty of the IDB setting. This would shed some light on the sustainability of the IDB’s effect, and whether it wanes over time.

Conclusion

Two evaluation studies produced evidence on how the integration of the IDB innovation can improve the psychosocial and educational outcomes for displaced children and adolescents. The two studies provided key lessons that can inform future evaluations of the IDB and similar innovations in emergencies. It may also be of interest to examine further the correlation between psychosocial well-being and learning outcomes in order to quantify the effect of boosted psychosocial well-being on the educational achievement of children and adolescents in displacement.
Part 4

More Data Needed about Critical EiE Issues
Introduction


Turkey, which is a party to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, is hosting the largest number of refugees in the world, approximately 3.6 million refugees, including over 1.4 million children (UNHCR, 2017). Although the Syrian crisis began in March 2011, detailed data representing the demographics of refugee children with special needs in Turkey are limited (UNHCR, 2016). This article examines the challenges that affect the identification of refugee children with special needs in host countries, particularly Turkey, including lack of trained practitioners, limited assessment tools with good psychometric properties, and language barriers.

What Do We Know about Refugee Children with Special Needs in Turkey?

The methodology employed for this literature review included conducting searches with keywords, such as “refugee children with special needs” and “refugee children with disabilities” in the following websites and databases: Academic Search Premier, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), UNICEF, and the Women’s Refugee Commission. Reports from the Turkish Ministry of Education (MoNE) and the Turkish Statistical Institute, only available in Turkish, were reviewed as well. This was a necessary step to gain a broader sense of the current status of refugee children with special needs in Turkey.

Summary

This article examines the challenges that affect the identification and assessment of refugee children with special needs in Turkey and provides recommendations related to data collection and assessment of these learners that is broadly relevant in refugee settings.

Keywords

Refugee Children
Learners with Special Needs
Data Collection
Early Intervention
Early Childhood Special Education
According to the Turkish Ministry of Family and Social Policies (MoFSP), as a temporary protection for beneficiaries, all refugee children with or without special needs have the right to be registered at public schools in Turkey. There are more than 1.1 million registered Syrian refugees who are school-aged children and youth (5-17 years old) living in Turkey (Carlier, 2018). In the 2017-2018 school year, 7,025 five-year-old refugee children received education in unaccredited and temporary centers which are available in refugee camps (MEB, 2018). For the same school year, 36,601 five-year-old refugee children enrolled in Turkish public schools (MEB, 2018). However, data on the enrollment rate of refugee children (birth to 5 years old) with special needs in these services are not publicly available, which creates a large gap in the early childhood education system.

Since 2016, the MoFSP has established child centers, activity centers, and nursery schools for refugee children with disabilities living outside of refugee camps (ASPB, 2016). Moreover, MoFSP provides psychosocial support, preventive, and protective care services for children with special needs in rehabilitation centers (ASPB, 2016). The MoNE is providing special education classrooms to support children with special needs who live in refugee camps. However, there is a need to monitor and evaluate program quality of these services (Asylum Information Database, 2015).

The literature review showed that detailed individual data that represent chronological age, gender, birth place, birth and medical history, disability category, or time of referral to early intervention/early childhood special education (EI/ECSE) services are not available for refugee children with special needs in Turkey. In the field of EI/ECSE, calculating the chronological age, which is broken into years, months, and days of a child is the first step of any assessment protocol. Miscalculation of the chronological age will result in faulty interpretations and scores. Therefore, it is critically important to determine a child’s chronological age at the time of testing. However, if the children are not accompanied by family members, many of them do not know when they were born or may not provide the correct information.

The findings showed that there is a lack of standard data collection protocols to identify refugee children with special needs (Rohwerder, 2018). Moreover, there is a lack of documentation regarding the services provided to refugee children with special needs (Curtis & Geagan, 2016; UNICEF, 2018). For instance, if children are assessed to identify their educational strengths and needs, it is important to document the date of the assessment, the child’s chronological age, the measurement tool(s) that are used, the language of the tool(s), if the assessment is available in Turkish or the child’s native language, the staff who administered the tool (e.g. early intervention practitioner/specialist, family members, interpreters, and/or cultural brokers), and the result of the assessment for each child assessed. If refugee children with special needs receive EI/ECSE services, it is important to document important information on educational services including child-to-adult ratio, number of children with special needs in a classroom, teachers’ educational background, language(s) spoken in the program, hours of operation, and daily schedule. This information would help service providers, policy-makers, and researchers to understand the available resources for refugee children with special needs and guide them regarding what else may need to be done in order to meet the needs of these learners.

Implications for the Field

The education of refugee children with special needs is a major challenge in Turkey. There is a need to identify refugee children with special needs (birth to 5 years old) and provide EI/ECSE services to support children to reach their full potential. It is critical to intervene during the early years of child development. EI/ECSE services can impact a child’s developmental trajectory and improve the outcomes for children, families, and communities at large. The case in Turkey is complex, yet it provides a critical example to highlight the educational needs of refugee children with special needs.

Recommendations to better meet the needs of refugee children with special needs in Turkey include: a) establish a more rigorous data collection protocol and provide public accessibility; b) develop a universal assessment system for children with special needs; and c) provide ongoing training to educators on the assessment of children with special needs.

First, there needs to be an improvement in data collection initiatives. Developing a systematic data collection process across the country for refugee children with special needs can help to organize and coordinate meaningful EI/ECSE services. Furthermore, there is a need to develop a universal assessment system, which is a critical step to understand the strengths and needs of refugee children. For example, Turkey could consider expanding the administration of International Development and Early Learning Assessment (IDELA), which aims to measure child development from 3.5 to 6 years in four areas: motor development, emergent language and literacy, emergent numeracy/problem solving, and social-emotional skills (Pisani, Borisova, & Dowd, 2015). Currently, there are a limited number of assessment tools with good psychometric properties for educators to use with children who have special needs. It is also important to provide systematic in-service training to educators on assessment with a specific focus on collaborating with family members, interpreters, and cultural liaisons/brokers during the assessment process.

Conclusion

Future work focusing on refugee children with disabilities...
can make a difference in the lives of all children in education in emergency situations. For example, a child who is hearing impaired may need closed captions or video descriptions, which in turn, could also support children who are learning another language to see the words on the screen while they are listening. There is an urgent need to recognize and respond to the needs of refugee children with special needs, otherwise, they often do not receive the services, funding, and/or support they need. Our findings are limited to the refugee population from Syria residing in Turkey. Despite this limitation, our investigation has suggested that there are no reliable data that indicate that refugee children with special needs are being identified and/or adequately receiving the services that are within their rights as children (United Nations, 2016). This is not just an issue for Turkey alone, but a global issue that needs attention and could benefit all children with special needs.

References

Introduction

Decades of conflict have prevented many children in Afghanistan from accessing education. Over the last 15 years, the government of Afghanistan has made considerable efforts to rebuild the country’s education sector. In 2002, only one million children, mostly boys, were enrolled in school, but today more than 9.2 million children, 39% of whom are girls, are in school (USAID, 2018). Language is a key factor in quality of and access to education, particularly in countries like Afghanistan where more than 40 languages are spoken (Lewis, Simons & Fennig, 2018). Linguistic diversity has implications for quality of education, and it is important to understand what linguistic realities are present and need to be planned for in education systems to ensure that all Afghan children have the opportunity to learn (Bahry, 2013). These include children of minority language groups as well as refugees and internally displaced people (IDPs) who find themselves in regions of Afghanistan where the language of instruction at school is different from the language they speak at home (UNESCO, 2018).

The Afghan Ministry of Education (MoE) is using an evidence-based approach to education reform in which it will implement reform measures after they have proven successful in small-scale pilots or other similar situations. Through this approach, the MoE is making a significant step towards addressing the challenges it will face in providing Afghan children with equitable access to quality education. The Afghan Children Read program, a United States Agency for International Development (USAID)-funded primary education initiative, is working with the Afghan MoE to achieve this goal. The program supports education service delivery through building the capacity of the MoE to provide an evidence-based early grade reading (EGR) program for students in grades 1 to 3 in both formal and Community-Based Education (CBE) schools. To ensure these reforms increase access to quality education for all students, they must take the language factor into account. Knowing this, the project carried out a language mapping research study to generate the evidence necessary to inform the MoE’s EGR program.
Theory and Literature

The Afghan MoE estimated in 2015 that 3.3 million children, the majority of whom were girls, were out of school (Strand, 2015). Inequities in access to education persist, particularly around gender, geographic, and linguistic lines (Bahry, 2013; Malone, 2016; Strand, 2015). Exclusion from education systems may generate hopelessness about a better future and lead to social and political instability, especially in conflict-affected environments (Fadil, 2014). Despite the fact that Afghanistan’s constitution and education strategies call for the eradication of language disparities in the education system, action towards such inclusivity is still lagging (Bahry, 2013; Malone, 2016; Ministry of Education of Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2016). Currently, only Dari and Pashto are being used as languages of instruction in the Afghan education system. Language diversity within the classroom is at the center of the production and reproduction of differences and inequality among students. When a student does not understand the language a teacher uses, learning is impeded. Language is a key factor in quality of and access to education, and the language ability of students is at the core of their ability to learn (Bahry, 2013; Baker, 2006; Benson, 2004; Ginkel, 2014). Having information about language realities and language needs in and around primary schools in Afghanistan is crucial to the Afghan MoE’s education reform process. Current work towards curriculum reform has led to the drafting of a curriculum framework for general education that recognizes the language issue in education, mentioning that “local language will be designed and implemented at local level based on the community’s needs” (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2018, p. 17). This framework should allow students with first languages other than Dari and Pashto to learn to read in their first language and learn Dari and Pashto as a second language, but the MoE has yet to implement it.

Methodology

The methodology for this language mapping research included a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This combination of methods provided information about language use as well as people’s attitudes and perceptions around languages in education. Two major research questions were investigated:

1. What is the linguistic reality in and around schools?
2. What classroom practices are being used when students do not speak the language of instruction?

To answer these questions, data were collected through structured interviews, focus group discussions (FGD), and classroom observations. Data collection tools were designed to allow for triangulation of findings. The data were collected from principals, teachers, students, and school management committees in 234 public schools and 39 CBE schools in two provinces in Afghanistan, Nangarhar and Herat. These provinces are somewhat linguistically homogeneous, and researchers expected one of the two national languages to be the mother tongue of most students and teachers. Researchers chose Nangarhar and Herat to conduct this research as schools in these two provinces are part of the early grade reading pilot being conducted by Afghan Children Read. The data collectors were Afghan nationals who were familiar with the languages and cultural contexts of the areas from which they collected data.

Data Collection Process

Data collection in Afghanistan requires consideration of both safety and gender issues, which can act as limitations on research. While data for this study were collected in relatively stable provinces, security issues are always a concern in Afghanistan. During the data collection period, the security environment in some areas of both provinces deteriorated significantly. Furthermore, some areas in which data were collected were not under the control of the government, but of rival groups. By working in close coordination with provincial and district governments, the researchers monitored the security situation in data collection areas and adjusted plans as necessary to ensure the safety of enumerators. However, changes to the security environment did limit the size and scope of the research.

Gender is another relevant consideration for data collection in Afghanistan. In general, men and women in Afghan society do not interact in public. It is considered inappropriate for a woman to talk to a man she does not know, especially in more rural areas. In this context, it can be difficult to collect data from women, unless female enumerators are hired. However, female enumerators also often require permission from male relatives to attend data collection trainings, travel to different schools to collect data, and interact with men who are not relatives, making it difficult to ensure a substantial portion of female enumerators. These issues around gender limited the number of adult female respondents from which data were collected during this study. In one province there was almost equal participation of male and female respondents, however, in the other province, only about 18% of the respondents were adult females. There was a better gender balance among student respondents; in one province 50% of the students from whom data were collected were female, while in the other province about 40% were female.

Findings

Data collection only took place in two targeted provinces and was limited to accessible schools under government (not Taliban) control where it would be safe to conduct data collection. Afghan social norms around gender and the lack of female enumerators hired for the study resulted in low representation of adult female respondents. Afghan Children
Read conducted data collection in collaboration with the Afghan MoE and disseminated the results to MoE leadership. Government engagement in this research effort is contributing to a culture of evidence-based policy reform, especially around language of instruction and education in conflict contexts.

The findings of the language mapping research reflected that virtually all teachers in the two provinces studied speak the language of instruction of their school. For most teachers, the language of instruction is also their mother tongue, but a minority of teachers reported having a different mother tongue. Depending on their mother tongue, 40-100% of these teachers reported that they lacked adequate literacy skills in the language of instruction. Most students in both provinces also speak the language of instruction. However, there were significant minorities of students surveyed (15% in Nangarhar, 12% in Herat) whose mother tongue was different from the language of instruction of their school. Furthermore, 5-8% of students, depending on the district, reported dialect and/or language variety being an issue, and teachers also indicated that strong dialect differences negatively impact learning. The data showed that teachers consistently use the language of instruction of their school as the medium of instruction, but that sometimes teachers use the mother tongue of students who do not speak the language of instruction. Teachers employ a variety of practices to deal with language differences, but it is not clear how systematically they use such language support practices. Also, when the student does not speak the language of instruction (or does not speak it well), there was a consensus among parents and teachers that it takes three or more years for students to understand the language of instruction without the help of the teacher.

To provide equitable and quality education, linguistic diversity in Afghanistan needs to be considered in education policy and its implementation. The language mapping research described in this study allowed the researchers to make a number of key recommendations to the Afghan MoE, which if taken into account within current education reforms, would allow students with minority language backgrounds, refugees, and IDP children to access quality education in Afghanistan.

**Conclusion**

Quality data collection for education in countries that are experiencing long-term conflict is important to ensuring all children have access to quality education. This language mapping research illustrates that quality data collection to inform evidence-based education policy is possible even in conflict-affected environments. Conducting this research required close coordination at the grassroots level to ensure the safety of data collectors, but the data provided the information necessary to give key recommendations around language of instruction to the Afghan MoE.

**References**


Scaling up Best Practices for Girls’ Education and Empowerment in Afghanistan

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Summary
STAGES II is a national consortium of 6 partners implementing community-based education (CBE) for girls across 16 provinces in Afghanistan. Adopting a rigorous quasi-experimental external evaluation methodology has yielded key learning on “what works” for girls’ education, which has fed into the scaling up of project activities from phase 1 to 2, as well as into the development of the national CBE policy and girls’ education strategy.

Keywords
Girls’ Education
Afghanistan
Sustainability
Gender
Conflict

Scaling up Best Practices for Girls’ Education and Empowerment in Afghanistan
Community-based Education (CBE) is a proven best practice in Afghanistan, where decades of war have damaged the education system infrastructure and complex terrain and insecurity make journeys to school unsafe. CBE is an outreach pathway for children who cannot access education due to lack of schools, long distances, insecurity, and conservative cultural norms that impact girls in particular. CBE provision entails establishing a classroom inside a donated space in the community, recruiting and training a teacher and school management shura (council) from the local community, and providing teaching and learning materials.

Steps Towards Afghan Girls
Education Success (STAGES), a United Kingdom (UK) government-funded project implemented by Aga Khan Foundation, Save the Children, CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Aga Khan Education Services, and Afghan Education Production Organisation, implements a holistic CBE approach across 16 provinces in Afghanistan. The project includes community mobilisation and awareness-raising, teacher professional development support, shura training and joint monitoring visits, classroom improvement projects, library establishment, flexible response funding to remove barriers to retention, learning and transition, and vocational and paraprofessional training for older girls to access employment pathways. The project operates in rural and remote communities and communities that are controlled or contested by Armed Opposition Groups (AOGs), which regular government service provision cannot access.

Measuring Results
Project results are measured by an external evaluator through a quasi-experimental evaluation design that includes data collection from CBE students, project-supported government school students, and a comparison group of government school students who have received no project support. STAGES measures learning outcomes through Early Grade Mathematics/Reading Assessment (EGMA/EGRA) tools.
and Secondary Grade Mathematics/Reading Assessment (SeGRA/SeGMA) for older grades. Sampled cohort girls are longitudinally tracked from baseline to endline, so that learning data from the same girls can be compared over the lifetime of the project. The evaluation also collects data on girls’ attendance, supportive community attitudes towards girls’ education, teaching quality, school management practices, and life skills through additional quantitative and qualitative methods applied at the individual, school, and community levels. This enables the evaluation to track differences in girls’ learning over time, as well as correlations between increases (or decreases) in learning scores and other factors.

There are challenges to implementing research in Afghanistan. The main barrier to data collection in general and the longitudinal approach, in particular, are the shifting security dynamics across sampled communities; a community sampled at baseline may no longer be accessible at midline or endline. Internal migration also results in girls moving away from the sampled communities either temporarily or permanently, risking high rates of cohort girl attrition. Communities are sensitive to the appearance of outsiders, meaning that data collection visits have to be managed carefully for the safety of enumerators and project staff. Collection of data in non-intervention comparison schools entails further challenges, since staff and data collectors risk backlash from schools discontent at not receiving project interventions. The project manages this by negotiating access with local government entities and receiving project interventions. The project manages this collectors risk backlash from schools discontent at not receiving project interventions. The project manages this by negotiating access with local government entities and receiving project interventions.

**Evaluation Findings**

STAGES I evaluations (2013-2017) and STAGES II baseline (2018) have demonstrated the positive impact of the community-based approach on girls’ learning, attendance, and retention. In STAGES I, 95% of surveyed girls were still in school by endline with attendance rates of 90%. CBE students surpassed the target of 0.25 standard deviations in learning targets across almost all grades. The evaluation also demonstrated positive links between attendance and learning, supportive household attitudes and transition, teaching quality and learning, and school management and attendance. The research highlighted that the infrastructural projects most likely to result in higher attendance and higher learning for girls were building of latrines at school and building boundary walls around schools or classes. The presence of strong female shura members is linked to higher attendance and learning outcomes. Yet, the research also highlights the challenges around engaging female shura members especially in conservative areas, with the majority of shura members being male.

Despite positive results around learning, attendance, and retention, the sustainability of CBE is a concern. Projects like STAGES carry a high cost-per-student and without ongoing funding, communities lose the ability to continue sending children to school or support their education within the community. The STAGES I endline found that families can become disillusioned when projects end and there is no available class for younger children. This poses a risk to the educational opportunities of future children, and to the investments made around knowledge and attitude change in parents.

**Sharing Results to Inform Policy and Practice**

In the absence of a national assessment system in Afghanistan, large-scale evaluations such as these provide valuable data not only for the project team, but also for the Ministry of Education (MoE) and education sector implementers on “what works” to reach and educate the most marginalised girls and boys. Results have been shared with policymakers through fora including events organised to present key recommendations from the evaluations from the sector with MoE, donor, and civil society representatives. A good practice is for the external evaluator to present results directly to policymakers in a non-biased and balanced way. Additionally, the project maintains an active presence at regular education sector-wide meetings and working groups, including policy development consultation workshops. With six implementing partners, the project is able to leverage relationships across the consortium by disseminating consistent messaging from the project’s research and evaluation on successes and lessons learned. The project also participates regularly in international seminars and conferences to share lessons and inform the discourse on what works in girls’ education and inform the design of new projects globally.

Following these processes, the project has used results and learning from STAGES to feed into the development of the MoE’s national CBE policy, which aims to scale up CBE to reach an additional 2.4 million out-of-school children by 2021. Given the success of CBE in achieving quality learning outcomes, the new policy places an emphasis on longer-term CBE provision, from lower to upper secondary grades to reach girls most at risk of dropping out. The policy focuses on standardisation of CBE provision to ensure projects are able to reach as many out-of-school children as possible while maintaining high-quality standards, reflecting the government priorities of
increasing access and quality (National Education Strategic Plan III 2017-2021). To this end, the project supported the MoE in developing a standardised costing framework around the minimum standards for CBE provision to guide the development of new proposals.

To address sustainability concerns, a number of transition pathways have been identified in the policy, partly informed by STAGES learning experiences, for agreement between each non-governmental organization and the MoE at the inception phase of each new CBE project. This will ensure that both parties are committed to a viable transition for the CBE students into formal school or ongoing outreach education sustained by the MoE or communities themselves. Additionally, the policy recommends the adoption of innovative approaches such as multi-grade classrooms, which would allow enrolment of boys and girls from different grades into the same class.

Evidence from STAGES I evaluations have also informed the design of the second phase of the project. STAGES II places a greater focus on strengthening programming for adolescent girls, with more lower secondary CBE classes and new programming around menstrual hygiene management and girls’ peer groups. Further innovations under STAGES II focus on sustainability and systems strengthening. STAGES II is piloting the multi-grade approach through a new teacher training package and will feed midline and endline evaluation results back to the MoE and education implementers for refinement and scale up of the multi-grade approach. The project will also trial a community-led handover approach whereby Community Development Councils (CDCs) are trained on management of the CBE classes and encouraged to invest community development block grants into funding the CBE classes, including paying for textbooks, student stationery, and teachers’ salaries. Ongoing contributions would also be provided by community members in the form of classroom space, construction materials, and labour.

The project also contributed to the development of the Girls’ Education Policy through the sharing results from STAGES evaluations and research and through the team’s participation in workshops and consultations led by the MoE and UNICEF. The policy echoes the emphasis on CBE provision to reach out-of-school girls, while also focusing on making government schools and learning spaces girl-friendly. For example, ensuring boundary walls and gender-segregated latrines (identified in STAGES research as a key predictor for girls’ attendance and learning). The policy also emphasises increasing the pool of qualified female teachers and ensuring that female resource people (in the form of mothers, shura members, or teachers) are in place in schools for girls to talk to and reach out to for support about their problems and barriers to attendance.

References
Introduction
Home to one of the largest refugee populations in Africa, Ethiopia has affirmed its commitment to ensuring the protection and well-being of refugees through a range of pledges made at the United Nations High-Level Summit for Refugees and Migrants in 2016 (UNHCR, 2016). Some of these reforms affect the education sector, including the proposed issuing of work permits to refugees, including teachers, efforts to expand enrolment of refugee children, and attempts to build and improve essential services for refugees more broadly. On the surface, these policy developments hold promise for improved education for refugees in Ethiopia. However, while research has demonstrated that among those factors open to policy influence the quality of teachers and their teaching are the most important ones affecting student outcomes, relatively little data are available about teachers of refugees in Ethiopia, and subsequently, how these teachers will be impacted by these policy changes. This article, which builds on preliminary reflections from a larger study, aims to provide an overview of what we know and what we need to know about teachers of refugees in primary schools in Ethiopia in order to support effective teacher management.

About Primary Education in Ethiopia
Primary education in Ethiopia consists of two cycles: basic primary, covering grades 1 to 4 (ages 7 to 10) and general
primary, covering grades 5 to 8 (ages 11 to 14). The primary school-aged population is large, at over 16 million people, and, while there have been improvements over the years, Ethiopia still faces significant education challenges, including high repetition rates, drop-out rates, overage enrolments, high numbers of out-of-school children, and relatively low completion rates (UIS, 2018).

In addition to providing education for its own citizens, the Ethiopian government has committed to providing education for the close to 350,000 refugee children living within its borders, over half of whom are of primary school-age (Ethiopian MoE, 2016/2017). Refugee education, however, is not currently a responsibility of the Ministry of Education (MoE) but of a separate government entity, the Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs (ARRA), which runs the primary schools operating in refugee camps. Part of the Ministry of Peace, ARRA’s mandate illustrates Ethiopia’s “long-standing tradition of operating in refugee camps. Part of the Ministry of Peace, ARRA’s mandate illustrates Ethiopia’s “long-standing tradition of hosting refugees” (ARRA, 2018). In fact, ARRA describes Ethiopia as a “refugee welcoming nation” and has been a central advocate for the country’s commitment to refugee well-being.

In other words, the MoE and ARRA currently run two parallel primary education systems, managing teachers and distributing resources separately. Ethiopian schools are staffed entirely by national teachers employed by the MoE, while refugee schools are staffed by refugee (“incentive”) teachers and national teachers employed by ARRA. In some cases, local woreda (district) offices and regional education bureaus are also involved in supporting refugee education, although this support is sporadic due to the absence of a national MoE directive (UNHCR, 2015).

Efforts to Integrate Refugee Data into the National System

According to the MoE, one reason for the relatively weak response to meeting the educational needs of children impacted by crisis and displacement is “a lack of information collection and sharing from the school to the regional or federal levels” (Ethiopian MoE, 2015, p. 28). To address this, since late 2014, UNHCR and ARRA have been collaborating with the MoE in order to establish and operationalise the Education Management Information System (EMIS) for refugee education (Ethiopian MoE, 2016/2017). Additionally, for the last few years, the MoE has released an Education Statistics Annual Abstract (hereafter referred to as “the Abstract”) that provides a comprehensive overview of basic education indicators across Ethiopia and is intended to support effective education management.

The 2016/2017 Abstract was the first to include a chapter on refugee education. However, the indicators discussed are limited, particularly when it comes to teacher-related indicators. These include:

- Pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs)
- Numbers/percentages qualified teachers
- Numbers/percentages national and refugee teachers, respectively

Looking at the 2016/2017 data, it is clear there is a shortage of teachers, with pupil-teacher ratios higher than 100:1 in some refugee classrooms. Further, of the 1,290 teachers working in primary refugee schools, only 718 (55.5%) meet the minimum level of qualification needed to work in primary education (i.e. a certificate from a teacher training institute). The qualification problems are concentrated among refugee teachers: only 240 of the 800 refugee teachers (30%) are qualified, versus 478 of the 490 national teachers (97.5%).

In contrast, there is much more information available about national teachers in the Abstract. In addition to information about pupil-teacher ratios, the Abstract includes two chapters that pertain directly to the topic of teacher management, namely a chapter on “Teachers in General Education” and “Colleges of Teachers’ Education.” These chapters provide information on the distribution of teachers, their qualification levels, attrition rates (both from the profession and from teacher education), enrolment rates in colleges of teacher education, and the number of teachers with special needs. Elsewhere in the Abstract, there is also information on the number of teachers trained in special needs education.

About Our Research

The brief overview of available indicators on teachers in Ethiopian refugee schools is in keeping with findings from a recent literature review, which indicates that relatively little data are available about teachers of refugees, other than limited education statistics suggesting a shortage of qualified teachers (Richardson, Naylor & MacEwen, 2018). Therefore, there is an urgent need for comprehensive studies on teacher management in refugee contexts in Ethiopia, which go beyond even the data available on national teachers. Such studies would consider teachers’ lived experiences and how education policies are “made sense of, mediated and struggled over, and sometimes ignored, or, in another word, enacted” (Ball, Maguire & Braun, 2012, p. 3) at regional, district, and school levels.

To attempt to address this need, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning, Education Development Trust (EdDevTrust), and UNICEF have launched a multi-level, multi-phase, mixed-methods research study, involving a teacher survey, school case studies, interviews, and focus group discussions with teachers, government officials, UN representatives, community members, and other key education stakeholders. In the next section, we reflect on our first data collection visit.
Reflections from the Field

Building an understanding of teacher attrition/retention is fundamental to effective teacher management (Avalos & Valenzuela, 2016) and provides a useful entry point for our preliminary analysis. Official data on teacher attrition are currently only available for Ethiopian teachers teaching in host schools. Along with the actual attrition rates, the Abstract provides information on reasons for leaving the profession. Such information is invaluable to policymakers, as it allows them to draft and implement relevant policy solutions.

While we were unable to get exact figures during our initial data collection visit, interviewees at the local level reported high attrition rates at refugee schools among incentive teachers. They noted that the major reason for refugee teachers leaving the profession was the low pay, particularly when considered in relation to the national teachers employed by ARRA, who earn up to ten times what refugee teachers earn. Further, we found that refugee teachers are part of a single incentive pay band that covers all so-called ‘skilled’ refugee workers, regardless of qualifications, expertise, or workload which means that there are no opportunities for career promotion, and good performance is rewarded with prizes such as umbrellas and teacher kits, if at all. In the words of one woreda education officer in Tigray region:

“[T]he life needs of the refugee teachers are not met. It is very uncomfortable for them to stay at camps. Teaching is a sacrifice for some of them.”

(Interview with Woreda Education Officer, Tigray)

Interestingly, across our research sites, despite low pay, the motivation to teach was quite high, with many incentive teachers explaining during focus group discussions that they chose to teach because they want to make a positive difference in the lives of children and their communities. Many of them expressed a desire for further professional development opportunities and support from both the refugee and host community.

What was particularly interesting was that, in general, Ethiopians across our research sites were relatively positive about supporting refugees, as reflected in the quotation below:

“All people know we are a poor country, and it’s not the fault of the refugees they are here. We have poor schools to begin with, even if there were no refugees. Job opportunities are created by the refugees being here. There is development going on.”

(Interview with ARRA official, Benishangul-Gumuz)

However, the importance of targeting funding and other support to both refugees and host communities was stressed by interviewees at every level.

Conclusion

Over the last few years, the quality, availability, and sharing of data on primary education for refugees in Ethiopia have improved, due in large part to a strengthened relationship between the MoE and ARRA. However, at present, data on teachers in refugee-hosting regions are still limited, both in terms of availability and in terms of quality. Further, the data on refugee education are treated as an addendum, rather than being integrated into EMIS more fully. Collecting comprehensive quantitative and qualitative data on all teachers in refugee-hosting communities will be of benefit to refugee and host communities alike as education planners are better able to make relevant policy and planning decisions.

References

Part 5

Conducting Quality Research
Introduction

Conducting research in conflict- or disaster-affected settings poses major ethical and methodological challenges relating to the vulnerability of both participants and researchers. Concerns have been raised that research participants in crisis-affected environments may experience distress caused by repeated requests to take part in research studies (Collogan, Tuma, Dolan-Sewell, Borja & Fleischman, 2004) or that research interviews can expose participants to the risk of ‘re-traumatisation’ (Newman & Kaloupek, 2004). In all cases, participants in crisis contexts bear the effects of trauma and anxiety, which may have had debilitating effects on their decision-making capacity (Collogan et al., 2004) or on their ability to consent to research involvement (Alderson & Morrow, 2014). Particularly, when children are involved in humanitarian education research, these tensions become more complex and ethically unsettling. Children’s participation in research activities can potentially expose them to physical and psychosocial risks given their experience of violence or disaster as well as the usually adverse conditions of living in crisis. In addition, researchers without the required knowledge and understanding of ethical complexities may inadvertently use what may be considered intrusive, exploitative, and coercive approaches while discussing sensitive issues with children in crisis-affected contexts. Although quality research is vital to enhance the delivery of life-saving interventions, the protection of human subjects should be the highest ethical priority to mitigate security risks and the general volatility of events in humanitarian settings (Wood, 2006).

Official approval by an appropriate research ethics committee is widely recognised as central to any rigorous field research involving human subjects and is commissioned within academic settings (Beauchamp & Childress, 2001). With such mechanisms, even though safety, confidentiality, and anonymity of the research participants are an integral part of the ethical review, the attention is primarily on institutional safeguarding (e.g. risk of reputational damage, staff safety, and liability concerns). Conventional research methodologies that are practised in stable contexts
often inadequately inform understandings of ethical dilemmas and field sensitivities in crisis contexts. Additionally, field research conducted by humanitarian organisations and agencies may not always prioritise ethical accountability due to the urgency of rapid response and immediate needs of the affected populations. Informed consent, balancing burdens and benefits, participant selection, and potential coercion are some of the most common issues humanitarian researchers may face during fieldwork (O’Mathuna, 2009). This implies the need for adequate training of field teams in research methods and close collaboration with experts to support the design, implementation, and analysis of research (Ford, Mills, Zachariah & Upshur 2009). Nevertheless, the limited access to safeguard protocols and the lack of clear guidelines on ethical obligations may only serve to increase risks of potential harm to research participants, to the safety of researchers, and to the funder’s reputation (Ford et al., 2009).

Conducting educational research in conflict and protracted crises is challenging in terms of gaining access to the field, safety of researchers and research participants, and ethical dilemmas about documenting traumatic experiences of crisis-affected people. This paper aims to explore the key issues educational researchers face during data collection activities in crisis-affected environments, particularly the tensions between their role in safeguarding research participants and their level (or lack thereof) of professional development about how to carry out ethical research in humanitarian contexts. We discuss various constraints that educational researchers experience while working in complex, remote, and hazardous places, marred by insecurity, financial limitations, and tight timeframes. These pressures may put participants’ welfare at stake amid the desperate need to acquire empirical evidence to inform humanitarian work. Finally, we highlight the important role of local researchers in shaping the research agenda and methodological approaches in crisis-affected settings.

**Barriers to Ethical Research in Unstable Settings**

Humanitarian agencies are increasingly engaged in research in conflict-affected settings, in recognition of the need for more robust evidence to inform advocacy, humanitarian policies, and delivery of assistance, including education. However, international organisations engaging with research consultants do not always have adequate security measures in place to ensure their safety in the field (Gallagher, Haywood, Jones & Milne, 2010). Where the focus is on efficiency and cost-effectiveness, research contracts may be awarded to researchers who may not be adequately trained in terms of conducting appropriate ethical appraisal of research studies in crisis settings. The responsibility to ensure high ethical standards in humanitarian research is often not perceived as being part of agencies’ core mandates (Ford et al., 2009). Yet, researchers may be required to enter areas that are physically dangerous, politically unstable, or where outbreaks of contagious diseases have occurred.

While operating in remote, unstable settings, they might not always have the opportunity to report emerging research issues to their immediate supervisors, and even when they manage to do so, they might not receive prompt feedback. In certain instances, they may feel under pressure to engage in what may be regarded as ethically unsettling decision-making about the research approach and data collection tools in order to respond to time constraints. For instance, failing to provide respondents with sufficient time, resources, and tailored support to enable them to participate in research may jeopardise their meaningful participation. Moreover, inexperienced investigators dealing with sensitive topics may expose participants to risk of physical harm, stigma, and reprisal during or after data collection activities, particularly when operating within short time frames. Thus, researchers’ inadequate professional conduct may contravene power dynamics in the context of their research (Goodhand, 2000), exposing themselves, research participants, and the entire educational community to unintended harm.

Finally, educational researchers may often go through extended periods of loneliness while carrying out field research and adjusting to new cultural settings. They are likely to experience emotional challenges, including fear and pity observing the effects of humanitarian crises on affected populations (Wood, 2006). The isolation experienced in conflict and emergency environments may sometimes affect researchers’ ability to maintain the confidentiality of their sources (Jacobsen and Landau, 2003). They may also feel stressed and pressured to cope with tight deadlines and negotiate with donors’ directions towards specific procedures and outcomes measures, which may or may not be aligned with the actual needs, aspirations, and perspectives of aid recipients (Stockton, 2006).

The literature does not provide clear indications on how to manage researchers’ security and welfare, other than developing a rigorous understanding of the context, culture, and the actual risks facing the researcher and the research community (Goodhand, 2000). Risk and vulnerability assessments, inter alia, are not always sufficient measures and must be coupled with previous professional experiences in conflict and emergency environments. While it would be unethical to involve inexperienced researchers independently in humanitarian contexts, continuing professional development and critical awareness of specific harms and benefits are crucial for even experienced researchers before their involvement in new projects in emergencies (Goodhand, 2000).

National representatives, including civil or military authorities, may provide relevant contributions to field research. Being knowledgeable of the context and its complexities, local actors may also help researchers to identify relevant issues, which are worth exploring. Continuous coordination with the Ministry of Education may help researchers gain access to crisis-affected educational settings; in some particularly volatile contexts, it would be counter-productive to undertake fieldwork without the
Ministry’s approval and support. However, it is also important to recognise that state authorities may sometimes be hostile to the population affected by crisis for various reasons such as political, religious, and ethnic differences. In any case, the establishment of carefully selected in-country research teams can help researchers to better understand local contexts and ethical practices, and to pilot research tools. Such collaboration can benefit research by helping to avoid inadvertent cultural faux pas which may offend local communities (O’Mathuna, 2009).

Despite the solidarity advantage of collaboration between international and local researchers, just like anyone else, ‘insider’ researchers may represent confirming or contradictory positions about the political dimensions of the crisis. Another risk of being too dependent on local researchers is selection of particular research sites and communities based on their personal affiliations, which can potentially exclude diverse voices in the study. Though complete avoidance of this scenario may be difficult, it is important to maintain neutrality and rigour to a maximum level through honest reporting about researchers’ positionalities, preconceptions, and biases. Finally, the involvement of local researchers may also help ‘outsider’ researchers to gain insights into local history, cultural, and social dynamics through conversations and team work as well as build trust with the participants and secure informed consent in a reasonably short time frame. At the same time, we argue that the presence of ‘outsider’ researchers may contribute to identifying key concerns independently, while challenging some cultural assumptions and socio-political prejudices held by ‘insider’ researchers.

Conclusion

Personal integrity, honesty, and methodological rigour are essential components of quality research in humanitarian settings. Despite the growing body of research that explores the educational challenges in crisis contexts, considerable gaps remain in knowledge about how to assess and mitigate research risks and maintain high ethical standards while conducting research in these situations. There is an urgent need to scale up opportunities for professional development of researchers who work in crisis contexts. As with any area of research involving human participants, educational research in humanitarian settings should also be conducted with methodological rigour, following high ethical standards. As there is a growing involvement of independent consultants conducting research in conflict and crisis settings, there is inadequate vetting of ethical procedures concerning research studies on emergency education. It is therefore essential that commissioning agencies establish a mechanism for independent ethical appraisal of all contracted research, and that individual researchers demonstrate clearly how relevant ethical guidelines were followed in the research. Finally, adequate training on research procedures can help researchers anticipate and address various dilemmas but ultimately ethical research relies on researchers’ experience, judgment, and interpretations of complex situations (Wood, 2006). It is through this self-reflection process that educational researchers should strictly adopt high ethical standards and non-harmful field strategies while carrying out research in crisis-affected environments.

References


Introduction

With the growth of the field of education in emergencies (EiE), interest in undertaking EiE research has simultaneously broadened. Though, historically, much knowledge creation around EiE was driven by organizations, increasingly, graduate students in doctoral programs are also engaging in EiE research. While graduate students are embedded in academic institutions, they often lack the human, financial, and security-related resources available to EiE practitioners embedded in organizations. Graduate students are expected to develop their work independently, with few supports beyond their doctoral advising committees. How then can graduate students undertaking EiE projects navigate the challenges that emerge when conducting field-based EiE research? We approach this question while reflecting on our own recent experiences as graduates from doctoral programs, having conducted EiE research in multiple fragile settings, including Egypt, Burundi, Kenya, Lebanon, and Rwanda. As graduate students seeking to undertake original research, we found ourselves virtually alone, venturing into unfamiliar settings, left to manage the protection of our research sites and participants with few, if any, institutional resources at our disposal.

Across disciplines, researchers have reflected on the difficulties of conducting research in complex and dangerous settings. Authors consider the personal and professional challenges involved in this work, including navigating Institutional Review Board (IRB) processes, representing oneself and the research work to different audiences, and building trust with participants and creating local networks (Jenkins, 2018; Mazurana, Jacobsen, & Gale, 2013; Sluka, 2018). While useful, few of these resources are specific to EiE
and they are rarely written from the vantage point of graduate students—individuals with fewer resources, networks, and on-the-ground experience to build from—navigating these challenges by themselves (Glasius et al., 2018).

We frame our analysis in regards to the principle of ‘do no harm,’ a widely used principle in humanitarian and development work that seeks to identify and minimize unintended negative impacts of interventions in conflict settings (Sphere Project, 2011). We apply this principle to the context of graduate students undertaking EiE research, suggesting approaches that help ensure graduate students’ EiE research does not harm research sites, subjects, or themselves as researchers. We recognize differing orientations towards EiE research across disciplines and institutions. Therefore, our analysis cannot be exhaustive, but we hope it serves as a generative framework that resonates with graduate student researchers undertaking EiE fieldwork as they navigate the ethical and relational dilemmas that emerge.

Do No Harm: Research Sites

Before commencing their research projects, graduate students must seek approval on a detailed data collection and sampling plan from committee members and the IRB. Though graduate students may feel pressured to follow these plans entirely, they must evaluate closely how their presence impacts selected research sites. Repeated visits to research sites, or revealing personally identifiable information such as site names, locations, or other identifiable attributes could bring unwarranted attention and scrutiny, especially in the case of non-formal education programs operating without government oversight. A researcher’s presence can also create additional stress for school leaders and teachers working under challenging circumstances, especially if the researcher’s role, the scope of the study, and the intended outcomes are not clear to all involved. Frustrations may also arise if interviews or surveys with staff or students further compromise already truncated instructional time for learning.

To address these challenges, we have found recurrent conversations with school administrators that enable shared understandings of the research work to be useful. Moreover, demonstrating flexibility regarding institutional expectations is critical. For example, when arranging interviews with teachers and students, work to find opportunities that do not interrupt learning times, such as before or after school, during break time, or between classes. Though these shorter interactions may impede in-depth conversations, these moments of repeated contact demonstrate the researcher’s willingness and flexibility to prioritize learning first.

Do No Harm: Research Subjects

Managing the researcher-participant relationship is always complex. Graduate students, grappling with constraints of time and funding, may feel pressured to begin gathering data as soon as possible. However, a hasty start may lead participants to misunderstand the research and their engagements with it. Participants may mistake researchers to be authority figures with power to facilitate humanitarian aid or other supports. To avoid such misunderstandings, we suggest designating specific time within fieldwork proposals to foster these relationships, before formally beginning data collection. This may take multiple forms such as repeatedly visiting research sites and conversing with staff, attending staff meetings, and joining informal gatherings. When appropriate and possible, researchers may also find non-monetary ways to support participants, including connecting them to relevant sources of information regarding, for example, scholarships, legal registration, or trainings that could further their development and integration within host country contexts.

Another dilemma graduate students often face relates to witnessing violent behavior, especially within schools, during data collection, including corporal punishment, bullying, and verbal abuse. Though these issues emerge in non-emergency contexts, they are amplified in settings of conflict and displacement where individuals might adopt negative coping strategies. Acts of violence fundamentally violate participants’ safety and well-being. However, deciding when or how to intervene is complicated as any response could jeopardize relationships with participants and/or research sites. Responding to the violence could also further exacerbate the danger and/or bring harm to the researcher. We urge graduate student researchers to seek guidance from their mentors and committee members regarding available approaches for managing situations of violence. Having a plan in place will help researchers make decisions in difficult moments that will best protect their safety and the safety of those around them. In our research, when we have approached the issue of violence, we have rarely intervened immediately. Instead, we identified advocates within the research site who could help ameliorate the issue or sought guidance from locally-based organizations dedicated to child protection issues.

Do No Harm: Researcher Selves

One of the most overlooked and difficult dimensions of ‘do no harm’ relates to ensuring the researcher’s own physical safety and well-being during research. Graduate student researchers are often not embedded within humanitarian organizations’ security protocols and therefore have limited access to updated security warnings, an issue of concern in emergencies. As independent researchers, graduate students
often organize their own transportation and accommodation during fieldwork. In an effort to make safe and informed decisions during our own fieldwork, we developed working relationships with individuals in different types of organizations (government, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), and community-based organizations). The differing security thresholds across these organizations enabled us to better examine our assessments around risk and safety. As we weighed different choices around how to access our research sites and subjects, we often considered what neighborhoods were receptive to outsiders, what routes were well traveled, what mode of transport was most reliable, and how these decisions influenced our positionality and the perceptions of our research participants.

A second dimension around safety and well-being as graduate student researchers relates to the emotional and mental toil of undertaking intensive fieldwork as researchers bear witness to their participants’ narratives of their past, present, and future. Entering our research with little prior experience, we often struggled with not knowing how best to support our participants when they experienced helplessness or distress. In our experiences, clarity emerged through individual reflection and shared deliberation with other graduate student peers undertaking similar work. We scheduled regular check-ins with friends, peers, and advisors to think through relational dilemmas and to help us process what we were seeing, thinking, and feeling about our fieldwork. These conversations reminded us to be attentive to the purposes of our work and our intrinsic motivations, but also to simultaneously focus on our participants’ vulnerabilities and weaknesses, and their agency, strength, and goodness.

**Conclusion**

In this analysis, we utilize the ‘do no harm’ principle to explore some of the complexities inherent in the work of graduate student researchers in the field of EiE. While these challenges are almost never absent, they are often only discussed informally, leaving graduate students to navigate these circumstances with limited perspective. We recognize that strategies for addressing challenges that arise in fieldwork will vary across contexts, yet we hope this discussion serves as a foundation for conversations regarding how graduate students can prioritize their research, as well as the well-being of their participants and themselves.

To better support graduate student researchers undertaking EiE work, we offer three suggestions to university administrators. First, universities should provide workshops designed specifically to prepare students for fieldwork in complex settings. Inviting speakers from the United Nations (UN) or other large organizations could also facilitate opportunities for students to negotiate access to organizations’ security protocols and/or updates. Furthermore, most large universities have dedicated mental health and well-being related resources, including trained professionals. Graduate departments must liaise with these professionals to ensure they can check-in periodically with graduate student researchers working in emergency contexts to support their well-being. Finally, universities and professional academic associations (e.g. Comparative and International Education Society) should consider structured opportunities for EiE graduate student researchers to build peer support groups to collectively navigate the many ethical and relational dilemmas with which EiE research is fraught.

**References**


Introduction
When applying a community-based action approach, research not only needs to include participants in the research process, but also in the writing, presenting, and authorship of the research (Martin, 2018; Martin et al., 2018). The purpose of this paper is to explore how community-based action research that includes co-researching, co-authoring, and co-presenting with vulnerable communities deepens our understanding of ‘what works’ in education in emergencies (EiE).

A community-based action is an approach where the community identifies a problem, the research is designed around that problem, and the community uses the research to decide and inform them on the steps to take to resolve the problem (Martin, 2018; Openjuru, Jaitli, Tandon & Hall, 2015; Reason & Bradbury, 2001). Co-researching supports individuals in their self-determination, agency and creates space for them to speak for themselves, something that is often missing in research. Our hope is that by researching and writing together—i.e. Staci Martin as the researcher and Vestine Lajustine as the participant co-researcher—we are co-creating spaces in which participants have choices and contribute their voice and solutions to complex problems that impact them.

Methodology

Figure 1: PPBE Course Cycle
Our initial partnership started when Staci implemented her Psychosocial Peace-Building Educational (PPBE) course in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya. The course tested a proof of concept in three other countries (e.g., South Africa, Jamaica, and Nepal). The PPBE course trains teachers, youth, and community members to facilitate conversations based on a collaborative inquiry that strengthens critical thinking, cultural identity, voice, and the vision of the community. The core elements of the course include 1) book-making/journaling; 2) creating an artifact; 3) story-making/story-telling; and 4) co-creating solutions (Martin, 2018; see Figure 1). Vestine was a co-facilitator of Staci’s course and then became one of the co-researchers.

For this paper, we worked in an iterative manner, corresponding back and forth while asking critical questions of each other to deepen our exchange. As our exchange deepened, so did our understanding of what it means to co-research and the ramifications and possibilities of our work together.

Results

We share our experiences and research process in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya so that we can offer a co-researching perspective. We will discuss what we learned and how the process changed how we saw ourselves. Since Vestine’s voice is key, she leads with Kinyarwanda (not edited) to bring her language to the forefront and then provides her own summary in English. Staci follows with an explanation of the research that supports Vestine’s insights.

Co-Researching: Vestine’s Perspective


Summary in English: First when I was asked to co-research, I was hesitant because the kind of researchers that come to Kakuma are people that come and go. They don’t offer feedback or tell you the impact of their research. It disappointed me. I was not sure if I was going to participate in any more research for fear I was wasting my time again. I decided to join the first meeting to see what was going to happen. Unlike the other researchers, Staci was friendly and accessible. I remember the first meeting, we were having so much fun that we forgot about lunch. The most exciting part was when Staci asked for volunteers who were willing and wanted to continue to implement the course and co-research with her in our communities. I felt happy because I could see the benefit of that kind of research through our story sharing.

Co-Researching: Staci’s Perspective

Most researchers research on and not with community members. As researchers, we come temporarily and stay for moments in refugees’ lives as we collect our data. Research fatigue can settle in as refugees are literally a captive, over-researched audience. Sukarieh and Tannock (2013) explain, “research may be seen as benefiting the lives and careers of researchers, but leaving the lives of those being researched unimproved in any significant way, regardless of the time, energy and resources they have contributed to the research effort” (p. 4). In other words, participants receive little acknowledgement of the work they have supported and their voices are often muted in the academic language that talks about them. This is not just an issue in refugee camps; it applies to underserved, undervalued, and vulnerable populations across the research spectrum.

Too often in academic research vulnerable communities, in particular refugees, do not see themselves as creators of research, rather they see themselves as research subjects (Martin, 2018). In the past decade, participatory methodologies have gained momentum in research (Bergold & Thomas, 2012), particularly in the humanitarian field (Ager, Stark, Sparling & Ager, 2011). However, how much a community or individual actually participate in the research is unknown unless the researcher explicitly notes it.

Vestine’s Knowledge and Expertise

In Kinyawanda: Byanyigishije impamvu ubushakashatsi izi ngombwa. Twakoresheje amahugurwa ku mbanire no kubaka amahoro. Twabanzaga kumenye icycle cy’anatu tugomba gukorana nabo, kubwanjezua nakuranga gukorana n’ababyeji, ubundu tukabakore igiye byo twize maze tukag谥s hanya amakuru kubwo tmwumvize. Nasobanukiwe ko guha umwanya abantu bakisanzura mu kuvuga, bakaganira ku bugsabe bibugariye, bibubakamo icyizere ko bo ubwabo bashobora kwikemurira ibibazo b’ababyeji. Numa namana kuwubona mu maso habo. Gukorana ubu bushakashatsi na Staci, byamfashije kugirira icyizere ko nanjye nabashije gukorera umuryango ntye sem l’egero icy’ingenzi. Mbeo natekerezeza ko ubushakashatsi bugenewe gukorwa n’abantu babayigije...
gusa. Sinari narijeze ntekeraza ko nanjye hari icyo namari
umuryango w’abantu mu bijanye no gukora ubushakashatsi.
Natekereza ko uruhare rwaniye ari urwo gutanga amakuru
usaha. Sinatekereza ko nafasha umuntu nka Staci uvuye muri
kaminuza zo muri Amerika ubwo jye nari ntuye mu nkambi
y’impunzi ya Kakuma. Numvaga atari ibyangwe.

Ubwo nongera kabona amahirwe yo gukora na Staci,
twakoresheje uburyo bwo guhamagara imbonankubone na
Skype. Natunguwe no kabona ko nabasha Guha amahugurwa
abantu bafite ubumenyi buruta ubwasajye. Gukorana
ubushakashatsi byamfunguye mu mutwe ku rundi rwego.

Summary in English: I learned why research is important. When
we conducted the psychosocial peacebuilding education
trainings, we got to identify the groups we wanted to work with.
I wanted to work with the mamas. Then, we implemented the
course and made notes about what we heard and learned. I
learned that giving participants the space to ask questions and
support each other offered a place to hope together. I observed
that these communities began to see themselves as capable
to change their situation, instead of waiting for an outside person
or organization, these communities could offer their own
solutions. I could see the benefit in their faces.

Co-researching increased my self-confidence because I did
something valuable for my community. Whenever I saw
researchers, I always thought that they are the only ones meant
to do research because they studied for that. I never thought
that I can also contribute by doing research. I thought my
contribution was always limited to giving the information. I
didn’t think this could happen actually being a co-researcher
with someone in universities from the U.S. and being in Kakuma
Refugee Camp. I thought this is something that I was not able
to do.

When I got another chance to work with Staci in a workshop, we
used Skype video call and I was surprised to realize that I could
do a presentation to people who have a higher education than I
do. Co-researching opened my mind to another level.

Staci’s Knowledge and Expertise

When doing participatory methodologies, it is essential that
researchers communicate their expectations and intentions
from the outset. As researchers, we may not be able to control
the restricted situation, but we can work alongside and learn
from the impacted communities. Often our research can
leave participants feeling used by the researcher. Abdi, a co-
researcher, explained the sentiment this way,

You know I have met 26 researchers in my 27 years of life.
You are my 26th. You did your research with us. You said
you would return to write a paper with us. You returned.
All the researchers, I have met want something from
me, translation, interpretation, and/or connection to my
community (Abdi, personal communication, 9 June 2017).
Co-authoring papers and co-presenting at conferences offer
space for co-researchers to talk with the people in the field that
is often talking about them. Writing papers together also offers
time to question the researcher’s complicity in maintaining the
status quo and to do something about it.

There are limitations in co-researching as the co-researchers
may not appear objective or have expertise. However, their
opinion, positionality, and lived experiences may offer a clearer
cultural context and a more realistic representation of what
works in their community than an outside observer, like myself,
who only lived in the community temporarily. For example,
some participants often go to particular community leaders,
rather than non-governmental organizations (NGOs), when
there is a shortage of food or goods.

Shared Knowledge, Responsibility, and Hope in
Kakuma Refugee Camp

In Kinyawanda: Iyo twajyaga kwigisha abantu aho dutuye,
nibaza ko byahinduraga imyumvire yabo ku byuro badufataga.
Mugenzi wacu umwe ubwo yafatwaga nk’umukoreshabushake
wasemuraga mu kigo gikomeye, amaze kubaha amahugurwa
batangiywe kumubona nk’umuyobozi cyangwa umwarimu.
Ubundu ubuzima wbanjye bwagurikiraga mu kazi, mu
rusengeri no muri kominote nari ntuyemo. Ubushakashatsi
bwamfashije kwagura amarembo mbasha kumenyana n’abandi
bantu. Mbere narabitinyaga nkumva sinakwisanzura ku bantu
tudasanzwe tuziranye cyangwa tutavuga ururimi rumwe.
Gukora ubu bushakashatsi byanyuguririye amarembo, mbona
ko ntacyo bitwaye kuganira ibintu bifie umumaro n’abantu
tudasanzwe tuvuga rumwe, tutanasangye imico.

Summary in English: When we got to implement the program
in our community, I think it changed how our community saw
us. Another co-researcher used to be seen as a “volunteer”
interpreter and translator but when he facilitated the course,
they saw him as a teacher and leader.

I used to keep to myself, my church, and my community. As I
had a chance to facilitate the course, I got to know more people
outside of my community. Before, I thought it was not safe to
engage with people that I did not know or those who could not
speak my language. After this experience, I learned that I can
communicate and have meaningful dialogues regardless of
language or culture.

Shared Knowledge, Responsibility, and Hope Globally

Community-based action research that includes co-researching,
co-authoring, and co-presenting with vulnerable communities
not only values the participants’ lived experiences and
expertise, but it can also support our understanding of ‘what
works’ in EIE. With technology such as Skype and audio
video recordings, we are able to co-create spaces for all of our
voices to be heard and engage in empathic actions that produce shared knowledge and solutions, which in turn strengthen academic papers (Martin, et al., 2018) and conferences (Martin & Teferra, 2017; Martin & Umubyeyi, 2018; Martin & Teferra, 2018).

Endnotes
1. Permission was given to use this quotation and to be named.

References


Actualizing the (Seemingly) Impossible: Methodologies for the Ethical Collection of High-Quality Education Data in Syria

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Summary
This article describes how carefully designed research methods can facilitate the safe, ethical collection of data during active conflict. The 2018 U.K. Department for International Development (DFID)-funded Research to Improve the Quality of Teaching and Learning Inside Syria project, led by Integrity, is used as an example.

Keywords
Education in Emergencies Research Research During Active Conflict Education in Syria

Introduction
The 2018 U.K. Department for International Development (DFID)-funded study, Research to Improve the Quality of Teaching and Learning Inside Syria project, led by Integrity, analysed teacher practice and learning environments, and how they influenced lower primary school children’s learning and well-being. While field-level data collection was only feasible in non-Government of Syria (GoS)-controlled areas, the project also sourced as much data as possible from informants familiar with the Damascus-based Ministry of Education. Importantly, areas outside of government control represent the greatest concentrations of (acute) people in need and displaced populations across Syria (OCHA, 2018). By creating theoretical and methodological frameworks for the design of the study, influenced both by critical literature as well as real-time context analysis, Integrity’s team was able to balance strict parameters for ethical data collection practices within the changing operating environment.

Theoretical Framework Formation through an Education in Emergencies (EiE) Political Economy Lens
It was critical for the research to be influenced by an understanding of the political economy of the context. Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, and Valiente’s (2014) piece on the topic provided the team with a framework for the necessary analysis. The political economy of agenda setting concept proved most relevant, as it elucidated how the priorities of both stakeholders and parties to the conflict, including traditional and non-traditional donors, the GoS, and armed groups, could affect the study. Such impact included areas for data collection, data security requirements, and study dissemination guidelines.

The nature of the operating context was changing significantly at the start of the study. For example, the GoS was continuing its largely successful campaign to retake parts of the country long held by opposition actors and, resultingly, donors began shifting their funding strategies and reducing funding values. These shifts affected informant and enumerator affiliations, accessibility to
data collection sites, and the nature of questions that needed to be asked. For example, questions about potential challenges or opportunities facing migrating teachers and students, such as whether or not teacher training or student learning was certified, became relevant.

In response to the challenges and risks associated with the operating context, the team undertook the following to promote data quality, and informant and enumerator safety: a) ensured that informants’ identities, locations, and contact information were only known to core team members; b) defined protocols to identify enumerators, informants, and sites for data collection and modify them as needed; c) established how and by whom the data gathered would be used; d) ensured the study’s scope considered both where education sector investment interests were currently and where they might be at the completion of the study; e) secured ongoing stakeholder engagement in the study, ensuring wide buy-in and later uptake; and f) ensured that “Western” constructed priorities and perspectives did not dominate areas of inquiry. For example, children were asked both open- and close-ended questions about what caused their fears in schools, rather than overtly asking about Western concepts of corporal or verbal punishment.

A Flexible Methodological Framework Grounded in Human Subject Research Ethics

During the study’s first phase, the team established a thorough understanding of stakeholders’ interests. This task involved outreach to approximately 350 informants with global, regional, and/or Syria-specific perspectives on the research topic, including policymakers, academics, and implementers. The team also undertook a desk review of more than 150 relevant pieces of literature in Arabic, English, and French from Syria-specific project reports to assessments from other contexts on EiE best practice. Interested stakeholders, whose identities were safeguarded from each other depending on their affiliations and/or geographic remits, participated in workshops. The workshops provided opportunities for the team and stakeholders to jointly assess progress on the study and to surface real-time information that could affect it. An example of the latter was the provision of contact information for newly re-located (potential) informants from southern Syria to study areas in the north.

During the second phase of the research, the team finalised the methodology for primary data collection, informed by security analysis and projections, desk research, and stakeholder guidance. Basic ethical considerations, seen through a context-specific lens, were the highest priority. These considerations moved beyond the principles of do no harm and towards thoughtful and iterative sampling and informed consent practices (Mackenzie, McDowell, & Pittaway, 2007) and consideration of both individual and community consent efforts (Gostin, 1991). Furthermore, site selection and scheduling considered potential informant and enumerator fatigue, avoiding sites already visited under other studies and ensuring that enumerator management practices included periodic assessment of their well-being. The following methods were employed to ensure informant and enumerator safety and data quality:

An evidence-based data collection toolkit: To ensure an evidence-based and psychometrically sound toolkit, the team reviewed 32 existing tools of relevance to the study topic, drawing from them to establish the most context- and study-appropriate questions. The result was a matrix of 339 mainly quantitative questions. Each quantitative question had response codes to facilitate documentation of common answers, and answers were weighted to facilitate quantitative analysis. Importantly, space was left for qualitative input to enrich the dataset as well.

Triangulation: The team used concurrent triangulation to frame its data sourcing and analysis. Each week, four team members cleaned, reviewed, coded, and/or cross analysed quantitative and qualitative data. This approach allowed the team to source multiple data points from multiple informants in various formats and to triangulate information and validate findings while the enumerators were still in the field. Thus, using stratification during analysis, the team could unveil clear biases amongst informants and identify exactly where potential roadblocks were in effective teaching practices.

Context-aware but rigorous sampling criteria: While the security situation prevented the use of random sampling, the project sought to reach as representative a sample as possible. The team established targets for what representative sampling would be in the areas of focus and then identified what was feasible given the context and resources. As a result, the team was able to present how close each informant group’s sample size was to what would have been a representative sample. The result is the ability to reference the power of the data set when stratified by informant type. The project used methods identified through the Education Equity Research Initiative (2018) and Watters and Biernacki (1989) to secure access to hard-to-reach populations, including time location sampling, snowball sampling, and targeted sampling. Such methods elevated the safety of informants by finding them where they naturally congregated and relying on referrals from trusted networks.

Layers of security protocol: Enumerators collected all data via the KoBo Toolbox platform on project-specific smartphones. The use of an electronic platform reduced enumerator bias and human error and enabled the collection of large amounts of data in a short period of time. The platform also allowed data to be uploaded onto a secure server and cleared from the phones within hours of being collected, protecting enumerators in the event of hardware seizure by armed groups or their affiliates. Real-time security monitoring and the existence of grounded but flexible, enumerator-specific contingency plans, enabled data collection to continue in spite of ongoing insecurity.
Outcomes and Lessons for Further Application

Nearly 6,000 records were sourced over six weeks and across three governorates, from approximately 300 schools. Of all respondents, approximately 50% were women and 30% were internally displaced. The establishment of conditions under which data collection would be stopped helped ensure, from the outset, both the feasibility and cessation of ongoing research. Such parameters were influenced by team members’ familiarity with inter-personal and operating challenges in the area, replete with armed groups and some sociocultural norms that could be considered discriminatory. Despite the breadth of coverage and awareness among various (armed) state and non-state groups of the study, all approached informants consented to participate, no one received threats, and no child safeguarding concerns were lodged. The use of hawala networks, offline data collection tools, low bandwidth communication protocol, and trusted networks provided efficient means for secure movement, data collection, and data aggregation.

The foreign assistance “marketplace” is characterised in part by dwindling funds and increasing calls for accountability. Resources and methods exist that can enable evidence-based policy development, even in active conflicts. As such, balancing limited resources and high ethical expectations to secure data from the most reliable sources—the end users of assistance funds—is possible.

References


Endnotes
1. Integrity is an international consultancy and service provider working in fragile, conflict-affected and complex environments around the globe. Integrity provides a unique combination of Research, Evidence, and Analysis (REA) and Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning (MEL) expertise and education know-how to ultimately improve the evidence base for education programming and policy in such environments. For more information, please visit www.integrityglobal.com.
2. Syrian national team members, who remain anonymous for security reasons, heavily informed the methodology that operationalised the study.
3. Assessing, for example, whether critical stakeholders would be disinterested in the findings due to the nature of the geographic or informant profiles of the study and identifying how to protect informants and team member information from unintended audiences.
4. Other elements of a standard methodological framework, such as creating standard operating procedures and enumerator training protocol, are not detailed in this piece.
5. Calculated using the representative sampling methodology with a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%.
6. The team’s enumerators were recruited partially because of their ability to safely secure access to data collection sites without placing themselves or informants at risk. However, some groups or their affiliates did become aware of the study’s existence.