DELIVERED THROUGH THE EXPERT ADVISORY CALL-DOWN SERVICE (EACDS) LOT B:

STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

PRODUCED FOR

Department for International Development

EVIDENCE BRIEF 4: QUALITY AND LEARNING

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

11 2017

IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS:

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

UKaid from the British people

SERVICE IMPLEMENTATION BY A DAI CONSORTIUM

DAI

EXPERT ADVISORY CALL DOWN SERVICE – LOT B

STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

THE SERVICE

Through the Lot B: Resilience service, DAI offers rapid response, high quality support to UK Government and other donors, across a wide range of development and humanitarian challenges.

We offer support for risk informed design for development interventions across all sectors; risk and contingency financing; understanding changing systems; and strategic integration of humanitarian action and development.

We offer a clear process for users that draws upon a well-established network of relevant expertise provided through over 60 consortium partners. We are able to build strong practical partnerships for rapid and responsive delivery through:

- A dedicated, easy-to-access Secretariat to manage new enquiries and assure delivery
- Consistent end-to-end quality assurance
- A user friendly, customer oriented outlook
- A pro-active approach to knowledge sharing and communication
- A focus on due diligence, efficiency and cost effectiveness.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS AND DISCLAIMER

This document has been produced by Cambridge Education (a trading name of Mott MacDonald Ltd) contracted through the EACDS Lot B service 'Strengthening resilience and response to crises', managed by DAI Europe Ltd. under contract to the UK Department for International Development.

The views expressed in this document are entirely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent [Funding Organisation]'s own views or policies, or those of DAI. Comments and discussion on items related to content and opinion should be addressed to the authors, via info@lotb-resilience.org.

Your feedback helps us ensure the quality and usefulness of all knowledge products. Please email: info@lotb-resilience.org and let us know whether you have found this material useful; in what ways it has helped build your knowledge base and informed your work; or how it could be improved.

First Published
November, 2017

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

A review of the evidence on how to provide quality education in emergency (EiE) contexts shows that lessons learnt and promising practices related to teachers, formal/non-formal schools, communities, and curriculum in hot conflict and protracted refugee contexts are well documented. Most evidence of 'what works' relates to micro-level interventions at the grassroots level. The review did not find strong evidence of how governments, development partners, and humanitarian partners can work together to ensure that quality education provision is sustained in the longer term. There is very little evidence on quality education provision in the context of natural disasters.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND DEFINITIONS

This Evidence Brief aims to summarise what is and is not known about providing a quality education in emergency contexts. More specifically, through a review of current evidence, this Brief aims to answer the following question:

How can DFID provide quality education in EiE contexts and what are the implications for teachers, formal/non-formal schools, communities, and curricula?

Before proceeding, it would be prudent to clarify the concept of 'quality'. Throughout this Brief, we will be guided by the broad definition offered by UNICEF (2006), which states that a quality education "aims to allow each child to achieve his or her full potential…and provide them with the skills to undertake further study". In order to achieve such an outcome, a number of components are required, such as equitable and inclusive access; safe learning environments; adequate materials for teaching and learning; student-centred, standards-based and context-specific curriculum; well-trained teachers with good subject knowledge and pedagogy; and good school management that ensures administrative support and leadership, amongst others (INEE 2012). This brief will explore four of these key components[1] (teachers, formal/non-formal schools, communities, and curriculum), particularly with a view to understanding 'what works' for education delivery in EiE contexts, which include hot conflict settings, protracted refugee crises and natural disasters.

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

Since the research question contained four main topics of interest, this Brief essentially contains four reviews of literature on teachers, schools, communities, and curricula. Within each of these areas certain themes and limitations emerged:

1. **Teachers**: Major themes included 1) teacher professional development; 2) teacher recruitment and remuneration; 3) teacher qualification and certification; and 4) teacher classroom performance. Although there was a number of studies covering these themes, there was an overall silence on teacher management, particularly with regard to head teachers and the important role they play.
2. **Schools**: Discussions of formal schooling often entailed challenges of absorbing refugee students into overstretched state systems; and non-formal education programmes were often positioned as solutions for where state systems fall short. This trend demonstrates how formal and non-formal schooling can be used to complement one another; however, there was limited discussion on how to ensure that these two systems work together.
3. **Curriculum**: Much of the evidence on curriculum focused on issues of language or the representation of conflict/conflicting groups within history curricula. There was a silence on curricula for other

[1] Issues of equitable and inclusive access and safe learning environments are discussed in Evidence Brief 5 on Protection and Inclusion

subjects, student competencies, different levels (ECD, primary, secondary), or how to adapt curricula for refugee populations.

4. **Communities**: The main themes surrounding communities regarded facilitating children's access to education (particularly with regard to gender and poverty), as well as enhancing children's learning (particularly early grade literacy): however, there was limited discussion on *how* to work with communities in EiE settings, particularly when refugee populations are dispersed within urban areas of a host country.

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 TEACHERS

The importance of teacher training and development is by far the most commonly cited factor in ensuring quality of learning in conflict and disaster affected settings.[2] The most recent UNHCR Education Strategy (2012) emphasises that "teacher preparedness and teaching quality are the most influential factors contributing to immediate and formally assessed learning outcomes. Teachers matter more than any other single factor to learning and to the on-going, formative assessment that is critical to improving learners' achievement."[3]

It should be noted that there are several different types of teachers in EiE contexts, each with different sets of challenges:

1. **Refugee teachers** – These are refugees who have crossed borders due to conflict or emergency. Some have been teachers in their home country, but the majority have been recruited to fill gaps (as experienced teachers are in short supply) and do not have any background or qualification in teaching.[4]

   Professional challenges – If teaching occurs in camp settings, many 'new' teachers have no qualification or training, and most teachers have not had any training with regard to conflict sensitivity or psycho-social support.[5] If teaching occurs in urban settings, host governments may not want to hire refugee teachers based on their differing qualifications, as in the case of Lebanon.[6]

   Personal challenges – Teachers may have suffered traumatic experiences, be struggling with economic hardship and instability, and will have their own perceptions and attitudes towards the conflict/crisis.[7]

2. **Host country teachers** – These are teachers from the host country into which refugee students have entered. They are generally part of the state education system and have thus have qualifications and experience pertaining to that context.

   Professional challenges – If refugee students are brought into state schools, teachers will contend with overcrowding, double-shifts of work, managing language/cultural/religious differences, adapting the curriculum, and having no training in conflict sensitivity, language development

[2] (Mendenhall, 2016) (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[3] (UNHCR, 2012)
[4] (INEE, 2010)
[5] (Penson & Sesnan, 2012)
[6] (Human Rights Watch, 2015)
[7] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)

other than their own, or psycho-social support. It is often difficult to recruit qualified host country teachers to teach in camps due to the poor conditions.

Personal challenges – Teachers' personal circumstances and tensions may be exacerbated due to heavier workloads, and they will also have their own perceptions of and attitudes towards the conflict/refugee population.

There were many studies that illuminate these challenges and discuss interventions that have aimed to address these. The following sections outline some of the key issues and lessons gleaned for both refugee teachers and host country teachers of refugees.

1. **The need for language and curriculum training:** Teachers' experiences and perceptions of educating refugees in Kenya illuminate the immense need for specialised training on second- and third-language acquisition and on managing and appreciating multilingual classrooms, particularly in camp-based environments. Refugee teachers themselves will often require language support, as they may not be familiar with the official language of instruction in the host country. Teachers also need to learn how to adapt curricular materials to the needs and experiences of refugee pupils without undermining the content knowledge required to perform well on examinations. To accomplish this, teachers need ongoing, repeated, and school-based teacher training support to help them move from learning to applying these strategies in the classroom.[8]

2. **The need for conflict-sensitive training/recruitment:** Careful consideration of the identity and ethnicity of trainers and teachers within conflict-sensitive contexts is imperative, so that teachers are able to work with different groups in their first language.[9] Many teachers in these contexts are also expected to play a nurturing role for children and address sensitive conflict-related issues, such as responding to situations involving trauma and emotional problems, for which they have received minimal, if any, training.[10] Recruitment, deployment and training should take into consideration the identities, ethnicities and languages of trainers, teachers and students so as to minimise tensions and ensure the improved wellbeing of all involved.

3. **The need for psychosocial support**: In a rigorous review of the literature on what works to promote quality of learning in conflict-affected contexts, Burde et al (2015) found that teachers often have traumatic experiences, economic and survival needs, and conflict-related perceptions and attitudes.[11] Teachers in conflict-affected contexts face numerous challenges and conflict can harm teachers' social, emotional, and physical well-being.[12] Studies in these contexts highlight that teachers may need varied support such as improving their social support, working conditions, content and pedagogical knowledge, and wellbeing in order to be effective teachers.[13] Although there is a need for further research, one study suggests that teacher well-being may enhance instruction quality and thus improve students' learning outcomes. Teaching itself can improve teachers' sense of well-being: the respect accorded them in the community, and their abilities to serve as role models for young girls. Acknowledging teachers' backgrounds, identities, and attitudes is paramount to supporting teachers and improving students' learning outcomes.

[8] (Mendenhall, 2015)
[9] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[10] (Sommers, 2004) (Tomlinson & Benefield, 2005)
[11] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)
[12] (INEE, 2010)
[13] (Kirk & Winthrop, Home-based Schooling: Access to Quality. Education for Afghan Girls., 2006) (Shriberg, Kirk, & Winthrop, 2007) (Wolf, et al., 2015)

4. **The need for strategies to deal with overcrowding and lack of resource:** A study by Mendenhall et al (2015) analysed classroom practices in the Kukuma refugee camp and in Nairobi, Kenya[14] and found several key constraints to pedagogy: limited resources; low funding; significant overcrowding; a lack of teacher and learning materials; lack of pedagogical training and content knowledge; and curriculum and language policy. The study found that lecture and recitation-based teacher presentations dominated in the classrooms of the six case study schools. Several teachers explained that, in the overcrowded classrooms of 100 or more pupils, lecturing was their only reasonable choice of instructional practice. In addition to this, inadequate or unpredictable funding led to a dearth of teaching and learning materials, particularly for overcrowded classrooms. Only trained national teachers spoke of finding creative ways to make and use low- or no-cost teaching aids.

5. **Basic or rapid qualification for new teachers:** Due to the number of teachers who are either unqualified or not qualified in the new country/context they are teaching, UNHCR (2012) advises and advocates for the development of sequential teacher training programmes, which result in teachers' completion of a basic qualification over a period of years.[15] These programmes should be developed in collaboration with local teacher training institutions where possible or collaboratively with UNHCR, partners, and communities. Standards for non-qualified teachers include a minimum of three months' training. Efforts should focus on using refugee teachers to the extent possible and developing professional capacity both through short-term training and para-professional courses.

6. **Cross-border recognition of teaching qualifications**: In contexts where refugee teachers do have experience and qualifications from their home country, it is imperative to create more flexible pathways for deployment of qualified refugee teachers that would serve both host and refugee communities well, particularly for the purposes of integration, repatriation, or resettlement. The review suggested engaging in cross-border agreements on recognition of teacher certification in order to leverage the teaching expertise among refugee populations, as well as recognise and strengthen teacher qualifications for integration, repatriation, and resettlement.[16]

7. **A teacher-centred approach to teacher development**: In an evaluation using observational data from IRC's Healing Classroom Initiative (HCI) in a camp in northern Ethiopia, the incoming refugee population had very low educational levels. Those selected by the community as teachers generally had little or no experience of teaching and had not completed their own secondary education. Even after intensive training and professional support, this resulted in a lack of confidence, self-consciousness, and not feeling like 'real' teachers. Lessons relied predominantly on teacher talk, with some individual questions and answers. The HCI promoted a more teacher-centred approach to teacher development by involving teachers in translating and adapting the curriculum, which helped to build their confidence and motivation, and led to more child-centred teaching approaches.[17]

8. **Collaborative training approaches:** A rigorous evaluation in the DRC assessed the impact on teacher well-being of IRC's Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom (LRHC), a curricular and social-emotional teacher professional development intervention which combined teacher instructional guides with a support system of teacher trainings and teacher learning circles (TLCs). TLCs are school-based groups where teachers regularly meet to support one another, discuss issues they face in their classrooms, and learn collaboratively from one another, thus requiring minimal resources. While the findings were preliminary,

[14] (Mendenhall, 2015)
[15] (UNHCR, 2012)
[16] (Mendenhall, 2017)
[17] (Kirk & Winthrop, 2007)

the intervention appeared to have significant positive impacts on teachers with the fewest years of teaching experience.[18]

9. An observational study in Afghanistan suggests that increasing opportunities to interact with other female teachers may also reduce feelings of isolation and dissatisfaction in a male-dominated work environment.[19] It is important to consider the impact of gender inequities when planning professional development strategies in conflict affected and refugee settings. However, the study suggested the increase in motivation for teachers with the fewest years of experience was due to the collaborative nature of TLCs and sharing of practices by more experienced teachers, thus increasing motivation to teach.[20] This finding has been echoed in post-conflict Liberia, where newer teachers felt motivated when teachers with experience in refugee camps in Guinea shared lesson planning techniques, pedagogical approaches, and classroom management tools.[21] In post-earthquake zones in Pakistan, teachers also identified that watching their peers and helping others build competencies were important factors in their own confidence building.[22]

10. **Coaching and continuous training:** An intervention that improved learning outcomes in Liberia used a cascade model with refresher trainings to train coaches who then trained teachers.[23] Due to low teacher literacy and numeracy levels among teachers, the intervention was set up to 'teach the teachers' these skills as well as to 'train the teachers' in pedagogy. The study found a need for coaches/ teacher trainers to become regular visitors to the classroom, spending time co-teaching, mentoring, and monitoring progress, to prevent any loss of momentum. However, in Liberia, the coach's distance from the school affected results, so this was considered in the scale-up to ensure that selected coaches lived close to their schools.[24] The need for continuous support echoes findings from high-income contexts that one-off teacher training does not provide sufficient time, content, or relevant activities to result in substantive changes in teaching skills and behaviour.[25] INEE's (2015) Guidance Notes for Teacher Professional Development provides a very thorough guide to the different types of coaching that can be provided and gives some examples from Indonesia, Gambia, Bangladesh and Liberia.[26] Although these guidelines or interventions have not been rigorously researched regarding their effectiveness, they provide many ideas for how coaching can be implemented.

11. **Technology for teacher training**: An increasing number of programmes use ICT to deliver lessons and teacher training in conflict-affected contexts, but evidence on their effectiveness is scarce. However, evidence from India indicates that use of mobile platforms can have strong, positive effects and accelerator effects on learning outcomes, and drive improvements in teaching quality.[27] Other research notes that the success of ICT programmes is largely due to the quality of the local educational content produced.[28] However, the capacity and time to produce such content may not be available in many conflict- or crisis-affected countries.

[18] (Wolf, et al., 2015)
[19] (Wolf, et al., 2015)
[20] (Wolf, et al., 2015)
[21] (Shriberg, Kirk, & Winthrop, 2007)
[22] (Emerson, Deyo, Shoaib, & Ahmed, 2010)
[23] (Davidson & Hobbs, 2013)
[24] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[25] (Garet, et al., 2001)
[26] (INEE, 2015)
[27] (Carlson, 2013)
[28] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)

12. **Scripted lessons to support teachers:** A literature review and study of literacy education in conflict- and crisis-affected contexts found that while scripted lessons can provide essential support to teachers that may be particularly important for untrained and under-trained teachers in conflict and crisis settings, it is necessary also to consider the sustainability and cost-efficiency of this strategy, and the extent to which teachers will transfer skills learnt to other subject areas.[29] In Haiti, Save the Children worked with the Ministry of Education to develop a teacher guide with daily lesson plans and to provide reading materials. The Haitian *Lekti Se Lavni* (*Reading is the Future)* curriculum contains a structured approach to phonemic awareness, repetition of high frequency sight words, listening comprehension, guided and independent reading, and regular assessment. Data from the *Lekti Se Lavni* pilot study suggested a significant impact on reading skills.[30]

    A study of a literacy programme in post-conflict Liberia, where approximately 60% of primary school teachers do not have any certification or teacher training, found that teachers were unable to follow week-by-week outlines of lesson plans and instead required highly scaffolded daily lesson plans, which produced effective results in students' learning outcomes.[31] However, barriers to success included the high cost of such support, which is likely to be prohibitive in many conflict- and disaster-affected contexts.[32] Sustainability was therefore a key issue, with the intervention unlikely to be continued beyond the project lifetime. Key lessons included that materials provided for a targeted intervention must be low cost and ideally should be printed locally.

    In addition to cost, practitioners point to a trade-off between supporting inexperienced teachers with scripted lessons – which can create dependency and promote rote teaching – and the importance of building teachers' own planning and pedagogical skills. There is as yet no evidence on the sustainability and effectiveness of providing scripted lessons at scale in a conflict- or disaster-affected setting.[33]

13. **Radio to support teachers:** In linguistically homogeneous areas of active conflict, radio instruction may support struggling teachers. For example, Africa Education Trust's (AET) SOMDEL literacy programme in Somalia relied on radio instruction, incorporating general life skills to benefit pupils and teachers, but also a wider audience of listeners. Independent evaluations showed that 88% of the 33,000 learners involved in the programme passed the final literacy examination set by both AET and the local national examinations board.[34] Radio programming had significant reach into conflict-affected territories, contributing to the programme's success.

14. **Adequate resource to train and manage teachers well**: UNRWA operates 677 elementary and preparatory schools in its five areas of operation, providing free basic education for around half a million Palestinian refugee children. Such a model has proven effective as evidence from a study in the West Bank and Gaza found that Palestinian refugees in UNRWA schools were outperforming public schools by a year's worth of learning. This was attributed to a range of factors, including more time spent on task and more effective use of teachers' time, 90% of which was dedicated to teaching compared to less than 60% at public schools.[35] Successful schools also sought to attract the highest quality teachers: entry onto teaching programmes was competitive, with rigorous selection requirements. Once recruited, teachers received clear guidance on standards of learning and were held accountable for their performance, supported by ongoing professional development and experienced, well-qualified principals. It should be noted that teachers were themselves Palestinian refugees and hailed from the same population as the students.

[29] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[30] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[31] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014) (Davidson & Hobbs, 2013)
[32] (Davidson & Hobbs, 2013)
[33] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014) (Davidson & Hobbs, 2013)
[34] (Fentiman, 2003) (Thomas, 2006)
[35] (World Bank, 2014)

15. **Adequate remuneration**: In crisis- and conflict-affected settings, government revenues dry up and remuneration is often low and variable, making it difficult for teachers to support themselves and their families. This increases stress, reduces motivation, and weakens the appeal of teaching as a profession.[36] Teachers can start to drift out of the system or take second jobs to supplement their income so the quality of the teaching body suffers.[37] A research report and mapping exercise of education for refugees from Syria found that many teachers work as volunteers or are paid low salaries, and thus have to seek other work to supplement their income.[38] In an effort to ensure teachers are paid adequately, UNESCO suggests conducting, coordinating, and facilitating a survey of teacher remuneration and conditions of work in the emergency-affected populations, preparing a budget for government teacher salaries and developing a policy on remuneration by other education providers.[39]

16. **Adequate recruitment of teachers:** Refugees who have been teachers in their countries of origin or who have acquired a relatively high level of education in refugee settings often do not enter or remain in the teaching profession because host government policies can make it challenging for refugees who are teachers to be hired, their payment is often low and unpredictable, and many take better-paying positions in unrelated fields with the NGOs operating in the refugee context.[40] There are also few qualified national (or host country) teachers working in refugee communities, as they are hesitant to work in unstable or inhospitable environments.[41] UNESCO guidance for recruitment states:

    - Conduct, coordinate, or facilitate a survey of teacher availability and needs in the emergency-affected populations, and develop a plan for hiring required staff.
    - In situations where NGOs are supporting the education system, ensure that the recruitment of new teachers and educational staff for their programmes does not disrupt existing educational structures.
    - Ensure that education ministry staff and/or other education providers establish minimum requirements for the selection of teachers, and conduct recruitment in a transparent manner.
    - Advertise the need for educators as widely as possible. Ideally, the whole community should know of the need for teachers and education workers. [42]

    Host government support: Lebanon does not allow Syrian refugees to work as state school teachers, which precludes one possible way to relieve the overwhelmed public education system.[43] However, other refugee-hosting countries have, to various degrees, allowed Syrians to work in classrooms (although they might not be considered state employees). For example, Turkey has mobilised Syrian teachers in order to reach a greater number of students: more than 4,000 Syrians serve as volunteer teachers and earn a stipend of $150 to $220 per month, funded by international donations. Similarly, in Egypt, 2,000 Syrians are employed as teachers in refugee-run education centers. In Jordan, some 200 Syrian volunteers work under Jordanian teachers in public schools in refugee camps that are accredited by the Education Ministry.

    In addition to this, the World Bank in March 2017 announced a $100 million pilot programme allowing 150,000 refugees the right to work in Jordan in low-tax special economic zones (SEZs). These SEZs aim to reduce the state's financial burden, give Syrians more autonomy through education and employment, and encourage external investment[44]. Although evidence from this pilot has yet to be produced, particularly regarding its effects on teachers and schooling, there is a great deal of interest in these zones as they have the potential to provide an innovative solution for protracted refugee crises.

[36] (Penson & Sesnan, 2012) (Shriberg, Kirk, & Winthrop, 2007) (INEE, 2010)
[37] (Berry, 2009) (Penson & Sesnan, 2012)
[38] (Chatty, et al., 2014)
[39] (UNESCO/IIEP, 2009)
[40] (Penson & Sesnan, 2012) (Goyens, et al., 1996)
[41] (Penson & Sesnan, 2012)
[42] (UNESCO/IIEP, 2009)
[43] (Human Rights Watch, 2015)
[44] (Betts & Collier, 2017)

2.2 FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL SCHOOLS

As with teachers, there are different types of schools and education within EiE contexts, each with different sets of challenges:

1. **Formal school/education** – This includes all learning opportunities provided within a state system of schools (which can include private and faith-based schools), normally overseen by national ministries of education; but in emergency situations these may be supported by other education stakeholders.

   Challenges – If refugee students are brought into state schools, there will likely be overcrowding, double-shifts of work, stretched resources, language/cultural/religious differences, a need to adapt the curriculum, and students in need of psycho-social support. In addition to this, implementing educational policies for refugees in state schools engages many more local governmental actors than in camp settings, which means that decision-making is spread across complex and often decentralised government bureaucracies and capacity to implement can be weak.[45] In conflict settings, deliberate destruction of schools is a long-standing practice aimed at destabilising areas and disrupting communities. Schools may be seen as embodying state authority and therefore as a legitimate target, especially when insurgent groups oppose the type of education promoted by governments. Armed parties have also used schools as barracks and bases, for weapons storage, detention centres, and for other military purposes.

2. **Non-formal education –** This takes place both within and outside educational institutions and caters to people of all ages and include Accelerated Learning Programmes (ALP), community-based education (CBE), remedial classes, catch-up programmes, basic literacy and numeracy classes, and psychosocial activities, amongst others. Non-formal education programmes are characterised by their variety, flexibility, and ability to respond and cater to the specific educational background and needs of children or adults. Curricula may be based on formal education or on new approaches, but do not necessarily lead to certification.

   Challenges – Non-formal education programmes tend to lack structural connections to formal education that allow students to transfer once they have reached a certain academic level.[46] The lack of accreditation in these programmes can also discourage enrolment and reduce retention.

Departing from historical approaches that featured parallel systems of refugee education, the new UNHCR Education Strategy emphasises integrating refugees into national systems, including urban areas, because they see this approach as the best way to both "strengthen national systems for the benefit not only of refugees but also host communities".[47] However, there are many challenges to absorbing and integrating refugee students into formal state schools and thus, there are many non-formal educational opportunities that aim to fill the gaps. There have been studies that attempt to illuminate the challenges for formal and non-formal schools, as well interventions that have aimed to address these. The following sections outline some of the key lessons gleaned from the research.

1. **Formal schooling needs of refugees:** Urban refugees' lives and educational needs are distinct from refugees in camps, and as a consequence, educational policy and programming for refugees in urban areas also differs from that in camp settings. First, urban refugees are typically self-settled and dispersed among host communities. Unlike camp-based refugees, they are dependent on their integration into local formal or informal economies for survival. High costs of living in cities mean urban refugees tend to be more mobile, as they move around to find more sustainable living arrangements. In terms of education, barriers to educational opportunities often manifest themselves

[45] (Landau & Amit, 2014)
[46] (Chatty, et al., 2014)
[47] (Mendenhall, 2017) (UNHCR, 2012)

more acutely in urban contexts.[48] A study found promising examples of how donors and governments worked together to meet refugees' needs; for example, in Lebanon, the government and donors ensured that school fees were eliminated for *both* Lebanese youth as well as refugee children so that all learners could benefit.[49]

2. **Second-shifts in state schools:** When Syrian refugees began entering Lebanon in 2011 and 2012, no specific policies were in place for educating them and education was generally provided by international and national NGOs. However, in 2013 the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE), with financial support from donors, opened 90 second-shift schools in which teaching sessions occurred in the morning and second-shift sessions for refugees occurred in the afternoon. Second-shifting became further institutionalised within the MEHE through the Reaching All Children with Education (RACE) programme, in which a MEHE Programme Management Unit (PMU) was created to coordinate refugee policy response and implementation. As a result, 238 second-shift schools opened to accommodate Syrian refugees in 2015, and significant progress has been made in expanding Syrian refugees' access to formal education.[50]

3. **Challenges of second-shifting:** As discussed, within second-shift systems the second afternoon shift is largely dedicated to refugee students. This system has come under criticism however, for reducing learning time, eliminating arts and sports activities, using less experienced teachers during second shifts, and separating refugee and host community students due to limited space and language differences. (In Lebanon, Lebanese children are taught most subjects in English or French in the morning, whilst Syrian children are taught in Arabic in the afternoon). There have been many critiques of the segregation that double-shifting has led to in Lebanon, and there have been advocates for integration (at least in lower grades where the use of English or French is not yet common). Research by International Alert has found that children's integration at school can have a huge impact on community relations between refugees and locals. But the very idea of integration is controversial in Lebanon, where the government is keen to emphasise that Syrian refugees are temporary guests. To avoid inflaming tensions in this sensitive area, many NGOs frame their integration work as creating "social stability" and fostering friendly relationships between communities. A spokesperson from DFID described the second-shift system as an important short-term fix, but noted that in the longer term there was a need to develop more sustainable solutions, such as expanding the capacity of schools and offering catch-up classes in French and English for Syrian students.[51]

4. **Non-formal education (NFE) needs of refugees**: The integration of all refugee learners into a national school system may not always be possible due to capacity limitations and/or political opposition, and in many cases, the needs of refugee children and youth that are not well met in national schools. As a result, there is also a need for providing non-formal education opportunities that can address the needs of refugee (and host) communities, as well as ease the transition into mainstream schools.[52] Furthermore, parents may choose to send their children to non-formal schools because public schools may require documents they do not have, or are too far away.[53]

5. **Regulating the provision of non-formal education**: Although a government may have full responsibility for refugee education, there can be significant tensions over the question of provision. International and local NGOs point out that given the huge numbers of refugees, governments often

[48] (Mendenhall, 2016)
[49] (Mendenhall, 2016)
[50] (Mendenhall, 2016)
[51] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)
[52] (Mendenhall, 2016)
[53] (Human Rights Watch, 2015)

lack the space and capacity to meet the educational needs of all refugees. Thus, some NGOs run full-fledged community schools in refugee communities where public schools are far away or already operating at full capacity. In addition to this, various non-state actors provide NFE services in the form of remedial and catch-up classes, language support, community outreach, and homework help. In January 2016, Lebanon's Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) issued a NFE Framework, which aimed to consolidate NFE provision and regulation and stipulated that any programme operating outside of the Framework could be closed. Although well-intentioned, delays in the finalisation of the Framework, Terms of Reference for implementation, and creation of an NGO sub-committee has resulted in frustration among NGOs who feel they are operating under threat of closure and with little clarity over expectations.[54]

6. **Non-formal home-based schooling:** An observational study of IRC's home-based schooling programme in Afghanistan, which provided education to over 10,000 rural children, found that home-based schools provided many thousands of children – particularly girls – with a culturally acceptable education and increased enrolment.[55] Home-based schooling was defined as typically a once-class school operating in a room in a home, the space of a mosque or the shade of a tree. The teachers created a safe and culturally acceptable environment where girls could come to learn, did not have to travel far, and were taught by teachers known to the community. While the schools helped to fill a gap in education provision, teachers received no remuneration and durability may be an issue. The study concluded that policy responses could include integration of home schools into the government system; increased support for home-based schools where they are the only available school; and recognising and finding ways to certify teacher training for home-based teachers. While there was no comprehensive national policy for integration, at the provincial level many children and some of the teachers who met the national requirements were being gradually transferred to nearby government schools, as new schools were opened and the Ministry of Education rebuilt the education system.

7. **The need for secondary education:** A study in the Kakuma refugee camp showed that overall enrolment among school-age children in the camp as of June 2016 was 70 per cent for primary schools but only three per cent for secondary schools.[56] Secondary education is more expensive than primary. Not only does it mean higher costs for families, it also requires more specialised and qualified teachers, more advanced equipment in science and computer laboratories, and more books in better equipped libraries. UNHCR only has a third of the budget it spends on primary education for secondary education, despite the urgent need and higher costs incurred. Ensuring continuous primary and secondary education for refugees means having a reliable and sustainable source of funding as soon as refugees begin to arrive in search of sanctuary.

8. **Protecting schools in conflict settings:** Education Under Attack 2014 is a global study that examined attacks on education and military use of schools,[57] and found that schools had been attacked in 70 countries throughout the world from 2009-2013. Recommendations from the report were incorporated into the Safe Schools Declaration (developed with support from the Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA)), which encourages states to make a political commitment to adopting a comprehensive approach to protecting school from attack. In addition to this, GCPEA convened a workshop on 'Promising Practices for Protecting Education from Attack and Schools from Military Use'[58] which discussed interventions that included: 1) *use of armed guards/escorts/school staff to protect schools* (it was argued however, that armed guards can also prompt attacks on schools if

[54] (Mendenhall, 2016)
[55] (Kirk & Winthrop, 2006)
[56] (UNHCR, 2016)
[57] (GCPEA, 2014)
[58] (GCPEA, 2015)

guards are associated with the parties in conflict, and that the presence of guns in schools can make students and teachers feel less secure); 2) *"community-based" approaches to protecting education* (including creating school/community safety and protection committees that organise unarmed protection measures, building physical infrastructure such as boundary walls or razor wire around schools, demarcating schools with symbols to prevent targeted attacks, using unarmed guards from school and community for safety patrols and escorts to and from school); 3) *negotiating with parties in the armed conflict to keep schools safe* (which entails school and community leaders using consensus and dialogue and forging agreements to ban weapons, prohibit political propaganda at schools, restrict military use of schools, or establish codes of conduct for military and armed groups).

2.3 CURRICULUM

Curriculum content can be viewed as an instrument to shape social, historical, and political narratives.[59] Decisions about language and curriculum, which are both political and practical, impact the kinds of support refugee students need from their teachers. As discussed, UNHCR advocates for integrating refugees into national systems, which means that they follow the curriculum and language of instruction of the host country. This can be similar to their own, or dramatically different, as with Congolese in Uganda.[60] The following sections provide lessons learnt that have come from research on curriculum issues in EiE contexts.

1. **Issues of language:** Existing literacy research strongly supports the value of (a) teaching literacy in the students' first language, (b) developing oral proficiency in the second language before introducing second language literacy instruction, and (c) training teachers in the principles of second language acquisition.[61] In a mapping study of education for Syrian refugees, all pupils named language of instruction as the key barrier – Syrian children are used to being taught in Arabic, whereas Lebanese schools generally teach in French or English. Teaching maths and sciences in English in the second shift had led many students to drop out. Despite efforts to translate teaching materials and teach second shifts in Arabic, it remains a major barrier to learning.[62]

2. **Interventions for language issues**: There is a need to determine the appropriate language of instruction based on a needs assessment. Students and teachers must be supported to develop proficiency in the language in which they will become literate, if this is different from their mother tongue. Research on second language acquisitions can provide guidance to develop specific interventions.[63]

   Case study from Sudan: Because of the difference in language and educational systems, Sudanese refugee children in Chad originally followed the Sudanese curriculum. As with other displacement situations, no one foresaw that the arrival of refugees from Darfur would continue long-term, with chances of a return home still looking slim. In response, UNHCR worked with the Chadian government and partner organisations to implement a programme of transition to the Chadian curriculum, including the training of hundreds of Sudanese refugees as teachers and the deployment of more than 250 Chadian teachers specialising in French, citizenship, history, and geography to camps and other sites. The transition to the Chadian education system was initiated in October 2014 in all schools in the eastern camps. In addition, refugee teachers are enrolled in a national teacher training institute so that they can get a professional qualification. However, there are still significant problems. While the Darfur crisis has faded from media attention, refugee camps in eastern Chad continue to host more than 90,000 Sudanese refugee children of primary school age, served by only 62 schools in 2016. The high pupil-to-teacher ratios are a major reason why children drop out, particularly as they make the

[59] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)
[60] (Mendenhall, 2015)
[61] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)
[62] (Chatty, et al., 2014)
[63] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014) (Pinnock, 2009) (Ouana & Glanz, 2011)

transition from primary to secondary level. Although 64 per cent of primary-age Sudanese refugee children in eastern Chad are enrolled in school, that falls to 39 per cent at secondary level. There is still not enough funding to pay for textbooks and the refurbishment of classrooms, or for more to be built, to cater to the large numbers of out-of-school children.[64]

3. **Issues of content fuelling conflict:** There have been ample illustrations of how education can contribute to conflict, particularly by inequitable access to education or biased curricula.[65] Conflict is often reflected in curricula, particularly in the form of bias (e.g. invisibility, stereotyping, imbalance), selectivity (e.g. the physical or visual isolation of certain groups), and the use of offensive language toward certain groups. It can also entail questionable representations of historical narratives. For example, analysis of pre-genocide textbooks in Rwanda showed that the history of Hutus and Tutsis was often portrayed as inherently oppositional and lessons enhanced enmity by teaching children to identify against the other group.[66]

4. **Interventions for conflict issues**: In anti-bias curricula, there are four basic goals: (a) to nurture self-concept and group identity; (b) to promote awareness of different and empathetic social interactions; (c) to spark critical thinking about bias, stereotypes, and discrimination; and (d) to develop students' capacities to rebuff bias. Thus, UNESCO suggests an initial rapid assessment of the syllabus (which is often limited to a review of textbooks) is necessary both to identify areas of strength to build on and areas that may be particularly susceptible to manipulation.[67] The initial review represents the first step in a long-term and ongoing process of review and revision of all the components of curriculum. UNESCO suggests six steps for emergency curriculum reviews:
    1) Initiate a rapid review of curriculum and textbooks to remove elements that may fuel conflict.
    2) Conduct a curriculum and textbook analysis.
    3) In refugee operations, consult with refugee educators and leaders regarding the curriculum that will help them prepare for voluntary repatriation and reintegration.
    4) Prepare a programme of action for renewal of the curriculum framework, syllabi, and textbooks, through a consultative process involving all stakeholders.
    5) In post-conflict situations, consider including in the national curriculum framework objectives for behavioural skills, and concepts and values development that support peace, human rights, and active citizenship.
    6) Assemble expert groups to review the key content areas of the curriculum.[68]

5. **Joint history textbooks**: Critical engagement with history has the potential to exacerbate or ameliorate violent conflict. There is evidence from a project of bi-narrative Israeli and Palestinian history teaching that shows that teachers from both sides accepted the others' narratives and did not attempt to delegitimise the other narrative. Students appeared to be interested and curious about the two narratives.[69]

6. **Multiple perspective history teaching**: Further evidence on multiple perspective history teaching from Israel and Palestine shows that teaching a single authoritative narrative decreased openness to the other side's perspectives, whereas empathetic dual narrative increased it.[70] Another study set up as a randomised

[64] (UNHCR, 2016)
[65] (Bush & Saltarelli, 2000)
[66] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)
[67] (UNESCO/IIEP, 2009)
[68] (UNESCO/IIEP, 2009)
[69] (Adwan & Bar-On, 2004)
[70] (Goldberg, Looking at their side of the conflict? Effects of single versus multiple perspective history teaching on Jewish and Arab adolescents' attitude to out-group narratives and in-group responsibility, 2014)

controlled trial examined the impact of different approaches to history teaching on Israeli Jewish and Arab students' dominance of discussion, as well as their agreement on solution for the problems caused by the conflict[71] The results indicated that discussions in multiple perspective history teaching demonstrated a lower level of dominating discourse by the dominant group and increased the frequency of agreement on solutions to problems caused by the intergroup conflict. This evidence from a protracted conflict context (the Israeli-Arab conflict) show that teaching multiple perspectives in history classrooms has positive effects, while enforcing a single narrative can have a negative impact.

The importance of participation and consultation in curricula development: Curriculum development in conflict affected contexts can be fraught with sensitive issues of history, politics, and identity, and which collide with the operational challenges of designing and adapting curricula for students who have been displaced. According to the INEE Minimum Standards, key actions for curriculum development in emergencies advise that "education authorities lead the review, development or adaptation of the formal curriculum, involving all relevant stakeholders". In refugee situations, they advise that "curricula should ideally be acceptable in both the country of origin and the host country, to facilitate voluntary repatriation. This requires substantial regional and inter-agency coordination, taking into account, for example, language competencies and recognition of examination results for certification". Hodgkin (2007) contends that curriculum development should be a part of the educational planning process from the beginning and should not wait until after a return to stability, as the transitional period during which curriculum development is not implemented can sometimes last for years. She further argues that the curriculum design process should encompass effective and genuine models of participatory decision making, with recognition of the complexity involved.

2.4 COMMUNITIES

In EiE contexts, parents and communities can have a significant role to play in children's learning because they often determine a child's access to education (particularly with regard to gender and poverty); they can enhance children's learning (particularly with regard to early childhood development and early grade literacy); they can increase demand for education and accountability of schools (often via school management committees); and they can also play a crucial role in the conflict or peace surrounding schools. Communities can exist in refugee camp settings, but are often more disparate when refugee populations settle within urban areas of a host country. The following sections provide lessons learnt that have come from research on communities and parents regarding EiE contexts.

1. **Communities as a source for ideas:** An intervention in Ghor Province in northwestern Afghanistan demonstrated how communities were used to first identify issues that prevented girls from going school (such as lack of security, distance to school, male teachers, lack of toilets) and were then asked to propose solutions. They came up with a daily schedule of parents to walk with them and worked with the Ministry to hire female teachers for short term. There was also an agreement to send girls who finish high school to Teacher Training Institutes.

2. **Communities as a source for teachers:** As discussed previously, there is widespread recognition of the value of parents, community members, and youth to be recruited as para-teachers for children. This may be particularly important in the overcrowded classrooms that characterise many crisis-affected and post-conflict settings, or in locations where there are few qualified teachers.[72]

3. **Communities as providers of education:** A qualitative study in Bosnia found that while community-based education can be effective means of maintaining provision of education during conflict, following a crisis the decrease in international support and resources can lead to disillusionment and a sharp deterioration in service provision. It is vital that international actors consider how replacing the state in education

[71] (Goldberg & Ron, 2014)
[72] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)

provision during a conflict, or assisting communities to do so, may affect long-term provision, and seek to maintain links with government ministries. The study also found that since communities were largely homogenous and isolated, community participation did not improve ethnic relations among parents: given that communities group together, community schooling by nature may mirror ethnic divisions.[73]

4. **Community support through school management**: Observational evidence from crisis-affected countries shows that community participation is associated with increases in student achievement. To analyse the impact of the Educacion con Participacion de la Comunidad (EDUCO) programme in El Salvador on quality, a multiple regression model compared EDUCO test scores to those from traditional schools and found that community involvement, captured by the number of visits by parent associations to the schools per week, played a crucial role in improving learning outcomes. However, the link between improved learning and community involvement is predicated on the relationship between the community and school management, and their combined oversight in supporting teacher effort and performance, which in turn improves student outcomes.

5. **Family support for literacy:** Community and family support for literacy programmes may be difficult to achieve in EiE situations, and key recommendations include:[74]
    1. Ongoing, inclusive, and participatory engagement of communities through needs and conflict assessments should be sustained from the beginning of a project.
    2. Building support within the community may require targeted social messaging. There is benefit in including a programme component for teaching parents why literacy is important and how to support their children's literacy.
    3. Cultural and religious values should be considered, and where feasible, integrated with literacy programmes.
    4. Literacy programmes should develop explicit plans for engaging community support and developing opportunities to practice literacy outside of school.
    5. Parental – especially maternal – literacy has a significant impact on the literacy acquisition of children. As part of a comprehensive and conflict-sensitive approach to literacy, donors should consider funding adult and/or family literacy programmes, or linking to donor agencies and programmes that do so.

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

Although a large number of documents were reviewed and included in this Brief (particularly given the four main areas of interest), there were several gaps in the evidence base that are worth noting, which include:

1. **Evidence regarding natural disasters:** Although there is a great deal of evidence on issues regarding teachers, schools, communities and curricula in conflict and/or refugee crises, there is very little regarding natural disasters.

2. **Evidence on internally displaced persons (IDP):** Much of the evidence surrounding quality and learning focuses on refugee contexts and challenges. This can be problematic as responses and interventions can differ for IDPs.

[73] (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)
[74] (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)

3. **Evidence on 'what works' with regard to schools, communities and curricula:** It is clear that most robust EiE research studies tend to focus on teachers as a unit of analysis, as opposed to schools, communities and curricula. This is understandable, given the central role that teachers play in EiE provision: however, this has resulted in a much smaller and less robust evidence base for the other areas of interest.

Evidence on 'what works' at a systems level: Much of the robust research evidence focuses on interventions at the micro or grassroots level only. There is no rigorous research on how to work with governments, development partners, or humanitarian teams to ensure that quality education provision is sustained. Nevertheless, many practitioner guidelines do provide ways forward in this area.

4 CONCLUSION

This Evidence Brief has aimed to answer the following research question regarding education in emergencies:

How can DFID provide quality education in EiE contexts and what are the implications for teachers, formal/non-formal schools, communities and curricula?

The following tables summarise the best practice and lessons learnt discussed in this Brief. Although any programme design must be centred around the challenges and needs within a particular context, these four tables can provide points to consider when designing a holistic programme aiming to provide a quality education in an EiE setting.

Table 1 – Teachers

	Teacher professional development & coaching	Teacher recruitment & remuneration	Teacher qualifications & certification	Teacher classroom performance
Promising interventions	• Language support • Training in classroom management • Peer coaching • Consistent training and coaching (not one-off) • Mobile platforms (where appropriate)	• Conflict-sensitive recruitment • Allowing refugee teachers to work • Pay decent wage: do not rely on volunteerism • UNRWA school model	• Cross-border agreements on recognition of teacher qualifications • Basic certificate • Alternative pathways for certification	• Understanding teachers' biographies and wellbeing needs • Psychosocial support • Scripted lesson plans (if appropriate) • Radio programming (if appropriate)

Table 2 – Formal & non-formal schools

	Formal education	Non-formal education

Promising interventions	• Integrating students in lower primary • Buddy system to integrate older host and refugee students • Donor funding to reduce fees for both host and refugee students • Double shifting (short-term fix) • Build capacity/infrastructure of school to cope with expanded student population (long-term) • School/community safety committees to implement security measures during conflict	• Non-Formal Education framework to regulate provision • Home-based schooling (if appropriate) • Accelerated learning – condensed curriculum and language support in order to get children into mainstream schools • Holistic programming (life/livelihood skills)

Table 3 – Curriculum

	Development of curriculum
Promising interventions	• Early planning and participatory development • Conduct needs assessment, curriculum review and conflict analysis • Language of instruction • Joint history and multiple perspective history • Condensed curriculum for accelerated learning

Table 4 – Communities

	Engaging families and communities
Promising interventions	• Include communities to contextualise problems and find solutions • Community schools should be for transition only • Draw from community for teachers • Targeted social messaging for parents (on the value of education)

5 ANNEX – SUMMARIES AND LINKS TO DOCUMENTS REVIEWED

Please note that the titles for the following summaries contain hyper-links to the full-length documents that can be found online. To access a hyper-link, press 'Ctrl' and click on the bolded title.

Delivering quality education in protracted crises: A discussion paper. (DFID, 2015)

Based on a review of evidence and experience, this discussion paper suggests that the international community needs a new approach to supporting the education of girls and boys whose lives are affected, often for many years, by conflict and displacement. Until now, these girls and boys have depended largely on humanitarian assistance, not only to survive physically, but also to access an "emergency education". Despite this support, children in these contexts are nearly three times more likely to be out of primary school than in other low-income countries, and even if they are in school they are often challenged by language of instruction, safety, a curriculum and qualifications that are different from those found at home, and a lack of adequately trained and qualified teachers. This paper argues that business as usual is unlikely to meet the education needs of populations affected by crisis. The paper concludes by suggesting five principles to guide the international community in the design and delivery of education initiatives in protracted crises:

1. Start with strong contextual analysis that looks at access, quality and protection.
2. Avoid establishing parallel systems.
3. Mobilise predictable medium to long term financing that flows through an agreed coordination structure.
4. Prioritise protection, education access and quality in the response.
5. Build evidence and data on impact and invest in innovation.

Literacy Education in Conflict and Crisis-Affected Contexts (Zakharia & Bartlett, 2014)

This research study seeks a better understanding of the challenges and opportunities involved in designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating literacy programmes for children and youth in conflict- and crisis-affected environments. The study reviewed the relevant literature and over 100 programme documents from 15 country cases. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with 30 professionals who work on literacy education in contexts of conflict or crisis. The authors then present the core issues and key lessons for themes: policy, governance, systems, and infrastructure; language policy in education; teachers, professional development, and support; curriculum and materials; communities and families; youth and adults; literacy assessment; and monitoring and evaluation. It concludes that there is a pressing need to expand access to and learning within quality literacy programmes in conflict- and crisis-affected environments. In particular, attention must be paid to (a) language learning as a component of literacy acquisition and medium of instruction policy issues; (b) teacher preparation, psychosocial needs, support, allocation, remuneration, and absenteeism; (c) the development and distribution of curricular and learning materials; (d) the significant role to be played by communities and families; (e) the specific distinct needs of youth and adults; (f) the challenges and limitations of assessment associated with definitions of literacy; and (g) the difficulties of monitoring and evaluating programmes in insecure environments.

Bringing Education to Afghan Girls: A Randomized Controlled Trial of Village-Based Schools. (Burde & Linden, 2013)

This randomised evaluation examines the effect of village-based schools on children's academic performance using a sample of 31 villages and 1,490 children in rural northwestern Afghanistan. Compared to traditional government schools, the major challenge for village based schools is quality. They serve a smaller number of

students, and are taught by locally educated individuals usually with less than 12 years of education. While the schools have basic equipment, they are housed in spaces provided by the village and classes are not divided by age. Each programme village received educational materials (i.e. notebooks, pencils, government textbooks, etc.) and teachers received training on topics such as monitoring and evaluation, classroom management, and teaching methods. The programme significantly increased enrolment and test scores among all children, but particularly for girls. Girls' enrolment increased by 52 percentage points and their average test scores increased by 0.65 standard deviations. The effect was large enough that it eliminated the gender gap in enrolment and dramatically reduced differences in test scores. Boys' enrolment increased by 35 percentage points, and average test scores increased by 0.40 standard deviations. The authors concluded that village-based schools are a viable strategy for getting girls into school in the face of unsafe conditions and gender discrimination.

Weak State, Strong Community? Promoting Community Participation in Post-Conflict Countries (Burde D. , 2004)

This qualitative case study presents findings from a study of community participation in an emergency education programme during and after the war in Bosnia, and explores some of the implications for civil society and democracy building. The programme provided funding for each preschool's first nine months of operations, after which communities were meant to take over financial responsibility. Over 100 parent-teacher associations created to support approximately 1000 private, non-profit preschools at the height of the programme. Over 90 parents, teachers, government officials, and international aid workers were interviewed for this study in eight communities (urban and rural) throughout Bosnia. They study found that: 1) international organisations that replace the state – albeit partially – during a complex emergency by providing social services, or by assisting communities to do so, should not abandon government ministries during social reconstruction. Otherwise, states become accustomed to relying on NGOs (international or local) to provide social services, and abdicate responsibility for providing these services themselves, thereby fundamentally altering the provision of public education; 2) the bridges the programme created across ethnic/religious groups were limited to professional ties among teachers. Parents generally did not have contact with, or express interest in meeting with, other parents of a different ethnicity/religion; and 3) community participation without significant external help, enduring networks, or links to power, is unlikely to succeed.

What Works to Promote Children's Educational Access, Quality of Learning, and Wellbeing in Crisis-Affected Contexts (Burde, Guven, Kelcey, Lahmann, & Al-Abbadi, 2015)

This rigorous review of the literature explored which interventions promote educational access, quality of learning, and wellbeing among children who live in crisis-affected areas. The authors searched thousands of academic articles and the grey literature using relevant key terms, and invited members of INEE to submit relevant research. The final report was based on a full review of 184 works: 76 for access, 57 for quality, and 62 for wellbeing. The review for quality includes three key findings. First, in countries or regions affected by acute or protracted conflict and where populations remain in their homes, strong evidence supports the use of community-based education and participatory community monitoring to increase academic achievement at the primary school level. Additional promising interventions include tailored training for teachers with limited qualifications, and mobile phone technology and radio to deliver lessons and lesson plans. Computer assisted learning has mixed results in stable developing countries and is unlikely to be easy to administer in crisis settings. Secondly, where populations are living in protracted or post-conflict contexts, peace education activities that require contact between groups show promise in affecting attitudes and perceptions positively in the short term. As for negative outcomes, emerging evidence shows that curricular content on negative history can contribute to underlying conditions for conflict. Promising observational evidence shows that equal educational access and greater national levels of educational attainment may limit participation in militancy or extremism, but these results are mixed. Two rigorous studies show the positive impact of "multiple perspective history" teaching, which either increases openness to out-group perspectives of the history of intergroup conflict, or promotes positive intergroup relations. No robust evidence shows the best ways for education to

counter violent extremism. Thirdly, robust evidence from stable, developing countries shows the importance and effectiveness of early childhood development programmes in improving children's cognitive and behavioural outcomes.

Using technology to deliver educational services to children and youth in environments affected by crisis and/or conflict (Carlson, 2013)

The goal of this paper is two-fold: (1) to compile and review illuminating case studies of technology-supported interventions to deliver education services that promote equitable access to children and youth in environments affected by crisis and/or conflict; and (2) to provide recommendations for the design and implementation of technology-supported education interventions. Through a country case study approach, this report examines three types of educational technology programmes, specifically: mobile phone-based delivery of educational content for improving student learning, aimed at both students and teachers; internet-enabled computer labs supporting K-12 education and youth employment-focused training; and interactive radio instruction (IRI) in primary education. For education programme planners in countries affected by crisis and/or conflict considering educational technology as a means to improve student learning, this report offers ten guiding principles:

1. Clarify educational objectives to be achieved through technology;
2. Design the technology programme as a function of those objectives;
3. Maintain flexibility, learn by doing and adapt as necessary;
4. Specify the programme time horizon;
5. Prioritise the "human-ware" over the hardware and software;
6. Ensure contextually-appropriate educational content;
7. Maximise and exploit connectivity;
8. Keep the technology as simple as possible;
9. Minimise power requirements;
10. Avoid the mistakes of previous educational technology programmes (i.e. do not 're-invent the flat tyre').

Quality education for refugees in Kenya: Pedagogy in Urban Nairobi and Kakuma Refugee Camp settings (Mendenhall, 2015)

This article examines the quality of education available to refugees in Kenya, with a particular focus on instruction. It is based on a qualitative case study research project conducted at six primary schools, two in Nairobi and four in the Kakuma refugee camp in northwestern Kenya. The article documents the instructional practices used in these schools to demonstrate the centrality of lecture in lesson presentation; teachers' reliance on factual questions and the lack of open-ended and pupil-initiated questions; limited comprehension checks; and the absence of conceptual learning. Drawing from the perspectives of the teachers who were interviewed, the article argues that quality instructional practices for refugees are constrained by several key factors: limited resources (including low funding), significant overcrowding, and a lack of teaching and learning materials; a lack of pedagogical training and content knowledge; and curriculum and language policies. The article concludes that the lack of access to teacher training is the most pressing need. Teachers must have the opportunity to learn how to ask open-ended questions, to engage students in higher-order conceptual thinking, and to see each lesson as a lesson in content and language. Teachers of refugees must be given specialised training on second- and third-language acquisition and on managing and appreciating multilingual classrooms, particularly in camp-based environments. Refugee teachers themselves will often require language support, as they may not be familiar with the official language of instruction in the host country. Teachers also need to learn how to adapt curricular materials to the needs and experiences of refugee pupils without undermining the

content knowledge required to perform well on examinations. To accomplish this, teachers need ongoing, repeated, and school-based teacher training support to help them move from learning to applying these strategies in the classroom.

Urban refugee education: strengthening policies and practices for access, quality, and inclusion: Insights and recommendations from a 16-country global survey and case studies in Beirut, Nairobi and Quito (Mendenhall, 2016)

This study presents data from three sources: a review of existing global and national laws and policies related to the provision of education for refugees; a global survey; and three country case studies. The authors conducted a global survey with 190 respondents working for organisations providing educational services to urban refugees in 16 countries across four world regions. They also carried out in-depth interviews with more than 90 stakeholders (including government officials; personnel working for UN agencies, international and national NGOs; and principals and teachers) in three country case studies (Lebanon, Kenya, and Ecuador). The authors found a consistent gap between policy and practice, and highlight a lack of capacity in schools and among teachers to deal with the complex challenges of refugee education. To address these challenges, the report advocates for better coordination mechanisms, teacher training and programming to counter discrimination. The report concludes with two policy goals: 1) given the gravity, scale and duration of refugee crises, governments, agencies, and donors must support full integration and inclusion of refugee children into national schools; and 2) civil society organisations need to support provision of non-formal education programmes to fill the needs and gaps not met by government schools.

Urban Refugee Education: Guidelines and Practical Strategies for Strengthening Support to Improve Educational Quality for All (Mendenhall, 2017)

This report provides guidance and practical strategies to actors working to provide education for urban refugees, with a focus on national and local actors. During 2015-16, a team from Teachers College, Columbia University (New York, USA) conducted a survey of organisations working on education programmes in 16 countries with significant urban refugee populations and comparative case studies of Beirut (Lebanon), Nairobi (Kenya), and Quito (Ecuador), and a desk review of both academic and grey literature related to refugee education and educational programming in urban contexts. Key recommendations for education authorities include exploring options for leveraging teaching expertise among refugee populations; recognising and strengthening teacher qualifications for integration, repatriation, and resettlement; and developing equitable equivalency policies that recognise educational attainment in refugees' countries of origin or prior country of residence. The study also finds that priority issues for teacher training & professional development for teachers of refugees are second-language teaching methods, culturally responsive pedagogical participatory and active learning approaches, curricular adaptation approaches, psychosocial well-being, positive discipline techniques, school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) awareness, peer-to-peer support among learners, and special needs training. The authors recommend local communities can help by motivating and engaging community members and local leaders to raise awareness and improve and strengthen school-community and host-refugee relations. Finally, the report encourages community-based organisations to: facilitate opportunities for student/school exchanges and joint community service; link refugee students, parents, families, and others with needed community resources and services that may be hindering their educational attainment; and identify and leverage teaching expertise among refugee populations.

"Growing Up Without an Education": Barriers to Education for Syrian Refugee Children in Lebanon (Human Rights Watch, 2015)

Growing Up Without an Education addresses the issue of access to education for Syrian refugee children in Turkey, Lebanon, and Jordan. It documents several barriers keeping Syrian children out of school, despite important steps that Lebanon has taken since the Syrian conflict began to include them in the public education system. This report finds that Lebanon's enrolment policy for Syrian children is both insufficiently enforced and undermined by policies that limit refugees' freedom of movement, exacerbate poverty, and contribute to child labour. It also finds that students are dropping out of school due to widespread corporal punishment, bullying, and harassment, an inability to pay for transportation, and because they cannot follow classes taught in French and English.

Ensuring quality education for young refugees from Syria (Chatty, et al., 2014)

This report examines the educational status of refugees from Syria aged 12-25 years. A mapping exercise using a purposive sampling method: focus group discussions and semi structured interviews were the primary modes of data collection. A review of secondary data of pervious mapping exercises, field reports, statistics, news articles, and media helped to triangulate findings. The report investigates the educational needs of young refugees from Syria and maps the services provided by various organisations since the beginning of the crisis in 2011. It finds that national education systems in Jordan, Lebanon, Northern Iraq and Turkey have expanded and adapted but that, specifically at secondary level, demand far outweighs supply, leaving the majority of refugee youth excluded from quality formal and non-formal education. Schools are under-resourced and overcrowded and in all four contexts, the language barrier and curriculum present hurdles to learning. Certification and accreditation is not guaranteed and deters young people from continuing or re-entering education. Social factors also prevent youth from accessing quality education: young women are marrying early due to social norms that suggest this will protect them; young people are engaging in paid employment rather than education; and refugee communities must often settle in areas far from central locations but cannot afford the travel costs to reach schools. Interventions must respond to these social challenges. The report concludes that more schools, training centres, TVET, psychosocial support and on-the-job training are urgently required to meet the needs of young refugees from Syria, which will require increased funding, innovative thinking and flexible systems.

Home-based Schooling: Access to Quality. Education for Afghan Girls (Kirk & Winthrop, 2006)

In 2006, girls' education in Afghanistan had begun to recover from the devastating Taliban regime. Yet nearly 60 percent of school-age Afghan girls remained out of school and those who were in school were not assured of completing sixth grade. This paper describes a home-based schooling programme that provided primary education for children in Kabul, Paktia, Logar, and Nangahar Provinces. The authors found that home-based schooling provided many thousands of children – particularly girls, who would otherwise be excluded from education – with a culturally acceptable education. While its durability may be an issue, policy lessons include the need to: i) where possible, integrate home-based schools into the government system; ii) sustain and improve home-based schools where they are the only available school; iii) improve teacher training and support, and iv) recognise the 'alternative qualifications' of home-based school teachers and finding ways to accredit them.

Defining Quality in Education. Working Paper Series (UNICEF, 2006)

This working paper reviews the research literature related to quality in education, and demonstrates by this analysis that education programmes must encompass a broader definition involving learners, content, processes, environments, and outcomes.

Learning in the Face of Adversity: The UNRWA Education Program for Palestine Refugees (Husein, Patrinos, Reyes, Kelcey, & Varela, 2016)

This study used a mixed methods research approach, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative research to explore how UNRWA schools continually and consistently outperform public schools in the West Bank, Gaza and Jordan. Econometric techniques were used to analyse learning achievement data, including international (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)) and national student assessment data. The Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER) tools and rubrics were used to assess different system components, such as teacher effectiveness, school autonomy, and student assessments. The results found that UNRWA schools continually and consistently outperformed public schools by a margin equivalent to more than one additional year of learning. This was achieved as a result of the way these schools recruit, prepare, and support teachers; because of instructional practices and pedagogy in the classroom; and because of school leadership, accountability, and mutual support. Specifically, UNRWA selects, prepares, and supports its education staff to pursue high learning outcomes; time-on-task is high in UNRWA schools, and this time is used more effectively than in public schools; UNRWA schools have a world-class assessment and accountability system; UNRWA schools are part of a wider community and culture of learning that supports the child and ensures that the education received is meaningful and relevant; and the UNRWA system has fewer management layers and is more accountable for student outcomes than public schools.

Preliminary impacts of the "Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom" intervention on teacher well-being in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Wolf, et al., 2015)

This article examines the impacts of a partial year of implementation of Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom (LRHC), a curricular and social-emotional teacher professional development intervention in southeastern Democratic Republic of the Congo, on teacher professional well-being. Using a cluster-randomised control trial, this study assesses LRHC impacts on a sample of 346 teachers from 64 primary schools. The study finds statistically significant increases in job dissatisfaction for female teachers and increases in motivation for the least experienced teachers. Implications are discussed for the role of teacher professional development and well-being in improving education in low resource and conflict-affected contexts.

Opportunity to Learn: A high impact strategy for improving educational outcomes in developing countries (Gillies & Quijada, 2008)

From reviewing the literature, the authors identify eight crucial underlying elements that, when at a minimum level, create a 'basic opportunity to learn'. These elements are the factors that add up to total instructional time, hours in school year, days school is open, teacher attendance and punctuality, student attendance and punctuality, teacher-student ratio, instructional materials per student, time in classroom on task, and reading skills taught by grade. Education systems can track and monitor these factors as part of their management and school improvement strategy. The authors note that in many developing country schools, these elements are being overlooked—school hours are insufficient, schools are closed too often, teacher and student attendance and punctuality is low, there are insufficient instructional materials for home or school use, time-on-task in the classroom is minimal, and children cannot read well enough by the end of Grade 3—and there is no evident system to track and improve the situation. This paper argues that the basic opportunity to learn does not exist in many countries, and that a concerted management focus to assure that schools provide these basic elements of an opportunity to learn could potentially yield big improvements in learning.

Delivering reading intervention to the poorest children: The case of Liberia and EGRA-Plus, a primary grade reading assessment (Davidson & Hobbs, 2013)

As governments, donors, and implementation organisations re-focus Education For All Goals in terms of quality of education, increasing concerns have been raised over low literacy levels in developing countries. This paper provides key learning from the application of an early reading intervention applied in post-conflict Liberia, which included a robust assessment tool (Early Grade Reading Assessment) to measure the impact of the programme on students' reading levels. A rationale for the design and methodology applied by the two implementing organisations (Research Triangle Institute (RTI) and Concern Worldwide) is provided, situated within the Liberian education context. The paper demonstrates the positive impact on programme quality, contextual relevancy, and scale-up that a diagnostic baseline assessment has when linked to a tailored literacy intervention. Lessons learnt are presented to guide the identification of best practice in early literacy interventions at national-level and internationally. The paper includes a focus on the effectiveness of scripted lessons and systematic teacher support across two contexts in Liberia.

Educators in exile: The role and status of refugee teachers (Sesnan, Allemano, Ndugga, & Said, 2013)

The findings of this literature review and interviews in Kenya, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda show that the international migration of teachers is a complex phenomenon. In this study, three types of refugee teachers are described: a) qualified teachers who succeed in finding teaching jobs in the host country; b) qualified teachers who are forced to find non-teaching employment in the host country; and c) individuals who have taken up teaching or training to work in the host country, but are not qualified. Among 15 key recommendations, several of particular relevance to teachers suggest measures to improve refugee teacher certification. The authors recommend that in emergency and early reconstruction, teachers who have not completed official certification processes but who possess 'alternative qualifications' could be temporarily recognised. To enable this, tools such as rapid assessment tests of teaching skills and instruction in emergency situations are needed and refugee teacher training should for the most part be provided by a certificate- or diploma-issuing body recognised in both host and home countries. It should be recognised that while refugee teachers increasingly find their own place in the employment market, agencies and NGOs can help by paying competitive salaries and providing promotion opportunities in the camps or wherever they employ teachers; they should not rely on the principle of volunteerism for more than the first few months of a refugee crisis, nor work to keep salaries artificially low in relation to the wider employment market.

Negotiating Change: Participatory Curriculum Design in Emergencies (Hodgkin, 2007)

This paper examines curriculum decision-making processes in emergencies, arguing that in order to fully meet the commitment articulated by the INEE Minimum Standards to provide quality education for all, curricular decisions cannot be ignored or postponed until after a crisis has occurred. Practitioners, advocates, and policy makers in the field of education in emergencies must recognise that in order for quality education to be provided equitably, curricular decisions must not only be fully part of the remit for those organisations, agencies, or governments providing education in emergencies, but the decision-making processes must be transparent, inclusive, and participatory. The INEE Minimum Standards as they continue to be promoted, contextualised, and institutionalised, could play a crucial role in this process.

State of the Field Report: Evidence in Youth Education in Crisis and Conflict (Olenik & Takyi-Laryea, 2013)

This paper, based on a literature review of 33 studies published between 2001 and 2012, provides a summary of the latest research on youth education in crisis- and conflict-affected settings. Findings from the literature are organised according to outcomes, moving from initial to longer-term outcomes for youth as follows: Access to Basic Education; Employability and Life Skills; Positive Feelings/Attitudes and Positive Health Behaviours; Educational Outcomes, Continued Education, Employment, and Assets/Earnings; and Lower Propensity for Violence and Increased Tolerance. A majority of the evaluations conducted were considered performance

evaluations (70 percent), meaning that there was no control or comparison group identified. Few studies reviewed used experimental design (e.g. randomised control group) or quasi-experimental (e.g. non-randomised control or comparison group). The remaining studies examined were either case studies or a cross-sectional survey. None of them established the linkages between specific intervention components and results. The review found that 1) access to basic education is increased through the use of technology and decreasing the distance between home and school; 2) both formal and non-formal education strategies result in improved reading, writing, and mathematics skills; 3) life skills training has resulted in increased self-awareness and empathy, as well as, decision making, goal setting, and communication skills for youth; 4) multi-component youth programmes lead to better self-esteem and lower levels of depression and aggression; 5) holistic programmes that include a vocational training or entrepreneurship component result in increased job placements for youth; and 6) youth programmes increase tolerance and reduce participation in violent activities, especially when they include conflict mediation, peacebuilding, and psycho-social training or support. It was also clear from the literature that partnering with communities to ensure their engagement is essential to building relevance, sustainability, and ownership. In addition, the results of conflict or disaster often create the need not only to retrain previously employed teachers, but also to make sure teachers hired to replace those who have been displaced or died have the proper skills. Engaging the community by working with government agencies, community-based organisations (CBOs), NGOs, and business leaders has been proven to support the reintegration of youth after conflict and crisis and the achievement of long-term stability. For the most part, capacity building in the community involves ensuring that the environments where youth come to learn are supportive and enabling, and that the content of what they are learning is relevant to their lives.

Teaching Well? Educational reconstruction efforts and support to teachers in post-war Liberia (Shriberg, Kirk, & Winthrop, 2007)

The aim of this research paper is to inform Liberian educational stakeholders and international policymakers of the significance of support for teachers in early reconstruction efforts by examining Liberian teacher well-being, including the lack of support for teachers as understood by teachers themselves, and to explore the consequences of this on the quality of education provided in Liberia's recent early reconstruction period. This case study of Liberia draws on eight months of field research with more than 700 teachers from nine counties. The study found that there is a reciprocal-synergistic relationship between perceived areas of well-being affected negatively and impact on quality of education (needs unmet; psychosocial well-being, corruption; pedagogy and content); teachers are coping with obstacles and committed to being teachers; teachers who worked in refugee education programmes are sharing their knowledge and skills with teachers today (at time of study) in important ways (lesson planning, pedagogy, classroom management). The following were also key findings in the paper:

- Teacher welfare is a concern among all teachers.
- Teacher survival and quality of education appeared to be impacted negatively by lack of attention and response to teacher welfare.
- Attention to protecting female teachers and students is critical.
- Corruption is seen as related to low resources/low salary.
- Teachers' psychosocial well-being is impacted (negatively) by low resources; particularly in relation to their ability or inability to provide for their family.

6 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adwan, S., & Bar-On, D. (2004). Shared history project: A prime example of peace-building under fire. International Journal of Politics, Culture, and Society. Vol 17(3), 513-521.

Berry, C. (2009). A Framework for Assessing the Effectiveness of the Delivery of Education Aid in Fragile States. Journal of Education for International Development. Vol 4(1), 1-12.

Betts, A. & Collier, P. (2017). Refuge: Transforming a Broken Refugee System. London: Penguin UK.

Burde, D. (2004). Weak State, Strong Community? Promoting Community Participation in Post-Conflict Countries. *Current Issues in Comparative Education. Vol 6*(2), 73-87.

Burde, D., & Linden, L. (2013). Bringing Education to Afghan Girls: A Randomized Controlled Trial of Village-Based Schools. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics. Vol 5*(3), 27-40.

Burde, D., Guven, O., Kelcey, J., Lahmann, H., & Al-Abbadi, K. (2015). What Works to Promote Children's Educational Access, Quality of Learning, and Wellbeing in Crisis-Affected Contexts. London: Department for International Development.

Bush, K., & Saltarelli, D. (2000). The two faces of education in ethnic conflict: Towards a peacebuilding education for children. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre.

Carlson, S. (2013). Using technology to deliver educational services to children and youth in environments affected by crisis and/or conflict. Washington DC: USAID.

Chatty, D., Ahmadzadeh, H., Çorabatır, M., Hashem, L., Al Husseini, J., & Wahby, S. (2014). Ensuring quality education for young refugees from Syria. Oxford University: Refugee Studies Centre.

Davidson, M., & Hobbs, J. (2013). Delivering reading intervention to the poorest children: The case of Liberia and EGRA-Plus, a primary grade reading assessment. *International Journal of Educational Development. Vol 33(1)*, 283-293.

DFID. (2015). Delivering quality education in protracted crises: A discussion paper. London: Department for International Development.

Emerson, A., Deyo, L., Shoaib, M., & Ahmed, J. (2010). Teacher peer learning groups: Contributing factors to cluster sustainability. *Journal of Education for International Development. Vol 38(4), 915-945.*

Fentiman, A. (2003). Somali distance education literacy programme-Macallinka Raddiya. Cambridge: International Research Foundation for Open Learning Michael Young Centre.

Garet, Garet, M., Porter, A., Desimone, L., Birman, B., & Yoon, K. (2001). What Makes Professional Development Effective? Results From a National Sample of Teachers. American Educational Research Journal.

GCPEA. (2014). Education Under Attack 2014. New York: Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack.

GCPEA. (2015). Summary Report of the Workshop on Promising Practices for Protecting Education from Attack and Schools from Military Use. New York: Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack.

Gillies, J., & Quijada, J. (2008). Opportunity to Learn: A high impact strategy for improving educational outcomes in developing countries. Washington DC: USAID.

Goldberg, T. (2014). Looking at their side of the conflict? Effects of single versus multiple perspective history teaching on Jewish and Arab adolescents' attitude to out-group narratives and in-group responsibility. *Intercultural Education. Vol. 25(6), 453-467.*

Goldberg, T., & Ron, Y. (2014). "Look, each side says something different": The impact of competing history teaching approaches on Jewish and Arab adolescents' discussions of the Jewish–Arab conflict. *Journal of Peace Education. Vol. 11(1), 1-29.*

Goyens, P., Porignon, D., Mugisho Soron'gane, E., Tonglet, R., Hennart, P., & Louis, H. (1996). Humanitarian Aid and Health Services in Eastern Kivu, Zaire: Collaboration or Competition? *Journal of Refugee Studies. Vol 9(3), 268-280.*

Hodgkin, M. (2007). Negotiating Change: Participatory Curriculum Design in Emergencies. *Current Issues in Comparative Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Vol. 9(2)*, 33-44.

Human Rights Watch. (2015). "Growing Up Without an Education" Barriers to Education for Syrian Refugee Children in Lebano*n.* New York: Human Rights Watch.

Husein, A.-H., Patrinos, H. A., Reyes, J., Kelcey, J., & Varela, A. D. (2016). Learning in the Face of Adversity: The UNRWA Education Program for Palestine Refugees. Washington DC: World Bank.

INEE. (2010). Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery. INEE.

INEE. (2015). Where it's needed most: Quality Professional Development for All Teachers. INEE.

Kirk, J., & Winthrop, R. (2006). Home-based Schooling: Access to Quality. Education for Afghan Girls. *Journal of Education for International Development. Vol 2(2), 1-9.*

Kirk, J., & Winthrop, R. (2007). Promoting Quality Education in Refugee Contexts: Supporting Teacher Development in northern Ethiopia. International Review of Education, Special Issue on Quality Education in Africa: Challenges & Prospects.

Landau, L., & Amit, R. (2014). Wither Policy? Southern African Perspectives on Understanding Law, 'Refugee' Policy and Protection. *Journal of Refugee Studies. Vol 27(4), 534-552.*

Mendenhall, M., Dryden-Peterson, S., Bartlett, L., Ndirangu, C., Imonje, R., Gakunga, D., Gichuhi, L., Nyagah, G., Okoth, U., & Tangelder, M. (2015). Quality education for refugees in Kenya: Pedagogy in Urban Nairobi and Kakuma Refugee Camp settings. *Journal on Education in Emergencies, 1(1)*, 92-130. 27

Mendenhall, M., Garnett Russell, S., & Buckner, E. (2016). Urban refugee education: strengthening policies and practices for access, quality, and inclusion. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mendenhall, M., Garnett Russell, S., Buckner, E. (2017). Urban Refugee Education: Guidelines and Practical Strategies for Strengthening Support to Improve Educational Quality for All. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Olenik, C., & Takyi-Laryea, A. (2013). State of the Field Report: Evidence in Youth Education in Crisis and Conflict. Washington DC: USAID

Ouana, A., & Glanz, C. (2011). Optimising learning, education and publishing in Africa: the language factor. UIL and ADEA

Pinnock,H. (2009) Steps Towards Learning: A guide to overcoming language barriers in children's education. London: Save the Children UK

Sesnan, B., Allemano, E., Ndugga, H., & Said, S. (2013). Educators in exile: The role and status of refugee teachers. *UK: Commonwealth Secretariat*

Shriberg, J., Kirk, J., & Winthrop, R. (2007). Teaching Well? Educational reconstruction efforts and support to teachers in post-war Liberia . New York: International Rescue Committee.

Tomlinson, K., & Benefield, P. (2005). Education and Conflict: Research and Research Possibilities. National Foundation for Educational Research.

UNESCO/IIEP. (2009). Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction. UNESCO/IIEP.

UNESCO. (2011) The hidden crisis: armed conflict and education. EFA Global Monitoring Report, UNESCO.

UNHCR. (2012). Education Strategy 2012-2016. UNHCR.

UNHCR. (2016). Missing out, Refugee Education in Crisis. UNHCR.

UNICEF. (2006). Defining Quality in Education. New York, USA: UNICEF: Working Paper Series.

Wolf, S., Torrente, P. F., Weisenhorn, N., Shivchanker, A., Annan, J., & Aber, L. (2015). Preliminary impacts of the "Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom" intervention on teacher well-being in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. *Teaching and Education. Vol. 52(28)*, 24-36.

World Bank. (2014). Learning in the face of adversity. The UNRWA education program for Palestine refugees. Washington DC: World Bank.

Zakharia, Z., & Bartlett, L. (2014). Literacy Education in Conflict and Crisis-Affected Contexts. Washington DC: USAID.