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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

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EVIDENCE BRIEF 1: POLITICAL SETTLEMENTS

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

The literature review showed that evidence on this theme emerged out of two main disciplines: 1) work by and for Education in Emergencies (EiE) practitioners - particularly with regard to coordination amongst stakeholders; and 2) academic publications on how to analyse and understand political settlements and their effects. The number of documents found for the former was quite limited. The review found that coordination mechanisms at global and country level are the same across hot conflict, protracted crises, or natural disaster contexts. Although there is a large body of literature on political settlements that comes from governance perspectives, most of these documents are highly academic and do not apply specifically to the education sector. Political settlement analysis can be applied to designing strategies for education in hot conflict, protracted crises, and natural disaster contexts. It is clear that there is currently no robust evidence that provides concrete examples of 'what works', with regard to building greater consensus. The strategies that the reviewed documents provide seem only to be more general starting points for thinking and analysis.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND DEFINITION

This Evidence Brief aims to summarise what is and is not known about building consensus and coordination amongst a variety of stakeholders within Education in Emergency (EiE) contexts. More specifically, through a review of current evidence, this Brief aims to answer the following question:

How can DFID build more consensus and coordination amongst all stakeholders surrounding immediate and long-term education delivery in political settlement contexts?

Given the complexity and variety of concepts within this research question, it would be prudent to clarify some terms before proceeding. With regard to **stakeholders,** we refer to host governments, multilateral agencies, bilateral agencies, international/local NGOs, and any other relevant humanitarian and/or development organisations working at the global and country level (a more specific list and discussion of these stakeholders is provided in section six). **Immediate and long-term education** refers to both the short-term provision that comes as a response to an emergency (usually involving humanitarian actors) and the long-term provision that is delivered through state structures and systems (usually involving development actors). This Brief aims to explore the mechanisms that facilitate consensus and coordination on these issues, in order to reduce the divide that currently exists. Finally, a **political settlement** is an informal understanding or agreement forged amongst political, social, or economic elites that can have varying effects on the governance and service delivery of state institutions. There are a variety of different types and analyses of political settlements, and these will be discussed further in section six, particularly with regard to how they affect education delivery in conflict settings, protracted refugee crises, and natural disasters.

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

There were no documents that addressed the research question in its entirety, most likely due to the multiple concepts contained within the question itself. Thus, it may be helpful to 'break down' the question into the general concepts/themes that are present, particularly since documents could only be found regarding these component parts. These main concepts/themes include:

1. Building general consensus and coordination in EiE contexts;
2. Bridging education humanitarian and development efforts;
3. Understanding and engaging with political settlements in general;
4. Engaging with political settlements regarding education.

The table below outlines these main themes (listed in the blue horizontal boxes) and maps out the documents related to them. The orange vertical boxes provide judgements on the value of the strategies provided in the documents, in which 'concrete strategies' based on practitioner experience were very specific and could provide direct guidance to readers. 'Broad strategies' were based a set of principles or applied theory and often lacked specifics on how to achieve the strategies suggested. 'Abstract strategies' were based on generally academic or conceptual discussions of a topic and provided overarching strategies that seemed quite difficult to apply in a practical manner.

	Building consensus and coordination amongst stakeholders in EiE contexts	**Bridging humanitarian and development education efforts in EiE contexts**	**Understanding and engaging with political settlements in general**	**Engaging with political settlements regarding education provision**
'Concrete strategies' based on practitioner experience	'Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook' (Global Education Cluster, 2010)			
'Broad strategies' based on a set of principles or applied theory	'Principles for international engagement in fragile states and situations' (OECD, 2007) 'Coordinating education during emergencies and reconstruction: challenges and responsibilities' (Sommers, 2004)		'Building Peaceful States and Societies: A DFID Practice Paper' (DFID, 2010) 'Thinking and working with political settlements' (Kelsall, 2016)	'How does political context shape education reforms and their success?' (Wales, Magee, & Nicolai, 2016) 'Political settlements and pathways to universal health coverage' (Kelsall, Hart, & Laws, 2016) 'The Political Economy of Education and Health Service Delivery in Afghanistan' (AREU, 2016)
'Abstract strategies' based on a conceptual discussion of a topic	'Education Cannot Wait: Proposing a fund for education in emergencies (ODI, 2016)	'Education Cannot Wait: Proposing a fund for education in	'A review of the evidence informing DFID's "Building Peaceful States	'The politics of what works in service delivery: An evidence-based

	Frequently asked questions and fact sheet on Education Cannot Wait (Education Cannot Wait, 2017)	emergencies ' (ODI, 2016)	and Societies" practice paper' (Evans, 2012)	review' (Batley & Mcloughlin, 2012) 'Researching the politics of service provision: A new conceptual and methodological approach' (ESID, 2014) 'The Political Economy of Education Systems in Conflict-Affected Contexts' (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This section aims to thread together the salient findings and lessons learnt from the reviewed documents in order to answer the research question in its entirety. It will start with a discussion of the main EiE consensus and coordination structures at both the global and country levels. Although the literature does not provide concrete strategies for bridging EiE humanitarian and development efforts, we will extrapolate some ideas for this that come from a discussion of how emergency education clusters interface with longer-term education working groups. There will then be a discussion of strategies for building consensus and coordination with governmental education actors, particularly with regard to political settlements.

2.1 CONSENSUS AND COORDINATION STRUCTURES AT THE GLOBAL LEVEL

There is one predominant structure at the global level that aims to build consensus and coordination for issues surrounding education in emergencies. This is the Global Education Cluster, comprised of representatives from predominantly humanitarian agencies directly or indirectly involved in the delivery of emergency education services or the development of technical policies and guidance. It was established to ensure system-wide preparedness and technical capacity to respond to emergencies, and to ensure greater predictability and more effective inter-agency responses in education. The Global Education Cluster has eight objectives in total, but its first three are most pertinent with regard to gaining consensus and coordination amongst stakeholders[1]:

Promote increased levels of understanding of the key role of education as part of a first-phase humanitarian response to all major new emergencies, subsequent phases of response, and early recovery.

[1] (Global Education Cluster, 2010, p. 26)

Promote and improve on internationally recognised standards of good practice in education responses to emergencies and early recovery (including attention to priority cross-cutting issues for the education sector), and coordinate and disseminate lessons learned within and between emergency responses.

Coordinate cluster partners in providing a rapid and effective holistic response to education-related needs of children and young people resulting from major emergencies as they arise, in collaboration with the relevant national and local authorities.

Although the Global Education Cluster and its related Education Cluster Working Group were established to create structures for building consensus/coordination for EiE, this has not precluded a number of agencies contributing separately to advocacy, policy and funding on their own, such as UNHCR, the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), GPE and UNESCO. In addition to this, the Global Education Cluster focuses mainly on immediate humanitarian education response, meaning that development agencies focusing on longer-term education provision have not been deeply involved. Thus, it has been argued that with such a myriad of actors and aims, significant gaps have appeared across and between existing coordination mechanisms. This has prompted the recent development of a new EiE platform entitled *Education Cannot Wait* (ECW), which was launched in 2016 and aims to bring together and support humanitarian and development actors to deliver a more ambitious, integrated education response in emergency contexts.

Developed in consultation with a wide range of relevant organisations and agencies, the Education Cannot Wait platform seeks to generate greater shared political, operational, and financial commitment for existing and new donors, philanthropists, and private sector actors. Its five core functions include:

1. **Inspire political commitment** so that education is viewed by both governments and funders as a top priority during crises.
2. **Plan and respond collaboratively**, with a particular emphasis on enabling humanitarian and development actors to work together on shared objectives.
3. **Generate and disburse additional funding** to close the $8.5 billion funding gap needed to reach 75 million children and youth.
4. **Strengthen capacity to respond to crises**, nationally and globally, including the ability to coordinate emergency support.
5. **Improve accountability** by developing and sharing knowledge, including collection of more robust data, in order to make better-informed investment decisions, and knowledge of what works and does not.

It is clear that ECW has made a good start on achieving its first and third aims, as ECW has gained high level commitment from a number of aid organisations and donors (of which DFID is one, with a commitment of £30 million[2]). However, there is little discussion or evidence of how it will achieve its other aims of collaboration, strengthening capacity and accountability. At this early stage, ECW appears only to be a very large challenge fund, providing I/NGOs and international agencies with two funding mechanisms to apply for: a 'Breakthrough Fund' for programmes aiming to support countries where emergencies and protracted crises have disrupted education and learning and have targeted programmes to improve delivery of education and learning; and an 'Acceleration Facility' for global or regional programmes designed to increase the scale, efficiency, and effectiveness of existing humanitarian and development initiatives including evidence, policy, and delivery[3].

[2] https://www.gov.uk/government/news/first-countries-set-to-benefit-from-funding-to-ensure-children-get-an-education-in-times-of-crisis

[3] In 2017, grants have been disbursed to projects in Chad, Syria, Yemen and Ethiopia

Although ECW has so far proven to be a good mechanism for gaining consensus in the form of a global basket fund for EiE, this platform seems far removed from the consensus and coordination that a DFID adviser may be seeking at country level. Thus, the next section discusses mechanisms for this and how they may potentially be used to bridge the humanitarian and development divide.

2.2 CONSENSUS AND COORDINATION STRUCTURES AT THE COUNTRY LEVEL

Depending on context, there are several structures that can be used to build EiE consensus and coordination at the country level. These include[4]:

1. **Government-led Education Working Groups**: typically led by the Ministry of Education, these working groups exist prior to a crisis and have a broader mandate for coordinating development aid and support to the sector.
2. **Education clusters** are active in emergencies and coordinate the EiE response by actors in-country. The UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) and Save the Children are global co-leads and often take on this role at country level.
3. **Refugee education coordination mechanisms** coordinate refugee operations under the mandate of UNHCR, given the particular international protection requirements for refugees.
4. **Education in emergencies working groups** are active in both emergencies and protracted crises where neither the relevant Education Cluster or refugee education coordination mechanisms have a mandate to operate. These might be led by the government or by another agency that volunteers to coordinate.
5. **Local education groups (LEGs)** coordinate education in development situations and can also address protracted crises needs. They are typically led by the government and supported by UNESCO, donors, or other organisations in areas such as crisis-sensitive education, sector analysis, planning, and capacity development.

As discussed, coordination structures within a country will vary: however, all of the above groups, especially Education Clusters, will generally be comprised of stakeholders who are seen as critical to an effective education sector response to an emergency. These stakeholders often include:

1. Principal national and subnational government partners, including disaster management bodies
2. Existing sector working groups, UN agencies and NGOs with established presence in-country
3. Donors with an expressed interest or tradition in supporting education in emergencies
4. UN agencies and NGOs with reliable access to financial, human, and material resources without dependence on pooled funding
5. UN agencies, NGOs, national and local organisations with proven experience in the sub-sectors of education that are crucial to an effective response
6. Other clusters and cross-cutting issues thematic working groups whose activities will complement or potentially overlap with education

A range of other stakeholders within and outside the education sector may also strengthen preparedness, response, and recovery activities. They are often included in Education Clusters and include:

1. Traditional authorities, elders, and religious leaders
2. Academic and research-based institutions
3. Civil society and professional associations (such as teachers' unions)

[4] (Nicolai, Hine, & Wales, 2015)

4. Faith-based organisations
5. Police and customs agencies
6. Media organisations

The presence of multiple and diverse partners within a working group or cluster means that a variety perspectives and power dynamics abound. The Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook[5] outlines several common-sense strategies for gaining consensus and maintaining relationships amongst such a diverse set of stakeholders. The Handbook states[6]:

1. Without the opportunity to express concerns and influence the cluster, partners will lose interest. Offer meaningful opportunities for involvement and feedback, e.g. through working groups, information, and data-sharing, etc.
2. Cluster partners may resent continued decision-making 'on their behalf'. Devolve cluster decision-making where possible, e.g. rotate the Cluster chair, rotate involvement in advisory or working groups, rotate venue so that all partners have the opportunity to host, avoid creating a cluster 'elite'.
3. Regularly ask for, and respond to, feedback, and acknowledge the contributions – big and small – of all cluster partners. Consider periodic surveys to assess partner satisfaction.
4. Cluster partners will already have multiple and diverse demands for information: keep information demands to a minimum.
5. Ensure that information provided by partners is clearly used in reports, situation reports, and in the 3W matrix.
6. Providing interpreting and translated materials, accessible information, and consultation forums at local level will be crucial to enabling the ongoing participation of local cluster partners.
7. Meeting partners individually, preferably at their offices, can be very effective in creating a strong relationship, overcoming misconceptions and the unequal power dynamic that often exists in large meetings, where smaller agencies can find it difficult to contribute.

Although these strategies have not been researched or tested for their 'effectiveness', they have been drawn from seasoned practitioner experience and provide practical strategies that would likely facilitate consensus and coordination amongst all stakeholders. The Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook also discusses different ways in which the Cluster can interface with the Ministry of Education Sector Working Group, and although it does not explicitly discuss how this interface could be used to bridge the gap between humanitarian and development actors, the following section extrapolates based upon this possibility.

2.3 BRINGING HUMANITARIAN AND DEVELOPMENT AGENDAS TOGETHER ON LONG-TERM EDUCATION DELIVERY

As discussed, Education Clusters are the predominant coordination mechanism for EiE and are generally initiated through a humanitarian response to an emergency; thus, issues of immediate education delivery (as opposed to longer-term, systemic delivery) are usually most prominent. However, the Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook does discuss two ways in which the Education Cluster can and should interface with the Ministry of Education Sector Working Group (if the MoE is indeed functional), which traditionally deals with issues surrounding long-term education delivery. Thus, it would appear that the interface between these two

[5] The Handbook is a rich resource that provides details on all aspects of implementing and running an Education Cluster

[6] Although these strategies are specifically designed for the Cluster Coordinator, it would seem to be good practice for all major stakeholders in the Cluster to also use these strategies in order to mitigate tensions and unequal power dynamics.

structures would also allow for the bridging of humanitarian and development efforts, as well as building consensus on both immediate and long-term education delivery. The two models the Handbook discusses include:

1. **Cluster as a sub-group of education sector working group**: During the onset of an emergency, the Education Cluster can be initiated as a sub-group of the education sector working group and would have limited interaction with the working group at its onset. However, over time the level of interaction should steadily increase until all cluster functions are ultimately mainstreamed within the working group. For example, contingency planning and disaster preparedness should be mainstreamed into the education sector working group particularly after emergency and recovery efforts, thus ensuring sustainability and the inclusion of elements of education in emergencies in medium- to longer-term education sector planning.

   Unfortunately, the Handbook does not give any examples or case studies for this model, thus remaining highly abstract: however, in principle, it would seem that education sector working group members (such as DFID advisers) would have the opportunity to interface with (and participate in) the Education Cluster sub-group, in order to allow for the bridging of humanitarian and development education agendas.

2. **Cluster as separate but intersecting with the education sector working group:** In cases where the government is considered to be taking sides or complicit in a conflict, an Education Cluster may start as a separate entity in order to maintain its neutrality and purpose. If the Ministry's Education Sector Working Group is still functioning, the cluster and working group will likely have separate roles yet overlap in key areas, which means that interaction between the two structures might include information exchange, and asking members of the working group to attend and participate in cluster meetings, planning and action (and vice versa).

   Again, the Handbook does not give any examples or case studies of this model, leaving descriptions highly abstract and theoretical. The Handbook does emphasise that ideally, coordination of the education sector response should be a collaborative activity led by government (if possible) with support from the cluster. In practice however, this will depend on the emergency context and the capacity and willingness of government education authorities to lead or participate in education in emergencies activities. In many emergency contexts, both government infrastructure and staffing capacity may be severely compromised, and the degree of collaboration will come down to personal relations, both internally and externally.

This is the extent to which the Handbook discusses working with governments, offering a departure point for an exploration of the political settlement literature and the strategies it offers for understanding more thoroughly the informal power relationships (both internal and external to government) that affect education delivery in an EiE context.

2.4 WORKING WITH NATIONAL AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES IN POLITICAL SETTLEMENTS

Political settlements generally occur in lower- to middle-income countries where transparency surrounding the actors and functions of state institutions is often opaque. As discussed in the introduction, a political settlement is an informal understanding or agreement forged amongst political, social, or economic elites that can have varying effects on the governance and service delivery of state institutions. More specifically, DFID produced a practice paper that defined political settlements in the following terms:

> Political settlements are the expression of a common understanding, usually forged between elites, about how power is organised and exercised. They include formal institutions for managing political and economic relations, such as electoral processes, peace agreements, parliaments, constitutions

> and market regulations. But they also include informal, often unarticulated agreements that underpin a political system, such as deals between elites on the division of spoils[7].

This definition would imply that it is the political settlements that are instrumental in shaping developmental trajectories. Thus, political settlement analysis (PSA) is essential for understanding how power is organised in a particular context, as this can help shape effective development interventions, assess the potential impact of those interventions and to avoid doing harm[8]. More specifically, an ODI think piece on political settlements and education entitled 'How does political context shape education reforms and their success?' states:

> Firstly, that the application of political settlements analysis can help to explain patterns of progress in education access and quality, and to identify the political incentives underlying them. Education systems therefore need to be understood and researched in the light of their political context, rather than in isolation from it. Secondly, it demonstrates that there are benefits from tailoring donor and international agency approaches to education programming to the context of the political settlement in question[9].

The political settlement analysis literature has generated a number of typologies of political settlements[10], as well as theories that link different political settlement types to levels of political will, state capability, the success or failure of various policy initiatives and, ultimately, development outcomes. To date, most PSA work has taken the form of small comparative case study analysis, in which cases are selected to provide examples of the different types of political settlements and contextualise and explain their development outcomes. The aim for this is to allow policy-makers to extrapolate from what has worked well in countries with a similar political settlement type to their own, and apply lessons learnt. While the complexity of any political settlement makes generalisation and extrapolation difficult, PSA can at least provide policy makers a good starting point.

In order for DFID advisers to gain a better understanding of the political settlement in their context, there should be an analysis of the three main characteristics that are associated with political settlements[11]. These include:

1. **Degree of inclusion** – With regard to education, this would entail whether a minority of elites control the education system or if there is scope for more stakeholders' voice and participation (such as unions, parents, CSOs, etc) to be included.
2. **Aims/motivation of those in power** – This entails whether elites are motivated by spoils or a share of them (such as resources, ministerial positions, urban teaching posts, etc.) or are whether they are coordinated around a common aim, such as national development or the right to education.
3. **Type of bureaucracy/governance** – This focuses on the norms that shape the behaviours and relationships of those in power, which at one end could entail nepotism and meritocracy at the other.

The previously discussed ODI think piece attempts to contextualise some of these characteristics, and outlines three broad types of political settlements, two of which represent the ends of a spectrum and the third representing the vast majority in between. These three types include:

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[7] (DFID, 2010)

[8] PSA is closely related to a political economy analysis, but is more centrally concerned with understanding the formal and informal power relationships between elites, and between elites and their respective groups of followers. Where existing political economy approaches have tended to focus either on long-term structural drivers or the political dynamics of policy adoption, PSA approaches provide something that is complementary, yet slightly different.

[9] (Wales, Magee, & Nicolai, 2016)

[10] See: (Levy & Walton, 2013) (ESID, 2014) (DFID, 2010)

[11] (Kelsall, 2016)

1. **Development state:** In which the most important elites have been included and the state is both stable and free of political violence. The political settlement (and MoE by extension) is inclusive of all parties/stakeholders (including civil society). With this type of political stability, elites that can commit to long-term goals and a rules-based bureaucracy should lead to effective policy-making and provision of public goods. Examples include China, Ethiopia, and Rwanda.

   Implications for education service provision: Donors can work from a 'government-supporting role' and can help strengthen education service delivery through interventions and initiatives to improve its supply (such as training on new pedagogies, strengthening policy/institutions, etc.) and/or through interventions to strengthen information sharing and stakeholder involvement in order improve community demand. However, the potential for mobilising stakeholders can be constrained by political concerns over loss of social control. Generally, in stable development states, education sector working groups should be firmly embedded within MoEs, and thus Education Clusters that may be initiated due to an emergency will likely be formed as a sub-group with a view to eventual mainstreaming into the working group.

2. **Predatory settlement:** In which a small minority of elites are included in this political settlement (which is usually autocratic and controlled by one-party), leading to a constant danger of conflict and instability that can collapse the state into conflict. Such a settlement is characterised by corruption-driven elites and a bureaucracy with ubiquitous patron-client relations. This combination of instability, short-sighted elites, and corruption means that these settlements are unlikely to achieve developmental gains or adequately provide public goods. Examples include the Democratic Republic of Congo.

   Implications for education service provision: In general, little can be done and donors often take a 'government-substituting role' leading to the delivery of education that the state system and actors are unable to provide. Generally, in unstable predatory settlements, MoEs and/or education sector working groups may not exist and thus Education Clusters will likely be formed as its own entity.

3. **Hybrid settlement:** In which a broad range of the most powerful elites are included. Political contestation is largely peaceful, but some elites are excluded and actors may be willing to use political violence as a result. Corruption and patron-client relations exist, but the degree varies depending on context. Developmental gains are possible in these settlements, but the potential varies across sectors, particularly the MoE. Examples include Bangladesh, Indonesia, Kenya, Uganda, and Nigeria.

   Implications for education service provision: Donors can work from a 'government-connecting role' in which the multi-stakeholder governance provides a structured way of thinking about how change can be effected – through external stakeholder mobilisation, political connectivity, and links to internal organisational stakeholders. If elitism is prevalent, it is more difficult to get broad education service delivery in the absence of larger democratic changes that make poorer groups important for elites. Generally, in hybrid settlement states, education sector working groups are established within MoEs and thus Education Clusters that may be initiated due to an emergency, will likely be formed as a sub-group: however, the extent of collaboration by government authorities will vary.

Political settlements can also exist at different levels of the polity (state, province, cities, villages, and so on). It is thus conceivable that at the level of central government, there might be a stable and inclusive developmental state, whilst unstable and fragile settlements co-exist at the regional and/or local levels. Afghanistan is an example where the diversity and heterogeneity of its elites and their interests has prompted the elucidation of three additional levels of political settlements that can occur in a state[12]:

[12] (AREU, 2016)

1. **Primary settlement**: in reference to the agreement/settlement amongst elite actors in central government and MoE
2. **Secondary settlement:** defined as the arrangements among powerful local elites to control political competition and governance below the national level
3. **Sectoral elite bargains:** denoting the specific strategic interactions of actors and their interests within the specific education sector

It is important to note that education actors, whether in government, civil society, or the development community, have little to no influence over the political settlement (whether it is at the primary, secondary or sectoral level), at least in the short term. However, knowing how the political settlement affects political commitment to education should help actors design strategies that result in policy pathways, funding solutions and governance arrangements that not only complement each other but also either build on the strengths of the political settlement or help mitigate some of its weaknesses. Although no documents provide an example or case study of an actual political settlement analysis, the Effective States and Inclusive Development (ESID) research group provide some key elements to consider[13]:

1. 'Unit of analysis': the more narrowly specified the better;
2. A common focus on performance in provision of the service;
3. An exploration of the sectoral manifestation of the political settlement;
4. A diagnosis of the drivers of organisational behaviour;
5. An assessment of the exercise of citizenship;
6. The implications for policy.

Although this ESID document states that a key strength of this analytical approach is that policy lessons will derive directly from this political and organisational analysis, there are no concrete examples of this, which leaves this guidance at a very conceptual and hypothetical level.

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

Although there were some thoughtful strategies found within the documents reviewed, it is worth noting the gaps and limitations that were still present:

1. **Political settlement evidence does not discuss refugee crises or natural disasters**: Many of these documents did discuss political tensions that may be the cause of hot conflict. However, there was no discussion about refugees who may have crossed borders into a political settlement or on how political settlements interface with natural disasters.
2. **There are no concrete strategies on engaging with political settlements:** Although political settlement analysis tools are provided in some documents, there is no clear-cut description of how to engage with a political settlement once its characteristics are determined. Only one EiE Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook provides concrete strategies for building consensus/coordination amongst stakeholders: however, it does not provide strategies with regard to incorporating a political settlement analysis.
3. **There are no concrete strategies on engaging with global consensus mechanisms:** Although there are strategies for building consensus with stakeholders at the country level, there is a dearth of

[13] (ESID, 2014)

concrete guidelines on how to engage with global level structures, such as the Global Education Cluster or the Education Cannot Wait platform.

4. **Evidence from contexts of DFID interest:** Regarding this research question, there are some DFID focus countries that are discussed as case studies (Afghanistan, Lebanon, South Sudan, Ethiopia), however, there remain gaps regarding other locations, such as Syria, Jordan, Turkey and Somalia, amongst others.
5. **Evidence that is research based on 'what works':** As discussed, there are no empirical research studies on what works to build consensus in EiE or political settlement contexts.
6. **Evidence on bridging humanitarian and development efforts:** There were several acknowledgements of the fact that there is a divide between humanitarian and development actors in education (and in general), but there was no evidence or concrete discussion on exactly how to bridge this gap.

Some of these gaps will be filled by the lessons learnt and guidance gleaned through interviews with DFID advisers who have worked/are working in EiE contexts.

4 CONCLUSION

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

How can DFID build more consensus and coordination amongst all stakeholders surrounding immediate and long-term education delivery in political settlement contexts?

Evidence reviewed regarding building general consensus and coordination in EiE contexts found that at global level, the Global Education Cluster has been the main structure for immediate coordination of humanitarian education response. However, in 2016 the Education Cannot Wait (ECW) fund was launched, which aims to bring together humanitarian and development actors to deliver a more joined-up response in emergency contexts. At this early stage, no evidence is available yet about the Fund's effectiveness. At country level, Education Clusters and various Education Technical Working Groups are used for coordination between government partners, UN agencies, (I)NGOs, CSOs and donors. The Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook provides details on how to run an Education Cluster.

The review found that the Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook also discusses ways for the Education Cluster to interface with Sector Working Groups within Ministries of Education, that typically have a longer-term focus. This interface provides an entry point for bridging education humanitarian and development efforts at country level. The Cluster can function as a sub-group or as a separate structure to the Sector Working Group.

Understanding and engaging with political settlements in general should be based on an analysis of its three main characteristics: degree of inclusion; aims of those in power; and type of governance. The evidence found three types of political settlements, the Development State, a Predatory Settlement, and a Hybrid Settlement. In most cases, education actors have little influence over the political settlement in the short term. However, political settlement analysis is relevant to education as it enables the design of education strategies that build on the strengths of the settlement and mitigate some of its weaknesses.

It is clear that there is no robust evidence that provides concrete examples of 'what works' with regard to this Brief's research question. The evidence that does exist consists of:

1. High-level descriptive documents that discuss global EiE consensus/coordination structures (such as the Global Education Cluster and the Education Cannot Wait platform), but do not provide any concrete strategies for how stakeholders at this level might gain consensus on long-term education delivery, particularly with regard to political settlements.
2. A very practical Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook that describes how to build consensus and coordination for EiE at the country level, but not specifically surrounding long-term education delivery or political settlements.
3. Very academic documents that discuss the general concept of political settlements and political settlement analysis; and more practical versions of these that attempt to apply political settlement analysis to the education or health sector.

This latter group of documents has attempted to provide broad strategies regarding what type of role donors could play (i.e. supporting the government, replacing the government, or connecting the government), but these suggestions do not seem to provide any concrete guidance or ways forward.

Thus, the strategies that the reviewed documents provide seem only to be general starting points for thinking and analysis. Interviews with DFID advisers and other key informants may yield more concrete strategies, particularly with regard to:

1. How to bridge the humanitarian/development divide, particularly regarding long-term, system-led education provision.
2. Validation of whether the interface of EiE Education Clusters with Education Sector Working Groups is one way to do this.
3. Specific pitfalls, challenges, lessons learnt for engaging with different types of political settlements.

5 ANNEX 1 – 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.

5.1 CONSENSUS AND COORDINATION DOCUMENTS

Education Cluster Coordinator Handbook (Global Education Cluster, 2010)

The purpose of this Handbook is to provide Education Cluster Coordinators with supporting information to guide their role in facilitating a predictable, coordinated, and effective response to education needs in emergencies. It highlights the overarching principles and standards applicable to education in emergencies and suggests how the coordinated and collaborative efforts of cluster partners, in partnership with government, can contribute to an effective and efficient education sector response. Intended for use as a reference rather than a narrative, the handbook provides guidance, tips, and practical tools and resources, and reinforces information provided as part of the Education Cluster Coordinator training. It draws on Global Education Cluster, Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), and other policy documents and good practice, including lessons learnt from operationalising the Education Cluster at country level. Designed for application in different emergency and country contexts, the handbook includes information, guidance, and resources relevant to rapid-onset, conflict-related, and complex emergencies. However, it does not address all the issues that may be specific to different contexts.

Coordinating education during emergencies and reconstruction: challenges and responsibilities (Sommers, 2004)

This book predates the launch of the ECW fund, and explores why the coordination of humanitarian and post-conflict reconstruction activities is so difficult to accomplish in the education sector. It also suggests ways to overcome barriers to effective co-ordination. The book reviews the roles and responsibilities that key actors hold in the coordination of education during emergencies. It considers the associated barriers to coordination that arise from the differing roles and viewpoints of different actors (for example NGOs, UN, civil society, and local and national governments). Poor coordination is strongly linked to issues of power, mistrust, competition for resources, a limited understanding of accountability, insufficient time, and mismatched priorities. The book examines humanitarian co-ordination structures and the problem of the education sector remaining on the side-lines of such activity. It advocates for the establishment of education as a featured component of humanitarian work, and demonstrates that responsibility for the co-ordination of the education sector is often shared amongst many parties. The book proposes, as a way forward, that there is need for better clarification of roles and stronger leadership. Government education authorities are best placed as leaders and they can achieve this effectively through development of emergency educational priorities and plans. The book also suggests that since education is a long-term endeavour it is best coordinated as one; thus, the time horizon should be expanded and associated cost that should be budgeted just like any other activity.

Principles for good International engagement in fragile states & situations (OECD, 2007)

These principles aim to complement the partnership commitments set out in the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. They are designed to support existing dialogue and coordination processes, not to generate new ones. As experience deepens, the Principles will be reviewed periodically and adjusted as necessary. The long-term vision for international engagement in fragile states is to help national reformers to build effective, legitimate, and resilient state institutions, capable of engaging productively with their people to promote sustained development. Realisation of this objective requires taking account of, and acting according to, the following principles:

1. Take context as the starting point;
2. Do no harm;
3. Focus on state-building as the central objective;
4. Prioritise prevention;
5. Recognise the links between political, security and development objectives;
6. Promote non-discrimination as a basis for inclusive and stable societies;
7. Align with local priorities in different ways in different contexts;
8. Agree on practical coordination mechanisms between international actors;
9. Act fast but stay engaged long enough to give success a chance;
10. Avoid pockets of exclusion.

Education Cannot Wait - Proposing a fund for education in emergencies (ODI, 2016)

This paper outlines the potential operation of Education Cannot Wait, a fund designed to transform the global education sector for children affected by crises. It is about taking decisive action on behalf of children and young people in emergencies and protracted crises. It addresses one of the greatest development challenges of our day; that of restoring the hope and futures of new generations whose lives have been shattered by crises. The Education Cannot Wait proposal is framed to deliver early, cost-effective results while building for the future. Rather than create a new institution and more fragmentation, it harnesses and weaves together the expertise, energy and capabilities of a range of actors. The two financing mechanisms – an Acceleration Facility and a Breakthrough Fund – provide clear added value. They will enable agencies to do more of what they currently do well, while mobilising and disbursing new funds and leveraging additional support. The flexibility built into the proposal will enable financing to be calibrated against the needs and circumstances of individual countries.

Education Cannot Wait - Frequently Asked Questions (Education Cannot Wait, 2017)

An informative fact sheet found on the Education Cannot Wait website that provides concise answers to questions regarding why the fund exists, where the funds will come from, how ECW differs to and overlaps with GPE, how ECW is governed, how it will report on results, working modalities, funding windows, etc.

5.2 POLITICAL SETTLEMENTS DOCUMENTS

Building Peaceful States and Societies: A DFID Practice Paper (DFID, 2010)

A step change in international approaches is required. There remains a tendency to work 'around' conflict and fragility and focus on traditional development activities. Our engagement in these states must be targeted towards a set of objectives that address the causes and effects of conflict and fragility head-on. In conflict-affected and fragile countries, state-building and peace-building objectives are the necessary building blocks towards achieving poverty reduction and the MDGs. This paper sets out an integrated approach that puts building peaceful states and societies at the centre of our efforts in fragile and conflict-affected countries. Drawing on evidence, it brings state-building and peace-building together into a single framework, and is based on four closely linked objectives:

1. Address the causes and effects of conflict and fragility, and build conflict resolution mechanisms;
2. Support inclusive political settlements and processes;
3. Develop core state functions;
4. Respond to public expectations.

This approach is intended to increase the impact of international assistance in fragile countries, and should be used to prioritise interventions rigorously. It will help ensure that state-building and peace-building initiatives are complementary, provide greater policy and operational coherence, and increase synergies between the development, diplomatic and defence communities.

A review of the evidence informing DFID's "Building Peaceful States and Societies" practice paper (Evans, 2012)

This paper is one of four exploring and analysing the evidence that underpins DFID's 2010 "Building Peaceful States & Societies" Practice Paper, referred to hereafter as the 'PB/SB (Peace-Building/State-Building) framework'. Taking each of the PB/SB framework's four guiding objectives, it appraises and synthesises the cited research evidence in that framework to offer guidance on the degree to which the core concepts and propositions are 'evidence based'. This study offers the following key findings:

1. The PB/SB framework's consideration of elites, and their criticality to the political settlement, is based on a substantial body of persuasive research.
2. A combination of conceptual research and empirical evidence seems to support the claim that peacebuilding and state-building is underpinned by the formation of inclusive political settlements, where the political settlement refers to the elite bargains at its heart.
3. The evidence relating to the ability of non-elites (i.e. wider society) to shape the political settlement is typically more empirical, but also more mixed. Based on the research surveyed, non-elites' capacity to change political settlements is uncertain.
4. The PB/SB fails to adequately consider the historical process of institutional change in its treatment of political settlements. Greater understanding of this process is required in order to appreciate why wider society's inclusion in the political settlement is often so difficult to achieve.
5. Whilst this study suggests that many of the core components of the PB/SB framework are based on research findings, the framework is generally inadequately supported by footnotes and references demonstrating exactly which research evidence underpins particular concepts.

The Concept of Political Settlement in Development Policy, and Why it's Useful (Ingram, 2014)

This is a two-page summary that aims to provide clarity on the concept of political settlements and why political settlement analyses are important. The adoption of political settlement as a framing concept highlights the quintessentially political character of state building and development more broadly.

The Political Economy of Education Systems in Conflict-Affected Contexts (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)

This report is a rigorous literature review on the political economy of education systems in conflict-affected contexts and is aimed at education advisers and agencies, development practitioners, and Ministry of Education policy makers working in conflict-affected contexts. The report seeks to provide theoretically informed and policy relevant insights on the global, national, and local governance of education systems in conflict-affected contexts garnered from a rigorous review of the academic and policy literature on the political economy of education in conflict-affected contexts. The report points to 10 key policy challenges that emerged out of the review and require careful attention:

1. The global security/peacebuilding agenda marginalises or undermines the potential of education to contribute to sustainable peacebuilding.
2. There is a disconnect between peacebuilding and conflict practitioners and education specialists: both groups lack knowledge of each other's fields, leading to silo approaches and missed opportunities.
3. There is a disconnect between actors in the humanitarian, development, and security sectors, all of which have different approaches to the role of education.
4. There is a disjunction between a global educational agenda influenced by access/quality/efficiency and the peacebuilding needs of conflict-affected societies, e.g. addressing inequity, social cohesion, and economic and political exclusion.
5. The framing of educational interventions in narrowly educationist technical terms that bypass the cultural, political, religious, and social contexts of implementation can undermine effectiveness in achieving sustainable peacebuilding aims, and may jeopardise the capacity of education to contribute to peacebuilding.
6. Lack of cross-sector collaboration between the education departments within government and other agencies prevents leveraging change on key cross-cutting issues linked to peacebuilding.
7. Inattention to the agency and voices of national/local actors undermines the possibility of sustainable outcomes and of addressing conflict-related social justice issues.
8. Imbalances of power between global, national, and local actors undermine the potential for local ownership of interventions and therefore opportunities for sustainable peacebuilding.
9. A disjuncture between different types of political economy analysis results in different evaluations of the significance of global and local actors, and local political and cultural contexts.
10. The complexity of factors influencing the success of educational interventions revealed by political economy analysis is difficult for practitioners to address and to use to inform policies and programming. However, failure to do so is likely to undermine technical solutions.

Thinking and working with political settlements (Kelsall, 2016)

This note aims to give some advice to development practitioners, especially those working in-country, on how to use Political Settlements Analysis (PSA) as a diagnostic tool for country programming. In recent years, Political Settlements Analysis (PSA) has become increasingly influential in academic and policy circles, though despite its intuitive appeal, it seems difficult to use in practice. PSA has a natural affinity with Adaptive Development, Thinking and Working Politically, and Doing Development Differently approaches, and by answering the simple diagnostic questions supplied here, development partners can identify the types of political settlements in which they work, and draw some broad operational implications.

How does political context shape education reforms and their success? Lessons from the Development Progress project (Wales, Magee, & Nicolai, 2016)

This report addresses this gap by drawing on evidence from eight education-focused country case studies conducted by ODI's Development Progress project and applying PSA to explore how political context can shape opportunities and barriers for achieving progress in education access and learning outcomes. It gives an introduction to political settlements theory and presents a basic model for applying it to education. It then classifies the case study countries into three broad groups (developmental, mixed hybrid and spoils-driven hybrid) and explores the common features and differences in their progress stories. This report concludes that immediate priorities for the future must include a movement from theory into practice and outlines a series of potential entry points for reform in different types of political settlements. The emerging strategies are not definitive, but provide a set of ideas for donors and international agencies to test and experiment with as they work to improve education systems.

Political settlements and pathways to universal health coverage (Kelsall, Hart, & Laws, 2016)

With the recent ratification of Sustainable Development Goal Target 3.8, universal health coverage (UHC) has consolidated its position atop the global public health agenda. However, as a growing body of technical and political analysis reveals, uncertainties remain over the ability of all countries to achieve UHC, and the pathways they should take to get there. This paper reviews some of the existing political economy analysis (PEA) of UHC, before presenting political settlements analysis (PSA) as an alternative, yet complementary, approach. It outlines a model that links political settlement type to UHC progress via political commitment, policy pathways, funding, and governance arrangements, and provides some hypotheses about how fast progress to UHC will be under different political settlement types. It also argues that UHC champions should adapt their ways of working to fit the political settlement, distinguishing between 'government-supporting', 'government-substituting', and 'government-connecting' strategies. It then presents case study evidence from six low- and lower-middle-income countries to help assess these claims. It concludes that, while the evidence of a relationship between political settlement and UHC progress is quite strong, the hypothesis about political settlement type and ways of working requires further research.

The Political Economy of Education and Health Service Delivery in Afghanistan (AREU, 2016)

This report tests the proposition that the character of political settlements at various levels (primary, secondary, and sectoral) may help explain the different delivery outcomes in education and health in Afghanistan's Badghis, Wardak, and Balkh provinces, in particular whether political settlements influenced: a) Badghis' poor access to health services; b) Wardak's performance in immunisation and birth care; c) Wardak's low female enrolment rates and declining attendance rates in schools; and d) Balkh's comparatively modest performance in health delivery. Extensive desk reviews that included existing literature and reports, as well as qualitative field research, were the basis of the key findings of the study. The first finding of the study is how, depending on their economic resources and nature of political settlement, provincial powerholders are able to take advantage of the primary settlement (at the national level). A province like Balkh, characterised by a strong secondary settlement around a charismatic and resourceful strongman as well as a flourishing economy, was able to exert considerable influence on Kabul. A second finding is that the nature of secondary settlements at the provincial level varies greatly, thus altering their impact on the delivery of services. The third finding of this study is that sectoral bargains are essential to allow services to function in a conflict area. In all of the three provinces, sectoral bargains came into being to allow the delivery of health and education services even in areas controlled by the insurgency. By and large the Taliban saw it in their interests to respond positively to community demand for services, particularly where they could shape the way services were being delivered, e.g. by increasing the religious content of the education curriculum.

The politics of what works in service delivery: An evidence-based review (Mcloughlin & Batley, 2012)

This paper examines the evidence on the forms of politics likely to promote inclusive social provisioning and enable – as opposed to constrain – improvements in service outcomes. It focuses on eight relatively successful cases of delivery in a range of country contexts and sectors (roads, agriculture, health, education) where independent evaluations demonstrate improved outcomes. The paper traces the main characteristics of the political environment for these cases, from the national political context, to the politics of sector policymaking, to the micro politics of implementation. The findings indicate that it is possible to identify connections between good performance and better outcomes at the point of delivery and the main forms of politics operating at local, sector and national levels. A number of common factors underpinning successful delivery emerge strongly but need to be tested through further research. In particular, the paper highlights the relationship between inclusive delivery and periods of crisis and transition; the nature of the political settlement; the types of calculations of political returns being made by political actors at all levels; and the extent to which the state derives or seeks to enhance its legitimacy through the provision of a particular service.

Researching the politics of service provision: A new conceptual and methodological approach (ESID, 2014)

This paper extends and politicises the 'accountability framework' of relations between citizens, clients, and service providers, set out in the World Bank's 2004 World Development Report, to incorporate different levels of analysis, while highlighting the linkages between them. Employs a political settlements approach to investigate the main drivers of political and organisational behaviour from national-level policy making through to front line service provision. Adopts a relational view of the actors engaged in service provision and proposes an organisation-specific diagnosis of the nature of the principal-agent (and often multi-stakeholder) relationships within service delivery. Offers policy lessons derived from political and organisational analysis.

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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

PRODUCED FOR

Department for International Development

EVIDENCE BRIEF 2: ACCOUNTABILITY

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

The literature reviewed for this theme shows consensus around how education systems should be supported in 'hot conflict', protracted crises, or natural disaster contexts. The provision of education services in emergencies should ideally led by a national government, or aligned to national government policies or systems in all three contexts. The evidence is thin related to how national governments can best be supported to lead. The evidence is strongest on what works with regards to capacity building in fragile states, which can be a hot conflict or protracted crises context, or both. The evidence related to how education systems can support disaster risk resilience is also quite strong. EiE programming to date has not focused strongly on long-term planning and systems building. The key limitation of the evidence is, therefore, that there is a lack of research looking specifically into these issues in relation to EiE. The Evidence Brief includes examples of harmful impacts of short-term planning on education provision. More insight into the negative consequences of short-term education programming will be helpful guidance while the focus shifts towards long-term planning and building resilient local systems.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND DEFINITIONS

The following research question was formulated to explore the evidence around accountable provision of education services during emergencies:

How to support and strengthen education systems (state and non-state providers) and engage through national and regional authorities to make services more equitable (budgeting, civil service management etc.)?

It is important to understand and define the concepts within this question.

State providers of education are national governments (either refugee-hosting governments, or governments of countries affected by crisis) and include both decentralised authorities (regions, provinces, and districts) that often have levels of autonomy over services, including education, as well as semi-autonomous entities with specific responsibilities (e.g. assessment, teacher management etc).

National and regional authorities in this context are national and subnational levels of education authorities of state providers of education. The level of decentralisation in a country determines the mandate of regional authorities. Besides education, other government departments may be involved in education provision: in relation to this theme, the Ministry of Finance is particularly important, but Ministries of Youth, Gender, Social Welfare, Labour (technical education) and Health (Early Childhood Development) can also play an important role.

Non-state providers of education can be humanitarian agencies (in particular UNHCR and UNICEF), NGOs and INGOs, civil society organisations, faith-based organisations, private schools, bilateral donor-funded programmes, and in some cases (armed) opposition groups. Bilateral and multilateral donor-funded programmes are often closely aligned to government systems and work in partnership with Ministries of Education, but this is not always the case. Sometimes bilateral donors provide direct budget support to state providers of education.

Equitable services in this context means a needs-based, fair, and even distribution of resources. At a basic level, this may be equal access to enrol in schools and an even distribution of resources including materials, grants, teachers. Services are inequitable when the quality of teaching and learning varies widely between regions or subgroups of the population, for example due to inequitable resource distribution or use of a different language. In a conflict context, the equity principle is important as inequitable access to services and resources can fuel tensions and is considered a structural cause of conflict, particularly when resulting in unequal economic and social opportunities.

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

This brief will explore evidence around various aspects of an accountable system. These are, firstly, clear principles, standards and norms, or a legal framework, with which education service provision must comply that can be monitored and evaluated. This is key for holding education providers to account for the services they deliver. Key questions are ; Is the provision of education in emergencies by non-state providers governed by quality standards?. Are these quality standards fit for purpose and followed by implementers? Are state providers following principles of equity or equitable legal frameworks when providing education in crises?

Secondly, the brief will look at capacity development and other system strengthening aspects. Transparent and accountable planning and budgeting for education is key to an accountable system. Resource distribution must be based on principles of equity and inclusion. Fragile states are often characterised by low administrative capacities and resource constraints. Limited resources are often controlled or captured by a small elite. Is there evidence of capacity development that has successfully strengthened government capacity to plan and budget for education during crises? What evidence is available about the strengthening of government systems at national or local levels for the provision of education in hot conflict, protracted crises, and natural disasters? Are there examples of what has not worked well in terms of planning for education in emergencies? The monitoring of whether education service providers deliver on plans and abide by set principles is also an important consideration. This links to the evidence presented in the Evidence Brief 'Data, Monitoring, and Evaluation', and will not be presented in great detail in this theme.

Thirdly, there is a growing body of research into education and peacebuilding and the potential positive and negative impacts of education policies on social cohesion. This is typically considered in the aftermath of conflict and the evidence review found examples of studies that were based on experiences in the Balkans, Rwanda, and Latin America where conflicts have ended over a decade ago. Given that this relates to policy making, a key function of an education system, and touches on issues of equity, a reference to this field of research was deemed relevant.

Another aspect is evidence around alternative education programmes that sometimes run parallel to the formal education system. In some countries efforts have been made to bring alternative forms of schooling into the formal system, providing certification and regulatory oversight through departments of non-formal education within a MoE. Are non-formal education programmes an effective way to reach children during emergencies? Can pupils enrolled in these programmes transition to the formal education system? What does the evidence say about the effectiveness of these programmes?

Finally, the evidence around education systems and disaster preparedness and response is explored.

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of relevant literature on accountability and accountable education systems in the context of EiE produced the following findings:

1. The literature review points out that national ownership for education service delivery has multiple benefits over providing services through non-state actors[1]. It is more sustainable and potentially contributes to peacebuilding and national unity. There is evidence that short-term planning and funding cycles potentially do more harm than good[2]. In countries where donors cannot engage with national governments for political reasons, shadow aligned systems should be considered when bypassing the state. It must be noted that education systems in fragile states are often already weak

[1] (Debiel, 2005) (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)
[2] (McKinnon, 2014)

before the onset of conflict or other emergencies. National ownership for education service delivery may require external technical support or capacity development[3].

2. There is no clear-cut approach to systems strengthening in emergencies. Capacity development approaches should be designed based on context and conflict analysis. Several studies highlighted that capacity development in conflict-affected contexts should be interpreted as both building practical capacities (of individuals or institutions) and political will, i.e. the capacity to plan for inclusive development[4]. Studies suggested that capacity development in conflict-affected areas must be based on political economy analysis to create meaningful change[5].
3. Two studies highlighted the importance of 'process before product' in relation to capacity development in conflict-affected contexts[6]. Officials of the Ministry of Education in Afghanistan, for example, gained self-confidence through leading and participating in the development of strategic plans for the sector. This outcome was considered as important as the plan itself[7].
4. Several studies highlighted that governance reform is more successful if it is cross-sectoral. Given the politicised nature of reform (i.e. it is value-based with a focus on democratic principles of equity and inclusion), it is likely to carry more weight if the same approach is followed in other sectors[8].
5. There was consensus in the literature around the importance of principles, norms, and standards to guide implementation[9]. This was found to be important in two ways: first, at a global level, to hold donors to account for funding pledges for EiE; and second, at a local level to enforce quality standards of behaviour and approach. The review found limited evidence on the effectiveness of INEE Minimum Standards for EiE. It was not clear how widely these are in use in EiE programmes globally. One study found that the Minimum Standards lacked focus on long-term aspects of education planning and were mainly suited to short-term responses[10].
6. The review found that equity and equitable service delivery need to be given priority in education planning, especially in conflict-areas. One study highlighted that global education policy goals are predominantly informed by efficiency concerns, but if an education system in a conflict-affected context does not address inequities, there is potential for further or renewed outbreaks of conflict and therefore equity should be given priority[11]. For example, inequitable representation of certain groups in a country's curriculum was found to be a possible source of tension and return to conflict[12].
7. Findings from studies on the linkages between education, peacebuilding and social cohesion support a focus on systems strengthening, including strengthening policy formulation capacities for example in the area of curriculum reform[13].
8. The review found some examples of non-formal education (NFE) programmes with potential links to the formal education system that could be used to reach marginalised or displaced groups in emergencies. If this is to be explored in other contexts, lessons must be learned from the evaluations of these programmes. For example, in the case of Columbia, the NFE programme failed to deliver on academic achievement, because of flaws in the programme design such as the short length and lack of training for teachers[14]. Pupils enrolled in the NFE programme could therefore not easily transition

[3] (Davies L. , 2009)
[4] (Davies L. , 2009)
[5] (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)
[6] (Sigsgaard (ed.), 2011) (Davies L. , 2009)
[7] (Sigsgaard (ed.), 2011)
[8] (Davies L. , 2009) (Watson & Yohannes, 2005)
[9] (INEE, 2012) (Davies L. , 2012) (Save the Children; Norwegian Refugee Council , 2015) (Nicolai & Hine, 2015)
[10] (Weinstein, Freedman, & Hughsons, 2007)
[11] (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)
[12] (Shah, 2012)
[13] (Tawil & Harley, 2004)
[14] (Vega & Bajaj, 2016)

to formal education. There is some evidence these programmes do contribute positively to peacebuilding and have positive socio emotional impacts on pupils[15].

9. The review found numerous studies on the impact of education and girls' education on resilience to natural disasters[16]. These studies showed that higher levels of education have a direct effect on reduced loss of lives and livelihoods during natural disasters. In societies with low levels of women's empowerment and education, women were found to be disproportionally affected by disasters[17]. Education can help to make them more resilient.
10. There was consensus in the literature that disaster risk reduction efforts are most successful when led by national government institutions and mainstreamed in the education system[18]. UNESCO's International Institute of Education Planning (IIEP) recommends the inclusion of disaster preparedness plans into education sector planning, based on sector diagnostics that should include data on a country's vulnerabilities to natural disasters (or conflict)[19]. Depending on their capacity, ministries may require technical support to carry out this diagnosis. The review did not find evaluations of this approach.

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

The literature reviewed for this brief shows that evidence on how to strengthen education systems during emergencies is very limited, particularly in hot conflict contexts. It is clear from the literature review that to date most EiE programming has not taken a long-term approach focused on resilience and systems. There are examples of current programmes that follow this approach. They are referred to in the Evidence Brief, but some are too recent to have produced conclusive evidence on their effectiveness. The Evidence Brief includes examples of harmful impacts of short-term planning on education provision. More insight into the negative consequences of short-term education programming will be helpful guidance while the focus shifts towards long-term planning and building resilient local systems.

4 CONCLUSION

The provision of education services in emergencies should ideally led by a national government, or aligned to national government policies or systems. A government-led response is more sustainable and has the potential to contribute to peacebuilding and national unity in the longer term. Education also plays a key role in disaster risk resilience. A government-led approach to emergency preparedness for natural disasters is preferred to ensure all schools are equally informed of and follow disaster-proof construction rules.

How this ideal scenario can be realised in situations of hot conflict or protracted crises is less clear from the evidence. In many conflict-affected states the national education system is already weak. Refugee-hosting nations may have stronger education systems to start with, though as the case of Lebanon shows, these systems can be overwhelmed by a large influx of refugee pupils, putting a strain on resources and affect education quality. In both cases these systems need to be strengthened to effectively lead the provision of quality education for refugees and IDPs.

[15] (Datzberger, 2017)
[16] (Pichler & Striessnig, 2013)
[17] (Neumayer & Plümper, 2007)
[18] (Save the Children, 2015) (Kirk, 2008)
[19] (MacEwen, Bird, & Choudhuri, 2011)

Focus on capacity development that is cross-sectoral and politically aware

Capacity development is most effective when it is cross-sectoral and accounts for the political context, meaning driven by democratisation values such as equity, transparency, participation, and rights. Capacity development can be targeted at individuals or institutions. Who or what is targeted, and which system components are prioritised for support, should be based on a context and conflict analysis.

Focus on equity over efficiency

Equity and equitable service delivery need to be given priority in education planning and delivery in conflict-areas. Education can have a positive impact on peacebuilding and social cohesion, but inequitable education service delivery can fuel tensions. In order to realise these positive impacts on society, a long-term and systems approach is necessary based on the principle of equity.

5 ANNEX 1- SUMMARIES OF DOCUMENTS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following summaries of literature reviewed have been sorted along the various aspects of an accountable system identified in the introduction to this brief.

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.

5.1 STANDARD, NORMS AND PRINCIPLES

INEE Minimum Standards Handbook (INEE, 2012)

The handbook contains 19 standards, each with accompanying key actions and guidance notes. The handbook aims to enhance the quality of educational preparedness, response and recovery, increase access to safe and relevant learning opportunities and ensure accountability in providing these services. Accountability is defined by INEE as:

> An explanation of the meaning and reasons for actions and decisions that consider the needs, concerns and capacities and circumstances of affected parties. Accountability is about the transparency of management processes including the use of financial resources. It is about the right to be heard and the duty to respond. In education, accountability means holding education providers responsible for the quality of their service delivery in terms of student knowledge, skills and attitudes; teacher behaviour; and school or system performance.

The Minimum Standards' indicators must be adapted to each local context to be relevant. Training and awareness raising is crucial to promote their use in the field. INEE aims to promote learning from practical experience implementing the Minimum Standards in programming. A number of case studies from around the world can be found on their website[20]. Case studies are written and submitted by programme implementers themselves. An independent evaluation of the Minimum Standards could not be found, but the last revision of the Minimum Standards was an open and accountable process during which a wide range of stakeholders provided criticism and inputs. The latest case study dates back to 2013. The Standard's focus on community participation appears to be cited often as a useful aspect to practitioners. UNHCR's refugee education policy is based on the INEE Minimum Standards.

[20] http://www.ineesite.org/en/minimum-standards/case-studies

Weinstein, Warshauer Freedman, and Hughsons (2007) criticise the Minimum Standards for its too narrow focus on emergency interventions and early reconstruction. The Minimum Standards fail to address long-term priorities such as curriculum reform and are not based on a research foundation with inputs from education and child development specialists. Ensuring education is a priority in humanitarian interventions should also include a priority focus on long-term aspects of education and a recognition that education plays a role in societal reconstruction after an emergency and should therefore be considered from the start of a response.

Education in emergencies and protracted crises - Toward a strengthened response (Nicolai, Hine, & Wales, 2015)

This think piece explores how the international response and provision of education in emergencies can be improved. One of their recommendations is to establish and adhere to a set of consolidated principles as the basis for education in emergencies interventions. They argue that this would provide necessary clarity about multiple global commitments to education in emergencies that have been made in recent years, and have proposed a draft of these principles as an attachment to their publication. Clear principles can help to hold national government, humanitarian, and development partners to account for their support to education in emergencies and set out clear expectations for beneficiaries. One of the five key objectives of the Education Cannot Wait fund launched at the World Humanitarian Summit in Istanbul in 2016 is to '*Improve accountability in the humanitarian and development systems by sharing knowledge and collecting more robust data in order to make better-informed investment decisions'*. Improved political agreement on the importance of EiE such as this declaration can help strengthen accountability at a higher level by reinforcing public commitments made to support the fund.

Breaking the cycle of crisis - learning from Save the children's delivery of education in conflict-affected fragile states (Davies L. , 2012)

This report on Save the Children's experience delivering EiE finds that 'legal accountability' is one of six underpinning principles for successful education in fragile and conflict-affected states. This is interpreted as a broad framework that should cover both people's right to education and standards, such as teachers' code of conduct or the quality of temporary classrooms following natural disasters. The report recommends considering community laws within such a framework. The other five principles identified are:

- Community buy-in, to ensure quality control at the lowest levels;
- Participation, of students, parents and teachers in drawing up suitable codes of conduct;
- Resources provided on time;
- Motivation to teachers including remuneration and/or non-pay incentives;
- Understanding and acceptance of the overall vision for education by teachers and the community at large.

If a programme addresses all six principles there is a strong likelihood of positive impact and change. However, if even one principle is neglected, this may lead to tensions, putting the overall programme results at risk.

WALK THE TALK, Review of Donors' Humanitarian Policies on Education (Save the Children; Norwegian Refugee Council , 2015)

This report finds that including 'standards for quality and accountability, monitoring and evaluation requirements' is a key element of good donor policy. Requiring adherence of donor fund recipients to INEE's Minimum Standards was also cited as positive donor practice in interviews with practitioners.

5.2 CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT AND OTHER SYSTEM STRENGTHENING ASPECTS

National Ownership and Capacity Development

Donor engagement with national governments in conflict-affected contexts can be politically sensitive and may not always be possible during hot conflict. Fragile and conflict-affected states may lack a legitimate central government, that may not exercise effective control over the entire country's territory. In other cases, donors may not want to provide support to a government that is an active party to a conflict, committing human rights or other abuses, or providing services in an openly discriminatory way. Somalia is an example of a country where a central government was largely absent during an extended period. As a result, basic services were delivered in an uncoordinated way through non-state providers, mainly UN-agencies, and NGOs (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014).

Dealing with fragile states - Entry points and approaches for development cooperation (Debiel, 2005)

This paper states that a donor's choice to work through government systems or bypass them depends on the effectiveness of state institutions and their political legitimacy. Four scenarios for donor engagement in fragile states are identified:

1. Systems and policy alignment (where the state is functioning reasonably well and legitimacy is relatively high): direct budget support would be possible;
2. Systems alignment (where governments lack legitimacy and where the priorities of donors and the government differ): direct budget support would not be considered, and sector programmes would involve strict conditionality and monitoring;
3. Policy alignment (where institutions have disintegrated, but government has embarked on reforms supported by the population);
4. Shadow alignment (where institutional and political breakdown is far advanced, but design support measures to gear them as far as possible to existing budget classifications, planning cycles, reporting procedures etc., or to established administrative units).

The paper highlights the importance of 'shadow' systems alignment when going down a route of engagement with non-state actors for the provision of services, so that a transition to government service provision can happen in the medium to long term.

A review of relevant literature shows consistently that national ownership for education service delivery has multiple benefits over providing services through non-state actors, as it is more sustainable and potentially contributes to peacebuilding and national unity.

The Political Economy of Education Systems in Conflict-Affected Contexts (Novelli, Higgins, Ugur, & Valiente, 2014)

This publication includes important considerations for donor engagement on systems and policy making. It considers three stages of education policy making (agenda setting, formulation and implementation) and synthesise the literature on each from a political economy perspective. It finds that the literature on policy formulation shows that national ownership and legitimacy of policy formulation are necessary conditions for education reforms. Education provision in conflict-affected contexts has the potential to contribute positively to peacebuilding, social change, and national unity. This can only be realised if education is provided not in a fragmented way, but part of a more systemic strategy. It also finds that global education policy goals are predominantly informed by efficiency concerns that are somewhat disconnected from the political economy realities and priorities of a conflict-affected country. If an education system in a conflict-affected context does not address inequities, there is potential for further or renewed outbreaks of conflict. Equity, therefore, should be given priority over efficiency. Embedding education policy support in local political economy realities is key

for effectiveness and realising objectives in conflict-affected contexts that may go beyond education outcomes (e.g. peacebuilding or state building outcomes).

Capacity Development for Education Systems in Fragile Contexts' (Davies L., 2009) and 'Learning for state-building: capacity development, education and fragility' (Davies L., 2011)

These two papers provide the most complete overview of the relationship between education, state fragility and capacity development. The papers include important considerations for how DFID can engage to strengthen education systems through capacity development. Education systems have the potential to change the 'dynamics of fragility' and improve a state's legitimacy when education is provided in an equitable way. Strengthening education systems can also be highly politicised due to ideological underpinnings and the impact of education on people's futures. When equity is not guaranteed, education provision by the state can impact negatively on social cohesion, erode trust, and fuel further conflict. As outlined above, depending on the engagement with national governments, donor support for capacity development of education systems can take the form of increased support for 'change agents', for example civil society groups or other non-state actors in the field of education. Strengthening their voice in the public discourse on education may be an appropriate response when support to the national system is not appropriate.

Systems' capacity development can be targeted at individuals or at administrative and institutional levels of government. Contextual and conflict analyses that are cognizant of political realities should inform donor's capacity development planning and prioritisation. Table 1 below summarises the needs and issues in fragile contexts when considering capacity development in education.

Table 1: Needs and issues in fragile contexts when considering capacity development in education.

Organisational dimension	Need for: • Financial systems and information systems • Basic accounting for schools on fees, levies, etc. • Job descriptions • Regulatory frameworks for decentralised levels • Understandings of the meanings of decentralisation and power-sharing • Transparent teacher appointments • Reporting and report writing • Monitoring and evaluation
Institutional culture dimension	Existence of: • Hidden rules, norms, values • Creative accounting and allowance culture deriving from history of poverty • Contexts of hierarchy meaning deference, fear, and possible abuse of power • Patronage, clientelism, gendered power • Norms governing reciprocity in exchanges (favours and gifts) • Lack of initiative or concern about improvement resulting from decades of conflict or oppression • Need to combine personal incentives with institutional improvement
Enabling environment/ political context	Problem of: • Political elites contesting nature of and power over education

	• Absence of genuine political will around social cohesion or social, caste or gender equality • Ethnic or religious conflict may have been made worse by education; need for capacity development in non-discriminatory curriculum materials and civic education • Questions of what constitutes 'the community', and possible divisions and disputes within and between communities • Endemic corruption as a norm

Fragile contexts are characterised by corruption, violence, a lack of transparency and trust, and informal relationships. Capacity development in education that targets state-building will therefore produce fragile results. Davies argues that capacity development is most effective when it is cross-sectoral and is based on an analysis of the fragility context. Capacity development is not neutral, because it is driven by democratisation values such as equity, transparency, participation and rights. Interventions are more effective when they consider the socio-psychological aspects of capacity building, because of the behavioural changes that may be required for tackling issues such as corruption or nepotism. Capacity development should target people who are powerful enough to enact – or block – change, for example educational elites. In fragile contexts, the focus should be on support that strengthens social cohesion, rather than "piece-meal injections of technical know-how". The paper provides several examples of capacity development that have strengthened social cohesion. In Sri Lanka, the Ministry of Education's curriculum development unit scrutinises textbooks for representation of particular groups (Sinhala, Tamil, and Muslim) as part of a national policy on education for peace and social cohesion. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the EU provided support to curriculum development and brought together teachers from the three entities – Bosnia, Croatia, and Serbia – who previously worked separately, to develop the new harmonised curriculum. The paper also argues that development partners who support capacity development initiatives should ensure that research, monitoring, and evaluation activities include indicators of state building. Davies summarises these five features as ACSPI:

- **Analysis** (of the political context);
- **Coherence** (sectoral and cross-sectoral);
- **Survival orientation** (account for people's existing agendas for survival and other social-psychological factors);
- **Power** (target those with power to effect or block change);
- **Indicators** (related to state building).

Business Case, Emergency Education System Stabilisation Programme for Lebanon (DFID, 2014)

The design of DFID's Emergency Education System Stabilisation Programme for Lebanon recognised the importance of national ownership for sustainability. The Business Case found that providing further support to UNICEF for non-formal education provision to Syrian refugees was not the preferred option as it is too "reliant on continued emergency funding to support its quasi-parallel delivery systems threatening sustainability".

Synthesis Research Report - State-building, Peace-building and Service Delivery in Fragile and Conflict-affected States (Dolan, et al., 2012)

This report presents findings from a one-year research project exploring the question: "[w]hat contribution does service delivery make to building the legitimacy of the state in the eyes of its citizens?". This question is explored in case-studies on Rwanda, Nepal, and South Sudan. The report finds that in cases where the state does not have the capacity to deliver quality services, state legitimacy is strengthened if the state allows non-state actors to provide services instead of providing poor quality services themselves. Even if non-state actors provide services, state legitimacy may be enhanced in the eyes of citizens if they perform an oversight and

regulatory function. The research also finds that equitable service delivery can positively contribute to state legitimacy, while inequitable delivery can undermine state building. Transparent public financial management and budget monitoring can help to build confidence in the state. Involving citizens in accountability mechanisms that empowers them to hold service providers to account can help to build social cohesion and state legitimacy. In conclusion, strengthening state building and peacebuilding through service delivery is largely determined by *how* services are delivered and to a lesser degree by *who* delivers the services.

Education in Emergencies: The Case of the Dadaab Refugee Camps (McKinnon, 2014)

A case study that looks into education provision for refugee children in the Dadaab Refugee camps in Kenya. Somalian refugees in this camp have not been able to return home for over 20 years. The study shows that education provision has been persistently underfunded. Short-term planning and funding cycles and the absence of a longer-term development approach potentially do more harm than good. The risks of a short-term and underfunded response include unsafe school environments, not only in terms of appropriate facilities, but also in terms of not being able to provide a safe space for children, girls in particular, to learn.

Super Synthesis of the evidence of 'What works best in education for development' (Australian Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2017)

This synthesis draws from 18 systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and comparative reviews of 'what works' in education for development. While the focus of this synthesis is not on education in emergencies, the findings are still relevant as they relate to systems, especially if the design of education in emergencies programmes are to follow a more developmental, long-term planning approach. By condensing this vast literature into an operational guideline, the synthesis identifies which interventions have been shown to have the greatest impact on education quality and participation in a development sector context. Two overarching themes emerged. First, the research clearly shows that the success of any intervention is dependent upon understanding the challenge to be addressed, and having a solid appreciation of the country context. Second, the evidence shows that any single intervention will only be successful if implemented in accordance with larger education sector dynamics, given the many inter-connecting parts of a functional education system; in other words, ensuring a systems-based approach to programme implementation.

The weight of evidence summarised in the synthesis shows that the lowest 'evidence of impact' is in the 'Sector Planning/Financial Reform' domain. This reflects the fact that it is challenging to draw a causal link from investment in systems capacity to how this impacts students' participation and education quality. However, it does not mean that investments in EMIS or the capacities of education officials is not worth it. The synthesis states that if a context analysis identifies that these areas are in need of strengthening, it is still worth the investment. Improved planning and budgeting indirectly enable better outcomes, like student retention and improved learning.

On the road to resilience: Capacity development with the Ministry of Education in Afghanistan (Sigsgaard (ed.), 2011)

A UNESCO IIEP publication that provides a rich account of the challenges encountered in rebuilding Afghanistan's education sector after 30 years of conflict, and while civil war is continuing in parts of the country. Capacity development efforts must be cognizant of these contextual factors. Capacity is defined as not only service delivery capacity, but also as the capacity to commit towards equitable development objectives. It is possible to develop both capacities, but the development of political will requires solid political economy analysis. In order to reform and deliver education services that contribute to state and peace-building, the capacity of the Afghan MoE needed strengthening. The MoE was largely dependent on development partners for capacity development as they also controlled a large part of the budget. The publication includes findings from five case studies of development partners who have provided capacity development support to the

Afghan MoE since 2006. The publication distils ten key lessons learnt that are relevant to include here in full as they may apply to systems development in other (post-) conflict contexts:

1	**Building trusting partnerships takes time and is required for high-level political backing.** Decade-long engagements in Afghanistan allowed agencies to gain credibility and develop trusting partnerships with the MoE.
2	**People come and go, but systems remain.** Service delivery and implementation of MoE policy hinges on systems. They enable planning based on facts, and can reduce corruption and reliance on individuals.
3	**Put processes before products**. Agency collaboration with MoE on policy documents such as the NESP, the 'Afghanized' INEE Minimum Standards for Community Based Education (CBE), and national policies for CBE, inclusive education, and Literacy gave impetus to Capacity Development (CD) and enabled donor coordination. In the process, the MoE gained self-confidence, a prerequisite for the ability to commit and engage.
4	**Donor flexibility and long-term commitment is helpful.** Donor support for CD activities in this book adhered to the Paris principles on aid effectiveness by engaging over several years, showing flexibility, and taking 'responsible risks', e.g. by permitting sudden project changes and accepting participatory design instead of long-term plans.
5	**Donor coordination is needed for salary harmonisation.** Coordination mechanisms such as the HRDB could be instrumental in solving a major staffing challenge – the salary disparity between the parallel systems of civil servants, funded by the MoE, and national technical assistants (TAs), funded by donors. Agencies could improve aid effectiveness by collaborating with the MoE to map and harmonise TA salaries.
6	**Choose pragmatic and basic solutions.** The CD partnerships often began with the basic infrastructure, such as supplying office space or teaching generic skills like English and computer literacy. Pragmatic compromises were necessary.
7	**Gender is also a human resource issue.** Only 26 per cent of all MoE employees are female. Many women refrain from competing with men for high managerial positions because of internalised stereotypes of female inferiority. Agencies need to scan all activities for opportunities to increase gender participation.
8	**Nation-building should be based on decent, non-ideological education.** Through equitable, non-ideological education provision, the state might one day make itself relevant to its citizens and become less dependent on foreign aid. Decentralisation of education – how much, what responsibilities – is a key question in the larger scheme of building an Afghan nation and state.
9	**A plan is a statement of will and self-confidence.** The policy documents mentioned have been criticised for being unrealistic. However, in Afghanistan's political process, ambitious national plans signal a will for drastic change, and may create hope and self-confidence – invaluable resources when everything is a priority and everything a challenge.
10	**Sustained financial support is a must for achieving national development objectives.** Investing in developing MoE capacity is an investment in national capacity at large, which is a precondition for nation-building and socio-economic growth. Adequate financial resources are needed to absorb the remaining 42 per cent of out-of-school children, as outlined in the ambitious National Education Strategic Plan-II.

Capacity building for decentralised education service delivery in Ethiopia (Watson & Yohannes, 2005)

The publication examines the cross-sectoral national capacity building strategy in Ethiopia. The strategy had three elements: human capacity; procedures; and organisational structures and relationships. The strategy targeted all educational levels, but also finance and justice sector reforms. The authors suggest that one of the success factors that contributed to increased capacity at lower levels of government was broad political, cross-sectoral consensus about the importance of improved performance through capacity development and a commitment to national development values.

Teacher Management Systems

Building effective teacher salary systems in fragile and conflict-affected states Brookings and CfBT Education Trust (Dolan, Golden, Ndaruhutse, & Winthrop, 2012)

A key element of a functional education system is the system's ability to pay its teacher fair salaries on time. Sommers (2005), quoted in this paper, finds that a functional teacher pay system is closely linked with expanded access to education and has an indirect positive impact on education quality. In fragile and conflict-affected states (FCAS) contexts, establishing and/or supporting a functional teacher pay system is especially challenging, because financial infrastructure may be limited or destroyed and the ability of the government to manage or fund the teacher payroll may be reduced.

The paper summarises options for donor engagement in the area of teacher salary systems in FCAS in a report that draws on detailed country case studies in the DRC, Sierra Leone, and Afghanistan as follows:

- Strengthening an existing system incrementally;
- Significantly adjusting an existing system to sustainably improve it;
- Bypassing the existing system.

As above, contextual and conflict analysis will determine the most appropriate approach for donor interventions on a case by case basis. The study provides an analysis of components that make up an effective teacher pay system to provide entry points for institutional capacity development or other types of donor support. These five components are banking, public financial management, auditing, payroll and EMIS/TMS. Factors that determine the efficiency of the system are the resources (domestic, external, or other) available to flow through and the capacity of the government to manage the system functions that fall under its remit.

5.3 EDUCATION POLICY-MAKING AND SOCIAL COHESION

Education Inequality and Violent Conflict: Evidence and Policy Considerations (Education Policy and Data Center, 2016)

This policy brief finds evidence that rising inequalities in education can increase the risk of conflict, and consequently, experiencing conflict can exacerbate pre-existing education inequality based on database research spanning conflict data for 100 countries over 50 years. Data show that inequalities increase the longer the conflict lasts. The longer the conflict, the harder it becomes to return to pre-crisis levels of lower inequality.

School voices – challenges facing education systems after identity-based conflicts (Weinstein, Freedman, & Hughsons, 2007)

This paper explores the role of education in the social reconstruction of countries after mass conflict. The study focused on societies that faced periods of ethnic violence in the 1990s, namely Croatia, the UN-administered province of Kosovo in Serbia-Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Rwanda. Their findings strongly support a long-term focus on systems, both in the immediate aftermath of an emergency as well as during reconstruction. The paper includes a literature review of the role of education in societal reconstruction and

peacebuilding. The authors divide education reconstruction into four areas: curricular, physical, ideological, and psychological. They find little research evidence of effectiveness of NGO- or UN-run programmes in peace education that address these aspects and note these are often uncoordinated and designed without taking into account local needs. These interventions too often focus on short-term changes in attitudes, while the role of schools in developing children's values over time is insufficiently recognised.

The authors aim to contribute to the literature by bringing in the voices of those often not heard in education planning: parents, teachers, students, and administrators. It is important to understand their everyday education experience during or after conflict to ensure that abstract notions of peacebuilding translate into realistic policies. Three themes are recurrent in the case-study findings. First, a fear of return to conflict lies at the core of attitudes towards school. Secondly, this fear manifests itself by a tendency to control discussion in classroom environments, or general interpersonal and institutional mistrust. Thirdly, the teaching of history – with the questions of 'truth' and how the memory of conflict is represented – is tense and controversial. The study concludes that 'school voices' are important, but that the structure of the educational system and the socio-political environment in which it operates are as important if long-term change is to be implemented. Further, the importance of sustained attention to curricular development with significant collaboration with teachers and local school officials around sensitive subject areas such as history and literature is key. The authors recommend the inclusion of education in economic and social reform processes post-conflict and to avoid a silo approach to societal reconstruction.

Education, Conflict and Social Cohesion, chapter 1: 'Education and Identity-based Conflict: Assessing curriculum policy for social and civic reconstruction' (Tawil & Harley, 2004)

This UNESCO publication explores the following research question: how do the forms of educational governance, processes of curriculum policymaking, and of curriculum development (1) contribute to either a shared sense of national identity and citizenship which is inclusive and respectful of diversity or (2) exacerbate social divisions, tensions, and identity-based conflicts? It includes case-study findings from Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), Guatemala, Lebanon, Mozambique, Northern Ireland, Rwanda, and Sri Lanka. One of the authors' critical conclusions is that "education policy reform is likely to be most effective and sustainable when initiated by a sovereign national education authority in a context of relative security and stability. The need for a national educational authority, socially acknowledged as legitimate, which can construct and define education and curriculum policy at the nation state level, places this discussion in the framework of education and development, rather than that of education in emergencies."

Goodbye conflict, hello development? Curriculum reform in Timor-Leste (Shah, 2012)

This study suggests that timing and an analysis of the state's capacity and willingness for reform are important determinants of the success of curriculum reform. While quick action may increase the state's visibility and enhance political legitimacy, if curriculum reform is not based on national narratives that are credible and inclusive of all groups in society, the reform may do more harm than good. If grievances are not addressed, there is a risk that they contribute to tension or return to conflict. In fragile states, the capacity and resources to carry out this reform often take time to build.

5.4 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION (NFE)

Continuity Education in Emergency and Conflict Situations: The Case for Using Open, Distance and Flexible Learning (ODFL) (Creed & Morpeth, 2014)

This paper explores the potential of distance learning during emergencies. Based on findings from a case-study in Sri Lanka, the paper argues that open and distance learning with linkages to formal education has strong potential to reach marginalised groups of learnings during conflict and emergency situations. Sri Lanka has faced conflict as well as other emergencies, such as the 2004 tsunami. The Open School initiative started in

2005 and began running programmes from 2007 onwards, which were led by the National Institute of Education (NIE) with support from GIZ. Targeted at drop outs and out-of-school children in marginalised areas, specifically adults and children affected by conflict in the north and east, it was set up to help Sri Lanka meet its Education for All goals. Open School learning is flexible in terms of hours and can be distance or home-based. Open School certificates are equivalent to formal schooling certificates. The paper argues for the systematic integration of ODFL into the existing national planning for conflict and emergency zones. It could play a significant and cost-effective role in these regions and also, more widely, in facilitating links between the non-formal and formal sectors and improving the quality of provision.

The right to education in protracted conflict: teachers' experiences in non-formal education in Colombia (Vega & Bajaj, 2016)

This publication looks at the experiences of a government-civil society partnership programme, Círculos de Aprendizaje (CA)/learning circles. The programme aims to restore the right to education of marginalised children, including internally displaced children. Colombia's regulatory education laws and constitutional mandates reflect a commitment to education equity. However, in practice the right to education is not guaranteed to all, due to the realities of regional, ethnic, and cultural diversity. CA is an adaptation of the Escuela Nueva/New School programme, a multi-grade model originally implemented in Colombia in the 1970s that has been internationally commended and replicated in many countries of Latin America, Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa (see Farrell and Hartwell 2008; Colbert 2009; UNESCO 2010). The CA programme's purpose is to reintegrate marginalised – i.e. displaced and otherwise vulnerable children – into the educational system.

Through qualitative research, this paper presents a rich picture of teachers' everyday education experiences in the CA. The findings show various limitations to teachers' work in conflict settings with marginalised students. Some of these challenges relate to the impact of conflict and violence on children's lives, for example dealing with aggressive students who have experienced violence in their past. Some challenges could be addressed through better programme design, training, and ongoing professional development and support, which was found to be non-existent. The most important finding is that, while there are meaningful experiences and positive social emotional development outcomes, the CA programme fails to deliver on academic achievement. The CA programme therefore falls short on delivering on its promise to ensure the right to quality education for marginalised students. Students largely did not reintegrate to the formal educational system after completing the CA programme. The paper recommends that non-formal education (NFE) processes, such as CA, should last more than one year, or as long as needed to successfully transition students to government schools. NFE programmes should also put in place tracking systems to monitor students' academic progress and integration into formal education.

Peacebuilding through non-formal education programmes: a case study from Karamoja, Uganda (Datzberger, 2017)

This publication explores the role of NFE programmes in Uganda. The study focuses on the Alternative Basic Education Karamoja (ABEK) programme. The study finds that the programme had a positive impact on the security and conflict conditions in the region and that alternative and flexible modes of education can play a role in overcoming structural and indirect forms of violence. The study suggest that further research is needed to explore the potential role of alternative education in formal education sector planning in conflict-affected environments. This will also require education governance reform and budget allocations to ensure the sustainability of alternative education programmes in the long term. The study did not include data on learning outcomes or academic achievement of pupils enrolled in the alternative education programme.

5.5 EDUCATION AND RESILIENCE TO NATURAL DISASTERS

Explorations of the evidence of the connection between education systems and resilience to natural disasters shows that higher levels of education of a population correlate with reduced loss of life and livelihoods during natural disasters. The evidence shows that education reduces vulnerability to shocks. This is explored in more detail in a special issue of Ecology and Society, a peer-reviewed journal, entitled Education and Differential Vulnerability to Natural Disasters.

Vulnerability to Hurricanes in Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic: The Contribution of Education (Pichler & Striessnig, 2013),

This journal includes a case-study which found that a better educated population had clear short-term effects on reducing vulnerability due to increased awareness about crucial information, faster and more efficient responses to alerts, and better post disaster recuperation. However, there were also important longer-term effects of educational efforts to reduce social vulnerability through the empowerment of women, as well as its effect on the quality of institutions and social networks for mutual assistance creating a general culture of safety and preparedness. Another case-study from Nepal found that more educated people had significant effects on lowering the number of human and animal deaths as well as the number of households affected by floods and landslides.

The gendered nature of natural disasters: the impact of catastrophic events on the gender gap in life expectancy, 1981–2002 (Neumayer & Plümper, 2007)

This study finds that the higher women's status, the smaller is the differential negative effect of natural disasters on female relative to male life expectancy. Women belong to the most vulnerable group during disasters. However, where men and women do have equal access to education and women participate fully in the various groups and organisations that respond to catastrophes, their death rates do not differ significantly. This is relevant because it shows the importance of equitable education provision to both boys and girls.

Education sector planning: working to mitigate the risk of violent conflict (MacEwen, Bird, & Choudhuri, 2011)

This background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011 includes a review of education sector planning for both conflict and natural disasters. The paper argues that education sector planning should involve analysis that identifies the core vulnerabilities of a country. These could be related to natural disasters or conflict. National level education planning based on this 'sector diagnosis' can help to mitigate the impacts of natural disasters. National governments may need capacity development support to produce this analysis. The report includes examples of IIEP's experience working with MoEs in Ethiopia, Uganda, and Nepal to ensure the inclusion of education in emergency into national education sector plans. The long-term engagement with Nepal provided an opportunity for raising awareness within the MoE of why education should be prioritised following disasters. In Ethiopia one of the expected outcomes is the inclusion of information on emergency situations in EMIS. Another example from Kenya demonstrates work done on specific education indicators for disaster risk reduction and emergency response in 2010. The report includes examples of planning initiatives of the IIEP, but as these were all still ongoing or in initial stages, there was no evidence on the effectiveness of these plans during implementation in a disaster response.

Save the Children's Experience in Disaster Risk Reduction in the Education Sector in Asia: 2007-2013: Preparing for the Post-2015 agenda (Save the Children, 2015)

The report provides a comprehensive overview of Save the Children's Comprehensive School Safety framework and its application in a range of disaster-prone countries in Asia. The framework addresses school safety

standards, school disaster management and curriculum development. Save the Children has worked closely with Ministries of Education to ensure that emergency preparedness plans for the education sector were developed (e.g. in Timor Leste) or on the integration of Disaster Risk Reduction in the national curriculum (e.g. in the Philippines, Vietnam and other countries). As part of emergency preparedness planning, they have provided school-level training on risk and hazard mapping. The report is a summary note produced by Save the Children and not an evaluation on the effectiveness of these interventions, however it gives a good overview of current practice.

Building back better: post-earthquake responses and educational challenges in Pakistan' (Kirk, 2008)

An estimated 17,000 students were killed in their classrooms as a result of the 2005 earthquake in Pakistan and 6,000 schools were damaged or destroyed[21]. This UNESCO IIEP publication documents the experiences of sector planners, managers, and implementers of the education sector response to the quake. The magnitude of impact demonstrates the importance of emergency preparedness in disaster-prone areas. The study highlights the importance of the involvement of the government to provide leadership and co-ordination between sector initiatives and different levels of government during the relief period and afterwards. The study finds that the vision of 'building back better' proved hard to realise as funding for more longer-term recovery and reconstruction was scarce. Regarding Monitoring and Evaluation, the study finds that larger INGOs involved in the response developed monitoring framework that were based on the INEE Minimum Standards in some cases. Smaller national NGOs had weak capacity to meet monitoring standards set by UNICEF. A key finding and recommendation is that there was no sector-wide monitoring and reporting framework, while this would have strengthened coordination and the quality of response. Monitoring and evaluation was furthermore weak on qualitative aspects such as the impact of teacher training and capacity building.

5.6 UPCOMING RESEARCH IN THIS FIELD

A new **Research for Results in Education programme (R4R)** in Lebanon[22] will generate evidence on student and teacher performance across school types as the basis for policy recommendations to strengthen the efficiency and quality of education services by public, private, and non-state providers. The R4R Programme combines research on the education services delivered at the school level with a system-wide analysis and a communication and stakeholder engagement plan.

The **EC-funded IMPACT programme in South Sudan** is an example of donor engagement in the area of teacher payment and management systems that includes both the provision of resources for teacher salaries, as well as the development of a teacher management information system. The programme has a nationwide focus, and the Ministry of Education is closely involved in programme governance and maintains a technical oversight role through monthly meetings. Implementation started in April 2017. Relevant lessons learnt may be produced in the near future.

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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

There is extremely little evidence on Value for Money (VfM)-focused aspects of coordination between organisations financing, designing, and implementing education programmes in hot conflict, protracted crises, or natural disaster contexts. The evidence that does exist consists of documents that discuss coordinated financing, planning, and/or implementation, and go some way towards evaluating effective models and making recommendations for improved practice. However, the broad recommendations and general guidance lack concrete strategies and evidence of what works in relation to value for money. Overall, the review found that the launch of the Education Cannot Wait fund was the culmination of years of research and advocacy for additional and alternative financing for education in emergencies. The effectiveness of this innovative global fund at country-level must be the focus of rigorous research in the years ahead.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND DEFINITIONS

This Evidence Brief aims to summarise what is and is not known about cost-effective delivery, including coordinated financing, design, and implementation of education programmes in fragile contexts. More specifically, through a review of current evidence, this Brief aims to answer the following question:

How can DFID coordinate with partners to finance, design and implement education programmes that maximise value for money?

The evidence was reviewed with the following understanding of concepts in the research question in mind:

Value for Money - DFID's approach to VfM is about maximising the impact of each pound spent to improve poor people's lives (DFID 2011). This requires clarity about the results one wants to achieve and the costs involved; confidence in the strength of the evidence base on which interventions and assumptions are based; and ensuring results are targeted at the poorest. It is conceptualised as 'the 4Es': how to improve the quality and price of inputs (economy), how to maximise conversion of inputs into outputs (efficiency), how well outputs achieve the desired results (effectiveness), and the degree to which the results of the intervention are equitably distributed (equity). Cost effectiveness is also key: what is the impact relative to how much has been invested? Finally, as costs can vary across different contexts, an important part of VFM is having the right processes, systems, and behaviours in place (DFID 2011).

Examples of key education input unit costs might include teacher salaries; teacher training; textbooks; school/classroom construction; or girls' education stipends. Education output unit costs might include the cost of supporting a child in primary school; in lower secondary school; to complete primary school; or to graduate from primary school with minimum learning achievement.

All of DFID's partners – NGOs, multilaterals, the private sector, governments – play a critical role in delivering value for money. DFID can influence this through its funding choices; in the design of its programmes; through assessment and improvement of partner capability and delivery; accountability mechanisms such as annual and mid-term reviews; and in understanding and leveraging impact from markets.

Coordination - Akl et al (2015) use the following definition of coordination in disaster and humanitarian crises: "the systematic use of policy instruments to deliver humanitarian assistance in a cohesive and effective manner. Such instruments include strategic planning, gathering data and managing information, mobilising resources

and ensuring accountability, orchestrating a functional division of labour, negotiating and maintaining a serviceable framework with host political authorities and providing leadership".

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

The literature review has tried to identify evidence of effective partner coordination. The review has taken a cross-sectoral approach and included some evidence from beyond the education sector. There may be important lessons to learn from the financing of other basic services programmes – such as health – in emergencies. The review will try to identify the main problems and barriers to good coordination, in particular, looking at challenges or good practice related to coordination between humanitarian and development partners.

Secondly, the review considered current models for education financing in crises. Evidence of the effectiveness of different models is presented, considering aspects such as accountability and timeliness of available funding disbursements.

Finally, the literature review looked at evidence around the cost effectiveness of different partnership models and the financing implications of these models. Aspects that are considered here include the need to align financing with national government priorities, working with governments and NGOs.

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Overall, the literature found that the launch of the Education Cannot Wait fund was the culmination of years of research and advocacy for additional and alternative financing for education in emergencies. The fund's launch marked a major step forward, but its effectiveness – especially at country level – remains to be seen. Donors and other agencies must maintain this momentum to realise funding commitments and efficient disbursements.

Coordinating financing, design, and implementation are inextricably linked. Whilst some of the research focused on one of the three areas, there is a consensus throughout the literature that coordinated implementation leads to more effective programmes and outputs and that this is achieved through coordinated planning. However, within the research there is limited evidence on how to achieve such coordination. Whilst there was no robust research addressing the question in its entirety, a review of relevant literature on cost effective delivery in the context of EiE found common trends, which are detailed below.

1. **Bridging the humanitarian and development divide**

The literature review found that current efforts at coordination between humanitarian and development actors are far from effective and efficient[1]. Greater attention should be given to financing, planning, and implementing throughout the duration of the crisis. Some recommendations to achieve this are made in the literature but few are tested for their effectiveness and efficiency. While recent thinking (ref. Grand Bargain) commits donors to increasingly bridge the humanitarian and development divide, there is a legacy of bifurcation of humanitarian and development assistance across strategies, decision-making, and budgets within donor agencies[2]. Some donors, notably the United States and the European Union (EU), maintain separate humanitarian and development teams with distinct portfolios, remits, and reporting lines. While many

[1] (DFID, 2016) (Nicolai S., 2015) (OECD, 2012) (Bennett, 2015)
[2] (World Humanitarian Summit, 2016)

donors have integrated humanitarian and development structures at capital level, only some have extended such integration to embassies and country offices, hampering coordination and longer-term planning. Education is pertinent in the lifespan of a crisis because it has a role in the 'first-response' as well as in the long-term development context but is rarely planned adequately across both. The research does not offer a structure, model or evidence of 'what works,' to address this dilemma: however, it does emphasise the importance of long-term planning and joined needs assessments. There is need for further evidence and research to understand how this can be achieved[3].

2. **Coordinating at the country level**

Much of the focus on coordination, especially coordinated financing, focuses on the global level. In the absence of strong country level coordination, duplication of efforts and lack of synergies exist which, can be considered poor value for money.

The – often overlooked – role and potential of country-level coordination was referenced in several documents in this review[4]. Whilst much emphasis on coordination is at global level, the literature gave examples where this has led to designs that are not contextually effective or efficient in the country of implementation. Country-level coordination is likely to be achieved through joined planning and partnering with government, and inter-organisational relationships. It should also consider effective participation of citizens. One paper highlighted that the decentralised nature of resilience of the general citizenry should be harnessed, as this makes them individually motivated to contribute to recovery[5].

3. Partnering with government

The review found that for donor coordination to be effective, strong national leadership is needed. Financing should be aligned to national plans and strategies. However, in fragile and conflict affected states, capacity challenges often prevent national governments from exercising this lead role.

The literature review identified a number of references to the important, but often challenging role, of coordination involving government[6]. Tension arises between respecting humanitarian space, which sometimes necessitates bypassing state systems, and creating sustainable development, which necessitates government leadership. One ODI paper states: "Finding solutions to protracted crisis is fundamentally a political issue that requires the full extent of political will, courage, capacity and resources of governments"[7]. The research makes recommendations for joined planning, financing, and implementation with government. However, these tend to be broad-brush statements (e.g. shadow planning; leverage domestic funds) rather than descriptions of how to do it, what works, or if it creates value for money. While DFID maintains there is no single approach in conflict areas, it provides some suggestions on using different aid instruments in three different scenarios[8]:

Where there is state capacity, but no commitment to poverty reduction: consider working with or – if necessary – outside the state, using off-budget, joint, national or regional programmes with pooled funding,

[3] (DFID, 2015)
[4] (Culbertson, Oliker, Baruch, & Blum, 2016)
[5] (Rose & Tyler, 2013)
[6] (Sommers, 2004) (Mendenhall, 2014)
[7] (Bennett, 2015)
[8] (DFID, 2010b)

perhaps with the UN having oversight as a legitimate, neutral intermediary. Use humanitarian projects, but in response to humanitarian need. Partner with non-state actors, and with state actors where possible, such as local government or reformist elements in central government. Shadow align with state systems. Support key reformers in government, perhaps with selective technical cooperation focusing on a few key 'zero generation' reforms.

Where there is both little capacity and little commitment: Similar to the above, considering working with or outside the state, but a lack of state capacity can mean there are more opportunities to work with local government, communities, civil society, and the private sector. Focus on strengthening the capacity of vulnerable communities.

Where there is commitment, but little capacity: Here there are the biggest opportunities to work through the state. Ensure an overarching strategic framework is in place between government and donors, covering political, security, and development strategies. Consider budget support, using Multi-Donor Trust Funds if necessary, large investment projects, security sector reform etc. Provide technical cooperation for capacity building, but ensure it is government-led, not donor-led. Align activities with government budgeting and planning by ensuring all donor projects and programmes are 'on budget', even if not 'through budget'. Complement these with social fund or social protection arrangements to get resources to communities and begin to build from the bottom up. Use direct contracting of the UN and NGOs where national programmes are insufficient, but 'on budget', not 'off budget'.

4. Effective inter-organisational relationships

Conflicting timeframes, priorities, and budgets amongst actors make effective inter-organisational relationships difficult to establish. The literature review found examples of successful and unsuccessful inter-organisational relationships in crisis and subsequent lessons learnt and recommended components for creating effective relationships[9].

It is widely recognised that the presence of multiple actors within the EiE sector creates competing priorities, agendas, timeframes, budgets, and power dynamics which in turn lead to inefficiencies and ineffectiveness. Evidence also suggests that when inter-organisational relationships work well, they can lead to improved effectiveness and efficiency in crisis. Much research has been conducted to understand why inter-organisational relationships are so difficult and what frameworks and tools can be used to enhance collaboration. Whilst focused on emergency contexts, the evidence is not directly related to the education sector and therefore has limitations. Consensus across the literature is that inter-organisational relationships should be built in advance of any crisis, must be formed on trust, and should give participants a clear incentive to work together[10]. Examples of structures for such groups include networks, working groups, and clusters. Some evidence suggests that the EiE sector lacks a single organising body that can make decisions, and that the above structures fall down when they have no appointed decisionmaker. Some papers state that education does not feature prominently in such groups, and advise stakeholders to be present in humanitarian networks to ensure that education is well covered in funding appeals and planning.

[9] (DFID, 2016)
[10] (Kapucu, 2006) (Akl, et al., 2015) (Oh, Okada, & Comfort, 2014) (Eloul, et al., 2013) (Rose & Tyler, 2013)

5. Joint planning

The review found that humanitarian needs assessments play a key role in planning and financing humanitarian programmes, yet education needs are only marginally included in these. The literature review recommends joined planning with a more prominent focus on education in humanitarian and development plans.

Needs assessments are a requirement to determine financial strategies and gaps. The literature identified a number of challenges related to emergency needs assessments and the coverage of education. One analysis noted that, of 27 emergency needs assessment initiatives, none covered education in any depth[11]. Similarly, analysis of conflict assessments, conflict mitigation strategies, and early warning tools shows an absence or superficial coverage of education[12]. The research recommends education advisers take prominent place in joined planning.

Most countries will have a national education plan that has been the subject of consultation with a range of national and international actors. In many cases, these will align with sector-wide approaches (SWAps), or with education sector plans. These are intended to improve donor coordination and develop a clear financial strategy for meeting identified financing gaps. In the humanitarian community, needs and financial requirements have increasingly been identified and captured in tools such as strategic response plans (SRPs). SRPs identify the scale of need, a series of activities, and the intended numbers of beneficiaries to benefit from educational or protection activities, as well as which organisations will engage in the education sector in a particular area[13]. Several documents in the literature review highlight the need for better data and evidence, and better use of these to inform planning.

6. Innovative funding sources and delivery mechanisms

A number of ODI-led publications, went a long way to addressing funding sources and mechanisms in research papers that led to the creation of the Education Cannot Wait Fund[14]. Nicolai and other authors make comparisons with successful funding in other humanitarian sub-sectors, and review the advantages and disadvantages of pooled funds, budget support, bonds, multi-donor trust funds, and cash transfers[15].

The review found that financing education will be most challenging for fragile low-income countries; additional annual financing of $7.9 billion will be needed in this context to cover total annual costs by 2020 and meet the SDGs[16]. Many papers look to other humanitarian sub-sectors (for example health) to identify successful examples of innovative financing mechanisms and make recommendations for leveraging funds. Most recommendations include some analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of each. This is covered most comprehensively in one of the research papers that led to the creation of the Education Cannot Wait Fund. This paper states[17]:

[11] (Nicolai S., 2015)
[12] (Kirk & Winthrop, 2013)
[13] (Nicolai S., 2016a)
[14] (Nicolai S., 2015) (Nicolai S. , 2016a) (Nicolai S. , 2016b)
[15] (Colenso & Leader, 2005) (International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity, 2017) (Dom, 2009) (Rose & Greeley, 2017) (DFID, 2010c)
[16] (Steer & Smith, 2015)
[17] (Nicolai, Hine, & Wales, 2015)

"MDTFs can help bridge the gap between humanitarian and development financing and offer benefits in terms of pooling risk and funding even when government systems are not strong enough to be utilised".

"Pooled fund mechanisms allow greater coordination across agencies and can encourage a more programmatic approach in crisis contexts, as well as long-term planning for transition periods".

"Budget support mechanisms involve channelling funds directly to the government of the crisis-affected state in question, with varying degrees of ear-marking as to the sectors it can be allocated to. This mechanism has the strongest degree of country ownership over decision-making and can allow governments to continue operating, or rebuild, basic structures and services during the duration of the crisis. However, it is generally viewed as carrying considerable risks in fragile states where legitimacy, capacity and the strength of governance are all likely to be low".

There is growing interest in the potential of cash transfers as an effective aid modality in emergencies. Some evidence shows that cash transfers provide choice and agency to those affected by emergencies and protracted crises. Relative to traditional aid, they shift decision making power from donors to beneficiaries, allowing the latter to choose what good or service best fits their needs. Evidence suggests cash transfers are an extremely effective aid instrument, and, when used well, are high value for money[18]. Cash transfers may also be effective in contexts in which the government is unable or unwilling to provide education services, and thus where traditional budget or sector support approaches may not be as effective. However, cash transfers will be effective in emergencies only when goods, services, and resources are available or can be quickly scaled up. In acute emergencies, there is often an immediate shortfall of available education resources (e.g. teachers, education materials, infrastructure) and this may not be easily resolved by cash infusion at a household level.

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

There is extremely little evidence on the economy, efficiency, or effectiveness of coordination between organisations financing, designing, and implementing education programmes in emergency settings. Most of the evidence focuses on financial flows, financing gaps, and financing modalities at the global/multilateral level. Very few address how to coordinate funds, design, and delivery at country level in a way that maximises value for money.

There is some literature on how to coordinate with education partners in emergencies. While few of these mention value for money, some assess the effectiveness of the coordination, usually in terms of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, i.e. donor alignment, donor harmonisation, results, and mutual accountability. More – and better-designed – research is needed to assess the effectiveness of different coordination mechanisms and models between different organisations providing education services in disaster and conflict crises.

The available evidence generally comprises studies, reports and information sources that fall far short of the 'gold standard' of independent, peer-reviewed evaluations and papers. Limited availability of evidence means that some of the evidence cited here is over 10 years old. Also noteworthy is a lack of evidence on the effectiveness, economy, efficiency, or equity of coordination at a national level. Much of the evidence is quite

[18] (Nicolai & Hine, Investment for education in emergencies. A review of evidence., 2015)

broad and makes some recommendations but does not provide evaluation of *what works* or practical strategies on *how to do it*.

4 CONCLUSION

Through a review of current evidence, this Evidence Brief has aimed to answer the following research question regarding education in emergencies:

> *How can DFID coordinate with partners to finance, design and implement education programmes that maximise value for money?*

There is limited robust evidence that answers this question in its entirety. The evidence that does exist consists of documents that discuss coordinated financing, planning and/or implementation, and go some way towards evaluating effective models and making recommendations for improved practice. However, the broad recommendations and general guidance lack concrete strategies and evidence of what works in relation to value for money. The ODI research papers prepared by Nicolai et. al. in 2015 and 2016 provided the groundwork for design of the Education Cannot Wait fund. The Education Cannot Wait fund is one recent example of an effort at improved coordination of financing for education in emergencies. The effectiveness of this innovative global fund at country-level will need to be subject to rigorous research in the years ahead.

5 ANNEX 1- SUMMARIES OF DOCUMENTS RECEIVED

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.

5.1 THEME 1: EVIDENCE AROUND EFFECTIVE COORDINATION

Business Case: Education Cannot Wait (ECW) (DFID, 2016)

This 2016 Business Case sets out the strategic case for DFID to invest an initial £30 million in a new fund for education in emergencies. The Business Case builds upon previous ODI reports and describes the fundamental problems in how education in conflict affected and fragile states is currently planned, delivered, and financed. The case highlights that donors and countries often struggle to design sustainable financing and delivery plans to cover the lifespan of a crisis. Humanitarian financing instruments are designed for 'first response' support in high-risk settings: however, they are poorly designed to meet long-term education needs as they tend to be too short-term and are less engaged with national counterparts. Whilst development financing is designed for long-term, country embedded support, it is often too slow to respond to crises and does not kick in at all where institutions are weak or there are high levels of insecurity. Another critical issue is poor in-country coordination between partners. Whilst a range of formal coordination structures exist at country level between humanitarian or development partners, there is mixed success in bring both groups together on education. These structures tend to act solely as networks and lack decision-making mechanisms. Governments, who should play the role of decision makers, often lack the basic capacity to coordinate the high numbers of humanitarian and development organisations. Clearer incentives and systems for partners to work together are needed. These problems support the case that an ECW fund is the most effective coordination mechanism for EiE, based on an appraisal of three different delivery options against five Critical Success Criteria.

In this Business case, ODI estimated the unit cost for ECW at $157 per child, in line with costs for bilateral programmes within fragile and conflict affected states. The evidence underpinning these cost estimates is fairly weak given the breadth of potential countries and costs. ECW will therefore need to develop a robust

monitoring of costs and cost effectiveness against results across countries to further refine the expected unit cost and cost drivers. On the benefits side, the developmental return on education in emergencies should be higher when provided through a global platform, primarily due to scale. A cost-benefit analysis in the DFID Business Case for ECW drew on average rate of returns associated with completion of primary and secondary education in Nigeria and Yemen. On the basis of these assumptions, DFID notes "the model yielded a benefit to cost ratio (BCR) of 5.5 which is substantial and a strong indication of value for money".

Education in emergencies and protracted crises: Toward a strengthened response. (Nicolai S. , 2015)

This ODI report, written to inform the Oslo Summit on Education for Development (July 2015), advocates that increased political commitment and resourcing are needed to address education in emergencies and protracted crises. It describes the education response architecture, noting that "despite the large number of actors, there is limited reach and a persistent lack of capacity for implementation at country level", and notes that complexity in the differing roles and objectives of different coordinating bodies has led to limited links between these actors. Moreover, it suggests that better-linking coordination structures would strengthen the response architecture. The report makes four key recommendations: 1) a 'Champions Group' of high level actors is formed to advance global action; 2) consolidated Principles for Education in Emergencies and Protracted Crises are established and implemented; 3) a common platform for Education in Emergencies and Protracted Crises is set up to address humanitarian and development architectural issues; and 4) urgent attention is given to addressing the finance gap for education in crises, starting with an assessment of options, followed by creation of a dedicated fund or new modalities.

Rethinking coordination of services to refugees in Urban areas: Managing the crisis in Jordan and Lebanon (Culbertson, Oliker, Baruch, & Blum, 2016)

This RAND report makes several contributions to the existing literature on coordination. First, it assesses the management model of a complex emergency response in urban areas in middle-income countries, whereas most existing literature about humanitarian responses focuses on camps in weak states. Secondly, it brings together views of a broad spectrum of stakeholders to provide a comprehensive, multidimensional analysis of management of the Syrian refugee crisis in Jordan and Lebanon. Thirdly, this report presents a new framework for planning, evaluating, and managing refugee crises in urban settings, both in the Syrian refugee crisis as well as other such situations going forward. Fourthly, it provides concrete recommendations for how to better support the needs of Syrian urban refugees in Jordan and Lebanon and for how to rethink refugee-assistance coordination around the world for improved effectiveness in the future. Recommendations include: i) improve donor coordination by creating a "contact group" for the Syrian refugee response; ii) embed a ten-year outlook in the planning process for the refugee responses; iii) create a funding plan with ten-year vision; and iv) evaluate current plans and develop new ones for each sector.

Coordinating Education during Emergencies and Reconstruction: Challenges and Responsibilities (Sommers, 2004)

This book predates the launch of the ECW fund, and explores why the coordination of humanitarian and post-conflict reconstruction activities is so difficult to accomplish in the education sector. It also suggests ways to overcome barriers to effective coordination. The book reviews the roles and responsibilities that key actors hold in the coordination of education during emergencies. It considers the associated barriers to coordination that arise from the differing roles and viewpoints of different actors (for example NGOOs, UN, civil society, and local and national governments). Poor coordination is strongly linked to issues of power, mistrust, competition for resources, a limited understanding of accountability, insufficient time, and mismatched priorities. The book examines humanitarian coordination structures and the problem of the education sector remaining on the side-lines of such activity. It advocates for the establishment of education as a featured component of humanitarian work. The book demonstrates that responsibility for the coordination of the education sector is often shared amongst many parties. The book proposes, as a way forward, that there is need for better clarification of roles

and stronger leadership. Government education authorities are best placed as leaders and they can achieve this effectively through development of emergency educational priorities and plans. The book also suggests that since education is a long-term endeavour it is best coordinated as one; thus timescales should be expanded, and associated costs should be budgeted just like any other activity.

Education sustainability in the relief-development transition: Challenges for international organisations working in countries affected by conflict (Mendenhall, 2014)

In this article, Mendenhall examines the challenges that affect sustainability of educational support provided by international organisations during the relief-development transition in post-conflict countries. The qualitative study draws on structured interviews with practitioner-experts working in different types of international organisations. The article supports the growing consensus within the international community that education both plays a key role in humanitarian response and can provide long-term development in these contexts. The article analyses the opportunities, knowledge and skills provided by educational support during a crisis and asserts that these need to be recognised and leveraged in the transition to development. Some of the recommendations made in the article include: 1) engage in partnerships among and between relevant and diverse organisations and national and local stakeholders, including, in particular, partnerships that leverage the comparative advantages that each group contributes and prepares one or more actors for the transfer and assumption of responsibility for the longer-term; 2) secure long-term and predictable financial assistance that initially is generated through a combination of external assistance and a country's national and community resources with expenses ultimately being covered in the government's education budgets; and 3) integrate educational support provided into the system—i.e. the government level, community level, or both—by transferring responsibility of the programme to the appropriate stakeholders.

Interagency Communication Networks During Emergencies. Boundary Spanners in Multiagency Coordination (Kapucu, 2006)

This article examines effective interagency communication among organisations (including differing government departments, NGOs, and the private sector) in emergency contexts. It looks at the role of information technologies to achieve effective communication and decision-making goals in emergencies. It explores what factors contribute to effective inter-organisational communication and decision-making and what factors inhibit their development. The article draws on the literature of emergency communication and social capital, and uses the September 11th emergency response operations as a case study to understand these issues. The article highlights the importance of developing a strong communication system within and across different organisations before a disaster occurs. Planning in advance is crucial to enable effective interagency coordination during an emergency. The article recommends that inter-organisational relationships, including trust building, need to be fostered in advance and this can be achieved through inter-organisational networks. Individual, public, non-profit, and business sector leaders should provide incentives and information in advance to promote inter-organisational networks: for example, this could be an internet system connecting different institutions. The article asserts that established inter-organisational networks coordinate and communicate together more effectively in emergencies.

International Support to Post-Conflict Transition: Rethinking Policy, Changing Practice (OECD, 2012)

This study from OECD, part of the DAC Guidelines and Reference Series, looks at international responses to post conflict fragile states in transition and outlines four critical obstacles that block the more effective use of aid in transition contexts. These include (i) fragmented aid architecture and overlapping guiding principles. This means that humanitarian assistance is stretched to the brink and relied upon to fund a broader set of transition priorities far beyond its mandate and expertise. (ii) Donor approaches focus on risk avoidance rather than context-specific risk management. Accountability and reporting requirements that are used during transition have often been designed for more stable environments. (iii) Development plans and strategies are grounded

in the recognition of the massive needs that are present during transition, but often fail to prioritise and sequence activities. Finally, (iv) donors struggle to understand how different aid instruments can be used in parallel to support rapid and sustainable delivery. This guidance sets out recommendations to improve transition support in four key areas: i) find better ways of dealing with risk by clarifying the relationship between different guiding principles and improving approaches to risk taking and risk management; (ii) help governments in transition to prioritise their development plans; (iii) a mix of aid instruments can improve financing for agreed priorities based on harmonisation, institutional transformation, speed and flexibility, and scope for risk management; and (iv) improve collective engagement using transition compacts.

The development agency of the future - Fit for protracted crises? (Bennett, 2015)

This paper highlights the improvements donors have made to address long-term responses to protracted and recurrent crises and states the changes they must continue to address. Donors are beginning to address the unhelpful divides within their own institutions by developing cross-governmental structures, strategies, and funding instruments that seek to integrate humanitarian and development responses and bridge aid, security, and peacebuilding. Donors have also developed different strategies for building greater flexibility into their funding schemes and filling what they perceive are the gaps in funding for transition activities. However, such efforts have been more about technical solutions than fundamental change. Recommendations from the paper include:

1. Agencies need to be transparent about the interrelation between politics, security, economics, and development when making decisions about humanitarian priorities and funds, preserve humanitarian space when it is needed, and bring the full skills, capacities, and weight of governments to bear on protracted crises when coherence is called for.
2. Agencies must bridge architectural divides within donor institutions and partners by aligning strategies, processes, and tools. They must promote strategic and operational coherence across humanitarian and development departments and align performance and career incentives with coherent programme objectives.
3. Agencies should shift from a centralised to a decentralised model of decision-making and action that enables more local responses to crises.
4. Develop and promote a combination of proactive and reactive funding and financing tools.
5. Recognise that finding solutions to protracted crises is fundamentally a political issue that requires the full extent of political will, courage, capacity, and resources of donor governments.

Effectiveness of Mechanisms and Models of Coordination between Organisations, Agencies and Bodies Providing or Financing Health Services in Humanitarian Crises: A Systematic Review (Akl, et al., 2015)

This systematic review of the effectiveness of coordination between partners in disaster and humanitarian crises in the health sector found only four eligible studies, and those were deemed to be of very low quality. The objective of this review was to assess how, during and after humanitarian crises, different mechanisms and models of coordination between organisations, agencies, and bodies providing or financing health services compare in terms of access to health services and health outcomes. The evidence suggested that information coordination between bodies providing health services in humanitarian crises may be effective in improving health systems inputs, and that management/directive coordination (such as the cluster model) may improve health system inputs in addition to access to health services. The overarching argument was that information coordination and management coordination has shown to have positive impact in the health sector.

Building Collaborative Emergency Management Systems in Northeast Asia: A Comparative Analysis of the Roles of International Agencies (Oh, Okada, & Comfort, 2014)

This study (cited in Akl et al. 2015) was conducted in Japan following the 2011 earthquake and tsunami, focusing on the brokerage role of international agencies to facilitate collaboration and coordination among the large number of agencies that participate and interact in a response network. It noted that without systems for collaboration, response systems in disaster operations are easily fragmented and often compound loss of life and property for the affected citizens. Furthermore, building collaborative systems for disaster management can pose challenges due to historical conflicts and rivalries. The study used a brokerage role framework to analyse the network of response organisations that emerged following the disasters, and explored whether agencies used structural embeddedness to enhance collaboration in the response system. Findings showed that 'brokers' facilitating international collaboration were rare, indicating the importance of existing social capital and organisational capacities to function as brokers in international emergency management systems. Furthermore, when an international organisation takes a central position in the network and serves as leading agency, it can enhance the competencies of the overall emergency response system by serving as channelling agencies for critical resources and information.

Inter-agency coordination of mental health and psychosocial support for refugees and people displaced in Syria (Eloul, et al., 2013)

In this article, Eloul and others provide an in-depth description of inter-agency coordination of mental health and psychosocial support (MHPSS) for refugees and people displaced in Syria, and reflect on the challenges and lessons learnt. They highlighted the incompatibility of an online coordination forum in a predominantly oral culture where electronic services are regularly disrupted, and, despite these difficulties, the need for sharing regularly updated information about staffing and activities. They found that MHPSS had not been sufficiently mainstreamed across sectors when the crisis began, and lacked multidisciplinary coordination. A lack of joint needs assessments, common assessment and planning tools, as well as field coordination had hampered response efforts. As a result, the MHPSS working group decided to re-emphasise coordination and capacity building. The authors concluded that inter-agency coordination is crucial for accountability, transparency, avoiding duplication, information sharing, and efficient use of limited resources. Availability and continuity of working group coordinators with sufficient technical competence is important for effective and sustainable coordination. Creating ownership for inter-agency guidance and contextualised standards is vital, for example through participatory planning and capacity building.

5.2 THEME 2: FINANCING MODELS

Two papers by research teams at ODI laid the groundwork for and recommended the establishment of a pooled fund for education in emergencies, which led to the creation of the Education Cannot Wait Fund for Education in Emergencies in 2016/17 with UNICEF as the 'incubator' host. The first of these, by Nicolai et al. (2015), details the challenges, existing response architecture, finance gaps, and possible solutions for strengthening the global response to education in emergencies and protracted crises. The second makes the evidence case for a common platform for education in emergencies and protracted crises.

Education Cannot Wait: proposing a fund for education in emergencies (Nicolai S. , 2016b)

This ODI report, commissioned by the Technical Strategy Group on education in emergencies and protracted crises[19], outlines the potential operation of Education Cannot Wait (ECW), a fund for education in emergencies.

[19] The Technical Strategy Group consists of 19 governments, organisations and networks, with the Governments of Canada and the UK serving as co-chairs, Save the Children serving as secretariat and the following members: the Governments of Lebanon, Norway, South Sudan and the US, the Office of the UN Special Envoy for Education, the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF), the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural

It presents five strategies for ECW: to increase high level attention, raise significant additional money, unite humanitarian and development efforts, strengthen individual and institutional capacity of those leading education efforts in crises and develop and share knowledge. Correspondingly, it explains how the platform's function will be to inspire political commitment, joint planning and response, generate and disburse funding, strengthen capacity, and improve accountability. To operationalise the fund, the authors recommend two disbursement mechanisms: a Breakthrough Fund for rapid response and multiyear support windows (95% of funding), and an Acceleration Facility (5% of funding) to invest in existing actors to expand and extend collective work and global public goods to deliver high-quality education services in crises. A roadmap provides indicative headline results and estimates the platform will reach 75 million out-of-school children by Year 15.

A common platform for education in emergencies and protracted crises: Evidence paper. (Nicolai S. , 2016a)

This ODI evidence paper was commissioned by the Technical Strategy Group on education in emergencies and protracted crises, established following the Oslo Summit on Education for Development (July 2015). The report presents the evidence for a common platform for education in emergencies in terms of: 1) architectural issues (humanitarian, development, government); 2) capacity-strengthening (workforce, information, preparedness); 3) financing landscape (potential sources, delivery mechanisms, lessons learnt); and 4) institutional arrangements (hosting and governance). Two country case studies from Lebanon and South Sudan explore how a new platform might be operationalised in these two contexts. It also reviews the lessons learnt from a financing perspective in four different country-level education funds: the Liberian EPF, Lebanon's RACE, Zimbabwe's ETF, and the MDTF in South Sudan (in Annex 3).

The paper describes some of the advantages and disadvantages of various funding mechanisms that are relevant to highlight here:

- "Pooled fund mechanisms allow greater coordination across agencies and can encourage a more programmatic approach in crisis contexts, as well as long-term planning for transition periods."
- "Budget support mechanisms involve channelling funds directly to the government of the crisis-affected state in question, with varying degrees of ear-marking as to the sectors it can be allocated to. This mechanism has the strongest degree of country ownership over decision-making and can allow governments to continue operating, or rebuild, basic structures and services during the duration of the crisis. However, it is generally viewed as carrying considerable risks in fragile states where legitimacy, capacity and the strength of governance are all likely to be low. In recent years budget support has mainly been implemented via pooled funds, as part of a wider strategy, (e.g. Afghanistan and Timor Leste) or directly to new governments in post-conflict countries (e.g. Rwanda and Sierra Leone). There is little data on how this mechanism is used in the immediate response to the emergence of crisis contexts, but it may play a more important long-term and transition role as noted in literature particularly on post-conflict settings (see OECD, 2012)."
- "The health sector can offer some successful examples of innovative financing mechanisms that could be developed in the education in emergencies sector. Promising potential elements include disaster risk insurance, bond issuance linked to education outcomes and RBA. Recently published research suggests MGFs such as Gavi and the Global Fund are some of the most effective donors in terms of their helpfulness in reform, agenda-setting influence and usefulness of advice as ranked by receiving countries (Custer et al., 2015)." Cited in Nicolai et al 2016.

Organisation (UNESCO), the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), Dubai Cares, the European Commission (EC), the Global Business Coalition for Education, the Global Compact on Learning Donor Network, the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) and the World Bank.

- "Multi Donor Trust Funds (MDTF) are often set up in post-crisis situations where government capacity is uncertain (Thomson and Karachiwalla, 2009, cited in Nicolai 2015). For donors who want to provide funding to post-crisis situations where government capacity is lacking, they often look to MDTFs for the confidence that they are well managed (Thomson and Karachiwalla, 2009). The reliable and stable rhythm of MDTF funding is also attractive for donors who wish to see regular investments made in an effective manner. There are also some examples of funds attracting funds from non-traditional donors. The trust from donors that MDTFs gain by being managed by the UN and World Bank can also become a challenge as the start-up expenses and administrative costs can be high. By often distributing directly to governments, MDTFs can exhibit less inclusion of non-governmental voices as part of the disbursement prioritisation process and may end up with less flexibility in the use of funds (Thomson and Karachiwalla, 2009). MDTFs would be a useful financing mechanism for education in crises contexts given their ability to build longer-term, stable and reliable funding streams that would be needed to rebuild education infrastructure. It is notable, however, that a 2012 systematic review of MDTFs found they were most effective in transferring ownership of development programmes only when the partner government was firmly established (but needing extra capacity). They reference the difficulty of transferring ownership where there is no government or government authorities are weak, which is often the case in protracted crises (Barakat et al., 2012 cited in Nicolai et al 2015). So, while MDTFs could potentially play a role in education financing in places of natural disaster with under-resourced but strong governments, the current evidence should be taken into account when considering their role in protracted crises."

Financing education: Opportunities for global action (Steer & Smith, 2015)

This report reviews the financing efforts for the education sector in developing countries during the past decade and assesses what will be required in the coming years to reach the basic education goals by 2030. The report draws on a variety of data sources as well as five country case studies. The report takes a broad focus across both low- and middle-income countries, but specific reference is made to fragile states. The report finds that financing the SDGs will be most challenging for fragile LDCs; additional annual financing of $7.9 billion will be needed in this context to cover total annual costs by 2020, equivalent to 36 percent of total cost. Recent growth in aid to fragile states should thus be welcomed. The report provides analysis of factors that could alleviate some of the shortfalls to financing education including leveraging domestic resource mobilisation, making more effective use of limited resources through improved donor coordination, innovative mechanisms aimed at leveraging new sources of funds and creating stronger links between financing and results, new financing mechanisms to open up opportunities for collaboration across both non-state and state actors, for example, impact bonds. The report produces four action points:

1. Establish a Global Commission on Education and Financing—making a compelling case for investment in education using evidence and high-level leadership
2. Create a global platform for coordination and scale up of external support
3. Commit to a data revolution in education linking financing and learning
4. Seize opportunities to mobilise and manage domestic finances for education

Aid Instruments in Fragile States: PRDE Working Paper 5. (Colenso & Leader, 2005)

This Working Paper is one of a series prepared by the Poverty Reduction in Difficult Environments (PRDE) team in DFID. It aims to understand how aid can be increased and improved in fragile environments, and in particular which aid instruments offer promise for meeting immediate needs, supporting pro-poor political reform, and developing sustainable systems for delivering services and social protection. Evidence is compiled from literature, fragile states case studies, OECD and DFID statistics, and interviews with staff from DFID, other development agencies, think tanks and academics. The paper reviews promising aid instruments in fragile

states including budget support, social funds, pooled funding, projects, and humanitarian aid. Whilst asserting that there is no 'one size fits all' approach the paper provides general uses of different aid instruments in different contexts; in particular looking at the different levels of state commitment and capacity. The paper recommends approaches including experimentation, standardised strategic frameworks – to prioritise and plan donor interventions, 'shadow alignment' – working with parallel but state-compatible planning and budgeting systems and long-term programmatic planning from the outset instead of scaling up.

INEE Reference Guide on External Education Financing. (INEE, 2010)

The purpose of this guide is to enable national decision makers in low-income countries, including those in fragile situations, to better understand the ways in which donors provide education assistance, how various funding mechanisms work and why donors choose one funding mechanism over another to support education. The Reference Guide is written from a donor point of view and sets out to explain existing funding mechanisms. It is intended to help national education policy-makers understand the design, goals, and constraints of existing types of donor assistance, thereby helping them better navigate country-donor relationships. The first part of the Reference Guide helps readers understand how donors view funding needs in the education sector and the funding mechanisms that they use in different situations. Part II defines the different organisations that fund education (donors) and deliver education services (service providers, such as international and local NGOs). It also provides an overview about how donors work together, both internationally and at the country level. Part III summarises the major characteristics of each principal type of funding mechanism for education.

Overview of Education Financing Mechanisms (International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity, 2017)

This paper outlines what collective actions on financing are needed to get all children in school and learning by 2030. The overview is designed to assist stakeholders in dialogues with donors, policy-makers, and any other supporters, and clarifies the shape of the overall aid architecture for education. By setting out the challenges facing the education sector, it presents clear pathways for donors to contribute and collectively mobilise the necessary financing to achieve SDG4. It centres overall success around five key actions: i) increase domestic budgets for education by expanding their tax base to reach to 5.8% of GDP; ii) Increase ODA and commit 15% of aid to education, targeting countries most in need; iii) fully fund the Global Partnership for Education by providing $2 billion per year by 2020; iv) fully fund Education Cannot Wait by providing $3.85 billion by 2021; and v) establish an International Financing Facility to unlock more than $10 billion per year by 2020.

Education For All Fast Track Initiative mid-term evaluation (Dom, 2009)

This paper assesses the degree to which the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI) helped to improve aid effectiveness within the education sector. It draws lessons learned from the FTI's strengths and weaknesses and makes a series of recommendations to further improve future partnership programming and effectiveness. The paper outlines the history of the FTI partnership's engagement with Fragile States and briefly discusses the extent to which the fragile states agenda has been mainstreamed into other FTI work streams. It also relates this to broader aid management issues when partnerships are fragile, and highlights how this issue can best be addressed through country studies. In the final part, there is a review of individual countries' trajectories in relation to the FTI, including those considered as 'fragile states', and some reflection on the issue of fragile partnerships in contrast with fragile states.

Learning to deliver education in fragile states (Rose & Greeley, 2017)

The Fragile States Group within the Development Assistance Committee of OECD is working to advise donors on provision of education services in fragile states. Main recommendations include: i) endeavour to pool donor

funds and ensure timely, predictable, and effective cash flows; ii) merge the agendas of the INEE and FTI to build on each of their strengths, and not maintain the current distinct tracks of emergency short-term response versus attention to long-term aid; iii) forge national consensus around curriculum reform; iv) avoid the dangers of over-focusing on technical assistance while ignoring political realities; v) make criteria for allocating funds to fragile states more transparent and less subject to strategic considerations; and vi) ensure that mechanisms of accountability developed during the period of fragility are not ignored when government is strengthened.

Strategies for financing of education: A global view. (Burnett, 2010)

This non-peer-reviewed essay for the International Working Group on Education reviews the recent trends, resulting issues and needs of international financing for education. It notes that the long decline in UNESCO's real budget for education over the last 30 years has led to an inefficient coordination of research and knowledge management about education, with other agencies such as the World Bank, UNICEF, and DFID only partially succeeding in filling the gap. In addition, while many foundations finance the education of individuals, very few support the development of evidence on education systems, in striking contrast to the situation in health where there is enormous support for evidence-building by the Gates Foundation.

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

Based on a review of evidence and experience, this paper suggests that the international community needs a new approach to support the education of children living in "protracted crises". This paper argues that business as usual is unlikely to meet the education needs of populations affected by crisis. While current approaches have undoubtedly played an important role in maintaining a lifeline to learning, the evidence indicates that they are not sufficient to meet the needs of these vulnerable children. The paper reviews what is known about where to invest in, and explores how the organisation and financing of education for children living in these most difficult situations could be reconfigured. The paper concludes by suggesting principles to guide the international community in the design and delivery of education initiatives in protracted crises. Key recommendations include:

1. Review whether the global education architecture and finance are fit for purpose. This could include encouraging dialogue and consideration of the global architecture, and whether an alternative global fund is part of the answer;
2. Agencies should also consider reviewing their own operational delivery. Agencies may also want to consider whether they can get better at sharing best practise on delivery across their programming both internally and externally;
3. Look for opportunities to scale up investment in evidence and innovation;
4. Integrate approaches to basic services and child protection, especially for girls, in programming.

5.3 THEME 3: PARTNERSHIPS, INCLUDING WORKING WITH GOVERNMENTS

Economic Considerations in Designing Emergency Management Institutions and Policies for Transboundary Disasters. (Rose & Tyler, 2013)

This article suggests an economic framework for designing emergency management institutions and policies to address transboundary disasters. The article defines transboundary disasters in terms of cross-political, cross-functional (with respect to systems), and time scales, and focuses primarily on the political dimension. The article begins by identifying the several categories of economic consequences from disasters and describes major ways to reduce these consequences. It emphasises cooperative solutions among countries. The article includes a discussion of how desirable policy and institutional design are affected by economies of scale, externalities, and public goods. The article concludes that transboundary problems are best addressed by

transboundary solutions at different scales. Also, cooperative efforts typically increase centralisation, which may have some downsides in terms of the speed of response. In addition, ways need to be found to harness the decentralised nature of resilience of the general citizenry through individual motivation to contribute to recovery. This is a valuable, but often overlooked, complement to government efforts.

Raising the standard: the Multilateral Development Review (DFID, 2016)

The Multilateral Development Review, conducted in 2016, systematically assesses the performance of 38 multilateral institutions that the UK funds through DFID. DFID rigorously assessed results and value for money, risk and assurance, transparency, and accountability. The Review demonstrates that close working relationships have produced improvements in delivery in some agencies, for example the Food and Agriculture Organisation and International Organisation for Migration. However, this is not the case for all organisations The Review found that 'the multilateral system as a whole is falling short of its considerable potential because agencies, and the wider UN family, are not working together'. The Review asserts that closer working relationships, with less competition and duplication between organisations, and more collaboration and coordination will improve performance. As part of the Review DFID re-asserts its commitment to the multilateral system and to strengthening it for example by setting out more requirements for multilateral agencies, including new openness about management and administration budgets and by working with others to convene and lead a global coalition to support and reform the multilateral system. It is the intention that through radical action DFID and partners will ensure a multilateral system that is 'even faster, more effective and more efficient'.

Working Effectively in Conflict-affected and Fragile Situations (DFID, 2010a)

In this Briefing Paper E, focused on Aligning with Local Priorities, alignment is the use of a partner country's policies, strategies, and priorities to guide donor action – including programming choices and administrative, budgetary, and other systems for aid management and delivery. The main lessons shared in this brief are to:

- Analyse context, undertake systems diagnostics – Decisions about the type and degree of alignment should be based on analysis of the local context, the risks and potential benefits, and an assessment of country policies and systems.
- Don't assume local priorities are obvious – The failure of many projects has often been down to ineffective participation of the community or a lack of needs analysis when designing projects.
- Recognise trade-offs – Decisions on how far to align with a partner government often reflect a trade-off between supporting state-building by aligning fully, and ensuring aid reaches those in need as quickly as possible by bypassing state systems.
- Align fully where possible – In situations of strong government leadership, sound pro-poor policy and reforming and improving administration, and alignment to government policies and systems is possible and preferable.
- Budget support is high risk, but potentially high return – PRBS must be embedded in robust capacity –building approaches to deliver returns.
- Support and incentivise system reform – If the quality of government systems prevents full alignment, plan for progressive alignment over time.
- Shadow alignment is possible – However, it can be politically sensitive. Working with diplomatic colleagues in a 'whole of government' manner is essential.

- Remain aware of changing context and be flexible in your response.

Working Effectively in Conflict-affected and Fragile Situations - Briefing Paper G: Act Fast … but Stay Engaged. (DFID, 2010c)

Engaging in conflict-affected countries may entail many different types of relationships, from full partnership to much more cautious forms of engagement, requiring adaptation of standard instruments and approaches. When planning assistance to exploit new openings created by peace agreements or political transitions, DFID will normally provide support for a combination of humanitarian assistance and early recovery activities. Both should be delivered in such a way as to lay the groundwork for longer term approaches to development. This paper reviews some of the considerations involved in balancing these different objectives. The paper then talks about engaging at the humanitarian, development interface, then acting fast and staying engaged. The brief key lessons shared under these three phases include humanitarian assistance, early recovery, and planning, which should be implemented in such a way as to support each other. Humanitarian assistance can help establish sustainable livelihoods. Early recovery can create the preconditions for state-building and long-term development. However, each may require different instruments and approaches. Humanitarian assistance and early recovery require rapid-disbursement instruments with light and flexible procedures. Longer term development initiatives require partnerships with national authorities that can take longer to establish. For acting fast, the paper shares a host of rapid financing of post-conflict and post-crisis interventions. The optimal selection of instruments and approaches must be based on such factors as the nature of the relationship with national authorities, the level of national capacity, and an appropriate form of donor coordination. Finally, during the continued engagement phase, DFID can make effective use of Development Partnership Arrangements (DPAs) to signal a long-term commitment to its partners, even in fragile and conflict affected situations, but these must be reviewed regularly to be a useful platform for dialogue.

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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

PRODUCED FOR

Department for International Development

EVIDENCE BRIEF 4: QUALITY AND LEARNING

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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.

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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

PRODUCED FOR

Department for International Development

EVIDENCE BRIEF 5: PROTECTION AND INCLUSION

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

11 2017

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

The review found robust evidence on interventions that aimed to protect children in an inclusive way in hot conflict and protracted refugee contexts; and limited evidence regarding natural disasters. Lessons learnt regarding the implementation of 'safe spaces' for children in refugee camp settings are well documented. However, evidence on how child protection in schools operating as part of a national education system was not found. The evidence consists mainly of programme evaluations at the local level that rarely interface with a country's education system. Regarding inclusion, most of the evidence relates to interventions that focus on girls. Evidence on how education interventions can be inclusive of children with disabilities or other highly vulnerable group, (such as orphans or child soldiers) is thin.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND DEFINITIONS

Conflict, disasters, and state fragility have devastating effects on children's lives, and further exacerbate challenges to providing inclusive education and child protection. The children who are most affected by exclusion and protection issues during emergencies are typically the most vulnerable and marginalised children in the community, such as girls, children with disabilities, children from ethnic or religious minorities, children without parental care, and children from the poorest segments of society. Thus, education can play a protective role in emergencies, providing a safe space for children and young people to receive support from responsible adults. Given this situation, this Evidence Brief is guided by the following research question:

How can DFID (and its partners) ensure that formal/informal schools are safe spaces that protect children and are inclusive of the most vulnerable - particularly girls and children with disabilities?

This Brief aims to summarise what is and is not known about the protection and inclusion of the most vulnerable children during conflict, protracted refugee crises, and natural disasters. This Brief, uses a Save the Children definition of child **protection** systems: 'a set of laws, policies, regulations and services needed across all social sectors to prevent and respond to abuse, neglect, exploitation and violence affecting children'.[1] **Inclusion** is defined as responding to the diversity of needs among all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion from and within education. It involves changes in content, approaches, structures, and strategies, driven by a common vision that covers all children and the conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all of them.[2]

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

The following table summarises the evidence that has been included in this Brief. It presents four themes that were most prominent in this literature:

1. Ensuring education inclusion during conflict and/or refugee crises
2. Supporting traumatised children during conflict and/or refugee crises
3. Protecting girls from GBV during conflict and/or refugee crises
4. Providing safe spaces and child protection during conflict and/or refugee crises

Although the table does include a fifth theme (ensuring education inclusion during/after a natural disaster), this was to acknowledge DFID's interest in this area and to demonstrate the dearth of evidence that exists.

Studies have been classified as 'robust evidence' (rigorous research scrutinised by a peer-review process), 'moderately robust' (research with varying degrees of rigour that has not been peer reviewed), and 'not

[1] (Save the Children, 2003)
[2] (UNGEI/Fast Track Initiative, 2010)

researched' (guidelines based on practitioner experience). Based on the findings of the studies, they have also been classified as 'promising', 'inconclusive', and 'ineffective'.

Table 1 – Categorised studies summary

	Ensuring education inclusion during conflict and/or refugee crises	Supporting traumatised children during conflict and/or refugee crises	Protecting girls from GBV during conflict and/or refugee crises	Providing safe spaces and child protection during conflict and/or refugee crises	Ensuring education inclusion during/after a natural disaster
Promising interventions	Village-based schools in Afghanistan reduce distances to travel and improve girls' access and achievements - **robust evidence** (Burde & Linden, 2013)	NRC Teacher training in Gaza on providing children with psychosocial support showed positive effects on children's wellbeing - **robust evidence** (Schultz & et al, 2016)	IRC gender-based violence centres that provide mobile services to Syrian girls and women in urban areas in Lebanon **-moderately robust evidence** (Lilleston & et al, 2016)	These case studies/programme evaluations demonstrated positive effects but also had many areas for improvement: UNICEF safe space case studies provide many strategies/ideas in a variety of contexts (training youths to be 'play therapists' to younger children, safety whistles, etc.) **- moderately robust evidence** (UNICEF, 2004) World Vision Child Friendly Space in Buramino refugee camp in Ethiopia had positive effects but gender responsiveness in teaching/ facilitation could be improved -**moderately robust evidence** (Metzler & et al, 2013) War Child Holland Safe Space in South Sudan had positive effects but the quality of teaching could be improved - **moderately robust evidence** (Gladwell, 2011)	
Inconclusive interventions	Teacher training in northern Uganda on gender and inclusion had some positive effects, but programme design, training materials and implementation could be improved - **robust evidence** (Chinen & et al, 2017)	Teacher training in DRC on Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom generally improved children's wellbeing with some inconclusive results - **robust**	IRC distribution of handheld solar lights to girls/women in Haiti improved their daily lives and activities, but did not target or reduce the root causes of gender based violence in camps - **moderately robust evidence** (IRC, 2015)		GEC Ebola response in Sierra Leone provided radio programming and study groups for girls. The intervention was positive but needed to be part of a more holistic approach - **moderately robust evidence** (Girls

		evidence (Torrente & et al, 2015)			Education Challenge, 2016)
Ineffective interventions **or results from lack of intervention**	Burmese Refugee Camp schools did not have infrastructure or teachers equipped to accommodate children with special needs - **robust evidence** (Oh & Van der Stouwe, 2008) Study on ways in which children with disabilities are excluded in Sudan and Sierra Leone - **moderately robust evidence** (Trani & et al, 2011)		Study on Syrian children's vulnerability to gender-based violence in Jordan - **moderately robust evidence** (UN Women, 2013)	Tanzanian Nyarugusu Refugee Camp programmes excluded girls because they were too far to travel to (the camp is 52 square km); they did not account for girls' extra chores (firewood collection); and girls were intimidated by other participants (boys and older youth) - **moderately robust evidence** (Paik, 2012) Ugandan Kyaka II Refugee Settlement programmes did not reach girls because of their domestic duties, lack of parental engagement and use of English - **moderately robust evidence** (Women's Refugee Commission, 2012)	
Practitioner guidelines	INEE guidelines for inclusion & gender, UNESCO EiE, Oslo Summit recommendations (**not researched**	IASC Guidelines for Mental Health **(not researched)**	IASC guidelines for gender based violence interventions in humanitarian settings **(not researched)**	Global Education Cluster guidelines on child protection, INEE guidelines for child protection, Save the Children Handbook on Child friendly spaces **(not researched)**	Climate Change and Education Guidelines for Bangladesh (Das, 2010)

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

There were several key findings and lessons learnt from the interventions reviewed for this Brief. These have been listed below and have also been provided at the end of each document summary.

1. Distance to school is a major barrier for both girls and children with disabilities – if there are resources to build more community schools or a transport system, this will have positive effects on enrolment at the primary level.[3] Depending on context, home schooling may be a temporary option.
2. There are a number of organisations who have conducted teacher training programmes on psycho-social support for children and replication of some of their materials and training models should be considered. Most notably, Norwegian Refugee Council's (NRC) materials and model for teacher training has demonstrated positive psychosocial outcomes for children.[4]
3. Bringing gender based violence (GBV) response and support direct to beneficiaries has positive effects. International Rescue Committee's (IRC) mobile programme travelled to women's and girls' own communities and provided them with free access to emotional support groups, recreational activities, and a case worker who provided links to legal, health, and other necessary services. It would be worth exploring how IRC's model could travel to schools and be taken to scale.[5]
4. Irrespective of whether it is an emergency or non-emergency context, the efficacy of teacher training on gender responsive pedagogy (or any topic) is dependent on the quality and relevance of the materials and the model of training. One-off workshops and cascade models are not often effective; neither is the use of academic/abstract definitions that often feature in gender training.[6]
5. One-off interventions such as solar lights or radio programmes cannot improve the safety or inclusion of girls on their own – they should be part of a more holistic package of interventions that are designed to address the numerous constraints that girls face in their context.[7]
6. Issues of disability often get deprioritised when competing against other challenges, particularly in refugee camps. If there is a serious concern for inclusion of children with disabilities, proper resources, training, and planning needs to be made explicit for this.[8]
7. There are many creative and efficacious strategies being used in safe space or 'child friendly' programmes based in refugee camp settings. It would be worth exploring how these could be adapted and used in school-level structures within national education systems.[9]

Regarding the last key finding, there is a need to reflect on how to bring the protection aims, outcomes and resources of child friendly spaces into the realm of the education system. Although schools can play a protective role in emergencies, they are not typically the structure through which child protection is implemented in emergency settings. When schools and/or the education system cannot operate due to conflict, first responders establish child friendly spaces (often in camp settings) to provide psycho-social support, orientation and registration of separated children, advocacy for child rights, and informal education. When (or if) schools are again operational, it would be ideal if they could provide the same levels of child protection and support offered by child friendly spaces (particularly since government schools can often be a *source* of sexual violence and corporal punishment against children, as well as exclusion of the most vulnerable).

[3] (Burde & Linden, 2013)
[4] (Schultz & et al, 2016)
[5] (Lilleston & et al, 2016)
[6] (Metzler & et al, 2013)
[7] (IRC, 2015) (Girls Education Challenge, 2016)
[8] (Gladwell, 2011) (Oh & Van der Stouwe, 2008) (Trani & et al, 2011) (Saebones & et al, 2015)
[9] (Lilleston & et al, 2016) (UNICEF, 2004) (Metzler & et al, 2013) (Gladwell, 2011) (Women's Refugee Commission, 2012) (Paik, 2012)

However, this is where the aims, scope, and resources of humanitarian work and development work differ. Child friendly spaces are generally short-term solutions that focus on child protection; they often have sufficient resources to pay for staff and materials, and although they may work with government actors responsible for child protection, rarely do they interface with the broader education system and structures. That said, there are 'safe space' interventions at the school level that have proven successful in non-conflict settings (e.g. afterschool girls' clubs), and this may be one way to emulate the child friendly space model within government schools.

In addition to this, Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003) put forward a set of recommendations on ways to ensure that schools become 'safe spaces' during conflict.[10] These include:

1. With the adoption of the Rome Statutes, the targeting of schools and educational facilities by parties in conflict, can be prosecuted as a war crime. Thus, schools and educational facilities could be officially designated as 'safe areas'. This should be done by governments and emphasised in communications with all parties and communities in conflict.
2. Teachers and organisers of educational activities should receive training to help them understand and identify child protection concerns; and as a condition of employment, all individuals working with children should be asked to sign a code of conduct that articulates appropriate behaviour and proper relations with children.
3. Barriers to educational access should be identified and addressed. Educational programmes should aim to include all children. This implies designing programmes that minimise impediments to access, such as poverty, gender, disability, or membership of a particular social or ethnic group.
4. Curricula for school and child friendly spaces and clubs should encourage peace and respect for human rights. In areas of conflict, curricula should be reviewed for bias, and messages that reinforce division and negative stereotyping should be removed. Teachers should be trained to introduce concepts of tolerance, human rights, and conflict minimisation.
5. Monitoring, reporting and mechanisms to follow up on child protection cases should be included in any programme.

Although the above recommendations are not based on research evidence, they do provide recommendations that help to answer the overall research question for this Evidence Brief.

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

Although there is relatively robust evidence of 'what works' regarding protection and inclusion in EiE settings, there are broad gaps in the evidence base that are worth noting. These gaps include:

1. **Evidence from contexts of DFID interest:** there are many contexts of interest addressed in the literature (South Sudan, Lebanon, Jordan, Ethiopia); however, there remain gaps regarding other locations, such as Syria, DRC, and Somalia.
2. **Evidence on protection and inclusion for natural disasters:** although there is evidence on protection and inclusion in conflict and refugee crises, there is little to none regarding natural disasters.
3. **Evidence on children with disabilities:** although there are some studies that unpack the challenges that children with disabilities face in emergencies, there is no evidence on education interventions that aim to protect or include this group.

[10] (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003)

4. **Evidence on internally displaced persons (IDP):** much of the evidence surrounding protection and inclusion focuses on refugee contexts and challenges. This can be problematic as responses and interventions can differ for IDPs.
5. **Evidence on 'what works' at a systems level:** as mentioned earlier, 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 education structures and systems for protection and inclusion are sustained. That said, many practitioner guidelines and standards do provide ways forward in this area.

It is also worth noting the gaps within the four prominent evidence themes that were identified:

1. **Interventions to ensure education inclusion focuses on girls only** – there is no evidence of interventions that aim to reach and include children with disabilities (or other highly vulnerable groups, such as orphans or child soldiers).
2. **Interventions to support traumatised children do not differentiate** – there is no evidence of interventions that provide extra or differing psychosocial support to children with different levels of vulnerability (such as girls, child soldiers, children with disability).
3. **Protection from violence focuses on girls only** – this is understandable, as girls are often the most vulnerable to sexual violence during conflict or in protracted refugee settings: however, there is no evidence of interventions on violence against other children.
4. **Interventions to provide safe spaces and child protection work completely outside of the education system –** it is clear that child friendly spaces are the primary structures for provision of child protection in emergencies, but there is no evidence that these structures interface with schools or education ministries.

Given these gaps, it should be noted that just because there is no *evidence* of the interventions noted above, this does not mean that such efforts are not happening. There may be small pockets of work aiming to include children with disabilities in schools, but they may not have been documented or researched. These gaps generally reflect oversights by the international community, and donors should pay attention to them if they are serious about leaving no child behind, particularly children with disabilities.

4 CONCLUSION

This review of evidence consists mainly of programme evaluations at the local level that rarely interface with a country's education system. There are many creative and efficacious strategies being used in programmes that provide 'safe spaces' for children during hot conflict or protracted refugee crises and it would be worth exploring how these could be adapted to ensure that government schools are safe spaces that protect children. Although schools can play a protective role in emergencies, they are not typically the structure through which child protection is implemented in emergency settings and this review did not find evidence of collaboration between governments, development partners or humanitarian teams to ensure that education structures and systems for protection and inclusion are sustained. A significant form of guidance that has emerged from this Brief would be to strengthen the child protection and inclusion capabilities of government schools by drawing from promising interventions that have been discussed, and contextualising them for school settings.

5 ANNEX 1 – SUMMARIES OF DOCUMENTS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

5.1 PROMISING INTERVENTIONS TO ADDRESS VULNERABILITY AND EXCLUSION

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

This study tested used a randomised controlled trial in rural northwest Afghanistan to measure the access effects of placing a school within hard to reach villages. Using a total sample of 31 villages, the study measured the initial one-year effects of 12 new village-based schools on the enrolment and academic performance (maths and language skills) of 1,490 primary school-age children, and compared these effects to 19 villages that received schools the subsequent year. The programme significantly increased enrolment and test scores amongst all children, particularly for girls. Girls' enrolment increased by 52 percentage points and their average test scores increase by 0.65 standard deviations. Boys' enrolment increased by 35 percentage points, and average test scores increase by 0.40 standard deviations. To explain the larger improvements for girls, qualitative research found that the families expressed a desire to send both their sons and daughters to primary school but, given conservative cultural norms, girls were not allowed to travel the necessary distances alone to non-village-based schools. Thus, placing schools in close proximity to households increased parents' willingness to allow their girls to travel alone. However, after primary schooling, gender gaps in enrolment still persist, likely due to other cultural norms such as early marriage. **Key lesson/reflection: distance to school is a major barrier for both girls and children with disabilities – if there are resources to build more schools or a transport system, this will have positive effects on enrolments at the primary level.**

School-Based Intervention in Ongoing Crisis: Lessons from a Psychosocial and Trauma-Focused Approach in Gaza Schools (Schultz & et al, 2016)

This qualitative study investigated the NRC Better Learning Programme, a school-based response in Gaza that combined psychosocial and trauma-focused approaches to help teachers, school counsellors, and parents empower schoolchildren with strategies for calming and self-regulation, particularly those who reported having nightmares and sleep disturbances which disrupted their learning. The approach incorporated five principles that are used to inform intervention and prevention efforts, both in the immediate aftermath of a critical event and up to three months thereafter. These included: 1) to promote a sense of security; 2) to calm; 3) to foster a sense of self- and collective efficacy; 4) to promote connectedness; and 5) to instil hope. The intervention was implemented in 40 schools over two and a half years, with a target group of 35,000 pupils. Pupils, participating in the programme, reported having trauma-induced nightmares an average of five nights a week. Eight weeks after the intervention ended, the nightmares were eliminated or reduced to one night a week for about 70 percent of participants. The remaining 30 percent experienced a reduction but continued to have more than one weekly nightmare. This pattern was generally repeated in the subsequent intervention rounds. Although these effects were not correlated with learning outcomes, gains in psycho-social wellbeing are generally associated with better mental health outcomes, enjoyment of school, and a higher level of effort. **Key lesson/reflection: it would be worth using the materials and model for this teacher training programme (and adapting for scalability, if necessary) as it proved to have positive psycho-social outcomes for children.**

Reaching Refugee Survivors of Gender-Based Violence: Evaluation of a Mobile Approach to Service Delivery in Lebanon (Lilleston & et al, 2016)

This qualitative study investigated the effects of an IRC mobile approach to gender-based violence response and mitigation, that aimed to reach non-camp-based Syrian refugee women and girls living within urban and

peri-urban communities in Wadi Khaled, Lebanon. One day per week over the course of six months, the programme travelled to women's and girls' own communities and provided them with free access to emotional support groups, recreational activities, and a case worker who provided psychosocial support and links to legal, health, and other necessary services. These activities were conducted in temporary safe spaces, which entailed locations that were familiar to girls and women, such as clinics, mosques, and community centres. Findings from the study concluded that the programme increased access to emotional support, advice, information, and resources; broadened Syrian women's and girls' social network and building social cohesion; broke down barriers between Syrians and Lebanese and combatting stigma against refugees; and increased knowledge of safety-promoting strategies, healthy coping techniques, and self-worth. **Key lesson/reflection: bringing GBV response/support to beneficiaries has positive effects – it would be worth exploring how this model could travel to schools and be taken to scale**.

Adolescent Programming Experiences During Conflict and Post-Conflict (UNICEF, 2004)

This paper reviews a variety of UNICEF's 'safe space' programmes for adolescents in conflict and post-conflict contexts, such as Colombia, Somalia, Northern Uganda, Angola, and the Occupied Palestinian Territories. This paper is not rigorously evidenced but the description of programmes is useful for identifying specific needs and approaches which have been proven to work in practice, such as the 'Return to Happiness' programme in Colombia, which trains adolescents to be mentors and 'play therapists' for younger children who have been exposed to violence and civil conflict. Using adolescents as teachers and therapists is an interesting way to involve them in the safe space, as it both helped the younger children return to normalcy, but also built the adolescents' self-esteem, trust, and decision-making abilities, as well as giving them a community role which built a sense of belonging. Strategies for preventing *violence against children included:* i) providing whistles to children so they can sound an alarm, together with a response system based on community-based child protection networks and civilian police; ii) providing girls with dignity kits that include torches and culturally appropriate clothing as early as possible after a crisis event; iii) training women as unarmed civilian peacekeepers and GBV monitors; and iv) using SMS messaging to encourage reporting of GBV where quality services are available. **Key lesson/reflection: there are many creative and efficacious strategies being used in these safe space programmes – it would be worth exploring how these could be adapted/used within school-level safe space structures.**

Evaluation of Child Friendly Spaces: Ethiopia Field Study Summary Report (Metzler & et al, 2013)

This is a mixed-method study that evaluates World Vision's two Child Friendly Spaces (CFS) in Buramino refugee camp in Ethiopia, which hosted Somali refugees and provided literacy and numeracy classes, recreation, and psycho-social services. Morning sessions were for children aged 6-11 and afternoon sessions for adolescents aged 12-17. The older group showed great increases in literacy and numeracy: however, girls' achievements were lower than boys, which was attributed to the previous lack of educational opportunity for girls in Somalia, and the non-gender responsive teaching methods that were used. Various psycho-social measures show that adolescents attending the CFS improved to 'normal' levels over time, more than adolescents not attending. The major finding regarding gender was that girls with more positive values, sources of support, and commitment to learning were more likely to attend CFSs, and that access was more difficult for girls lacking these 'resilience' traits. Children with extreme psycho-social difficulties demonstrated slightly greater improvement than others if they attended the CFS, indicating that CFS had a normalising role in supporting children's adjustment for the most affected children. Recommendations included: 1) active outreach, targeting, and gender-sensitive enrolment practices should be used to enable girls to attend CFSs; 2) teaching methods should be gender responsive and clearly accessible to girls. **Key lesson/reflection: as above – it would be worth exploring how these could be adapted/used within school-level safe space structures.**

War Child Holland, Sudan Kosti Child Friendly Space: Evaluation Report (Gladwell, 2011)

This qualitative study provided a programme evaluation of a Child Friendly Space (CFS) implemented jointly by War Child Holland and Plan Sudan. The objective of the CFS was to ensure that children and young people in transit to and/or from South Sudan benefit from protection, education, and psycho-social support activities. During interviews, children spoke repeatedly of positive changes in the areas of friendship and knowing how to form relationships; risk awareness and being better able to protect themselves and others; child rights and understanding what these are and how they affect them; behaviour and tolerance of children from other backgrounds; psychosocial impacts including emotional wellbeing, confidence, and aspirations; and finally, in the area of learning and improving skills. The outcomes spread from children to parents, communities, and even educators themselves in many of these same areas. Alongside these significant positive outcomes are areas for improvement. Whilst the CFS placed more emphasis than most on learning, the quality of said learning could be improved through additional educator training and curriculum support, particularly regarding issues of disability and gender inclusion. **Key lesson/reflection: as above – it would be worth exploring how these could be adapted/used within school-level safe space structures.**

5.2 INCONCLUSIVE INTERVENTIONS TO ADDRESS VULNERABILITY AND EXCLUSION

Can Teacher-Training Programs Influence Gender Norms? Mixed-Methods Experimental Evidence from Northern Uganda (Chinen & et al, 2017)

This is a mixed method study of a programme for gender socialisation in schools within a conflict-affected setting, which entailed training materials, teacher training and reinforcing text messages to reduce gender stereotypes, improve gender equity, and promote peacebuilding. Quantitative evidence indicated that the programme resulted in an increase in teachers' knowledge of some of the information provided in the training: however, qualitative data also pointed to the difficulty of learning abstract concepts, such as gender disparity. Qualitative evidence also indicated that teachers understood that classroom discrimination based on gender identity could affect social interactions, girls' self-confidence, and their feeling that they need to withdraw from school during menstruation. There was limited evidence for positive programme effects on attitudes toward gender equality, attitudes toward sexual harassment, and punishment for sexual harassment or violence. There was no evidence that the complementary text messages, sent to reinforce the information communicated during the teacher training had a positive impact, which may have been due to the fact, that messages about gender equality are too complex to communicate via SMS. Recommendations included involvement by parents, politicians, and other community leaders in creating a more enabling environment in which new ideas can be welcomed; simplification of concepts/messages; and the need for consistent and refresher training. **Key lesson/reflection: the efficacy of teacher training on gender responsiveness is dependent on the quality and content of the materials and the model of training. This model could use improvement.**

Improving the Quality of School Interactions and Student Well-Being: Impacts of One Year of a School-Based Program in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Torrente & et al, 2015)

This study consisted of a cluster-randomised trial of a Learning to Read in a Healing Classroom (LRHC), an in-service teacher and head teacher training programme in the DRC, to examine effects on two sets of outcomes: 1) children's perception of levels of support/care and predictability/cooperation in the school and classroom; and 2) children's subjective well-being, as measured by self-reports of peer victimisation and mental health problems. After one year of partial implementation, students in the treatment group perceived their schools and teachers to be more supportive and caring, but also less predictable and cooperative. Specifically, students in treatment schools felt more welcome, respected, safe, and more supported by their teachers; they also experienced their classrooms as being more intellectually engaging and stimulating than students in the control group. However, contrary to expectations, students in treatment schools also perceived their learning environments to be less predictable and cooperative, in particular, students knew less about their school activities and perceived that teachers encouraged them less to cooperate than in the control group. These

effects were not correlated with learning outcomes. **Key lesson/reflection: Although the teacher training was generally of good quality, the content and model of this teacher training could be reviewed/improved to be more efficacious.**

Lighting the way: The role of handheld solar lamps in improving women's and girl's perceptions of safety in two camps for internally displaced people in Haiti (IRC, 2015)

International humanitarian guidelines call for the distribution of individual lighting to women and girls during conflict and disasters, in order to reduce risk of violence: however, little evidence exists to support these guidelines. Thus, this study evaluated a programme that distributed handheld solar lights to women and girls living in two internally displaced persons (IDP) camps after the 2010 earthquake in Port-au-Prince, Haiti. This mixed method study asked 875 women and girls about the sources of lighting they used, their participation in night-time activities, and their sense of safety in the camps at night, at baseline, midterm and endline of the solar light distribution programme. The majority of women and girls, enjoyed using the lamps in their daily lives and did go outside at night more frequently: however, the lamps themselves did not increase their sense of safety. In fact, unsafe camp conditions actually worsened over the course of the study. Women stated that their sense of safety would only be improved with the presence of security personnel, public lighting, and better infrastructure in the camps. Therefore, although handheld solar lamps are an important personal resource for women and girls in humanitarian settings, they cannot alone effectively address the complex root causes of gender-based violence or girls' sense of safety. **Key lesson/reflection: A more holistic risk-reduction package for women and girls is necessary, however, solar lights can play a valuable role within it.**

Education in Emergencies Endline Evaluation Report – Sierra Leone (Girls Education Challenge, 2016)

This GEC EiE programme was designed to support the Government of Sierra Leone's response to the Ebola Virus Disease (EVD) outbreak as well as to respond to the needs of the 65,959 (boys 37,361, girls 28,598) children who were unable to take their end of Junior Secondary School Examinations due to school closures. Despite being unsure how long the school closure would last the programme was designed as a one-year intervention to follow on from and replace the original programme that ran whilst schools were open. This revised programme included a radio learning programme across five target districts and facilitated self-study groups that provided girls a safe place to study and additional, targeted academic support. Programme volunteers monitored the study groups and encouraged girls to use the radio teaching as well as the education materials they had received. The EiE end line found that no single intervention would allow girls in Sierra Leone to gain a quality education. It concluded that as a part of the transition and recovery plan it is essential to look at all challenges surrounding children's learning in schools. A holistic approach, is required to prevent drop outs. Main recommendations included: 1) schools should look for ways of ensuring that the radios supplied to the GEC girls are continued to be used in other ways; 2) after the emergency, some parents and caregivers may have the tendency of reverting to 'business as usual' where they take most of the girls' time on domestic work. To avoid this, programming should continue to sensitise parents and caregivers to shift these social norms. **Key lesson/reflection: A more holistic intervention to support girls' education during disaster is necessary: however, radio programming can play a valuable role within it.**

5.3 INEFFECTIVE INTERVENTIONS AND/OR THE RESULTS FROM A LACK OF INTERVENTION

Education, Diversity, and Inclusion in Burmese Refugee Camps in Thailand (Oh & Van der Stouwe, 2008)

This qualitative study's findings show that physical access to school for students with special needs is a challenge. The infrastructure of the camps, school compounds, and buildings is not equipped to accommodate the requirements of children and young people with special learning needs. The study also found that school teachers and staff members are often untrained in identifying disabilities and special needs, and once needs

are discovered, they are not equipped to deal with student issues. Moreover, the constant resettlement of teachers and other camp residents imposes even more pressure on teachers. However, there were two programmes for special-needs students, which provided early identification of children with learning disabilities, basic education in language and numeracy and instruction in sign language to deaf children, and Braille to blind children in special schools, with the goal of integrating them into mainstream schools. Recommendations included approaching inclusion in education in a refugee context in an integrated way by maintaining a specific focus on members of the community who are vulnerable to marginalisation and exclusion, and putting in place specific strategies for them. These strategies should incorporate the three main dimensions: access, quality and relevance in learning, and participation in management structures. **Key lesson/reflection: issues of disability often get deprioritised when competing against other challenges, particularly in refugee camps. If there is a serious concern for inclusion of children with disabilities, proper resource, training, and planning needs to be made explicit for this.**

Disability, vulnerability and citizenship: to what extent is education a protective mechanism for children with disabilities in countries affected by conflict? (Trani & et al, 2011)

This study focused on children with disability in Sudan and Sierra Leone and found that children with disabilities were not being identified/selected for schools and disability-specific programmes. This was because it is often the responsibility of families to ensure their children are registered with local disabled people organisations (DPOs) to be eligible for any benefits offered by the government and/or relief programmes offered by UN and INGOs. Lack of registration can be dependent on parental attitudes, taboo, shame, or lack of knowledge of the system/process. Even when children are registered, access to school for a child with disabilities depends largely on parental attitudes, proximity and physical access to the structure, and likelihood of acceptance in class. Moreover, it seemed, from discussions with other teachers, that even if there are children with disabilities registered in school, they often do not attend school regularly and school administrators rarely follow up, to see why they are not in school. For the international NGOs working in the region, although education has been a key priority, education for children with disabilities has not been a priority, in part because of a myriad of competing priorities and competing vulnerabilities. Of additional concern in our findings is the lack of inclusion of children with disabilities in non-formal education structures, including child-friendly spaces, or children's clubs. For all children, it seems physical proximity to an NGO-funded children's club was the key factor in their attendance. This of course raises the issue that a child with disabilities who cannot physically get to the club will be excluded. **Key lesson/reflection: As above - issues of disability often get deprioritised when competing against other challenges. If there is a serious concern for inclusion of children with disabilities, proper resource, training, and planning needs to be made explicit for this.**

Gender-based Violence and Child Protection among Syrian refugees in Jordan, with a focus on Early Marriage (UN Women, 2013)

This research aimed to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the risks that Syrian refugee families – especially women and girls – face in Jordan. Findings from this report reveal that, rates of early marriage are high, a significant percentage of children contribute to the household's income or are its main source of income, and restrictions on the mobility of women and girls constrain their participation in social and economic activities and their access to basic services. As the overwhelming majority of refugees, do not have paid employment and rely mainly on aid and dwindling family resources, the more the situation of displacement is prolonged, the greater the likelihood of higher rates of child labour for boys and early marriage for girls. Many participants reported that their children were not in school: most participants cited high transportation costs, overcrowding in schools, and bureaucratic barriers as the main impediments. Recommendations included:

1. strengthen community-based child protection committees to raise awareness on child rights and influence social norms in particular, to prevent child labour, physical violence, and early marriage;

2. programmes that encourage parents to enrol girls and boys in school by providing incentives such as food vouchers, transportation subsidies, uniforms, books, cash incentives etc.;
3. develop economic opportunities for girls once they have graduated from school in order to provide alternative futures, and to highlight the advantages of encouraging girls to complete their educations, including higher earning potential and self-sufficiency;
4. strengthen identification of unaccompanied and separated children through registration and reception processes, awareness-raising in the community, and ensure that proper verification takes place prior to family reunification.

Key lesson/reflection: recommendations from the study provide a good starting point – it would be worth exploring how these could be better aligned with education systems/actors.

Scattered Dreams, Broken Promises. An Assessment of the Links between Girls' Empowerment and Gender-based Violence in the Kyaka II Refugee Settlement, Uganda (Women's Refugee Commission, 2012)

The Kayaka II camp accommodates 1,500 adolescent girl refugees between the ages of 10 and 16, mostly from DRC but also Burundi and Rwanda. Sexual harassment and assault are the key forms of violence experienced by girls here. Many describe violence as happening when they travel to and from school, the borehole, and the market, and that they feel particularly vulnerable alone, at night, and in poor lighting. Some girls engage in transactional sex due to poverty, and are at risk of STIs, and usually have poorer social networks due to stigma. Girls feel that they lack life skills to negotiate sex safely. There is a very small police presence and low rate of reporting incidents. Channels of reporting are not adolescent-friendly, nor are they socially supported. Many girls also do not seek health services, partly because they feel the treatment is ineffective, and partly due to fear of public scrutiny. Girls say that their basic hygiene needs are not being met: they do not have enough underwear, sanitary pads, or soap. Few are accessing the youth-targeted programmes, often due to a heavy care and domestic burden. Parents are seen as sources of support, but these relationships are often uneasy. The report recognises that programmes aiming to improve the wellbeing of girls should also engage with parents and support their development of parenting skills. Speaking English is seen as a source of protection for girls, as they may be uncomfortable seeking services from English-speaking providers if they do not speak it well, and/or reading the information signs in English about where to seek help. **Key lesson/reflection: safe space and youth-targeted programmes should holistically consider constraints on girls during design phase so as to reduce levels of exclusion**.

The Path to Hope: Congolese Refugee Adolescent Girls in Nyarugusu Refugee Camp, Tanzania (Paik, 2012)

This study finds that current programming does not meet the specific needs of adolescent girls. Girls are described as particularly at risk of: violence, abuse, neglect, exploitation, discrimination, early or forced marriage, and family breakdown. Due to their domestic duties and feelings of non-safety outside their homes, girls rarely spend much time outside. This means they have few opportunities to make friends or to develop leadership or livelihoods skills. They often drop out of school, here described as due to early pregnancies but also shame from having no soap to wash their uniforms. Most girls support the livelihoods of their families with petty trade and small-scale income generating activities. Although existing programmes are aimed at girls, they do not participate for a number of reasons: it is too far to travel (this camp is 52km^2); they do not have enough time to participate; and they feel that they wouldn't fit in with the other participants (boys and older youth). The paper concludes with recommendations for programming, which include, taking into account the specific needs of girls. In particular, programmes need to actively break down the barriers to their inclusion, for example, by reducing the dependency on firewood, which it is girls' responsibility to collect, thus giving them more time to attend programmes. They also include a recommendation to create female-only safe spaces. **Key**

lesson/reflection: As above - safe space and youth-targeted programmes should holistically consider constraints on girls and should also aim to address them.

5.4 PRACTITIONER GUIDELINES ON WHAT SHOULD BE DONE TO ADDRESS VULNERABILITY AND EXCLUSION

INEE Guidelines on Inclusive Education (INEE, 2010)

The INEE Minimum Standards Handbook aims to help education practitioners practice inclusive education in their own contexts. Examples of how inclusive education is mainstreamed throughout the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook include:

- Foundational Standards highlight inclusive education response strategies and explicitly mention critical areas that need inclusion of persons with disabilities and other people at risk so that they are able to participate with the community and are not overlooked during the planning, implementation, and assessment of educational programmes.
- The Access and Learning Environment Domain, encourages education practitioners to take various actions to promote inclusive education, such as identifying excluded groups, determining the reasons for exclusion, and taking action to ensure their inclusion. Such actions may include removing communication barriers, related to the medium of instruction, or physical barriers, related to the accessibility of the learning environment, which prevent children from participating in education.
- The Teaching and Learning Domain, emphasises the need to ensure curriculum is reviewed for its appropriateness and relevance for excluded groups and those with disabilities, and that teachers have the necessary training, skills, and materials to promote inclusion through differentiating instruction according to students' learning styles and abilities.
- The Teachers and Other Education Personnel Domain, encourages non-discriminatory recruitment and selection of education personnel, especially of female teachers and persons with disabilities, and stresses the need for education personnel to be well trained to teach learners with disabilities.
- The Education Policy Domain, includes guidance that underscores the right to education for persons with disabilities, as outlined in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Formal and non-formal education programmes should provide inclusive education activities that fulfil educational rights and goals.

INEE Guidelines on Gender (INEE, 2010)

Examples of how gender issues are mainstreamed throughout the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook include the following:

- Foundational Standards emphasise the gender-balanced participation of girls and women, boys and men from all diverse groups within the community in education decision making processes and actions, and stresses that – insofar as is possible – all data must be disaggregated by sex and age in order to inform gender-sensitive education programming.
- The Access and Learning Environment Domain highlights the need to reduce gender discrimination and barriers hindering both male and female learners from accessing and equally participating in education, while addressing the different concerns of safety and well-being which affect male and female learners both in on the way to school.
- The Teaching and Learning Domain calls for the creation of learning environment, which promotes gender equality and reduces gender stereotypes in educational materials and curriculum, teaching methodologies and educator's behaviour and attitudes towards all learners.
- The Teachers and Other Education Personnel Domain promotes gender balance in the recruitment of qualified male and female teachers and education personnel in order to meet the gender-specific

circumstances and context of the school and to ensure the presence of positive role models for male and female learners.

- The Education Policy Domain stresses the need to promote education policies and laws that protect against discrimination based on sex and ensure commitment from education partners to utilise standards on gender-sensitive project implementation and management.

UNESCO EiE (UNESCO, 2006)

Strategies for Increasing Access to Education**:** targeted and gender-responsive measures are required to ensure that girls and boys, particularly adolescent girls and boys, have equal access to education in emergency situations. Strategies include:

- Locating schools and learning spaces close to learners' homes and away from different kinds of dangers, such as soldiers' quarters and dense bush;
- Involving community members to ensure safe travel to and from school, particularly for girls;
- Proactively recruiting women teachers and providing support for additional professional development activities to complete these teachers' own education;
- Timing classes to enable girls and boys with other responsibilities to attend;
- Providing childcare facilities for women teachers and girl-mother students;
- Providing sanitary materials and facilities for girls and women teachers;
- Providing school feeding programmes or take-home rations for girls (and for the babies of girl-mothers);
- Engaging girls and boys in the preparation of a 'missing-out map' – that is, a map of the children in the community who are currently not in school – and in the design of gender responsive education programmes to reach out-of-school children.

2015 Oslo Summit Recommendations for disability inclusive Education in Emergencies (Saebones & et al, 2015)

Recommendations for disability inclusive Education in Emergencies:

1. Humanitarian response plans, appeals mechanisms, and needs assessments need to ensure that children with disabilities are included in planning and reporting processes. This may require revision of various guidelines and reporting formats, in order to ensure that disaggregated disability data is collected consistent with Sphere standards, Child Protection Working Group Minimum Standards, and INEE's Education Minimum Standards (Preparedness, Response, and Recovery). This could be combined with further training of staff about the importance of including children with disabilities.
2. All humanitarian programmes need to make budgetary provisions for the inclusion of children with disabilities in their EiE programming. These provisions include inclusive education needs assessments, assistive devices, accessible transportation, inclusive learning materials, capacity building in inclusive pedagogy, accessible information and management systems and accessible physical infrastructures including for water & sanitation.
3. Donors to UN agencies and NGOs operating humanitarian programmes should request disaggregated data on disability as part of their reporting frameworks. Appropriate timelines should be established for the submission of this data, with clear consequences for actors who fail to provide this data.
4. Disabled People's Organisations must be involved and engaged in ensuring that governments' plans and programmes, as well as UN organisations, INGOs and donors, include disability inclusive programming. Furthermore, Disabled People's Organisations should also be involved in identification, interventions, awareness raising, and facilitating school participation.
5. In the post-emergency phase it is important to 'build back better': to ensure that school buildings are built according to Universal Design principles and that that learning materials, tests and exams are provided in accessible formats. Construction guidelines and building standards should be revised,

whilst future education sector plans should be developed with accessibility in mind. Local education groups consisting of donors, UN agencies, civil society and Disabled People's Organisations can play an important role is assisting governments.

6. Invest in rigorous research to learn more about the best interventions to support educational access, quality of learning, and wellbeing for children with disabilities in emergency settings.

Practitioner guidelines on supporting traumatised children during conflict: IASC Guidelines for Mental Health (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2007)

These guidelines reflect the insights of practitioners on how to enable effective coordination, learn from useful practices, and avoid potentially harmful practices, and clarifies how different approaches to mental health and psychosocial support complement one another. The core idea behind them is that, in the early phase of an emergency, social supports are essential to protect and support mental health and psychosocial well-being. In addition, the guidelines recommend selected psychological and psychiatric interventions for specific problems. With regards to education, the guidelines recommend preparing and encouraging educators to support learners' psychosocial well-being. In addition, the need to strengthen the capacity of the education system to support learners experiencing psychosocial and mental health difficulties is highlighted.

Practitioner guidelines for protecting girls from gender based violence during/post conflict: IASC guidelines for gender based violence interventions in humanitarian settings (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2015)

The purpose of these Guidelines is to assist humanitarian actors and communities affected by armed conflict, natural disasters, and other humanitarian emergencies to coordinate, plan, implement, monitor, and evaluate essential actions for the prevention and mitigation of gender-based violence (GBV) across all sectors of humanitarian response. With regards to the education, the guidelines recommend working with education actors to:

- Plan the location and structure of education programmes (including temporary learning spaces) based on safety concerns for those at risk of GBV;
- Facilitate distribution of sanitary supplies to women and girls of reproductive age, and plan systems for washing and/or disposal of sanitary supplies in educational settings that are consistent with the rights and expressed needs of women and girls;
- Ensure school retention for displaced children and adolescents.

Global Education Cluster (Global Education Cluster, 2015)

In emergencies, quality education is crucial to provide children with physical, psychosocial, and cognitive protection that can be both life-sustaining and life-saving. Despite this, research shows that child protection and education are among the least funded humanitarian sectors. The following is a checklist for child protection and education in emergencies:

1. Promote the idea of 'student' as a status - whether formal or informal, this status can protect children from violence and exploitation, or bolster a sense of identity and inclusion for many.
2. Build schoolchildren's skills in listening, problem-solving and conflict resolution. This will help create stronger social cohesion and a more respectful and safe educational environment.
3. Set up joint child protection, education, and psycho-social interventions to mitigate the serious risks that children face.
4. Conduct follow-up work to find children who do not attend school, either as a result of the emergency or because they were previously out of school. This will further aid in identifying those at-risk.

5. Provide quality and safe education for all children impacted by crisis and invest in strengthening national and community-based child protection systems and services. Also, tailor programs to benefit all children, including those with special needs.
6. Secure timely and adequate funding for child protection and education interventions.
7. Ask community members to help design education activities in a way that is protective of teachers, learners, and the school environment.
8. Link schools or temporary learning spaces to providers of other social services (e.g. health, psychosocial, and legal) through referral mechanisms (established systems by which teachers may refer children with needs to appropriate professionals of other social services).
9. Establish a safe complaint mechanism where community members can report threats to their safety and receive a timely response. Collect anonymised data on complaints for policy makers and practitioners to use.
10. Distribute protective information to teachers, students, and parents, such as how to identify unexploded ordnance/explosive remnants.

INEE Guidelines on Child Protection (INEE, 2010)

A summary of guidelines regarding creating a protective environment:

- Enhancing government commitment and capacity, including increased budgetary provisions and appropriate administrative action for child protection and assistance.
- Developing adequate legislation and enforcement for prosecution of violations, procedures that include mechanisms for redress, and accessible, confidential, and child-friendly legal aid.
- Implementing monitoring, reporting and oversight activities, including systematic collection and transparent reporting of data, review by policy makers, and facilitating access by independent observers to children in traditionally marginalised groups.
- Providing essential services such as free education and health care for all children within each nation's borders, and maintaining a functioning and adequately staffed system that provides social welfare assistance and child protection services.
- Enabling social change regarding harmful customs and traditional practices, thereby helping to build an environment where women and girls do not face discrimination, sexual exploitation of children is socially unacceptable, and children with disabilities or affected by AIDS are not stigmatised.
- Facilitating open discussion so that protection failures are acknowledged, and civil society and the media are engaged to recognise and report harmful treatment of children.
- Building the capacity of families and communities to observe protective childrearing practices and supporting families in meeting their childcare needs. Supporting the development of life skills, knowledge and participation, in order to build an environment in which children know that they have rights, are encouraged to express their views, are taught problem-solving.
- Engaging community members to participate in promoting access and security for vulnerable and marginalised children in safe child friendly spaces.

Save the Children Child Friendly Spaces Handbook (Save the Children, 2008)

Child Friendly Spaces, one of Save the Children's emergency interventions, provide children with protected environments in which they participate in organised activities to play, socialise, learn, and express themselves as they rebuild their lives. This handbook guides Save the Children emergency response personnel and implementing partners in the rapid implementation of effective Child Friendly Spaces for children during and immediately after an emergency such as a natural disaster or situation of armed conflict. It includes a general introduction to Child Friendly Spaces and highlights key concepts and guidance for developing and implementing Child Friendly Spaces as well as a collection of 40 tools and resources including examples of assessment tools, activities, indicators, job descriptions, materials/equipment lists, and more.

Climate Change and Education Bangladesh (Das, 2010)

This paper looks at the serious negative impact of tropical cyclones, storm surges, and other climate change hazards on Bangladesh and how these have affected education. The cyclone Sidr affected the education of more than 100,000 children in 589 schools in 12 districts of the country. The total cost of reconstructing the schools, supply of textbooks and other materials was approximately USD 85 million. This is almost 30 times higher than the average USD 35 per pupil expenditure. The paper suggests adaptation measures such as hazard specific school design and construction, retrofitting the existing schools to withstand further hazards, flexible school calendar and test schedule, provision of an emergency pool of teachers and educational materials, boat schools, food, water, and medicine storage for children in schools, including climate change in curriculum for both teachers and students, and raising community awareness about continuing education during hazards. Early warning mechanisms of the Bangladesh National Disaster Management Bureau include provisions for education. However, the paper argues that a shift is necessary from a response mode to a mitigation mode. Future education programmes should be screened from climate change adaptation and mitigation points of view. A detailed cost analysis could also be carried out for adaptation and mitigation in the education sector.

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STRENGTHENING RESILIENCE AND RESPONSE TO CRISES

PRODUCED FOR

Department for International Development

EVIDENCE BRIEF 6: DATA, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

11 2017

IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS:

CAMBRIDGE EDUCATION

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 STRENGTH OF EVIDENCE

The literature review showed that there is a serious lack of reliable data on education in emergencies (EiE) in hot conflict, protracted crises, and natural disaster contexts. There is consensus in the literature that better data is critical. In hot conflict contexts, the evidence showed the largest data gaps. The review did not find evidence of an approach to data collection that had been tested successfully across different hot conflict contexts. The review found promising practices related to education monitoring and data systems in various protracted crises contexts. However, these interventions have started in recent years and evidence of their effectiveness or impact is not yet available. Very little evidence was found regarding successfully tracking individual children's educational attainments across borders. Some evidence was found regarding tracking students' achievements as they move in and out of formal and non-formal education. The review found limited evidence specifically pertaining to data and M&E related to natural disaster contexts.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

This evidence brief aims to answer the following research question:

*How to get the right kind of **data** to design programmes and monitor their impact on beneficiaries and that tracks individual children's access and attainment and education pathways as they move in and out of formal and non-formal education and migrate across borders or within countries (e.g. from Lebanon)?*

As part of this brief's introduction it is useful to provide an overview of key statistics[1]:

- 1 in 4 of the world's out-of-school children live in crises-affected countries.
- In 35 crisis-affected countries, humanitarian emergencies and protracted crises disrupted the education of 75 million children between the ages of 3 and 18.
- Refugee children are five times more likely to be out of school than non-refugee children.
- Only 50 per cent have access to primary education, compared with a global level of more than 90 per cent.
- 84 per cent of non-refugee adolescents attend lower secondary school, compared to only 22 per cent of refugee adolescents.
- At the higher education level, just one per cent of refugees attend university compared to 34 per cent globally.
- For children who attend school during emergencies, the quality of education can be low, with an average of 70 pupils per teacher, who are often unqualified.
- Girls in conflict-affected settings are 2.5 times more likely to be out of school than boys.

1.3 HOW THE EVIDENCE IS STRUCTURED

The literature review has focused on different themes that are relevant to the research question. These themes include, first, an assessment of the status of various national-level indicators on education in fragile and conflict affected states. Can these be reported on during emergencies, and what are the data limitations? The development and management of an EMIS or comparable national-level data systems is being considered as

[1] (UNICEF, 2017) (UNHCR, 2016)

part of this theme. Data on the impact of conflict on education is also being considered, including data and existing monitoring systems on attacks on education, which may take different forms, ranging from the occupation of school buildings by armed forces to the abduction of children from schools. What does the evidence say about producing education sector statistics during emergencies and how can extended data gaps be avoided? The review will also take into consideration which data sources have informed recent DFID business cases for national education programmes in Lebanon, South Sudan, and DRC.

A second theme is the data that is being collected mainly by humanitarian actors – particularly UNHCR and UNICEF – on refugee and IDP education. What does the evidence say about the use of rapid education or situational assessments for generating data that can inform education programming? What are the limitations of this data?

A third theme is the data that is generated by Monitoring and Evaluation systems managed by programme implementers (INGOs, management consultants, research firms). What does the evidence say about M&E systems that work well in emergency contexts? Is there evidence of innovative use of technology, for example mobile data collection systems, and how effective these are? Is this data publicly accessible? As part of this theme, evidence related to tracking pupils as they move in and out of formal education and are displaced internally or across borders is discussed. This is a particularly challenging task and the literature review only found minimal evidence on systems that have managed this successfully to date.

Data and monitoring and evaluation related to education in the context of natural disasters is discussed separately as a fourth theme.

A cross-cutting theme that will be looked at throughout is the level of disaggregation that is available. Does the data provide insights into gender disparities, urban/rural differences, age, and disability needs of the population? The brief will also provide an overview of relevant conflict databases and research initiatives that are currently ongoing on this topic.

2 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE

A literature review of the availability and use of education data in conflict and emergencies shows that there is a serious lack of reliable data on EiE, whilst there is consensus that better data is critical. Better data is important to understand the scale of the problem, to inform programming, to monitor response

Better data is needed to inform policies, programme design and to monitor progress in improving access to education for the most marginalised. Data is also needed to substantiate global advocacy work for education support as part of humanitarian response. Without complete data, there is a risk that there are 'pockets of forgotten children' in a crisis that are not reached with education or other basic services at all. A wider range of data is also necessary at country and local level to ensure education programming responds to needs, and that levels of human rights violations or other threats against children and attacks on educational infrastructure can be assessed. Data that is available is characterised by incompleteness, lack of accuracy or it may not be available at the right time. For example, access and enrolment data may be available for refugee children, but little data is collected about quality aspects such as their learning achievements and other indicators such as attendance and retention. More data on education quality is important, because poor quality education may result in high drop-out rates. Data on attendance is important because being enrolled is not the same as attending. There may be incentives (i.e. funding) hinging on enrolment and no subsequent concern on attendance which means that learning is not taking place.

The key findings from the literature review are summarised below, including references to source documents in Annex 1.

1. National level educational indicators are rarely available for conflict-affected countries. Where they are available, they may not be inclusive of conflict- or disaster-affected areas within the country[2]. This suggests alternative sources of data are needed for the design and monitoring of programmes in conflict-affected areas.
2. Data on the impact of conflict on education is most meaningful at local units of analysis (school/district level)[3]. Aggregate data often fails to capture the full impact. This suggests a need for a disaggregate monitoring system as part of an EiE programme design.
3. Data on refugees and IDPs in urban environments is particularly scarce, while UNHCR estimates that over 60 per cent of the world's 19.5 million refugees and 80 per cent of 34 million IDPs live in urban environments[4]. Many of these people are not formally registered as refugees of IDPs. Donors and UN projects typically do not fund work with unregistered refugees unless they are in the formal system. Revising assessment tools to better inform urban programming may need to be prioritised[5].
4. There is a general lack of data on IDPs' educational pathways and achievements. Monitoring and administration systems often do not classify pupils as IDPs. While this may prevent issues of stigmatisation, it prevents gaining a better understanding of the needs of IDP children that can inform education programming. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre has filled this information gap to an extent, but more education data is needed[6].
5. Humanitarian education needs assessments and other education data collected by UNHCR, UNICEF and programme implementers tend to lack data on education quality, in particular, on learning achievements[7]. Several reports recommend a stronger focus on learning outcomes in the M&E of education in emergencies programmes[8]. Determining and understanding impact on learning outcomes will require more longitudinal or multi-year studies.
6. The lack of standardisation of indicators can prevent meaningful comparison of data between different contexts, an issue applicable to several types of data. For example, there was variation in how UN country offices, responsible for monitoring attacks on education, defined what constitutes such an attack[9]. Another example was the use of different monitoring frameworks with different indicators by programme implementers making comparison of results within the same country difficult[10].
7. Little evidence was found regarding the tracking of individual children's educational attainments across borders. The certification of learning achievements for refugee and IDP children remains a technical and political challenge, and solutions are very context-specific[11]. The review found some recommendations and e-learning pilots to develop standardised competency-based indicators of learning achievement to overcome this challenge[12].
8. The review found multiple examples of EiE innovations that made use of ICT. Some are developed for the administration of education and designed to capture population movements[13]. Others support learning efforts through cloud-based content that can be accessed from anywhere, for example[14]. Since these interventions have been launched within the last three to five years, evidence related to

[2] (Montjourides, 2013) (Education Policy and Data Center, 2010)
[3] (Montjourides, 2013) (Education Policy and Data Center, 2010)
[4] (UNHCR, 2016)
[5] (Mohiddin & Smith, 2016) (UNHCR, 2009)
[6] (Ferris & Winthrop, 2010) (UNESCO, Global Education Monitoring Report 2016, 2016)
[7] (RAND Corporation, 2016) (Montjourides, 2013)
[8] (Culbertson & Constant, 2015) (International Rescue Committee, 2017) (UNESCO, Certification Counts, 2009)
[9] (Kalista, 2015)
[10] (RAND Corporation, 2016) (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2015) (Culbertson & Constant, 2015)
[11] (UNESCO, Certification Counts, 2009)
[12] (World Bank, 2016)
[13] (OpenEMIS, 2017) (World Bank, 2016)
[14] (World Refugee School, 2017)

their effectiveness could not yet be found. There seems to be a lot of potential use for ICTs in education, but human resources and teachers were found to remain crucial to the success of educational projects[15]. ICT tools should play a supportive and enabling role and not be the determining factor for the success of a project.

9. The review found limited evidence specifically pertaining to Data and M&E related to natural disasters. Experience from the Pakistan Earthquake response suggest that the M&E challenges outlined above (i.e. lack of standardised monitoring frameworks; lack of quality and learning indicators) also apply to the first response phase of a natural disaster[16]. UNESCO's International Institute of Education Planning (IIEP) recommends the inclusion of disaster preparedness plans into education sector planning, based on sector diagnostics that should include data on a countries' vulnerabilities to natural disasters[17]. Depending on their capacity, ministries may require technical support to carry out this diagnostic. The review did not find evaluations of this approach. The review found some evidence that disaster risk reduction efforts are most successful when led by national government institutions and mainstreamed in the education system[18].

3 LIMITATIONS OF THE EVIDENCE REVIEWED

The available evidence generally comprises studies, reports and information sources that fall far short of the 'gold standard' of independent, peer-reviewed evaluations and papers. Nevertheless, they contain very useful learning from practitioners in the field. Noteworthy is also a lack of evidence on the effectiveness of technological innovations in monitoring and evaluation approaches to refugee and IDP education, many of which have only recently been introduced. The review generally found more evidence pertaining to data and M&E practices to monitor refugee and IDP children in hot conflict and protracted crises than in natural disasters.

4 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, efforts are needed to enhance the relevance, coverage, quality, timeliness, and comparability of data on EiE. Based on the literature review, the following priorities emerged:

Focus on disaggregate data

The impact of conflict and emergencies on education can get lost in aggregate data. The collection of disaggregate data should be a priority for monitoring systems of education programmes in crises. In particular, more data is needed on the educational needs and achievements of IDP children. Innovative ways of collecting more data on IDPs, without compromising their safety, should be explored.

Focus on quality education indicators

Too little is known about the educational achievements of refugee and IDP children. Monitoring frameworks should be inclusive of learning outcome indicators and track these over time. Attendance, retention and drop-out should be better monitored, with more qualitative studies to understand the reasons for dropping out. Advocacy efforts may be needed for the inclusion of better quality data on education in standard monitoring frameworks of UNHCR and other agencies.

[15] (World Bank, 2016)
[16] (Kirk, 2008)
[17] (MacEwen, Choudhuri , & Bird, 2011)
[18] (Save the Children, 2015)

Focus on standardisation of indicators

Definitions of indicators and methods for collecting data differ widely between implementing partners and other agencies collecting data. It is therefore difficult to compare information between different situations and learn from best practice. The lack of standardised learning indicators complicates pupils' pathways to formal education certification. Donors can lead efforts to standardise data at country level and globally, and promote the sharing of data.

5 ANNEX 1- SUMMARIES OF DOCUMENTS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

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.

5.1 THEME 1: GLOBAL INDICATORS, A REPORTING CHALLENGE IN EMERGENCIES AND PROTRACTED CRISES

Education data in conflict-affected countries: The fifth failure? (Montjourides, 2013)

Patrick Montjourides' paper provides the most complete overview of the strengths and weaknesses of available data on education in emergencies at a global level. His paper aims to answer two research questions:

1. How does the international community use data to establish educational needs and design policies for children?
2. What are the limits of this data and the weaknesses of current monitoring and reporting systems with respect to conflict situations, education, and the lives of children?

Montjourides argues that a critical lack of data on the impact of conflict on education and children's lives holds back global progress on Education for All goals. Data collection is not prioritised during an emergency, but evidence shows that data can help to advocate for emergency support and increase global awareness, while at the local level data is crucial for effective planning that can meet the high demand for education provision of affected people. Available data comes from a range of sources, and only in recent years, efforts have started to evaluate the full impact of conflict on education by combining data from different sources, including the impact of conflict on health and livelihoods which indirectly impacts on educational attainment. Montjourides also shows that the establishment of an EMIS, or similar periodic school censuses, have enabled South Sudan, Afghanistan, Sierra Leone, and Liberia to estimate annual progress on education at a national level in an on-going or post-conflict period.

The paper assesses the strength of available data against the dimensions of the IMF-set Global Data Dissemination Standards and finds shortcomings in Coverage, Periodicity and Timeliness of Data and Access by the Public. At a global level, weak data coverage risks under-reporting large numbers of children whose education is affected by conflict because of different definitions used by different institutions on what qualifies as a conflict-affected state. At a national level, data gaps often occur in national surveys for regions affected by armed conflict which can result in 'pockets of forgotten children' within a state. In particular, internally displaced children are largely absent from any international monitoring exercise even though they are often the most deprived of education services. Shortcomings related to the timeliness and accessibility of the data are caused, amongst other factors, by the costliness of undertaking data collection in conflict-affected regions and by the policies of some agencies to not make their data publicly available. High standards of data quality of some international institutions can also slow down the timely availability of data.

Montjourides also identifies quality concerns, in particular, a lack of accuracy and reliability. Available data is assessed against the IMF-set Data Quality Assessment Framework. The paper finds that there are different definitions in use for measuring violations against children and education which makes aggregate global data

less reliable. He also finds shortcomings on data completeness. For example, data on important education indicators such as retention and dropout rates are not part of the standard UNHCR data set that monitors the education of refugee children. Another dimension of data completeness are the gaps in national education data that can be caused by conflict. Conflict affected countries often manage to produce the most basic education statistics only (e.g. GER, NER) or do not produce any data at all for prolonged periods (e.g. the case of Somalia, or Rwanda between 1994 and 2001). The paper shows that the most extreme conflict-affected countries produce only 25-33% of the average number of education indicators available. Data on learning outcomes is particularly difficult to obtain for conflict-affected countries, while it is argued that education quality suffers the most from conflict (World Bank 2005). International surveys on learning outcomes, such as the TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), often largely exclude conflict-affected countries. 60% of low- and lower-middle income conflict affected countries have never been included in any international survey.

This paper was published in 2013 and therefore some findings may no longer be fully accurate. The literature review did not find an updated publication that was as complete in its assessment of global data availability and quality on education in conflict affected countries. The commitment to 'Greater Transparency', the first principle in the Grand Bargain pledge to improve services to people in need, may accelerate efforts to make data publicly accessible, which is identified as a shortcoming in the global data by Montjourides. Naturally, in a conflict context, safeguarding the 'Do No Harm' principle and the need to ensure protection of sensitive data that may put people affected by conflict at risk will need to be paramount.

How do violent conflicts affect school enrolment? Analysis of sub-national evidence from 19 countries[19] (Education Policy and Data Centre, 2010)

This background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011 ('The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education') assesses available school enrolment and attendance data for the period 2000-2010 for 19 countries identified as having been or still being affected by conflict. Sub-national data is drawn from national administrative systems and household surveys. The report finds a severe lack of data from national administrative systems on enrolment and attendance; national administrative data is only available at very limited points in time for four out of 19 countries. Another general finding is that data for 14 out of 19 countries is available either for periods of peace or for periods of conflict but not consistently. The paper also finds that data that is aggregated at provincial or regional level may fail to capture the effects of conflict on education. Flare-ups of conflict are often highly localised and will not be identifiable in provincial or higher level aggregated totals, or they may not be captured if the area is left out of data collection efforts when insecurity restricts access. Analysis of the weighted net attendance rates show that in conflict affected regions, school participation is lower than in non-conflict areas in most of the countries included in the study. However, multiple year data (covering times of both conflict and peace), do not point towards a correlation between these factors, but this may be due to data limitations and the level of analysis used. The report suggests that the real impact of conflict on education may only be measurable at the most local levels of disaggregation.

Education and Displacement: Assessing Conditions for Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons affected by Conflict (Ferris & Winthrop, 2010)

Elizabeth Ferris and Rebecca Winthrop in a Background Paper for the UNESCO Global Monitoring Report, recommend improved basic statistical information collection on the education needs and achievements of refugees and IDPs. Particularly for IDPs, there is a dearth of education data and other information that is only recently starting to be filled by the data collection efforts of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre. They recommend improved research into issues affecting the education of refugees and IDP children, such as

[19] Countries included are Afghanistan, Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Iraq, Liberia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Philippines, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Uganda

language of instruction, certification, livelihoods development, and gender. Ferris and Winthrop also underscore the point made by the Education Policy and Data Centre that a comparison of sub-national data is much more meaningful in understanding the impact of conflict on education than national level data. Aggregate national data may be incomplete in its coverage of conflict-affected areas and thereby mask educational dynamics within the country. Their paper looks in detail at four case studies (Pakistan, Colombia, Sudan, and Iraq). These studies show that marginalised population groups in non-conflict settings are again more likely to be marginalised in their access to education in situations of displacement. Secondly, the impact of conflict-induced displacement on access to education is not unidirectional; displacement can also increase access to education.

Measuring Equity in Education, a Review of the Global and Programmatic Data Landscape (Education Equity Research Initiative, 2016)

This review did not focus on education in emergencies specifically, but the overview and assessment of data sources on equity aspects of education contribute to an understanding of available data disaggregation by gender, disability status, urban-rural locality, region, poverty, and ethnicity. The report focused specifically on poverty, ethnicity, and disability dimensions of equity. The review looks at the levels of disaggregation available in four global education databases: World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE), Education Policy Data Center (EPDC), UIS. Stat from UNESCO Institute for Statistics, and EdStats from the World Bank. As noted above by Montjourides, many of these databases, particularly databases based on global household surveys, tend to have gaps for conflict-affected states. The report's main finding is that dimensions of inequality remain largely un-standardised across datasets produced by programmes and international sources. Particularly for disability, the researchers found that this dimension is measured infrequently and conceptualised inconsistently. Programme data collection on equity dimensions is often done at the request of the donor. Tools and frameworks for collecting information on equity dimensions in programmes and projects are not standardised.

Global Education Monitoring Report 2016 (UNESCO, 2016)

This report discusses the shortcomings of global data on refugee and IDP education in chapter 14 'Equity', section 'Migration and Forced Displacement'. Data on IDP education comes mainly from the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, but data is still infrequent and incomplete. As a result, IDP education needs remain neglected. UNHCR collects data on refugee children receiving education in camps or camp settings. As more than half of the world's refugees live in urban areas and are frequently not registered as refugees, it remains a challenge to obtain data on their education access and achievements. Information systems generally do not classify pupils as 'refugee' or 'IDP'. While this may prevent stigmatisation, it also prevents policy-makers from addressing the specific needs of these children. The report provides two examples of exceptions to this in recent years: Ukraine, which collects monthly education status information on children displaced by conflicts in Crimea, Donetsk, and Lugansk. As of March 2016, 51,000 displaced children (1.4% of the total student population) were enrolled in schools in other areas (Ukraine Ministry of Education and Science, 2016). Chad developed an integrated system to improve refugee education data management to eventually integrate the data in the national education management information system (UNHCR, 2016).

The quantitative impact of armed conflict on education: counting the human and financial costs (Jones & Naylor, 2014)

This paper is published by the Protect Education in Insecurity and Conflict (PEIC)[20] initiative. The authors argue that while attacks on education and short-term interruptions of education as a result of conflict are starting to

[20] http://educationandconflict.org/

be better documented, the indirect impact of conflict on education is likely to be much greater in magnitude. Indirect impact includes forced displacement, public health impacts, increased demand for household labour, reduced returns to education, reduced educational expenditure, and a reduced public capacity to deliver education. This argument is support by three case studies, on the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Nigeria and Pakistan, which together account for around half of the total number of Out Of School Children (OOSC) living in conflict-affected countries.

Findings from these case-studies show that conflict directly or indirectly contributed to lack of access to education for up to one-fifth of all OOSC living in conflict-affected countries. Many children are out of school due to underlying socio-political factors that precede the outbreak of conflict, or in some cases were a contributing cause of conflict. It is difficult to arrive as a precise estimation of the number of OOSC due to conflict, because the impact of conflict on education in highly context-dependent and the situation can change rapidly as conflicts (de-)escalate. What is clear is that the millions of OOSC, as a result of conflict, is much greater than the hundreds of thousands of children whose education is disrupted or stopped as result of attacks on education. The paper argues that the impact of conflict on education should be considered in terms of the number of years of schooling lost by the school-age population during a conflict. This can be used to estimate the loss in human capital due to missed education. The three case-study countries are estimated to have lost billions of dollars, as a result of reduced human capital and its effect on their economy. By comparison, the cost of direct attacks on education was in the millions of dollars and therefore small, relative to the long-term and more indirect impact on the economy. Quantifying the human and financial costs of the impact of conflict on education, the authors shed light on the scale of impact beyond the short-term disruptions.

Attacks on education: addressing the data challenge (Kalista, 2015)

This report presents findings from a seminar held on 15-16 June 2015 in Qatar that brought together practitioners and researchers from the fields of education, child protection, public health, and forensic psychology to discuss data available on attacks on education. The seminar was organised by the Protect Education in Insecurity and Conflict (PEIC)[21] initiative, a policy, research, capacity building, and advocacy programme of Education Above All based in Qatar. The report provides an overview of the pros and cons of different data collection systems on attacks on education and children. Current systems in use include:

- UN Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism (MRM) on Grave Violations against Children in Situations of Armed Conflict
- The Education under Attack Study
- Field Research, in particular, by the Columbia Group on Children in Adversity at Columbia University
- Counting Out-of-School Children
- Global Terrorism Database
- Behavioural Analysis of Attacks
- Small Arms Survey
- Humanitarian Technology

The MRM has been the principal source of aggregated data on attacks on education. Data generated by the MRM carries weight through a mandate of reporting directly to the Security Council and is subject to a high threshold of verification. However, its scope, in terms of countries and types of violations reported on, was considered quite narrow, and indicators were not consistently defined across contexts, creating problems with accurate categorisation and comparability of data across contexts. Seminar participants recommended

[21] http://educationandconflict.org/

improving systematising the data collection on attacks on education for example by agreeing on a set of core common indicators. The seminar recommendations informed the development of a Global Data Service on Attacks on Education at PEIC[22].

5.2 THEME 2: HUMANITARIAN DATA ON REFUGEE AND IDP EDUCATION

The following UN agencies are involved in monitoring education for refugee and IDP children:

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which focuses on the education of children below the age of 18 and assists IDPs and refugee children; UNICEF is co-lead of the Global Education Cluster, together with Save the Children. The Global Education Cluster produced a Joint Education Needs Assessment Toolkit in 2010, which is freely accessible online. The Cluster conducts a rapid joint education needs assessment within the first month of a sudden onset emergency, which can be a natural disaster or conflict. The Short Guide to Rapid Joint Education Needs Assessments (Global Education Cluster, 2010) states:

> 'Rapid joint assessments provide a snapshot of education-related needs. They're not meant to be baseline studies or to provide background information. They're not school surveys, and they don't replace existing education data from sources such as Education Management Information Systems (EMIS). Instead, they're intended to be a first step in a lengthier process of gathering evidence and managing information about an emergency. Rapid joint assessments provide a starting point for defining the education needs in an emergency. They also flag information gaps and emerging issues for consideration in a comprehensive education assessment. Comprehensive assessments can inform in-depth responses to identified needs and can serve as a baseline for monitoring and evaluation purposes'.

The rapid assessment should be followed up by a Comprehensive Education Needs Assessment within the first two months of onset of the emergency. In some cases, education is part of a multi-cluster needs assessment, which looks at the impact of the crisis on the population in the areas of Health, Nutrition, WASH, and others. In these cases, it is important for Education Cluster coordinators to ensure that the assessment includes relevant education-related questions. While general in scope, the multi-cluster assessments provide immediate data on a population's urgent needs. They are a key opportunity to advocate for children's basic right to education and for the provision of education from the first phase of an emergency response.

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

UNHCR primarily focuses on education for refugees and returning refugees. This publication brings together data on refugee education from UNCHR's population data base, reporting tools and education surveys. Globally, over 50% of the six million primary and secondary school-age refugees under UNHCR's mandate, are not enrolled in school. Refugee children are five times more likely to be out of school than non-refugee children. Only 50 per cent have access to primary education, compared with a global level of more than 90 per cent. 84 per cent of non-refugee adolescents attend lower secondary school, compared to only 22 per cent of refugee adolescents. At the higher education level, just one per cent of refugees attend university compared to 34 per cent globally. UNHCR estimates that over 60 per cent of the world's 19.5 million refugees and 80 per cent of 34 million IDPs live in urban environments.

Designing appropriate interventions in urban settings: Health, education, livelihoods, and registration for urban refugees and returnees (UNHCR, 2009)

[22] The status of the development of this service is not clear from the PEIC website (accessed 1st August 2017)

This report specifically looked at education interventions and practices for refugee education in urban settings. UNHCR generally advocates for the integration of refugee children into national public education systems. The establishment of parallel structures should be avoided.

A Review of Needs Assessment Tools, Response Analysis Frameworks, and Targeting Guidance for Urban Humanitarian Response (Mohiddin & Smith, 2016)

This working paper produced under the 'Urban Crises Learning Fund' managed by the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) assesses to what extent a range of humanitarian needs assessment tools are suited to assessing specific needs of displaced people residing in urban areas. The review found that despite the increasing number of urban responses, the development of tools or guidelines remain behind. Needs assessment and response frameworks tend to be sector or thematically specific, making it hard to identify priorities between sectors, whilst urban targeting approaches have not been translated into detailed available guidance. There is a need for development of urban tools that are inclusive, coherent, cost-effective, rigorously tested, and build on existing good practice. They recommend that urban assessment tools should include not only the views and needs of displaced people, but also of the host population and local stakeholders – in the case of education local government, schools, teachers, and school management committees – to ensure that solutions suit both displaced and host populations.

Vulnerability Assessment of Syrian Refugees in Lebanon (World Food Programme, 2016)

The World Food Programme (WFP) conducts vulnerability assessments that can include education information as well. The Vulnerability Assessment of Syrian Refugees in Lebanon (VASyR) is an example of UNICEF, UNHCR and WFP collaboration on the assessment of economic vulnerability of Syrian refugees that included questions around the impact of vulnerability on education. The same happened in Jordan through an annual Comprehensive Food Security Monitoring Exercise (CFSME) of registered Syrian Refugees in Jordan. The 2016 CFSME data is comparable with the UNHCR-led interagency Vulnerability Assessment Framework (VAF), and also contains data on education.

Evaluation of the Emergency Education Response for Syrian Refugee Children and Host Communities in Jordan (RAND Corporation, 2016)

This report includes an evaluation of the monitoring and evaluation systems that were used during this emergency response. The evaluation identified that many implementing partners were using different monitoring and evaluation frameworks, without unified indicators. The Theory of Change was also not clearly articulated from the start, making evaluation against agreed indicators difficult. Furthermore, monitoring of quality should be strengthened. The evaluation found that the Government of Jordan was committed to monitoring results against sector plans and had started to require monitoring and evaluation plans from each partner, as well as results report. UNICEF supported this process.

UNICEF Bayanati (UNICEF, 2015)

The Bayanati reporting system was introduced in 2015 and aims to standardise the reporting of implementing partners during an emergency response. The system was developed during the Jordan emergency response, to keep track of a growing number of UNICEF partners and beneficiaries. Bayanati monitors the delivery of UNICEF services to individual children in real time. Bayanati is a web application that is designed with a role-based access control approach at different levels. Implementing partners can input individual children's records directly into the Bayanati database and data can be accessed from anywhere by UNICEF staff. The system creates one ID per child and may therefore be suitable to track different types of assistance to that child if scaled

up to inter-agency level. The system is being piloted in Turkey as well. No evaluation of Bayanati's effectiveness could be found.

Hear it from the Children (Save the Children, 2015)

There are only limited reports available that represent the voices of children and present a more qualitative picture on their priorities during crises situations. Save the Children's report series 'Hear it from the Children' is a strong example of research that aims to fill this gap. Research is conducted into the value communities place on education in emergencies. Data is collected through Key Informant Interviews and Focus Group Discussions with adults and children. Findings from South Sudan, Ethiopia and DR Congo show that communities prioritise education during emergencies. In Ethiopia and DR Congo, of the basic services like health, water, food, shelter, psychosocial support, and education, 30% of those surveyed ranked education first – more than for any other need.

Children on the Move in Italy and Greece (REACH/UNICEF, 2017)

This report contains findings from research into child-specific drivers of migration and children's lives once in Europe. This research was commissioned to fill an information gap on these issues and to inform programming. An assessment on the profiles and experiences of children who arrived in Italy and Greece in 2016 and 2017 was conducted, including why they left home, the risks children encountered on their journey and their life once in Europe. With the regards to access to education, findings differ for Italy and Greece, but in both countries children face challenges in accessing education. In Greece, language issues play a role and many children expect to leave Greece to other destinations, thus missing out on education for extended periods. In Italy, education is only obligatory for children in secondary reception centres, while the average length of stay for children in primary reception centres is six months, and children do not go to school for extended periods of time as a result.

5.3 THEME 3: M&E SYSTEMS IN USE BY PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTERS IN EMERGENCIES AND CRISES, COVERING CERTIFICATION ISSUES AND THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY

Girls' Education South Sudan, South Sudan Schools Attendance Monitoring System (SSSAMS)

As part of the DFID-funded Girls Education South Sudan (GESS) programme, the South Sudan Schools Attendance Monitoring System (SSSAMS) was designed, developed, and put into operation in 2013. The SSSAMS database has now been operational for almost four years, and contains a wide range of individual school-, teacher- and student-related data that can be accessed through a public website (www.sssams.org). Although it was set up initially as a system to measure student attendance, the data available through the system cover a much wider range of indicators. Part of its function is to collect annual enrolment data for all schools in South Sudan that is disaggregated to the level of individual pupils. As such it has functioned as a programme database that is used effectively in a large-scale cash transfer programme, and as the basis for paying out School Capitation Grants that are calculated based on school enrolment totals. Data entry is decentralised to state levels and is the responsibility of contracted NGO implementing partners, in collaboration with State Ministries of Education.

An independent review of SSSAMS was undertaken in 2017 to take a critical in-depth look at SSSAMS, reviewing its functionalities, accuracy, costs, manageability, and user-friendliness, while looking at its potential for sustainability within the education sector in South Sudan. The review findings are under review with DFID South Sudan.

Currently the SSSAMS system does not include records of pupils' learning outcomes. Attempts have been made to include exam results for individual pupils in the SSSAMS database, but this has proved difficult to

realise to date. Multi-year pupil tracking remains a major challenge. This is to do with data entry complications. Pupils' names and short codes are not consistently spelled and entered year-on-year. Most pupils do not possess ID cards or other forms of identification.

SSSAMS has aided the GESS programme to adapt to situations of displacement. Displaced school communities can, in principle, take Capitation Grants with them to temporary host schools, provided that their School Development Plans and Budgets are adapted to the different emergency needs, while maintaining accountability and transparency through submission of documents to SSSAMS. While data is captured once a year, the system has a functionality for adding pupils that enrol in the middle of a school year by SMS. In this way, displaced school girls who enrol in another host school can still access a Cash Transfer. SSSAMS has not yet been used for tracking pupils across borders.

Impact of war on Syrian children's learning (International Rescue Committee, 2017)

This report aims to fill an information gap about levels of learning of children inside Syria. Although small in sample size (the report is based on findings from five IRC-supported schools in Idleb Governorate) the report demonstrates the feasibility of measuring learning outcomes in crises situations. The study is based on an Annual State of Education (ASER) assessment. In 2005, ASER reading and math tools were launched to document the level of children's learning on a national scale in India. They are easy to administer, and provide basic information about learning outcomes. Average scores in both reading and math are low for both boys and girls in the Syrian case, pointing to a need for additional programming to support foundational skills. The IRC plans to further roll-out the ASER data collection methodology to collect additional data and enable greater focus on learning outcomes in programming.

Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP) of the Afghanistan Primary Education Programme (APEP) (Nicholson, 2007)

The Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP) of the Afghanistan Primary Education Programme (APEP), which ran from January 2003-December 2006, was evaluated in a case study that included an assessment of the programme's monitoring and evaluation system. The M&E system included a research component with 'Accelerated Learning Longitudinal Surveys' (ALLS) to provide detailed data and in-depth analysis of student learning experiences, skills gains, and outcomes over the period of the ALP. The case study finds that the expansive M&E framework was a reporting burden to implementing partners, this was addressed successfully through capacity building and putting in place a clear reporting and data collection system. As a result, the project impact was very well documented, including details on learning achievements and employment status of the 170,000 students reached.

Alternative Education in the DRC (USAID, 2014)

This research report finds that although there is a national policy on alternative education in the DRC, many alternative education programmes operate in parallel to the government system. An example is quoted from an interview with international staff members implementing a USAID-funded alternative education programme, who were not aware of the existence of the Ministry's Directorate for Non-Formal Education (DGENF). This is, despite the fact that the USAID/DRC Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) for 2015–2019, includes support to national institutions as a key development objective. The DGENF's institutional capacity to monitor and oversee the quality of alternative education programmes is limited and the allocated budget insufficient. As a result, despite its formal legitimacy, alternative education in the DRC today reaches fewer than 10% of the estimated number of school-age children who remain out of school. Increased coordination between the government and private providers is needed to integrate alternative education programmes better into the formal system.

Meta Analysis of Norwegian Refugee Council's Accelerated Education Responses (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2015)

This analysis finds that, in regard to pathways between alternative and formal education:

There is evidence to demonstrate that NRC's alternative education programming has afforded its beneficiaries pathways for reintegration into the formal schooling system. However, they have varying rates of efficiency in terms of numbers of students initially enrolling compared to those who end up reintegrating due to drop out or failure to sit and/or pass the transition examination to the formal system. Typically, this is greater in Alternative Basic Education (ABE) programmes where children remain outside the formal education system for up to four years before transiting. Often when learners do not perform at expected levels, on programme specific or national examinations, they are either retained and supported within the AEPs for an additional period, or offered the option to transfer to the formal schooling system at a lower grade level. Also, many learners who do complete NRC's AEPs choose not to transit into the formal system, for a number of different factors including concerns of stigmatisation, early marriage, the costs of schooling, or the need to support ones' family.

The evaluation identifies as priority areas for further research the bottlenecks and pathways students face on re-entry to the formal schooling system and accreditation approaches. Another data-related recommendation is for alternative education (AE) programmes to systematically collect data that can be benchmarked against indicators in the formal education system. This will help AE programmes to set better targets for success and provide comparison on their performance against schools in the formal education system. Furthermore, many AE programmes were found to be weak on the collection of data on drop-outs, in particular, on the reasons for dropping out. The analysis is based on evaluations of NRCs programming in 15 countries across Africa, Asia and Latin America and includes short summaries of the evaluation per country.

ICT and the Education of Refugees: A Stocktaking of Innovative Approaches in the MENA Region, Lessons of Experience and Guiding Principles (World Bank, 2016)

This report discusses several ICT solutions for capturing learning outcomes currently in use by programme implementers. The report covers both the use of ICT for teaching and learning refugee children, as well as the use of ICT for capturing learning achievements and information management and student administration. It should be noted the examples included are all relatively recently developed and put to use. It is still too early to evaluate their effectiveness, but they are included here to show innovative responses that make use of technology and that may produce evidence on their effectiveness in the near future:

SQuidcard, a digital transaction and eLearning solutions provider, offer humanitarian and development services as well. The sQuid CheckIn offers digital attendance monitoring based on smart-cards.

Tangerine, open source software developed by RTI to conduct Early Grade Reading Assessments, Early Grade Mathematics Assessments, and interviews with students, teachers, and principals on home and school context information. Tangerine is optimised for data collection on tablets and smartphones. Its primary use is to enable capture of students' responses in oral early grade reading and mathematics skills assessments, specifically Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA), and interview responses from students, teachers, and principals. Tangerine received recognition from the Center for Education Innovations (CEI) as an emerging trend and is now part of CEI's list of "Emerging Technology Models."

OpenEMIS, is an Open Source Education Management Information System (EMIS) designed to collect and report data on education systems. The OpenEMIS initiative aims to change access to data through open channels and transparency in the dissemination and use of disaggregated data from multiple sources for better decision-support. The system was developed by UNESCO and can be customised to the needs of different countries. In Jordan, the system was customised as OpenEMIS Refugees to track educational data of Syrian

refugee children in Jordan since 2014. In 2016 the system was rolled out as OpenEMIS to cover all schools in Jordan as part of a restructuring of the country's EMIS[23].

World Refugee School is another example of a recent e-learning initiative that was launched in Jordan in 2016[24]. Based on an online platform ('EduWave®'), it aims to deliver education to student users. The cloud-based platform is designed to serve multiple communities, standards, functions, and roles, integrating content from different sources. Content is currently provided from formal and non-formal sources and the private sector, and will be contextualised by 'local talent' to be relevant in different locations. The following institutions are involved in the production of content:

- Formal education: Ministries of Education
- Non-formal education: MoEs, UNICEF, other organisations
- Informal & remedial education: UNICEF, other organisations
- Enrichment Material: BrainRush, Lego, JAID. TBD: National Geographic, BBC, local content providers, etc.

The platform aims to facilitate continuity of learning during transitions, regardless of location. Content can be accessed through tablets and other mobile devices.

With regards to certification, the report recommends solving the complicated issue of certification through the introduction of a competency-based approach for emergency situations. Standardised competency tests could be mapped to a national curriculum. Simple age-based benchmarks could be used in the development of tests that could be based on internationally recognised systems such as TIMSS or PISA. This would allow non-formal education providers in emergencies to conduct standardised quality monitoring and provide learners and parents with an overview of their competencies based on simple assessments. The report also provides examples of Education Management Information Systems that are tailored to refugee contexts. In Turkey, UNICEF worked with the Ministry of National Education to establish YOBIS, a data system for foreign students and teachers in Turkey.

Independent evaluation of UNICEF's response to the refugee crisis in Turkey 2012-2015 (Darcy, et al., 2015)

This evaluation found that YOBIS filled a critical data gap, and could be considered in other refugee contexts where alternative methods of needs assessment are problematic. The system is compatible with the existing Education Management Information System, and could include all foreign students and teachers, not just Syrians alone. Additional examples include:

Education of Syrian Refugee Children – Managing the Crisis in Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan (Culbertson & Constant, 2015)

This report includes several relevant recommendations on data and information systems. These include the development of a consistent set of access, quality, and protection indicators. Particularly on quality, standards of alternative or non-formal education programmes need to be improved. They should be fully equivalent to certified formal education. Quality monitoring of non-formal education programmes then needs to be strengthened. These programmes should include clear linkages to the formal education system and follow a recognised curriculum.

[23] https://www.openemis.org/
[24] http://www.wrschool.org/

Certification Counts (UNESCO, 2009)

This UNESCO publication provides a global overview of issues encountered in the certification of learning achievements of refugee and internally displaced pupils. Obstacles to the certification of learning achievements can be technical (lack of documentation; weak policy frameworks; resource gaps) or political in nature. At the onset of an emergency, securing formal recognition of learning achievement is often overlooked as it not considered an 'emergency' issue: however, this means that education provided may not be validated later. The publication recommends the development of curricula and assessments, within regional or international frameworks, which support cross-border equivalency.

Education in Conflict and Crisis: How Can Technology Make a Difference? A Landscape Review (Dahya, 2016)

This publication provides a good overview of the challenges and potential of the use of ICT in education in crisis settings. The report finds that ICT has a high potential for education system strengthening in conflict and crisis settings. Examples include the use of mobile money transfers to ensure teachers receive regular salaries. Two-way communication systems using SMS (text messaging) over mobile phones to promote safe learning spaces by informing parents, guardians, and young people directly about danger near schools. ICT is also being used for data collection about students, teachers, schools, and the larger education infrastructure. There is room for growth, however, especially regarding the use of ICT for teacher training and student learning. Tools can and should be the least determining factor for the success of a project: the review finds that human resources and teachers remain crucial to the success of educational projects, while technology should play a supportive, enabling role. Most of the identified projects are still at a pilot stage and examining ways to increase sustainability and scale. The publication concludes that there is no single or simple model for ICT tools' sustainability or scale given the diversity and complexity of contexts in conflict and crisis. ICT for education programmes in conflict and crisis need to be iterative and adaptable.

5.4 THEME 4: NATURAL DISASTERS

Education sector planning: working to mitigate the risk of violent conflict (MacEwen, Choudhuri , & Bird, 2011)

This background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011 includes a review of education sector planning for both conflict and natural disasters. The paper argues that education sector planning should involve analysis that identifies the core vulnerabilities of a country. These could be related to natural disasters or conflict. National level education planning based on this 'sector diagnosis' can help to mitigate the impacts of natural disasters. National governments may need capacity development support to produce this analysis. The report includes examples of IIEP's experience working with MoEs in Ethiopia, Uganda, and Nepal to ensure the inclusion of education in emergency into national education sector plans. The long-term engagement with Nepal provided an opportunity for raising awareness within the MoE of why education should be prioritised following disasters. In Ethiopia one of the expected outcomes is the inclusion of information on emergency situations in EMIS. Another example from Kenya demonstrates work done on specific education indicators for disaster risk reduction and emergency response in 2010. The report includes examples of planning initiatives of the IIEP, but as these were all still ongoing or in initial stages, there was no evidence on the effectiveness of these plans during implementation in a disaster response.

Save the Children's Experience in Disaster Risk Reduction in the Education Sector in Asia: 2007-2013: Preparing for the Post-2015 agenda (Save the Children, 2015)

This report provides a comprehensive overview of Save the Children's Comprehensive School Safety framework and its application in a range of disaster-prone countries in Asia. The framework addresses school safety standards, school disaster management, and curriculum development. Save the Children has worked

closely with Ministries of Education to ensure that emergency preparedness plans for the education sector were developed (e.g. in Timor Leste) or on the integration of Disaster Risk Reduction in the national curriculum (e.g. in the Philippines, Vietnam, and other countries). As part of emergency preparedness planning, they have provided school-level training on risk and hazard mapping. The report is a summary note produced by Save the Children and not an evaluation on the effectiveness of these interventions, however it gives a good overview of current practice.

Building back better: post-earthquake responses and educational challenges in Pakistan (Kirk, 2008)

This publication documents the experiences of sector planners, managers, and implementers of the education sector response to the 2005 earthquake in Pakistan. The magnitude of impact demonstrates the importance of emergency preparedness in disaster-prone areas. The study highlights the importance of government involvement to provide leadership and co-ordination between sector initiatives and different levels of government during the relief period and afterwards. The study finds that the vision of 'building back better' proved hard to realise as funding for longer-term recovery and reconstruction was scarce. Regarding monitoring and evaluation, the study finds that larger INGOs involved in the response developed monitoring frameworks that were based on the INEE Minimum Standards in some cases. Smaller national NGOs had weak capacity to meet monitoring standards set by UNICEF. A key finding and recommendation is that there was no sector-wide monitoring and reporting framework, which would have strengthened coordination and the quality of response. Monitoring and evaluation was furthermore weak on qualitative aspects such as the impact of teacher training and capacity building.

5.5 ONGOING RESEARCH INITIATIVES

Education Inequality and Violent Conflict: Evidence and Policy Considerations (FHI360 Education Policy and Data Centre, 2017)

This research project explored education inequality as a determinant and an outcome of internal conflicts, given the cyclical relationship between inequality and conflict. To investigate these relationships, FHI 360 examined inequality using the Education Inequality and Conflict Dataset (EIC), a new dataset developed for this research project. The EIC spans 1960–2010 and is global in scope, covering nearly 100 countries. It includes data on conflict incidence and onset from the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP), as well as several estimates of inequality in education, measured as disparity in average years of schooling among youth ages 15–24, extracted from household survey and census data. The study examined education inequality between culturally defined or constructed groups and socioeconomic divisions (e.g., ethnic, religious etc.), referred to as horizontal inequality following Stewart (2000), as well as inequality across households or individuals, or vertical inequality. Findings show, in summary, there is evidence that rising inequalities in education can increase the risk of conflict, and consequently, experiencing conflict can exacerbate pre-existing education inequality.

Education Equity Research Initiative

A collaborative partnership formed by research and programme implementing organisations with the common objective of advancing research to inform policy and programming on the effective ways of strengthening equity in and through education systems.

Promising Practices in Refugee Education Initiative

An initiative launched in 2016 by Pearson, UNHCR and Save the Children. The initiative will release its first publication at the UNGA in September 2017 in New York.

Centre for Education Innovations (CEI)

This centre seeks to fill the gaps in global understanding about innovative education programmes striving to increase access to quality education for students in low income communities. The Research and Evidence library contains over 700 documents on recent education innovations, including in conflict and crises contexts.

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