

Education in Emergencies

A Comparative Perspective of
Intervention Phases along the
Humanitarian – Development
Nexus in Current Crises

Benil Mostafa

INDEPENDENT CONSULTANT | SEPTEMBER 2019

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Acronyms	i
Executive Summary	ii
Introduction	1
Purpose and Methodology	2
Background	3
Findings	4
Humanitarian emergency phase	4
Transitional phase	9
Protracted emergency phase	13
Conclusions	15
References	16
Appendix	21

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AFAD	Prime Minister’s Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency
ALP	Accelerated Learning Programme
CFS	Child-Friendly Spaces
CRRF	Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EiE	Education in Emergencies
EMIS	Education Management Information System
GoB	Government of Bangladesh
GoC	Government of Colombia
GoJ	Government of Jordan
GoK	Government of Kenya
GoL	Government of Lebanon
GoT	Government of Turkey
GoU	Government of Uganda
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
MEHE	Ministry of Education and Higher Education
MoE	Ministry of Education
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NLG	No Lost Generation Initiative
PSS	Psychosocial Support
R4V	Response for Venezuelans
RACE	Reaching All Children with Education
RMRP	Regional Refugee and Migrant Response Plan
SEL	Social and Emotional Learning
TECs	Temporary Education Centers
TVET	Technical, Vocational Education and Training
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The global population of forcibly displaced people under UNHCR’s mandate has significantly increased since 2016, amounting to approximately 70.4 million by mid-2018, due to intrastate conflicts, climate change, and human rights violations (UNHCR, 2018a, 2019a). Particularly sub-Saharan Africa, Asia-Pacific, and the Americas regions saw unprecedented new displacements in 2017, with millions of South Sudanese, Rohingya people and Venezuelans uprooted and seeking safe havens in neighboring countries. These global trends show that refugee situations have increased in scope, scale and complexity. Aside from new emergencies, and adding to the complexities, there were some 5.4 million Syrian refugees living in protracted situations, mainly in Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey (UNHCR, 2018a). Protracted refugee situations across the globe now last an estimated 26 years on average (UN, 2017) and “once refugees have been displaced for six months they have a high-probability of being displaced for at least three years” (Cambridge Education, 2017). All this suggests that many refugee children grow up or reach adulthood in host countries.

This report explores whether common EiE response patterns - and contextual differences - can be identified in recent and protracted emergency contexts over humanitarian-development response phases. To address this question, seven countries from varied regions are selected for analysis, all of which are significantly affected by refugee crises and are a combination of camp, settlement and urban contexts. These include: Uganda, Kenya, Colombia, Bangladesh, Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey. Although there is some evidence around the research question at the global level, information on the select countries is sporadic. This review leverages the available knowledge and synthesizes data with an underlying assumption that identification of EiE response patterns across humanitarian-development response phases would allow for better predictability and more targeted response. Below are the key findings that emerged from the analysis and they may or may not apply to other contexts. Findings are organized by categories of interventions and actors under three response phases: (i) humanitarian emergency phase (0-2 years); (ii) transitional phase (2-4 years); and (iii) protracted emergency phase (4- onwards). These timeframes are not representative of all humanitarian responses, but rather they emerged from the responses observed in select countries.¹

Phase A: Humanitarian emergency phase

- Services:
 - Child protection (CP) is the first EiE-related response to provide psychosocial support (PSS), life skills, and play/recreational activities.
 - EiE responses often prioritize access and coverage over quality.

¹ Despite a few guidelines, there are no agreed timelines for humanitarian response phases mainly because each refugee situation is unique and the time it takes to transition from one response phase to another may vary, depending on political context, funding, the scale of the challenge and other factors. See, for example, WHO. (n.d.). *Technical Guidelines: Managing WHO Humanitarian Response in the Field - 2*, https://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/tools/manuals/who_field_handbook/2/en/index1.html

- Non-formal education (NFE) programs are generally uncertified and substitute formal education in countries with repatriation policies, whereas in others it complements i.e. provides pathways to formal education.
- Services mostly target young children or primary school-aged children. However, by the end of the second year, EiE programming increasingly target adolescents and youth to attend vocational training or facilitate their entry into formal education.
- Actors:
 - Ministries of Education are often hands-off and non-state actors (I/NGOs and UN agencies) are the key providers of child protection and EiE responses.
 - EiE programming is primarily focused on short-term, life-saving interventions.
- Accreditation, regulation and certification of NFE takes at least two years in countries, with restrictive refugee education policies.

Phase B: Transitional phase

- Services:
 - CP services remain a high priority; more CFSs and adolescent clubs are established, providing children with age-appropriate PSS/life skills interventions.
 - CP and EiE responses increasingly aim at improving the quality of services (i.e. providing capacity development training for teachers, civil servants, and I/NGO staff) while increasing access and coverage.
 - NFE gradually becomes accredited and regulated and provides a pathway to formal education. During this phase, access to formal education increases.
 - Services target a wider range of age groups, with emphasis on adolescents and youth.
- Actors:
 - Ministries of Education take a stronger role in the response and adopt inclusive education policies.
 - EiE programming adopt a systems strengthening approach, aiming at increasing the capacities of national systems.
- More coordinated efforts between governments and partners to bridge the gap between humanitarian-development nexus begin after approximately three years of displacement.

Phase C: Protracted emergency phase

- Services:
 - CP services target and reach more children and youth, regardless of status and nationality, focusing more on school-based and gender-based violence, child labor and child marriage that affect educational attainment.
 - Efforts to improve quality and increase access and coverage scale up in both CP and EiE responses.
 - NFE becomes fully accredited and access to formal education substantially increases.
 - Social cohesion and youth programming (i.e. skills development and TVET) become key priorities.
- Actors:
 - Governments take the lead response and grant full-fledged access to national education systems, making further efforts to put inclusive policy into practice.
 - EiE programming shifts from resilience towards a broader vulnerability-based approach to reach out-of-school children and youth in vulnerable communities.
- Governments and implementing partners scale up services to facilitate de facto integration.

INTRODUCTION

According to recent statistics, the global population of forcibly displaced people under UNHCR's mandate amounted to approximately 70.4 million by mid-2018, compared with 65.6 million by the end of 2016 (UNHCR, 2018a, 2019a). Intrastate conflicts, climate change, and human rights violations were the main causes for refugee movements.

The year 2017 saw new displacements in sub-Saharan Africa, Asia-Pacific, and the Americas regions, displacing a total of 6.5 million people (UNHCR, 2019a). Among these were 2.4 million South Sudanese refugees recently fleeing mainly to Uganda and Kenya, and 1.2 million Rohingya refugees seeking safe havens in Bangladesh (UNHCR, 2018a). In addition, more than 3.4 million Venezuelans have fled to neighboring countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, primarily to Colombia, over the past few years (UN, 2019).

Aside from new emergencies, and adding to the complexities, there were some 13.4 million refugees in protracted situations at the end of 2017 (UNHCR, 2018a). Of the 6.9 million people living in these situations lasting between five to nine years are 5.4 million Syrian refugees living mainly in Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey.² The Syrian displaced population continues to account for the largest refugee population globally and in the Middle East and North Africa region. Importantly, protracted refugee situations across the globe now last an estimated 26 years on average (UN, 2017) and “once refugees have been displaced for six months they have a high-probability of being displaced for at least three years” (Cambridge Education, 2017).

These global trends show that refugee situations have increased in scope, scale and complexity and that many refugee children grow up or reach adulthood in host country settings. Against this background, this report explores the following research question: *What kinds of common EiE response patterns - and contextual differences - can be identified across humanitarian-development response phases?*

In order to answer this question, seven countries from varied regions were selected, which are a combination of camp, settlement and urban contexts (see table 1 below). Four of these have been recently affected by large refugee influx, namely Uganda (South Sudanese refugees residing in settlements), Kenya (South Sudanese refugees in Kakuma camp), Bangladesh (Rohingya refugees in camps in Cox's Bazar), and Colombia (Venezuelans in rural and urban areas). The remaining three are the most affected countries by the protracted Syrian refugee crisis that include Lebanon, Jordan, and Turkey.

² UNHCR defines protracted refugee situation as “one in which 25,000 or more refugees from the same nationality have been in exile for five consecutive years or more in a given asylum country.”

Table 1: Characteristics of the select countries

Host Country	Displaced population	Refugee Influx Date	Context
Uganda	South Sudanese refugees	July 2016	Settlements
Kenya	South Sudanese refugees	July 2016	Refugee camp (Kakuma)
Bangladesh	Rohingya displaced population	August 2017 ³	Refugee camp
Colombia	Venezuelan migrants and refugees	2015	Urban/Rural
Lebanon	Syrian refugees	March 2011	Urban/Informal tented settlements
Jordan	Syrian refugees	July 2011	Largely urban/ Refugee camp
Turkey	Syrian refugees	April 2011	Largely urban/ Refugee camp

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the report is to explore whether there are commonalities and contextual differences in EiE responses across humanitarian-development nexus. Even though refugee education and EiE literature provide evidence around the research question, information on the select countries is sporadic. Therefore, this review leverages the available knowledge and synthesizes data. This paper focuses on refugees and other forcibly displaced population in host country settings and excludes internally displaced populations. The review does not intend to make generalizations but to provide an overview of trends across seven countries, with an underlying assumption that identification of EiE response patterns across humanitarian-development response phases would allow for better predictability and more targeted response. Future research is needed to take stock of EiE responses across the globe over the response phases to draw conclusions on whether findings apply to other contexts beyond the sample.

The research approach included a desk review of EiE responses in sample countries and five key informant interviews with EiE practitioners (mainly from UN agencies and INGOs) from Uganda,

³ This report focuses only on the post-August 2017 influx. Based on discussions with the field-based key informant, the context in Bangladesh was quite different before August 2017 in that Rohingya in the registered camps were using the Bangladesh curriculum up to grade 8, which is not permitted by the GoB for the 'new' influx.

Colombia, Jordan, Bangladesh and Lebanon. Findings were drawn primarily from: UNHCR and UNICEF reports;⁴ government and/or joint strategic documents and plans; and peer-reviewed articles. Experts provided valuable input on key themes emerged from the analysis as well as essential information that was not readily available in public domain.

The report is organized as follows:

- The background section provides an overview of how EiE has become an integral part of the humanitarian-development response.
- The findings section presents the key themes that emerged from the EiE responses of the countries examined across response phases.
- The final section discusses the key lessons learned.

BACKGROUND

There are generally three response stages (or phases), in which refugees receive support and services. These include humanitarian emergency, transitional, and protracted emergency phases. The literature lacks an agreed upon timeline for response phases, which most likely stems from the facts that each refugee crisis is unique and that each country context can display additional layers of challenges. In fact, a number of factors can affect timelines, including but not limited to types of available funding (short-term vs. multi-year), scale of the influx, existence of previous infrastructure, level of coordination between actors, state capacity, political environment and security.⁵

Not until the early 2000s had education in emergencies (EiE) been integrated into the stages of humanitarian response and become a high priority for aid agencies and donors. This has changed through numerous efforts such as the release of INEE Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies in 2004 and the creation of the Global Education Cluster, co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children, in 2006 (Price, 2011; Dryden-Peterson, 2011). In November 2006, education was formally included in the international humanitarian response system through the formation of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee Education Cluster that was “designed to enhance coordination, improve accountability and quality and bring effective education to children in disaster situations” (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2008).

In recent years, there has been greater recognition of the protracted nature of refugee displacements and the role of EiE in preventing and responding to the potential impact of the rising number of global crises. The Syrian refugee crisis in particular has urged the international community to revisit their responses, driving them to make firm commitments to share responsibility for dealing

⁴ These reports include but are not limited to: monthly update, mid-year, end of year, and annual reports.

⁵ See for example, UNDP, UNFPA, UNOPS and UNICEF, September 2011, “Making the Transition from Emergency to Recovery and Development,” Special Focus on South Sudan, A Concept Paper for the Executive Board, https://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/files/110901_Joint_disc_S-Sudan_FINAL.pdf

with unprecedented global refugee movements, to ensure quality education for children and youth in emergencies and protracted crises, and to support host countries. Member States have demonstrated their commitments by endorsing international declarations and adopting appropriate measures such as policies and strategic plans. Some of the most relevant declarations worth mentioning include: the Incheon Declaration in 2015, New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants in 2016, and two subsequent global compacts — the Global Compact on Refugees and the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration in 2018.⁶ Within this development EiE interventions have become instrumental in bridging the humanitarian-development nexus.

FINDINGS

Despite contextual differences, several common patterns are observed across select countries. These patterns are organized by two main categories, services and actors, and respective sub-categories under each response phase. The sub-categories under services include the type and focus of and the targeted age group for interventions, while those related to actors pertain to the role of host governments and EiE programming developed and implemented by I/NGOs and/or UN agencies. This structure has been maintained throughout this section to show the transition of each point from one phase to another: humanitarian emergency response phase largely covers the first two years that span from the time when the crisis hits until the end of the second year (Phase A; 0-2 years); transitional phase (Phase B; 2-4 years); and protracted emergency phase (Phase C; 4 years- onwards).

Among the countries reviewed, Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey are currently the only protracted contexts, which are home to the largest refugee population in the world, by now lasting over eight years. Thus, the analysis for Phase C is drawn from the responses of these three countries. Yet, the patterns observed across these countries may help predict the responses of others.

Phase A: Humanitarian Emergency Phase

Services

Child protection is the first EiE-related response

The existing literature highlights that in acute crises, the first EiE-related response often involves establishing child-friendly spaces (CFSs) or safe spaces as refugee children commonly experience

⁶ Annex I to the New York Declaration (UN Resolution, A/RES/71/1, 2016) contains a Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) that outlines concrete steps towards the achievement of a Global Compact on Refugees and spells out UNHCR's role to develop and initiate comprehensive responses in different host countries, namely Afghanistan, Chad, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia, Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Panama. It calls on governments to incorporate the framework into national development planning (Article 8.b.) and advocates for the inclusion of refugees in communities and in national systems. In essence, this framework aims to help countries develop and implement a plan of action to integrate refugees.

traumatic events and significant hardships throughout their journey (INEE, 2010). CFSs have a dual purpose: on the one hand, they protect and promote the well-being of children and youth through recreational, informal activities, structured learning and psychosocial support (PSS); and on the other, they allow stakeholders (community members, humanitarian and government workers) to assess needs and capacities for formal and non-formal education (NFE) pathways.⁷ Underlining the complementary nature of child protection and education responses during complex emergencies, the key informant who worked during the early years of the Lebanon response explained, “if children do not receive PSS and SEL interventions during the emergency phase, they experience difficulty in schools and eventually drop out because they cannot adapt” (field-based practitioner interview, May 12, 2019). Further, the provision of recreational/preparatory activities such as SEL/PSS “as a principal protection objective” in the initial phase of an emergency aligns with the UNHCR 1995 revised guidelines for educational assistance to refugees (Aguilar & Retamal, 1998; UNHCR, 1995).

In line with the literature, this review found that the first EiE response was the provision of child protection (CP) services through the establishment of CFSs in all countries but Colombia to provide PSS, SEL, and life skills in order for children to return to normalcy and adapt to their new environment through structured learning, play and recreation. For example, in Bangladesh, Kenya, Jordan, and Turkey, humanitarian organizations established CFSs as a first intervention to support children with age-appropriate activities, though demand often exceeding supply particularly in Kenya (UNHCR, 2012, 2017a; World Vision, 2017a).⁸ The common denominator of these countries is that all are camp and/or designated settlement contexts, where humanitarian actors have greater and easier access to refugee children. While establishing CFSs in refugee dense communities was also a priority in Lebanon (UNHCR, 2012), an urban refugee context with no refugee camps, humanitarian agencies were unable to reach beneficiaries due to lack of quality data on urban refugees (UNICEF, 2019a). Indeed, it is much harder to reach children in urban and rural areas as many may not register with the authorities.

In stark contrast to other countries, neither EiE nor CP interventions were the main responses in Colombia (field-based practitioner interview, May 14, 2019). Instead, efforts to increase access to legal status, food, and shelter have evidently taken precedence over education (OCHA Colombia, 2019). Particularly during the first three months, humanitarian actors prioritize social and emotional learning (SEL) and PSS over academic learning in order for refugee children to develop competencies to cope with stress, be resilient in a new environment and be prepared to learn again (field-based practitioner interview, May 12, 2019).

⁷ In this review, formal education is official and accredited education provided in national education system such as public schools. Non-formal education (NFE) refers to a range of educational programmes, accredited and non-accredited, provided by I/NGOs or governments. Examples include accelerated learning, catch-up, remedial and drop-out programmes, basic literacy and numeracy, language classes, vocational training, and life skills education.

⁸ In Uganda, World Vision, Save the Children and UNICEF lead the child protection and education interventions.

Initial EiE responses prioritize access and coverage over quality

Within the first year of the displacement, EiE responses prioritize access and coverage versus quality in order to reach more children with life-saving interventions. This is particularly the case in fast-growing refugee crises. For example, UNICEF Bangladesh (2018a) reported that “the humanitarian community was required to scale up their operations prioritizing coverage over quality in order to save lives” for the first few months. Yet, deprioritization of quality during the initial phase is not unique to UNICEF nor to its Rohingya response. In fact, a recent evaluation of UNICEF humanitarian responses in complex humanitarian emergencies in the years between 2015 and 2018 found that “coverage is consistently prioritized over quality and equity, particularly at the onset of a crisis” (UNICEF, 2019a, p. 47). The evaluation report highlights that when there needs to be a trade-off between coverage and quality, it is coverage that frequently wins because quality requires greater funding and resources such as trained teachers and infrastructure (UNICEF, 2019a) as well as government action and engagement such as allowing entry into formal education and accrediting and recognizing education and certificates. Aside from Bangladesh, lack of educational quality throughout the emergency response was observed across all countries reviewed. Unstandardized curriculum, lack of harmony between NFE programmes, insufficient physical capacity of learning facilities/ schools, and unavailability of trained teachers or teacher training opportunities were prevalent in all countries (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014; UNHCR, 2017b, 2017c).

Access over quality was also prioritized by governments. Except for Bangladesh, all countries granted access to formal education for refugee children, albeit conditional (i.e. documentation requirement); however, schools or learning centers were not prepared to provide quality education for refugee learners as there was no guidance and pre- or in-service training for teachers of refugee learners (Watkins & Zyck, 2014). Public schools that operated through double-shift arrangements (i.e. in Lebanon and Turkey) were overcrowded and because only state teachers were allowed to teach in the formal system, teacher fatigue was commonly reported, affecting the quality of education (Dryden-Peterson & Adelman, 2016). Coupled with refugee students’ unfamiliarity with the curriculum, untreated trauma, and lack of skills in the language of instruction (except in Jordan and Colombia), it can be argued that access was granted at the expense of quality. Further, efforts to overcome these challenges were not prioritized during the initial response. For example, despite significant teacher shortages in refugee settlements in Uganda, UNICEF and UNHCR began teacher training for refugee teachers in 2019 only during the transitional phase (UNHCR, 2017c, 2018b, 2019b; UNICEF, 2017a, 2018b, 2019b). When interventions mainly focus on reaching as many children as possible without making targeted efforts to improve educational quality, increased school dropout rates are often the inadvertent outcome. It is found that it takes on average of two years for EiE responses to aim towards improving the quality of services while also increasing access particularly for those residing in rural and urban areas.

Accreditation and recognition of NFE is not guaranteed, and is related to refugee education policy

The literature highlights that NFE programs in humanitarian settings do not necessarily lead to recognized certificates or diplomas (Aguilar & Retamal, 1998). This review found that country's policy environment determines the role of NFE programs, whether it substitutes or complements formal education. More specifically, of the seven countries reviewed, NFE programs in five countries (Bangladesh, Colombia, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey) were largely sporadic, unregulated, not certified or accredited by the MoE at least until the end of two years of displacement. All these countries had repatriation policies, though with varying degrees of restriction, and that there existed limited to no possibility for refugee children to re-enter into the formal system during the emergence phase. In these contexts, NFE de facto substituted formal education. For example, Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey initially had repatriation policies because they assumed the conflict in Syria would be over soon and Syrians would return to their homeland. In none of these countries NFE programs were certified or accredited by the MoE during the early years of the crisis (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014; Abu-Amsha & Armstrong, 2018). Similarly, in Bangladesh, NFE programs were not, and at the time of writing still are not, accredited by the MoE, as the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) strictly forbids access for non-citizens to formal education (UNICEF, 2018a). Accordingly, based on information received from a key informant based in Colombia, there are several NFE programs in Colombia such as "bridging programme," but they are not certified as the government has also a repatriation policy (field-based practitioner interview, May 14, 2019).

Kenya and Uganda are the only two countries with favorable, inclusive refugee education policies, where NFE programs are mainstreamed and certified. A certified education means that refugee children have alternative pathways to enroll or re-enter in the formal system, thus complementing formal education. South Sudanese refugee children in Kakuma camp, Kenya, have access to accredited non-formal and formal education (UNHCR, 2017b).⁹ Similarly, in Uganda, NFE programs such as Accelerated Learning Program for refugee children (as well as local children) are accredited and provide equivalency¹⁰ (Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports, 2018; UNHCR, 2010; UNICEF, 2017a).

Services mostly target young children or primary-aged children, not adolescents or youth

Based on policy and practice reports from humanitarian agencies, child protection (CP) and EiE responses mostly target young or primary school-aged children within the first year of the

⁹ Schools in Kakuma camp have been registered as public entities as of 2017.

¹⁰ Important to note that ALP programs are somewhat in between formal and non-formal education. It follows a condensed curriculum, based on the Uganda curriculum for primary education, and is approved by MoES. In that way, AEP is formal education, since it is accredited and certified, but it sits under the Department for NFE under Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES). See also Uganda Education Act of 2008, provision 49 regarding various, accredited NFE programmes. The Uganda Gazette No. 44 Volume CI dated 29th August, 2008.

emergency response. In Uganda, for example, UNICEF’s initial EiE and CP responses to the South Sudanese refugees included the distribution of ECD kits and establishment of CFSs for young children (UNICEF, 2016a), with the education response indicator being, “Number of children (3-5 years) accessing early childhood development services” (UNICEF, 2016b). Further, although UNHCR South Sudan regional reports do not provide age disaggregated data on children receiving services, the report of its child protection implementation partner indicated that most of the activities in Uganda target children under six years old (World Vision, 2017b). In fact, in another report, UNHCR highlighted that livelihoods and skills development opportunities for youth were key remaining gaps in the Uganda response, with only 50% of youth being engaged in such training (UNHCR, 2017c).

The Rohingya response in Bangladesh was also primarily at the ECD and primary level. By December 2017, that is after five months of displacement, 50% of pre-primary and 61% of primary learners were enrolled in education, as opposed to only 3% of adolescents and youth having access to learning opportunities (JRP, 2019). Adolescents were included in the response plan in the following year and in the newly developed Rohingya Refugee Crisis Joint Response Plan that reads: “support children and youth (4-24) with basic literacy and numeracy and life and livelihood skills, with vocational training” (UNICEF, 2018a).

In Turkey, particularly in camps, CFSs were established for young children, but such spaces were absent for adolescents and youth until 2014 and education services were mainly at the primary level (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014). Similarly, in Lebanon, there was no targeted education provision such as vocational training for Syrian youth aged between 16-24 (Ibid.) The absence of services such as education and training for adolescents and youth is most likely because livelihoods, vocational or skills development training for employment are associated with permanency of the displacement, which might be perceived as integration. This was the case in Jordan, Lebanon and to some extent in Turkey, where authorities banned INGOs to provide employment-related programs (Ferris, Kirişci, & Shaikh, 2013). Indeed, since employment is an element of development, it also calls for higher level of government engagement that countries might be unwilling and/or incapable to offer.

Actors

Ministries of Education are often hands-off and non-state actors are key providers of services

It is common in humanitarian settings that INGOs are the key providers of the refugee response, particularly at the onset of the crisis. Governments often adopt short-term policies that grant access to rights but services are nonetheless delivered by UN agencies and/or I/NGOs. This practice was also observed in the sample countries. For example, the main role that the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) played in the response was to grant access to designated land, leaving the child

protection and education response at the hands of UN agencies, INGOs and local partners (UNICEF, 2017b).

As a mechanism to respond to the early stages of the crisis, the Government of Colombia (GoC) created a Special Stay Permit (PEP, by its acronym in Spanish) in 2017, promoting regularized status for those seeking to remain in the country up to two years, and permitting access to basic rights, including employment, health, and education (Gurmendi, 2018). The Government of Turkey (GoT) developed a temporary protection framework for Syrian refugees and established camp schools but the education and child protection response was provided by UNICEF and UNHCR (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014). Similarly, Government of Jordan (GoJ) established refugee camps but UNICEF and Save the Children were the main providers of the EiE response (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014). In Kenya, camp schools have been integrated in the formal education system but were supported primarily by UN agencies or INGOs (UNESCO, 2018).

In general, across all countries, the majority of the government responsibility to provide services at the early stage of a crisis were handled by INGOs or UN agencies, mainly due to their expertise and lack of resources of host governments.

Phase B: Transitional Phase

Services

Child protection remains a high priority reaching more vulnerable children and youth

Even though child protection has been chronically one of the least-funded sub-sector (The Alliance, 2018), CP services remained a high operational priority across the countries reviewed due largely to ongoing influx of refugees in host countries and the fact that some 52% of the refugee population were children. While CP and EiE responses were neglected during the emergency phase in Colombia, they have become the key priorities under the Regional Response Plan developed in 2018, during the transitional phase, with particular attention given to separated and unaccompanied children and youth (R4V, 2019). CP and EiE services were among the key priorities of the 2019 Rohingya Refugee Crisis Joint Response Plan in Bangladesh as well (UNICEF, 2018a). According to the Plan, the provision to PSS to 300,000 children and 65,000 adolescent boys and girls through adolescent clubs was prioritized (UNICEF, 2018a). Whereas only 59% of South Sudanese children in Uganda were reached through PSS, education, and recreation services in 2017 (UNHCR, 2017c), 95% of children, particularly at risk with specific needs, have received PSS through the establishment of more CFSs (total of 112) the following year, despite the fact that the funding received by mid-2018 was much lower than that by the end of 2017 (16% vs. %34, respectively) (UNHCR, 2018b).

Similar response patterns were observed in the Syrian refugee crisis affected countries. Child protection services through CFSs were scaled up in Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey as a result of increased numbers of urban refugee children since 2013. According to the 2014 UNICEF annual report, most gains were found in Jordan, where there were 52 CFSs in camps and communities in 2013 serving approximately 113,000 refugee children (UNICEF, 2013). These numbers doubled in 2014 both in terms of the number of CFSs and children reached; a total of 210,000 children received PSS through 132 CFSs (UNICEF, 2014). These responses clearly suggest that CP services were scaled up and remained a high priority.

Responses begin focusing more on improving the quality of services

Moving into the transitional stage, it is observed across all seven countries that interventions are progressively tailored to improve the quality of services, alongside expanding coverage. In 2018, the Government of Kenya (GoK) adopted the Kenya Refugee Response Plan for South Sudanese, with a two-year timeframe (January 2019 - December 2020) (Reliefweb, 2018). The Plan explicitly mentions that activities will focus on improving the quality of education such as “improvement of existing school spaces to reduce overcrowding [...] the provision of learning materials to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in school and support for extra-curricular activities, improvement of the quality of education data and information” (Reliefweb, 2018, pg. 9). Regarding child protection, training of national officials to strengthen their capacity is among the planned response (Reliefweb, 2018).

Issues related to quality such as receipt of equivalency (or certificates), curriculum and harmonization and accreditation of NFE programs become subjects of key discussions during this stage so that refugee children can realize their right to quality education and are ultimately permitted re-entry to formal education or access the job market. Acknowledging the poor quality of NFE programs, for example, the Government of Lebanon (GoL) and key partners started discussions in 2014 on how to harmonize the curricula for NFE (ALP and remedial classes) (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2014). Similarly, the Government of Uganda (GoU) and its partners started planning for the harmonization of the accelerated education programmes across the settlements and “to revise the curriculum based on a review of learners’ needs to ensure it is relevant and up to date” (Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports, 2018, pg. 16). Further, the GoU established policies and strategies in 2018 to increase the number of certified caregivers and centers providing good-quality integrated early childhood development services and to improve the quality of learning across all forms and levels of education in 12 refugee hosting districts (Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports, 2018; UNESCO, 2018).

During the first two years of the response, one of the challenges to quality education for Rohingya children in Bangladesh was the lack of an agreed upon and authorized curriculum. To address this challenge, UNICEF and its local partners developed a “Learning Competency Framework and Approach” to be used as the basis for NFE in camps in 2019 (UNICEF, 2019c).

NFE gradually becomes accredited, and complements formal education

In general, when a refugee crisis lasts more than three years and begins to appear as a protracted displacement, host governments allow greater access to national curriculum and public schools, mainly as a result of advocacy by UN agencies and international pressure (Aguilar & Retamal, 1998). Of the seven countries examined in this review, NFE programs received in Kenya and Uganda facilitate reentry into the national system, thus complement formal education. In others, it generally substitutes formal education stemming from restrictive refugee education policies throughout the emergency response as stated earlier. This situation changes in all the latter countries, except for Bangladesh, during the transitional phase. Particularly when the crisis enters into its third year, governments adopt measures to increase access to accredited and regulated NFE, providing pathways to the formal system.

The Turkish MoE, for example, issued a circular in September 2013 (took effect in 2014) that integrated NFE provided in TECs into the national education system (Aras and Yasun, 2016). Only then NFE became certified, regulated and accredited, allowing Syrian children to receive certificates and to pursue their education in the formal education system. In 2014, the Jordanian MoE and key international partners launched remedial/catch up programmes to facilitate entry into formal education (UNICEF, 2015). In 2015, MEHE of Lebanon rolled out a pilot Accelerated Learning Program (ALP) for children who had missed two or more years of schooling. MEHE in Lebanon also formalized the accreditation of the first NFE Framework (UNICEF, 2015). Although data on the status of NFE provision for Venezuelan children in Colombia are limited, it is known that UNICEF has recently begun operating a “learning circles” NFE model to facilitate transition into formal education (UNICEF, 2019d). In fact, increasing access to public schools has become a key priority with the recently adopted Colombian Response Plan (R4V).

Services target a wider age group, with emphasis on adolescents and youth

Transitioning from the emergency phase, previously neglected adolescents and youth, particularly out-of-school youth, have become the key target age group in all countries reviewed, with efforts focusing on increasing access to secondary education and/or vocational training. In Bangladesh, for example, UNICEF adopted an Adolescent Strategy to be implemented in 2019 that included a framework for skills development (UNICEF, 2019c). Three out of four priority actions of the Uganda Education Response Policy of 2018 directly targeted refugee adolescents, such as building more secondary schools; increasing access for over-aged and out-of-school adolescents into the education system through ALP and vocational skills training; addressing the needs of secondary school-aged children (Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports, 2018; UNHCR, 2018b). Moreover, one of the key achievements highlighted in UNICEF Uganda response in 2018 was reaching 26,700 adolescents with skills development and accelerated education opportunities (UNICEF, 2018b).

Similarly, the Kenya Refugee Response Plan for South Sudanese prioritized targeted interventions to improve participation of over-age children and from pre-primary to post-primary education (Reliefweb, 2018). In Colombia, UNICEF recently developed a proposal in which one of the prioritized actions is related to implementing education interventions for Venezuelan children at various ages and grades and to prevent school drop-outs (UNICEF, 2019d). Similarly, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey started to relax strict policies preventing vocational skills development opportunities and adopted strategies to address out-of-school children and youth. In May 2014, MEHE of Lebanon launched its refugee education strategy, Reaching All Children with Education (RACE), targeting 400,000 out-of-school Syrian refugee children and adolescents to enroll in formal schooling or other NFE programming (Buckner et al., 2018). To cite another example, in Jordanian camps, Syrian youth were enabled to attend vocational training programs (UNICEF, 2013).

Actors

Ministries of Education take a stronger role in EiE response and EiE programming adopts systems strengthening approach

Entering into the third year of displacement, governments progressively lead the response upon realization of the protracted nature of the conflict. This realization shifts refugee education policies from repatriation to de facto integration, triggering MoEs to take greater responsibility. Of the countries reviewed in this study, all governments have developed response plans and began to better coordinate EiE responses through line ministries and with international partners. For example, even though repatriation policies in Bangladesh still exist, the GoB assigned its Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief to oversee the refugee response (OCHA, 2018), increasing its engagement from merely granting access to land.

Neighboring countries affected by the Syrian crisis launched the Regional Refugee and Resilience Response Plan (“3RP”) in 2014 “that combines humanitarian responses with a development-oriented approach by bringing together work in the humanitarian and development sphere into a single strategy” (Bennett, 2015, pg. 16). Further, Lebanon, Turkey and Jordan, on average of three and a half years later, removed structural barriers for enrollment such as service cards, residence permits, or identification cards that previously prevented many accessing national schools and on-paper allowed unconditional access to formal education (UNICEF, 2014, 2015; Watkins and Zyck, 2014; Bircan and Sunata, 2015; Seker and Sirkeci, 2015; Human Rights Watch, 2016). Additionally, the Turkish MoE granted all Syrian children who completed their education in public schools, camps or TECs diplomas and certification (UNICEF, 2014). With the launch of the RACE strategy, the GoL established the public sector as the primary gateway for refugee education (Buckner et al., 2018). Also three years after the influx, the GoC adopted a decree in July 2018 that allowed undocumented Venezuelan children from all grades to access public schools (Human Rights Watch, 2018).

With governments assuming greater responsibility in the response and permitting de facto refugee integration, it is observed that EiE programming adopts a resilience approach, aiming to strengthen national systems and institutions, and supporting local processes and local ownership. In other words, instead of working in parallel systems, they strengthen coordination and work with the state. In Turkey, for example, the MoE and UN partners established a “Foreign Education Management System” to monitor a wide range of educational issues of Syrian learners such as enrolment, attendance and grades in TECs, both in communities and in public schools (UNICEF, 2014). Similarly, in Jordan, OpenEMIS was customized in 2014 to monitor educational data on Syrian children in education, with technical support and guidance from UNESCO Amman and other education partners¹¹ (Cambridge Education, 2017).

It is during this phase, or more specifically three years into the refugee displacement crisis, that efforts towards bridging the gap between humanitarian-development nexus were most visible. As mentioned above, livelihoods and vocational skills building programmes were scaled up, so were the efforts to improve linkages between access and quality across all countries. Aside from youth programming, professional development trainings were other common interventions during the transitional phase, provided with an aim towards systems strengthening. In Uganda and Colombia, UN agencies and INGO partners provided capacity building trainings to teachers (refugee teachers in Uganda to become aides and national teachers in Colombia) on classroom management, inclusive education, and PSS, among other topics (UNHCR, 2019b). In March 2018, alone, over 30 head teachers and education staff have received training (i.e. on child protection) in Kakuma, Kenya (UNHCR, 2018c). In 2015, civil servants in Lebanon were provided targeted child protection trainings inter alia on PSS, gender-based violence and referrals (UNICEF, 2015). The same year, a similar child protection in emergencies training program was developed and provided to Turkish social workers for the first time (UNICEF, 2015). All these interventions were implemented to create sustainable, resilient systems.

Phase C: Protracted Emergency Phase

Services

Child protection services target all vulnerable children in host communities

With the implementation of integration policies, and more influx into host communities, CP in EiE programming scales up to target both refugee and host community children and adolescents. During the protracted emergency phase, in particular, UN agencies and INGOs make every effort to ensure that cost-effective sustainable solutions exist and hence adopt an integrated approach in

¹¹ For more information, visit <https://countries.openemis.org/jordan-3/>

the delivery of child protection and EiE responses to further strengthen the complementarity between the two.

In 2015, UNICEF Jordan adopted an “integrated approach encompassing quality child protection alternative education, and life skills training in 148 partner sites to reach larger numbers of refugees and host community members in a cost-effective manner—in particular, to reach out-of-school children” (UNICEF, 2015). In the years of 2016 and 2017, particular attention was given to strengthening the capacity of existing systems to prevent, detect and respond to child protection cases. In Turkey, UNICEF’s Adolescents and Youth programme was expanded, “reaching more than 98,300 children in 20 provinces in partnership with ministries such as the Ministry of Youth and Sports (MoYS)” (UNICEF, 2016c). In 2017, a new Strategic Plan (2018-2021) for the protection of vulnerable groups was developed in Lebanon under the leadership of the Ministry of Social Affairs and the “Child Protection Policy was implemented by the MEHE in the education system to ensure better response to cases of violence at schools” (UNICEF, 2017c).

Efforts scale up to improve the linkage between access, quality and equity

In all three countries absorbing Syrian refugees – Turkey, Jordan and Lebanon – efforts were scaled up to tackle issues concerning access, quality, and equity, often simultaneously. For example, the Jordanian MoE’s Drop-out Programme that covers primary education was expanded within two years to include refugees (Cambridge Education, 2017). Launched in December 2015, the Lebanon Crisis Response Plan entailed: “1) Ensuring humanitarian assistance and protection for the most vulnerable displaced Syrians, poorest Lebanese and other highly vulnerable communities; 2) Strengthening the capacity of national and local service delivery systems to expand access to and quality of basic public services; and 3) Reinforcing Lebanon’s economic, institutional, environmental and social stability” (UNICEF, 2015). In an attempt to increase access and improve the quality of education in public schools and child protection services in Turkey, UNICEF and MoE implemented the School Orientation Programme for all 9th graders, including refugees, in 2018 (UNICEF, 2018c). Further, several training programmes were developed and provided to 154,500 Turkish teachers in the previous year on a range of topics, including “inclusive education, implementation of a remedial education programme, and assessment modules” as well as to MoYS staff on issues such as child rights, adolescent participation, child protection and education (UNICEF, 2018c). In addition to capacity building trainings, refugee-sensitive data collection systems in Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan were improved, allowing “more accurate and timely data for monitoring equity, quality and inclusiveness” (NLG, 2018).

NFE becomes fully accredited and enrollment in national schools substantially increases

Building on the momentum started in the transitional phase, it is found that governments fully accredit and recognize alternative education pathways. In Jordan, with support from UNICEF, MoE developed a Catch-Up Programme for children aged between 8 and 12 “who are ineligible

for formal education and too young for existing NFE programmes¹² (UNICEF, 2016c). Further, the GoJ introduced the certified “Accelerated Access to Quality Formal Education” in February 2016 for 13 to 18 year olds who have missed three years of schooling to increase access to formal education (Zubairi and Rose, 2016). As a result, “244,000 Syrian and vulnerable Jordanian children and youth were reached, and 1,150 out-of-school children were reintegrated into [accredited] non-formal education” (NLG, 2019). Similarly, in January 2016, MEHE of Lebanon standardized NFE provision to improve its quality and to facilitate transition into public education and became a regulating body of NFE delivered at public schools (Mendenhall et al., 2017; Buckner et al., 2018). In August of the same year, GoT announced that all Syrian children would be integrated into the national education system and mandated all TECs to increase hours of Turkish language courses to facilitate their transition (Daily Sabah, 2016). All these efforts translated into substantially increased school enrolment rates in all countries. Particularly in Turkey, for the first time since 2011, there were more Syrian children in school than out by end of 2016: over 490,000 Syrian children were enrolled in public schools (UNICEF, 2016c).

Skills development and TVET become the key priorities as a result of integration

With the Syrian displacement crisis entering its eighth year, adolescent and youth programming shifted from project-based to systemic interventions. This shift was most likely the result of NLG partners calling “for a more systematic targeting of youth [such as] ... interventions in the areas of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and skills development [as they] remain fragmented and limited to direct service delivery” during 2016 London Conference (NLG, 2018). It is clear that their call for action has driven attention to TVET and youth in general as in all three countries - Turkey, Jordan and Lebanon - numerous youth-oriented programmes have been implemented since the conference. In Lebanon, UNICEF established the Youth and Adolescent Department and developed the Youth Basic, Functional Literacy and Numeracy Programme in 2017 to provide pathways back to TVET or into labor markets for adolescent and youth (UNICEF, 2017c). In March 2018, MoE of Jordan launched the Education Strategic Plan for 2018-2022 to strengthen and improve the quality of education systems at various levels, including in ECE and TVET as well as at teacher training (UNICEF, 2018c). Additionally, UNICEF launched its Youth Engagement Programme within the same year to provide access to volunteering and training opportunities to help equip young Syrian people with 21st century skills to increase employability (UNICEF, 2018c). According to the 2018 Brussels Report, the GoJ scaled up the provision of certified vocational training in partnership with the private sector (NLG, 2018). Similarly, in Turkey, the government and international partners expanded opportunities for meaningful participation, empowerment and life skills education for Syrian and Turkish adolescents and youth under the framework of the NLG strategy in 2018 (UNICEF, 2018c) as well as increasing access to vocational schools for employment and apprenticeship under PICTES 2 project (MoNE, 2018). In June 2018, the Turkish MoE launched accredited ALP for adolescents and youth aged between

¹² NFE programmes start from age 13.

10 and 18 who have missed three or more years of schooling to transition into formal education system or enter TVET (UNICEF, 2018c; NLG, 2019).

Actors

Governments take full ownership and lead the EiE response with technical support from international partners

As demonstrated earlier under each point, refugee children have been progressively included in policies, strategic plans and priority actions. In the three countries studied, which have entered into the protracted phase three years ago, the governments have taken full ownership in the response and INGO and UN partners work in close collaboration with line ministries while also handing the service delivery over to the national actors. To cite an example, certified and trained civil servants in Turkey began to support the provision of PSS and Turkish language courses to Syrian adolescents and youth in communities, which were previously provided by international partners (UNICEF, 2018c). With support from international actors, all three governments not only accredited NFE programs but also developed other alternative education pathways to reduce vulnerabilities, allowed full-fledged access to the formal education system, and ultimately provided pathways for employment and socio-cultural integration. As other refugee crises are becoming protracted, particularly the Venezuelan displacement, it is anticipated that the above patterns will be observed in other countries as well.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the fact that each refugee situation is unique in each country context, the study identified several commonalities and differences in EiE response patterns across the humanitarian-development nexus.

In countries, with inclusive policies such as in Kenya and Uganda, where there is a history of large refugee movements, governments provide greater rights and access to services to refugees at the onset of the crisis, though resource and capacity constraints generally prevent the enjoyment of rights. In these contexts, international actors tend to have an active and strong presence, hence complementing government responsibility. In others, with repatriation policies, governments are often “hands-off” during the humanitarian emergency phase, depending largely on INGO and UN support to provide EiE and CP response. Recognition and accreditation of non-formal education often takes at least two years, and services mostly target young children.

After two years we start to observe the beginning of a transitional phase and governments take a stronger role in the response by adopting inclusive policies. With the policy change, NFE programs become accredited and regulated, serving as a pathway to the formal system. Previously neglected age groups, particularly adolescents and youth, are included in strategies and governments

progressively relax strict policies preventing access to skills development education and training. Resulting from increased government ownership, EiE programming shifts from short-term, immediate solutions to more institutionalized, systemic and sustainable approaches, aiming at increasing capacities of national systems and institutions. Targeted capacity development training for teachers and civil servants as an intervention is one of the most common features of the transitional phase.

With the crisis turning into a protracted mode, as the responses of Turkey, Jordan and Lebanon showed, governments lead the response and refugee children are integrated into the formal system and national fabric. CP and EiE responses target all vulnerable children, with the aim to facilitate social cohesion between groups.

Mainstreaming refugees into national systems is clearly becoming the status quo, owing largely to UNHCR global refugee education strategy and to some extent to the global compacts. Colombia, Kenya, Uganda, Turkey, Jordan and Lebanon all now have policy frameworks that allow access to public institutions. Bangladesh, hopefully, will join the global movement.

References:

- Abu-Amsha, O., & Armstrong, J. (2018). Pathways to Resilience in Risk-Laden Environments: A Case Study of Syrian Refugee Education in Lebanon. *Journal on Education in Emergencies*, 4 (1), 45-73.
- Aguilar, P., & Retamal, G. (1998). *Rapid Educational Response in Complex Emergencies: A Discussion Document*. Geneva: International Bureau of Education.
- Ahmadzadeh et al. (2014). *Ensuring Quality Education for Young Refugees from Syria: Mapping Exercise on Quality Education for Young Refugees from Syria (12-25 years)*. Refugees Studies Center: Oxford Department of International Development, University of Oxford.
- Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action (The Alliance). (2018). *Integrating Child Protection and Education in Humanitarian Action. Advocacy Brief*. https://alliancecpa.org/en/system/tdf/library/attachments/advocacy_brief_integration.pdf?file=1&type=node&id=31371
- Aras, B. and Yasun, S. (2016). “The Educational Opportunities and Challenges of Syrian Refugee Students in Turkey: Temporary Education Centers and Beyond.” *Istanbul Policy Center-Mercator Policy Brief*, 1-15.
- Bennett, C. (2015). *The development agency of the future: Fit for protracted crises? Working Paper*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Bircan, T. and Sunata, U. (2015). “Educational Assessment of Syrian Refugees in Turkey.” *Migration Letters* 12 (3), 226-237.
- Buckner, E., Spencer, D., & Cha, J. (2018). *Between Policy and Practice: The Education of Syrian Refugees in Lebanon*. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 31 (4), 444–465.

- Cambridge Education. (2017). Strengthening Resilience and Response to Crises: Education in Emergencies Guidance Note. https://www.dai.com/uploads/EiE_Guidance_Note-8fc7f4.pdf
- Committee on the Rights of the Child. (2008). Day of general discussion on “the right of the child to education in emergency situations” recommendations.
- Dryden-Peterson, S. (2011). Refugee Education: A Global review.
- Dryden-Peterson, S., & Adelman, E. (2016, February 10). “Inside Syrian Refugee Schools: Teachers struggle to create conditions for learning.” *Brookings*. Retrieved from: <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/education-plus-development/2016/02/10/inside-syrian-refugee-schools-teachers-struggle-to-create-conditions-for-learning/>
- Ferris, E., Kirişci, K., & Shaikh, S. (2013). Syrian Crisis: Massive Displacement, Dire Needs and A Shortage of Solutions. Brookings Institute.
- Gurmendi, A. (2018, August 27). The Cartagena Declaration and the Venezuelan Refugee Crisis. Retrieved from <http://opiniojuris.org/2018/08/27/the-cartagena-declaration-and-the-venezuelan-refugee-crisis/>
- Human Rights Watch. (2018). The Venezuelan Exodus: The Need for a Regional Response to an Unprecedented Migration Crisis. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/venezuela0918_web.pdf
- INEE. (2010). Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies: Preparedness, Response, Recovery. New York: INEE.
- JRP. (2019, February 15). 2019 Joint Response Plan (JRP) for Rohingya Humanitarian Crisis – Jan-Dec 2019. Retrieved from https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/2019%20JRP%20for%20Rohingya%20Humanitarian%20Crisis%20%28February%202019%29.compressed_0.pdf
- Mendenhall, M., Garnett Russell, S., & Buckner, E. (2017). Urban Refugee Education: Strengthening Policies and Practices for Access, Quality, and Inclusion. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- MoNE. (2018). New partnership with the EU for Education of Syrian children. Retrieved from <http://www.meb.gov.tr/suriyeli-cocuklarin-egitimi-icin-ab-ile-yeni-is-birligi/haber/17688/tr>
- NLG. (2018). Brussels Conference April 2018: We Made a Promise Ensuring Learning Pathways and Protection for Syrian Children and Youth.
- NLG. (2019). Investing in The Future: Protection and Learning for All Syrian Children and Youth.
- OCHA Colombia. (2019). Humanitarian Needs Overview 2019.
- OCHA. (2018). Education & Child Protection in Emergencies: Joint Rapid Needs Assessment Rohingya Refugee Response 2017.
- Price, P. (2011). Education in Emergencies: Benefits, Best Practices, and Partnerships. Retrieved from Issue-Specific Briefing Paper Humanitarian Assistance in Complex Emergencies: <https://www.du.edu/korbel/crric/media/documents/philprice.pdf>
- R4V. (2019). Regional Refugee and Migrant Response Plan (RMRP) for Refugees and Migrants from Venezuela. <http://reporting.unhcr.org/sites/default/files/2019%20RMRP%20Venezuela%20%28December%202018%29.pdf>
- Reliefweb. (2018, December). Kenya Refugee Response Plan for South Sudanese: January 2019-December 2020, <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/67315.pdf>
- Seker, B. D., & Sirkeci, I. (2015). “Challenges for Refugee Children at School in Eastern Turkey.” *Economics and Sociology* 8 (4), 122-133.

- Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports. (2018). Education Response Plan for Refugees and Host Communities in Uganda.
- UN. (2017). Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *Fifteenth Coordination Meeting On International Migration*. UN/POP/MIG-15CM/2017/14 (10 February 2017). https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/events/coordination/15/documents/papers/14_UNHCR_nd.pdf
- UN. (2019, February 22). "Venezuelan Refugees Now Number 3.4 Million; Humanitarian Implications Massive, UN Warns. *UN News*. Retrieved on April 12, 2019: <https://news.un.org/en/story/2019/02/1033361>
- UNESCO. (2018). Global Education Monitoring Report 2019. Migration, Displacement and Education: Building Bridges, Not Walls. UNESCO Paris.
- UNHCR. (1995, July 1). Revised (1995) Guidelines for Educational Assistance to Refugees: <https://www.refworld.org/docid/421b44f34.html>
- _____. (2010) Learning outside the classroom: non-formal refugee education in Uganda. <https://www.unhcr.org/4cd953cb9.html>
- _____. (2012). Syrian Regional Refugee Response: Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq, Turkey, https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/UNHCR_RegionalExternalUpdate_SyriaRefugeeResponse_18Nov%5B1%5D.pdf
- _____. (2017a). Child Protection Strategy in Kakuma Refugee Camp 2017-2019.
- _____. (2017b, May). Education. Sub-Office Kakuma Operation, Kenya. <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/58493>
- _____. (2017c). Uganda: 2017 End of Year Report: South Sudan - Regional RRP. <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/63609.pdf>.
- _____. (2018a). Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2017. <https://www.unhcr.org/en-us/statistics/unhcrstats/5b27be547/unhcr-global-trends-2017.html>
- _____. (2018b). Uganda: 2018 Mid Year Report South Sudan Regional RRP January-June 2018. <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/66089.pdf>
- _____. (2018c). Fact Sheet: Kenya. 01-31 March 2018. <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Kenya%20Operation%20Factsheet%20-%20March%202018.pdf>
- _____. (2019a, January). Mid-Year Trends 2018. <https://www.unhcr.org/en-us/statistics/unhcrstats/5c52ea084/mid-year-trends-2018.html>
- _____. (2019b). Fact Sheet: Uganda. February 2019. <http://reporting.unhcr.org/sites/default/files/UNHCR%20Uganda%20Factsheet%20-%20February%202019.pdf>
- UNICEF. (2013). Syria Crisis Bi-Weekly Humanitarian Situation Report. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Regional_Crisis_Humanitarian_Sit_Rep_12DEC2013.pdf
- _____. (2014). Syria Crisis 2014 Annual Situation Report. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Annual_Regional_Crisis_Situation_Report_2014.pdf
- _____. (2015). Annual Report 2015: Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq, Turkey and Egypt. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/Syria_Crisis_end_of_2015_SitRep.PDF
- _____. (2016a). South Sudan Humanitarian Situation Update July 2016.
- _____. (2016b). South Sudan Humanitarian Situation Update 31 December 2016.

- _____. (2016c). Syria Crisis 2016 Humanitarian Results. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Crisis_Situation_Report_Year_End_2016.pdf
- _____. (2017a). UNICEF Uganda Humanitarian Situation Report Jan-Dec 2017.
- _____. (2017b, September 29). UNICEF Setting Up Hundreds of New Learning Centres for Rohingya Refugee Children. <https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/unicef-setting-hundreds-new-learning-centres-rohingya-refugee-children>
- _____. (2017c). Syria Crisis 2017 Humanitarian Results. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Crisis_Humanitarian_Situation_Report_Year_End_2017.pdf
- _____. (2018a). Bangladesh: Consolidated Emergency Report 2017.
- _____. (2018b). Uganda CO Humanitarian Annual Situation Report January-December 2018. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_UGANDA_CO_Humanitarian_Annual_Situation_Report_January_to_December_2018.pdf
- _____. (2018c). Syria Crisis 2018 Humanitarian Results. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/UNICEF_Syria_Crisis_Humanitarian_Situation_Report_December_2018.pdf
- _____. (2019a). Evaluation Report: Evaluation of the Coverage and Quality of the UNICEF Humanitarian Response in Complex Humanitarian Emergencies. Volume One. Main Evaluation Report. https://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/files/Humanitarian_Emergencies_Evaluation_Vol_1_WEB.pdf
- _____. (2019b). UNICEF Uganda Situation Report Jan-Jun 2019.
- _____. (2019c). Bangladesh: Consolidated Emergency Report 2018.
- _____. (2019d). Migration Flows in Latin America and the Caribbean. Situation Report No.3. https://www.unicef.org/appeals/files/Latin_America_and_the_Caribbean_Humanitarian_SitRep_Migration_Flows_April_2019.pdf
- Watkins, K., & Zyck, S. A. (2014). Living On Hope, Hoping for Education: The Failed Response to The Syrian Refugee Crisis. Overseas Development Institute (ODI).
- World Vision. (2017a). Impact of Child-Friendly Spaces on South Sudanese Refugee Children in Uganda. <https://www.wvi.org/uganda/video/impact-child-friendly-spaces-south-sudanese-refugee-children-uganda>
- _____. (2017b). Running Towards Hope: Protecting Unaccompanied and Separated Refugee Children in Northern Uganda. <https://www.wvi.org/sites/default/files/Running%20Towards%20Hope%20-%20Protecting%20Unaccompanied%20and%20Separated%20Refugee%20Children%20in%20Northern%20Uganda.pdf>.
- Zubairi, A., & Rose, P. (2016). Supporting Primary and Secondary Education for Refugees: The Role of International Financing. University of Cambridge, Research for Equitable Access and Learning (REAL) Centre. Malala Fund.

Appendix: EiE Responses in Seven Countries Across Humanitarian Phases

		Emergency Phase		Transition Phase		Protracted Crisis		
Host Country	Crisis begins	By end of 1st year	By end of 2nd year	By end of 3rd year	By end of 4th year	By end of 5th year	By end of 6th year	By end of 7th year
Bangladesh	August 2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Temporary learning centers (as NFE) established by INGOs to provide ECE and basic education for 6-14yo, operating in three shifts (services delivered by INGOs) • CFSs and adolescent clubs established for PSS, life skills, basic education and referrals (CFSs are multifunctional) • Life-saving emergency response still underway by end of 1st year • Service delivery uneven and ad hoc across camps • Refugee children have no access to formal education and certification • Refugee education is for repatriation due to government policies • Education is largely at the primary level • GoB closely monitors activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoB limits the operation of INGOs other than UN agencies, hampering the scaling-up of EiE response • Education is not certified and there is no agreed and approved curriculum • Repatriation policy continues • Instruction in Bangla is strictly prohibited • Rohingya children are not entitled to enroll in government accredited schools or sit for national primary school exam • Aid sector and GoB prepare to shift from emergency phase to sustainable response • Joint Response Plan is developed • More focus is now given to adolescents, the majority of whom had no access to learning and training • UNICEF crafts Adolescent Strategy for skills developments • Learning Competency Framework and Approach is developed to standardize and improve the quality of NFE in learning centers • Efforts to distinguish the role and services of TLCs and CFSs begin 	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Uganda	July 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CFSs, ECD centers, temporary learning facilities and adolescent clubs established by INGOs to provide PSS, SEL and life skills to children and adolescents (all services delivered by INGOs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoU launched Education Response Plan in September 2018 in accordance with CRRF • Planning on transition from emergency response into sustainable solutions and government-led actions begins • Education and PSS interventions continue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNHCR pilots double-shifting system in settlements • Capacity development trainings begin with refugee teachers to become aides 	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refugee children have access to national schools • Primary schools in settlements established (community, private, INGO-funded) but are not regulated • NFE such as ALP and adolescent development programmes implemented by INGOs but not accredited 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More focus is given to over aged and OOS adolescents and youth, scaling up ALP and skills training • The provision of CP services remains a high priority and one of the most pressing needs. • More focus remains on ECD but efforts are scaled up for children and adolescents to enroll in formal education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More activities are around English language courses • Adolescents (in and out of school) receive skills development training and accelerated education for reentry into learning pathways • PSS and life skills education continue in CFSS 				
Kenya (Kakuma)	July 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A handful of CFSS established for PSS and SEL services but largely absent • Refugee children allowed to enroll in pre-school, primary and secondary schools funded by UNHCR • GoK launch the application of the CRRF in October 2017 and commits to adopting inclusive policies and ensuring admission and school enrolment of non-citizens to national institutions • Camps schools are registered with the MoE and accredited • Refugee students allowed to study the national curriculum and sit for the national examinations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoK adopts Kenya Refugee Response Plan for South Sudanese, be implemented for two years, from January 2019 to December 2020 • GoK includes refugees in development plans and development assistance framework 	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Colombia*	Since 2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education is not the main response and response is mainly on increasing access to legal status and protection • GoC has temporary protection policies all toward repatriation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children can enroll in public schools, if they have registration documents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In July 2018, the Colombian government adopts a decree that allows undocumented children from all grades to access schools • CFSS established by INGOs to provide PSS and life skills • In September 2018, Regional Inter-Agency Coordination Platform established and by end of the year, a needs-based 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CP and increased access to formal education become key priorities of R4V Plan, in UNHCR revised budget and UNICEF's 2019 country-level humanitarian strategy • Building teachers' capacities to improve quality of education 	N/A	N/A	N/A

				<p>Regional Refugee and Migrant Response Plan (“the Plan”) has been developed to support and complement national authorities across the region.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With the Plan, access to CP services and education become high priorities. • Temporary learning facilities are established in refugee dense areas to provide emergency education (mine, conflict ed.) • National teachers are trained by UNICEF on i.e. classroom management 	<p>and offer PSS continues</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enrolment in formal education system triples • GoC establishes the first camp in March 2019 • In April 2019, UNICEF operates its formal and flexible model of “learning circles”** to facilitate the integration of Venezuelans effectively into the educational system • UNICEF designs the concept for the “travelling classrooms” model for children on the move in Colombia and launches the validation process for a new protocol to monitor absenteeism of children in schools with a strong migrant component 			
Turkey	April 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Camp schools established by the GoT, delivered by UN agencies, supervised by AFAD and MoE • Children can go to camp schools that follow modified Syrian curriculum, but receive no diploma or proof of completion • Refugee education is for repatriation • CFSs and YFSs established for play and recreation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoT acknowledges the protracted nature as conflict escalates and urban refugee population increases and adopts med-term planning • Refugee education for de facto integration • AFAD and UNICEF equip all camps with CFSs to provide PSS and SEL • NFE and vocational training offered to youth in camps • MoE publishes a circular in September 2013, holding itself responsible for providing and supervising educational opportunities in camps, public schools and TECs (NFE) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Certification and accreditation of studies remains not guaranteed • Only children with residence permits who received education in public schools can receive diplomas • UNICEF scales up CP services and education support in camp and urban areas • INGO focus begins on strengthening the capacity of government institutions • MoE and AFAD shift focus from camps to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In December 2014, all bureaucratic requirements*** preventing access to formal education are officially lifted • TECs are included in national education system • All students who have completed their education receive diplomas • MoE establishes “Foreign Education Management System” to monitor a wide range of issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I/NGOs scale up efforts on system strengthening to integrate more Syrian children into national education system and on informal education and life-skills programmes for those who are still out-of-school • UNICEF expands Adolescents and Youth programme • For the first time since the beginning of the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efforts on TVET and skills development increased but remain fragmented and limited to direct service delivery • More children reached with CP and PSS services across the country • EiE response is to increase access and improve quality continues in order to accelerate transition into public schools • In August 2016, GoT announces that all 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Line ministries and I/NGO partners increase focus on youth engagement and skills development • More focus is on expanding ECD in both communities • Strategy adopted to mitigate non-attendance and drop-out at the upper-secondary level • UNICEF and MoE implements School Orientation Programme for all 9th

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NFE is largely unregulated, not standardized or certified • Double shift arrangements in public schools begin 	communities and set up school management systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • such as enrolment in TECs • GoT continues to lead the overall protection and assistance response and remains the largest provider of emergency aid • INGO' EiE response focus on building and strengthening systems to increase access to and improve the quality of services • More attention given to provide opportunities for youth to engage in SEL and foster social cohesion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • crisis in Turkey, there are more Syrian children in school than out • Teacher training begins 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Syrian children would be integrated into the national education system and mandates all TECs to increase hours of Turkish language to facilitate transition • Teacher training is scaled up 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • graders, including refugees • More teachers trained on inclusive education, implementation of remedial programs, etc. • Youth programming shifts from project-based to systemic, evidence based intervention in the field of employability • In June 2018, the MoE launch accredited ALP for 10- 18 yo who have missed three or more years of schooling to transition into the formal education system, enter vocational training, or acquire the basic skills and knowledge needed for self-sufficiency • Policy is developed to increase access to ECE
Jordan	July 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NFE/informal education are provided in the camp and in communities on life skills, basic education, SEL and technical training delivered by NGOs but not certified by MoE • CFSs and YFSs are established in the camp • Refugee children who obtained service cards can enroll in national schools in host communities • Some public schools operate in double shift 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoJ realizes the protracted nature and adopts med-term policies • Refugee education is for integration • Service providers begin to expand and better coordinate EiE responses • NFE and informal education still not certified by MoE • MoE and partners launch large-scale remedial/catch-up programme to facilitate entry into formal education • CFSs are created in and outside camps to provide SEL and PSS • Programming starts for youth to attend vocational training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INGO partners adopt resilience approach to strengthen the link between the emergency response and national systems • Greater emphasis on promoting cost efficiency and sustainability of program interventions and strengthening capacity of government departments and national NGOs • NFE/informal education provided by INGOs not yet certified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enrolment in formal education and NFE drop-out programming that offers life skills training, informal education and PSS increase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MoE develops a Catch-Up Programme for 8-12 yo who are ineligible for formal education and too young for existing NFE programmes • Increased focus on capacity building and improving quality • MoE establishes kindergarten and grants access for younger Syrian children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • INGO programming focus changes towards a broader vulnerability-based approach that aims to reach all vulnerable children in the country, regardless of status or nationality, to further promote social cohesion • TVET and skills development remain fragmented and limited to direct service delivery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNICEF launches national youth engagement programme (Nahnu) that provides access to volunteering and training opportunities to help equip young people with 21st century skills to become more employable • In March 2018, the MoE launches the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) for 2018-2022 that seeks to orchestrate collective efforts and leverage

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PSS through CFS and YFSs ongoing in camps and communities • OpenEMIS is customized to track educational data of Syrian refugee children 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MoE begins allowing public schools to enroll refugees without cards • GoJ begins to take an increasingly strong lead in NFE regulation in urban areas • In February 2016, GoJ introduces the certified “Accelerated Access to Quality Formal Education” for 13-18yo missed more than 3 yrs to increase access to formal education system 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sources to strengthen the education system (in ECE; access and equity; quality; teachers; system strengthening; TVET) • Plan adopted to increase access to ECD • The provision of certified vocational training was scaled up in partnership with the private sector, including through the establishment of vocational training centres in refugee camps.
Lebanon	March 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partners plan to operate CFSs to provide PSS in refugee dense communities • I/NGOs provide NFE/informal education in communities • Discussions begin on harmonizing the curricula for ALP and remedial classes • Public schools are instructed to enroll Syrian refugee students regardless of legal status and to waive school and book fees in 2012 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoL realizes protracted nature and adopts med-term planning • MEHE takes the lead role in coordinating the educational response and issues a decree for schools to operate in double shifts • NFE also offers PSS in addition to basic education • Formal educational provision for 15-18yr almost non-existent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Certification and accreditation of studies in NFE yet to be guaranteed • Plans are being developed to produce accredited NFE (ALP and PSS modules) • Most attention is on children and primary education while the needs of adolescents (i.e. vocational training) go unmet • Activities are towards bridging the humanitarian and development nexus • GoL launches RACE strategy, establishing the public sector as the primary gateway for refugee education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More targeted life skills intervention and NFE provided for adolescents • Structural barriers (i.e. residency permit) to access national schools lifted • Public school enrolment rates increase • Accreditation of the first NFE Framework is formalized • MEHE takes stronger role in NFE governance and quality control • MEHE rolls out pilot ALP for children missed 2 or more years of school • Civil servants receive training on wide range of issues such as PSS, Gender- 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GoL launches Lebanon Crisis Response Plan in December 2015, focusing more on systems strengthening • CP sector focuses more on GBV and early marriage that affect education • In January 2016, MEHE develops the NFE Framework to regulate and standardize NFE provision and becomes NFE regulating body and primary provider of ALPs delivered at public schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ALP/NFE Framework and outreach plan are implemented • TVET and skills development remain fragmented and limited to direct service delivery • Teacher training scales up • UNICEF develops the Youth Basic, Functional Literacy and Numeracy Programme to provide quality learning opportunities for OOS youth, offer pathways back to TVET, or directly into the labor force for improved livelihood opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MEHE adopts policies to harmonize certified curriculum for community-based ECE and on child protection in public schools • Teacher training sessions expand to improve quality • MEHE plans to launch its national NFE policy and a standardized package of BLN targeting OOS children 10-14yo

					based Violence and referral			
--	--	--	--	--	--------------------------------	--	--	--

*Data on Colombia are very limited.

**Learning circles: a transitional support based on a simplification of the general curriculum for migrant children and refugees to increase access into the educational system.

***Bureaucratic requirements: proof of legal status, registration papers, residence permit, and etc.