

VSO / UNICEF Situational Analysis on Factors Impeding Female Participation in Teacher Training Programs in Refugee Contexts

Interim Report

April 2020



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1. Introduction

This interim report presents an outline of the objectives, approach, methodology and preliminary findings of the situational analysis of the factors impeding female refugee participation in teacher training programmes in refugee camps in Ethiopia. This situational analysis was conducted by VSO Ethiopia between January and March 2020.

1.1 Research Questions

Aligned to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 4 & 5¹ - and in recognition of education as a key component to humanitarian support to refugees - there has been significant investment to train refugee teachers to be qualified so they can effectively teach primary school children in refugee camps throughout Ethiopia. However, this initiative - the incentive teacher training programme (ITTP)² - has been faced with a major uptake challenge; particularly the limited participation of female refugee trainees. Further analysis was deemed necessary to determine the factors impeding the participation of female teacher candidates in the teacher training initiatives and also to look for insights on how to increase the support for underqualified female refugees to meet minimum requirements for teacher training opportunities.³ This provided the rationale for this situational needs assessment.

1.2 Research Partnership

UNICEF has partnered with VSO Ethiopia, to undertake this situational needs assessment within Ethiopia's refugee camps.

UNICEF has been supporting national efforts to ensure the realisation of the rights of children and women through improved child survival, development and protection in Ethiopia since 1952. From its inception, UNICEF has supported the education of over 138,000 children in refugee and host communities with funding from Education Cannot Wait.⁴ Through its capacity building initiative, UNICEF intends to develop a teacher training programme to build the skills of suitably qualified young females in refugee camps to receive a diploma in teaching. By understanding the challenges affecting young female refugees, UNICEF hopes also to come up with a strategy to help address a range of barriers that inhibit female refugees taking up opportunities in teaching. In the longer term,

¹ Quality Education and Gender Equality

² It is important to note that the incentive teacher training scheme referred to throughout involves primary school teachers only.

³ VSO/ UNICEF Terms of Reference for a Situational Analysis on Factors Impeding Female Participation in Teacher Training Programs in Refugee Contexts

⁴ <https://www.unicef.org/ethiopia/press-releases/education-cannot-wait-announces-multi-year-investment-deliver-education-750000>

the programme is expected to increase Ethiopian Teacher Training Colleges' (TTCs) capacity to design a training program that supports women in general and responds to their specific needs.⁵

VSO has been working in Ethiopia since 1995. VSO Ethiopia strives to ensure all disadvantaged and marginalised people have access to inclusive basic services.⁶ They have a strong commitment to SDG 4 - delivery of inclusive and quality education for all and to promote lifelong learning. Its emphasis is on ensuring that all disadvantaged pre-primary and primary school children, both in and out of school, have equitable access to good quality pre-primary and primary education. Research for this current project was conducted as per VSO core principles of taking a people first, evidence based and fit-for-purpose approach.

1.2.1 Justification

*'...One of the most common failures within the development sector is not asking people from the poorest and most marginalised communities what problems most affect them and how they would like them to be addressed. Instead we often make assumptions about what their concerns are ...'*⁷

VSO's research approach is a perfect fit for this situational needs assessment. VSO has always strived to give voice to marginalised people. Its unique selling point lies in its people-centred core values, evidence-based approach and its preference for participatory research methodologies. The participatory approach to research favoured by VSO is a response to previous 'top-down' approaches to development and involves 'handing over the 'stick' to local people, in recognition of the fact that they have an insight into their own situation which an 'outsider' (ibid. 9) does not have. Participatory research involves a redefinition of the 'expert'; an appreciation that local people are the experts in understanding their own situation (ibid. 27).

Participatory methods are favoured by VSO because they promote social inclusion and, in research terms, they 'offer tools to make a bottom-up, comprehensive analysis of situations' (Institute of Development Studies/VSO, 2015: 46). VSO believes that 'focusing on individual and community perspectives and locally grounded explanations' enables researchers 'to build a much richer picture' of peoples' lives (ibid) and, in turn, helps to co-design context specific and sustainable solutions and programming.

For this reason, there is a natural synergy between the VSO approach to research and the aims and objectives of this situational needs assessment. In this situational analysis, VSO researchers used a participatory approach to unpack the barriers to uptake of incentive training initiatives by female

⁵ VSO/ UNICEF Terms of Reference for a Situational Analysis on Factors Impeding Female Participation in Teacher Training Programs in Refugee Contexts

⁶ VSO JD

⁷ Valuing Volunteering: The Role of Volunteering in Sustainable Development, Institute of Development Studies and VSO, 2015: 38

refugees. It did so by bringing together the voices and views of key stakeholders and primary actors in a way that has not hitherto been done. For example, using carefully selected techniques, young girls who could potentially enrol on incentive teacher training programmes discussed their lives, their awareness of the scheme, the barriers to uptake, and enablers to enhance to participation in the scheme. These voices have never been heard before but their insights and recommendations are critical in evaluating the programme and its future development.

1.3 Overall Objectives:

The two objectives of the situational needs assessment are:

1. To understand the factors limiting the participation of potential female teachers in the ITTP
2. To identify the needs of the female teachers in refugee camps for effective response in quality teacher training in refugee settings.⁸

1.4 Specific Objectives:

Specific objectives that the situational needs assessment seeks to answer include:

- To isolate the social, economic and cultural barriers that influence female refugees' uptake of ITTP.
- To determine what windows of opportunity are available to fit the potential fast track pre-certification programme in nearby colleges of teacher education, and other teacher training institutions.
- To ascertain what the general school dropout grade is for female refugees in the camps.
- To outline the aspirations of the female refugees and whether the ITTP take these into account.
- To propose recommendations that address the barriers that emerge through the situational needs analysis.⁹

1.5 Cross cutting Themes

The following cross cutting themes will also be considered:

- Intersectionality: What factors impact on what life is like for young girls in refugee camps?
- What are the gaps/barriers to uptake of incentive teaching opportunities?
- Enablers - How can gaps be addressed/uptake be supported?
- Incentives - What innovations/incentives/measures are needed to recruit more female refugees?
- Challenges faced by existing female incentive teachers in the refugee camps.

⁸ ibid

⁹ ibid

- Recommendations – What measures could be put in place to address the identified challenges?
- Insights/recommendations on how to increase the support for underqualified female refugees so that they can meet minimum requirements for teacher training opportunities.¹⁰

2. Background: Ethiopia Refugee Context

Ethiopia is the second largest refugee hosting country in Africa. It maintains an open-door policy for refugee inflows into the country and allows humanitarian access and protection to those seeking asylum on its territory.¹¹ The number of refugees in Ethiopia has risen sharply in recent years.¹² According to UNCHR estimates, there are currently 748, 448 registered refugees and asylum seekers in Ethiopia.¹³

Most refugees in Ethiopia are located in Tigray Regional State and the four Emerging Regions of Ethiopia: Afar Regional State; Benishangul-Gumuz Regional State; Gambella Regional State; and the Somali Regional State:

Breakdown by Location¹⁴

Location name	Source	Data date		Population
Gambella	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	41.7%	310,441
Somali	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	26.2%	194,844
Tigray	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	12.0%	89,591
Benishangul-Gumuz	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	8.4%	62,820
Afar	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	7.2%	53,507
Addis Ababa	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	3.2%	23,969
SNNPR	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	0.7%	4,934

¹⁰ ibid

¹¹ <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/country/eth>

¹² documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/988591562865883889/pdf/Education-for-Resilience-Exploring-the-experience-of-refugee-students-in-three-communities-in-Ethiopia.pdf

¹³ Figures as of as of 29th February 2020; <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/74648.pdf>

¹⁴ <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/country/eth>

Location name	Source	Data date		Population
Oromia	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	0.5%	4,037

Ethiopia provides protection to refugees from 19 countries:

Breakdown by Country of Origin¹⁵

Country of origin	Source	Data date		Population
South Sudan	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	45.1%	335,691
Somalia	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	26.3%	195,498
Eritrea	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	22.0%	163,569
Sudan	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	5.7%	42,106
Others	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	0.8%	5,893
Yemen	UNHCR	31 Jan 2020	0.2%	1,386

Factors driving this include the conflict in South Sudan, the prevailing political environment in Eritrea, together with conflict and draught in Somalia.¹⁶

Refugee rights in Ethiopia are buttressed by recent legal and policy developments. These include the Djibouti Declaration (2017), the Incheon Declaration (2015), as well as options for integration through the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) (2016), under which Ethiopia is a pilot country, and the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) (2018) that later encompassed it.¹⁷

The refugee response in Ethiopia brings together fifty operational partners, including the Government of Ethiopia's Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs (ARRA), supported by UNHCR – the UN Refugee Agency - in coordination with UN agencies, international and national NGOs.¹⁸

¹⁵ ibid

¹⁶ <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/73572>

¹⁷ <https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12935.pdf>

¹⁸ <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/country/eth>

2.1 Ethiopia Refugee Education Context



(UNICEF Ethiopia/2018/Mersha: Students learning in Makod Primary and Secondary School in Tierkidi Refugee Camp, Gambella Region, Ethiopia).¹⁹

‘When refugees gain access to education and labour markets, they can build their skills and become self-reliant, contributing to local economies and fuelling the development of the communities hosting them...’²⁰

In 2017, High Commissioner for Refugees, Filippo Grandi, addressed the Regional Education Conference of the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), stating that education is not just a right; it is an instrument of dignity and identity. He also refers to education as the key to everything, and essential for building human capital.²¹ In 2019 Mahboub M. Maalim reiterated this commitment:

*“No child can be left behind as we ramp up efforts to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. Through education – and partnerships like this [sic]– we can break the cycle of exclusion and vulnerability that comes with forced displacement and has often derailed and delayed social, economic and human development in the region”.*²²

The provision of educational opportunities is one of the highest priorities for refugee communities.²³ In Ethiopia, the CRRF seeks to increase enrolment of refugee students at all levels of education; reinforcing the Djibouti Declaration’s pledge to deliver to quality education to refugees. Despite such

¹⁹ Photo retrieved from <https://news.un.org/en/story/2019/03/1034141>

²⁰ Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (cited in 2019:46 UNCHR 2030 document)

²¹ <https://www.unhcr.org/news/latest/2017/12/5a3416654/un-refugee-chief-praises-djibouti-new-refugee-laws.html>

²² <https://www.educationcannotwait.org/education-cannot-wait-and-igad-announce-new-partnership-to-enhance-education-support-for-refugee-and-displaced-children-and-youth-in-the-igad-region-and-horn-of-africa/>

²³ <https://www.unhcr.org/uk/4fe317589.pdf>

moves, preliminary enrolment data, cited by the UNCHR, estimates only 212, 722 refugee students are in school in Ethiopia. These include 59,846 at pre-primary, 138,249 at primary and 14,627²⁴ at secondary school levels.

This number is low and challenges persist. These include: limited and uneven access to education for refugees across regions and settings of displacement, particularly for girls; and the tendency for refugee education to be of low quality, including a pedagogical lack of focus on learning.²⁵ The majority of teachers are not adequately trained, with only 35% of the refugee incentive teachers and Ethiopian national teachers officially qualified. Eschete (2003) found that cultural values, attitudes and behaviours, institutional structures and environmental factors remained obstacles to the greater participation of women at all levels of education in Ethiopia.²⁶

In 2019, the World Bank Group conducted a study of the experiences of refugee students in three communities in Ethiopia: Gambella region, the Jigjiga area of Somali region (two of the research sites of this situational needs assessment) and Addis Ababa city. This study provides a contemporary and comprehensive overview of education in the three targeted refugee camps at what it considers ‘a pivotal time for refugee education in Ethiopia’ (p.1). Rich in literature, this document is a rich source of secondary data which provides invaluable insights for VSO Ethiopia’s situational needs assessment.

In its study, the World Bank Group found refugee pupils who were ambitious and had dreams for the future. It highlighted that the most desired occupations for the boys and girls interviewed were doctors and teachers. The study also identifies a number of key challenges in the refugee contexts studied. At a basic level, hunger and distance from home to school were cited by respondents as barriers to learning. Apart from the lack of qualified teachers, water, sanitation and housing issues remained ongoing concerns for the participants at school. Hygiene and lack of water were specifically raised by respondents as barriers to education; not only creating difficulties for children while at school, but indeed often preventing them from coming to school in the first place. The study also found that ‘perceptions of progress are low’ and that students self-report problems in understanding content (ibid.69). Despite individual teachers expressing motivation, ‘large class size, limited teaching aids and little training inhibited teachers from effectively using student-centred learning’ (ibid.70). In relation to teachers, the research found that:

‘... the most common issues raised about teachers were that they were often absent and that there were not enough of them. Gender parity among teachers was found to be low, with male

²⁴ <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/74648.pdf>

²⁵ <https://www.unhcr.org/uk/4fe317589.pdf>

²⁶ Eschete, 2003, ‘Women in Faculties of Teacher Training Institutions in Ethiopia, UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa’.

teachers outnumbering female teachers by almost ten to one in primary schools. A critical recommendation of this report is that ‘teacher upgrading for refugee incentive teachers be scaled up.’ (ibid. 70)

However, efforts to do just that have met with very low levels of uptake by girls, in particular, providing the rationale for this VSO Ethiopia’s situational needs assessment. There is scope to unpack this issue further. Moreover, while the World Bank study focused on ‘under-explored barriers to learning for refugee children in Ethiopia’ (ibid.1), this situational needs assessment complements these finding by unpacking the under-explored barriers to teaching opportunities for refugee girls in Ethiopia.

2.1.1 Incentive Teachers

According to Westfall (2018), refugee student-teachers are part of a new movement of change for the refugee communities within Ethiopia.²⁷ In recognition of this, there has been significant investment to train incentive teachers who can effectively teach children within the refugee camps. However, the initiative has had a major uptake challenge, particularly in relation to the limited participation of female refugee trainees.²⁸ The concern for UNICEF and others is that this will ultimately affect the quality of education for girls at camp level²⁹.

2.1.2 Why female (incentive) teachers matter



²⁷ ibid

²⁸ VSO/ UNICEF Terms of Reference for a Situational Analysis on Factors Impeding Female Participation in Teacher Training Programs in Refugee Contexts

²⁹ ibid

(Image by Mark Stedman³⁰)

The limited participation of female teachers in incentive teacher training opportunities in refugee camps in Ethiopia will impact the quality of education for girls at camp level, because studies show that female teachers do matter.

A 2017 study in Western and Central African primary schools by Lee, Dong-Yun Rhee and Rudolf, for example, found that girls thrive when they have women teachers.³¹ In that study, girls even outperformed boys in the subjects for which they had women teachers. At a broader level, the study also found that having female teachers can influence students' gender-related attitudes towards different school subjects. The mere presence of female Maths teachers, for example, can help shatter the gender stereotype that boys are better at Maths than girls. These findings were corroborated by Stormquist (2017) who concluded that, in general, a gender balance in the classroom helps create a healthier environment, where children and young people have access to the wisdom and guidance of adults with varying experiences, attitudes, and skills.³² Apart from gender balance, women teachers play other important roles within the school and classroom. First, they provide accessible and continuous professional role models. Secondly, parents of young girls feel more comfortable when women teachers are in schools and that their presence contributes to a safer environment; reducing sexual harassment and sexual violence (despite the fact that women teachers themselves often experience sexual harassment and violence themselves). Third, there is a widespread perception that women are more likely to be sensitive to students' emotional needs, particularly those of girls (ibid.). Preliminary data analysis for this situational analysis indicates that while students and teachers in refugee camps in Ethiopia valued the contribution that female teachers can potentially make, the barriers to incentive teaching for female candidates remain overwhelming.

3. Situational Needs Assessment: Approach and Methodology

The following are the data collection principles underlying the research process:

- Data collection must be done in a culturally and gender sensitive manner.
- Participatory research principles and approaches, as well as methodologies (including research methods / tools), were deemed the most appropriate in this context.
- To embed VSO principle of social accountability (as researchers).
- To embed and implement VSO core approaches of social inclusion and gender.

³⁰ /Flickr Mark Stedman/Flickr, CC BY-ND and reproduced on <https://theconversation.com/girls-thrive-with-women-teachers-a-study-in-francophone-africa-95297>

³¹ <https://theconversation.com/girls-thrive-with-women-teachers-a-study-in-francophone-africa-95297>

³² https://worldsofeducation.org/en/woe_homepage/woe_detail/15068/women-teachers-in-africa

- To follow UNICEF’s humanitarian principles when working within a humanitarian context, where the interviewees are likely to experience high vulnerabilities, such as psychosocial challenges.

3.1 Recruitment and Training

The needs assessment began with the selection and recruitment of two qualified and experienced international volunteers. Twenty-one Ethiopian research assistants were subsequently contracted and trained on participatory research principles and methods, as well as VSO’s core values and safeguarding policy. The two-day training schedule included a PSEA (Protection against Sexual Exploitation and Abuse) briefing by UNICEF Education specialist Mr Hailu Workeneh.

3.2 Sampling

UNICEF recommended that all 26 refugee camps in Ethiopia be analysed. This was to ensure that the uniqueness of each of the refugee camps was captured, and factors influencing the participation of the teachers in each of the areas were ascertained. Thus, initially, there was no need for sampling of the camp sites³³. But, initial discussions with ARRA officials highlighted that half of the camps were, in fact, inaccessible on security grounds. In the end, VSO conducted research at all the thirteen available camp sites across five regions of Ethiopia: Tigray, Somali, Gambella, Afar and Benshangul Gumuz..

To access all thirteen camps, VSO applied for permission with ARRA at a national level. When the permission was granted, the national office informed then all appropriate ARRA offices at a regional level. All thirteen camps were accessed, and data collected, between February and March 2020.

Once in the camp, VSO used purposive sampling to identify and access all participant groups. VSO did this through pre-identified gatekeepers who included: ARRA officials, camp leaders³⁴, primary school head teachers and other local refugee committees/bodies. All were approached to identify and recruit eligible participants across the seven participant groups (see below). VSO also used snowball sampling to find drop-out teachers.³⁵ In this instance, existing female primary school teachers, head teachers and/or camp leaders were asked about former female primary school teachers who left the primary teaching profession.

3.3 Key Stakeholders/Primary Actors

VSO undertook data collection with seven participant groups, including:

³³ ibid

³⁴ Such as the Refugee Committee Council (RCC)

³⁵ Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where existing study subjects recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Thus, the sample group is said to grow like a rolling snowball. Taken from: Silverman, D. (2016) *Qualitative Research* (4th edn). London: SAGE.

- Participant group 1: Young girls aged 12-16 who are eligible to become incentive primary schoolteachers but who have not taken up this opportunity.³⁶
- Participant group 2: Drop-out teachers/female teachers who have left the (primary) teaching profession
- Participant group 3: Existing female primary teachers (both national and incentive teachers)
- Participant group 4: Community leaders
 - 4.1: Parents
 - 4.2: Camp leaders
 - 4.3: Religious leaders
- Participant group 5: Directors and Programme leads TTCs (Teacher Training Colleges)
- Participant group 6: International NGO Refugee Education specialists
- Participant group 7: Governmental specialists, including ARRA representatives

3.4 Methodology: Data collection tools within a participatory research design

This situational needs assessment used a mixed-methods approach combining qualitative and quantitative research methods in a particular way.³⁷ Using a mixed-methods strategy, this needs assessment combines both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Although the research takes a participatory approach which, typically, favours qualitative research methods; quantitative data was required for programmatic reasons.³⁸ This quantitative data was gathered through all available data collection tools.

To make the research design as accessible as possible – especially to harder-to-reach participant groups – the pros and cons of multiple data collection tools were evaluated. Due to their embedded connections with participatory research³⁹, both semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) were selected as data collection methods for all participant groups. Moreover, VSO decided to offer more qualitatively designed survey questionnaires to some of the participant groups. Both the survey questionnaires and the key informant interviews for each research participant group were specifically designed to extract the same qualitative and quantitative data. What is key is that, where possible, most participant groups were offered a choice as to how data was to be collected, i.e. which data collection tool the researchers used to extract data. For example, filling out a survey may have seemed less

³⁶ Consent was requested from all the participants for permission to use the information they provide. Parents or guardians were requested to provide consent for interviewing children under the age of 18 years

³⁷ Mixed-methods research (MMR) is not new but has ‘recently gained momentum’ and is now spreading rapidly in social science.

³⁸ As per the terms and conditions of the TOR.

³⁹ See Kumer & Urbanc (2020); cited in Nared, J. & Bole, D. (eds) *Participatory Research and Planning in Practice*. Springer: Open Access; pp.207-221.

intrusive for some than doing a face-to-face interview or participating in a FGD. It is important to a participatory research design, and participatory research principles, that this option be there.⁴⁰

The following table illustrates the primary data collection tools available to each participant group in this situational needs assessment:

Participant group	KII schedule	FG schedule	Survey questionnaire
1. Young girls	X	✓	X
2. Drop-outs	✓	X	✓
3. Existing female teachers	✓	✓	✓
4.1 Parents	✓	✓	X
4.2 Religious leaders	✓	X	X
4.3 Camp leader	✓	X	X
5. Teacher Training Colleges	✓	X	X
6. NGOs	✓	X	✓
7. ARRA	✓	X	✓

FGDs schedules were designed for three participant groups: young girls, existing female teachers and parents. Participatory research tools were used in these FGDs to collectively discuss existing social, cultural, economic and spatial barriers impacting young girls and female teachers within the refugee camps. These tools included: body mapping, the problem tree and fishbone analysis. These research tools are widely endorsed and practised by VSO.⁴¹ To determine how to overcome such barriers, the bridge model was also included in the FGD schedules.⁴²

⁴⁰ See Emden, C. & Smith, C. (2003) 'Non-Intrusive Research: Ideas and Guidelines for Expedient Thesis Completion.' *Australian Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22(1), 37-43.

⁴¹ https://www.participatorymethods.org/sites/participatorymethods.org/files/VSO_Facilitator_Guide_to_Participatory_Approaches_Principles.pdf

⁴² This research tool is also endorsed by VSO.

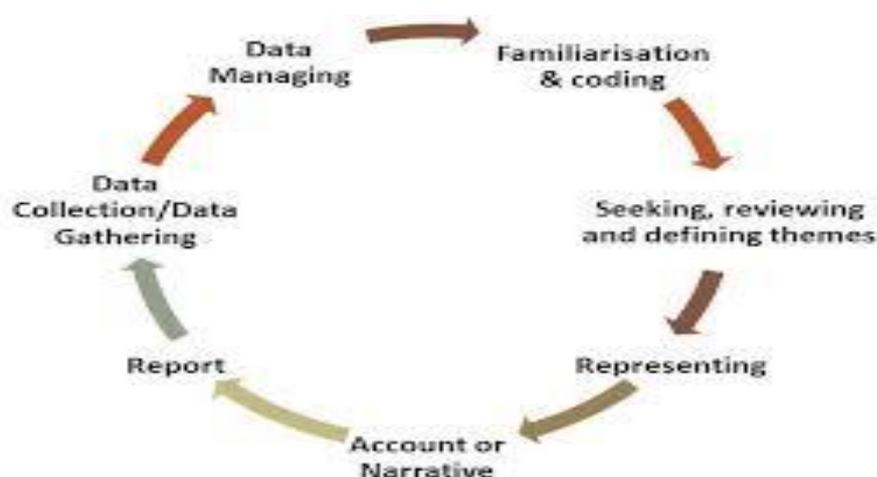
The following table summarises the number of KIIs, FGDs and survey questionnaires undertaken at the 13 sampled refugee camps:

Study Region	Study Sites	Focus Group	Discussions	KIIs /	Surveys
		Total #	Participant Groups	Total #	Participant Groups
Tigray	Adi-Harush	4	1 and 4 (parents)	11	2, 4 (camp leaders & religious leaders), 6, 7
	Mai-Aini	4	1, 3 and 4	7	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 6, 7
	Hitsats	4	1 and 4 (parents)	9	3, 4 (religious leaders and camp leaders), 6, 7
Gambella	Kule	3	1 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 7
	Jewi	5	1, 3 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 6, 7
	Nygenyiel	4	1 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 6, 7
	Tierkidi	2	1 and 4 (parents)	8	3, 4 (religious leaders and camp leaders), 6, 7
	Awbarre	4	1 and 4 (parents)	7	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 6, 7
Somali	Sheder	3	1 and 4 (parents)	8	2, 3, 4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 5, 6, 7
Afar	Kebribeyah	4	1 and 4 (parents)	10	1, 3, 4 (religious leaders), 6
	Barahle	5	1, 3 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (religious leaders and camp leaders), 5, 6, 7

	Aysaita	4	1 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 6, 7
Benshangul-Gumuz	Tsore	3	1 and 4 (parents)	6	3, 4 (camp leaders and religious leaders), 7
	Sherkole	4	1, 2 and 4 (parents)	5	4 (religious leaders and camp leaders), 6 and 7

3.5 Data Analysis

Data was analysed using thematic analysis. This type of analysis is used to recognise key themes or patterns emerging from the data:



(Image taken from Braun & Clarke (2006))⁴³

Thematic analysis is primarily concerned with identifying the key themes of a document or transcript and this analysis is adapted from the philosophical approach to human understanding, also known as interpretivism. Thematic analysis also weights the role of the researcher in both collecting and analysing the data as both the participants and the researcher mutually transform each other in the collecting data process, with the researcher finally using their own interpretation of the core categories present throughout the focus groups and questionnaires to make sense of the participants' social world.⁴⁴

⁴³ Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using thematic analysis in psychology.' *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, **3**(2), pp.77-101.

⁴⁴ Robson, C. (2011) *Real World Research* (3rd edn). London: John Wiley & Sons.

Identifying core and sub-categories across all the data collected is essential to thematic analysis. With 149 documents to analyse, a team of four researchers will spend approximately two weeks interactively agreeing on core and sub-categories to best illustrate the data collected for the final report.

4. Key Findings

Preliminary findings⁴⁵ suggest that in its current formation, the Incentive Teacher Training Programme (ITTP) is flawed and not fit for purpose. It does not take cognisance of the lived experience of young girls in refugee camps in Ethiopia and disregards, in particular, the economic, social, cultural and environmental factors which intersect and shape the lives of young refugee girls and, ultimately, act as barriers to their uptake of the ITTP. An understanding of context is critical to a holistic appreciation of decision-making around the take up of incentive teaching opportunities by young girls in refugee camps.

Preliminary data analysis⁴⁶ for the purposes of this interim report suggests that lack of enrolment in the ITTP by girls may be understood and explained under a number of intersecting headings:

4.1 Socio-cultural context

The ITTP does not take sufficient cognisance of the socio-cultural context of the life of young girls in refugee camps with regards to the following themes:

4.1.1 *Discrimination and limited decision-making power:* The findings of this research suggest a social context in which the life of a young girl in a refugee camp is a precarious one, defined by the reality of their life as refugees. It revealed that the lives of young girls are deeply gendered. Patriarchal attitudes (both from their home country and within the camps) around women's inferiority to men, and entrenched hegemonic gender rules, dictate that a woman's place is in the home, and discourage women's engagement in public spaces:

‘Men are dominating women. Men have to be men – strong. When we come to a woman, she has to work in the house. She has to stay in the house. It's hard to explain. You have to be here, in the camps, to understand women's lives here.’ (NGO worker)’

‘When girls finish school, they will go to university and learn to be a teacher. But after one year teaching she will stop. The boys do not respect female teachers. The male teachers don't respect the women teachers too.’ (Female national teacher)

⁴⁵ More extensive findings to be elaborated and included in the final report

⁴⁶ More extensive data analysis to follow in the final report

4.1.2 Marriage and household duties: This is further engrained in the persistence of potent socio-cultural norms that prescribe that girls should marry rather than pursue a profession. There is often societal pressure to marry early:

‘There are more boys than girls at school. There are family problems with the girls. When the girls are preparing to go to school their parents say ‘Don’t go to school, you have to work in the house.’ The mother also says ‘I am working for you, so you have to stay in the home.’ So, that is a problem. The girls are forced to do chores in the house rather than go to school.’ (Female incentive teacher)

‘Parents treat girls differently. In a big way. They see women as living and working in a house and they have to be married. When they get married they are not even 18. Things are changing. Girls can go to ARRA school and they can get educated. It is a good change for women, for girls. But most of the parents are not ok with this.’ (Male drop-out incentive teacher).

As a result, many girls marry (either by ‘consent’/force) and devote themselves to taking care of their husbands, children and home. This reality makes the ‘choice’ of entering a profession such as teaching either impossible or very difficult. Moreover, there is no childcare support in place to facilitate childcare for any young girls who do choose to be female incentive teachers.

The situation is compounded in contexts where socio cultural rules permit polygamy:

‘The men of South Sudan, they don’t want to work. If there is a camp, they will go [to it]. And some of them have more than one wife. Some have five wives. 900 Birr is not enough for a man with 5 wives. He will give each wife 100 or 200 Birr for one month. That is the culture here. A wife is forced to accept that.’ (Female incentive teacher)

4.1.3 Discrimination: As reported earlier, both girls and women report that they are not treated equally with their male counterparts. Young girls report the discrimination starts in the home, with parents practising expectations based on embedded gendered roles. However, not all young girls and female teachers reported being subjected to such gendered expectations:

‘My mother has more girls. She supports us and she believes that men and women are the same. That they are equal. She encourages me to teach. From grade 1 she helped

me and my brothers. And told us we are the same. I hope I pass that message on to my female students. I tell them that boys and girls are the same. So that they will tell their mothers and fathers that they are the same as boys. We must persuade people of this. That girls are as good, and can be as good, as boys.’ (Female incentive teacher)

4.1.4 Gender based violence (GBV): Girls and women’s experience of life in a refugee camp is often a hostile one, whereby they are frequently subjected to GBV, sexual harassment and/or sexual violence, including rape. This was reported from girls as young as 12 years old to women in their 60s. Fear of sexual endangerment is a factor inhibiting their willingness to engage in incentive training, particularly if they live a long walking distance from the school.

4.2 Psychosocial context

The ITTP does not take sufficient cognisance of the acute psychosocial needs of refugees. While humanitarian assistance and food is provided by UNCHR in refugee camps⁴⁷, there is limited psychosocial support available within a population that has, by definition, experienced displacement and trauma. VSO’s findings show that NGOs were often left to provide skeletal support but did not have the resources to provide much needed professional counselling. Social workers also disclosed that they were expected to provide such support without the appropriate training. Thus, both male and female refugees have an unmet need for more psychosocial support in refugee camps in Ethiopia. Lack of professionals appropriately addressing such needs is another factor limiting the participation of young girls in the incentive training scheme.

4.2.1 Mental health: Many young girls reported experiencing trauma before arriving at the refugee camps. Without psychosocial support, many young girls are unable to cope with this trauma and have unaddressed mental health needs. There is often a sense of hopelessness and despair among the young girls in the refugee camps. Some young girls reported high levels of depression and anxiety and even suicidal ideation; with a number of refugee camps reporting suicide amongst young girls as high. Some of the young girls develop addictions to smoking, chat⁴⁸ or alcohol, possibly as coping strategies / self-medication.

4.2.2 Lack of support: Some of the girls share a house and have no parents and guardians to care for them. These are the ‘unaccompanied minors’, often contained *en masse* in the ‘underage zones’. These girls rely only on themselves for cooking food and household chores and have poor psychological support mechanisms in their lives.

⁴⁷ Although there were reports in some camps that cereal rations were delayed or had not arrived.

⁴⁸ Leaves of an Ethiopian plant that is a stimulant and hallucinogenic.

4.3 Economic context

An appreciation of the economic context within which all refugees live is another important component in recognising some of the limitations to the take up of the ITTP. The reality of life in a refugee camp is one of economic deprivation. All refugees lack economic resources. Consequently, any professional opportunity that presents itself must be evaluated in terms of economic value and the ability of that remuneration to sustain livelihoods. This is one area where the ITTP is fundamentally flawed and thus failing to attract primary school graduate females:

4.3.1 *Insufficient funds to meet basic needs:* The incentive teacher payment is not sufficient to maintain a decent standard of living. Most places' salary varied from 800-900 birr which is insufficient to meet even basic needs:

‘The main problem is my salary. I cannot cover my basic needs...To teach Grade 1-6 , you need action/energy [but] we come here sometimes without breakfast... we cannot even change our clothes [we have one set of clothes]...it’s really a shame to stand in front of students with these clothes what can you do?...’ (Male incentive teacher)

4.3.2 *Price inflation and salary stagnation:* Participants across all refugee camps discussed price inflation of all goods in Ethiopia which had not been reflected in incentive payments:

‘Because now, there is money inflation. The salary is not enough. We cannot buy basic things. We go to teach hungry and stay hungry. All food is for our husband and our children. We need more money.’ (Incentive female teacher)

4.3.3 *Delayed payments:* Payments have been delayed for more than 2 months in some regions. A strike by incentive teachers in Kule, Gambella, was called to highlight the fact that they had not been paid in two months. Many other incentive teachers, in refugee camps across different regions in Ethiopia, also reported delays in payment. For example, in Tierkidi, Gambella, teachers were last paid on the 26th December, 2019. Some existing teachers also reported that incentive teachers had left the profession due to this:

‘Women cannot work as teachers if we are not being paid. Two [female] teachers have left [because of this]. My family told me I should be in the home, with my own children. We can’t work outside the home without salary.’ (Female incentive teacher)

‘The problem is that the teachers don’t have a good salary. It is not enough. Also, we didn’t get paid and the payment was late. It was two months late. This year they said that they changed how we were getting paid. But, we don’t know what the problem was. Even now, we don’t have money.’ (Female incentive teacher)

4.3.4 Acute pay gap: There is a substantive differential in the salary scale for refugee primary teachers vis a vis national [Ethiopian] teachers. This discrepancy is de-motivating and creates a two-tier system in the primary education sector within the refugee camps. As one camp leader put it:

‘There are two teachers: incentive teachers and national teachers. National teachers take high salaries, incentive teachers don’t. Even if the incentive teachers had a diploma, their payment didn’t change. There was no justice. We were doing the same thing; doing the same job. The national teachers have a diploma and they get much money. But, I am an incentive teacher and I have a diploma, but I don’t get the same payment.’ (Drop-out male incentive teacher)

‘The major reason for young girls not to take incentive teaching as a job is the payment. These teachers get only 800 to 1000 Birr a month. This is four or five times less than the national teachers. The incentive teachers are not seen as teachers... The incentive teachers teach equal hours with Ethiopian teachers but are not equally privileged...’ (Camp Leader)

Contrary to its name, the insufficient and delayed payment / salary for incentive teachers is dis-incentivising and needs to be reviewed as a matter of urgency.

4.4 Refugee education context

4.4.1 Non-transferable diploma: Incentive teachers who had earned their diploma⁴⁹ discussed how their salaries had not changed and requested an incremental incentive salary scale to differentiate apprentice incentive teachers from qualified ones. As previously stipulated, the qualified incentive teachers’ salary should mirror the salary of national teachers. Participants also highlighted that the diploma needed to be transferable to other contexts, i.e. Ethiopian national schools and the primary education sector in their home country. Incentive and drop-out teachers regularly conveyed disappointment that the qualification was not recognised beyond refugee camp borders.

⁴⁹ Which had taken some one year and others three years.

4.4.2 Lack of awareness: There are marked low levels of awareness among *all* participant groups about the ITTP. It appears that it has not been promoted among communities and raising community awareness of this programme was a universal recommendation by key stakeholders:

‘If you raise their awareness, you will find the people. They will come. We need to advertise that we need female teachers. [We need] Posters. They need to say they want female teachers. Sometimes they post that they are looking for men. Advertise jobs only for female teachers. That will help. If you want females alone, they will come.’ (Incentive female teacher)

4.4.3 Education not as valued for girls: There is little support for girls’ participation in education, more broadly, either as students or teachers. One camp leader in Somali described how girls are discouraged from pursuing their education on the grounds that they may become over-confident and challenge the gendered status quo:

‘Most of the society in this camp thinks that the more females get educated, the more she will be confident and react for every challenge they faced in household, she will ask question about home managed activities starts to say should be equally shared to males members of the family. The community accepts that all home management activities are managed by females. So, the community don’t encourage such kind of confidence of the females.’

Many communities prioritise (early) marriage for girls over education, particularly when bride price (dowry) generates much needed resources for impoverished families:

‘Yes, the problem here is the pressure on the girls for early marriage. There are girls here in this school who get married. The problem is the parents. If your family is poor, girls will go to other places in the camp to find a husband. They cost too much money for families. They will get money for their daughters getting married [dowry].’ (Female incentive teacher)

‘The culture in South Sudan is that females are considered to be linked to attaining wealth. Parents will push their young daughters to get married to a man who has money. Or who gets money from abroad. Then, you will see that the girl is pregnant by a young boy. The parents will then go to his parents and ask if he is ready to marry her. And the girl will drop-out of school. Because she is pregnant. And this is because of this economic problem. Conditional love and engagements. It’s all conditional. For the parents to get the money. It’s not that the two people are in love. They want the money.’ (Camp leader)

4.4.4 Lack of role models: The situation is compounded by the lack of female role models for girls. Most of the female teachers interviewed stressed the importance of having professional female role models for girls:

‘I want to show the girls at this school that you can be a teacher. I want to be a role model for the girls. Because... being a teacher is good. I want to show them that they can be a teacher.’ (Female incentive teacher)

Both incentive and national teachers are overwhelmingly male and, in some camps, there are no female incentive or national teachers whatsoever in the camp; with all stakeholders citing it as a reason for low aspirations among the female students in all refugee camps:

‘We need to inspire the girls. To come to school, to study. We need to help the younger generation. We need to inspire them. We need to teach them more subjects.’ (Female national teacher)

4.4.5 Lack of resources: Lack of teaching/learning materials further discourages girls from engaging in teaching. Incentive teachers are not given teaching materials. In one case, a teacher had to borrow a student’s book to deliver a lesson. The schools are also reported to be in poor condition:

‘We have broken tables in the classrooms. There are not enough tables and chairs. No. There is one chair for four students. And the students don’t have drinking water. Only when the UNHCR drops aid. This month there was no aid and the students don’t have any water.’ (Female national teacher)

4.4.6 Inadequate staff: High student: teacher ratio is another disincentive to uptake of the ITTP. Most existing and drop-out teachers reported having over 80 students in each class, with some over 100. This had contributed to teachers leaving the profession, and was a constant source of stress and strain for existing teachers:

‘You can’t have a class with 90 students. It is not possible to have a full lesson. There is no learning. If there are 50 or 60 students, that is good. With 90, they are misbehaving. They can’t concentrate. They joke and disturb other students.’ (Female incentive teacher)

Most teachers also reported that the primary schools were too small and there were not enough classrooms. So, until bigger schools are built, it is not possible to hire more teachers as there is nowhere to put them.

4.4.7 Fluid context: The transient nature of refugee camps is not conducive to committing to long term career choices. As previously reported, a disadvantage with the ITTP is that the incentive teaching diploma is not transferable to contexts outside of Ethiopian refugee camps. Also, substantive numbers of key informants reported that they had plans to either return to their home country or move on: ‘There is often onward mobility in the camps’ (NGO worker).

4.5 Training and resources

4.5.1 Target group: The ITTP targets young girls who have completed primary school. In reality, as many girls drop out long before this – for reasons already discussed - these girls represent the cohort who are most committed to education and usually aspire to continue their secondary school rather than drop out to become incentive teachers. As a result, the ITTP often competes with high school attendance which can have long term implications for young girls if the ITTP doesn’t work out for them.

4.5.2 Inconsistent training: Reports about the length of ITTP varies. Some incentive teachers receive only two days training. Others report receiving between one to four years of training. Interviews with key informants at the Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) and experienced existing incentive teachers highlight that the training is inconsistent and varies between the regions.

Overall, the training provided was positively reviewed. Those who had studied for three to four years, and had received their diploma certificate, were complimentary of the training. Those who received less training commented that the training received was not enough and requested more on pedagogy, lesson planning and classroom management. Yet, no one reported being given training in relation to teaching students with special educational needs. Findings also suggest a gap in the relationship between the TTCs and the incentive teachers, leaving the latter unsupported and marginalised in comparison to national teachers.

4.6 Environmental challenges

4.6.1 Inadequate basic amenities: As previously introduced, there is a lack of basic infrastructure such as WASH facilities and electricity at the primary schools that create barriers to attendance at school and uptake of training opportunities. For example:

‘ARRA have been conducting awareness raising campaigns. IRC is working with us to raise awareness among the community. We have been talking with their parents that it is not good to keep your daughter at home... But, there are challenges. Even as I speak to you now, there is no food in the camp... Last week we had a problem with water. There was no water in the camp. These are basic needs. So, when these basic needs are not there, for humans to go and attend classes... you cannot do that. You are hungry. You are unclean. Girls were being engaged in other things... cleaning clothes wherever they could find water. Searching longer for water. Trying to find food. And this makes the problem worse. Because sometimes the girls go to a local man... for money. For basic things. And they will agree on payment. Which can lead to pregnancy. But what else can they do? (Camp leader)

Other acute challenges were experienced by girls and female teachers during menstruation. Lack of affordability of sanitary towels meant that girls often leaked through their clothing leading to embarrassment and ridicule from both students and staff.

A response to the lack of proper sanitation is for both female students and teachers to return home to relieve or sanitise themselves. However, this can lead to sexual harassment and violence, especially when the teachers and young girls live at a distance from the school. As a result, menstruating girls and women can decide not to attend school, which can ultimately affect further educational and professional development.

5. (Interim) Conclusions and Recommendations

This situational needs assessment is being undertaken to determine the underlying causes to the limited uptake of the uptake of Incentive Teacher Training Programme (ITTP) by young refugee girls in refugee camps throughout Ethiopia, and to offer suggestions for improvements. Initial findings suggest that main barriers to uptake lie in the economic, social, cultural and environmental realities that intersect and shape the lives of young refugee girls. For the ITTP to succeed, these barriers must be sufficiently addressed.

Juxtaposing the ITTP with the lived experiences of young refugee girls reveals that, in its present structure, there is little, if any, incentive in the ITTP for young girls in Ethiopia’s refugee camps. These interim findings recommend that these ‘incentives’ must be re-evaluated and corrected if the programme is to have meaningful results.

Full findings, and recommendations to address these identified challenges, will be outlined in the final report.