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# **University of Southampton**

Faculty of Social Sciences

Education School

## **Quality Basic Education Provision for Internally Displaced Children in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) Camps: A Case Study of IDP camps in North-Central and North-East, Nigeria**

by

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Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

June 2022



# University of Southampton

## Abstract

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Education School

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Quality Basic Education for Internally Displaced Children in IDP Camps: A Case study of IDP Camps in North-Central and North-East, Nigeria

by

Vivienne Kachollom Rwang

In Nigeria, forced displacements due to protracted conflicts have disrupted schooling, leaving children without access to any form of education and some confined in camps. Educational deficits have however, remained prevalent in Central/Northern Nigeria precisely, owing to protracted insurgencies by Boko Haram and Fulani herdsmen, causing displacement of millions, primary age children comprising the larger percentage. This situation has adversely affected education quality and equitability, resulting to high levels of marginalisation and educational displacements.

My research aimed to shine the light on Nigeria's basic education policy and its practice to examine its implementation level by focusing on accessibility, quality provision and improvement, for displaced children who reside in IDP camps. A case study of some IDP camps in North-Central and North-East Nigeria was adopted, using qualitative methods of data collection to answer the research questions. Data instruments included individual and focus-group interviews, observations, and document review. Data was drawn from three IDP camps, three neighbouring schools and from the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB). This included, two policy makers, three camp managers, three camp teachers, two neighbouring schoolteachers and twenty displaced children. Data collected was transcribed, coded, and analysed thematically.

The findings revealed that the reality on ground is at variance with policy statements due to lack of accessibility and general deteriorated state of the UBE. Although the children expressed optimism in their desire for education as a means for a bright future, accessibility in some cases, or quality provision are far from being achieved; alongside insufficient, unqualified, and transient teachers. While improvement is dependent largely on government's purposeful inputs, evidence shows that government still lacks a practical plan/budget for IDP education. It is therefore, recommended that government throws its weight behind IDP education to provide the necessary machinery to ensure the implementation of UBE for IDPs.

**Key Words:** Quality, Basic Education, Policy, UBE, Displacement, marginalisation, IDP, Improvement.



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# Research Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

**Vivienne Kachollom Rwang**

Title of thesis: Quality Basic Education for Internally Displaced Children in IDP Camps: A Case study of IDP Camps in North-Central and North-East, Nigeria

I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission

Signature: ..... Date: 14/06/2022



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## Definitions and Abbreviations

BEIS – Basic Education Information System

BRI – Building Resilience Intervention

C1A – Camp 1 (A)

C1B – Camp 1 (B)

C2A – Camp 2 (A)

C2B – Camp 2 (B)

CH – Child

CIHL – Child International Humanitarian Law

CM – Camp Manager

CPA – Comprehensive Peace Accord

CT – Camp Teacher

DepEd – Department of Education

ECE – Early Childhood Education

FAE – Flexible Approaches to Education

FCT – Federal Capital Territory

FE – Formal Education

FG – Focus Group

IDMC – Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

IDP – Internally Displaced Persons

IDS – Institute of Development Studies

IHL – International Human Law

IHL – International Humanitarian Law

## Definitions and Abbreviations

INSEC – Informal Sector Service Centre

LGA – Local Government Area

MOEYS – Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports

NCE – National Certification of Education

NEMA – National Emergency Management Agency

NST – Neighbouring School Teacher

OOSC – Out Of School Children

PC – Policy Beneficiaries

PM – Policy Maker

PP – Policy Practitioner

PTA – Parents Teachers Association

RQ – research Question

SSA – Sub-Saharan Africa

SUBEB – State Universal Education Board

UBE – Universal Basic Education

UBEB – Universal Basic Education Board

UIS – UNESCO Institute of Statistics

UNCHR – United Nations High Commission for Refugees

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Motivation for this Research

Education, as a fundamental right of every human being, is the bedrock of every society; therefore, the significance of education cannot be overemphasised. Any society that has well addressed the issue of literacy or education, is obviously set for socio-economic progress as its citizens will have been equipped with the necessary tools to be useful to themselves and their community. Basic education, which is the foundation stage of all levels of education is the most critical stage as such, it becomes imperative to build a solid foundation where other education levels can stand successfully. This is because a faulty education foundation will have a ripple effect on every other stage of education and ultimately in life.

Sadly, the educational deficits that have continued to be prevalent in Africa and Nigeria to be precise, owing especially to the series of humanitarian crises and terrorist attacks the country has been experiencing has further disrupted basic life-support systems, contributed to the worsening of already fragmented security structures and perpetuated underdevelopment (Adewale, 2016). This situation has adversely affected the provision of quality education and education equitability resulting to high levels of marginalisation.

My interest in quality education provision, especially as it relates to basic education emerged a few years ago. Having been a teacher in private primary schools for over 18 years and observing the educational gap between student achievement in private and government primary schools, I decided to further probe into the situation through my master's degree dissertation which was titled 'Stakeholders' Views about Quality Education in Nigerian Primary Schools', with a focus on primary schools in the Federal Capital City - Abuja. The findings of that research revealed the poor existing state of primary education in government schools even in the heart of the country. Comparing government primary schools with private primary schools unveiled a marked distinction in education standards. Worrisome as these findings are, I wondered the situation of internally displaced children who are even more helpless and vulnerable. Therefore, another level of marginalisation I observed was with internally displaced children living in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps. Several visits I made to a particular camp in Jos Nigeria ignited another quest in me to research Internally Displaced Persons situation especially as it concerns basic education provision. I am hoping my research will make a difference and it will have a direct impact on internally displaced children not only in Nigeria but around the world where children suffer displacements, especially those living in IDP camps.

## Chapter 1

As a teacher and educational resources consultant in Nigeria, and while a senior-degree student in Southampton's Department of Education, I have fully accepted the importance of the school for delivery of sound primary years education. Nonetheless, I am also aware that, necessary as always it is to improve the leadership and performance of the primary schools we have, it is equally vital we bring good education to all young children, even where there is no school for them to attend or for us to improve. My compelling reason, therefore, is to examine ways for providing, improving learning and educational effectiveness, with the intention that my thesis will contribute towards the urgent needs of children in Nigeria and elsewhere, wherever regular attendance at a well-led and effective primary school is, for any reasons, difficult or impossible.

### 1.2 Background

Conflicts have become a global phenomenon and education has suffered significant attacks from these life-threatening occurrences. Parts of the world are becoming a deadly place to be a student, teacher, or education official due to attacks on education. Attacks on education rise and fall according to the extent of wider conflict. These attacks result to a denial of the human right to education for children especially (O'Malley, 2007). This has resulted to an increasing interest from academics in education and conflict studies, policymakers, and practitioners in the field of education and conflict (Davies, 2004; Novelli and Cardozo 2008). The effects of violent conflicts and terrorist attacks on education are manifold regardless of its context, whether in conflict or post-conflict situations. In the past, humanitarian crises were considered as unfortunate and seen as short-term interruptions to an otherwise progressive process of development, deracinating people momentarily who would be able to return to their homes and rebuild their lives as soon as the crises subsided. In recent times however, this view has changed as a growing body of research proves that this is inaccurate (UNHCR, 2016). In recent times, the Ukraine conflicts as well as other conflicts around the world have skyrocketed the numbers of forcibly displaced persons. UNHCR (2022) reports that the end of 2021, the worldwide figure had risen to 90 million, this was precipitated by with new and incessant conflicts in Ethiopia, Burkina Faso, Myanmar, Nigeria, Afghanistan and the Democratic Republic of Congo, alongside Ukraine war that recorded 8 million displacements within the country and more than 6 million refugee movements.

In fact, most of the literature in this area is grounded in the reality that there are no signs pointing to the end of conflicts in the world (Davies, 2004). This is evident in change observed in the nature of conflict and an increase in its frequency since after the Cold War (Kagawa, 2005; Sinclair, 2002). Gallager (2004) reports that there were 82 armed conflicts in the world between 1989 and 1992. Most conflicts of recent times are fought within national borders and not necessarily on traditional, demarcated battlefields (Paulson and Rappleye, 2007). Literature shows that conflicts

erupt for different reasons but very similar in nature and wherever these conflicts have occurred/occur, its impact on education is always devastating.

Drawing from the above discussion, it has been generally agreed by scholars that both IDPs' and refugee's highest priority is education (Oluwayemisi, Obashoro and Gbolabo,2017). Therefore, the significance of education for refugee as well as for IDPs cannot be overemphasised. Although internal conflict impacts educational access differently in countries, a common similarity that exists across board is how these conflicts disrupt education, worsen access to education and in extreme cases, end education access (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011). In cases where some levels of provisions are available, the quantity and quality of such provisions need improvements (Oluwayemisi et al., 2017). It is to the end that all children enjoy this fundamental right that international and national policies have been established. The inauguration of the Education For All (EFA) in 1995, the MDGs targeted to be achieved by 2015, SDGs 2030, 'No child left behind', Nigeria's UBE policies inter alia, and the UN Guiding Principles on internal displacements adopted by several nations, are all efforts to ensure that quality education is made all inclusive. This research, therefore, will shine the light on IDP education policy and practice, investigate the availability of Universal Basic Education (UBE) provision in an IDP context, and explore possible improvement mechanisms for quality basic education provision.

### **1.3 Research Context**

Nigeria is considered the most populous nation in Africa with a population of about 200 million. It comprises 36 states including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Plateau State, which is the focus area of this research is situated in North-central Nigeria and popularly referred to as the middle-belt region. It is the 12<sup>th</sup> largest state of Nigeria with Jos as its capital. Plateau State has a population of about 3.3 million according to the 2006 census. Plateau State is among the most ethnically and linguistically diverse parts of Nigeria, with more than 30 ethno-linguistic groups in the State recognised by the State government as "indigenous". It is a majority Christian state within north-central Nigeria. The choice of Plateau State as the case study for this research is based on the researcher's observation over several years as an indigene, born and bred in the State.

Although Plateau State is popularly known as the "home of peace and tourism", it has witnessed several civil unrests making it one of the main spectres of ethnic and religious violence in north-central Nigeria. The past decade has witnessed recurrent terrorist attacks across the State in both rural and urban areas. The recurrent attacks have claimed many lives and have been responsible for the displacement of entire villages in many cases, making Plateau State the site of some of the

## Chapter 1

worst violence in Nigeria. Episodes of mass killing, and destruction have occurred in Jos in 2001, 2002, 2008, 2010 and to date. The violence has also affected other parts of the high Plateau, in rural areas outside of Jos – particularly in 2001-2 and 2010, when hundreds of people were killed in villages, in their fields, or while tending cattle. There have been massacres in the old mining settlements on the Plateau, notably in 2001 and 2010. In rural areas there has also been widespread violence on native farmers by Fulani pastoralists (Obasi, 2019). This, however, has sadly remained the ongoing condition till this day. Several factors have been attributed to the cause of these conflicts which range from religious, land interests and distinction between indigenes and settlers. Therefore, even though official reports have tried to explain this complicated situation, estimate the number of deaths, and come up with policy recommendations, the terrorist attacks have neither been resolved nor mechanisms to combat these insurgencies have been successfully implemented. This lack of clarity has further complicated the search for policy solutions especially where it concerns education which has been adversely affected. This is because insecurity is a factor that has potency, capable of affecting various activities and engagements in a community or nation adversely (Opiki & Adeleke, 2015). These terrorist attacks have caused detrimental effects on education provision as children have been forced to flee their areas of abode in search of refuge mostly in unfamiliar places such as IDP camps.

This research, therefore, focused on investigating through the lens of IDP policy, quality basic education provision for the children who have been forcefully and abruptly displaced from their places of habitual residency by violent conflicts or terrorist attacks, and now reside in IDP camps, focussing on IDPs in Jos, Plateau State. The focus on basic education is because of its significance which cannot be overemphasised as it is the fundamental, rudimental and foundation level of education. It is a very crucial stage in education as it consists of elementary, essential knowledge upon which other forms of higher education are built on (Uyanga, 2012; Olaniyan and Obadara, 2008). Education is not only a right but plays a vital part in mitigating the psychosocial impact of conflict and terrorist attacks by giving a sense of normalcy, stability, structure, and hope for the future as it provides crucial building blocks for future economic stability (Creed & Morpeth, 2014). These terrorist attacks have led to the persistent and widespread educational disparities that exist particularly with disadvantaged and vulnerable children thus, forming the basis for this research. The research, therefore, focused on IDP camps in Jos, Plateau State as a case to explore the processes and dynamics of the UBE practice for displaced children. The research also sought an in-depth understanding about the current situation of UBE in the IDP camps and what it means to the victims. This was a process which instruments of data collection were used to make discoveries

within their context. Thus, the emergence of research question one which is set to uncover the extent to which basic education provision is available in IDP camps.

Although Jos, Plateau State was the initial case study for this research, insecurity issues that arose in some areas during the time of fieldwork compelled the researcher to continue data collection from other regions of the country. Thus, fieldwork was carried out in IDP camps in the Federal Capital Territory, and from the North-eastern region (Adamawa State) of the country. The Federal Capital Territory also known as Abuja is the seat of power and administrative capital of Nigeria. It is situated in central Nigeria and like Plateau State it is considered part of the Middlebelt region. Created in 1976, Abuja shares borders with neighbouring States such as Niger, Kaduna, Plateau, Nasarawa, Kogi and Benue. Abuja has been termed the fastest growing city in Africa and one of the fastest growing cities in the world. This is evident in the rate of population growth recorded by the Abuja, Nigeria Metro Area population which shows that in 2011, the population was 1,236,000; 2,919,000 in 2018, 3,095,000 in 2019 and 3,278,000 in 2020. Adamawa State was founded by Modibbo Adama a regional leader of the Fulani organised by Usumaanu dan Fodio of Sokoto in 1804, he founded the kingdom and named it. The State is situated in North-eastern region is surrounded by Borno State, Gombe State, Taraba State, and shares national borders with Cameroon. Adamawa is one of the largest States in Nigeria with an area of 36,917 square kilometres, it has a population of 3,179 million as at 2006 and Yola as its capital. Adamawa State over 80 ethnic groups and like Plateau State, it has had its fair share of terrorist attacks by the Islamic terrorist group, Boko Haram in 2012, 2014, 2017 and 2018 and appears to be protracted.

#### **1.4 Problematisation and Research Rationale**

Due to the awareness of the significant role which education plays as an agent of national development and globalization, there has been agitation for more functional and qualitative education all over the world. This concern for high standards in education is evident in the inauguration of Education for All (EFA) in Thailand (1995) and Dakar in 2000 (Alaba, 2010). This was followed by the United Nations' 56<sup>th</sup> General Assembly meeting to discuss the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). One among the targets set for member states by the United Nations at the global level was to ensure that by the year 2015 all children particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to the ethnic minorities have access to complete free compulsory and quality primary education.

Nigeria as a member state was entrusted with the responsibility of implementing this mandate. Therefore, in response to this, the Nigerian government in its bid to provide high standard and

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quality primary education for every Nigerian child, launched the Universal Basic Education (UBE) in 1999. Quality education, which is one of the focus areas of this research, has been described as a complex term to define due to its relative nature. Defining quality education and how it is measured has been the focus of much discussion. Therefore, the question here is, in what ways does the UBE policy view quality? how can quality be achieved, measured, or improved? (O'Sullivan, 2006). In answering this question, O'Sullivan focuses on the actual happenings in the school and classroom, claiming that the teaching and learning process are topmost on the quality agenda. For Nickel and Lowe (2009) quality is a matter of process which is complex rather than a product and that this complex process demands strategic approach. However, a further concern is defining quality education in the context of refugees and IDP education. Motala (2001) alludes to the fact that the work on quality has been affected by current perspectives on education change. Three views put forward in this assertion is that change is a process not an event, that positive policy and legislation mandated change has not reflected in a change in school standard; and that education change has focused on structure and putting systems in place and leaving out pedagogy and the processes of teaching and learning. With protracted conflicts and the frequent rise in displacements, this argument holds true especially as it stresses the fact that change is a process. The refugee/IDP phenomenon calls for a change in education approach therefore, making it paramount to adapt appropriate measures due to this nature of education change in defining quality education in the context of refugee/IDP education. The lack of a clear definition on 'quality education' especially in refugee/IDP context shows clearly that there are gaps in policy and research on quality (Motala, 2001). This calls for more qualitative and empirical research in quality education provision for refugee/IDPs. Thus, education reform will require a thorough examination of 'quality' with an attempt to conceptualise it and critically review both theory and practice of quality interventions in IDP camps. The questions above and the existing gap between policy and research on quality education kindled the need to dig deep into the concept of quality UBE in an IDP context through this research question (RQ 2), 'How is quality UBE perceived in an IDP context? What are the perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in IDP camps?'

Education improvement has continued to be a matter of concern to all governments in Nigeria just as it is a global issue. Despite efforts to improve primary education in principle, the realities on ground are at variance with the anticipated outcomes especially where it concerns displaced children (Oyadiran, 2014). However, scholars like Ajayi (2007), Omotayo, Iheberem and Maduewesi (2008) have criticised the UBE scheme by pointing out factors such as poor implementation strategies, poor management, and lack of proper quality assurance as being responsible for the failure to realize the goals of the UBE in Nigeria. The constant reforms that

have come with successive governments in Nigeria appear to have made little or no difference in the improvement of schools and education in general.

Violent conflicts and terrorist attacks that have occurred in Nigeria since the last decade, have adversely affected the provision of education. Moreover, due to incessant terrorist attacks, families have been rendered homeless and children rendered schoolless. The loss of property, high level of insecurity as well as traumatic experiences especially in the rural areas have jointly affected the desire for children to attend any formal school due to perpetual fear. This is coupled with the unavailability of schools as some primary schools have been turned to IDP camps while the existing few are in dilapidated conditions especially in the rural areas, a situation that has been in existence for two decades (Olaniyan and Obadara, 2008).

These displacements have led to the government providing IDPs places of shelter (IDP camps) in some instances, as a source of emergency relief. Other displaced persons have found shelter in camps they set up themselves or in shelters set up by kind-spirited individuals for these displaced families known as IDP camps. More than 63,000 IDPs are taking refuge in various camps in Plateau State some of whom are IDPs from other troubled states like Borno, Yobe, Adamawa, Taraba and Nasarawa that were displaced by the Boko Haram terrorist group. (IDMC, 2015)

However, the government's efforts to provide relief for the IDPs has focused mainly on catering for the basic needs such as provision of food, shelter, clothing, health/nutrition toiletries and beddings (Adebote, 2017). Much as this is fundamentally essential, it could be argued that assuming that IDP desire for schooling and quality education particularly, at this point, may sound and seem to be a farfetched ambition, thereby leaving the fate of the unschooled children in the camps to the winds. However, over sighting and underestimating the significance of education as a vital instrument for social and economic mobility at the personal level and a major tool for societal transformation at national level is as dangerous as over sighting other basic needs for children. As Olaniyan and Obadara (2008) argue, denying these young school aged children quality primary education is denying their foundation in life as well as their opportunity to be leaders. This might very well be a brooding camp for a catastrophic future. This therefore suggests the need to explore and come up with strategies for quality provision and improvement where necessary of basic education (UBE) in IDP camps in Nigeria, hence the emergence of RQ 2 and 3.

It is therefore on this premise that this research project stands. Its aim is to probe deep into the meaning of education quality in a refugee/IDP context, investigate the extent of UBE provision displaced children through the lens of policy and practice, consider a possible blueprint for the provision and/or improvement of refugee/IDP education, focusing on teachers as the major drivers of quality education. The study will explore alternative teacher qualifications that will

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cater for the educational needs of children in IDP camps. In Nigeria, as in the United Kingdom, progress through the key stages of childhood learning is regarded as essential preparation for every citizen's full personal life and for the satisfactory future of the national economy. Nigeria and Britain share commitment in policy to universal basic education but differ markedly in the extent to which policy is – or can be – fulfilled in practice.

Although in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), literacy education has often focused on providing reading writing, basic numeracy and occasionally, functional skills. It is common knowledge that illiteracy in Africa constitutes a major problem which must urgently be surmounted if there is to be any hope of giving African people the practical tools that are essential for life. This statement holds true especially in the case of displaced children in Nigeria who seem to be marginalised yet, whose fundamental right is the access to basic education. As such, this research points to the urgent need to combat this problem without delay, despite the doubts that some people entertain as to the prospects of its success (Macruatona, 2008); (Education cannot wait). Education challenge has further been exacerbated by the frequent upheavals that have occurred across the country in recent times to date, leaving a large number of children displaced. This has constituted a more detrimental barrier to the spread of educational equitability as children are forced to abruptly cut short their education. The Nigerian Daily Trust (June 12, 2017, Newspaper of the year 2016) reports an interview with IDPs who testified that while some of the children in few IDP camps attend school, a good number of school age children have no school to attend and no complementary forms of education provision, rather the children roam the place when they should be in school. Therefore, research question one will probe into the IDP situation to ascertain the level of basic education provision for the children in the camps.

The Internally Displaced Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2015) reported that the estimated population of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Nigeria is 2,152,000 from 207 Local Government Areas, covering 13 States in Central/Northern Nigeria. 58% of this population are children and the rest adults. A total of 77,317 IDPs are taking refuge in various camps in Plateau State. If this reality is to be measured against the UBE objectives, then it will be safe to state that the UBE is lagging in its promise to cater for eligible/school age children especially vulnerable children. Therefore, it makes it imperative to probe into the perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in an IDP context (RQ 3) and the extent of its availability (RQ 1).

Adewale (2016) conducted qualitative research on the 'Internally displaced persons and the challenges of survival in Abuja'. This case study research design involved direct unstructured interviews with 168 victims of the crisis in nine IDP camps in Abuja and other stakeholders comprising of affected community population, relevant NGOs, religious bodies, and some workers

of National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), civil rights advocates, bureaucrats, staff of international organisations, two police officers, six legal practitioners from human rights groups and a member of staff of the National Assembly. The author also observed the staff of the society for the Protection of Women Against Abuse (SOPWA) and the BringBackOurGirls (BBOG) sit-out gatherings. The data collection was conducted between June 2014 and April 2015. The research revealed that for every individual displaced by conflict/terrorist attacks in Nigeria, there exist a hundred stories of fear, maltreatment, and human anguish. Worse still, the IDPs had to flee to uncertain destinations bringing about further hardship in the everyday lives where food is as much an issue as shelter. The government's apathetic response has further aggravated the state of the camps and the findings reveal that the government is yet to acknowledge the presence of the IDPs. The camp environment is appalling, the security situation is atrocious, and these victims of violence face the constant threat of an epidemic outbreak. The findings further reveal that despite the lack of response from the government, a good number of NGOs, international organisations, religious bodies, corporate bodies, and Nigerians themselves tried to alleviate the plight of the IDPs through the provision of relief materials and offering psychological and emotional therapy. Although the natural and immediate response in emergencies is the provision of relief such as shelter, food and clothing, the author focuses only on these as though the only means of survival for the IDPs. The research dwells only on an immediate relief measure neglecting other factors such as 'education' which has a longer-term impact on the victims and even the community. In a newspaper report of an interview conducted with an IDP, the victim had this say... "It is good to donate rice, carton of noodles, blanket, mosquito net, bags of cloth but there are other things that can transform lives of IDPs permanently... we have lots of students, and some structures have been put in place for the children to learn but no materials, no teachers" (Adebote, 2017). The negative effects of these terrorist attacks have led to huge deficits in children's education and have the potential to carry over to the next generation (Akersh, 2016). Denying these children their fundamental right is tantamount to denying them their foundation in life and their opportunity to become meaningful citizens to themselves and the society. Therefore, the significance of education in emergencies cannot be overemphasised. Education is an imperative if any form of relief and hope is to be given to these victims. This situation points to the urgent need for this research work because education as a fundamental human right and its equitability should not be denied any citizen (Peterson-Dryden, 2009). It has become critical to investigate and explore the imperative need for not just 'education' but 'quality basic education.' This is because anything that is worth doing at all is worth doing well.

## 1.5 Research Aims and Research Questions

This study joined the existing and emerging literature that investigates the significance of education provision in terrorism, refugee, and displacement (conflict and post conflict) contexts, and looked specifically at the current level of UBE provision for displaced children living in IDP camps. ***It aimed to shine the light on IDP education policy and its practice; to investigate the provision of quality education in displacement contexts as well as, to explore the possible need for the provision of quality basic education or its improvement for displaced children in IDP camps.*** It also aimed at unfolding the imperative need for education provision and hoped to offer recommendations about possible alternative strategies for provision and improvement of quality basic education for displaced children in IDP camps who do not have the opportunity to attend formal schools or benefit from a formal education through the following research questions:

**RQ1.** To what extent is the provision of basic education available for displaced children?

**RQ2.** How is quality UBE perceived in an IDP context? What are the perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in IDP camps?

**RQ3.** What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs?

My research therefore focused on two main areas, policy, and quality. The discussions under the policy section centred around IDP education policy globally and in Nigeria, and the Nigerian UBE policy. Effectiveness and Improvement were the strands that characterised the quality discussion which was narrowed to teacher effectiveness and improvement.

## 1.6 Original Contribution

Although there is an increasing body of work emerging on ‘conflict and education’ (Paulson and Rappleye, 2007), there is still a gap between theory and practice. Paulson and Rappleye (2007) explain that this gap is because of a marked disconnection between the literature generated by academics and that of practitioners which is a result of disparity in focus and vision. This gap can be observed in the lack of balance of literature on refugees that outweighs the literature on IDPs; and in the actual implementation of refugee and IDP policies especially as regards education. Empirical evidence from research conducted by Ferris and Winthrop (2010, p11& 12) states that “IDPs are usually more vulnerable, less visible, and less protected than refugees”. They also add that “there

is a much larger number of international multi-lateral organisations dedicated to refugee rather than IDP education, this is despite the 27 million children and youth who lack access to education with 90% of this population being IDPs.” IDMC (2019) stressed this assertion by stating that internally displaced children are twice invisible in the global and national data unlike refugees. With 20 years of unabated displacement on record, it becomes imperative to improve the understanding of IDP situation to see the need to take urgent action (IDMC, 2019). My research will bring to light the existence and plight of IDPs, with the hope that it will flesh out into ideas that could be used to construct practical programmes which will enhance the implementation of IDP policy and practice especially with regards to UBE provision.

Ogbiji (2016) and Oyadiran (2014) uncovering the existing gap in the implementation of the UBE in Nigeria suggest that there is a gap in its practice. Findings from Adewale’s (2016) study clearly reveals an existing gap between the implementation of the UBE and policy statements. As agencies have strived to provide humanitarian response in situations of conflict and displacement, the necessity to include educational response has become apparent as a clear priority (Paulson and Rappleye. 2007). Thus, education is now viewed as the fourth pillar of humanitarian response (Machel, 2001). The salience of the above arguments ensures that educational response to conflict and displacement is increasingly understood as a crucial and immediate need. Regardless of the ongoing work in this field, Tomlison and Benefield (2005, p13) described it as contributing to a “field in its infancy”. The critical need for this research cannot therefore be overemphasised in the face of a world that the end of violence and displacement for various reasons does not appear to be in sight. This is evident in the increase of natural disasters and organised violence in the form of war, civil strife, armed conflict, and political oppression since the end of the cold war (Kagawa, 2005).

Policy was one of two core threads in this research as it aimed at probing IDP basic education policy with a view to determine its practicality. Assessing the policy and its practice revealed an existing gap and allowed room for contributions that will help to bridge this gap. The research also hoped to contribute to the academic discussion on quality education provision in emergencies and post-conflict situations. Quality was the second core thread that ran through this thesis, this is because quality education is a sine qua non just as stated in the UBE policy. The study intended also to build on the existing body of knowledge by exploring and bridging the gap between theory and practice in the field of IDP basic education. It explored flexible approaches to education and provides recommendations for how to practically proceed in situations of educational reconstruction and reforms to enable sustainable UBE for internally displaced children. This is hoped to serve as a measure for educational interventions during and after conflicts before reconstructions of proper school buildings. Therefore, my study sits more under educational provision and improvement in uncommon circumstances/IDP, refugee circumstances.

## **1.7 Thesis Structure**

This thesis is divided into six chapters with headings that guide the discussions in the various chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research and motivation for the research. It provides a description of the research background, research context, problematisation and research rationale, research aims and questions, original contribution, and a summary.

Chapter 2 contains a review of literature from the concepts that emerged from the research questions. I particularly focus on the IDP basic education policy and practice (UBE), quality education and teacher effectiveness. However, the concepts that form the framework for this thesis include, marginalisation, displacements (refugees/IDPs), educational displacement, IDP education policy and practice, UBE policy, education quality, teacher effectiveness and education improvement.

Chapter 3 proposes the methodology considered appropriate for this study which was determined by the literature reviewed and research questions posed. It explains and justifies the design choice and gives a description of data collection tools, data analysis process, and an account of the pilot study undertaken.

Chapter 4 presents the results from data collected and thematic analysing of findings from my fieldwork.

Chapter 5 contains a critical discussion of these findings presented according to the RQs with the main themes identified as sub-headings, relating the discussion with the literature review.

Chapter 6 contains the research summary, conclusions, and reflections of the research process. It offers recommendations and points the directions for future studies.

## **1.8 Summary**

This introductory chapter generally sets the scene for the basis and focus of this research. My interest in quality education provision especially at the basic education level has served as a motivating factor for this research, coupled with my observation of high levels of marginalisation that exists in Nigeria against the most vulnerable group – internally displaced children. It is one thing for these children to have witnessed high levels of terrorism, another thing to face the

devastation of losing loved and having to forcefully flee to unknown/uncertain destinations, and yet another, for this group to be neglected by the government, who according to the UN Guiding Principles should offer protection to them. Despite global clamour for EFA, MDGs, SDGs and the Nigerian UBE policy claims, basic education provision for IDPs, which is their fundamental right, appears to be a mammoth task for the Nigerian government. Incessant terrorist attacks by boko haram and Fulani herdsmen especially in Northeast and Northcentral Nigeria have further fuelled the educational attainment challenge. This chapter, therefore, has highlighted the motivation and rationale for this study. It has also identified the research problem and posed RQs which follow 'policy' and 'quality' threads that form the pathway of discussion for this research. My original contribution to the body of knowledge has also been included in this chapter to give readers a picture of my intentions. Following from this chapter, the next chapter presents some background literature about the concepts that have emerged from the RQs posed, which make up the conceptual framework of the study. This will border specifically on the concepts of displacement as it applies to refugee and IDPs, internal displacement in the Nigerian context, an assessment of the Nigerian policy for IDPs and the Universal Basic Education especially as it relates to internally displaced children residing in IDP camps. A detailed introduction is given in the next chapter to signpost the reader about what to expect in my review of literature.



## Chapter 2 Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to examine and provide an in-depth review of the concepts that have emerged from the research questions which determined the conceptual framework of this research. The concepts that have emerged in this chapter follow the two main threads that run through this study which include, 'policy' and 'quality'. These threads are made up of strands, and the strands that make up the policy thread are 'IDP Education policy' and the 'UBE policy', while the strands that make up the quality thread are teacher quality/effectiveness and improvement. Therefore, from exploring existing literature the concepts discussed have been structured to follow a sequence. The chapter begins with a focus on concepts that are a useful background to the research context, these include, marginalisation, displacements, refugees, Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), and educational displacement. The next section focuses on the policy thread therefore, IDP education policy and practice, and the Nigerian Universal Basic Education (UBE) are discussed. Lastly, education quality, teacher effectiveness, and education improvement are concepts that focus on the quality thread. However, all these concepts are interconnected and form the boundary of this study. As systems are context specific, the concepts in this chapter have been discussed in different contexts but with emphasis on the context of this research. The concepts begin from a broader perspective and narrow down to the context of this research which is IDPs in North-central and North-east Nigeria. This is hoped to provide insights into the concepts as these formed the basis in my findings and discussion chapter.

### 2.2 Marginalisation

Although, marginalisation is a concept that is saturated in current literature, it has been seldom defined (Messiou, 2012). However, concepts like inclusion, exclusion and social exclusion are often associated with marginalisation as such, the terms used interchangeably (Mowat, 2015). Whilst Hasen (2012) and Armstrong et al. (2011) agree that the concepts of inclusion and exclusion are both interrelated and interdependent, Armstrong et al. (2011), argue that to associate inclusion and exclusion as being direct opposites is superficial (cited in Mowat) stressing that, a fact about marginalisation is that it has adverse effects on societies across the world thereby, making it of global concern (Mowat, 2015). Marginalisation is perceived differently based on individual notions and varying contexts (Messiou, 2012).

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This research focuses on internally displaced children as such, the discussion in this section will centre on marginalisation in relation to displaced children and their education. This is because in current years, increasing evidence shows that large population of children and due to varying reasons are unable to access equal opportunities in education which has invariably led to their marginalisation (Booth and Ainscow, 1998a). Regardless of efforts being made to ensure that education systems resolve this inequality challenge through diverse inclusive education policies, and progress achieved, a resolution for the marginalisation phenomenon is still not in sight (Petrou et. al, 2009). The disparities in attainment and opportunity between children in many countries across the world has put them at the risk of being marginalised.

Scholars have postulated varying notions about the concept of marginalisation. Mowat (2015) perceives marginalisation as a feeling of insignificance about oneself based on an impression of being unaccepted or having the feeling of an outcast within a community as a worthless member of the society. Social exclusion is defined by Razer et al. (2013, p1152) as a state in which individuals or groups “lack effective participation in key activities or benefits of the society in which they live”. Thus, to be socially excluded is to be marginalised from that society. This perception places emphasis on not just a state but the feelings about that state. Mowat (2015) further adds that marginalisation is also evident when access to services and/or opportunities that are available to others, are denied others in the same community.

Ingutia (2020) argues that although marginalisation and inequality are interconnected, marginalisation is distinctively different from inequality. Going by the definition of UNESCO (2009), Ingutia (2020) opines that marginalisation portrays conditions of severe and incessant impediment in education which is different from the general allocation of educational opportunity. Whilst marginalisation is not a reflection of population numbers as maintained by Ingutia (2020), it has the potential to affect a large percentage of the population, especially if these are victimised and denied access to education which is their fundamental right. This statement holds true based on the IDMC report which shows that the largest population of displaced persons are school aged children who do not have access to education.

Messiou (2012, p14) postulates four ways that marginalisation can be conceptualised these include; 1) “when a child experiences some kind of marginalisation that is recognised by almost everybody including the child; 2) when a child feels that he/she is experiencing marginalisation whereas most of the others do not recognise this; 3) when a child is found in what appears to be marginalised situation but does not feel it, or does not view it as marginalisation and; 4) when a child is experiencing marginalisation but does not admit it.” The internally displaced children in this research belong to three out of these four categories in diverse ways. Internal displacement is

generally known including the hardship that accompanies it. The children are aware of this situation, how they had to flee their homes, losing everything, including family members and their education. As Dryden-Peterson (2009) revealed that, refugee/IDP children are aware that other children are better placed than they are because of their access to education while refugee/IDPs are left behind. Displaced children know that they are being marginalised and can recount their woes as Adewale (2016) explains in his article. Although, this situation is evident, the Nigerian government whose responsibility it is to protect IDPs, appears oblivious about their existence (Adewole, 2013). Due to the long-lived nature of displacement in most cases, some children, especially the very young ones, begin to view their condition as normal or their fate.

When it is discussed, it is usually in relation to the concepts of inclusion and (social) exclusion and indeed social exclusion and marginalisation appear interchangeable. Hansen (2012) and Armstrong et al. (2011) make the case that inclusion and exclusion are two interrelated and interdependent processes, however, the latter argue that it is over-simplistic to equate exclusion as being the opposite of inclusion (vice versa).

On a global level, the United Nations adopted The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015 as a universal call to action to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure that by 2030 all people enjoy peace and prosperity. The 17 SDGs are integrated – they recognise that action in one area will affect outcomes in others, and that development must balance social, economic, and environmental sustainability. Countries have committed to prioritise for those who are furthest behind. The SDGs are designed to end poverty, hunger, AIDS, and marginalisation.

Goal number four from the 17 SDGs goes beyond school enrolment and focuses on providing access to quality education for all primary and secondary age children by the year 2030. However, this goal appears to be impeded in Africa especially, owing to the population of out-of-school (OOSC) children largely from disadvantaged backgrounds e.g., poverty, disabled, orphaned, minority, child-brides, etc. Rather than achieving the target of ‘no child left behind’, it looks more like a case of ‘most children left behind’. Comparisons across gender, residence and regions indicate marginalisation in education systems characterised by low preschool education, inefficient primary schools evidenced by insufficient inputs, untrained, poorly paid teachers, and biased public expenditure. OOSC face a range of circumstances therefore, to meet SDGs targets, requires solutions to specific cases; one size will not fit all, since OOSC are trapped in a web of multiple problems (Ingutia, 2020).

Evidence continues to show that many children are marginalised due to a lack of equal opportunities to access education. Despite the efforts made by many education systems to close this gap through diverse policy statements, marginalisation continues to be an unresolved

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problem (Petrou et al. 2009). Vulnerable children, especially internally displaced children experience excessive adverse levels of marginalisation in areas of social exclusion (Petrou et al., 2009; Mowat, 2015). This makes the effort to end marginalisation comparable to raising an umbrella against a storm.

Ingutia's (2020) empirical article which addresses the question whether marginalisation in education stalls the progress of sustainable development asserts that education is a critical factor for developing both life and the necessary skills for livelihood as well as opening opportunities and has the capacity to reconstruct a society in a single generation. However, Ingutia (2020), further argues that marginalisation in education has constituted a huge barrier to the actualisation of the SDGs, specifically the fourth goal which targets the accessibility of inclusive primary and secondary education for all by 2030. In Africa, this vision appears farfetched as the continent is still grappling with achieving the MDGs which targeted universal primary education for all by the year 2015. In Nigeria, particularly, over two decades later, universal education is still far from reach due to heightened marginalisation that exist. It has been reported in the A4ID legal guide that UNESCO in 2015, acknowledged that results from 15 years of monitoring reveals that neither the MDG 2 nor EFA goals were met by all countries that submitted their data.

Although Ingutia's paper (2020) reports that the MDGs made immense progress in the world claiming the decline in out of school children and the rise in enrolment rate, the paper discusses education for all both through MDGs and SDGs but fails to capture IDPs who constitute a large population due to incessant displacements. This situation raises concern whether education is indeed for all thus, the article itself marginalises the IDPs/refugees. IDPs/refugees suffer high levels of marginalisation, but the question is, why should displacement be a reason to be marginalised?

### **2.3 Displacement**

Displacement is the action of moving something from its place or position. In the context of this research, displacement is the voluntary or involuntary movement of persons from their homes, countries, or places of heritage. "Displaced persons under international law are persons or group of persons who have been forced or obligated to flee or have cause to leave their homes or place of habitual residence in particular, as a result of or in order to avoid the effect of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights or human-made disasters, and they must have either remained within their national borders which is referred to as internally displaced persons or they must have crossed an internationally recognised state border in which case they are referred to as refugees" as such, there are two categories of displacements these include,

Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) (Tajudeen and Fadeyi, 2013, p2). Flight or displacement is a time-tested coping strategy for escaping the effects of conflict. This usually results from a feeling of insecurity and when other coping strategies fail (Ferris and Winthrop, 2010). The war in Iraq proves this assertion as many Iraqi professors who were threatened to be killed by militia fled the country after 500 of them were murdered (Jones et al., 2022). Ferris and Winthrop (2010) have also highlighted 3 basic ways in which conflicts displace people. These include; when caught in the crossfire of disputes between insurgent groups and government forces or may even flee in anticipation of conflicts. Another way conflicts displace people is when displacement is an explicit strategy or intent of an armed group. Lastly, they add that displacements occur in conflict areas because of the resultant effect of economic and social life disruption.

One of the most catastrophic occurrences of our modern times is the internal displacement of several millions of persons around the world (IHL, 2017). The total number of displaced persons is currently estimated around fifty million worldwide, with the majority of these people in Africa and Asia. Displacements have become a serious and persistent problem particularly in Africa, its gravity has led to a total of 12.6 million persons displaced in various countries of Africa, making the continent account for 40% of global displacements (IDMC, 2017). The number of people fleeing their homes has increased dramatically over the years. The IDMC (2019) further reported about 10.8 million new displacements worldwide between January to June 2019, 7 million caused by disasters while 3.8 million by conflict and disasters. Of these new displacements, Syria recorded 804, 000, The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) recorded 718,000, Yemen had 282,000, Afghanistan had 213,000 for example. African countries like the DRC, Ethiopia, Nigeria, and South Sudan were particularly affected, having the highest number of new displacements in the first half of 2019. In Nigeria, an uncertain number of 140,000 new displacements were recorded.

Displacements are generally caused by several factors which are in-exhaustive. Displacements can occur for reasons such as, natural disasters, violation of human rights, civil unrests, climate change, etc. Displacement in Nigeria is a common result of both communal violence and internal armed conflicts. While some appear to be caused by religious or ethnic differences, benefits of a political, social, and economic nature are generally behind the violence in the country with endemic poverty, low levels of education and a huge and alienated youth population (Tajudeen and Fadeyi, 2013).

Displacements usually have effects such as traumatic experiences with violent conflicts, gross violations of human rights and related causes in which discrimination features significantly. Displacement often leads to acute hardship and suffering for the affected populations. Some of the most tragic consequences of displacement is that it breaks up families, cuts social and cultural ties, terminates stable and reliable employment relationships, disrupts educational opportunities,

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denies access to such fundamental essentials as food, shelter, and medicine. Whether these innocent persons cluster up in camps or find some other means of escape, they usually face appalling acts such as violence due to attacks on the camps, kidnapping, and rape. These conditions make the internally displaced some of the most vulnerable populations who desperately need protection and intervention (IHL,2017).

While the end of displacements may not be in sight, Ferris, and Winthrop (2010), have alluded to 3 durable solutions for refugees: voluntary repatriation to their country of origin, local integration in the host country of current residence or resettlement to a third country. Ferris and Winthrop (2010) also stated that like refugees, IDPs have similar durable solutions; return to community of residence, local integration in their current place of displacement or settlement in another part of the country.

### **2.3.1 Refugees**

Some scholars believe that the 'refugee' phenomenon dates to the proverbial expulsion of Adam and Eve from the Garden of Eden (Grahl-Madsen, 1966; Lee, 1984). The concept of 'refuge' from which the word 'refugee' was derived, initially referred to cultural factors rather than to territorial boundaries. Due to the insignificance of 'boundaries' as a critical influencer of the refugee status at the time, internally displaced persons in China during the Japan's invasion of China in the 1930s and 40s were considered 'refugees' in American official communications. It was not until 1648 that the Peace of Westphalia set the stage for the modern nation-state system with its emphasis on territorial boundaries (Gross, 1948).

The second paragraph of article 1 of the OAU Convention states, "the term refugee shall also apply to every person, who, owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or whole of his (or her) country of origin or nationality, is compelled to leave his (or her) place of habitual residence in order to seek refuge in another place outside his (or her) country of origin or nationality."

The Cartagena Declaration defines the term 'refugee' as "persons who have fled their countries because their lives, safety or freedom have been threatened by generalised violence, foreign aggression, internal conflicts, massive violations of human rights or other circumstances which have seriously disturbed public order" (UNHCR, 1995).

The 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol relating to the status of Refugees, the 1969 OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, and similarly, the 1984

Cartagena Declaration all retain the crossing of national borders as the yardstick for defining what a 'refugee' status is.

### **2.3.2 Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)**

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) have in current times become a global concern. This is due to the presence of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) in countries all over the world, from Africa, Asia, Europe, America, etc. It has been estimated that about 25 to 27 million IDPs worldwide have remained within national borders (Akume, 2015). This global dimension of IDPs has evoked international efforts targeted at evolving the right solution to manage the problem although this has yielded very insignificant success.

The United Nations defines IDPs as "...persons who have been forced to flee their homes suddenly or unexpectedly in large numbers, as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of human rights or natural or man-made disasters, and who are within the territory of their own country." Aloba and Obaji (2016) have criticised this definition by claiming its narrowness in terms of its quantitative and time qualifiers. They argue that in some cases, IDPs escape in drips and drabs not necessarily in droves making them less visible like in Colombia, Iraq, Nigeria, etc. They also state that IDPs are not always 'forced to flee' as it is the case with Burma, Iraq, and Ethiopia where large number of people were forcibly moved by their government on political and ethnic grounds. They argue that these people did not flee and suggest that they should be explicitly included as internally displaced.

Since the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement were presented to the UN Commission on Human Rights in 1998, there has been important progress on preventing, responding to, and finding solutions to internal displacement. Internal displacement nevertheless remains a significant global issue and solutions remain elusive for most internally displaced persons (IDPs). The experience of internal displacement is traumatic, life-changing, and frequently life-threatening. Each person displaced has lost access not only to the home that offered shelter but also to security, dignity, cherished possessions, livelihoods, memories, and a sense of belonging and community. For children, the experience can be particularly traumatic and confusing, often leading to long-lasting psychosocial issues and difficulties that commonly go untreated. Deprived of education, stability, and routine often for months or years, it is no exaggeration to speak of a lost generation of young people in some situations. Too often, displaced women and girls experience the further atrocity of sexual violence, exploitation, or the threat of violence. And there is increasing evidence that sexual violence against displaced men and boys may be far more widespread than was previously understood. For older people with strong ties to their homes and

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who often have weaker coping mechanisms than the young, the experience can be shocking and disorientating. For those with disabilities, the experience can bring immense problems, sometimes relating to their mobility or their ability to access basic assistance and services. It is imperative that internal displacement is understood, not only in terms of a particular challenge facing a few States afflicted by conflict, violence, or disaster, or as an issue solely of the internal affairs of States, but as a regional and, ultimately, a global issue that has implications for many countries.

According to Ferris and Winthrop (2011), as much as refugees and IDPs share differences based on their definitions, there exist evident similarities between them. Both refugees and IDPs experience a sense of loss and trauma, hardships in starting a new life in a new community, a feeling of uncertainties about the future and the challenges of coming up with sustainable solutions.

Table 1: Comparison of Refugees and IDPs

Areas of Comparison	Refugees	IDPs
<b>Global Number</b>	14 million	26 million (conflict-affected)
<b>Legal basis</b>	1951 Convention and 1967 Protocol	1998 Guiding Principles
<b>Primary Responsibility</b>	Host governments UNHCR	National Authorities
<b>Institutions providing protection</b>	Host governments UNHCR	National Authorities
<b>Regional instruments</b>	OAU 1969, Acuerdo de Cartagena	AU Convention, 2009
<b>Durable solutions</b>	Voluntary repatriation Local integration Resettlement to a third country	Return Local integration Settlement in a different part of the country

This study focuses mainly on internally displaced children who have been displaced by conflict or terrorist attacks and now reside in IDP camps which has for many children, resulted to educational displacement.

### 2.3.3 Educational Displacement

The fact that education is a fundamental right and a tool for socioeconomic development cannot be over-emphasised. Regardless of this significant role that education plays in the life of individuals and the society, a growing population of children who's right it is to be provided the promised universal, compulsory, and free basic education are faced with untold hardship due to displacements that have invariably attacked their education. Displacements are usually accompanied by huge losses of places of heritage, education, family, properties etc. Bothe, Olness and Reyes (2018) assert that by the end of 2016, the number of people forcibly displaced from their homes globally was estimated at 65.6 million. Refugees constituted 22.5 million of that number and out of the 22.5 million refugees, more than half of this number comprised children below the age of 18. They add that with ongoing conflicts and a rise in natural disasters, the statistics are continuously changing, making it hard to have a precise number. Displacements have led to children becoming orphans in some cases as well as losing a sense of home and identity.

Murphy (2011) asserts that homelessness has the potential to cause adverse effects on children's educational achievement and attainment. Sullivan & Knutson (2000) concur with Murphy (2011) by stating that homeless children face academic impediment. In few cases where they attend school, these children are academically disadvantaged (Gibbs, 2004), and are at risk of becoming academic victims (Masten et al., 1997).

The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD, 2009) cited in Murphy (2011, p39) define 'homeless' or 'homeless individual/person' as "an individual who lacks a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence; and an individual who has a primary nighttime residence that is a supervised publicly or privately operated shelter designed to provide temporary living accommodation (including welfare hotels, congregate shelters, and transitional housing for the mentally ill)." The IDPs in this research are homeless persons who by virtue of living in IDP camps, have a primary nighttime residence that is supervised by camp managers to give temporary living accommodation. The consequences of loss of home and/or loved ones threatens children's mental health (Bothe et al., 2018) due to the absence of parental support. This can potentially result in malnutrition, social vices and ultimately dropping out from school.

It goes without saying that these conditions have severe consequences on the physical, emotional, and social wellbeing of children. Displacements have plunged many families into homelessness thereby, sabotaging educational access of their children (Rafferty, 1995). Stronge and Hudson (1999) summarise this by alluding that homeless children suffer the most from educational inaccessibility/displacements than any other population, and this is usually accompanied by an already existing meagre chance to attain academic success (Nunez, 1994b).

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This sadly, has a lasting effect as it transcends to adulthood and a major cause of instability compared to their peers who grew in stable circumstances (Penuel & Davey, 1998).

Scholars who investigate homelessness have consistently confirmed the harmful relationship between mobility and educational success (Medcalf, 2008; Nunez & Collignon, 1997). They observed that the high rates of mobility associated with homelessness consistently damage attempts to obtain consistent education (National Center on Family Homelessness, 2009). They documented that mobility “is one of the greatest barriers to educational achievement” (Penuel & Davey, 1998, p.9), and the loss of time is one of the major challenges of mobility. Educational displacement takes different forms in different contexts.

In China’s context, mandatory mobility within the national borders because of the 1958 socialist legacy of the hokou (household registration) constituted a major cause for educational displacement. Second-generation youth who grew up in cities where their parents adopted as places of residence, were compelled to migrate to rural areas of their birth to further their education. This was the only condition for these migrant students to take the standardised enrollment tests for entry into academic high school and university and they had access to these tests only if they returned to their registered households (Ling, 2017). It took these over 35 million migrant youth over three decades to internally migrate.

Educational displacement in Nepal resulted from the emergence of the Maoist rebellion which converted the country into a battlefield claiming the lives of over 13,347 people (INSEC, 2007), recording irreversible social, educational, and economic damage before the country’s Comprehensive Peace Accord (CPA) was signed in 2006. While in Sub-Saharan Africa, the events that have resulted to conflict and educational displacement are common in nature. In Somaliland (formerly the British Protectorate of Northwest Somalia) tagged as one of the most disadvantaged countries in Africa situated in East Africa, civil unrest led to high levels of educational displacements. Since 1991, following civil conflict and the collapse of the Somali State, about half a million out of a population estimated at 2 million (UNICEF, 1997b) Somalilanders are believed to be displaced as refugees in neighbouring countries or working overseas (Bekalo, Brophy and Welford, 2003). In Rwanda, the 1994 genocide had its toll on education, leading to educational displacement (Mattina, 2018).

In the Nigerian context displacements have become a daily occurrence either caused by, boko haram Islamic terrorists or fulani herdsmen terrorists’ groups, leading to educational displacements for a large population of children. Onapajo (2020) asserts that although children are worst hit, literature on conflict and the policy directions do not accord the required regard for children, making their perspective microscopic. As stated previously, boko haram’s target is the

destruction of the Nigerian education system. However, regardless the difference in the form of displacement in the different contexts, there are themes or commonalities they share in terms of consequences which are captured in the themes below.

### **2.3.3.1 Forceful Displacement**

In all the contexts, persons have been forced to leave their places of habitual residence or heritage to unfamiliar places characterised by high levels of uncertainty and massive disruption of schooling. The migration process in China further proves the assertion of Penuel and Davey (1998) about the negative impact of mobility as over three decades was a huge loss of educational time (Ling, 2017). These youth could very well be described as IDPs and educationally displaced by virtue of Alobo and Obaji's (2016) argument that IDPs are not always 'forced to flee', they have been forcibly moved by their government on ethnic grounds. In Nepal, due to the violent conflicts especially targeted at educational institutions, about 3000 teachers were displaced from schools in rural areas which had a direct implication on the education of an estimated 100, 000 students. In Somaliland, the civil war compelled teachers, students, and the educated elite to disperse and evacuate the country. There was a lack of schools for children to attend, which resulted to the whole school population remaining illiterate and innumerate. In Nigeria, the boko haram and Fulani herdsmen terrorist have also been responsible for mass displacements and abduction of school children, especially girls (Bertoni et al., 2019).

### **2.3.3.2 Fear and Uncertainties**

Educational displacements in all contexts bring about hardship, fear and anxiety born out of the glaring uncertainties. For the migrant students in China, the journeys back to the rural areas were characterised by high levels of anxiety and dispiritedness for reasons such as, students having to break away from their parents too early, the barricade posed by a new curriculum, textbooks, examination due to regional difference. This situation, therefore, makes anticipated attainability questionable, considering the challenges of surmounting the rural-urban relationships alongside acclimatising in the new school environment in their registered hometowns (Ling, 2017), presenting issues of marginalisation (Messiou, 2012). In Nepal, some children were abducted from school and recruited by warring groups, some parents were compelled to withdraw their children from school for fear, while teachers reported their enthusiasm and energy ran out due to mental pressure that reduced their interest in teaching students (Pherali's, 2013). Literature points to the fact that violent conflicts are always characterised by a sense of fear and uncertainties.

### 2.3.3.3 Violence and Mass Destruction

High levels of violence and massive destruction always accompany conflicts that lead to educational displacement. Whilst the student migrants in China suffered mental and emotional violence, and possibly inability to attain desired education goals, conflicts in the other contexts resulted in mass destruction of lives and educational institutions. In Nepal, according to Pherali's (2013) findings in his research that examined the impact of armed conflict on education, reported that more than 79 schools, one university and 13 district education offices were destroyed. Schools were also targeted by security personnel who arrested, tortured, and even killed teachers and school children they perceived as being Maoist activists or sympathisers. A total of 145 teachers were killed by both warring parties or caught in crossfire between warring groups, which claimed their lives, school premises were subjugated by both warring parties and converted into military shelters or military barracks preventing any teaching and learning. Like Nepal, Yemen and Syria have experienced heightened conflicts which have led to about 2.4 million Syrians (18% school age children) out of school as of 2021. While in Yemen, one out of five children are out of school (UNICEF, 2021; HNO, 2022). The circumstances in Somaliland were like that of Nepal in terms of violent conflicts although, findings by Bekalo et al.'s (2003) research revealed that educational development was already on a decline and access to school was beyond a majority even before the outbreak of the civil war. However, during the civil war, the country recorded a massive destruction of education from late 1980s to early 1990 when the devastating civil war added the final blow to the already collapsing education system and other civil service sectors. Over 90% of schools that were in existence before the civil conflict were destroyed or gravely damaged. Nearly every formal learning system stopped operating in Somaliland. In Rwanda, the 1994 genocide had its toll on education as it shortened the years of schooling for the persons who were children at the time of the conflict (Mattina, 2018).

In more recent research undertaken by Bertoni et al. (2019) on the impact of boko haram conflict on education in north-east Nigeria, they estimate the consequences of this insurgencies on the educational outcomes of individuals who reside in the affected areas. These include disruption of educational access and other social services, terrorising or killing teachers and the destruction of some schools while others converted into IDP camps. These conflicts lead to a decline in school enrolment and reduce the number of years to complete education, making students who are no longer of compulsory school age to be most affected.

The impact of armed conflicts is evident in the immediate collapse of education (Jones et al., 2022). Most displacement crises last for years, if not decades, the total number of forcibly displaced persons has also increased, although, in international and non-international armed

conflicts, children are entitled to special respect and protection, including access to education (CIHL Rule 135). The question worth asking however, is whether that entitlement is truly actualised. Educational displacement has continued to be prevalent due to protracted conflicts, civil unrests and other factors that cause displacement, as the case is in Nigeria though in the face of laudable policy promises. It will be worthwhile at this juncture to probe and investigate the policy statements and practice of the IDPs.

#### **2.3.4 IDP Education: Policy and Practice**

Education is a fundamental right of every child cannot be overemphasised. In fact, it is in this light that the 'no child left behind' policy mandates that this right is ensured. In the same vein, the Nigeria's UBE policy in carrying out the mandate, promises to provide universal, compulsory, and free basic education for every school age child. To assess the implementation of this mandate, it is pertinent to examine the IDP education policy from a global perspective and then narrow down to Nigeria's IDP education policy, focusing particularly on the UBE policy, to enable an assessment of the policy as well as, evaluate its practice in a displacement context.

There is no universal, legally binding instrument equivalent to the 1951 Refugee Convention that specifically addresses their plight (IHL, 2017). The plight of IDPs has only recently started to receive serious international attention, although the United Nations Convention has been dealing with refugee issues for close to half a century. Hitherto, attention was principally on refugees as defined by various international conventions and protocols (Ibeanu, 1999). As a result of the increasing international awareness of the plight of the internally displaced, the Secretary-General of the United Nations appointed representatives to investigate different aspects of internal displacements which included causes and consequences, status of the internally displaced in international law, extent of coverage accorded them and possible avenues their protection and aid could be improved. Therefore, IDPs are now protected by international human rights law and domestic law and, in situations of armed conflict, by international humanitarian law (IHL, 2018) hence, the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.

The UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement gives practical regulations, particularly on displacement. They have been embraced by the international community as well as being included in domestic law in many States. Many of the rules contained in the Guiding Principles are part and parcel of international human rights law and international humanitarian law. The Guiding Principles constitute the key international standard on internal displacement. They provide a definition of an IDP and set out IDPs' rights to be protected and assisted before and during

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displacement and in their search for durable solutions following displacement. They give national authorities the primary responsibility for protecting IDPs and clarify key principles relating to humanitarian assistance provided by international and non-governmental bodies.

Under IHL, people are protected from and during displacement as civilians, provided they do not take a direct part in hostilities. IHL plays an important part in preventing displacement in the first place. It prohibits the displacement of people except if it is necessary for imperative military reasons or the protection of the civilians themselves. A widespread or systematic policy of displacement of civilians without such justification constitutes a crime against humanity. There are many other rules of IHL, notably those governing the conduct of hostilities, that are crucial to protect the civilian population and whose violations often triggers displacement (Jimenez-Damary, 2018).

Having gotten an overview of the global/international Guiding Principles on Internal displacement, it is pertinent to zoom in on the Nigerian policy for IDP basic education and its level of implementation. It is, however, necessary to first have a clear picture of IDP situation in the Nigerian context.

### **2.4 IDPs and the Nigerian Context**

As discussed, shown above (Section 2.3.3), displacement has now become a global phenomenon however, in Africa, Nigeria accounts for a large proportion of IDPs, worthy of note is the numerical rise of IDPs between 2013 and 2015 to about 5 million (Adamu and Rasheed, 2016); hence the challenge of seeking appropriate intervention measures to the fluctuating large numbers of IDPs (Akume, 2015, Adewale, 2016). Nigeria has continued to face different crises over the years since gaining independence in 1960. The Nigerian State has borne the brunt of a dramatic upsurge in ethnic militias, particularly since the restoration of the civil governance. Their names are often as frightening as their proclaimed objectives: the maitatsine, Egbesu Boys of Africa, the Oodua People's Congress (OPC), The Movement for the Actualisation of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB), the Niger Delta Militants, and recently, the Boko Haram (Adewale, 2016). During the Biafra civil war, which lasted from 1967 to 1970 for instance, 2 million people died and another 10 million were displaced (Ibeanu, 1999). These crises have been triggered by various reasons and have brought about huge challenges which are like those discussed in countries like Nepal, Somalia, etc (section 2.3.3). This section will focus on key messages that discuss IDPs in the Nigerian context under the following subheadings.

### **2.4.1 Causes of Displacement**

Several factors are responsible for forced displacement which invariably leads to educational displacement. The Internal Displaced Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2019) opine that, the drivers of displacement in Nigeria are multi-faceted, complex, and often overlapping. In the north-east, the emergence of the militant Islamist group, Boko Haram, has caused large numbers of displacements since 2009 (Bertoni et al., 2019). In the Middle Belt region, terrorist attacks by Fulani herdsmen on local farmers has caused tensions, culminating in significant levels of violence and displacement, and conflict has also emerged in several States in the Northwest, linked to banditry and criminal violence. Flooding is also a factor that displaces thousands of people every year. The ethnic diversity that exists in the country has further complicated the possibility for harmonious coexistence thereby, giving rise to eruptions of hostility which has invariably led to involuntary displacements.

### **2.4.2 Forced Displacement**

With crises always comes forced displacements, this is the usual trend whether civil wars, terrorist attacks or natural disasters. The IDMC (2019) report the number of new displacements in Nigeria from January 1 to December 31, 2018, as follows; 613, 000 people were displaced from disasters, 514,000 were displaced from conflict and violence, making the total number of displaced 2,216,000. Out of this population, 311,000 have made partial progress towards a durable solution. In the first half of 2019, about 142,000 new displacements were recorded, 140,000 by conflict and 2,000 by disasters. Adewale (2016) in his article on 'Internally displaced persons and the challenges of survival in Abuja' stated that, 1,235,300 people forced to flee their homes in Nigeria were still living in internal displacement camps. This figure includes people displaced because of brutal attack by the Islamist armed group boko haram in north-eastern Nigeria, the government-led counterinsurgency operations against the group, ongoing terrorist attacks, inter-communal conflict, and disasters. This figure reveals the level of vulnerability and helplessness of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Nigeria and characterises the misery of numerous Nigerians who have been displaced due to crises. The alarming rate of insecurity in Nigeria has further fuelled crime rate and terrorists' attacks in different parts of the country leaving people especially those in the middle belt (North-Central) and the Northern-eastern region in an unpalatable state of homelessness.

### **2.4.3 Violence and Mass Destruction**

The causes of displacement may be different in different contexts as discussed in section 2.3.3 and in the Nigerian context however, the consequences of crises appear to be similar across board. The Boko Haram and Fulani herdsman terrorists have had a catastrophic consequence on the inhabitants of hitherto relatively peaceful Nigeria. Families have lost homes, livelihoods have been utterly destroyed, dreams have been shattered and numerous girls have been placed at risk of teenage marriage (Adewale, 2016). Bertoni et al. (2019) from their research findings, revealed effects of the boko haram insurgencies in Northeast Nigeria as severance of educational access and other social services, the threatening and killings of teachers and destruction of schools which have brought about fear and a massive drop in school enrolment and attendance. Conflicts and insecurity commonly lead to violence which is a principal factor that leads to population displacements in societies thereby, making conflicts and insecurity, two sides of the same coin (Ibeanu, 1999). Security, therefore, is a critical factor for combating conflicts however, IDPs in Nigeria face high levels of insecurity issues especially women and girls who face daily rape attacks. Adamu and Rasheed (2016) concur to this assertion by stating that insecurity in any environment constitutes a threat to lives and properties and further added that the insecurity in Nigeria as a whole has left the country in serious danger.

### **2.4.4 Hardships, Fear and Uncertainties**

Like it is in other contexts discussed, IDPs in Nigeria are faced with untold hardships, pathetic stories and because they usually lack any form of organization, they are unable to compel the State to give them protection (Ibeanu, 1999). The condition of the IDPs is one that is characterised by numerous challenges as Akuto (2017) enumerates. These challenges include trauma and bitterness due to the painful separation from their loved ones and the loss of their normal lives; hunger and starvation, a result of acute poverty; acute malnutrition IDPs face has led to deaths in some cases; sexually transmitted diseases are prevalent, from rape attacks women and girls encounter. In the area of education, IDPs are confronted with the challenge of educating their children, this has been made more difficult due to their floating nature and the lack of education

provision; on rights of IDPs, the predicament of the IDPs is further heightened as the international community is unable to reach them because they are within the borders of their country; on shelter/accommodation, IDPs in Nigeria find shelter in schools, tents, town halls, churches, mosques, etc.; IDPs suffer poor waste management facilities and most times lack electricity supply which gives rise to regular epidemic cases, increase in insecurity as well as, lack of good water supply.

Adewale's (2016) qualitative research was found useful in my study due to its rigorous nature in including all the stakeholders and the relevant government apparatus related to displacement issues. It was a case study that involved direct unstructured interviews with 168 victims of the crisis in nine IDP camps in Abuja and other stakeholders comprising of affected community population, relevant NGOs, religious bodies, and some workers of National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), civil rights advocates, bureaucrats, staff of international organisations, two police officers, six legal practitioners from human rights groups and a member of staff of the National Assembly. The author also observed the staff of the society for the Protection of Women Against Abuse (SOPWA) and the BringBackOurGirls (BBOG) sit-out gatherings. The BBOG campaign was targeted at running various activities like sit-out gatherings, peaceful demonstrations, television/radio campaigns etc for the rescue of the 276 Chibok girls who were abducted from school by the boko haram terrorist group on April 14, 2014. The data collection was conducted between June 2014 and April 2015. The research revealed that for every individual displaced by conflict in Nigeria, there exist a hundred stories of fear, maltreatment, and human anguish. Worse still, the IDPs had to flee to uncertain destinations bringing about further hardship in the everyday lives where food is as much an issue as shelter. Adewale (2016) adds that the camp environment is appalling, the security situation is atrocious, and these victims of violence face the constant threat of an epidemic outbreak.

#### **2.4.5 Government Negligence**

The Nigerian Government's negligence probably accounts for the large proportion of IDPs in Nigeria compared to other African countries (Adamu and Rasheed, 2016). While at international level, displaced people are receiving more prominence, paradoxically in Nigeria they are becoming increasingly concealed. Adewole (2013) conducted qualitative research which aimed at evaluating the state of internally displaced persons in Nigeria and examine the quantum leap and systematic loss of lives and properties in the country in recent times. The major findings revealed neglects on the part of the State apparatus in ensuring better, effective, and functional policies.

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The author opines that the magnitude of such neglect is capable of threatening national cohesion of the country and endangering high rate of internally displaced persons across the country.

Internal population displacement, therefore, has become increasingly masked in Nigeria. The reasons for this according to Ibeanu, (1999) are, however, evident. Firstly, government have a penchant to downplay the severity of population displacement generally. In cases where they reluctantly acknowledge the existence of displaced people, their inclination is to declare small numbers, make pretences of aiding and quickly claim the successful resettlement of affected people. Second, wider Nigerian society indirectly masks IDPs due to the effectiveness of familial and communal networks which helps to absorb them as well as they support of community, clan, and Pan-ethnic organisations. Although this support is commendable, it has its drawbacks which is in the fact that many of these victims nurse a deep sense of loss and dislocation. Third, lack of organisation among displaced persons serves to keep their plight muted.

Government's apathetic response as described by Adewale (2016) from findings, has further aggravated the state of the camps and revealed that the government is yet to acknowledge the presence of the IDPs. The findings further reveal that despite the lack of response from the government, several NGOs, international organisations, religious bodies, corporate bodies, and Nigerians themselves tried to alleviate the plight of the IDPs through the provision of relief materials and offering psychological and emotional therapy.

Internal displacement clearly results in educational displacements as children are cut off completely from school attendance in most cases leading to high levels of marginalisation (Messiou, 2012). This gross violation of human rights which led to the emergence of the UN Guiding principles was aimed at providing relevant guidelines to nations on the protection and assistance of IDPs. It will be worthwhile to first probe and investigate the education policy statements and practice of the IDPs since the main aim of this research is to shine the light on the education policy and practice for IDPs in Nigeria.

### **2.5 Nigerian Policy on IDP Education**

Who protects the rights of the internally displaced in Nigeria? This is a burdensome question considering the State's proclivity to deny the very existence of the internally displaced as such, protecting them cannot be one of its priorities (Ibeanu, 1999).

Several countries affected by internal displacement have adopted the Guiding Principles as policies on national level. Angola was the first African country to incorporate the Guiding

Principles into domestic legislation with standards for the resettlement of displaced population adopted in 2001. This was in anticipation of the end of existing conflict in the country and was also a measure for durable solutions for the displaced. These standards were targeted at the protection and assistance of IDPs during their resettlement, including providing public infrastructure such as schools which must be allocated in areas of settlement. The Angolan policy also asserts that all returns must be voluntary and occur in conditions of safety (Tajudeen and Fadeyi, 2013).

In 2010, the Nigerian government asked the help of the United Nations to carry out a profiling exercise that would provide a clearer picture of the number and situations of the IDPs in the country (UN, 2010). In West Africa, Nigeria set the process of developing a policy on internal displacement, a recent draft of which reveals the comprehensive concern that Nigeria takes on displacement, addressing all its probable causes, including conflict, natural disaster, and development project (Tajudeen and Fadeyi, 2013).

In theory, the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria specifically states that “The security and welfare of the displaced people shall be the primary concern of the government” (FRN, 1999) (Ibeanu, 1999). This policy statement is questionable in the face of the alarming rate of increased insecurity in all parts of the country, especially in the North-central and North-eastern regions. Bertoni et al. (2019) who researched the effects of Boko Haram insurgencies on educational outcomes of individuals residing in North-East Nigeria revealed that exposure to these conflicts impact heavily on school enrolment, especially for students whose schooling was cut short until they fell out of the group for whom school is compulsory and free. The result of this, as they claim, is a further heightening of unequal access to education which invariably reflects in income inequalities. As for Olanrewaju et al. (2019), the Nigerian government is not sincere in the proclamations made (FRN, 1999), they assert that the government has deliberately neglected its responsibility to IDPs. They arrived at this evidence from interviewing camp coordinators in North-East Nigeria.

Population displacement is a problem of the State as such, in modern societies it is the State that frames, focuses and mediates social hostility (Ibeanu, 1999). The Federal Republic of Nigeria was compelled to embark on a search for durable solutions through the drafting of a National Policy on IDPs. This was after the country had recorded visibly substantial number of IDPs who are scattered across various States. However, the National Policy on IDPs in Nigeria states that there is no reliable database providing a comprehensive profile of IDPs in Nigeria. It has been acknowledged however, that children constitute the largest number of this displaced population as discussed above (IDMC, 2015). Therefore, due to the focus of this research which is internally

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displaced children and the provision of quality basic education for those residing in IDP camps, the policy statements provided in this section will only reflect those concerned with displaced children and their education.

The Nigerian Policy on IDPs begins with an acknowledgement of the fact that all displaced persons have a variety of needs in the short, medium, and long term that require being met. One of the needs highlighted, is the need for education of displaced children. The Policy provision states that due to destruction of schools during conflicts and disasters, the relevant government bodies will be responsible for ensuring that displaced children in camps are relocated to neighbouring schools. The Policy further promises the provision of instructional materials and teaching aids as well as providing informal trainings which will include livelihood skills training where formal education is not within reach. This will give particular focus on the girl-child. The Policy also offers to cater for the welfare of displaced children by creating child-friendly spaces that will aid the integration of children as well as offer psycho-social support for children who are traumatised. Lastly, the Policy promises to ensure safety and security of all internally displaced children.

These Policy statements in themselves appear praiseworthy however, it is a question of whether this Policy has been translated from mere theoretical statements to actual practicable experiences. From a scrutiny of literature, it appears that the Policy statements stand far apart from the reality on ground. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) postulate that implementation is a part of policy making, this is because a sharp divide does not exist between policy formulation and policy implementation. It is the implementation stage that influences and proves if the intended policy outcomes have been realised. Howlett and Ramesh (2003) buttress this assertion by adding that the policy implementation stage is the point where policy statements and plans are converted into practical actions. Although education provision and 'quality' basic education have been at the heart of every government in Nigeria, it has constantly suffered setbacks that have now increased due to the emergence of conflicts and displacements, threatening the actualisation of the UBE policy which is Nigeria's basic education policy. With the Nigerian Policy on IDPs acknowledging the need for IDPs to have access to education, promising to relocate IDPs to neighbouring schools, provide instructional resources, amongst others, emphasises the key role of the teachers, as it is they who are at the centre of the education process, ensuring the practicality of the policy statements. Sadly, as significant as teachers are in the education system, they have constantly been relegated to the background on the table of policy making on educational matters. Kim and Rouse (2011) agree and argue that although teachers are key in achieving quality education, the EFA policy does not recognise them as active participants of this process thereby, accounting for one of the barriers to achieving the desired outcome. It is essential however, that the policy

focuses on teachers as well since they are the facilitators of quality education especially in an IDP context, to ensure quality education provision for the displaced children.

The Nigerian UBE Policy is a commendable move towards achieving the ‘no child left behind’ mandate and the development and improvement of quality basic education for ‘every’ Nigerian child. It is one of the legs my research stands and my unit of analysis since it is the policy that guides the provision of ‘basic education’ in Nigeria. This research is a single case study because it focuses on displaced children residing in IDP camps in Nigeria, and the enactment of the UBE policy in that context (refer to Section 3.2.2 for more detailed explanation). Therefore, it is apt to peruse this UBE policy for a clear understanding of its provision and practicality especially as it relates to displaced children.

## **2.6 Universal Basic Education (UBE) Policy**

In a bid to ensure the EFA mandate, the Philippine government resolved, like other nations, its commitment to provide education to every citizen in a programme tagged, Philippine Education for All 2015 led by the Department of Education. The objectives were two-fold, to ensure basic education was made more accessible to every Filipino by 2015 and improve the quality of basic education (Abulon, 2014). The Philippine system of education is basically fashioned after the American public school system, adopting similar structure, methods, materials, and language. The government has put effort to comply with the global targets of the SDGs 2030, as such, their current national education policies and programs are tailored towards the actualisation of these goals specially to ensure an all-inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities. In 2013, the Philippine government came up with a policy that was an upgraded initiative which was viewed as the most universal basic education, this brought about an essential transformation in the country’s education system, under Act 10533 (Okabe, 2013). In addition to making Kindergarten compulsory, this policy, adds an extra two years to K-12 (i.e., basic education) to the already existing six years of primary education and two years of Senior High School. This was because there were prevalent setbacks from the previous system which this policy was targeted at resolving (Alampay and Garcia, 2019). Alongside the increase of basic education duration was a change in the curriculum which introduced the enactment of Mother Tongue-based multilingual education. This means that from kindergarten to Grade three, the language of instruction will be the child’s first language which is one of the 12 languages in the country. The use of Filipino and English as instructional language followed progressively at higher levels (Official Gazette, n.d.). The Philippine government acknowledges that education plays a significant role in enhancing inclusive development and decreasing poverty as such every year, the Department of Education (DepEd) provides vital education statistics that reveal the

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performance and effectiveness of their basic education system. The data sources for this include, figures generated from inputs i.e., children enrolled according to grade/level, number of schools, and number of teachers, using the DepEd's Basic Education Information System (BEIS). The outputs were also determined by gross enrolment ratio, net enrolment ratio, dropout rate and cohort survival rate (Albert, 2016). However, despite government's effort, Albert (2016) in a quantitative study revealed that in every three children, there was one who was out of school from an absence of personal motivation/interest. He argues that although, the statistics taken report the conditions of the basic education sector, there is no explanation as to why these conditions came about. The study unveiled that economic problem is the main reason accounting for half of the OOSC.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, there has been a common goal to achieve Universal Basic Education, this emanated from the 1961 Addis Ababa conference on education (UNESCO, 1961). The continent has had a long-standing broad consensus that realising a basic level of education is essential to the extermination of illiteracy and a foundation for further learning and critical for the achievement of individual potential within the socio-economic development of a nation (Bekalo et al., 2003). Although some progress has been recorded in the last half century, developing countries are still struggling with making basic education universally available. This statement resonates with the Somaliland (north-eastern Africa) situation where the impact of civil war alongside a cycle of increasing poverty have complicated and affected the demand and provision of education. In the research conducted by Bekalo et al. (2003) on the 'Development of Education in Post-Conflict Somaliland', it had as one of its aims, examining of the present state of basic education provision and the challenges facing EFA. The authors point out the two predominant forms of educational provision in Somaliland which are, Formal Education (FE) consists of a 4-4-4-4 structure, 4 years of lower primary, 4 years of upper primary, 4 years of secondary and 4 years of tertiary education. This is the basic framework of formal education confirmed as policy by the Ministry Of Education, Youth and Sports (MOEYS, 1996). The formal schools are predominantly located in town and vary in nature, they were either state, private, or religious schools. All schools are regulated by the MOEYS but are not necessarily subject to their control or regulation. However, the formal schools have their set school calendar and a fixed timetable. Most of these schools made use of curriculum materials from outside the country to design their own curriculum although generally, schools offer a common basic literacy and numeracy education.

The second form of education in Somaliland is the Flexible Approaches to Education (FAE), this comprise of basic and vocational education designed for those who have no access to the formal system, those who require supplementary education or pursue objectives not catered for by formal education. The FAE programmes by their variety and flexible nature are set to cater vast

numbers of out-of-school children and adults of different backgrounds and ages. From the findings, Bekalo et al., (2003) conclude that the quality of basic education in Somaliland is poor due to factors such as untrained teachers, shortage of materials and support services.

In Nigeria's bid to move forward with a sense of direction, the Universal Basic Education (UBE) policy was introduced. Basic education implies the rudimental, fundamental, foundation or bottom line, key, or primary level of education (Uyanga, 2012). This points to the fact that basic education is a very crucial stage in education as it consists of elementary, essential knowledge upon which other forms of higher education are built. Ayunga (2012) further alludes to the fact that 'basic' is connected to life therefore, lack of elementary knowledge would lead to a meaningless life.

In Nigeria, basic education began from pre-colonial times where the country consisted of empires, chiefdoms, kingdoms that existed as autonomous communities. These ethnic groups had their various traditional forms of education which was informal in nature and was targeted at developing the child's physical strength, character, intellectual skills, and sense of belonging to their community (Imam, 2012). During the colonial era, basic education was provided by the missionaries who established schools to promote Christianity; and their educational work was also evident in their development of indigenous languages into writing (Ozigi & Ocho, 1981). However, since post-colonial era, Nigerian government has come up with various policy frameworks to aid the development of basic education. This is because policy gives a sense of direction which governs the activities and actions of stakeholders (Ogbiji, 2016).

Universal basic education or universal primary education is part of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It aimed to achieve universal basic education by 2015. The goals emanated from the Millennium declaration signed in September 2000. It was aimed at creating an environment conducive for development and the eradication of poverty. The signing of this declaration set the tone for governments to put in place legislations to achieve the aims and objectives or targets set in the declaration. In Sub-Saharan Africa, children out of school total about 30 million between 2007 and 2012 (UNESCO, 2014). This figure reveals that more than half of the global total children out of school are in Sub-Sahara Africa. Therefore, the impact of universal basic policy formulation is not visible, in terms of the policy being a solution to improving school attendance in the face of rising numbers of out of school children (Idrissu, 2016). Like previous education policies, the Universal Basic Education (UBE) aims to focus on and deal with the issue of "accessibility and participation" (Idrissu, 2016, p143).

The adoption of Universal Declaration of Human rights in 1948 marked the initial call for primary education everywhere to be made compulsory and free for all children thus led to the emergence

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of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1955 (Fafunwa, 2004). The aim of the UPE policy from inception was two-fold; to educate the children and enlighten adults as the nation's progress was perceived to take its roots from that. It was hoped that education would reflect in the social, economic, and political stability of the country. Free, compulsory and Universal Primary Education was thus instituted (Taiwo, 1980). This policy was defined by the 6-3-3-4 educational system, a minimum of 6 years in primary school, 3 years in junior secondary education, 3 years of senior secondary education and 4 years minimum of higher education (Etuk et al., 2012). Regardless of the effort of the government by making primary education free, compulsory, and universal, the UPE policy began to experience a downward turn in its implementation as the federal government gave up its obligation of funding the primary education in 1977 by transferring it to States and local governments. This poor funding led to a reintroduction of school fees, this had adverse effects on primary enrolments and even stagnated enrolments in some States of the country (Imam, 2012). Aluede (2006) attributes the failure of the UPE policy to the underestimated number of pupils that were meant to gain from the scheme. Other factors that had an offshoot from this problem were the government's inability to ascertain the number of teachers, school buildings, resources, and cost implication of running the entire programme. Okugbe (2009) adds that poor supervision, unclear implementation of the curriculum, rising drop-out rates also led to the fall in the basic education standard and the sudden decline in pupils' morals also contributed to the failure of the UPE policy. Imam (2012) asserts that lack of attempts that were supposed to be made by the government to ensure compulsory basic education for all children was another failure factor of the UPE. These were factors that crippled the UPE policy and resulted to the birth of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Policy in 1999.

The UBE was a response to the 1990 World Conference of Education For All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The UBE is a current and fourth scheme in Nigeria launched in 1999 for the purpose of achieving compulsory, free and universal basic education to be made available to all children of school age (6years to 15years) by 2015 (Edho, 2009), (Ejere, 2011). The Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) (2005) defined UBE to include "early childhood care and education, nine years of formal schooling, adult literacy and non-formal education, skills acquisition programmes and the education of special groups such as the nomads, migrant fishermen, girl-children and women, almajirais, street children and disabled groups" (UBEC, 2005, p29).

The policy proposed the 9-3-4 education structure with UBE as the backbone. This system demands 9 years of basic education which comprises of 6 years in primary school and 3 years in junior secondary school, 3 years in senior secondary education and at least 4 years in higher education.

The UBE objectives as stated in the Nigerian Education Research and Development Council (NERDC) document (2012, p5) include:

- a) Developing in the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion.
- b) Providing free and compulsory universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school-going age.
- c) Reducing drastically the incidence of early leaving from formal school system.
- d) Catering for the formal needs of young persons who, for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their schooling through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education.
- e) Ensuring the acquisition of appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life-skills as well as the ethical, moral, and civic values for laying a solid foundation for lifelong learning.

The UBE act of 2004 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2000) stated the guidelines for implementing the UBE targets as follows:

Ensuring that school-age children are in school

100% transition to Junior Secondary School (JSS) at the end of six years in primary school.

Establishment of an effective institutional framework for monitoring learning and teaching

All teachers in Basic Education institutions to possess the Nigerian certificate of education.

Completers of Basic Education to possess literacy, numeracy, and basic life skills, as well as ethical moral and civic values.

Review of basic education curriculum to conform to reform agenda.

The term 'Universal Basic Education' naturally connotes that basic education is made available for every single child (Aluede, 2006) however, the question is to what extent has the universalisation of primary education contributed to the advancement of access to basic education? This question is an offshoot from the long-standing commitment by the Nigerian government to provide educational access to basic education for all children. The UBE policy stresses the concept of every Nigerian child having access to early education thus making it appear as a valued concept. When

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thoroughly reviewed its objectives reveal that the policy in itself is a worthy cause because it provides in principle the measures to ensure that all Nigerian school age children obtain education. However, as laudable as the UBE is, it has been plagued with challenges that have posed as threats to its successful implementation. This concern, however, was why RQ 1 emerged to investigate the extent of UBE provision for displaced children.

Various scholars have attempted to investigate the implementation of the Nigerian UBE. Ogbiji (2016) conducted mixed methods research on 'identifying policy gaps in the implementation of UBE programme', focusing on Cross River State in Nigeria. His sample size comprised of 200 head teachers from the three education zones of the State. His findings reveal that UBE programme has recorded a modest achievement in its freeness, stimulation of educational consciousness and impartation of skills. Oyadiran (2014) also conducted a mixed methods study to investigate into the implementation of the UBE in Nigeria with a view to finding out if the policy is achieving its stated objective of providing qualitative, free, compulsory, universal basic education to all eligible Nigerians between the ages of six and fifteen. His focus was the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) of Nigeria, sample comprised of 300 respondents which comprised of three categories; selected senior staff of the FCT Universal Basic Education Board (UBEB), selected teaching/non-teaching staff of junior secondary schools (JSSs). His findings revealed that the quality of the UBE programme and inputs in the FCT is inadequate claiming that there must be appropriate quality, size and quantity of facilities and equipment (input) for the implementation of the policy to be effective. Furthermore, his findings show that the implementation is chaotically designed. It is expected that the Nigerian government would have given the UBE more careful planning since it was born out of the failure of the previous policy. As Bridges et al. (2009) assert, high quality research should form the basis for educational policy and practice thereby ensuring that it is 'evidence-based'. However, as commendable as this UBE programme may be, its success has been hampered by several factors that if addressed could make the UBE policy thrive. This is because improper planning is the gateway to the failure of any programme no matter how bright its objectives may appear (Oyadiran, 2014).

In examining the success rate of UBE in displacement contexts, Abdulrasheed, Onuselegu and Obioma (2015) conducted a quantitative study titled 'Effects of Insurgencies on UBE in Borno State of Nigeria' which involved a total of 270 teachers at basic schools, 10 teachers from each of the 27 local government areas that constitute Borno State. The research was aimed at assessing the state of UBE in the face of security threats and to examine the impact of insurgencies on both pupils and teachers. The findings revealed that the provision of education has been adversely affected especially since the abduction of the Chibok school girls on April 14, 2014. This has resulted to children avoiding school for fear of being kidnapped as well as teachers' displacement,

in a bid to escape death by fleeing to find safety. They report that majority of schools have been closed indefinitely. Abdulrasheed et al., (2015) add that UBE provision in the State has always suffered huge setback even prior to the advent of Boko Haram. Some of the setbacks include shortage of classes for teaching and learning, shortage of instructional materials and teachers, lack of funding, lack of payment of teachers' remuneration which has led to incessant strikes by basic schoolteachers, similar factors that have been attributed to the cause of UBE ineffectiveness. The insurgencies have only exacerbated the situation.

Scholars have generally identified similar constraints in the implementation process of the UBE. These are the same constraints that crippled the previous basic education policy programmes. The challenges identified ranged from inadequate funding, inadequate provision of infrastructure/instructional materials, limited human resources, and non-conducive learning/working environment for both pupils and teachers and poor-quality inspections. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) state that the presence of constraints such as all the required resources and inability to provide these resources in the appropriate combination will naturally impede policy implementation. They further posit that; it is necessary to decipher whether it is a case of non-implementation or unsuccessful implementation, as implementation is a part of policymaking. This indicates that the most important aspect of any education policy is its actualization. It also means that when a policy cycle is complete i.e., problem definition/agenda setting, policy development, implementation, and evaluation, only then can results be recorded from a given policy. From an analysis of the UBE's objectives, educational quality is at the heart of the policy.

### **2.6.1 UBE Provision for IDPs**

Education is a fundamental human right as clearly stated in Nigeria's Policy for Internally Displaced Persons. Legally, every individual across the world is entitled to a free elementary education. Education is essential for strengthening all other human rights, it promotes individual wellbeing and empowerment, and is a basis for important economic and social benefits (Naylor, 2016). The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacements support these assertions by stating that every human being has the right to education. It stresses that to give effect to this right for IDPs, the authorities concerned shall ensure that such persons, in particular displaced children, receive education which shall be free and compulsory at the primary level. The Policy insists that education should respect their cultural identity, language, and religion. Special efforts would be made to ensure the full and equal participation of women and girls in educational programmes.

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Education and training facilities shall be made available to internally displaced persons, in particular adolescents and women, whether or not living in camps, as soon as conditions permit.

The Nigerian Policy on IDPs appears to have been drawn from the provisions of the Guiding Principles on Displacement. As such, the Nigerian Policy on Internally Displaced children also acknowledges that persons affected by displacement situations experience a wide variety of needs in the short, medium, and long term. Education has been highlighted as one of those needs amongst others such as food, water, shelter and other essential items, security, physical and psychological wellbeing, assistance in restoring family links, health care, economic and social rehabilitation. As regards the education of internally displaced children, the policy reiterates the need for every human being to have an education. It states that the Education Sector lead under the sector approach established by this policy have been saddled with the responsibility to liaise with other relevant education authorities and humanitarian agencies to ensure that all IDP children receive education that shall be free and compulsory at primary level. Education should respect their cultural identity, language, and religion. It also provides that internally displaced children shall enjoy the rights under the Child Rights Act and similar laws enacted at the State and Local Government level. The Policy puts into consideration the fact that schools are often destroyed during most disasters therefore, for the internally displaced children to return to school while in camp, the agencies named above shall liaise with relevant agencies within the locality to assist in relocating the children to neighbouring schools that are ascertained to be safe. This shall preclude the building of new schools in the place of relocation.

It further states that it shall be the responsibility of the Education Sector lead agency under the sectoral approach established by this National Policy to work together with local and State education authorities to provide an enabling learning environment for internally displaced children by collaborating with the UNICEF and other education agencies to provide instructional materials and teaching aids for schools. Where formal education facilities are not available, informal education options including livelihood skills training should be provided for internally displaced children. While providing access to education, attention should be paid to girl-child education, as they are most likely to miss out on the basis of gender dynamics.

Despite these policy statements, the challenges for refugees and IDPs in accessing education remain stark. Bokko (2019) assessed the extent of UBE provision in a paper titled 'Problems of Learners in IDP Camps Schools in Borno State' which aimed at identifying the problems that hinder learners in IDP camps schools from attending, staying, and completing school successfully. The qualitative research involved a total of 27 participants that comprised of 7 headteachers and 20 teachers from 25 IDP camp schools in Maiduguri. Among the participants were 15 males and

12 females, and 10 of the teachers were resident in the camps while 17 teachers were living in the host community. Sampling strategy was a stratified random sampling and data collection instrument was unstructured interviews through focus group discussions and a proforma.

From the results, the author identified 3 types of learners in the camp schools. They include accompanied learners who are those children who escaped with their parents, guardians or relatives, unaccompanied learners who are children that escaped insurgency and found themselves in camps where no one could identify them and street learners who comprise children that were roaming the streets prior to the insurgencies but fled to the camp since it appeared safer and more comfortable for them. The problems identified were grouped in 4 key areas which include, educational, health, personal and social. The findings, however, reveal that the 3 categories of learners share commonalities with some of the problems like health and social but differ in some degree in personal and educational problems. In the area of similarity, all the children have fled from life threatening experiences induced by Boko Haram insurgency. This has caused untold hardship and trauma especially where they have left their families behind or dead and their schooling. The educational problem presents itself in the children's lack of enthusiasm for schooling based on indoctrination by insurgents that western education is forbidden and fear from the belief that insurgents will continue to attack western education schools. Another level of the educational problem teachers face is over-aged learners i.e., those learners who have never been to school, most of whom are street learners and those whose schooling was disrupted by the insurgency and became over-aged due to long periods of no school attendance. Being in the same class with younger children makes them feel stigmatised and this results to bullying. This empirical evidence suggests that the extent of UBE provision is far from being effective due to the pattern of displacement that is characterised by high levels of insecurity. Ferris and Winthrop (2011) have alluded to the fact that there are particular barriers that complicate and impede continuous access to high quality and relevant education for refugees and IDP populations and these are often experienced differently depending on the pattern of displacement. A limitation of this research, however, is that the author failed to give figures to show the actual number/percentage of children who are out of school as well as the class size.

Although the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacements provides that internally displaced persons have the right to enjoy, in full equality, the same rights and freedoms under international and domestic law as do other persons in their country; and that IDPs should not be discriminated against in the enjoyment of any rights and freedoms on the grounds that they are internally displaced, there still exists a huge level of educational marginalisation. Marginalisation according to Messiou (2012) can be conceptualised in 4 ways; when a child is experiencing some kind of marginalisation that is recognised by almost everybody, including the child him/herself; when a

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child is feeling that he/she is experiencing marginalisation, whereas others do not recognise this; when a child is found in what appears to be marginalised situations but does not view it as marginalisation; and when a child appears to experience marginalisation but does not recognise this. This research focuses on children (IDPs) who are experiencing marginalisation that they are aware of and that is acknowledged by nearly everyone. For the sake of this research, marginalisation refers to the IDPs who lack access to quality UBE provision.

Ferris and Winthrop (2011) have explicitly pointed out that 50% of the 26 million people internally displaced by armed conflicts constitute children and youth under the age of 18. The UNHCR report only 50% of refugee children access primary education and only 22% of refugee adolescents access secondary education. The situation is particularly bad for girls, with only 8 refugee girls in primary school for every 10 boys, and only 7 girls to 10 boys at secondary. Given that refugees spend on average, 20 years in forced displacement, this is not just a temporary break in children's schooling. Being out of school as a refugee often means missing out of education entirely (Naylor, 2016). Much less is known about IDPs, especially the majority who live within host communities rather than in camps whilst we know that there are almost twice as many IDPs as refugees (41 million in 2015, compared to 21 million refugees). Like refugees, IDPs are often trapped in displacement for years, and short-term humanitarian response systems are not well equipped to provide a continuity of funding needed to keep teachers teaching and children learning (Naylor, 2016). Globally, there are more than 40 million refugees and IDPs forcibly displaced by armed conflict. There are at least 27 million children and youth who are affected by armed conflict and who lack access to formal education, 90% of whom are IDPs. The large number of multi-lateral organisations dedicated to refugee rather than IDP education appears to have worsened the plight of the IDPs.

Ferris and Winthrop (2011) opine that availability of education depends on government policies, either by host governments in the case of refugees or national governments in the case of IDPs. In Nigeria, the protracted and increased presence of IDPs has presented different levels of challenges for the basic needs of IDPs (Oluwayemisi, Obashoro and Gbolabo, 2017). Nigeria has obviously been struggling to provide basic education for her citizens, the emergence of IDPs and their need for education has however, put a double burden on the nations education system. Although the UBE Policy statement declares, 'Catering for the formal needs of young persons who, for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their schooling through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education', there is little evidence of commitment by the Nigerian government through the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) to the education of IDPs. Making it a case of non-implementation owing to the possibility of various factors as enumerated by Hogwood and Gunn (1984) which include, poor

policy enactment, stakeholder inefficiency and/or lack of cooperation, or the overwhelming nature of the obstacles.

Oluwayemisi, Obashoro and Gbolabo (2017) assert that one of the highest priorities if IDPs is education. Therefore, significance of education for refugee and IDPs cannot be overemphasised. Although internal conflict impacts educational access differently in countries, a common similarity that exists across board is how these conflicts disrupt education, worsen access to education and in extreme cases, end education access (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011). In cases where some levels of provisions are available, the quantity and quality of such provisions need improvements (Oluwayemisi et al., 2017).

Umaru and Terhembra (2014), also examined the state of UBE in Damaturu, Yobe state in light of persistent security challenges that exists. The authors found that there has been a 28% decline in school enrolment due to parents' reluctance to send their children to school. Although, there is an enthusiasm by both parents and teachers to send their children to school, the fear of regular attacks has constituted a huge impediment. As shown from the empirical study carried out by Abdulrasheed et al. (2015), UBE provision has suffered severe setbacks in Borno State since the abduction of the Chibok girls from both teachers and children avoiding school due to fear of being kidnapped.

There are several barriers that complicate and hinder continuous access to high quality and relevant education for refugee and IDP populations. These are often experienced differently depending on the pattern of displacement. As might be expected, education is less likely to be available in the emergency phase of displacement as international and national actors focus on security and on provision of necessities of life (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011).

However, there are innumerable benefits to ensuring refugee and IDP have access to relevant, safe, and high-quality education. In a world where the average length of stay in refugee contexts is 17 years, generations literally are born and grow up as refugees. Any long-term durable solution for refugee communities is greatly benefited by educational investments. In conflict contexts especially, where many refugee communities repatriate after wars are over, refugee communities provide essential human capital to rebuilding nations and forging lasting peace. In many cases of protracted displacement, if education had not been provided, the future generations of leaders would not be prepared to contribute constructively (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011).

In Nigeria, based on the provisions of the policy, IDPs are entitled to enjoying their rights to quality education more than a provision of mere relief materials. This support will enable them to continue with life and make meaningful livelihood (Obashoro-John and Oni, 2017).

## 2.7 Educational Quality

Educational quality and educational effectiveness are intertwined concepts due to the parameters of measurement that scholars have used to determine their definitions. The A4ID in the SDG 4 legal guide propound that the concept of quality education is difficult to define based on the universal diversities that exist in cultures and for individuals. The concept is dynamic and not static because it changes with time. UNESCO and UNICEF as quoted by A4ID (SDG 4, Legal Guide, p4), postulate two parameters as measures for education quality. These include effectiveness in education which is evident in the attainment of cognitive development; and, capitalising on the capacity of education to develop creative and emotional skills as well as “supporting the objectives of peace, citizenship and security, fostering equality and passing global and local cultural values to future generations.” Edmonds (1979) an early advocate of school effectiveness blends his definition of educational quality from the lens of basic skill mastery, with equity. Educational effectiveness means different things to different people. Although Kelly (2001) explains that it is difficult to measure school effectiveness, a simple definition given by Levine & Lezotte (1990) is that effectiveness is the production of desired results or outcomes. Stoll and Fink (1996) explain that what educators perceive as significant outcomes of schooling may not conform with the perceptions of pupils, parents, governors, the local community, or the government. Determining ‘effectiveness’ thus becomes a challenge since a common definition cannot be achieved. However, a common denominator that ‘educational quality’ and ‘educational effectiveness’ share is ‘value addition’. This is evident through the boost given by the school to pupils’ achievement over and above what they bring in terms of prior attainment and background factors (Stoll & Fink, 1996).

Common indicators of effectiveness in education as identified by scholars include purposeful leadership, purposeful teaching, learning environment, high expectations, shared goals, Firm, fair and transparent discipline, monitoring and tracking, staff development, parental involvement (Stoll and Fink, 1996, Macbeath and Peter, 2001, Kelly,2001). What is meant by ‘quality’ or ‘effectiveness’ is dynamic since perceptions of these concepts change over time in response to changes in the society. The term ‘educational effectiveness’ has been used to indicate effectiveness of educational systems and the various forms of schooling (Scheerens & Bosker, 1997:35). However, based on the indicators of effective education above, it is evident that a large proportion of ensuring effectiveness lies on teachers. It is on this premise that quality education in this study is focused on teachers and how their role can potentially drive quality/effectiveness in education.

The rationale for the choice of teachers and their effectiveness in my research stems from the fact that teachers are considered a vital part of promoting quality education hence the call for effectiveness in their teaching. This section focuses on educational effectiveness and two research constructs germane to it, teacher effectiveness and system effectiveness. The choice of these two areas of educational effectiveness is due to the need for in-depth research to offer a contextualized view of teacher effectiveness and system effectiveness as it relates to the education of displaced children living in IDP camps, to conceive educational effectiveness for that environment. Another reason for the choice of teacher effectiveness is drawn from the White Paper Teaching Quality (DES, 1983) which views the teaching force as ‘the utmost single determinant of the quality of education.’ Wilson’s (1988) definition of education quality concurs with this assertion as he opines that quality has to do with the teacher’s ability to deliver to the optimum to the individual learner. The two definitions border on the teacher as the focal point for the achievement of educational quality. It is to this end that this research has chosen teacher effectiveness as a factor to analyse and to look at the policies and practices that impact teacher effectiveness especially in refugee/IDP contexts. The critical need for teacher effectiveness in enhancing quality education cannot, therefore, be overemphasised especially in displaced and refugee contexts.

### **2.7.1 Teacher Effectiveness**

The role of the teacher as manager in a teaching-learning context is still sacrosanct (Okoli, 2017). Haertel (2013) alludes to the fact that teachers matter enormously. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act calls for the employment of only ‘highly qualified’ teachers because research has shown that teacher quality is the most important educational factor predicting student achievement (Ferguson, 1998; Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin, 1999). As much as accommodation, excellent resources, brilliant schemes of work are important, these factors have been considered limited value if the actual teaching, the point of delivery, the interaction between teacher and pupils are not of high quality. Therefore, the quality of teaching is viewed as more significant than any other factor in raising standards and standards of pupils’ attainment (Green, 2004). The Nigerian UBE Act of 2004 (FRN, 2000) states the ‘establishment of an effective institutional framework for monitoring teaching and learning’ as one of its guidelines to implementing the UBE targets. This indicates the significant need for effectiveness in teaching due to the centrality of the teacher in the teaching and learning process.

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One of the first difficulties to reconcile however is the contrast between teacher quality and teaching quality. Teacher quality signifies that factors that will gauge classroom success include sets of inputs such as certification, teacher test scores and college degrees. On the other hand, teaching quality implies that it is not what the teachers have in terms of training and certification, it is what they do in the classroom that indicates quality. Often the two definitions are connected or even converged, so that there is a presupposition that teacher quality guarantees teaching quality, or that teaching quality is an outcome of teacher quality (Geo, 2007). However, a framework for determining teacher quality has been suggested and this consists of, Inputs which involves teacher qualifications and teacher characteristics, Processes which involve teacher practices and Outcomes which involve teacher effectiveness (Geo, 2007).

“The importance of teachers in determining the quality of every level of education cannot be taken for granted since it is obvious that no education can rise above the quality of its teachers” (Federal Republic of Nigeria FRN, 2004:38). Hill (1999) alludes to the fact that the key to teacher effectiveness is through improved educational outcome and suggested effective supervision of instructional programmers as a means of improving teacher quality. Anyaogu (2016) concurs with Hill (1999) by asserting that instructional supervision helps to provide satisfactory conditions that are essential for effective learning through effective teaching methods. It also helps to improve teachers’ capacity and methodology in ensuring that learning takes place.

It is generally acknowledged that promoting teacher quality is a key element in improving primary and secondary education and one of the primary goals of the No Child Left Behind law is to have a ‘highly qualified teacher’ in every classroom (Harris and Sass, 2006). Despite decades of research however, the challenge remains that there is no consensus on what factors enhance teacher quality. Teachers play a key role in school improvement as they are the ones at the grassroots having direct contact with the pupils (Guppy, 2005). It is believed that to a large extent, the quality of a school is determined by the quality of its teachers and their teaching. Metcalfe (2008, p.93), describing the education system in South Africa strongly states that “education systems cannot exceed the quality of its teachers”. To further buttress this point Her Majesty’s Chief Inspector (HMI) of Schools stated that the quality of teachers’ teaching is fundamental in raising educational standards (OFSTED conferences report, 1995). If teacher effectiveness is so critical in bringing about educational effectiveness, it becomes imperative to investigate what teacher effectiveness is and its significance in the education system.

Teacher effectiveness is sometimes referred to as “value-added” (Rockoff and Speroni, 2011), however, what constitutes effective teaching is not yet settled among experts. Uchefuna (2001) conceptualises an effective teacher as one who produces desired results in the course of his/her

duty. The question here then is what these desired results are and who sets these standards. Weimer (2013) views teaching effectiveness as 'teaching in such a way that learning results' this, as Gage (1972) describes is made possible when the teacher has a high level of cognitive planning as well as ability to teach lessons from memory. Bullnow (1960) and Ryans (1960) suggest features that show teacher effectiveness, these include love, patience, trust, enthusiasm, alert, sense of humour and understanding. Klausmeier (1971) cited in Abulon (2014, p37) propounded three components that can be used to gauge teacher effectiveness, "process, product, and presage." The process involves the things that the teacher does in the action of teaching, the product is what the children learn, and presage involves those factors that influence teaching and learning i.e., academic background, personal appearance, and intellectual ability.

Robinson (2004) proposes five performance related components of the effective teacher which include, (a) meticulous planning and preparation based on strong subject knowledge, (b) an understanding of the different modes of interaction between teachers and taught, (c) the logical and systematic construction of a single lesson, (d) core teaching skills such as questioning, exposition, narration, and illustration, and (e) the personal power and presence of the teacher. The focus in these elements is on ensuring that teachers engage in behaviours positively related to student achievement. Muijs et al. (2014) suggest that effective teachers engage in behaviours that maximise opportunities to learn and time spent on tasks; prioritise the instruction and interactions given to students; focus on the classroom climate generated and provide high teacher expectations. In a meta-analytical study in which 31 studies were reviewed, researchers compared the words and phrases student used to describe effective and ineffective teachers. The top three words used to characterise teachers with the highest ratings were: interesting, approachable and clarity (Feldman, 1988).

Lewis (2017) conducted a qualitative study on teacher effectiveness in the context of urban schools and as it relates to the asset-based view of the learner. The study was aimed at investigating effective and ineffective teacher typologies as conceived by participants, the characteristics of effective teachers and techniques, deliveries or styles associated with effective teaching. The sample comprised of nine teacher educators with significant experiences in urban schools. Significant experience implies five or more years of direct teaching and administrative experience. The findings revealed the reflections of participants on the types of teachers they have encountered. The participants described effective teachers as teachers who 'always look for the best, the shining examples, those who put the success story out there'. A teacher who knows who his/her students are and integrate students' cultural background and one who has a love pedagogy. A teacher who sets out time in the day to show the students they are loved for who they are, what they are and what they can contribute. The participants described effectiveness as

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characterised by qualities of kindness, caring, love, knowing and seeing, stating that being kind and caring means understanding and accepting people for who they are and what they are. Knowing for the participants connotes the ability to understand and relate to the individual inner workings of children regardless of differing backgrounds. Participants conceive effective teachers as teachers who see intelligence, brilliance, and humanity within their students. This means seeing the child as a human being who deserves the best that can be offered. On deliveries and styles of effective teaching, participants believe that the effective teacher is responsive to students in style and delivery by designing instructional delivery style that works with the children in their context. Style in responsiveness is flexible in delivery, translational in instruction and reflective in planning to adapt to the needs of the children. This therefore implies that effective teaching does not have a singular approach. The participants also highlighted the need for a level of planning that considers the student and teacher's approach as this will aid focusing on the child. This is because they framed the effective teacher as one that is focused on the child.

Abulon (2014) states that teacher effectiveness is the bedrock and focus of quality basic education improvement for the Philippine government, by probing their notions about effective teaching. This is considered pertinent as teachers' teaching is significantly impacted by these perceptions and beliefs, and invariably reflects on children's performance. Abulon (2014) presents in a qualitative study that aimed to probe into teachers' concepts of effective teaching, the perceptions of teachers themselves in the Philippines. The research findings were categorised into the five themes that emerged. (1) Personality-based disposition, which consisted of inherent personality characteristics, good interpersonal relations, and being inspirational. Almost half of the respondents perceive effective teaching to be influenced by inherent personality characteristics such as the teacher exhibiting 'patience' considering the large class sizes, having a good sense of humour and emotional stability, being flexible, humble, energetic, open-minded, self-confident, sincere, honest, spiritual, and ability to adjust to unanticipated circumstances. Good interpersonal relations with both children and colleagues, teachers described it as having a motherly/sisterly with their students as second parents. This the claim is an indication of effective teaching as it enhances the students' wellbeing. (2) Teaching competence trait which is reflected in a possession of high degree of responsibility and professionalism. 10 respondents described it as "deep passion for teaching" and "one's love for children" (p 42). This also implied teaching ability evident in the teacher's intelligence capacity, vision, interest in the subject matter to identify strengths and weaknesses as well as having professional expertise and excellence. (3) Constant mastery and expertise which has to with proficiency of subject matter by engaging in professional development. (4) Pedagogical knowledge consists of having classroom management skills, being innovative in teaching approaches and ensuring a child-centred teaching practice. (5)

Extension of the self has to do with the teacher's voluntary service to students in areas of willingness to put in extra time, energy and knowledge despite their workload.

For Okoli (2017), teaching effectiveness is a result of two main factors which include knowledge of content and communication. He argues that knowledge of the subject matter requires an ability to convey the knowledge, and the communicative ability has a ripple effect on the teacher being approachable and helpful. He views content and communication competencies as two sides of one coin and suggests the need to emphasise this in teacher education. Okoli (2017) therefore asserts that effective teachers are communication experts who are excellent in the language of instruction and masters of the art in classroom management and public speech. He focuses on the use of instructional materials as an important element of communication in teaching. Although Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) sought to refute Okoli's (2017) claim, their research findings revealed that verbal ability and subject matter knowledge are related to teacher effectiveness. The Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN, 2012) alludes to this fact by stating as a requirement that effective communication is one of the sub-themes recognised as professional skills of qualified teachers.

Despite the plethora of views, it is widely accepted that teachers differ in their effectiveness however, demonstrating this difference proves a challenge due to the inability to decipher which teacher qualifications, practices or characteristics contribute to the differences in teacher effectiveness (Geo, 2007) also, for the fact that empirical evidence regarding teacher effectiveness is weak (Nye, Konstantopoulos and Hedges, 2004).

Research has demonstrated teacher quality as the most important educational factor predicting student achievement. Although studies have produced contradictory findings about which attributes of teachers are most likely to translate into effective classroom performance, some information on how specific teacher attributes correlate with teacher quality is stated as follows: Teacher degree levels, teacher preparation – pedagogical versus content knowledge, teacher licensure, teacher years of experience, teachers' academic proficiency.

How then is teacher effectiveness measured? Perceiving teacher quality through an effectiveness lens means focusing on results that theoretically can be ascribed to the other three strands of teacher quality (teacher qualifications, teacher characteristics and teacher practices.) However, scholars have viewed teacher effectiveness through the following lenses:

### **2.7.1.1 Teacher Effectiveness and Student Achievement**

Pretending that student outcomes are not part of the equation is like pretending that professional basketball has nothing to do with the scores (Arne Duncan, U.S. Secretary of Education, Remarks for Education Writers Association April 30<sup>th</sup>, 2009). For many years, research has found teacher quality to be a key determinant of student success and in fact more closely related to student achievement than other factors such as class size, instructional materials etc. The general assumption from parents' perspective and observing their children's progress is that good teaching can be judged from its outcomes and a lay person does not need professional training to be able to make a judgement (Green, 2004). A large body of research demonstrates the importance of teacher effectiveness in raising student achievement.

Rockoff and Speroni (2011) measure the extent to which a set of subjective and objective evaluations of teacher effectiveness can predict teachers' future impacts on student achievement. The subjective evaluations come from two sources: an alternative certification programme that evaluates its applicants prior to the start of their teaching careers, and a mentoring programme in which experienced educators work with new teachers and submit evaluations of new teachers' effectiveness throughout the school year. The objective evaluations of effectiveness used are estimates of teachers' impacts on student achievement in the first year of their careers. It is found that both subjective and objective evaluations bear significant relationships with the achievement of teachers' future students.

Student achievement on standardised tests has been one of the ways effective teachings is measured although it poses a challenge since standardised achievement tests are targeted at measuring student achievement and not designed to measure effective teaching. Sorting out teacher effects is challenging due to the contributions of other classroom effects such as peers, textbooks, curriculum, materials, classroom climate and other intangible factors (Goe, 2007).

### **2.7.1.2 Certification and Teacher Effectiveness**

How can we guarantee that students are taught by high quality and well-trained teachers? Answering this question is of high significance to improving educational outcomes (Lankford & Wyckoff, 1997). To address this issue, governments have regulated teacher quality to an elaborate system of training and licensure that is aimed at preparing those going into the teaching profession (Golghaber and Brewer, 2000). This preparation emphasizes the acquisition of teacher knowledge of both content and pedagogy. Pedagogy has been defined as the "science of the art of teaching" (Galton, 1995, pg125). In the Philippines for instance, to become a classroom teacher

requires a 4-year diploma in education degree, in elementary or secondary education major. This is followed by a board examination conducted by the Professional Regulation Commission. The Teachers Registration Council (TRCN) of Nigeria's policy on licensure states that teachers should possess a minimum of a National Certificate of Education (NCE) before engaging in teaching. Much as licensure is designed to ensure a basic level of quality or skill of teacher, little research evidence exists on its impact on teachers' teaching and how it promotes student achievements (Golghaber and Brewer, 2000).

A major drawback of the effectiveness definition is that it does not offer a system for predicting high-quality teachers prior to their actual teaching. This means determining teacher quality solely by effectiveness becomes a challenge due to the inability to decide who should be allowed to teach in the first place – before any student gains can be assessed. If this be the case, then protecting students from ineffective teachers poses a huge challenge. This situation suggests that there is still a decided benefit to using assessments or other mechanisms that require prospective teachers to demonstrate a minimum level of competency before they are given teaching responsibilities. This concern is the fundamental rationale for the existence of teacher licensing requirements (Geo, 2007).

Although teacher certification is ubiquitous, there is little rigorous evidence that it is systematically linked to teacher effectiveness (Golghaber and Brewer, 2000). In fact, on the average, teacher certification as the initial certification status of a teacher is viewed as having small impacts on student test performance. Among those with the same experience and certification status, there exist large and persistent differences in teacher effectiveness (Kane et al., 2007). This therefore implies that teacher effectiveness goes beyond certification.

However, Plessis (2015) conducted an in-depth study to explore the implications of out-of-field teaching on teacher quality. The out-of-field refers to teachers teaching outside their field of training or education. This qualitative investigation was aimed at gaining the views of educational directors, principals, teachers, and parents on the relations among real-life experiences, out-of-field teaching practices and perceived quality of teachers. The sample comprised 7 schools and 48 participants from extremely different educational environments, 33 Australians and 15 South Africans, 5 Australian and 2 South African schools (primary and secondary teachers) and 3 education offices. Data collection was via interviews, observations, and document analysis. Much as Plessis (2015) asserts that teacher quality is a determining factor for the quality of any education system, the reality on ground makes this assertion questionable. From the study results, educational leaders perceive that out-of-field teaching influences the academic culture of schools by describing it as a 'web'. This is due to its entwined nature that creates gaps in student

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learning as teachers' attitude is 'it would be next year's problem'. However, it was observed that educational leaders' focus was not in getting to the classroom to carry out their core business which is ensuring that there is quality delivery. The teachers involved in out-of-field teaching explained how this influences their effectiveness due to the lack of content knowledge. Teachers tend to avoid in-depth content discussions with students thereby hampering their role as the knowledgeable other in the classroom. Teachers also revealed that the curriculum can be misinterpreted due to inadequacies in pedagogical content knowledge as these influences how teachers read, understand, and apply the content of a curriculum. Findings further showed that despite the ability of experienced out-of-field teachers to cope better, the limitation always remains that their insufficient pedagogical content knowledge affects their ability to maximise the curriculum's potential and expectations to enhance quality teaching. Such teachers are usually unable to inspire and make the children enthusiastic. Findings from parents revealed that parents perceive teacher effectiveness as having a huge impact on student engagement in learning activities, their love and responsiveness to learning. This notion was drawn from their experiences of out-of-field teachers who influenced the quality of their children's development by making their progress go rapidly downhill.

### **2.7.1.3 Professional Development (CPD) and Teacher Effectiveness**

The need for quality education cannot be overemphasised, yet only quality teachers can enhance quality learning. Professional development from my experience is one of the major areas to be investigated if quality education is to be achieved. Teaching skills, professional characteristics and good classroom climate are three attributes Hay (2000) points out that an effective teacher should possess. He further states that competent teachers know their subjects and make use of their professional knowledge by deploying appropriate skills consistently and effectively. Coe, et al., (2014) outlined the features that indicate effective teaching as, pedagogical content knowledge and a good understanding of the way students think about the content, effective questioning and use of assessment which equals quality instruction, good classroom climate that supports quality interactions between teachers and students, good classroom management skills, teacher beliefs as this impacts on student outcomes and professional behaviours in terms of supporting colleagues, participating in professional development among others.

According to Hoyle (1980), professional development must essentially meet these three needs, the social need of an efficient and humane educational system capable of adaptation to changing needs, the need to find ways of helping educational staff to improve the wider personal, social and academic potential of the young people in the neighbourhood; and the need to develop the

teacher's desire to live a satisfying and stimulating personal life, which by example as well as by precept will help his students to develop the desire and confidence to fulfil each his own potential. The teacher is always the focal point of professional development no matter how it is approached hence for any systematic change in teaching and learning to take place it must begin with purposeful and effective teacher professional development. Teacher effectiveness does not only put emphasis on improved selection and training of teachers, but also made the case for routine appraisal, a point taken up in *Better Schools* (DES, 1985). This is because appraisal has a link with teacher quality.

Teacher quality from the above discussion represents the effectiveness in a normal school situation. In this research synthesis however, a one-size-fits-all definition of teacher quality/effectiveness is impracticable considering the context of this study which is IDP education therefore, different views may be appropriate due the study emphasis which is on investigating UBE provision for that children, particularly at-risk, minority and displaced children living in IDP camps, some of whom do not have schools to attend, lack access to highly qualified and experienced teachers. Bearing this, how then is teacher effectiveness measured in an IDP/refugee context?

## **2.8 Teacher Effectiveness in IDP/Refugee Context**

The fact that education is a fundamental human right cannot be overemphasized, more so for children in displaced contexts. Much as education is a right for all children, often, refugees and IDPs are left with no option than to secure it on their own or in worst case scenarios, never secure it (Sommers, 1999). This goes to show how the specific needs and rights of refugee and displaced children are subordinated even when educating children is foreseen as a goal. Free elementary education is the legal entitlement of every individual across the world due to its significance in promoting individual wellbeing and empowerment and a premise for important economic and social benefits (Institute of Development Studies (IDS), 2016). Although IDP education aims at promoting social cohesion, providing access to life-saving information, addressing psychological needs, and creating a stable environment for IDPs, challenges have continued to abound in accessing basic education in IDP and refugee contexts despite its role in helping to direct energies towards productive and meaningful lives (Oluwayemisi et al., 2017). Basic education, which is a global objective, can only be realized if out-of-school (IDP/refugee) children have access to education (Dryden-Peterson et al., 2017).

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IDP/refugee education requires professionals in all aspects of education relevant to develop the vital learning domains which include basic knowledge, technical or job-related skills, positive attitudes, inter-personal skills, and productive consciousness, for personal and communal efficiency. For most IDPs and Refugees, whether basic literacy or skilled based training may help to put life into their seemingly dead situations. At the core of this, however, is the role of the teachers, as they are at the grassroots relating directly with the children. A good practice in the provision of quality basic education for IDP/refugees will be 'teacher effectiveness' (Taylor and Sidhu, 2012). Teacher effectiveness in the context of refugee/IDP becomes more critical as the teacher in this context is faced with added intangible but more complicated challenges that makes it crucial for the teacher to possess some level of professionalism that goes beyond the normal yardstick for measuring teacher quality/effectiveness. Teachers in this context are also faced with feelings of fear and uncertainties that bring demotivation, especially as they are constant targets of direct violence and sometimes trapped between different hostile groups as in the case of Boko Haram in Nigeria (Brandt, 2019). Whilst providing education for IDPs/refugees is their fundamental right, achieving it proves onerous due to reasons of long periods of displacements and issues of temporary returns or renewed displacements (Brandt, 2019). Regardless of this fact, realizing the right to education for all and creating opportunities for IDPs/refugee to enjoy this right will give them the chance for future participation in society (2016) as well as address the connections between periods of 'relief' and 'development' (Sommers, 1999).

The level of preparedness for IDP education in Nigeria is dependent on the economic circumstances of the nation especially as most of the camps hosting IDPs are managed by a central agency known as National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) (Oluwayemisi et al., 2017). A country's level of preparation is expected to meet at least the basic demands of IDP education and show her ability to adequately and proactively deploy resources to meet emergency situations as they arise. The typical response for IDP situation is to focus on relief materials such as food, clothing, and medical supplies. To a large extent, Nigeria has shown preparedness in these areas however, IDPs require more than relief. They require support to be able to continue with life and relatively good living. Due to disruptions of their education and businesses, it has considerable implications on their psyche, which calls for specialists' support. The kind of education proposed for such persons must be functional and not merely academic or basic literacy (Oluwayemisi et al., 2017). Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) believe that the kind of education that will be beneficial in a displacement context will have to focus on promoting social cohesion, make available Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) believe that the sole aim of refugee/IDP education is to foster social cohesion, provide access to life saving information, address

psychological needs, and offer a stable environment for these persons. It is to help these rebuild their lives, communities and direct their energies towards a reproductive and meaningful lives. They further add that IDP education requires professionals in all aspects of education relevant to develop the vital learning domains which include basic knowledge, technical or job-related skills, positive attitudes, inter-personal relationship, and productive consciousness for personal and communal efficiency. This kind of IDP education, however, must be functional and not merely academic or basic literacy. For Achegbulu and Olufemi (2020), education provision for IDPs should be focused on knowledge and skill acquisition that will enhance a well-ordered reintegration process if, and when IDPs decide to return to their places of origin as is contained in the Guiding Principles (1998).

Whatever the content, teachers remain the vehicles for moving the content from theory to practical terms. Due to the uniqueness of the context of this study, it becomes necessary to investigate how teacher effectiveness is perceived in this context. Omar et al. (2015) conducted research from an objectivist and empiricist perspective which focused on determining how teachers working in vulnerable school situations evaluate their teaching, using an instrumental case study methodology. The sample consisted of 30 female special needs teachers who have graduated from a local university and were randomly selected. These teachers were working in highly vulnerable schools in the Araucanian region. A key element highlighted in their findings is that participants evaluated the teacher training they received at university especially in general training aspects and the preparation of pedagogical knowledge as useful but gave a lower assessment of the training for performing in vulnerable situations. This therefore calls for a thorough evaluation of the current teacher training process to offer professional trainings that will cater for the needs of children in vulnerable contexts.

While schools have been discussed as becoming community resource centres and restoring a sense of normalcy to children in conflict settings, teachers are central to such discussions because of their role as mentors both academically and personally to the children who seek to make sense of situations of instability (Miller-Grandvaux, 2009; Gay, 2010). Children in emergencies or post-conflict situations share similar experiences of exclusion in education. The high levels of violence these children have witnessed has had devastating impacts on them which will require teachers who are equipped beyond the normal teacher qualification. Quality education provision in this context will therefore mean engaging professionals who are able to cope with and meet the children's needs. As such, in gauging teacher effectiveness in IDP/refugee context, some of the following factors have emerged from literature as areas of need for vulnerable children.

### **2.8.1 Teacher Effectiveness and Psychosocial Adjustment**

There are several common conditions faced especially when considering education of displaced children and youth, such as the importance of education in supporting psychosocial adjustments to new settings and ensuring long-term economic advancement of displaced communities (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011). This is due to psychological disturbances that have occurred from experiences of loss of heritage, identity, routines, family, and sense of community which can impact on the developmental stages of children (Pfefferbaun et al., (2017). They add that displacements give rise to psychosocial effects that manifest in trauma symptoms, loss of social support, difficulties in adapting to change and uncertainty.

Education is often cited as one important way of supporting the psychosocial well-being of children and youth during conflict and displacement. Many argue that education, if it is a safe and quality education – whether in an acute crisis or in a chronic refugee context – can promote children’s protection and welfare by providing, among other things, structured daily routines where children can play and interact with peers and adults in a positive manner, physically safe spaces for children to go to everyday that keep them out of other potentially harmful situations, and important information about safety and security (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011).

### **2.8.2 Teacher Effectiveness and Resilience**

In a refugee/IDP context, one of the development challenges of children is to learn to cope, continue to adapt to changes and grow into competent adults. Teachers play a significant role in influencing the development of children, providing pupils with security and greater opportunities to succeed. A key factor of this developmental process is developing resilience which can be achieved through the teacher providing protective factors such as caring educational settings, positive and high expectations, and positive learning environments that are relevant and practical. Recognizing and assisting children to be resilient requires that the teacher is knowledgeable and aware of the complexity involved that influence its development (Silyvier and Nyandusi, 2015). This further buttress the need for teacher training tailored to meet the needs of the IDP/refugee context and suggests that teacher effectiveness in this context requires proper training beyond the traditional teacher training as well as the teacher being the resilient other.

Much as Pfefferbaum et al. (2017) believe that interventions help to foster children’s resilience, they argue that this can also be detrimental to the children through providers giving hasty and incorrect diagnosis, wrong medication and therapies that are ineffective. They add that

strengthening natural resilience should be the focus of intervention since social support and problem-focused intervention approaches have more advantages over emotion-focused intervention while therapeutic interventions be targeted at those who exhibit high levels of distress. Teachers are on the frontlines when it comes to encountering emotional and behavioral difficulties in children thus, having to bear the responsibility of resilience building. This calls for the need to train teachers to be able to address this intangible but difficult challenge. However, how are they equipped for such a task?

### **2.8.3 Teacher Effectiveness and Trauma/Uncertainty**

Most Australian and New Zealand studies take it that trauma comprises the defining feature of refugee experience. That many young people have witnessed or experienced family violence, persecution, rape, torture, camp life and abrupt dislocation is not in question. What is unknown is the schooling and settlement implications of trauma. Of concern is the assumption that the psychological effects of trauma and torture should be the *prima facie* basis of educational interventions (Rutter, 2006). Pfefferbaum et al. (2017) assert that displaced persons' emotional challenges may not be necessary from the impact of relocation but a direct consequence of their exposure to traumatic occurrences leading to displacement. This experience that is characterised by nightmares, flashbacks etc., are indicators of trauma.

For displaced children, boredom and the unavailability of education is a hazardous combination because the unstructured days potentially produce lingering traumatising memories, fears, and violence (Sommers, 1999). Like refugees, IDPs are confined in displacement for many years resulting in a loss of education entirely. This situation is exacerbated by the obscurity of the IDPs, especially the majority who live within host communities. For IDPs living in camps, short-term humanitarian response systems are not well equipped to provide the continuity of funding needed to keep teachers teaching and children learning (IDS, 2016). This is against the fact that teacher performance is a key element for any educational transformation, making it pertinent to link teacher effectiveness, training policies and programmes with present scenarios particularly those comprising displaced children. Displaced children emerging from terror are usually shell-shocked, bewildered, despondent and profoundly traumatised. These traumatised children often require specialised help to alleviate the effects of such an experience (Stephenson, 2016), this is because trauma can impede a child's capacity to engage successfully in learning (Walker et al., 2011). Although the ideal is to engage specialized psychological therapists to cater for this need but the lack of such professionals and even the dearth of teachers leaves this responsibility in the

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hands of the available teachers. As such, children who have experienced trauma rely on caring adults to support their learning and development, making the teacher a possible only source of stability for the children (Shonkoff, 2009). This then draws attention to the critical need to assess pedagogy and practice in the light of teaching and learning for IDP/refugee children as this has the potential to either support the child's healthy development or trigger aspects of trauma experienced (Zakrzewski, 2011). Therefore, teacher training, which is considered a prerequisite for teacher effectiveness, has become an area of concern for education policy because of the imperative need to respond to this complex education requirements (Omar, Vanessa, and Angelica, 2015).

How does education support Trauma and uncertainty? The experience of internal displacement is an extraordinary life experience, often shared collectively, and can cause in any person a wide range of physical and psychological suffering and disability. Being disconnected from school and lacking access to education can cause psychological damage to a child this is because out-of-school children worry about their futures. Taking from the words of an out-of-school girl in Nangarhar, "I'm thinking about my future because I was supposed to be a teacher in the future, but I couldn't reach my desire. I'm unhappy and concerned about my fate." Another out-of-school boy in Nangarhar said sadly, "I know they (children who are in school) are better than me. They can read boards, I can't." Children further highlighted how in-school children can think about the future, but out-of-school children can only think about the present: "this boy works to support his family today, but that student studies and will be a big man tomorrow," Without fail, all the children said they would like to go to school (Dryden-Peterson, 2009, p6).

### **2.8.4 Teacher Effectiveness and Retention/Stability**

Retention of employees in child welfare, social service is a serious concern. The high turnover rate of professional workers poses a major challenge to child welfare agencies (Pryce et al., 2007 cited in Middleton and Potter, 2015).

Turnover can be determined by the nature of teachers who leave and those who replace them. It is perceived that there is a greater probability that higher qualified teachers are the ones who leave due to the possibility of accessing higher paying jobs than their peers (Barnett, 2003; Johnson, 2006).

Lawson et al. (2005) agree with Barnette (2003) and Johnson (2006) regarding higher skilled teachers leaving but view retention from a different perspective. They argue that retention alone

is not necessarily an advantage to the learners and the system since it seems the best teachers leave while the less qualified remain on the job.

Strolin et al. (2006) draw attention to the quality of service the educational setting provides for the teachers, resources for quality delivery and attributes these to some of the reasons for turnover. This is a typical situation in IDP camps and public schools where some IDPs attend.

## 2.9 Educational Improvement

Educational improvement or school improvement has generated an incredibly increasing interest globally. In the last less than a decade the concept of 'improvement' has been demanded and not merely expected (Gray et al., 1999). Therefore, schools are generally required to set improvement targets because the need for schools to improve is now more widely recognised. Gray et al. (1999, p5) view an improving school as one that satisfies the subjective sentiments of its controllers, participants, or Beneficiaries. They define school improvement as "increasing in its effectiveness over time, where 'effectiveness' is judged in value-added terms." School improvement is defined in ISIP as "a systematic, sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools, with the ultimate aim of accomplishing educational goals more effectively" (van Velzen et al., 1985, p48). Excellence and quality are constantly in the educational vocabulary, therefore, what kinds of excellence are we looking for? What sorts of success or high performance should we value? What kinds of change are we trying to achieve? Educational improvement is not a new concept neither is it something added. It is expected to be viewed as a professional obligation of all educators and a priority even within existing resources (Hopkins, 1987). Achieving change goes beyond simply deciding to embrace them but a conscious effort at implementing the new practices. Educational improvement does not happen haphazardly; rather it is a carefully planned and managed process that stretches over a period of many years. Therefore, change should be seen as a process and not an event (Hopkins, 1987).

Hargreaves and Shirley (2012) link educational improvement with innovation by alluding that every school system should find ways to develop innovation while continuously improving. These two factors they believe need to be harmonised for incremental improvements. The downside to this though is that it is hard to convince PMs and system leaders to change to a new approach especially if they have experienced educational and political success with the existing one. Hopkins (1987) concurs by stating that change is difficult even in a single class, this is because the cooperation of fellow teachers and the endorsement of the school leader are necessary for successful implementation.

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The demand for educational improvement gave rise to the global 'Education for All (EFA) in 1990 by UNESCO, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and the World Bank. This was a call for the universalisation of primary education and the massive reduction of illiteracy by the year 2015. This goal was aimed at being achieved through six goals which included, expanding early childhood care and education, providing free and compulsory primary education, improving the quality of education inter alia. The term EFA implies inclusive education however, Ainscow and Miles (2008, p15) argue that EFA strategies need to be more inclusive, this they believe "does not require the introduction of new techniques; rather it involves; collaboration within and between schools, closer links between schools and communities, networking across contexts, and the collection and use of contextually relevant evidence. The EFA was followed by the MDG two which targeted the achievement of universal primary education by 2015. The SDGs succeeded the MDGs, and it seeks to have a wider coverage compared to the MDGs. The SDG 4 is aimed at ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all (Advocates for International Development (A4ID), 2022). It encompasses subduing educational barriers to ensure comprehensive participation and access to quality learning opportunities in all fairness, while providing quality education that transcends the four walls of a school, by 2030 (Legal Guide to the SDGs, 2022).

However, despite all these global efforts to raise education standards, the greatest setback education systems still face worldwide is the provision of effective education for all children and young people (Ainscow and Miles, 2008). This challenge is more severe in developing nations where an estimate of 72 million children are not in primary school (UNESCO, 2008) thereby, making it evident that the MDG two has not succeeded in delivering its promise. In Sierra Leone for instance, the government in committing to achieve EFA, introduced a free primary education policy which became a trigger for rapid school enrolment. However, Nishimuko (2007) argues that whilst the rise in school enrolment is an EFA success indicator, it has led to a drop in quality provision. Although, Zimbabwe also endeavours to provide EFA to its citizens, challenges have caused a strain in the realisation of this goal. These include unequal access to quality, inadequate resources, equipment, infrastructure, and qualified teachers (Mugweni and Dakwa, 2013). The A4ID in the SDG 4 legal guide, which refers to the UNESCO Institute for statistics and the Global Education Monitoring report for the 2019 High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development, reveals that the whole world is grappling in the dark and yet to find the pathway to achieving EFA. This has been worsened by the high dropout rate, poor quality of education and inadequate trained teachers especially in sub-Saharan Africa. The covid-19 pandemic heightened the situation as it accounted for massive learning losses for children enrolled in school.

Despite the resolve by nations of the world to ensure EFA, MDG 2 and even the current SDG 4, the path to success has been quite bleak, especially in developing countries. This, therefore, calls for a purposeful and decisive resolve to improve our educational systems. The professional responsibility for achieving this as Hopkins (1987) states, lies with all educators and must be given precedence within existing resources. Education stakeholders have suggested various areas requiring improvement in the educational systems. For Ndawi (1997), education improvement entails matching quantity with quality, in the sense that resources should be adequately available alongside innovative teachers who are able to deliver quality education and cope with future challenges. Ndawi (1997) adds that the relevance of the education is critical to educational improvement therefore, the curricula should target real life situations and not one that addresses the demands of the past only. This should include teacher education curricula to create opportunities for teachers to learn analytical skills for dealing with circumstances the future might bring rather than just being prepared for the past and present. This Ndawi (1997) believes, has the potential to birth producers of new curricula rather than teachers who only depend on existing curricula they have been provided with. This can further serve as a motivation for skilled teachers to improve curricula, author books and engage in other educational activities that will bring about the improvement that suits their context.

Much as the above suggestions are laudable, the dynamics in a refugee/IDP context contrast with those in regular schools as such, it is worth exploring the concept of educational improvement in that context. The significance for educational improvement and the uniqueness of the IDP context led to my quest to explore improvement requirements for teachers through RQ3 which is, 'What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs?' I focused on teachers because they are largely the implementers of the policy and as Nishimuko (2007, p21) states, "the quality of education also depends on the quality of teachers." Hanushek (2000) concurs by asserting that improving teacher quality is an important key in improving student performance. Improving teacher quality is pertinent in enhancing student performance. However, teacher quality and teaching quality are both significant in the quality process.

## **2.10 Educational Improvement in Refugee/IDP Context**

Education has been described by Akudolu and Olibie (2015), as a vehicle that births skills and competencies through knowledge acquisition. These are the tools that provide for socio-economic development. This awareness has given rise to global declarations on education as a fundamental human right. Despite these declarations, the realities on ground are at variance due to

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inequalities that exist in many communities. The case of refugees and IDPs is one that shows the height of marginalisation and inequality in the face of praiseworthy declarations. The hurdle, therefore, is how to guarantee that education systems provide access to quality learning experiences that would enable the children realise their capacities which will invariably lead to achieving positive outcomes (Schleicher, 2014).

Dryden-Peterson, Dahya and Adelman (2017) draw attention to the circumstances around displacements which include limited resources that refugees normally have during this process. They add that refugees/IDPs become the most marginalised economically, politically, and educationally because of the nature of modern conflict. This situation is further heightened by the uncertainties of being in unfamiliar communities that have led to displacement from educational access (Harrell-Bond, 1986; Zetter, 15 cited in Dryden-Peterson et al., 2017). With all these impediments, how do refugee/IDP children access quality education? This is a pertinent question, considering the educational plight of IDPs especially, and the fact that displacements are not usually short-lived. Global records show that conflicts can lead to an average of 25 years of being displaced (UNHCR & Global Monitoring Report, 2016). Consequently, children spend their whole childhood in displacement thereby, facing difficulties in accessing education due to detrimental impact of crisis on education. What then is the way forward?

The SDG 4 as a progression from the previous targets set in MDG 2 which was aimed at universalising primary education by 2015, and the Dakar Framework for Action on EFA, focuses on ensuring education access for all, going beyond enrolment, and placing significance on quality education. Its target is to ensure that by the year 2030, all children complete free, equitable and quality primary education (A4ID, 2022). Although the SDG 4 was preceded by goals that were set to bring about improvement, protracted crisis that have plagued parts of the world have constituted a major stumbling block to the realisation of successful education accessibility especially for refugees and IDPs. Some setbacks experienced from the impact of crisis include, low quality of education resulting from untrained teachers, over-crowded classrooms, lack of functional education system amongst others (UNESCO Strategic Framework, 2017). The question is, if these challenges are still prevalent, what is the certainty that SDG 4 will be successful? As much as this is a worrisome and difficult question, educational improvement remains a critical need in any education system.

How then should educational improvement look in displacement contexts where there are no schools to attend or to improve, in most cases? Machel (1996) states that conflict has a devastating impact on children's entire development, physical, mental, and emotional. As such,

any meaningful programme should first seek to cater for these needs. Therefore, one of the most controversial issues is determining the learning and teaching content.

Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017), propound that the EFA and the SDG4 Education 2030 Agenda will only be realised if genuinely, quality education is inclusive and equitable to meet the needs of refugees and IDPs. This statement implies that the discourse on educational improvement in an IDP/refugee context will hold water only after IDPs/refugees have been provided with quality education because improvement can only happen on something that already exists. This is a critical point considering the nature of some IDP camps where there is a lack of any form of education provision. In discussing how refugees/IDPs can chart educational pathways in their article, the authors highlight support measures for educational success, these include, giving academic support through guidance in tutoring, etc., building positive relationships that aid academic support and serve equally as social support, virtual support that is facilitated by technology and forming relationships that are both virtual and face-to-face. These support measures point to the teacher whose role it is to provide this support.

Kagawa (2005) discusses the rationales for education in emergency but starts by concurring with Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017) that access should be priority, stating the need to insist on education accessibility since it is a non-negotiable right for all children. Kagawa (2005) adds that education in emergency plays a principal part in protection because of the protective measure school gives children by keeping them from physical risk. This is a contestable statement in the case of some nations like Nigeria where schools have become death traps and abduction centres for terrorists. This has accounted to some school dropout issues due to fear of school attendance as discussed in earlier sections. Kagawa (2005) carries on by propounding that formal education affects positively the children's psychology due to the sense of normalcy it gives them. Educational activities open opportunities for the children to convey their feelings and interact with peers. Again, this goes to show the significant role teachers play in the education process. If teachers are critical in educational effectiveness, what improvement mechanisms exist to support them in providing quality education for IDPs (RQ3)?

### **2.10.1 Teacher Training**

Cambodia has made tremendous effort over the last 20 years to include and ascertain that their education policies are born out of the global EFA. This has translated into a fast growth in the number of enrolments in primary education although, this has not guaranteed an increase in primary education completion. However, their teachers have been described as underqualified

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due to the general low education level of the teachers which has its roots from the Khmer Rouge period (1975 - 1978). Teachers and students were targeted during this period and 75% of teachers lost their lives (Kim and Rouse, 2011). With the advent of education reconstruction, more qualified teachers were responsible for teaching the less qualified (Bunlay et al., 2009). However, is the education level of teachers a guarantee for academic outcomes?

Teacher training, beyond the regular training, is considered a necessity in an IDP/refugee context due to the peculiarity of the children. This training has been described by Baum et al. (2013) as effective in the resilience building process for children. It cannot be overemphasised that armed conflicts and terrorist attacks instil high occurrences of mental health problems in children which potentially degenerate to Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2009). This condition is a huge barrier to learning and calls for intervention programmes that will enhance learning.

Due to the significant role teachers play in education quality, Baum et al. (2013) conducted a quasi-experimental study which was aimed at assessing the effectiveness of a short-term resilience-building teacher intervention on reducing post-traumatic distress in students in the context of exposure to recurrent rocket attacks in Israel. Using a cluster randomised design, 563 students were selected from grades four to six in four schools in Acre after the second Lebanon war. The students' trauma exposure, posttraumatic symptoms were evaluated before and after the intervention. The intervention focused on a short teacher training to equip teachers with the required resilience-building techniques for themselves and their students in a classroom environment. The training was facilitated by mental health professionals with expertise in trauma and resilience. The intervention sessions were made up of four lots of three-hour workshops with teachers, spanning two months which focused on units of psychoeducation. Teachers' manuals and other resources were provided to aid discussions in the classrooms as well as guidelines for implementing the programme (Baum et al., 2004). This intervention was targeted at appraising the success rate of the Building Resilience Intervention (BRI) and essentially broadening the teachers' personal sense of resilience. This was based on the hypothesis of the study which suggested that if the training is focused on the teachers, it would then impact positively on the students. The authors revealed that this evaluation was a first attempt, cost, and time effective, and impacted on students' wellbeing. The BRI intervention also proved effective because the skills learnt were further strengthened by the natural leadership role of the teacher. This training took into cognisance the primary role of teachers as such, it provided teachers with new skills as well as, classroom tools. The results also showed that the BRI continued to be apt and effective even beyond a year after the second Lebanon war, proving the strength of this intervention to be in its practicality and durability, due to the empowerment of the local systems that lasted even after

the intervention was concluded and experts departed. The trained teachers also being the ones in direct contact with the children, continued to impact positively on the children.

The significance of this teacher training is drawn from a qualitative study conducted by Barret and Berger (2021) who investigated teachers' experiences in supporting children from refugee background who had trauma issues. Data was elicited from six teachers through interviews. The teachers revealed that working with these children had adverse effects of mental and emotional stress on them because it demanded that the teachers got emotionally involved. This study shows that teachers equally face psychological stress and require their resilience built to be able to support the children. Teacher training in such contexts thus becomes a necessity to provide the tools for them to face these intangible situations that are present in displacement contexts.

### **2.10.2 System Improvement and Teacher Turnover/Transience**

Being a teacher in an IDP or refugee context can bring serious impact on teachers' emotional wellbeing and ability to effectively perform their role, this invariably has a ripple effect on the quality of teaching as well as, a contributing factor to issues of turnover. This emotional distress comes from teachers having to witness some extreme forms of trauma within a stressful and usually an environment filled with uncertainties (Middleton and Potter, 2015).

Whether in mainstream schools or in an IDP/refugee setting, teacher turnover and transience is harmful to children as it brings instability posing a barrier to successful quality improvement efforts (Markowitz, 2019; Ronfeldt et al., 2013). In IDP camps, the teacher is in some cases the only father and mother figure that the children have if there is a loss of family. Despite the need for teachers, the reality in IDP camps is that there are inadequate and inadequately trained teachers. What could possibly be responsible for the paucity of teachers in displacement contexts? Middleton and Potter (2015) attribute this problem to burnout which is aggravated by other challenges like extremely high numbers of children to a teacher, work absences, inter alia. They suggest that in trying to reduce turnover rates, it is imperative as a priority, to be clearly aware of the causes and antecedents of turnover. This is because high turnover affects the quality, consistency and stability of teaching provided for the children and can cause mistrust and discouragements as well as impact on teacher productivity. However, teacher turnover can be prevented if antecedents are understood.

Bassok et al. (2021) undertook quantitative research to investigate the prevalence of turnover, whether teachers who leave differ from those who remain using the measure of teacher-child

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interaction quality from all publicly funded, centre-based early childhood programs in Louisiana. Data was collected from the Louisiana Department of Education (LDOE) which was used as part of the Quality Rating Improvement System (QRIS). They authors concur with Middleton and Potter (2015) that understanding the extent, root source, and effects of turnover will determine quality provision in a learning setting. Although they found that there is a deficiency in data of workforce, they revealed that teacher turnover is high in Louisiana in both K-12 and ECE. They also found that a greater number of teachers who leave, do not remain in the teaching profession resulting to a loss of investment made in professional development. Their findings underscore the necessity to reduce the disparity that exist within the teaching sector and those of other professions with regards to compensations.

Therefore, as Middleton and Potter (2015) suggest, it is important to investigate and bear in mind the factors that motivate workers and those that propel them to leave the field. They suggest some factors that should be considered, and these include, insufficient resources, lack of career advancement opportunities, low salaries, nature of work e.g., stress, emotional exhaustion, burnout, and job satisfaction. An understanding of the causes of teacher turnover/transience will inform the kind of improvement mechanisms that are available for teachers to be effective. These ideas are drawn from literature about mainstream schools and will be discussed in relation to IDPs since this was the literature available.

Strolin et al. (2006) attribute the causes of turnover to three categories, individual factors which comprise burnout, commitment, self-efficacy, and demographics. These feelings brought about by persistent emotional and interpersonal stressors i.e., exhaustion, cynicism and an inefficacy consciousness; supervisory factors impacts on turnover as those saddled with the responsibility of mediating between workforce and administration are significant in providing support that can lessen impacts of anxiety etc; organisational factors have to do with a perception of lack of support from organisation in areas such as, low salaries, administrative burdens, organisational climate relating to job satisfaction.

Totenhagen et al. (2016) reviewed empirical literature in their article to identify general correlates or predictors of retention for childcare workers. Data was drawn from both quantitative and qualitative sources derived from several databases. From these emerged seven themes that represent the factors that enhance retention including, wages and benefits job satisfaction, organisational characteristics, job characteristics, alternative employment opportunities, demographic characteristics, and education and training. These factors are similar and agree with those propounded by Strolin et al. (2006). Relating the highlighted factors to the circumstances in

an IDP context, the following deduced mechanisms will be required to enable teachers provide and improve the quality UBE.

Access and system effectiveness – For IDPs, the priority is to ensure access to quality education just like Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017) asserted. This is the only way EFA can be successful. In earlier discussions, Adewale (2016) in his article, revealed the plight of IDPs and how this has resulted to educational displacements coupled with heightened security challenges. There cannot be teachers if there is no education provision because teachers require a system to operate in. The education system plays a vital role in providing access to IDPs/refugees as well as, creating the right climate and work environment that will foster effective teaching and learning (Totenhagen et al., 2016). This, however, is a huge challenge in IDP camps as the environment has been described by many scholars as atrocious (Adewale, 2016). Other significant elements that the educational system is required to provide include, sufficient resources and remuneration. Thus, for any meaningful teaching and learning to happen, these poor work conditions must be addressed as lack of system support can result in job dissatisfaction (Strolin et al., 2006).

Wages or remuneration have the capacity to boost or discourage childcare workers. Infact, Totenhagen et al. (2016) assert that it accounted a major reason why teachers leave their job. Garcia (2011) argues this from the perspective of an empirical study which revealed no statistically notable relationship between teacher's income and their commitment to remain in the job, stating a trend whereby, teachers with higher salaries did not last on the job. However, wages have been associated with teachers' commitment to their job, resulting to higher retention is wages are considered high (Totenhagen et al., 2016). Wages/remuneration can potentially lead to job satisfaction although other factors such as burnout can challenge it. This is because teachers are faced with challenges such as extremely high numbers of children to a teacher, work absences, rates of turnover largely caused by burnout (Middleton and Potter, 2015). To improve teacher performance, the educational system will need to pay more attention to the welfare package of teachers especially those teachers in displaced contexts. This means that the education system i.e., government needs to put its weight in IDP education so that funding is made available rather than the IDP camps depending on donations that are not certain to come. The lack of salaries, coupled with the security challenges in displaced settings account for the scantness of teachers and their retention. Totenhagen et al. (2016) draw attention to the fact that childcare workers teachers remain in their job only to while away time until alternative employment opportunities are available.

### **2.10.3 Teachers' Role in Educational Improvement**

Teachers play a very significant role in providing quality education thereby making the teacher a key component in the improvement process. Although there are many controversies on the yardstick for gauging quality education, the minimum expectation is that the children learn basic reading, writing and arithmetic skills (Fredriksson, 2004).

Much as there are required improvement mechanisms to enhance teacher effectiveness, the teacher also has a responsibility in ensuring educational improvement. This springs from the characteristics that make for a good teacher which include, knowledge of significant areas and content, pedagogical skill, ability to self-appraise, empathy and good classroom management skills (Fredriksson, 2004). This, as Gibbs and Miller (2014) describe, begins from how well the teachers perceive themselves as successful managers of their classrooms and their level of commitment. Fredriksson (2004) propounds three areas teachers can themselves engage in to improve quality, quality awareness – the need for the teacher to appreciate the need for quality by constantly reflecting on their teaching, evaluating their teaching methods, and aiming to improve their techniques and skills through personal development; professional ethics – this has to do with the need to establish regulations that ensure professional prestige and provide the principles that should govern the practice of teaching. This is because teachers interact with many children from different backgrounds and teachers are saddled with the responsibility of all that concerns the children's best interest; and professional freedom – this is very significant in the development and improvement of quality education. Teachers require the right to decide the most suitable methods to use to achieve optimal learning because they are the ones in the classroom, engaging in the teaching process. Professional freedom should also be reflected in teaching that is devoid of political, economic, ideological, or religious ascendancy.

Although teachers are the drivers of EFA, Kim and Rouse (2011) argue that the role of teachers is not given the appropriate recognition by allowing them to actively engage in education policies rather than being one of the features utilised in education policies. They add that beyond high level academic skills in teaching, teachers' ability to examine their teaching methods especially as regards children's individual educational obstacles. Gopinathan (2006) points to the need for teachers to realise and acknowledge their role in breaking the cycles of educational and social limitations that have been caused by national and local circumstances.

Resilience plays a critical role in teacher effectiveness as it is a prerequisite for the teacher to be able to build the children's resilience. Resilience will keep the teacher motivated and give the teacher capacity to 'bounce back' (Gu and Day, 2007). Teachers require a broad understanding of curriculum theory and practice to ensure quality teaching and improvement (Akudolu and Olibie,

2015), as well as pedagogical skills to develop their capacity to respond to multi-age/level learners as well as different educational needs (UNESCO, 2010). The above discussion will apply to teachers in mainstream schools as well as teachers of displaced children. This because it involves the contributions that the teacher makes which comes from within, largely the teacher's belief system.

## **2.11 Summary**

This chapter set the boundaries, as well as clearly stating the context of this research by providing a critical review of the existing literature on the focus of the study which is, IDP/refugee basic education policy and its practice, and quality UBE provision. The concepts that described the boundaries and context of the study emerged from the RQs posed. These RQs emerged from the three major sections in this chapter. RQ1 emerged from the discussions in the policy section and was set to uncover the practicality of the UBE policy. RQ2 was an offshoot from the quality section and was targeted at getting participant insights on the concept of quality in an IDP setting with a view to assessing education effectiveness from a teacher perspective. While RQ3 emerged from the improvement discussion, to unravel improvement mechanisms available to aid education effectiveness in an IDP context. The concepts formed the framework for this research and show the boundaries of the study. The discussion in this chapter followed the two main threads that run through this study, 'policy' and 'quality'. The policy thread focused on global proclamations on IDP education and the Nigerian policy on IDP education (UBE). It was critical to probe into existing literature to gain an awareness of existing policy statements and its practice, in terms of accessibility and/or level of provision. The quality thread which had two strands (effectiveness and improvement) was a significant part of this chapter due to its focus on teachers who are considered in literature as the sole determinants of educational quality. Therefore, to provide not just mere education, but quality education for IDPs, teacher effectiveness is a prerequisite. However, literature shows that teacher quality is not necessarily a guarantee for teaching quality (Geo, 2007) as such, the need to investigate the mechanisms that will improve teacher effectiveness especially in an IDP context. Drawing from the RQs and literature, the next chapter discusses the methodology adopted to best answer the RQs, justifications for the choice and an in-depth explanation of the research process.



## Chapter 3 Methodology and Research Design

### 3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an in-depth review of literature that examined the concept of displacement in both refugee and IDP context, policy statements on IDP and refugee education, IDPs in the Nigerian context, the Nigerian UBE Policy, educational displacement, educational quality, teacher effectiveness and educational improvement. Following the aim of this study which is to shine the light on IDP education policy and its practice; investigate the provision of quality education in displacement contexts; and explore the possible need for the provision of quality basic education or its improvement for displaced children in IDP camps, the following RQs emerged as a guide to this exploratory study; **RQ1**. To what extent is the provision of basic education available for IDP children? Answers to this research question were solicited from policymakers (PM) who comprised of staff from the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), from camp teachers who are considered the policy practitioners (PP) and from policy beneficiaries (PB) who comprised the internally displaced children; **RQ2**. How is quality UBE perceived in an IDP context? What are the perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in IDP camps? Like RQ1, this RQ was addressed by responses from PMs, PPs (including teachers in a neighbouring school) and PBs; **RQ3**. What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs? To answer this question, data was elicited from PMs and PPs. The RQs were directed at these participants because of their potential to offer useful data as it relates to their various roles. These three RQs represent the two main threads of this research, RQ1 focuses on policy while RQ2 and RQ3 deal with the concept of quality (effectiveness and improvement).

This chapter also explains the significance of the research methodology and design in this research, it also justifies the research methods adopted in eliciting answers to RQs posed. A description of the instruments used for data collection and the rationale behind the choice of these methods are highlighted as well as the data analysis process. This chapter also gives an account of the pilot study undertaken, sampling method adopted, and fieldwork carried out in the IDP camps in Nigeria, observations made, and limitations encountered while undertaking the empirical research. Ethical considerations, triangulation, are also highlighted in the chapter.

## 3.2 Qualitative Approach

The essence for every valid research would be to find answers to problems and provide evidence for these answers. Research paradigms help to situate research, they refer to the world views or belief systems that guide researchers and which impacts on the way in which knowledge is generated, studied, and interpreted (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998; Patton, 1990). In education research three main educational research paradigms exist, these include the Positivist, which takes a quantitative data collection approach, the Interpretivist takes a qualitative approach to data collection, and Mixed Methods (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Reese (1980, p.450) views the Positivist paradigm as “a family of philosophies characterised by an extremely positive evaluation of science and scientific method.” Positivism holds that the clearest possible ideal of knowledge is gained through science as such, the means to understand behaviour is by observation and reason thereby, explaining proceeds by way of scientific description which is numeric in nature (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson& Christensen, 2012). Cohen et al. (2011) argue that the limitation of this approach is in its study of human behaviour, this is because social phenomena are completely in opposition with the order and regularity of the natural world due to the intricacy and ambiguity of human nature. The Interpretivist paradigm focuses on concern for the individual, it is nonnumeric in nature and as Johnson and Christensen (2012) explain, it is a means to discover or learn more about a topic or phenomena by understanding people’s experiences as they express their perspectives. The mixed method is empirical research which involves a mixture of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches of data collection (Punch & Oancea, 2014), the exact mixture of which is usually dependent on the research questions and situation of the researcher.

To carry out this exploratory research, the research took on the interpretivist paradigm adopting a qualitative approach to data collection due to its focus on individuals (IDPs) and the central endeavour of this paradigm which is in understanding the subjective world of human experience (Cohen et al., 2011). This study, therefore, focuses on internally displaced children, camp managers, camp teachers, mainstream schoolteachers and SUBEB staff to gain an understanding and obtain data from their experiences which was targeted at investigating the actual practice of IDP education policy and the quality of its provision. Like Bogdan and Biklen (1982) asserted, this study is characterised by the natural setting of the research participants as its main source of data while the researcher is the key instrument. This is because actions are best understood if observed in the environment that it happens. Therefore, this approach affords my research the opportunity to get inside my participants to understand the IDP situation from within.

Wellington (2000) asserts that the nature of education itself is concerned with human beings, who in their very nature are not predictable and static unlike inert materials and fixed numbers that are static and predictable. This assertion is true concerning this study as its focus was on human beings who by the very nature of their displacement, traumatic experiences and being 'children' are not predictable or static. The qualitative approach, therefore, is embedded in subjectivity, this is because the perspectives of the research participants convey their subjective notions about their social world while the researcher's subjective influences are also present in the study process (Hennink et al., 2011). The quantitative or scientific model has criticised Wellington's (2000) and Hennink et al. 's (2011) assertions by arguing that qualitative research is 'too subjective' due to its large dependence on feelings and personal responses which they insist are not accepted as reliable data in the same sense as numbers, percentages or measurable figures are. Wellington (2000) responds to this critique by stating that 'objectivity' is not necessarily the best test of a good research, he propounds those other qualities or characteristics are more critical in achieving good research. These include being systematic, which implies that the research is carefully planned and carried out; the research should be realistic, believable, and credible; should be evidence based and verifiable; and be based on thorough research ethics which will make it trustworthy. Hennink et al. (2011), further state that the background, position, and emotions of the researcher significantly impact the research process as such, reflexivity is a key element engrained in the research process, which involves researchers deliberately reflecting on their subjectivity. Hennink et al. (2011) however, sounds a word of caution from concerns about the extent reflexivity can be practiced in ensuring a balance between being thoroughly reflective and excessively analytical. Due to the subjective nature of this research, the factors discussed above (Wellington, 2000; Hennink et al., 2011) were embedded in the research through its careful methodological planning, addressing real issues i.e., IDP educational provision and I, the researcher collecting data in a real context (IDP context), making it evidence based. Reflectivity was employed throughout this study, to question the research process thereby, aiding the validation of the process. This research also ensured ethical considerations particularly for the vulnerable and displaced children. Ethics and data protection approval from the respective university authorities were given and followed through during the research process.

Taking a qualitative approach for this study afforded me the opportunity to benefit from the significant characteristic of qualitative research which is its diverse and naturalistic nature. Therefore, this study involved studying internally displaced persons, and the educational events in their natural settings. This qualitative approach focused on concern for the displaced children, exploring the 'how' and 'why' of their basic education provision, behaviours of PMs, teachers and the children as regards UBE provision and the things that govern these behaviours (Punch and

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Oancea, 2014). The richness of data collection and analysis is in its focus on understanding and an emphasis on meaning. As such, studying IDPs in their natural setting had the potential to give an understanding of phenomena through participant voices thus, giving it a naturalistic posture (Edmonds and Kennedy, 2013).

This study took a qualitative approach because of the nature of RQs that focused on IDPs who live in camps, which is a small case. This approach also had the advantage of lending itself to several methodological strategies, designs and approaches to data collection and analysis. This, therefore, gave my research the options to choose from a variety of strategies/design to adopt to gain in-depth insights from participants (Punch and Oancea, 2014) as such, this study adopts the case study design.

In summary, the choice of qualitative approach for this research was based on its features as enumerated by Bogdad and Biklen (1982). (1) Data in this study was collected from the natural setting of the IDPs and other participants, with me, being the main tool in the data collection process. This gave me the opportunity for better understanding since action is best observed in the setting it occurs therefore, the emphasis in my research was the context; (2) This research took into cognisance that every opportunity had the potential to reveal a broad understanding of the subject being researched. Thus, it meant that nothing was perceived as insignificant in the process. Data collected was presented descriptively, interpreting, and justifying the words with quotes from data. (3) Due to the nature of this research, the process was more significant rather than the outcomes. (4) This research developed as data was being collected and investigated rather than proving or disproving hypothesis, it made the perspectives of the participants the focal point and ensured that their perspectives were presented correctly to understand the participants' meaning. Therefore, the data in this research was analysed inductively.

Scott and Garner (2013) assert that qualitative research focuses on observations which can take different forms. These observations could be written, spoken about, filmed, and interpreted but not easily measured, counted, not numerical, or generalised about based on statistical reasoning. In this research, a written observation of a classroom lesson was used as a tool for data collection. Punch (2009) alludes to the fact that qualitative research is not a single entity, but an umbrella term that encompasses a broad variety.

Qualitative approach has been criticised for having a weak 'purpose of social science' research based on the belief that the focus of social research should not be on seeking participant intentions although, this is not disregarding the significance of this process as it brings about an understanding of actions of people (Cohen et al., 2011). Rex (1974) buttresses this by stressing the need to look beyond the social reality presented by participant actors rather than being

restricted by it, as the state of their consciousness at the time of the research cannot be ascertained. Cohen et al. (2011, p21) assert that, qualitative researchers “have gone too far in abandoning scientific procedures of verification and in giving up hope of discovering useful generalisations about behaviour.” Argyle M. (1978) criticises qualitative interviews for their nature of being less controlled, claiming that it opens higher risks of inaccuracy compared to carefully controlled interviews such as those used in social surveys but still are inaccurate. Bernstein (1974) suggests the possibility of subjective reports being insufficient and deceptive due to the participants’ meaning of situations, circumstances, and how that affects their participant perceptions. One important factor in such circumstances that must be considered is the power of others to impose their own definitions of situations upon participants. Therefore, Morrison (2009) concurs by alluding to the fact that we cannot depend on perceptions of participants as this could be incorrect.

To mitigate these limitations in this research, the use of multiple methods of data collection is adopted as explained in the ‘triangulation’ section. Worthy of note however, is that the strength of this research lies in the voices of the participants, in their real-life context as the focus of this research cannot be assessed or quantified by scientific measures.

### **3.2.1 Research Methodology**

Methodology has to do with a wider and a more conceptual way of thinking about research than any one method or even any given research design. It is the organised reflection on the theoretical and philosophical reasons for using particular designs and methods. Research design encompasses all the decisions involved in planning and executing a research project. It situates the researcher in the empirical world, and a basic plan for a piece of research (Punch and Oancea, 2014). Sarantakos (1993) concurs by asserting that methodology is simply a model employed by a researcher in carrying out a particular research project. Research design or methodology is an overall plan for answering our RQs. It specifies research methods, activities, and techniques that we will need to answer our questions satisfactorily (Scott and Garner, 2013). Wellington (1966) stresses the need to understand methodology as it is essential in assessing the value and quality of a piece of research. Therefore, the content, structure and process of a research method are usually dictated by the methodology. It entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm (Cook and Fonow, 1991). This includes basic knowledge related to the research subject and research method in question and the framework employed in the particular context. In a nutshell research

methodology can be perceived as the process involved in investigating and formulating research data and outcomes.

A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman 2008, p.31). The type of research design is determined by the aim, rationale and type of data that will be collected. Just like an architect depends on a model to be able to produce a good structure, a good design is required to ensure reliability and validity of the research (Bryman, 2008). There are different types of research designs in social research; longitudinal design, case study design, cross sectional or survey design, comparative designs, and quasi-experiments (Robson, 2002; Cohen et al, 2007)

The context and research questions of a research are key components in determining the research design. The focus of this research is basic education policy and practice for IDPs who have been displaced by terrorist attacks and conflicts. Therefore, conducting research in violent conflict situations as this, is usually accompanied by uncommon challenges that social scientists naturally face. Therefore, to overcome this challenge, I sought to understand the origins and nature of the conflict as it is experienced by those involved in, or affected by it, as this determines the effectiveness of the research design in violent conflict contexts (Barakat, Chard, Jacoby and Lume. 2010). The above assertion forms the premise for the design choice of this research. My study thus, followed a case study design using qualitative methods of data collection to answer the research questions posed. The choice of a case study approach for this research stemmed from the aim to have an in-depth understanding of the case, its natural setting, recognising its complexity and context (Punch and Oancea, 2014). The aim was also to come up with empirical evidence by investigating the implementation of IDP education policy and the quality of its provision within its real-life context, especially due to the unclear boundaries between the phenomenon and context (Yin, 1994).

### **3.2.2 Case Study**

This case study provides a means of carrying out small-scale research to explore the RQs posed. Its adaptable nature means that it can be used to explore diverse contexts and situations from the experiences of individuals to the workings of large institutions (Atkins and Wallace, 2012). There have been several attempts by scholars at defining a 'case study' which has led to variations in the definition of the concept. Bogdad and Biklen (1982, p58) define a case study as "a detailed examination of one setting, or one single subject, or one single depository of documents, or one particular event." Sturman (1994) views case study as a common term for examining and

investigation of an individual, group, or phenomenon. There are diverse techniques used for this investigation and could also include both qualitative and quantitative approaches. However, for Sturman (1994), the prominent feature of case study is the belief that human systems develop a characteristic wholeness or integrity and are not simply a loose collection of traits thereby, requiring in-depth investigation. Therefore, because of this belief, case study researchers maintain that to understand a case, it is significant that the investigation of the interdependencies of the parts and patterns that emerge is in-depth to explain why things happen as they do, and to generalise or predict from a single example. Stake (1988) offers a loose definition of a case study and opines that it is a study of a restricted system, accentuating the unity and wholeness of that system, but restricting the focus to those aspects that are significant to the research problem at the time. MacDonald and Walker (1975) view case study as a means of examining an instance in action. The choice of the word 'instance' is critical in this definition as it infers a target of generalisation. For Bassey (1999), the nature of case study is activity therefore, a case study can be said to consist in the imagination of the case which proceeds to the invention of the study.

Yin (1994) views case study as an empirical enquiry that has two components, real life context and the boundaries of that context because he argues that the boundary lines between phenomenon and context are blurred. Therefore, he stresses that case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clear and which may use varied sources of evidence and theoretical propositions. Although some scholars argue that case study research is ambiguous, it is generally accepted as having features of rich descriptions and details (Cohen et al., 2011).

The definitions have in common a commitment to studying a situation or phenomenon in its 'real life' context, to understand complexity and defining case study other than by methods. Case study focuses on either of two parts, on an individual representative of a group such as a male head teacher or more often it addresses a phenomenon like a particular situation, event, or activity. The phenomenon being researched is studied in its natural setting, bound by space and time, this makes case study research richly descriptive because it is grounded in deep and varied sources of information. It employs quotes of key participants, anecdotes, prose composed from interviews and other literary techniques to create mental images that bring to life the complexity of the many variables inherent in the phenomenon being studied (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). Case study research is generally more exploratory than confirmatory. The researcher normally seeks to identify themes or categories of behaviour and events rather than prove relationships or test hypothesis. Due to its nature of collecting and analysing data from multiple sources i.e., interviews, observations, existing documents, it requires the researcher to spend more time in the environment being investigated than it is with other types of research. Case study research

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creates the opportunity for the researcher to explore additional questions by the act of investigating a topic in detail (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006).

What then is a case? Much as giving an answer to this question is challenging, Miles and Huberman (1994) respond to this question by stating that a case is a kind of phenomenon which occurs in a bounded context. Therefore, it may be one case or perhaps a small number of cases that will be studied in detail, using whatever methods and data that seem appropriate. A case could come in form of an individual, a role, a small group, an organisation, a community, or a nation. The general aim, however, is to develop a full understanding of the case as possible. Punch and Oancea (1994) add that a case can also be a decision, policy, process, an incident, or event. This research is a single case study because it focuses on displaced children residing in IDP camps in Nigeria, and the enactment of the UBE policy in that context. It is a single case because of the critical nature of the research, the circumstances around the case are extreme which revealed in-depth information that have contributed to knowledge (Yin, 2014). The extreme nature of this case as described in literature involves violent conflicts and terrorist attacks by boko haram and fulani herdsmen that have occurred in Nigeria since 2001, especially in the Northeast and Northcentral regions. These terrorists' attacks have been responsible for mass displacements, which have led to victims taking refuge in camps (Olaniyan and Obadara, 2008; IDMC, 2015). Protracted insurgencies have continued to be unleashed by these terrorists following their aim, which is to destroy the education system in Nigeria, as their name implies (boko haram means, western education forbidden).

The consequence of these insurgencies includes, ending any education access by destroying schools, killing teachers, abduction of school children, educational displacements, threatening and attacking villages to kill and destroy social facilities (Bertoni et al., 2019). These terrorist attacks have led to an immediate collapse of education (Jones et al., 2022), huge decline in school enrolment because of fear, loss of places of heritage, immense hardships and uncertainties, trauma, and bitterness from painful separation from loved ones especially for children (Adewale, 2016; Akuto, 2017). The camp environment presents another challenge as it is dreadful and characterised by very poor security (Adewale, 2016). As such, displacement context (IDP camps) and UBE provision for IDPs residing in IDP camps formed the boundary/scope of my research and data collection. The choice of this single case was significant because displacement is a serious and persistent problem, and its gravity is mostly on children who through attacks on their education, have been denied in most cases, their fundamental rights - education. Children always constitute the largest population in any displacement situation, "IDPs however, are usually more vulnerable, less visible and less protected than refugees", and constitute 90% of 27 million children who lack educational access (Ferris and Winthrop, 2011, p11&12; IDMC, 2015). The

devastating impact of displacement on IDP education is also evident in the way large numbers of overage children struggle to access education and persist in school, the confinement in the camp and sometimes the transient nature of the camps, threatens IDP education (). The negligence and apathetic nature of the government towards IDP education has also challenged their education (Adewole, 2013; Ibeanu, 1999), placing most IDPs at risk of becoming academic casualties (Masten et al., 1997). These challenges have continued to militate against UBE accessibility and quality provision for IDPs even though basic education is a global target. Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017) asserted that this global aim can only be achieved if all out-of-school children access education.

The UBE policy was/is an attempt to provide quality education that is free, compulsory, and universal for every Nigerian child, as well as, to cater for the formal needs of children whose schooling has been interrupted. Despite this effort, there still exist a wide gap between the policy statements and the reality in IDP contexts (Oyandiran, 2014). The need for IDP education cannot be overemphasised as it is critical in alleviating the psychosocial impact of conflicts and terrorist attacks, because it provides a sense of normalcy, stability, structure, and belief for a better future (Creed and Morpeth, 2014). Therefore, the aim of my research was to shine the light on IDP education policy and its practice, to investigate UBE accessibility and quality/effectiveness thus making the unit of my analysis the 'UBE policy' through the lens of its accessibility and quality for IDPs residing in IDP camps.

A case study aims to understand the case in depth, and in its natural setting, recognising its complexity and its context. It also has a holistic focus, aiming to preserve and understand the wholeness and unity of the case. Therefore, a case study is more a strategy than a method; a combination of methods can be used to explore the case. The case study then is not a specific technique; it is a way of organising social data to preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied. Meriam (2001) suggests that case study research may be founded in ethnography, historical, psychological, or sociological orientations. Case study research may also be classified as intrinsic, instrumental, or collective (Stake, 1995). Yin (2003) suggests three kinds of case study research designs, these include exploratory, explanatory, and descriptive (Yin, 2003).

To select the most appropriate design that matches the perspective of my investigation based on the RQs, the descriptive which overlaps on some elements of the explanatory design were considered more advantageous for this work. This is because descriptive design provides opportunity for a thorough description of a phenomenon in its real context (Yin, 2003), exactly what my research set out to achieve. It also serves other purposes as such, I can focus on IDP UBE

provision, an area not well researched, giving my work the chance to delve into new territories. Explanatory elements have been imbibed due to another objective of this study which is the effectiveness of IDP UBE by comparing policy and practice. Rather than give statistical results in as it is common in this case, though is not feasible in my study, the use of explanatory case design offers the chance to give explanations (Yin, 2014). My study took an ethnographic orientation due to its aim of probing IDP situations as it relates to basic education provision which involved interactions with the IDPs and writing about them. It was an effort to present a thorough account of basic education policy and practice for displaced children (Scott and Garner, 2013). This was with a view to gain a holistic description of the group by incorporating the views of the group and the researcher's perceptions and interpretations of the group's situation.

As much as case study research derives its strength from reality, it has been criticised for its lack of generalisability (Cohen et al., 2011). As such, the purpose of this case study is not to make generalisations, but the study gains its uniqueness from having both intrinsic and instrumental elements. Intrinsic because the study was born out of my interest, and instrumental, because of its aim which is to shine the light on IDP education policy and practice. It is a case study that seeks to evaluate the extent of policy implementation and the quality of UBE provision for displaced children and offer explanations by unravelling the findings from the different stakeholders involved in the research process (Thomas, 2021). The case is important, interesting and apt. In other instances, however, the purpose of a case study will determine its generalisation. Some case studies go beyond the main desire to study the case as the goal of generalising is paramount at the start of the study. Depending on the aim of the case study, and principally on the method of its data analysis, a case study can inform theoretical development that can be potentially applicable to other cases (Punch and Oancea, 2014).

The purpose of this case study as stated above was not to make generalisations, but the study derived its worthiness from its uniqueness in very important respects. The intent of this study was to understand the case at hand in its complexity, its entirety as well as in its context (Punch and Oancea, 2014). My reason for the choice of a case study research design was based on its function, characteristics and how well it allowed full investigation of my RQs. The choice of a case study design was propelled by the unique nature of a case study in which it involves real people in real situations, thereby enabling my readers to understand my ideas more clearly than simply presenting them with abstract theories and principles (Cohen et al., 2011). Case study research helped my research establish cause and effect; this was achieved by observing effects in real contexts (IDP camps). This is because context plays a vital role in determining both causes and effects, a prerequisite for gaining the depth my research requires. Atkins and Wallace (2012) however, argue this cause-and-effect notion by stating that case studies are vulnerable to the

accusation that they make claims and assumptions about cause and effect which go beyond the evidence presented. Another unique problem in case study is in justifying to others why the researcher can be a knowledgeable observer-participant who can tell what s/he sees (Kemmis, 1980). In addressing the criticism of Atkins and Wallace (2012), it is pertinent to recall one of the merits of case study which is that it derives its strength from reality and from the researcher being the key instrument, collecting rich data from the real setting of the research' (Punch and Oancea, 1994), this shows that claims and assumptions made about cause and effect are valid evidence.

### **3.2.3 Merits and Limitations of Case Study Research**

From discussions above, several merits of case study can be deduced however, Cohen et al. (2011) add that conducting case study research has advantages. These advantages include a clear and easy understanding of the results by a wide audience irrespective of academic abilities. This is because results are frequently written in everyday, non-professional language easily comprehensible and they speak for themselves; case study research has the potential of identifying unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger data (e.g. surveys), such features are essential for understanding the research situation and they are strong on reality; they have the potential to lead to other ideas that are similar to the case at hand thereby assisting interpretation of other similar cases; They can be undertaken by a single researcher without needing a full research team; They can embrace and build in unanticipated events and uncontrolled variables.

Adelman et al. (1980) concur with Cohen et al. (2011) by stating as one of the merits of a case study research, its strength in reality, although as he suggests, case study research is difficult to organise. In contrast, other research is often 'weak in reality' but susceptible to ready organisation. Case studies allow generalisations either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Their peculiar strength lies in their attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case in its own right; case studies recognise the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths. By carefully attending to social situations, case studies can represent something of the discrepancies or conflicts between the viewpoints held by participants. The best-case studies can offer some support to alternative interpretations; case studies considered as products, may form an archive of descriptive material sufficiently rich to admit subsequent reinterpretation; case studies are 'a step to action'. They begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Their insights may be directly interpreted and used; case studies present research or evaluation data in a more publicly

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accessible form than other kinds of research reports, although this virtue is to some extent bought at the expense of their length.

Cohen et al. (2011) assert that case study faces limitations which include the lack of generalisability of results unless where other readers/researchers see their application; Case studies are not easily open to cross-checking; hence they may be selective, biased, personal, and subjective; They are prone to problems of observer bias. To mitigate these limitations in my research, it has been stated categorically that this research did not aim at making generalisations but focused on its uniqueness as a study that aimed to understand IDP education policy and practices, and the provision of quality UBE for IDPs. The various data collection methods also served as a means to address these limitations.

Case study research is not limited to a single source of data, in fact good case studies benefit from having multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2012). As such, this research is set to benefit from multiple sources of data collection which include, individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations, and document review. Although, my research derives its richness from collecting data in the real setting of my context, the current global pandemic situation posed a challenge in achieving that physically. This impacted on my research and led to a change in data collection process. As such, based on the 'new normal', data for this research was collected virtually, via Microsoft Teams/zoom video call. This medium of data collection had its merits which include, data was collected in real time and stored just like in the case of collecting data physically; it was cost-effective and time conserving; as well as it offered several channels of communication and provided the potential of covering a wider population of participants, as well as it aided establishing positive relationships with my participants, just as in the case of collecting the data physically. Video recording has the capacity to give the 'raw' observational or interview record than human observation (Simpson and Tuson, 2003), and the record can be viewed several times to relive the interview and observation process. "Audio-visual data collection has the capacity for completeness of analysis and comprehensiveness of material, reducing the dependence on prior interpretation by the researcher. Video recordings also enable several playbacks to be conducted, to scrutinise the data more fully" (Morrison, 1993: 91).

Stalwart Communities Africa, an organisation that focuses on offering co-ordinated educational and social development programmes, assisted in coordinating the arrangements for data collection as the organisation has a working relationship with the IDP camps in Jos and Abuja. At the time of fieldwork, only one camp in Jos was involved due to security challenges that arose. This compelled the researcher to change the location of fieldwork to Abuja and Adamawa State to continue data collection, this was made possible by the advantage of online data collection.

### 3.3 Data Collection Methods

Case study research is not limited to a single source of data, in fact good case studies gain from having multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2012). As such, this research benefitted from multiple sources of data collection which included, individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations, and document review. Although, my research derives its richness from collecting data in the real setting of my context, the current global pandemic situation posed a challenge in achieving that physically. This impacted on my research and led to a change in data collection process. As such, based on the 'new normal', data for this research was collected virtually, via zoom video call and telephone interviews. This medium of data collection has its merits which include, data was collected in real time and stored just like in the case of collecting data physically; it was cost-effective and time conserving; as well as offered several channels of communication and establishing positive relationships just as in the case of collecting the data physically. Video recording has the capacity to give the 'raw' observational or interview record than human observation (Simpson and Tuson, 2003), and the record can be viewed several times to relive the interview and observation process. "Audio-visual data collection has the capacity for completeness of analysis and comprehensiveness of material, reducing the dependence on prior interpretation by the researcher. Video recordings also enable several playbacks to be conducted, to scrutinise the data more fully" (Morrison, 1993: 91). Stalwart Communities Africa assisted in coordinating the arrangements for data collection as the organisation has a working relationship with the IDP camps in Jos and Abuja.

#### 3.3.1 Interviews

Interviews are a very typical form of data collection in case study research as they allow the researcher to obtain rich, personalised information (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). It is a data collection method that involves the researcher asking the research participants questions to elicit information that will help to address the research questions posed (Robson, 2002). There are different interview types which potentially determine the depth of response that the researcher desires. These interview types include fully structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. The fully structured interviews are interviews that have pre-arranged questions with specified wording that have been predetermined. Unstructured interviews unlike the fully structured interviews, have an area of focus but allows for a free flow of conversation only within

the boundaries of that focus area. This type of interviews tends to be mostly informal in nature. Semi-structured interviews on the other hand, has pre-planned questions but allows for flexibility. The interviewer is at liberty to modify these questions however, based on what he/she perceives as most appropriate. Semi-structured interviews give room for further explanations to be made by the interviewer, excluding of questions that may appear unnecessary during the interview and including questions that were not on the list of questions to be asked. Semi-structured interviews are usually characterised by open-ended questions (Robin, 2002). The interview type adopted for this research was the semi-structured interview. The reason for this choice was to gain a richer and extensive data as it reveals participants' perceptions, how they construct reality and think about situations, beyond merely supplying the answers to a researcher's particular questions and own implied construction of reality (Yin, 2012). The participants shared their unique experiences as IDPs, camp managers, camp teachers, neighbouring schoolteachers and policy makers as such, the interviews gave them the opportunity to tell their stories through formulated questions and anticipated probes that evoked good responses (Stake, 1995).

In this research, interviews were carried out in two parts. One to one semi-structured interviews were held with policy makers (Ministry of Education staff) and policy practitioners (PPs) Camp managers (CMs), camp teachers (CTs), neighbouring school head and teacher (NSTs). This was to get views from PMs about policy, quality, and implementation rate and from the PPs about the actual practicality and quality of UBE. While the children were involved in focus group interviews. Although, one of the strengths of interviews as a data collection tool is its ability to allow the researcher to engage with participants individually face to face (Atkins and Wallace, 2012), this process was carried out via zoom video call. This method of data collection had the advantage of saving time and resources, ability to replay interviews for accuracy. However, the downside was the network issues experienced during interview sessions and the lack of internet facility in some areas which led to having phone interviews. The interview questions were directed at proffering answers to the research questions.

### **3.3.2 Focus Group (FG) Interviews**

The researcher is a moderator, facilitator, monitoring and recording interactions. It is the explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that otherwise might not be accessible. A well-facilitated group interaction can assist in bringing to the surface aspects of a situation that might not otherwise be exposed. FG can stimulate people in making explicit views, perceptions, motives, and reasons. For children, FG interviews encourage interaction because they are less intimidating (Grieg and Taylor, 1999). Limitations of FG include group and culture dynamics and achieving balance in the group interactions.

In this research, FG interviews were held with internally displaced children between the ages of 8 and 11 years, who live in IDP camps. Children were involved in this research due to the significance of their 'voice' in telling their stories and recounting their experiences. Also, because they are valuable sources of information about themselves (Docherty and Sandelowski, 1999). The FG interviews were necessary as the children are a significant part of the policy cycle. It was important to get their perceptions about the practice of the policy and quality of UBE since they are the beneficiaries of the policy. With an understanding of the state of the children as a marginalised and vulnerable group, this informed the kind of interview questions prepared for the FG interviews. The interview questions were set to use informal, open-ended, age and context appropriate language (Swain et al., 1998). The activities planned for the FG interviews were such that I was able to enter their world and childhood of the children. These activities put into consideration the children's attention span and promptings to help them recall their experiences (Arksey and Knight, 1999). I was also aware of the significance of gaining the trust of the children, as such the activities, especially the icebreakers, gave them the confidence to open up quickly, making the interview session non-threatening and fun (Arksey and Knight, 1999). The FG interview activities began with an icebreaker breaker game (Guess the sound), and setting of ground rules for children to understand the need to wait their turn. This was done to avoid the problem of some children dominating the conversation as well as being cautious that the children do not view the researcher as an authority, which could have posed as a major setback. Pictures related to the research focus were shown to prompt engagement and lead to answering the first set of questions. The next stage started with singing a few familiar school songs which ushered the next set of questions. The last stage involved art work, where children were encouraged to draw pictures of their ideal school, I read a story titled 'The Fish who could Wish' to elicit further information about the kind of school they would like to have and improvements they would like to see in their schooling (see Appendix F for FG schedule). In order to avoid children getting distracted with the zoom video call, an initial test-run of conducting a FG interview virtually was carried out with the camp manager's assistance.

Although the initial plan was for the FG interviews to consist of 10 children from 3 different IDP camps, to be carried out in two batches of 5 children and last one hour for each group, due to security issues experienced during the fieldwork, FG interviews were held in only 2 different camps. This brought it to a total of 20 children who participated in the FG interviews rather than the initially planned 30 children.

### 3.3.3 Observations

Observations play a key role in case study research, as it is a frequent source of information providing the opportunity for the researcher to collect 'live' data from naturally taking place in a social circumstance (Cohen et al., 2011). Observations are usually carried out in the research setting by the researcher which offers an opportunity to elicit more substantial information related to the research topic. This gives observations its unique strength, allowing for more valid and authentic data (Cohen et al., 2011) as compared to interviews which depend solely on people's perceptions and recollections of events that could be biased (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). Observations lead the researcher to a greater understanding of the case therefore, it is important for observations to be relevant to the focus of the study as well as keeping a good record of events to provide an indisputable description for further analysis and conclusive reporting (Stake, 1995). Direct observations give the researcher the opportunity to centre on actions of the participants, physical environments, or real-world events. This feature distinguishes direct observation and makes it the most significant element of case studies (Yin, 2012). However, my research observations took both a direct and indirect unobtrusive approach.

Direct observations were carried out as another source of evidence for my research because the observations took place in the real setting of the research while on another hand, this observations were considered as 'indirect' due to my inability to be physically present in the setting due to the covid -19 pandemic. My use of the zoom video medium enabled the collection of 'live' data in the research setting, which shed more light on possible answers to the research questions. The focus was to observe a classroom environment, teaching and learning in order to assess the quality of UBE provision in the camp. There was a 45 minute observation of one classroom (Year 1) selected from age 8-11 year group in one camp, making a total of one observation as opposed to a total of three observations which was initially planned. Worthy of note however, is that most of the classes have overaged children due to long periods of no school attendance hence, the age group stated above for year one. It was anticipated that the classroom will have approximately 16 number of children and a teacher (one of those interviewed). Therefore, total number of observed participants were 17 in a class. At the time of the fieldwork, access to classroom observation was granted by only one camp, while one camp had no existing school and the other camp denied access as such, only one classroom observation was carried out as against a total of 3 classroom observations that was the initial plan.

The location of the observation was the IDP camp, the date and time was arranged with the participants so that it was carried out at their convenience. The observation took place in a classroom to observe a 45 minute lesson. The key focus areas of the observation included the

following; a) An assessment of the researcher's initial impression of the class (which was derived from interviews conducted) as against the reality on ground. This initial impression comprised of the remaining areas hence the choice of the following focus areas, b) Teacher's delivery/instructional strategy, c) Pedagogical content knowledge, d) Enabling nature of the environment, e) Availability of teaching and learning resources, f) Children's engagement and enthusiasm during the lesson, g) Children's behaviour, h) Teacher's relationship with the children, i) Lesson outcomes. These areas of focus were chosen because of the following reasons, to elicit more authentic information on the research topic to strengthen my research; to give me a greater understanding of the case; to assess the quality of UBE provision for displaced children and ultimately to compare the responses from the interviews with the reality on ground as observed. This was a medium to assess/confirm the assertions of the participants since observations go beyond participants' perceptions and recollection of events. Therefore, the focus areas emerged from interviews conducted with the participants. For a further explanation of the rationale for the choice of these observation focus areas (Appendix G), the areas have been categorised into three groups based on how they are interconnected.

**Teacher effectiveness** – The following observation areas, teacher's delivery/instructional strategy, pedagogical content knowledge and learning outcomes are categorised under 'teacher effectiveness'. These focus areas were a significant part of the observation because 'effectiveness' is a strand under the 'quality' thread that runs through this research. In this study, education effectiveness concentrated on 'teacher effectiveness' because of teachers' critical role as the major singular determinant for the achievement of quality education (DES, 1983), as well as the manager in the teaching and learning context (Okoli, 2017). The teacher's knowledge of the content is a key component of achieving effectiveness, Gage (1972) explains this by pointing to the need for the teacher to have a high level of cognitive planning and be able to teach lessons from memory. Geo (2007) however, draws attention to two elements that make for effectiveness, 'teacher quality' and 'teaching quality', stating that things like, content knowledge, college degrees, etc., represent 'teacher quality' while the actual things the teacher does in the classroom represent what is viewed as 'teaching quality'. Therefore, much as the teacher's content knowledge is significant, the teacher's delivery/instructional strategy is paramount in enhancing learning. For Wiermer (2013), achieving learning is indicative of effective teaching while Uchefuna (2001) focuses on the teacher's ability to produce anticipated learning outcomes as an evidence of teacher effectiveness. Therefore, it was necessary to investigate through the observation, the effectiveness of teachers in an IDP camp.

**Education fabric and resources** – The environment and availability of teaching and learning resources were also considered key areas to focus on since these factors are essential in achieving

quality education. Scholars like Stoll and Fink (1006); Macbeath and Peter (2001), and Kelly (2001) allude to the fact that an indicator of education effectiveness is an enabling learning environment, amongst others. Much as teacher quality and teaching quality (Geo, 2007) are a sine qua non to achieving quality education, without a conducive learning environment and resources, the teacher's expertise would simply be a herculean task which will eventually potentially lead to frustration and burnout. Sadly, the camp environment has been described from empirical research as repugnant (Adewale, 2016), characterised by very poor conditions that hamper any meaningful teaching and learning (Strolin et al., 2006). The presence of these condition (i.e., harsh environment and insufficient or lack of teaching and learning resources) as described by Middleton and Potter (2015) can propel teachers in this context to leave hence high teacher transience in IDP contexts especially. Although, free and quality elementary education is a legal entitlement of IDPs as much as it is for other Nigerian children, all the participants in this research revealed the appalling state of the camps and the acute shortage/lack of teaching and learning resources. As such, it was necessary to focus on this area during the observation process to ascertain their claims as well as gauge findings from literature with the reality on ground.

**Physical climate of the classroom** – Children's engagement and enthusiasm during the lesson, children's behaviour and teacher's relationship with the children. These factors were a necessary part of the observation focus because the climate of any classroom plays a significant part in the learning process and invariably, quality education provision. The teacher possesses the sole responsibility of creating a classroom climate where children can thrive through having the required pedagogical skill, engaging in constant self-appraisal, showing empathy and good classroom management skills (Fredriksson, 2004). The classroom climate is particularly critical in an IDP context due to traumatic experiences of displaced children which present intangible but more complicated challenges for teacher that could lead to fear and demotivation (Brandt, 2019). Findings from Lewis' (2017) research, however, show that intangible factors make for a good classroom climate, these include, teachers knowing their students and integrating their cultural backgrounds, having a love pedagogy, having qualities of kindness, caring, seeing, and as added by Bollow (1960); Ryans (1960), patience, enthusiasm, understanding and a sense of humour. The significance of classroom climate in achieving quality education informed the need to investigate the presence of this factor during the observation process.

As stated above, the observation was carried out via zoom video call with the assistance of Stalwart Communities Africa staff who moved the video camera around from behind the children, according to the directions of the researcher. This process was entirely unobtrusive as the headphones were used (see Appendix G for observation schedule). Please refer to section 4.2.5

(Observations Camp 1) for a more comprehensive detail of the observation process enhanced by fieldnotes taken.

### 3.3.3.1 Merits and Limitations of Observations

A crucial merit of observation is ‘directness’, the researcher’s ability to witness what is actually happening. This mode of data collection has the potential to access actual and original data making it possible for the researcher to distinguish when what is said is different from what is done giving room for a ‘reality check’ (Robin, 2002). Considering that case study research has to do with research in a ‘real life’ context, observation will appear to be the foremost data collection tool for getting at ‘real life’. Observation enhances the researcher’s capacity to observe common behaviours, verbal and nonverbal that normally will be overlooked or otherwise unconsciously missed as well as it dispels any form of unnaturalness which other data collection techniques lack (Cooper and Schindler, 2001; Robin, 2002). Therefore, to answer research question one which is “To what extent is the provision of basic education available in IDP camps?”, observation is an obvious method to use in assessing the effectiveness of UBE provision in IDP camps.

Much as observation has strengths, it is also saddled with some limitations. Bailey (1994) asserts that challenges such as difficulties in measurements, problems of small samples, the strain involved in gaining access and ensuring anonymity as well as lack of control which could be evident during the observation has the potential to reduce its usefulness. Another setback is in the extent to which an observer affects the situation under observation. It is commonly claimed that this can be overcome – for example, by seeking to ensure that the observed are unaware of being observed, at one extreme; or by their being so accustomed to the presence of the observer that they carry on as if she were not there, at the other extreme, (provide empirical evidence on the size of these reactivity effects and how it can be controlled). In this research, the observation that took place did not affect the situation under observation because both the teachers and children were already accustomed to both Stalwart Communities staff and me.

## 3.4 Triangulation

To ensure rigour and quality in my research, factors that make for best practices were adhered to. This began from the design stage, conducting the research and reporting it. Other key elements included, ensuring that my RQs were clear and focused, and concepts that emerged had clear links and supported strongly the RQs. These elements enabled my choice of the most relevant

research methods that led to an increase in trustworthiness as well as, reduced any bias that might have been present. Although, validity and reliability are significant components in research, a widely accepted yardstick for measuring this in qualitative research does not exist due to the multiplicity of qualitative research methods and techniques (Hayashi, Abib and Hoppen, 209). According to Golafshani (2003), the concepts of trustworthiness, rigour, appropriateness describe validity in qualitative research. Therefore, it has been generally agreed that gauging research by its validity and reliability in qualitative research should be disused. Scholars like Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) amongst others, proposed substituting the term 'validity' with 'trustworthiness' in qualitative studies. Cope (2014) views trustworthiness through the lens of transparency, asserting that this is a necessary ingredient for the usefulness and integrity of the findings. Polit and Beck (2014) add that the extent of credence in the data, interpretation and the approach used to guarantee quality in the research process show trustworthiness. Much as trustworthiness has been generally accepted by experts as critical in research, there have been ongoing arguments in literature about what comprises trustworthiness (Leung, 2015).

Trustworthiness as a key element was employed in my research by using multiplicity of data collection methods which included, individual interviews, FG interviews, observations, and document review. This gave room for checking the consistency of findings, this began the process of triangulation. The multiple sources of evidence aimed at providing for robust findings (Yin, 2012) as well as to authenticate the findings (Yin, 2014).

The method of triangulation was adopted by using more than a single source of evidence which included interviews, observations and document review which supported the case studies findings and developed a broad understanding of the phenomenon. This further strengthened the trustworthiness of the case study (Yin 2014; Polit and Beck, 2012; Patton, 1999).

Triangulation is also significant in data analysis, this is enabled by using multiple data sources to affirm or debunk interpretations, claims, themes as well as research conclusions. In my research, I have used multiple sources to reach and substantiate the themes that emerged, this reveals that the findings of the study have significant credibility and confirmability (Johnson, Adkins, and Chauvin, 2020).

### **3.5 Research Sample**

Sampling is a critical part of any research whether qualitative research or in quantitative research. Sampling decisions are required not only about which people to interview or which events to

observe, but also about settings and processes. Even a case study, where the case selection itself may be straightforward, will require sampling within the case. Qualitative sampling rarely uses probability sampling, but rather some sort of deliberate sampling, 'purposive sampling'. It means sampling in a deliberate way, with some purpose or focus on mind.

The basic ideas behind the specific sampling strategies vary considerably and reflects the purposes and questions guiding the study. In case study research, qualitative sampling involves identifying the case (s) and setting the boundaries, where we indicate the aspects to be studied, and constructing a sampling frame, where we focus selection further.

The general descriptions of sampling are difficult because there is great variability. Across various qualitative sampling strategies, there is a clear principle involved, which concerns the overall validity of the research design and which stresses that the sample must fit in with other components of the study. The sampling plan and sampling parameters must line up with the purposes and research questions of the study. (Punch and Oancea, 2014).

In this research, qualitative data was derived from stakeholders such as, State Universal Education Board (SUBEB) staff (PMs), internally displaced children (PBs), IDP camp managers and teachers (PPs) drawn from 3 IDP camps, and school head/teachers (PPs) in a neighbouring school around an IDP camp. Data collection instruments included, one-to-one semi structured interviews, focus group interviews, observations, and document review. The rationale for the selection of this sample group was that they reflect the purpose of the research which was to shine the light on IDP education policy and practice and investigate its quality provision. Therefore, the participants were selected for the various roles they play in this process, i.e., PMs espoused the basic education policy, the PPs are responsible for enacting the policy while the children (PBs) experience the policy. They are also, in the position to describe the quality provision of UBE in their context. The sampling group belong in the setting and process of the study as they are all stakeholders in the education system and in the context of the study. They reflect the RQs guiding the research and they fit in with other components of the study. Their voices are significant in eliciting answers for the RQs of the study.

The proposed sampling group consisted of stakeholders – Policy makers, 2 staff from the State Universal Education Board (SUBEB); Policy practitioners, 3 camp managers, 2 camp teachers from 3 different camps totalling 6 camp teachers, 3 neighbouring school leaders and 3 teachers; Policy Beneficiaries, internally displaced children (30 of 4 groups).

A summary of the initial proposed sampling group consisted of stakeholders as follows:

**Policy makers (PMs)** - 2 staff from the State Universal Education Board (SUBEB).

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**Policy practitioners (PPs);** 1 camp manager from each IDP camp making a total of 3 camp managers 2 teachers from each IDP camp, making a total of 6 teachers.

1 primary school head teacher and 1 teacher from a neighbouring primary school around each of the IDP camps making a total of 3 head teachers and 3 teachers.

**Policy Beneficiaries (PBs)** - internally displaced children (totalling 30), 10 children (8-11 years) from each of the 3 IDP camps.

Classroom observations of a typical classroom lesson period comprising 16 children and a teacher from the three camps.

A total of 98 participants.

The above was however, the initial sampling plan for the research until the recent global pandemic which disrupted the course of the world, including this research process. At the point of the fieldwork however, the following was the sample group that the researcher could access.

**Policy makers (PMs)** – 2 staff from the State Universal Education Board (SUBEB)

**Policy Practitioners (PPs)** – 3 camp managers (CM1, CM2, and CM3) from 3 different camps, of these 3 CMs, only CM1 gave access to their camp, CM3 denied access while CM2 does not have a school in the camp and children in their camp do not attend any nearby school.

3 camp teachers (CTs) from camp 1 (C1) and 2 neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs) constituting the headteacher and a teacher at the school children in focus group camp 2 attend.

**20 policy beneficiaries (PBs)**, constituting displaced children in C1 and C2 (attendees of neighbouring school).

Worthy of note, is that the camp 2 (C2) where children were interviewed was separate from the CMs in this research. The children in C2 belong to one of two camps in Northcentral (Abuja) involved in this research. Due to lack of school in their camp, they attend a neighbouring school where NSTs teach. CM2 does not have a school running in the camp while CM3 denied access to the school in their camp.

One classroom observation of a typical classroom lesson period comprising 16 children and a teacher who was one of the interviewees.

The total number of participants was eventually 46 participants, the next section explains the participant recruitment process.

### **3.5.1 Participant Recruitment Process**

Participant recruitment for this research was carried out through seeking access from gatekeepers. This was achievable because the researcher and Stalwart Communities Africa are both known to camps in Jos and Abuja due to volunteer work offered over the years. However, to recruit participants from Adamawa State camps, the researcher had to rely on the connection of a UN staff to help create link with the camp managers. The UN staff was able to achieve this because of the humanitarian work the UN had done with the IDPs in Adamawa State. To dispel any suspicion about the researcher's goal, proper access was gained to the research settings through a recruitment email sent after making phone contact with participants and gatekeepers. This was followed by emailing information sheets to participants to provide detailed information about the research and their role. Consent forms were then sent to the participants to confirm their willingness to take part in the research. Since the CMs are responsible for the displaced children, information sheet that was simplified in language comprehensible for the children's level was sent through the CMs for the children. It was made clear to participants at every stage of the recruitment process, their right to opt out of the research if they so wished. For those camp managers (2 out of 3 interviewed) who are not proficient with English language, a thorough explanation about the research was given to them on the phone, and their right to either accept or opt out of the research process was made explicit in the local language by the researcher, who is a native of that ethnic group. The researcher also explained in very clear terms to the children about the research and their right to opt out before the FG interviews.

The researcher acknowledged her role and biases related to the research therefore, these were addressed actively to attenuate to a large extent its effects so that the activities and interpretations of findings are without any prejudice (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006).

### **3.6 Ethical Considerations**

Research ethics is concerned with respecting research participants throughout each project, partly by using agreed standards. Ethics standards are also designed to protect researchers and their institutions as well as the name of the research (Alderson and Morrow, 2011). Due to the nature of the case in focus (IDPs), ethical issues need to be considered to safeguard against posing additional difficulties (Barakat et al., 2010). Scott and Garner (2013) put forward an argument

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about ethical considerations by comparing the quantitative and qualitative approaches to create an awareness on how to negotiate this process. They assert that in quantitative research the relationship between the participants and researcher is focused on the specific task at hand, limited in interaction with clearly assigned targets and relatively devoid of emotions. Participants can easily change their minds from responding to selected questions or even taking part in the entire research process. Issues of confidentiality and data safeguarding are straightforward as well as individual responses impossible to discern since voices and faces are not recorded. Qualitative research on the other hand, presents contrasting features. Due to the nature of this approach, the researcher and participants establish and have a relationship that permeates several aspects of life. Due to this friendly relationship, it becomes challenging to draw the boundaries that show the extent of the friendliness and where the research starts. In some cases, the research is prolonged thus, making it difficult to protect participants' identities even when pseudonyms are used as it becomes easy to identify participants especially by those who were close to the researcher. Scott and Garner (2013) further propound that this relationship has the potential to make participants to share their personal issues with the researcher due to their perception of the researcher's seeming dependable, thoughtful, and kind disposition, and often than not, the participants get nothing in return. Their misconception that the researcher will maintain 100% confidentiality and that the researcher concurs and supports their responses has the likelihood to create a feeling of being exploited when the study is published, and the participants discover contrasting interpretations of their responses. Scott and Garner (2013) add that even in research where ethical considerations are adhered to can wreak pain on the participants. The antidote to this as they explain, is for the researcher to have a clear awareness of both formal and informal rules of managing this process by negotiating and navigating these as they relate to the participants.

Ethical issues become more complicated when the research involves children/minors who are considered vulnerable, especially in cases of displacement. This was a common reason why researchers used adults as representatives of children when collecting data about children (Beresford, 1997). Ethical issues have therefore led to research being about children and not including them as participants. Kirk (2007) further explains that the reason why children were not involved in the research process was due to the perception that data gained from children was undependable as well as the concern that the children were being exploited because of their vulnerability. In this study however, the children involved are viewed as capable and valuable participants in the research process whose voices are key to the research findings. The children have also been involved in the research process because I recognise and appreciate their rights to lend their voices in matters that concern them, especially as their experiences are personal to

them and cannot be well retold by another person. As such, the displaced children in this research were active and not passive objects in this process. Therefore, I put into consideration their methods of communication and facilitation of their involvement by ensuring that every communication was carried out on the level of the children's understanding (Mauthner, 1997; Thomas and O'Kane, 1998 cited in Kirk 2007). Although, ethical issues as Kirk (2006) states, are not necessarily unique to children because similar issues are considered when carrying out research with adults. Mauthner, 1997; Thomas and O'Kane, 1998 argue that there is a significant difference in the method applied when it involves children due to considerations such as the children's level of understanding and their perception about the world which comes from their short experience as compared to adults. Other issues they pointed out were, the level of communication of the children as well as issues of unequal power relationships that are prevalent between adult researchers and minor participants. As mentioned earlier, the level of understanding of the children was put into consideration and served as a guide to the way communication took place. I could provide suitable information because the participants were known to the researcher through the pilot study that was carried out prior to fieldwork (Dockett and Perry, 2010). On the issue of power relationship, the researcher created a warm and exciting atmosphere by starting the interview process with games, this is helped to break the barrier of unequal power relationship.

Whilst children's voices play a crucial role in this research, they are unable to give consent based on legal framework that does not allow them to enter legal contract (Ford et al., 2007 cited in Dockett and Perry, 2010). Consent was obtained from gatekeepers who are described in this research as IDP camp managers. These were largely responsible for deciding whether the children would participate or not. Although, consent had to be given by the camp managers, it did not override the necessity to gain the children's assent. The children were required to give their assent after I explained in clear terms and ensured that the children understood what the research was about. This, the children were consistently reminded of so that they reassess their decision to participate (Dockett and Perry, 2010). Informed assent has to do with a free will that the children have to participate however, David et al., argues that this seeming free will can be impeded by the children's recognition of their duty to the camp managers/guardians and their feeling of the adults' response if they withdraw. In addressing this power imbalances, Flewitt (2005, cited in Dockett) draws attention to the children's body language and enthusiasm as measures that show their willingness. For Morrow (2008, cited in Dockett), children are not helpless victims of research rather, they are able to exert a level of control and power even when they have been coerced to participate. In this research however, it was made clear to the children

that they were at liberty to exercise their free will. I encouraged an active decision to voluntarily participate and not otherwise as well as, explicitly explain their right to withdraw.

Generally, I was acutely sensitive to this by conducting interviews with the IDPs and other participants in the setting that is familiar and none threatening to them, to put them at ease to gain useful and accurate data. I was inclusive in all respects, got informed consent from participants and assured them about privacy, confidentiality, safety, and wellbeing (Cohen et al., 2011). There was no significant hazard that affected me as an individual during my fieldwork since it was carried out online. The same was for the Stalwart Africa staff who assisted in coordinating the fieldwork. However, all the necessary covid 19 protocols were observed to safeguard the Stalwart Africa staff and the participants.

### **3.7 Pilot Study**

The focus of the pilot study was to pre-test the process of interviewing minors especially vulnerable children, to practice conducting a focus group interview and to familiarise myself with possible challenges that may arise when children are involved in research and the challenges of conducting a focus group interview. Another goal for conducting a pilot study was to create an awareness of how to reduce the errors arising from the construction of the questions in the interviews and to increase reliability, validity, and practicability. Pilot study was also targeted at helping to eliminate ambiguities, double-barrelled and negative questions, and commonly misunderstood questions (Cohen et al, 2007).

Due to the nature of some of the participants (children) anticipated for the research, it became apparent and crucial to carry out a pilot study to test run data collection with the minors involved in the research. The pilot was purely qualitative; data collection tool was a focus group interview which involved a total of 15 children. I have involved minors in this research because I believe that their voices are a key ingredient in investigating the provision of quality basic education in IDP camps and in attempting to answer Research Question 1 which states; 'To what extent is the provision of UBE available in IDP camps?' A pilot study is considered a critical part of a research as it has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity, and practicality of the interviews/data collection tools. It has the potential to eradicate ambiguities or difficulties in wording especially for minors, examine the readability levels of the target audience and gain feedback on the type of question and its format. A pilot study identifies exclusions, unessential and irrelevant items, and gains feedback on leading questions. It gives opportunity for feedback on the attraction and appearance of the interview activities and checks the time taken to

complete the interview. It also determines how motivating, sensitive, or threatening items might be and probes the clarity of the interview questions, instructions, and layout (Cohen et al., 2007).

The choice of a focus group interview with the children stems from its nature which involves discussion with a small number of participants to gain insights into their experiences, attitudes, and perceptions (Hennessy and Heary, 2005). Being amongst their peers has the potential to enkindle freer discussions, create fun while carrying out group activities and promote cooperation within the group (Gallagher, 2009., Wilson, 1997). The focus group interview was carried out in two batches on separate days, with eight children (four boys and four girls) in the first group and seven children (three boys and four girls) in the second group, making a total of 15 children. The sampling was purposive and information-oriented (Kumar, 2011) and the age range was eight to eleven years. The interview involved unstructured and generally open-ended questions that were few and intended to elicit views and opinions from participants (Creswell, 2014) and lasted about one hour, twenty minutes each.

I felt pretesting the focus group interview with the children is of utmost importance to the success of the research and to acquaint myself with possible challenges that accompany involving minors in research largely because it was my first-time involving children as participants in my research and was unaware of what to expect.

The ethics issues related to conducting research with minors were considered and the necessary approval given before the start of the pilot study. These ethics issues bordered on anonymity, confidentiality, safety, and protection of the participants especially due to their peculiarity as vulnerable children. Participants and their camp manager were well informed about the nature of the research and their consent to take part was given by signing consent forms before the interviews started. Their right to withdraw at any time was clearly stated to them and a conducive and secure environment was created for them to express their views.

A set of four interesting activities were designed to creatively involve and engage the children in the focus group interview. These were aimed at creating an atmosphere where the children feel relaxed to express themselves freely. The first activity was an ice breaker (burst the balloon), boys played against girls, it took place indoors and generated a lot of excitement.

The second activity began with ground rules being set which was to encourage children to show respect for one another by taking turns to speak. Pictures of different parts of a typical school day were passed around to elicit talk from the children. The use of these visual stimuli helped to give focus to the children's discussion and led to the children answering the first part of the interview questions (Scott, 2008).

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1. Have you been to school before?
2. Do you enjoy going to school?
3. Why do you enjoy going to school?
4. Do you think you have to go to school?
5. Why?
6. What do you think might happen to you if you don't go to school?
7. Do you attend school here in the camp?

The third activity was more hands on; children were given art materials to draw pictures of their school life in the camp especially what they like best about their typical school day. They had the complete freedom to express their views in their drawings. The children found this very interesting, this generated lots of discussion and it led to the children answering the second part of the interview questions listed below:

1. How often do you go to class?
2. Do you have teachers coming to teach you?
3. How do you feel about your teachers?
4. Do you have resources to use in your learning? What are the resources you have?
5. What do you think about your education in the camp?

The final activity was story time, I read a story to the children titled "The Fish who could Wish" and this led to asking them the last question which was aimed at giving them a chance to express any other information about their schooling in the camp and what improvement they would like to see. The children were captivated, and this further opened them up to give interesting and useful data.

### **3.7.1 Observations and Feedback from the Pilot Study**

My experience carrying out the focus group interview and points to put into consideration for the main fieldwork with minors are as follows:

Firstly, was comfortable talking with the IDP children and vice versa. Being amongst their peers, encouraged the children to express their views and perceptions freely and feedback was gained to the questions asked. The use of visual stimuli and hands-on activity was a major factor that led to the success of the data collection process. The pilot also brought to light the need to use the local language in some instances to communicate with some of the children due to a lack of knowledge of English language. The pilot did not pose any threat to the children, rather it generated a lot of excitement that made the selection of participants quite challenging.

I have become aware of the challenges involved in obtaining children's views; such challenges include the language barrier as stated above, managing dominant participants, and encouraging those that were not responding (Hennessy and Heary, 2005). Time management is another area that proved a challenge due to the excitement of the children.

As such, in the main data collection for the main study, I will make use of exciting activities to elicit information from the children as these proved effective. Aside from stressing the ground rules where children are made aware of the need to wait their turn, I will introduce a further activity that will control dominant children and encourage the quiet ones to engage in the conversations. Children who unable to speak or understand English language will be communicate with in the local language which I speak. The different sections of the interview have been apportioned time slots, this will be adhered to as much as possible however, the focus group interview will have some flexibility to give room for useful data that may emerge which was not captured in the interview questions.

### **3.8 Data Analysis Method**

As Flick (2007) states, analysing qualitative data is the most fundamental essence of qualitative research however, the collection of this data is only the initial step in getting this process started. Data collected through both individual and FG interviews were transcribed. To be mindful of the warning Kvale (1988) gives about the dangers of moving from the spoken context on an interview to the typed transcript, I transcribed all the interviews myself, manually to avoid peripheral coding, decontextualization and missing out preceding and following responses from respondents' account. Reading through the transcripts, fieldnotes/research diary made me to relive the interview experience, and this enabled the sorting and searching through the data which showed the meaningful but distinct nature of the data. This facilitated my identifying data that could be examined, and how to be reported and interpreted. Due to the nature of qualitative analysis, data collection was not in separation from data analysis, analysis was done alongside by using fieldnotes/research diary. Therefore, Data collection was running concurrently with data analysis while adhering to the standards that ensured for trustworthiness and integrity of the data analysis process. This was carried out through triangulation.

Using Lichtman's (2013) three Cs of analysis, I read through the transcripts and observational notes, thinking about the text, and looking out for emerging initial codes as this was not predetermined. I carried out this process by using different colours to generate codes and sorting the various chunks to organise the data (see Appendix I). To manage the data, I revisited the initial

codes for sifting purposes to focus on the relevant for my studies. Codes were modified bearing in mind to ensure that original meaning of data was preserved. These data were organised in broad categories based on patterns observed and were addressed according to the themes identified (Discussion section) enabling clarity, understandable, insightful, trustworthy, and original analysis. The patterns observed from the respondents' account came in varying forms that comprised of similarities, differences, frequency, sequence, and causation (Hatch, 2002). Pattern observation fits well with both descriptive and explanatory designs due to their nature of pattern matching (Yin, 2013). Case study itself, aims to identify themes and categories of behaviour and actions in most cases rather than proving relationships or test hypothesis (Yin, 2003).

The codes were categorised based on significance and occurrence which led to essential ideas that were captured in the themes that emerged. From notes I took from the start of the coding stage; I was able to capture the analytical thoughts that developed about each code which provided consistency in my analysis. The management and analysis of the data collected which included video and audio recordings of interviews (individual and FG) transcriptions and observation notes were done manually and thematically analysed to identify and code the noteworthy responses. This was carried out by sorting weighting data elements to make sense of findings through analysis and interpretation (Johnson et al., 2020).

Rereading the data helped me to identify key concepts that indicate the meaning of the data. Therefore, to ensure my analysis was rich, I selected the most developed and strong concepts that formed the discussion of findings (see Appendix H). Based on the categorisation, data was analysed thematically by identifying, analysing, and reporting the data categorised (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Themes that emerged from coding, categorising and concepts from the data, were presented according to participants' responses. Therefore, the participants were grouped as follows, policy makers (PMs) who comprise of staff from the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), policy practitioners (PPs) who include the teachers and camp managers (CMs) and the policy Beneficiaries (PBs) who are the internally displaced children. The policy practitioners are those that are responsible for ensuring the policy statements are put into practice. These are the grassroot people who are in direct contact with the policy Beneficiaries, who are the children and potential/planned beneficiaries of the policy.

The thematic approach was chosen as the method of analysing the qualitative data in this research because it is a method that works both to reflect reality and unpick or unravel the surface of 'reality' about IDP education policy and practice, and quality provision. This research will benefit from the flexible nature of the thematic method of data analysis and allow for a rich and detailed account of the data collected (Braun and Clarke, 2006). However, thematic analysis

has been criticised for its inability to have clear demarcation although widely used (Boyatzis, 1998), the strength of this process of analysis in this study is in its ability to reflect reality and unravel the depth of this reality. Using this strategy will enable each new piece of data to be examined in the light of each RQs to construct tentative answers to the question (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). Therefore, the analysis was presented according to the RQs posed (Atkins and Wallace, 2012).

Lichtman (2013) opined that, due to the subjective nature of qualitative research where the researcher is fundamentally responsible for data collection, organisation, and interpretation, this critical role places the researcher as the channel through which information flows. The researcher basically shapes the research and is also shaped by the research by making sense of available data. However, this subjective nature, did not neutralise my work although, inherent characteristics involuntarily manifested at some points of the research process. Undertaking research like mine, which opened me up to the plight of IDPs through interviews conducted, made it challenging to overlook and undermine their plight. This, however, did not affect my selection and analysis of the data. My focus was on the context of my research and not my feelings, to ensure fairness and openness to all sides of the argument. The methods used for data collection also helped to strengthen the quality of this research thereby, giving me the opportunity to view things the way they are.

### **3.9 The Impact of Covid 19 on my Research**

However, the covid-19 pandemic had a huge impact on the fieldwork. Due to the global lockdown, the fieldwork was delayed by 10 months as participants were inaccessible. The risks and restrictions on international travels affected the proposed methodology of the research thereby, leading to a redesigning of the project to carry out the fieldwork via online. This posed another challenge as the researcher had to apply for authorisation to collect data from the Data Protection Panel, a process that took a long time to gain approval. Some of the interviews were conducted via phone call, due to participants' lack of internet and smart phone, some were conducted via zoom due to the lack of popularity of MS Teams. This also came with other challenges such as, internet connectivity etc. Unavoidable changes occurred in the data collection process due to insecurity issue encountered. Terrorist attacks arose in some parts of Plateau State, the initial case study area of this research as such, some data collection location had to be changed to safer zones. Hence, data was collected from a part of Jos (Plateau State), FCT-Abuja, and Adamawa State respectively. Much as the researcher's fieldwork gained from a wider coverage owing to the online factor, limitations were observed as stated above, detailed explanation is in the 'reflections' section in the final chapter. Out of the total proposed research

sample of 98 participants, only 30 were accessible due to security challenges and unwillingness of gatekeepers to grant access due to their impression which was expressed in their feeling of being used by researchers for personal gains.

This arose when a CM was trying to express why he/she was reluctant to be interviewed. The CM was referring to different individuals who have visited the camp before to elicit information about the IDPs and while the IDPs saw this as an avenue to receive help, nothing came out of it for them. The IDPs had hoped that their plea will be taken to the appropriate quarters so that their plight is recognised but felt disappointed, believing that these individuals (CM termed as researchers) used the information given to them to obtain donations which the IDPs did not benefit from. This, however, is a speculation as the CM did not have any concrete evidence to back this claim. The CM pleaded with me to help them to inform the government about their existence and plight. To mitigate the impact of this on my research, I again made very clear what my research was about, I was careful not to be cornered into making promises beyond the scope of my research. I explicitly stated that my research is meant to unveil the IDP situation in my thesis but with the hope that the government will become aware of their appalling state and hopefully do the needful. This CM refused further access to their camp as such, no one else was interviewed from that camp.

### **3.10 Summary**

This chapter captured an extensive discussion of my chosen methodology, which was a case study, and data collection methods which was qualitative in nature comprising, interviews (individual and focus group), an observation and document review. A clear description of my sample was given, as well as the method adopted in recruiting participants. Triangulation and ethical considerations were significant in this research as such, also included. This chapter also explained the data analysis methods adopted in analysing my findings. All the sections contained justifications on why the choice was best suited for my research. Another important section included was my pilot study, which was undertaken solely to pre-test interviewing minors and to acquaint myself with the process of conducting research with minors. As my fieldwork was severely challenged by the Covid 19 pandemic, the last section gives a snapshot of my experience and its impact on my work. In the next chapter, findings from my fieldwork are presented with a brief analysis, according to the themes that emerged during the data analysis process

## Chapter 4

### Findings and Analysis

#### 4.1 Introduction

At the outset of this research, its aim was clearly stated, which was to shine the light on IDP education policy and its practice; to investigate the provision of quality education in displacement contexts as well as, to explore the possible need for the provision of quality basic education or its improvement for displaced children residing in IDP camps. The research was a single case study because it focused on displaced children and the enactment of the UBE policy in that context while the unit of analysis was the UBE policy. Please refer to section 3.2.2 for detailed explanation.

This chapter presents the findings of the research by synthesizing the disparate pieces of data acquired during the fieldwork to enable the identification and meaningful reporting of the findings (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). The data presented in this section was obtained from interviews and observations. All the relevant data from all methods were triangulated to provide a collective answer to each RQ. Triangulation ensures rigour and quality of a research therefore, I adhered to best practices from the onset by making explicit my RQs and showing the connections with the emerged concepts and how they support the RQs. The most relevant research method was adopted to ascertain an increase in trustworthiness. This was achieved through the multiplicity of data collection methods discussed in the previous chapter. In this empirical study, the data were analysed descriptively using the inductive approach of analysing qualitative data and constant comparison methods, by coding the data, grouping them together and generating themes crossing all cases. This strategy of analysing data and generating themes was used to try to answer all the questions.

Therefore, findings will be presented according to the RQs that were posed for the research as the main headings, with the identified themes that emerged from responses to the RQs as subheadings, these subheadings (themes) capture the views of the stakeholders as it relates to each theme.

#### 4.2 Research Question (RQ) 1

**RQ1** - To what extent is the provision of UBE available for IDP children?

Responses to research question 1 were solicited from policy makers (PMs), policy practitioners (PPs), policy beneficiaries (PBs) and the classroom observation held. The themes that emerged from the responses to RQ1 include, IDP UBE accessibility/success rate, extent of UBE provision, setbacks of IDP UBE practice and IDP wellbeing. These themes are interwoven in the way that they connect to discuss the focus in this question, which is, 'extent of UBE policy implementation.' The findings are presented as follows, it begins with a main heading which is the RQ above, followed by subheadings comprising themes that emerged (emerging themes) from the data collected which are presented according to the views of the participants.

### **4.2.1 Emerging Theme 1 - IDP UBE Accessibility/Success Rate**

This section presents the responses to RQ1 from the stakeholders which represent their views on this theme, 'IDP UBE Accessibility/Success Rate.' In this research analysis, UBE accessibility refers to the availability of education/learning for the IDPs while success rate gauges the level of this availability/access, whether IDPs have been adequately provided with learning/education opportunities. This theme emerged from the responses of the participants either directly or indirectly. The theme was considered significant because the findings provide part of the answer for RQ1. As stated earlier, data collected from the interviews was coded, grouped together and themes generated. Therefore, the findings presented below are according to the participant responses that relate to the above theme and the stakeholders whose responses are captured under Theme 1 include, PMs, PP (CMs, CTs and NSTs), and PBs.

#### **4.2.1.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 1**

It was necessary to begin this section with a clear picture of the role of the PMs in this research, to understand their views and the researcher's analysis of it. The PMs, as they described in the quote below, are saddled with the responsibility of planning, policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring to ensure implementation. Therefore, in sharing their views as it relates to 'IDP UBE Accessibility and its Success Rate', they expressed the following.

***“Well, essentially, my role is that of planning, policy formulation and implementation, and it goes with aspect of monitoring. That's to do with implementation, we do a lot of monitoring just to make sure that our plans are properly implemented...”*** (PM2)

The statement above is significant in discussing this theme (IDP UBE accessibility/success rate) because the PMs show that they are clear about their role as the formulators, implementors and monitors of the UBE policy. Their role, therefore, is key to ensuring education accessibility for all IDPs as they are the providers of it. 'Monitoring' of the policy relates to the success rate since

monitoring is carried out to enhance implementation. The PM's statement, however, portrays a high level of efficiency on the part of the PMs as this shows the full cycle of any policy. With the claim above, it raises expectations about the actualisation of the policy at the grassroots level where implementation is measured based on practicality/reality. This led to further probing to investigate the success rate of UBE provision generally.

***“UBE...the rate of performance, I think I will grade it 95%. UBE has been contributing very well to the establishment, development and upgrading of schools. Presently, they have given us some grant which schools are under construction, projects are on now...constructions, renovations...not just classrooms but also toilet facilities and water sources...”*** (PM1)

***“... And we have tried of recent to make sure that schools are planted very close to the children, arising from insecurity. In fact, the policy in the country is that no child walks more than 3 kilometers radius to school and back...”*** (PM2)

***“When we came, the schools I think, the population of the school was about less than 12,000. Now, the number of schools has increased, well over 12,500. It has gone up, I wish that I could give you the percentage increase if I had known that this will come up, I would have given you...”*** (PM2)

From the above assertions, the PMs attributed the UBE success to education accessibility that they have provided which include, the establishment, development and upgrading of structures, as well as school enrolment which they claimed has drastically improved. They show from the figures above that education has been made accessible by an increase of 500 more schools, which bring the total to 12,500 schools. This figure, however, is representative of one of the States in Nigeria. The PMs further stated that monitoring to ensure implementation of the policy is another factor that indicates the success of the UBE. PM2 stated emphatically that this success has been made possible because their plans are predicated on the concept of result getting. The PMs have focused their UBE success measurement only on structures and failed to give weightier factors such as teachers, the pedagogical content knowledge and learning resources equal recognition. This could lead to an assumption of the absence of these factors. However, their claim is that of ensuring that the policy is executed as shown in the quote below.

***“...All our plans are predicated on the concept of result getting. So, you know very well that if you don't monitor, if you don't check to be sure that all the plans are properly implemented, you may not be able to get the expected results.”*** (PM2)

In the above quote PM2 implies that there are plans and evidence of implementation of the UBE through their monitoring exercise but there is no mention about the monitoring and results that

are actually audited. However, in responding to the success rate of the UBE in an IDP context, the PMs revealed that children in the IDP camps constitute 65% and are children of primary and junior secondary school age (basic education level). PM2 mentioned that one camp they visited had up to 100 children of primary school age. These were camps that the PMs were somewhat unsure of the duration of their existence. Whilst PM1 said the IDP camps existed from 2018 to 2020, PM2's response was unclear but rather stated that the crises situation and displacement started to exist from 2001.

***"...yes since 2018..... to around early 2020..."*** (PM1)

***".....that if since 2001 in X State, we started experiencing crises situation, people are thrown out of their homes, they are displaced, what happens to the children?"*** (PM2)

Both PMs stated that IDP camps have ceased to exist in the State due to resettlement of the IDPs although they have no idea whether the children are settled in schools, even though they claimed to have established schools. Therefore, their responses in the interview were based on the camps they claimed had existed in the past.

***"...the local governments that are affected, we have 17 local governments the State and those local governments that are badly affected are 6... In this local governments we have schools that were badly affected. As at the time I am speaking to you now, some schools have not even been opened... X local government - 20 schools were closed, A - 10, B - 20, C - 6, D - 5, E and F one, one each..."*** (PM1)

***"...These are the places likely to find IDP camps, but I don't think there are. You don't find it anymore... Even if there are camps, we have not received report because it does not fall within the boundaries of our assignment"*** (PM2)

***"...Yes, but not now..."*** (PM1)

The statements above were considered significant under this theme because they contradict the PMs' earlier claim about establishing schools and other facilities which implied that learning was going on. Although the PMs claimed ignorance of existing camps in the State, this research involves data collected from one of the existing camps in the State. In fact, due to insurgencies that resulted during the researcher's fieldwork in the same State, data collection location had to be changed for security issues.

#### 4.2.1.2 Views of Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 1

This section presents the views of PPs as it relates to Theme 1 on 'IDP UBE Accessibility/Success Rate.' The policy practitioners (PPs) as portrayed in this research comprise three groups of stakeholders namely, camp managers (CMs), camp teachers (CTs) and neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs). However, only the views of the CMs are presented under this theme because of their role as gatekeepers of the camps, therefore were considered best in the position to reveal the success level of UBE accessibility for displaced children under their care. The CTs and NSTs were not included under this theme because their role is possible only when there is accessibility. The researcher was able to interview three CMs who run two different types of IDP camps ranging from private camp, formal/government camp, and informal/non-government.

##### 4.2.1.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CM) on Theme 1

Out of the three camps managers interviewed, the researcher conducted camp manager 2 (CM2) and camp manager (CM) 3's interviews in the local language (Hausa) due to their inability to speak English. The researcher did not require an interpreter because of her proficiency in the language being an indigene of North-Central Nigeria. However, from observations made during the interview sessions, CM1 was able to express him/herself clearly because of his/her level of awareness of the English language and level of education. A commonality all the camp managers had was terrorist insurgencies being the cause of displacement and the reason for the emergence of the camps. However, of the three camps, two camps were established by the camp managers (CMs) while one is a government established camp. Whilst CM1 was motivated by religious reasons to set up the camp, CM2 set up their camp out of a desperation for safety and a need to have a place of abode being an IDP him/herself. The interviews revealed that the status of the camp determines government involvement in terms of providing support especially in education accessibility.

***"...they know of our existence ..... No, government as an agency, we haven't received government support..."*** (CM1)

***"... Government does not do anything for us only NGOs support us... it only supports those government camps... we're the ones who take care of ourselves ..."*** (CM2)

These quotes were included in this section because they set the base for other views expressed. In terms of education accessibility, two of the camps have existing schools in the camp where children attend, while one camp does not have an existing school currently. Although, the researcher interviewed 3 camp managers, access to camp teachers was given only in one camp. This was because one of the camps does not have an existing school, while the third camp refused to grant further access due to his/her belief that researchers use them for their personal gains as the

interviews have never yielded change in their circumstances. A more detailed explanation was given in the introductory section of this chapter. The CMs also revealed that the population of primary age children in the camp is of the highest percentage. Their account reveals that although the government is aware of their existence, government has denied their fundamental right. This, however, shows from the onset the level of hardship, marginalisation, and inequality that IDPs face.

#### **4.2.1.3 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 1 - IDP UBE Accessibility/Success Rate.**

The policy beneficiaries (PBs) as mentioned earlier refer to the internally displaced children who are supposed to be the recipients of the UBE. In this study, a total of 20 children from 2 different camps were interviewed in a focus group comprising of 5 children in each group. Therefore, the focus group interviews were a total of 4 groups. The voices of the children were significant in the research process as they constitute the UBE policy beneficiaries (PBs) as well as, the ones to confirm the UBE accessibility that exists for them. The interviews for camp 2 were carried out in the local language (Hausa) due to the children's inability to express themselves in English. The interviews were translated and transcribed by the researcher since Hausa is also a native language of the researcher. This section thus, presents findings from their interviews representing their views on theme 1.

It was pertinent to find out from the PBs about the availability and/or extent of UBE provision they receive either in the camp or in a nearby school which some of them attend to derive data from its raw state. It was observed that the 2 camps differed in the mode of UBE provision for the children. Camp 1 (C1) which had two groups of FG interviews (A - C1A and B - C1B), has a school running in the camp while camp 2 (C2) which equally had two groups of FG interviews (A - C2A and B - C2B), attend a nearby school. This difference as observed, presents some UBE disparity in experience for the IDPs although, there are many commonalities that were also observed. The IDPs all confirmed that they were previously attending school either in their hometown or some form of temporary arrangement that existed.

***“Yes, we were attending school before we came here.”*** (CHN)

***“In our hometown that was before Boko Haram invaded our town”*** (C2B/CH1)

***“There was a school, there was a building that was just fixed, and we used to just go there to read or study”*** (C2A/CH2)

Another commonality the IDPs shared was in their interest and motivation to attend school. They expressed how they believe school can have a positive impact on them and cause the realisation of their aspirations.

***“...I enjoy going to school because I will be a great person in future...”*** (C1A/CH3)

***“Because I want to gain knowledge”*** (C1B/CH4), ***“To learn and to have fun with my friends”*** (C1B/CH2), ***“To be a better person”*** (C1B/CH1)

***“We love going to school because we want to acquire knowledge, we know that when we acquire knowledge, we will be able to help our parents”*** (C2A/CH2)

***“We want to become meaningful people in the society so that we can help poor people who are suffering”*** (C2B/CH4)

***“We enjoy going to school because we want to gain knowledge and so that people will not mock us or laugh at us”*** (CHN)

The quotes above were included in this section because they relate to theme 1. It was necessary to first get the children’s views about their perceptions of education. The above therefore, clearly reveals that the children are keen about learning. This is a significant element in the learning process as it is the first step towards achieving any form of education. The IDPs showed a sense of optimism about their future by sharing their aspirations.

***“I want to go to school because I want to become a lawyer”*** (C1A/CH5)

***“I want to be a doctor and an actress”*** (C1B/CH5)

***“I want to be a farmer and a soldier... I want to be fighting for my country... Boko Haram”*** (C1B/CH3)

***“I want to become a soldier... I would like to help people who are in difficult situations and where there is Boko Haram, I would like to chase them away”*** (2B/CH2)

The above quotes from the IDPs can be viewed as a display of positivity despite the high levels of trauma they have experienced. However, an issue of concern from the interviews was the number of children who are aspiring to become soldiers for the reason of taking vengeance from the enemies that have caused their misfortune (Boko Haram). This is an indication that there is need to provide trauma healing programmes that will heal the children from their bitter experiences.

Whilst most of the IDPs recognise the significance of acquiring an education by stating that it is necessary to attend school,

***“I must go to school to learn... to help others”*** (C1A/CH2)

***“So, that we can learn how to be intelligent so that people don't laugh at us”*** (C2A/CH3)

***“So, that if you go anywhere or you are given something to read, you are able to read it.”***

(C2A/CH2)

***“It is absolutely necessary... I said it's necessary because the child will not learn anything, and he would have to stay idle.”*** (C2B/CH2)

A fraction of the IDPs held a different opinion, they do not agree that attending school is necessary.

***“I don't have to go to school because some of the teachers are wicked, I don't really like school because our teacher just gives us notes to copy all the whole textbooks and he doesn't explain, and he has explained only one subject up till today and that is basic science, and he has not explained all the other subjects.”*** (C1B/CH2)

***“I don't think I must go to school... because it can be your choice to choose to go to school or not... I want to go back home”*** (C1B/CH5)

It is obvious that these opinions are born out of underlying, unresolved issues. There is no clear description about what the teacher's 'wickedness' implies apart from the teacher bombarding the children with unexplained notes to copy. Nonetheless, the teacher's 'wickedness' has affected the child's perception of school. This is not surprising because of the role teacher/pupil relationship plays in children's learning. In the case of CH5, it is likely that there are hidden problems the child is not wanting to disclose but just the desire to go home raises concerns. However, these issues border on the children's mental wellbeing which is a key factor in the learning process and is discussed in more detail in section 4.2.4 and in the discussion chapter.

#### **4.2.1.4 Brief Summary**

This section/theme (IDP UBE accessibility and success rate) was necessary to give a background about whether the displaced children had access to education. The PMs who were clear on their role, claimed that schools have been constructed and existing ones renovated however, CMs, (except for CM3 whose camp is government established) contradicted this claim by revealing that although, government is aware of their existence, no education provision has been available for education. CM1 was left with no choice than to start some education provision in their camp, while CM2's camp has been without any education provision for 2 years now. The IDPs interviewed confirmed that they had access to education, some of them within the camp, while others attend a neighbouring school. It was not possible to reach children who have been out of school for 2 years.

## 4.2.2 Emerging Theme 2 - Extent of UBE Provision

With the population of displaced children rising and duration of displacements, the need for education has become even more critical in this situation. This section presents the views of stakeholders interviewed on their perceptions of the extent of UBE provision available for IDPs. This theme focused on the level of achievement and effectiveness of the UBE for IDPs, where access has been made possible.

### 4.2.2.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 2

In responding to the extent of UBE provision in the IDP camps, the PMs opined ...

***“...the board in her initiative, seeing to the plight of the learners at the IDP camps, a 7-man committee was set up about 2018... they visited the camps... thereafter, we have volunteer teachers. We have about 126 volunteer teachers who were teaching in those camps... also guidance counselors... we also provide instructional materials, registers, textbooks, exercise books, whatever to assist them in teaching and learning.”*** (PM1)

***“...teachers organised lessons for them. It’s not a full recommended, established school but an assistance to enable them to learn something...”*** (PM1)

***“It is an inclusive policy education so, you don’t have any policy that is entirely left for those who are in the IDPs, the policy is applicable to children, whether they are children that are physically challenged or children that are in IDP camps or in the conventional classroom situation, the policy applies to all of them...I will say no, if you say provision, it means that there is a plan, with its own budget. But there is no such plan. When we mobilised to the camp, it was a contingency arrangement that was made actually... It came like an emergency, and we looked for resources from somewhere...”*** (PM2)

***“.... We had to deploy some of our teachers there, we brought writing materials and gave to them until normalcy was restored to those areas.... we deployed guidance and counselors...”*** (PM)

The effort of the PMs in emergency intervention is a laudable one. Although they both admit that the education provision for the children in the camps was a mere assistance to enable some learning as an intervention measure, they ensured that qualified teachers/counsellors were deployed to the camps as well as the necessary resources to aid learning despite lack of budget. The academic provision alongside counselling sessions for the traumatised children is impressive. Much as it is understood that emergencies are unplanned and tragic events bring high levels of

uncertainties, the State by now should have put in some measures on ground to cater for such situations especially as insurgencies have existed in the country for two decades now.

#### **4.2.2.2 Views of Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 2 on the Extent of UBE Provision**

As stated earlier, PPs comprise camp managers (CMs), camp teachers (CTs) and neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs). This section presents their perceptions about the extent of UBE provision in the camps and in the mainstream school (neighbouring school) where some of the IDPs attend.

##### **4.2.2.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CMs) on Theme 2**

In responding to the extent of UBE provision in the camps, the CMs shared varying experiences. CM1 runs a school within their camps from nursery to secondary school, they refer to the camp as 'home'.

*"... our home runs a school from pre-primary to senior secondary. Actually, some of the children that came had some form of education, primary schooling mostly..."* (CM1)

*"... it's not a government school yet but we run it you know, just like any other government school..."* (CM1)

CM3 who manages the government/formal camp revealed that there is an established school within the camp which provides for children from Nursery to primary six.

*"... I think even the education army is under UNICEF. We have 2 civilian teachers from the town who work together with the army teachers to teach the children..."* (CM3)

CM2 on the other hand lamented at the lack of basic education provision for the children in their camp. From the interview, CM2 revealed that there once was a school set up in the camp by a kind-spirited person who ran the school from personal funds. This sadly ended because of the sponsor's unavoidable relocation which resulted to the end of education provision for the children as well as, the dilapidation of the structure.

*"... There was an American woman who used to live in Abuja, she visited the camp and helped us with the education of our little children. She got people from NYSC camp who came to teach the children, but she had to travel to America to have her baby which resulted to the death of the learning/school for the younger children..."* (CM2)

*"...she started the school, she even built a little structure for us and took 170 children, brought NYSC Corp members who were teaching, and she was paying them. She also employed other*

***staff like security guard, cleaners, and other workers among our people typical in a school setting, we were happy... Everything is finished even the building has collapsed and is absolutely nothing left...”*** (CM2)

***“... But concerning school, our children are very backward, no school completely. There are temporary structures, but no teachers and they do not come... .. today it is 2 years since our children haven’t been to school, coupled with the corona virus, no help...”*** (CM2)

Both CM1 and CM2 complained about how the neighbouring schools reject admitting IDPs in their schools claiming that the school cannot cater for them due to lack of funds as they must operate within their budget allocation. Some of the schools require the IDPs to pay large sums of levies before being admitted. This was the reason CM1 was compelled to begin some form of education provision.

***“...When the children came, we tried to engage some government schools and other private schools to see if they could provide the quality of learning that we desired for these children, but it was difficult because tuition in schools is high, and the government schools didn’t have a budget to accommodate other children outside the children in their own care... we were forced to accommodate and educate these children ...”*** (CM1)

***“... no school was willing to absorb those children because they needed money to be able to do that...”*** (CM1)

***“... The neighbouring schools have told us that we have to buy items... in the primary school, at the start of every term, each child is required to pay a total of N150, 000.00... (one hundred and fifty thousand naira)”***, (CM2)

Although the UBE policy states that every school age child is entitled to free, compulsory, and universal education, these vulnerable children who have lost everything including their families in most instances are being laden with the difficult burden of paying so much to gain an education which is their fundamental right. The minimum wage for federal government workers in Nigeria in 2021 during the time of this fieldwork, is N30, 000 (Thirty thousand naira) monthly, equaled to about £53.53, this goes to show the extent of difficulty that is placed on these victims of misfortune who do not have a source of livelihood thereby, adding to their trauma.

The three CMs acknowledged that the children are interested and motivated to learn but the deprivation has constituted a hinderance to the children accessing their fundamental right.

***“... Our children are very, very interested in school in fact they always look forward to that opportunity... No matter how far the school is if our children know that they can go to school they are very excited about it, they desire it so much and they want to go to school...”*** (CM2)

***“... these children are impressionable children. You could just see that they want to learn. There’s a willingness, there’s a desire, an interest in learning and in acquiring skills ...”*** (CM1)

***“... The children show high levels of enthusiasm ...”*** (CM3)

Despite the enthusiasm of these children and the education provision in some of the camps, the quality of this provision has been challenged. As a result, the CMs expressed dissatisfaction at the state of UBE provision in their camps. CM1 revealed the effort their camp makes in the statement below,

***“... We just absorbed them and then tried to see how we could place them through some form of remediations... what they had as an education wouldn’t pass for the education, they claimed they already had...”*** (CM1)

***“... What we give them as education is not what I would call education... what we are running and calling school will not necessarily pass for a proper school ... I will say it’s just a makeshift something in the absence of nothing...”*** (CM1)

The statement above by CM1 indicates that the extent of UBE provision in the camp is questionable. However, compared to CM2’s camp where the children have not had access to education for 2 years now, and there is still no hope of the children having access to education soon, CM1’s camp can be said to be making some progress in providing a level of UBE for the children, but how effective is this provision? CM3 on the other hand, asserted that the UBE provision in their camp is of a good standard and described the parents’ satisfaction with the learning of their wards as the reason for the good standard.

***“... I will say the standard is good ... the teachers teach well, and learning takes place because they are able to give answers to their parents at home when asked questions or if the bring back assignments, we are able to assess them and assist them...”*** (CM3)

#### **4.2.2.2 Views of Camp Teachers (CTs) on Theme 2 - Extent of UBE Provision**

This section presents the findings and analysis of responses from individual interviews conducted with three camp teachers (CTs) in relation to RQ1/theme 2. The table below shows/displays the camp teachers’ profile which was a prerequisite to a better-informed analysis.

Table 2: CTs' Qualification Profile

Camp Teacher	Qualification	Role in Camp	Length of Role	Prior Teaching Experience	Prior IDP Teaching Experience
CT1	*BSc. Maths Education *MSc. Test and Measurement	Headteacher /Teacher	5 years	*Home-school Teacher. *Secondary school Teacher.	*No prior experience
CT2	*HND in Hospitality Leisure and Management.	Teacher	3 years	*No prior experience	*No prior experience
CT3	*BSc. Psychology. *Currently in MSc. Clinical Psychology. *Trainings: Trauma Healer, Trauma Facilitator, Substance use and Abuse Management.	Psychologist/Teacher	5 years	*Worked with children from Norther zone Nigerian YMCA.	*No prior experience

When assessing the extent of UBE provision for IDP children, it was imperative to investigate the qualifications and experience of the camp teachers. This has been presented in the table above, which reveals that the teachers are well qualified in their various fields. However, CT2 has no teaching qualification or prior teaching experience. The question that came from that was, will this reflect in the quality of instruction especially in an IDP context? Is this table a representation of the quality of teachers in the camp? CT1, who is also the headteacher posited that...

***“...we try to take permanent staff in the primary classes ... not many of them have had the education training, all of them have gone through a higher education ... in terms of qualification our teaching strength is not that adequate, but it is not that bad”*** (CT1)

The above quote indicates that although the teachers have higher education qualification, it is not considered adequate since they lack a teacher training qualification. This, therefore, raises concerns about the issue of effective teaching and learning.

In describing the extent of UBE provision, the three camp teachers each had a different approach/focus. However, a commonality they shared was that they all revealed that most of the

children could not speak a word of English as they were taught in vernacular in their former places of residence. Some of the children had never been to school prior to their displacement. As such, the camp organised intervention classes to give the children learning support.

***“We had to make a class called ‘Special class’ where we take them through reading”*** (CT1)

This learning support has proved successful so far as expressed by the headteacher who said,

***“...when we see that they can cope in other classes, we absorb them into other classes... We use the Nigerian Basic Education curriculum”*** (CT1).

***“...many children come here not knowing anything in English and then they are able to learn to communicate in English and they are able to learn to read at a certain level and then they are able to when it is time to, write the exams and pass. So, I will say we have tried...”*** (CT1)

CT2 described the extent of UBE provision in the camp as having high level of quality,

***“We provide quality education because we followed the curriculum which is the basic...”*** (CT2)

This above assertion/claim by CT2 draws attention to the profile of this teacher to ascertain the fact of that statement. This is because of CT2’s lack of education qualification, no prior teaching experience and just 3 years of teaching in the camp compared to the other teachers interviewed. CT1 and CT3 described the basic education availability through the lens of the children’s disposition to learning, their views however, were contrasting.

***“I see in these children a lack of effort, it's as if ‘I am defeated, someone has to help me’, so you see very minimal effort being put into learning, into overcoming difficulties, into aspiring for things...”*** (CT1)

***“... I will say about 99% of our children are very enthusiastic about their education, they are very creative and eager to learn...”*** (CT3)

In analysing the assertion by CT1, it could be assumed that the children’s defeatist disposition and lack of motivation could reflect the trauma impact of their dreadful displacement experience. This does not exclude other factors which could include the teacher’s method of teaching. The view of CT3 is the total opposite and a very strong claim, 99% of children, the use of keywords like enthusiastic, creative, and eager shows that nearly all the children are highly motivated and interested to learn as against the claims of CT1. What is responsible for such sharp disparity? Could the teacher’s expertise be a contributing factor? It is possible that CT3’s expertise in psychology and other forms of training help in facilitating/encouraging a positive outlook for the children. CT3 further added,

***“...a lot of them have plans for tomorrow where they see themselves the change, they want to make in the country, so they are very positive about life... we have group sessions with them...”***

(CT3)

#### **4.2.2.2.3 Views of Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) on Theme 2 - Extent of UBE Provision**

To analyse the views of NSTs about the extent/quality of UBE provision for IDP children in response to RQ1/theme, it is pertinent to begin with an awareness of their qualification and experience in the teaching profession. The table below is a presentation of these facts.

Table 3: NSTs' Qualification Profile

<b>NST</b>	<b>Qualification</b>	<b>Role in School</b>	<b>Length of Teaching Profession</b>	<b>Prior Teaching Experience</b>	<b>IDP</b>
<b>NST1</b>	B.Ed. Guidance & Counselling	Headteacher	Since 1987	No prior experience	
<b>NST2</b>	NCE, B.Ed. in view	Teacher	7 years	From 2018	

The table reveals that the teachers interviewed have the required teaching qualification as stipulated by the education policy of Nigeria. The teachers also possess a reasonable length of experience in the teaching profession. This experience has been in teaching regular children until recently, the teaching experience is currently with IDP children, except for NST2 who had prior experience teaching IDP children. The headteacher (NST1) revealed that all the teachers in the school are well qualified teachers as the minimum teaching requirement in the Nigerian education system is NCE.

***“...my NCE teachers ...most of my teachers are degree holders...”*** (NST1)

Does the above statement depict quality provision of basic education for IDP children? This is considering the relationship between teacher qualification and teaching quality. Is quality teaching a direct reflection of teacher qualification? It is worth examining to see if this is the only component required for achieving quality provision or whether there are other factors that also enhance quality provision. Narrowing this down to the IDP context, which is the focus of this research, it is important to investigate teacher qualification in relation to quality provision for IDPs. As such, in responding to whether a normal teacher qualification is sufficient to teach IDPs or there is a need to gain special expertise to be able to cater for them/for quality UBE provision, NSTs had the following to say about it,

***“I think the teaching qualification is OK because they are only IDPs, internally displaced, they are not disabled. So, with the trauma, even in NCE, you know NCE is one of the teaching qualifications. There are courses we do that involve guidance and counselling...”*** (NST1)

***“...we believe that every teacher when you pass through your NCE education they teach you guidance and counselling on how to go about these kinds of children...”*** (NST2)

Both teachers asserted that the regular teaching qualification obtained is sufficient for quality teaching of IDP children therefore, expertise training is not required. NST1 compares/equates displacement with disability and indirectly points to disability as more serious and requiring of expertise to enhance quality teaching rather than displacement (IDPs). NST1 fails to realise that disability can be both a physical and/or mental condition that causes limitations in a person (Dictionary). Therefore, undermining the condition of the IDPs trivialises the extent of their situation. On the other hand, NST2 expressed another view which is contrasting from the initial assertion by stating that only specialised teachers have the expertise to teach IDP and not just any teacher.

In assessing the extent of quality UBE provision for the IDP children in their school, both teachers alluded to the fact that they provide quality education in the school. They measured this by the interest shown by the children and their regular attendance to school through the teachers' input.

***“You know everybody cannot be the same, like most of them they show interest in the school because if they didn't show interest once they come the first day, they will not come the next day. So, they are very ready to learn, they show interests...”*** (NST1)

***“Yes... Why I said so is because with these are children, you realise that most of them even those that are unable to speak English, some of the teachers who understand Hausa will explain to the children so that they understand and not left behind in understanding. And we make sure that any area that they do not understand we sit with them one on one and explain better to them.”***  
(NST2)

NST2 stated that the school provides quality basic education and measures quality provision by the learning outcomes of the children. This is significant because learning outcomes are indicators of success of an academic course, it determines if the curriculum content has been conducted perfectly (Mahajan and Singh, 2017). Despite claiming to provide quality UBE, the teachers revealed the challenges that have plagued the provision of quality education for the IDP children and the school as a whole since inception in 1982.

***“You know like those children that are not displaced; they are used to the system already. So, like as if we are encouraging those IDPs now to teach them, some when they come, they don't have anything. We tried to encourage them with the small one that we can afford...”*** (NST1)

***“...they don't have enough learning materials...”*** (NST1)

***“...they don't have textbooks and writing materials that is why there are some of them that will be left behind...”*** (NST2)

This reveals the state of inequality/disparity that exists in the classroom between regular children and IDPs. With this situation, the teacher's qualification can be assumed to become ineffective because the children do not have the necessary resources that will support and consolidate the learning process. With the existence of such disparity, it presents another situation that has the potential to further challenge the mental wellbeing of the children. NST1 reported how difficult this situation is and has compelled the school leadership to seek support from NGOs to provide some learning resources the children need.

***“... We went as far as seeking for the help of NGOs to give help to them...”*** (NST1)

This initiative has not brought the required solution especially with the emergence of covid 19. The government on the other hand have done little or nothing to alleviate the plight of these displaced children.

***“...what government provides for us is only the structure of the building. So, if your children are coming to the school, the parents have to buy books for them, government is not ready to buy books for any Child. Then this our dilapidated building, even the dilapidated building we have, we have been writing to the office...”*** (NST1)

The above statement reveals the need to further probe the practicality of the UBE policy statement that states the universality, compulsory, and free provision of basic education for every school age child.

#### **4.2.2.2.4 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 2 - Extent of UBE Provision**

It was pertinent to hear the perceptions of the PBs about the level of UBE from their experiential standpoint. Probing into the UBE provision for the IDPs, revealed that they all currently attend school, some in their camp, and others in a nearby school. The striking thing, however, is the varying disclosure that children from the same camp gave. In camp 1, focus group A revealed that their teachers are kind, they are happy in class because their teachers teach them well. They also claimed that they have all the required resources.

***“...do you attend school in camp?”*** (Researcher)

***“yes”*** (CHN)

***“I think they're kind” ... “they speak kindly to us” ... “they teach very good” ... “happy in the class” ... “they give us notes and they explain it” ... “have all your books, have pencils, textbooks and all those things needed in the class”*** (CHN)

However, from the same camp, focus group B had a totally contrasting revelation. The children stated that their teachers are not nice to them.

***“Is your teacher nice to you”*** (Researcher), ***“no”*** (CH4)

In describing the state of UBE provision in their camp, the children revealed the following,

***“My teacher don't use to enter class”*** (CH3), ***“I too”*** (CH4),

***“They used to go to school... like today, he entered in the morning and then he now left again”*** (CH3)

***“...if our teacher is not there we stay in class and read and wait for the changing lesson”*** (CH5)

***“Sometimes my teacher used to go to baking bakery work, she used to bake cake, so we don't have a teacher, so we don't normally have the teacher. So, like me I know maths, my best subject is maths so I go, and I teach the class maths, the one that knows civic will teach civic, the one that knows economics will go and teach economics. So, anyone you like you can go and teach the class. That's how we used to do anytime she's not in the class until closing time.”*** (C1/CH4)

***“...education in the camp ... it's not OK... because always better us that our uncle don't use to come every time, what of senior secondary school and junior secondary school before they see a teacher enter their class it will be only God that will send the teacher.”*** (CH2)

From the account of the children, it shows that the teachers are more focused on their personal goals at the detriment of the children's education. It becomes necessary to investigate the factors that might be responsible for this attitude from the teachers. Could this be a sign that the camp is just a transit point to greener pastures for them? On the other hand, considering that the camp cannot afford to pay teachers wages, their search to add value to themselves in preparation for greener pastures can be understood. Although, peer learning is acceptable, children taking on the role of teachers is unacceptable as there is no way of assessing the content of what the children teach each other. It might very well be the case of 'the blind leading the blind'.

In camp 2 both focus group A and B revealed that they currently attend a nearby school and have teachers who teach them every day.

*“Yes...we always have teachers to teach us every day you go to school”* (C2B/CHN)

*“We close school at 1:00 PM but we go to school in the morning at 8:00 AM”* (CHN)

#### **4.2.2.3 Brief Summary**

In describing the extent of UBE provision under theme 2, the stakeholders had some contrasting views between stakeholder groups and even within their groups. Whilst the PMs recounted efforts, they made to provide teachers, instructional materials, counsellors, and organised lessons for the IDPs in the camps, CM1 was compelled to provide education for the IDPs because both government and private schools rejected them as well as, there was no assistance from the government. The PMs and CM1 however, claimed that it was just a contingency arrangement. The CTs and NSTs however, focused on the more practical areas of teaching and learning while the PBs shared their feelings about their teachers and how it affects their learning. An in-depth discussion is provided in the next chapter.

### **4.2.3 Emerging Theme 3 - Setbacks of IDP UBE Practice**

This section contains the perceptions of stakeholders on the issues that have posed barriers to the successful implementation of the UBE practices. These obstacles have largely determined the poor and/or lack of availability of the UBE for IDPs especially. Therefore, the notions shared by the stakeholders on the theme ‘setbacks of IDP UBE practice’ can be safely used as a gauge to ascertain the extent of UBE provision for IDPs. Therefore, this section is an extension of the previous section (theme 2). An awareness of the setbacks helps to give a clearer picture about the state of UBE for IDPs and answer RQ1.

#### **4.2.3.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 3**

Despite the PMs assertion on the success rate, they have recorded of UBE generally, they pointed out some setbacks that have affected IDP education. The PMs attested to the fact that during the terrorist attacks, schools were badly affected and PM1 confirmed that even at the point of the interview a total of 61 schools in the LGAs were affected. The question is, where are the children who once went to the schools in those affected areas?

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There was also the challenge of the environment itself which they said was not enabling for learning. This presents a barrier since the camps are not organised settlements because in some cases, IDPs set up tents and other temporary structures just to have a place of shelter. The condition in which they survive is appalling as the PMs described.

***“...You know how congested the camp is, it so congested that...anyway, it’s not a place that you can call a normal school area whereby effective teaching and learning will happen, we just manage it to ensure life continues...”*** (PM1)

***“...but there is no organised way, approach in handling those situations...”*** (PM2)

PM2 in response to the question about being better prepared for emergencies, acknowledged that displacement has been in existence since 2001 as stated above, but there is yet no detailed education emergency plan to implement in the event of an emergency.

***“... I can’t see a detailed plan to implement in the event of such a situation, it’s just not there...”***  
(PM2)

PM2 also revealed that there is no effective way to follow up children who have returned to their communities or other communities to ensure that they are back to school, adding that the camps are not government organised but NGO organised. Thereby, abdicating their responsibility of ensuring IDP resettlement and leaving it to NGOs.

***“...schools in affected areas to this point, cannot be accessed by both the teachers and the children on account of fear of the uncertainty from impending danger by herders, gunmen...”*** (PM2)

***“...Well for now, we only have the names of the villages, the names of the communities but we don’t have the track of the learners...”*** (PM1)

In response to the current educational situation of the children who have been resettled, PM1 stated that the State government made provisions to enable the resettlement of IDPs to their various communities. The IDP’s return to their communities led to an eradication and non-existence of the IDP camps. PM1 further added that children who were attending the schools that have been closed for security reasons, were relocated to nearby schools which have become over-populated. Both PMs revealed that there is not an organised way to track or follow up to ensure that the children have returned to school, they are only aware of the villages or communities that IDP have returned to. They are cognisant of the fact that some children have lost both parents but there is no certainty what has happened or is happening to these children especially as it relates to their

education. Therefore, the setbacks the PMs highlighted were threefold, the destruction of schools, the appalling state of the camps which is an impediment to learning and the lack of data to ascertain that IDPs have truly been settled into schools. Universal education cannot be achieved based on assumption; it must be carried out deliberately. This may very well be a situation that breeds children who will become a nuisance to the society in the near future.

#### **4.2.3.2 Responses from Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 3 – Setbacks of IDP UBE Practice**

The responses presented in this section are those drawn from camp managers (CMs), camp teachers (CTs), and neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs), all of whom constitute PPs. Their perceptions were significant in responding to the theme, 'setbacks of IDP UBE practice' because of the roles they play at the grassroots, on different levels, translating the policy into practice.

##### **4.2.3.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CMs) on Theme 3**

The CMs at the grassroots are primarily responsible for managing the IDP camps and ensuring the general wellbeing of the IDPs. This is a responsibility that is voluntary and usually based on someone taking it on for reasons of also being an IDP themselves e.g., camps 2 and 3, or like camp 1 who was driven by religious reasons. All CMs shared the setbacks that hinder the children from accessing quality UBE as the presented below.

***"... for you to provide good nutrition for the children, which is an essential need to quality education in itself is a challenge for us..."*** (CM1)

***"... we lack food and food has become very expensive in the market. A lot of people go for up to 2 days without eating for lack of food and so, schooling issue does not exist at all..."*** (CM2)

***"There are things that prevent the children from learning, children must have breakfast before they can focus on classwork, we suffer lack of food..."*** (CM3)

The CMs lamented bitterly about the state of the children's wellbeing especially as it concerns their feeding. They expressed how they survive on donations from kind spirited individuals and how these donations have dwindled down owing to the impact of the pandemic. Even CM3 who runs the government/formal camp, disclosed that the camp has not received any support from the government in a long time.

***"... We received support in the first 3 years but since after that even the NGOs seem to have diverted their attention ..."*** (CM3)

***“... initially accommodation was free, but they have become tired now...Men go into the bush to cut down trees to go and sell in the cities then, they buy food stuff with whatever they make. Women go out to rice farms to clear the farms and from the chaff, they are able to get something which they cook for their children. That is how we feed ourselves...” (CM3)***

This is a challenging situation as good nutrition is a key factor in enhancing the learning process. Good nutrition is required during childhood as it facilitates rapid growth, development in children’s cognition, concentration, and energy levels. These factors reveal another dimension of hardship the children face which can translate into frustration and other vices since they are keen to learn.

Other factors expressed by the CMs as limitations that have hindered the children from accessing quality UBE include the lack of structure, teachers, conducive environment, resources, uniforms, and the funding to keep teachers.

***“...The school materials and the things we need are not there, teachers and the quality of teachers we need are not there, the learning environment is not conducive, the classroom, everything is just, let’s provide an education, if you will call it an education... they are not trained teachers, only a few are trained...” (CM1)***

***“There are some of the teachers, but you know, the teachers want to be paid something little for their work... but when there was nothing coming in terms of salary, they stopped teaching... initially we started to contribute 100 naira each to give the teachers because amongst the children are orphans, but our strength failed...” (CM2)***

***“...secondly, uniform and thirdly, we are short of teachers...Like primary 1 and nursery, they are almost 100 in the class, the way we know it is that the children should be 45 in a class... Children go and spend the whole day with no teacher because of the shortage of teachers...” (CM3)***

The CMs all stressed the lack of teachers as a hindering factor to UBE provision in their camps. This shows their awareness of the key component of the children’s learning process which is the availability of teachers. Any education system will rise or fall based on the quality of the teachers. CM1 reveals that although their camp has teachers, most are not necessarily qualified to teach. CM2 raises the issue of teacher remuneration which has led to the loss of teachers and eventual crumble of the camp school. CM1 alluded to this as his/her camp has also lost teachers for a similar reason. It can therefore be safe to say that having qualified teachers in the camps is farfetched considering the impoverished state of the camps. CM3 who believes the standard of education in their camp is good, revealed the large class size (almost 100) yet with a shortage of teachers. CM3 mentioned how children spend whole days without teaching due to a shortage of teachers. This idleness presents another level of challenge that could impact the children’s mental

wellbeing as well as their behaviour. This is because idleness breeds all sorts of vices. This, however, questions the quality of UBE provision in the camp as claimed.

#### **4.2.3.2.2 Views of Camp Teachers (CTs) on Theme 3**

The CTs are the ones saddled with the responsibility of giving legs to the UBE by putting it into practice through ‘teaching and learning’. As the ones in direct contact with the PBs, they are in a good position to describe the challenges that affect the teaching and learning process and UBE practice generally. Despite the laudable effort and recorded progress as shown in camp 1 and narrated by PMs, the provision of UBE in the camp encounters challenges that impact on its quality/effectiveness. Although, the camp school provides UBE, it does so in the face of various challenges. The CTs expressed the difficulties they face in their effort to teach effectively. Some of the areas of challenge include the lack of learning resources. Although, donations of textbooks are given to them, these books as they reported, are not usually the required curriculum books.

***“...before now we didn’t even have textbooks but due to donations from parents... although some of them are not up to date...”*** (CT1)

***“... they have donated books that they use so that doesn’t necessarily mean that they’re the required books that they need...”*** (CT3)

***“...only the teacher that uses the textbooks we write it on the board for the children. That’s why I said the resources are not there for the children...”*** (CT2)

This situation poses a setback in the teaching and learning process as resources are a key component of learning. The lack of a conducive learning environment and lack of infrastructure. Although content knowledge and quality of instruction are viewed as evidence of effective teaching, a lack of the fabric that make up a successful education system will hinder its quality/effective provision (Sutton’s Report).

Another perspective CT1 and CT3 pointed was the wellbeing of the children which they both stated has an impact in the overall success of the learning process. The issue of the children’s confinement to the camp and the need for freedom through providing outlets. This is a significant factor because freedom is a fundamental human right. This is, however, not the case in the camp as the children hardly or never get to see the outside world. The effect of confinement is anxiety and depression which are factors that can impede successful learning.

***“... they’re here they hardly go out, we don’t have so much or a lot of outlets...We are thinking of incorporating that, but you see when you start incorporating those kinds of things, you’re going***

***to start needing to get more staff and when you start looking at all of that then the cost implication.”*** (CT1)

CT3 adds that outlets such as creating play areas with the provision of toys that will provoke the children’s innovative and creative development will reduce the impact of the confinement.

#### **4.2.3.2.3 Views of Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) on Theme 3**

Like the CTs, the NSTs are also at the grassroot in the mainstream nearby school, having direct contact with all children (IDPs and non-IDPs). Their views on the setbacks of UBE especially as it concerns the IDPs in their school was very critical. The aim was to investigate the extent of UBE provision for IDPs (RQ1) in a mainstream school setting. The setbacks revealed by the NSTs include the lack of sufficient teachers to teach children. This insufficient supply of teachers has impacted the class size and caused the merging of classes.

***“...the government didn't provide enough teachers...”*** (NST1)

***“..... in a class, we have some 50, we have some 45, we have some sixty-something in a class... If there are more teachers, we will go as far as splitting the children into smaller groups to reduce the children in a class...”*** (NST1)

***“...The class will be populated, instead of class to have 50 children you will see that the class has about 100 plus children...”*** (NST2)

***“Like in my class we have about 100 plus and so we joined them in both A and B. I have 100 pupils because we do not have enough teachers...”*** (NST2)

The above reveals the level of challenge faced by the school in offering quality education. With a ratio of 1 teacher to 100 or more pupils, lack of resources, poor enabling environment, acute shortage of teachers and a lack of government support, the provision of quality UBE provision as alluded by the NSTs is questionable despite the qualification of the teachers.

#### **4.2.3.3 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 3**

The PBs perceptions about the setbacks of UBE practice was key since they are the ones the policy is targeted at and those who experience it therefore, they are in the best position to tell their own story. Aside from the challenges the children have described, there is another level of impediment that affects the UBE provision for internally displaced children which is revealed in the quotes presented in this section. Although the children in C1A had initially claimed that they have no challenges, all the children from both camps, disclosed several drawbacks that have affected their learning. They shared some commonalities in the setbacks they described.

***“...those who don't have chairs, they sit together with others” (C1A/CHN)***

***“My teacher has already left... anyone that knows any subject and would like to teach... been happening for a long time” (C1B/CH1)***

***“We don't have enough books; we don't have enough chairs” (C1B/CH1)***

***“...before they see a teacher enter their class it will be only God that will send the teacher...” (C1B/CH2)***

***“...going to school before... teachers later got angry and left us... We don't know why” (C2A/CH2)***

***“Because we don't have chairs and we don't have anything in our school” (C2A/CH2)***

***“We don't have books” (C2A/CH4)***

***“We do not have biros, books, bags, or scandals. Some of us don't even have uniform.” (C2B/CH2)***

From the above quotes, it reveals that in both camps, the challenges militating against quality UBE provision for the IDPs include, lack of proper and adequate infrastructure, inadequate furniture, and a conducive learning environment, insufficient or a lack of learning resources and a lack of teachers. However, due to the variance in UBE provision between the two camps, some of the setbacks were only experienced by camp 2. This is because the children in Camp 2 attend a nearby school, unlike the children in camp 1 who have school provision in their camp. Some of these setbacks as revealed by the IDPs who attend a nearby school include,

***“...And we don't have money to pay PTA because we're supposed to pay for PTA” (C2A/CH5)***

***“The route where we take to school there's a river and whenever it rains the river is full, it overflows and so we have to try to cross the river before we get to school, and our parents do not have money to give us to go on motorbike to go to school so we have to go to school through the river. So, when it rains, it is so hard for us to cross the river because it's overflowing and a lot of times, we have to go into the river but there's someone who helps to cross with us across the river.” (C2A/CH2)***

***“We always try our very best to cross the river because even the other route is not good as well... That is why we really want to leave the school and go to a different school because it's so difficult for us to get to school” (C2A/CH2)***

***“We are 79 in the class” ... “My teacher cannot do all the work by herself; she cannot mark the register and mark our books and do other things all by herself. The work is too much for her”***

(C2A/CH1)

***“There are other children as well in the class”*** (C2A/CH1)

***“When things are brought to the school, we're not given they share the stuff to the other children, and they do not give us who come from IDP camps any share”*** (C2A/CH2)

The issues pointed out above show the level of difficulty that the IDPs face. Although they attend school every day, they do so against all odds. Placing a demand on IDPs to pay Parents Teachers Association (PTA) levy and stopping them from attending school because of their inability to pay such, is displaying insensitivity to their plight as well as, non-fulfilment of the UBE policy statement that, ‘education shall be ‘universal and free’. The children further must face the hardship of transportation, crossing an overflowing river exposes children to all sorts of risks both mentally and physically. Yet the IDPs are punished in school if they arrive late. With this state of mind, learning becomes an arduous experience.

A class size of 79 children to a teacher is a major impediment to the success of UBE provision regardless of the teacher’s level of qualification or skill. Under such circumstances, instructional effectiveness, academic performance, and quality UBE will elude the IDPs.

The level of marginalisation experienced by the IDPs is also a stumbling block in the learning process. There is a discrepancy between the children’s account and that of the Headteacher who claimed that the school seeks help from NGOs on behalf of the IDPs and provides them with some of the school resources they require.

However, despite all the challenges the IDPs face, all the interviewed children acknowledge the negative impact that a lack of good education/schooling will have on them. Some descriptions/expressions from the IDPs are as follows,

***“If you don't go to school, I will not know anything”*** (C1A/CH2)

***“...will not learn how to speak English... you'll be ashamed”*** (C1A/CH5)

***“Because if you do not go you will not study the subject of what you want what to be. you will not study the subject of what you want to be so that you will practise it”*** (C1B/CH5)

***“We will become useless or rather the person will become useless. If we don't go to school people would laugh at us because would just be Hawking on the streets”*** (C2A/CH3)

***“I will get knowledge but if I don't go to school, I will be in a bad state of mind, in a confused state of mind because I didn't go to school.” (C2B/CH5)***

#### **4.2.3.4 Brief Summary**

The stakeholders all admitted to and revealed the barriers that have posed as a hinderance to an effective UBE provision for the displaced children. These barriers were common in nature, ranging from, destruction of schools, appalling environment, lack of data, as described by the PMs. The other stakeholders focused on issues like class size, lack of teachers, resources, good nutrition, hardships children face, and in extreme cases, lack of UBE accessibility. Detailed discussion is in the next chapter.

#### **4.2.4 Emerging Theme 4 - IDP Wellbeing**

IDP wellbeing was a theme that emerged throughout the interviews conducted, this includes both mental and nutritional wellbeing. This theme was considered critical in investigating the extent of UBE provision for IDPs especially as all the PMs and PPs expressed the need for IDP wellbeing as a major factor that contributes to effective learning. The PMs and PPs acknowledged that the plight of the IDPs has resulted to high levels of traumatic experiences. They assert the necessity for this trauma to be treated, as well as proper nutrition provided before any meaningful learning can take place. The views of the PBs are included under this theme because they reveal the unpleasant experiences that the encounter as IDPs, mostly as it affects their education which impact their wellbeing. The following are quotes from both PMs and PPS where they shared their observations of IDPs trauma and their perceptions about what will enhance IDP wellbeing.

##### **4.2.4.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 4**

***“...Some of them were traumatic and that calls for the counsellors to calm them down... you are being caged somewhere. So. It's very sympathetic...” (PM1)***

***“... the first time I went there I saw how traumatised the children were, all the children had lost both parents, they were taken from school straight to the camp... to help these children... we deployed those of our teachers that read guidance and counselling, they are familiar with the psychology of working on the trauma of these children” (PM2)***

***“... the most important thing is that you wouldn't just start teaching them, you needed to treat the trauma first. If you didn't treat the trauma, it will be difficult to teach and achieve anything.” (PM2)***

***“They must be given food, clothing, good moral, we appreciate that they can be frustrated, they can even commit suicide for some of them” (PM2)***

From the quotes above, it is clear that the PMs are aware of the traumatic conditions and the need to address this situation as it does not only hinder learning but can lead to children committing suicide. It is commendable that effort was made to deploy counsellors to give trauma therapy however, it is surprising that the PMs are aware of the danger/consequences of trauma on learning yet, there is no plan or budget in place to rescue this situation. There was also the issue of freedom which PM1 raised, “being caged”, which has negative psychological impact, compounding their trauma state.

#### **4.2.4.2 Views of Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 4 – IDP Wellbeing**

This section captures the PPs (CMs, CTs and NSTs) perceptions about the challenges that affect the wellbeing of the IDPs and its impact on the UBE practice. They present their views based on the reality encountered in the camps, especially as it relates to learning.

##### **4.2.4.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CMs) on Theme 4**

Below are quotes from CMs concerning the challenges that affect the children’s wellbeing.

***“... we don’t have parents staying in the camp, only the children...children have been traumatised, they went through a lot of experiences, they heard gun shots, they saw loved ones killed, they saw siblings killed, people abducted for years, and they are lost and have gone through a lot of traumas. And so, we often have cases where children attempt suicide. I have witnessed 3 incidents in my school personally you know. At one point we had to rescue a child, she had a knife, she had razor blade and she had swallowed some peels and was going to end her life..... fights that are the result of trauma...unnecessary damages caused to existing property which is the result of trauma... So, we need more hands in our counselling department...we have psychosocial challenges you know, of the wellbeing of the children on account of teachers who are not able to meet their psychological and social needs...” (CM1)***

***“Some of the children are with their fathers, some children are without their fathers because they were killed and there are orphans...” (CM3)***

***“Yes, we do sometimes. But some of the children are not aware of what happened because they were still very little when we fled... They have grown in the camp and all they know is the camp life ...” (CM3)***

From the above account, it is evident that these children face psychological and emotional barriers to their learning. To be suddenly detached from their parents and having to flee to an unknown community and be confined in a camp, are all experiences that cause high levels of trauma, fear, and anxiety. Whilst the CMs expressed the challenges encountered because of trauma, there is however, a group of children who are not aware of their displaced state. This does not however, erode the fact that they are IDPs, living in harsh conditions. As Messiou (2012) stated, some children who are marginalised are not aware of it even though everyone knows.

#### 4.2.4.2.2 Views of Camp Teachers (CTs) on Theme 4

The quotes below were attempts the CTs made to describe the issues affecting the children's psychology that impact their learning, and factors they believe will increase the children's wellbeing.

***"I am thinking it's the fact that we live on donations, so we have become too dependent even in our mentality... But children who have a stable environment... are able to tackle problems... they hardly go out; we don't have so much or a lot of outlets..... I feel that there's still a lot to do to boost their confidence ..."*** (CT1)

***"So, I think it's not only about education... sometimes you will have to start showing them love..."*** (CT2)

***"They need more than just educational aspects for them, mentally they need all that, they need the spiritual aspect, they need the physical aspect and nutritional aspects... education is just one of the things... required of them to be able to live the normal childhood."*** (CT3)

Some of the issues were highlighted by CT1 who talked about the children having a dependent mentality because they are aware they live on donations, this mentality CT1 claims has affected the children's ability to tackle problems. CT1 believes that a stable environment will help resolve these issues as well as having the opportunity to go outside the camp for other activities. CT2 views showing the children love as equally important as teaching them. CT3 shares a similar view about not focusing only on education but also on other areas considered significant and necessary to give the children a normal childhood experience. These areas include the children's mental, spiritual, physical, and nutritional wellbeing.

#### 4.2.4.2.3 Views of Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) on Theme 4

Below are quotes from NSTs that reflect their views about the mental wellbeing of IDPs in their schools which is a mainstream school that has both IDPs and non-IDPs.

***“... So even if they're late we don't give them much punishment, we just ask them to pick pieces of paper and they go to their class.....they have taken it as their fate”*** (NST1)

***“Yes, most of them showed a good character and the one we see that they want to be isolated we say no...”*** (NST2)

The quote from NST1 who is also the headteacher of the school shows a lack of consideration for the challenges the IDPs face to commute to school. This raises concern about the teachers' empathy towards these helpless children. From NST2's comment, it shows that the children suffer trauma as it is evident in their isolation from others but the teachers claim they recognise this and give the required support and encouragement to avoid depression.

#### 4.2.4.3 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 4

The quotes below are comments that came from the children which revealed some of the challenges that affect their wellbeing. Some of these views came out after the researcher read a story book titled, 'The Fish who could wish', to help elicit their views about areas they feel require improvement regarding their education. The researcher asked the children if they had any wishes regarding their camp/school. Other quotes came from children sharing the hardship they face either in the camp or in the neighbouring school. Therefore, the researcher drew the following wellbeing issues from the children's wishes and the hardship revealed.

***“...a prefect should not beat us...”*** (C1A/CH3)

***“I want the school to be better so that the prefects would stop giving punishment for one week or for one month.”*** (C1A/CH1)

***“I wish to see my mother”*** (C1A/CH5)

***“When the teacher is wicked...He abuses the children by beating them and wounding them”***  
(C1B/CH2)

***“When the children in between them they fought in the class so they will not like to talk to each other if they see each other, they will fight more”*** (CH4)

*“I wish that there will be food in the school.”* (CH4)

*“And when we come late to school we are flogged”* (C2A/CH1)

*“Yes... our parents are here in the IDP camp”* (C2A/CHN)

*“Sometimes we are happy sometimes we are not... they don't allow us to free ourselves”* (CH4)

*“It's because the school I want to go at home is a day school”* (C1B/CH5)

*“Some of the children have lost their parents, some have lost a mother, a father, brothers, or sisters or aunties and uncles and grandparents”* (C2A/CH3)

The quotes above reveal the pathetic state of the children’s wellbeing. Although the children in camp 2 revealed that some children have their parents also residing in the camp, other children lost their family during the terrorist attacks. Despite this tragedy, the children seem to be facing another level of brutality from teachers and older children called ‘prefects.’ CH2 from C1B was very graphic in reporting the situation, describing their teacher as wicked due to the teacher’s insulting words and inflicting wounds on them through beating. The question is, have the children actually escaped from terrorism? The fights between the children can be attributed to the trauma as well as the consequence of brutality experienced. These are possibly the reasons why CH5 in C1A wants to see her mother. The children in all the FG interviews lamented about hunger and pleaded for food to be provided for them. Food was a popular wish when asked to suggest areas they felt their education will improve. The children who live and school in the camp also raised issues around their need for freedom. CH4 spoke about how they are not allowed to be free (children need freedom/space) while CH5 wants to go back home to attend a day school, this implies that the confinement has a negative impact on the children’s wellbeing.

#### **4.2.4.4 Brief Summary**

The commonality shared in this section was between the PMs and CMs, who stated clearly that the children’s wellbeing precedes learning but has been a barrier to IDPs for the lack of it. The CTs views were different from the PMs and CMs because they focused mostly on the things that will improve the children’s wellbeing which go beyond just academics. NSTs on their part, did not appear to pay adequate attention to trauma issues, while the children revealed their experiences they wish could change. The next chapter has detailed discussion about IDP wellbeing and the entire sections under RQ1 to answer the RQ1.

### 4.2.5 Observations Camp 1

An observation of the quality of UBE provision for IDPs to ascertain the level of policy implementation was carried out. Observation was possible only in one camp therefore, out of three initially proposed observations, only one was achieved. The focus was to observe a typical classroom lesson to help in addressing the RQs posed. Firstly, to find out the availability of UBE in the camp, and if available, to investigate the extent and quality of its provision and possible need for improvement. The observation was also targetted at eliciting data from the researcher's experiential perspective of observing the classroom, to match with responses from participants to gauge similarities and contrasts. Before the observation, the researcher made a schedule of the focus areas that served as a guide during the observation process. The observation focus areas included, 1) Assessing the researcher's initial impression of the classroom against the reality on ground, 2) Teacher's delivery/instructional strategy, 3) Pedagogical content knowledge, 4) The environment – is it enabling?, 5) Availability of teaching and learning resources, 6) Children's engagement and enthusiasm during the lesson, 7) Children's behaviour, 8) Teacher's relationship with the children, 9) Class size, and 9) Learning outcomes. These areas of focus were chosen because of the following reasons, to elicit more authentic information on the research topic to strengthen my research; to give me a greater understanding of the case; to assess the quality of UBE provision for displaced children and ultimately to compare the responses from the interviews with the reality on ground as observed (More detailed rationale can be found in section 3.3.3).

The observation took place in the children's familiar environment, in their classroom (Year 1) and comprised of one IDP teacher and the children. The Stalwart Communities staff was available at the camp, in the classroom to move the laptop camera around according to the instructions of the researcher as this was done via zoom video call. This did not prevent the children from focusing on the lesson as the observation was videod from angles behind the children, that were not distracting and headphones worn.

At the start of the lesson, the teacher introduced the topic which was 'showing respect in various ways'. The various ways the teacher focused on included the following areas, national flag, national currency, coat of arms, parents, teachers and the community. She/he read out the meaning of respect from the text book which only she/he had access to, as it was the only copy available, and asked the students to repeat after her/him. The children had no writing materials to take notes of the lesson or carry out any written activity. Then the teacher started to read from the text book and then throw questions to the children about she/he was reading, the children were mostly echoing the answers back at the teacher.

Teacher: Respect for our coat of arms. Are you with me?

Children: Yes

Teacher: We must respect our national currency, our money. Our what?

Children: (All echoed) Our money

Teacher: We must respect our national anthem. Alright? (showed the children pictures from the text book and asked...) What is this?

Children: (All echoed) coat of arms, money

On the teacher's delivery strategy, it was observed that the teacher was reading the lesson from a text book which only he/she had access to. The topic at hand (Showing respect for e.g., The Nigerian national flag, coat of arms, currency, etc) was one that could have included hands on activities but it appeared that the teacher was probably unaware of a more practical method of teaching the topic, or preferred to read straight from the text book and use questioning method throughout the lesson as shown above and below.

Teacher: Showing respect for for an elderly person. What should you do when you see an elderly person carrying load?

Children: You collect it.

Teacher: What do you say to your parents when you wake up?

Children: You say 'good morning'

Teacher: How do you show respect to the teacher?

Child 1: By keeping quiet

Teacher: How do we respect our national flag, by what?

Child 2: By saluting the national flag and not tearing it

Teacher: We respect our national currency by not squeezing it or writing on it. How do we respect our national anthem?

Child 3: By saying it

Teacher: How? By sitting down? We stand for our national anthem and national pledge. Any question?

## Chapter 4

The above draws attention to the teacher's general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, this is because teacher quality and teaching quality determine to large extent, student achievement (Geo, 2007). Therefore, the instructional process is critical in enhancing student learning which will potentially lead to realising the anticipated outcomes through the evaluation method the teacher uses. Failure to achieve the learning outcomes is an indication that learning did not take place as observed in this lesson. Although, the children showed enthusiasm and engagement at the start of the lesson by constantly putting up their hands to answer questions posed by the teacher, they began to loose interest, probably due to the teacher reading the lesson from a text book and not making it more interactive. At the end of the lesson, the children were unable to recount fully the high points of the lesson. The teacher had to repeat all that she/he said from the start of the lesson. She/he asked the children to repeat after her/him the meaning of respect and continued recalling the various ways to show respect, adding, how to show respect for the community. The children eventually stopped responding as it appeared that they had gotten tired of the repetitive nature of the lesson.

The observation revealed similarities with the responses of the CMs, CTs, and PBs about the need for trained teachers, teaching and learning resources, infrastructure to create an enabling environment. The observation was an opportunity for the researcher to see and assess the different areas mentioned above that were the focus of the observation (observation schedule). The reality on ground as observed confirmed the researcher's initial impression which was derived from responses from the interviews held. The initial impression of the researcher as informed by interviews held with participants, which was confirmed by the observation made, was the poor state of UBE provision in the camp and the barriers that continue to ravage UBE for IDPs.

The teaching/classroom environment was not enabling as two classes shared the same learning area without any demarcations thereby, causing distractions. Some children were observed looking at the other group (class), being distracted by their activities. Children had to share chairs, the chairs in the class were different types, some children were sitting on high chairs, some on benches and others on plastic chairs. There were with no tables, a small whiteboard for the teacher, not enough classrooms/learning spaces, the building is incomplete with cracked walls and no ceiling. As stated earlier, right beside this class was another class without any form of demacation so, the two classes could hear each other which was distracting.

It was also observed that there is an acute lack of basic teaching and learning resources. The children did not have books, both text books and note/work books, only the teacher had access to the text book and was reading from. Overall, the classroom observation, further confirmed the

statements of the stakeholders interviewed. It showed that the entire teaching/learning space, the children's looks, the teaching method, what they were wearing, shoes that some of them did not have on, and the lack of learning materials e.g., books, pens, pencils, etc. for each child was indicative of the state of UBE provision in the camp and the children's wellbeing.

In terms of the teacher's relationship with the children, the children seemed to be relaxed with the teacher and generally well behaved. This was evident in the way the children were quick and happy to respond to the teachers questions. The class size was one teacher to sixteen children. This shows that the camp children are interested to learn even in their harsh condition.

Worthy of note however, is that this teacher was the one who spoke about showing children love and also the one without the teaching qualification and prior experience. The observation lasted 45 minutes, the duration of a typical lesson. The data gathered from the observation shows the poor or almost non-existent state of UBE in the camp which is fueled by heightened hardship, as well as the need for adequately trained teachers.

### **4.3 Research Question 2**

***RQ2 - How is quality Universal Basic Education (UBE) perceived in an IDP context? The perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in IDP camps.***

Having presented the responses of the stakeholders about UBE accessibility, the extent of its provision and setbacks to quality provision for IDPs, this section focuses on what these stakeholders perceive to be quality UBE provision in an IDP context. Responses to RQ2 were solicited from PMs, PPs and PBs. One theme emerged from the coding in this section, 'quality perceptions.' Therefore, the discussion in this section was drawn from varying insights participants shared on their perceptions of quality UBE in an IDP context and these presented under the theme's subheading, 'quality perception'. This theme is significant because 'quality' is one of the main threads that run through this research and the quality perceptions of these stakeholders will to a large extent determine their input or aspirations towards improvement where necessary.

### **4.3.1 Emerging Theme 5 - Quality Perceptions**

#### **4.3.1.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 5**

The PMs expressed their perception of quality UBE in an IDP context as,

*“First of all, that has to be enshrined in the curriculum, when it is enshrined in the curriculum, then it will be that if a camp emerges, then we need to have the teachers, trained teachers specifically for situations like that, have the resources to prepare for this people... the environment should be provided... have the teachers that are trained specifically to handle such kids... the materials to teach the learners... Government should ensure that education in emergency is established and enforced so that we can have teachers that are trained... the stakeholders in education should make sure the constitution involves this... we need to plan...”*

(PM1)

*“..... it is the same policy, it is the same curriculum, we will not go out of the curriculum. It is the implementation now that it probably will be different. Maybe in that school curriculum we need to include aspects specifically in handling children in IDP...”* (PM2)

Whilst PM1 perceives quality UBE provision in an IDP context as the presence of various components such as curriculum, availability of teachers who are trained specifically to handle IDPs, availability of learning resources, enabling environment and government intervention, PM2 views quality UBE in an IDP context as an implementation of the curriculum. He/she admits the need to include aspects that address IDP needs in the curriculum but did not define what those aspects are. This shows the potential challenge the individual interests can pose on policy formulation and its implementation.

#### **4.3.1.2 Views of Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 5 - Quality Perceptions**

The policy practitioners in this context, as stated earlier refer to CMs, CTs and NSTs. These are stakeholders who have the responsibility of translating the UBE policy from theory into practical terms to ensure learning takes place. Due to the role, they play in the education process/system, it was imperative to seek their perceptions about quality UBE provision especially as it relates to IDPs. It is assumed that as stakeholders operating at the grassroots level, they will better understand the need for quality provision and the factors that enhance quality provision.

#### 4.3.1.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CMs) on Theme 5

In sharing what they perceive quality UBE provision to be in an IDP context, the three CMs stated that quality UBE begins with the availability of good nutrition for the children as learning cannot happen on a hungry stomach.

***“... we lack food and food has become very expensive in the market. A lot of people go for up to 2 days without eating for lack of food and so, schooling issue does not exist at all...”*** (CM2)

***“...There are things that prevent the child prevent the children from learning, children must have breakfast before they can focus on classwork...”*** (CM3)

CM1 and CM3 further expressed their views about quality UBE provision for IDPs as,

***“...For us to provide quality education, we need to ensure that the facilities are not what they are and so they need good facilities, they need good beddings, they need good food, the hostels need to be spacious enough... instructors from their background who bring them up to date to the curriculum we are using while we get them integrated into the system properly ... our children lack access to national examination ...”*** (CM1)

***“... the way we know it is that the children should be 45 in a class...”*** (CM3)

The CMs shared similar views about what quality education in an IDP context should be. They generally highlighted the need for (food) good facilities, resources, and teachers. CM1 focused also on the need to have teachers from the children’s background to help the children understand the curriculum to make it easier for their transition into a proper class setting. This is because of their inability to understand English language. He/she further pointed at having access to national examination as a factor that promotes quality provision. CM3 on the other hand also perceives quality education as having a smaller class size of 45 children rather than a class having 100 children as is the case in their camp. Pupil/Teacher ratio has continued to remain significant in the teaching and learning effectiveness.

#### 4.3.1.2.2 Views of Camp Teachers (CTs) on Theme 5

Camp teachers (CTs) shared similar views with the CMs about their perceptions of quality UBE provision in an IDP context. The CTs also perceive quality education as the availability of facilities, resources, and good nutrition. However, they included other aspects that define quality provision.

***“... adequate number of staff... in my context, IDP contexts, quality in my context would be that I am able to help children read and write and that they are able to take the exams with other children and pass to a certain level...”*** (CT1)

***“...quality education should look like, giving the children the right education, to follow the curriculum you teach them the way it supposed to be...” (CT2)***

***“...well, for me to have the basic quality education in our setting will be that the children have access to at least a standard classroom... a well painted class where the colours are inviting, the chairs are comfortable, and they have the necessary materials for their level and importantly for me, they need a playground..... for learning to be very effective the environment has to be children friendly...” (CT3)***

The CTs focused more on the intangible aspects of education as factors that indicate quality basic education. For CT1 and CT2 quality UBE provision is also having adequate number of teachers and the effective delivery of the curriculum content and its outcomes. CT3 perceives quality education for IDPs as one that has standard classrooms, he/she focuses on the ambience of the classrooms alluding to the fact that a child friendly environment facilitates effective learning. It is not surprising however, that CT3 stresses the need for a playground for the children considering her/his background in psychology.

#### **4.3.1.2.3 Views of Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) on Theme 5**

Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) perceive quality education as,

***“...Quality education for each child depends on the way you are seeing it; depends on the way the other person is seeing it. So, quality education means that the children should gain that education that covers all the aspects on each child, should be attended to individually so that they get what you want to inculcate in them, not only teaching and learning but with moral behaviour. Since education covers all that, so that it will be quality one...” (NST1)***

***“...the learning materials have to be there, they have to have enough conducive class for children to learn, because if they don't have enough chairs as we are talking about, the learning will not be effective...” (NST2)***

For NST1, quality provision can be viewed differently based on individual perceptions. However, he/she narrows down this view by defining quality provision as education that covers all aspects. NST2 focuses on the operational factors needed in the classroom.

### 4.3.1.3 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 5

Although the IDPs could not all express their perception about UBE effectiveness in their context, the children in C1B discussing the pictures of typical classroom settings displayed by the researcher, communicated their views from the pictures as shown below. The first question below, was asked by the researcher after a child shared that the children in a particular picture looked sad.

*“What makes people sad in a class?”* (Researcher)

*“Because they don't get good education... like the teacher is not coming always”* (CH4)

*“Because the teacher is not giving them good education, by not teaching them the right thing that is supposed to teach them”* (CH5)

*“Why I said I do not want to go to school is because I always learn from nature and some of the things in school before I know how to do them but when I came to this school, I used to draw but I don't have access to it now. I don't know how to draw anymore”* (CH2)

For the IDPs, quality UBE provision in their context means teacher availability, curriculum content and the teacher's pedagogical content knowledge. From CH2's quote, it shows that the child perceives quality UBE as being given the opportunity for exploration, self-expression and creativity and not being boxed in the classroom.

### 4.3.1.4 Brief Summary

In this section, the PMs and PPs shared commonality in their quality perceptions in terms of availability of adequate and qualified teachers, resources, child friendly spaces, good nutrition, and facilities. Their quality perceptions also differed in other areas; the PMs believe that quality provision for IDPs should begin from teacher training curriculum by including and enforcing 'education in emergencies' so that teachers receive specialised training, while the PPs stressed the need for IDPs to have access to national examination. It was deduced from the PBs views on the pictures shown that teacher availability and knowledge of the content show quality.

## 4.4 Research Question 3

***RQ3 - What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs?***

Improvement is a strand under the thread 'quality' that runs through this research, this explains why this section is very crucial. Although RQ3 focuses on improvement mechanisms available for teachers, the stakeholders also suggested other areas requiring improvement as they see those areas as enhancers of education/learning effectiveness. Responses to RQ3 were solicited from PMs, PPs and PBs. 'Improvement required' was a theme that emerged in this section, stakeholders approached this in both similar and contrasting ways, as shown below. The findings in this section will be presented under the theme's subheading, 'improvement required'.

#### **4.4.1 Emerging Theme 6 - Improvement Required**

##### **4.4.1.1 Views of Policy Makers (PMs) on Theme 6**

The PMs pointed out areas that when improved will enhance quality UBE provision for IDPs. These are mechanisms that will provide support for teachers who are the ones who give legs to the policy/curriculum statements.

*"..... courses like there should be the psychological aspect of life... plan to have programmes such as skills too, other skills acquisitions to be involved apart from the normal curriculum..."*

*"... Yes, there's a plan for it to be inculcated in the education programme at all levels of training, N.C.E and above' ... Giving it a time frame, should be from 5 years..."*

*"... you know change of environment affects one's life... they should be given a good conducive learning environment... the hygienic level is not there; the social amenities are not there..."*

(PM1)

*"...It's the value system, everything should arise and be driven by the value system... what is right and what is wrong... These are the things that outside academics, we should teach the children... .. Physiological needs, they also need moral training ... before any child begins to learn, you must provide for the needs of the child especially in the IDP. In the IDP there's acute want of physical needs ... There's a need for government to provide. ..." (PM2)*

*"... they must be given medical treatment medical attention. When all these things are well taken care of then you can now introduce academics." (PM2)*

The quotes above show that the PMs view improvement in IDP UBE provision as solely a function of the teachers' input. They point out the need for specific training for the teachers tailored towards IDP education. The PMs also acknowledge the need to cater for the IDPs' wellbeing such as their

psychological, physiological needs as well as giving them good morals. However, an aspect that requires improvement as mentioned above, is the provision of a conducive learning environment, social amenities and medical treatment which is within the boundaries of PMs roles. Although, these suggestions will enhance for an ideal IDP education situation, it is hard to catch a glimpse of any light at the end of the tunnel. This is because they PMs have admitted that there is not a plan anywhere for the future of IDP education.

#### **4.4.1.2 Views of Policy Practitioners (PPs) on Theme 6 – Improvement Required**

As stated above, PPs comprise of CMs, CTs and NSTs. The PPs all alluded to the need for improvement in the UBE provision of the children in their custody. The focus in RQ3 is on improvement mechanisms available to support teachers to provide quality UBE for IDPs. This is because teachers are the ones who are saddled with the critical task of translating theory (policy) into practice. Any education system will rise or fall based on the quality of its teachers and their input and this research focuses on education effectiveness from the perspective of teacher effectiveness/quality.

##### **4.4.1.2.1 Views of Camp Managers (CMs) on Theme 6**

The CMs, in response to mechanisms that will foster improvement expressed the following,

***“...there’s need for trauma healing and ongoing counselling... When children come into IDP camps, their education ought to be the burden of the host government...The State government must be made to integrate IDP education into the State education policy and provide for these learning centres, they should provide the materials and things that are needed learning ...”*** (CM1)

***“The children require uniforms, shoes... The resources required for nursery education which is different from primary to be provided. Textbooks to be provided for primary 1 to 6. Let there be teachers in every class...”*** (CM3)

From the CMs’ quotes above, trauma healing and continuous counselling, availability of resources and teachers are factors that will enhance teacher effectiveness. However, CM1’s quote indicates that IDP education is not enshrined in the education policy. This connects with earlier quotes from CMs, where they mentioned how both private and government schools reject IDPs due to a lack of funding allocation for them which was the reason why CM1 was compelled to provide some of education in their camp. In the camp of CM2, this situation has led to a complete loss of education for the children. Therefore, host governments, taking responsibility for IDP education will be the first step towards improvement as teachers can teach only within an existing system.

#### 4.4.1.2.2 Views of Camp Teachers (CTs) on Theme 6

The quotes below show the factors CTs perceive will improve their effectiveness in the teaching and learning process.

***“...I think the training to be able to handle children who are traumatised is important... providing outlets for children, sporting activities... also other extracurricular activities like dance and even music.... the government to come in somehow especially if the government will provide pay for staff, then I'm sure we will be able to have adequate teachers to teach the children... food... we're going through a crisis we don't have enough but we have to take care of 200 children depending on donations from individuals...”*** (CT1)

***“... the children need textbooks... we need that and the teaching aids we need that at least it would improve the education...”*** (CT2)

***“... it will be nice if like, test, psychological test tools are made available... they need somewhere you know when we were talking about some therapy that children need to do role play, in order to express themselves properly...our children are at a very big disadvantage because if they don't have the right teachers or the right books and enough education that they need in order for them to write SSCE and JSCE and common entrance and sit for those exams with the children...”*** (CT3)

The quotes above present the needs that the CTs have that if addressed, they believe will bring about improvement in education provision for the IDPs in the camp. Although, they have higher education degree qualifications as shown in the table above, they expressed the need for specific training on handling traumatised children. This indicates that the teachers are aware that they need more than a normal teaching certificate to teach these children, they require the necessary expertise to be able to deal with the children's mental health issues. The CT1's suggestion about government intervention in providing staff remuneration ties in with CT3's view about the need to have the right teachers, books, and enough learning time to enable the children to sit for the national examinations. Lack of staff welfare package as implied is one of the causes of education ineffectiveness as it leads to a dearth of teachers. Shortage of teachers means more work for those available, this can potentially lead to burnout and demotivation. The teachers also raised the need for extracurricular activities which can serve as outlets for the children.

#### 4.4.1.2.3 Views of Neighbouring School Teachers (NSTs) on Theme 6

The quotes below are views from government schoolteachers at a neighbouring school that accommodates both mainstream children and displaced children. These are teachers who have acquired the normal teacher training certifications as well as years of experience. The NSTs shared their perceptions about mechanisms that will improve their effectiveness as follows,

***“In my own school if I want to measure the area even if till tomorrow it will not finish because we have a lot... dilapidated building... the furniture... children are sitting on the floor in the heart of Abuja... buildings to be renovated... we need chairs for the children... these parents don't have anything especially the IDPs... uniform... books are not there for the learners especially for the IDPs...”*** (NST1)

***“...The area we would like or will need improvements, we need more chairs so that the children can sit comfortably and these IDP children they need chairs, writing materials like textbooks and exercise books and we like to I have more teachers...”*** (NST2)

The NSTs like their counterparts in the camp, share similar concerns, although, they are supposedly run by the government under the UBE policy which claims to provide ‘universal’ and ‘free’ education, the NSTs expressed the appalling state of the school. The statement “these IDP children, they need chairs” implies that the school children are responsible for providing their own chairs. These conditions listed in their quotes will naturally make teaching a mammoth task for any teacher. However, it is interesting to compare this with their earlier claim of providing quality education.

#### 4.4.1.3 Views of Policy Beneficiaries (PBs) on Theme 6

The children who are meant to be beneficiaries of this policy shared areas they feel would make their learning more effective from their current experience of the policy. This was to offer suggestions on areas they feel require improvement in their education/school. Their responses were motivated through a story I read to them titled, ‘The fish who could wish’. This opened them up to make the following suggestions.

***“I wish to see the governor in in our school, to bring things like clothes, Vaseline, soap, books, pencils, colour, colouring”*** (C1A/CH3)

***“Let them paint the classrooms and let them draw and colour the class and make the class look beautiful”*** (C1A/CHN)

*“I wish to see teachers in all the classes and my school materials.”* (C1B/CH2)

*“I wish my teacher will come back”* (C1B/CH5),

*“I wish that there will be food in the school.”* (C1B/CH4)

*“I want us to change school because of the river I do not like the river that we have to cross. And when we come late to school we are flogged.”* (C2A/CH1)

*“I wish that I had teacher for my dance and my DJ.”* (C1B/CH4),

*“I wish that I had a ball to play with”* (C1B/CH3)

From the above quotes, it is evident that the children have a fair idea of what effective education should be. They are aware of the barriers that are impeding their access to quality education and expressed similar areas as the ones mentioned by CTs and NSTs. A striking remark, however, was from CH3 (C1A) whose wish was to see the Governor in their camp school. This child understands that the Governor is the highest authority in the State and has the capacity to bring their wishes. The children’s main concern included the need for teachers, resources, food, and extracurricular activities which CT1 mentioned. However, all the children in C2A FG interview pleaded for a change of school due to harsh conditions of commuting as well as corporal punishment inflicted on them for a fault not theirs. This is a potentially risky situation as it can do more harm to the children’s mental state as it appears to already have.

#### **4.4.1.4 Brief Summary**

All the stakeholders acknowledged that improvement is required to achieve an effective UBE for IDPs. Some of the suggestions were similar across board, like the provision of teachers, resources, infrastructure, and good nutrition. The PMs, CMs and CTs pointed out the need to address the children’s psychological and physiological needs and the need for government intervention. PMs and CTs share commonality in their view that teachers require specialised training to teach in an IDP context. CTs differed by further adding the need for teacher remuneration and suggested extracurricular activities for the children to deal with trauma and facilitate learning. The PBs on their part shared their views through the wishes they made. Detailed discussion follows in the next chapter.

## 4.5 Summary

This chapter presented the findings and brief analysis from the qualitative data collected during the fieldwork. Data was elicited from stakeholders within the context of IDP education and they were, policy makers (PMs), policy practitioners (PPs) who comprised of camp managers (CMs), camp teachers (CTs) and neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs), and policy beneficiaries (PBs) who constituted the displaced children. Worthy of note however, is that the camp 2 (C2) where children were interviewed was separate from the CMs in this research. The children in C2 belong to one of two camps in Northcentral involved in the research. Due to lack of school in their camp, they attend a neighbouring school. CM2 does not have a school running in the camp while CM3 denied access to the school in their camp (See section 3.5). These voices were chosen because of the relevance of their experiences to the focus area of this study. The findings were presented according to the RQs, with subheadings of the themes that emerged under each RQ. The responses of the participants were organised according to their groups to address each RQ through the themes that emerged. The RQs, however, are based on the two main threads that run through this research, 'policy and quality.'

The next chapter is an in-depth discussion of the findings and inferences drawn from the evidence gathered from the participants, relating this to literature reviewed.



## Chapter 5 Discussion

### 5.1 Introduction

As stated in previous chapters, this research was a single case study that focused on IDPs residing in IDP camps in Nigeria and the enactment of the UBE policy in that context, to investigate its accessibility and quality provision therefore, making the UBE policy the unit of analysis. Please see section 3.2.2 for comprehensive discussion on my single case and unit of analysis. The purpose of this section, therefore, is to discuss the findings presented in the previous chapter and relate this to the literature reviewed in chapter two. The discussions follow the two main threads in this study and are addressed under the RQs following the themes that emerged.

This section discusses the insights and deductions drawn from the results. It seeks a convergence of the contrasting types of results and detailed explanation offered by the qualitative results. The section will begin with in-depth discussion on the main threads and strands that run through my thesis. This will be discussed according to the RQs posed for the research as the RQs were designed to capture the threads. The first thread is 'policy', which has 'IDP education policy' and the UBE policy' as strands therefore, RQ1 emerged to enable investigation into the policy and practice of IDP education, assessing implementation regarding educational accessibility for IDPs. The second thread is 'quality', with the following strands, effectiveness, and improvement. RQ2 provides responses that address effectiveness while RQ3 addresses improvement. A summation of RQ2 and RQ3 however, provides an in-depth insight into the educational quality thread.

### 5.2 RQ1: To what extent is the provision of basic education available for IDP children? – (Policy thread)

RQ1 was aimed at soliciting responses that will bring to light the accessibility and actual practice of the UBE policy/Nigerian policy for displaced children. Therefore, this section drew responses from the PMs, PPs and PBs to form the basis for discussion that shone the light on the policy and practice of the UBE. This section starts with a recall of the policy statements on IDP basic education.

#### 5.2.1 Extent of UBE Policy Implementation – Accessibility/Success Rate

Drawing from literature, the Nigerian National Policy on Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) (embraced from the UN Guiding Principles), section 2.4/2.4.1a Policy guiding principles, states

that *“the government of Nigeria, while protecting its sovereignty, will ensure that the rights, needs, and legitimate interests of IDPs would be given primary considerations”*. Further to this, section 3.1.4 (p30) on the rights of internally displaced children, declares that the *“children shall be entitled to the full enjoyment of their rights under the Nigerian Constitution, statutes, and domesticated sub regional, regional, and international human rights and humanitarian instruments.”* The above policy statements suggest that the government has taken full responsibility for ensuring that the needs and interests of IDPs are given utmost significance and consideration. It adds that *“internally displaced children shall in particular, enjoy their rights under the Child Rights Act and similar laws enacted at the State and local government levels”*. This statement is particularly significant because it portrays the government’s policy proclamation as reaching every stratum of the nation. A look at the Nigerian Child Rights Act also reveals that the policy is aimed at the best interest of the child as the primary consideration of the government. It further adds that *“every child has a right to free, compulsory, and universal primary education which is the duty of the Nigerian government to provide”* (Child Rights Act Nigeria, 2003/UBE Policy). Enshrined also in the UBE policy, is stated, *“the government shall provide free and compulsory universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school-going age; cater for formal needs of young persons who, for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their schooling through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education.”* The Nigerian Policy on IDPs further reiterates the need for UBE provision by ensuring that children whose education has been disrupted through displacement, are to be relocated to neighbouring schools while permanent school structures and facilities are arranged. The policy also highlights education for IDPs as an essential need amongst others such as, food, water, shelter, security, physical and psychological well-being, assistance in restoring family links, healthcare, economic and social rehabilitation. This proclamation concurs with Ferris and Winthrop’s (2011) assertion that availability of education depends on government policies, either by host governments in the case of refugees or national governments in the case of IDPs. These policy proclamations are applaudable in theory however, data gathered from the education stakeholders reveals a variance between policy statements and the reality on ground. This could be explained from the perspective of Hogwood and Gunn’s (1984) assertion that this variance could be a case of non-implementation of policy or an unsuccessful implementation which the discussions below unravel.

One of the main findings was the divergence in responses of PMs from the responses of the other stakeholders when describing the success rate of the UBE policy. They PMs started by carefully stressing their role to include, planning, policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring to ensure their plans are implemented. They rated the success of UBE at 95%, basing this on their

achievement of constructions, renovations of classrooms and other buildings within the children's proximity. Whilst this achievement is commendable, there was no mention about the actual teaching and learning process. Their claim has however, been contradicted by varying literature sources. Although Ogbiji's (2016) research revealed that the UBE programme has achieved moderate progress in its freeness, stimulation of educational consciousness and impartation of skills, other scholars have argued this. Results from Oyadiran's (2014) research, revealed that, the quality of the UBE and inputs in the Nigeria's FCT is deficient largely due to its chaotic implementation design. Oyadiran (2014) adds that implementation of the policy can be effective only when factors such as quality, class size, quantity of facilities and equipment are appropriate which are current challenges of UBE. This statement agrees with Hogwood and Gunn (1984) who maintain that the presence of constraints such as all the required resources and inability to provide these resources in the appropriate combination will naturally impede policy implementation. This finding, however, is a contrast of the PMs claim about monitoring the implementation of the policy to ensure proper implementation.

The PPs (CMs, CTs and NSTs) who are the ones at the grassroot level, saddled with the responsibility of enacting the policy, shared their experiences about the success rate of the UBE in various ways which agreed with literature but contradicted the rating of the PMs. CM1 and CM2 who run non-government camps revealed that government does not support them even though they are aware of their existence. CM3, whose camp is a government camp revealed that they received government support only in the first three years of the camp's existence which was from 2014. This goes to prove government's abandonment of IDPs, and their education as further supported by Olanrewaju et al. (2019) who described government's attitude as a deliberate neglect of their duties to IDPs. Onapajo (2020) buttresses this assertion by adding that the government fails to give displaced children the required regard thereby, making them appear insignificant, while Ibeanu (1999) maintains that government has the habit of downplaying the gravity of IDP plight and even when they reluctantly acknowledge it, they ascribe small numbers, pretend to provide emergency relief, and immediately profess the successful relocation of the IDPs. Aside from a lack of government's presence which is a factor impeding policy implementation, CM3 lamented about the class size which is almost 100 children to a teacher due to shortage of teachers. On the part of the CTs who belong in the camp (C1) that was compelled to provide education (because of rejection of IDPs by neighbouring schools), they described their teachers' qualifications as deficient. The NSTs who are teachers in a government primary school where IDPs attend, shared similar concerns with the other PPs. The headteacher, who was one of the two teachers interviewed asserted that "*government is not ready to buy books for any child*", revealing that parents who want their children to attend school are forced to buy books for them

because the government only provided the building which is now dilapidated and has failed to provide anything else.

Issues of accessibility were further highlighted by CM1 and CM2 who stated that both government and private schools refused to absorb the IDPs on the grounds that there was no budget allocated for that. Some schools that agreed to absorb the IDPs requested for huge sums of money which is equivalent to five months minimum wage in Nigeria, before admitting the children. Due to this reason, CM1 was compelled to start offering some form of education to the IDPs, which he/she described as, *"... What we give them as education is not what I would call education... what we are running and calling school will not necessarily pass for a proper school ... I will say it's just a makeshift something in the absence of nothing..."*. This was assumed to be possible being that CM1 is an educated person (First degree holder). However, the refusal to absorb the IDPs in camp 2 has led to a lack of education provision for the children in CM2's camp for two years now.

The above shows the level of marginalisation, lack of educational equality and equitability that IDPs face. The IDPs have been forced to flee their homes, losing practically everything, and placing such a burden on these victims of such an unfortunate situation is to act oblivious and insensitive to their predicament. This is an indication of the variance that exists between policy proclamations and its practicality. Aside from the promise of the UBE policy to provide free, universal education and to cater for the educational needs of these children whose education has been brutally interrupted, the government shows awareness that schools are usually destroyed during insurgencies as such declares, *"in order for internally displaced children to return to school while in camp, the Education Sector Lead agency under the sectoral approach established by this National Policy shall liaise with relevant agencies within the locality to assist in relocating the children to neighbouring schools that are ascertained to be safe. This shall not preclude the building of new schools in the place of relocation"* (National Policy on IDPs in Nigeria, 2012). The policy statements show the attempts the government has made in theory to ensure the smooth transition from displacement to relocation into neighbouring schools while new school buildings are being built. Despite being aware, the existing education system appears to also constitute an impediment to accessibility of education for IDPs by refusing to admit the displaced children into mainstream schools, this unfortunately, has led to a total loss of education for a large number of children.

Despite the challenges highlighted, almost all the PBs (all children, with exception of 2 children) expressed a strong desire for education by sharing their aspirations for the future which they claimed can only become possible by going to school. This is very critical and a key element in the learning process. However, CT1 held a different perspective about the children's disposition which

he/she describes as having a negative impact on the children's learning. CT1 asserts that the children lack the resilience required to engage in and allow for quality learning to take place. This assertion buttresses one of the findings from Bokko's (2019) research which revealed that children lack the keenness for schooling due to the mindset instilled in them by insurgents that western education is prohibited as well as the fear that the attacks will carry on.

### **5.2.2 Extent of UBE Policy Implementation - Setback of UBE Practice**

All the stakeholders interviewed described the extent of UBE implementation through the challenges encountered. When asked about UBE provision for displaced children living in camps, the PMs admitted that there is no plan or budget for it. In describing their effort to provide UBE in the IDP camps, the PMs revealed a stopgap plan that the Commission (SUBEB) embarked on by setting up a committee in 2018 that visited all the 17 local government areas (these were all the LGAs in the State) that were affected in X State and provided 126 qualified volunteer teachers to teach in the camps, guidance counsellors to offer trauma therapy to the children as well as, providing instructional materials, and everything necessary to assist in the teaching and learning process. However, the PMs admitted that this intervention was merely an assistance to enable some learning as such, the quality of provision for the IDPs in terms of teaching and learning was not the main goal due to constraints experienced. Challenges that militated against the effective provision of basic education for the IDPs as they described, included lack of schools in the affected areas, the PMs revealed that up until the point of fieldwork for this project, 61 schools were still closed. Another challenge they highlighted was the appalling state of the camps which did not make for a conducive learning environment.

Although CM1 and the CTs have made the commendable effort to set up intervention classes to support the learning challenges of the children in their camp, they face issues of lack of resources. Due to their living on donations, some of the books donated are not the required curriculum books and where books are available, only the teacher has access to textbooks but writes it on the board for the children to copy; the children end up copying entire textbooks. This obviously will impact on the actual teaching and learning time thereby, robbing the children of sufficient curriculum time. However, CM1 and the CTs all acknowledge that the intervention classes have yielded results as observed in the children's progress by being able to sit for and pass some of the national examinations. This is a noble effort on the part of the camp and an indication that there can be light at the end of the tunnel if the necessary machineries are put in place. This is because learning

outcomes are indicators of success of an academic programme serving as a guide to both the teachers and students about the path to be followed to achieve their goals (Mahajan and Singh, 2017).

The NSTs also shared how IDPs are left behind in class due to a lack of resources and the school having to go to the extent of seeking help from NGOs to provide for some of their educational needs. Their claim was however, debunked by the IDP children who disclosed during their focus group interview, that the school authority does not give them items donated towards their education, stating that these items are given only to other children who are not IDPs. This again presents another level of marginalisation as Messiou (2012) describes, 'the children are aware that they are being marginalised.' Despite government's proclamation of providing 'free' education and ensuring that children enjoy their rights, these IDPs are faced with the frustration of attending school without the necessary resources other children in the same class with them have access to. It becomes necessary to probe into the criteria used to share resources in the school such that other children have access to these resources but IDPs do not. This boils down again to the assertion of Hansen (2016) who states that teacher-pupil relationship is informed by the teachers' perceptions about the child/ren. Meaning that, the teachers might be displaying such disparity because they ascribe more significance to the other children compared to the IDPs.

The children revealed that due to lack and absence of teachers, they teach themselves the various subjects. They disclosed that the teachers' absence was due to pursuit of personal gains. Whilst peer learning is a significant part of the learning process, it is not the responsibility of children to teach each other especially because they are the recipients of the curriculum. This approach naturally will have pitfalls as there is no way of assessing what the children teach each other. Teacher absences here also recalls Hansen's (2016) view about teacher-pupil relationship. The teachers who do not attend classes for personal reasons, as indicated above, clearly show their attitude towards the children. This can be seen as further taking advantage of their vulnerability as the group that does not have a voice, therefore, cannot insist on having their rights. On the other hand however, the teachers cannot be blamed completely since they live on little or no remuneration. They are faced with no option than to aim for greener pastures to cater for their personal needs. From the interviews conducted with all the CTs, they all revealed their plans to move on to achieve their dreams soon. Whatever the case, this situation raises concerns about teacher transience in the camps and the impact it has on the IDPs. For some children, it can pose as a second level of trauma if an orphaned child was already looking up to the teacher as a parent or the important adult in their life. Matowitz (2019) and Ronfeldt et al. (2013) concur by alluding that teacher turnover and transience is harmful to children because it brings instability which poses as a barrier to successful quality improvement efforts. Middleton and Potter (2015) argue teacher

transience, they state that, being a teacher in an IDP or refugee context can bring serious impact on teachers' emotional wellbeing and ability to effectively perform their role, this invariably has a ripple effect on the quality of teaching as well as, a contributing factor to issues of burnout and turnover. This emotional distress comes from teachers having to witness some extreme forms of trauma within a stressful and usually an environment filled with uncertainties. Bassok et al. (2021) drawing from their quantitative research, therefore, suggest the need to understand the extent, root source, and effects of turnover/transience as this will determine the quality of provision in a learning setting.

The few children who had contrasting feelings about school attendance appeared uninterested about schooling from the experiences they shared when probed, *"I don't have to go to school because some of the teachers are wicked, I don't really like school because our teacher just gives us notes to copy all the whole textbooks and he doesn't explain, and he has explained only one subject up till today and that is basic science, and he has not explained all the other subjects."* (C1B/CH2)

*"I don't think I must go to school... because it can be your choice to choose to go to school or not... I want to go back home"* (C1B/CH5)

The above quotes indicate the presence of underlying issues that bother the children. From the first quote, the following issues can be deduced which include, a lack of teacher-pupil relationship, teaching pedagogy and possibly also a lack of content knowledge. The first quote shows that the children have a sense of what good teaching should be. Teacher-pupil relationship is very important and a necessary ingredient in facilitating quality teaching and learning process. It sets the tone in the classroom and creates the environment that encourages children to be confident. According to Quaglia et al. (2013), teacher-pupil relationship is viewed as a critical component which is pertinent for the child's emotive and cognitive development. This interaction, they view as necessary in the development function and in enhancing the child's integration into school life. Hansen (2016) drawing from literature, describes teacher-pupil relationship as the teacher's perception about the pupils which potentially determines how the teacher interacts with the pupils, how they teach them and how they measure their ability and behaviour. Based on this view, it could be assumed that the 'wicked' teachers' negative perceptions about the IDPs is what has led to their harsh and unprofessional interaction towards the children. Good teaching practices potentially lead to improved quality of teaching as this makes the children receptive thereby, fostering a deeper and more meaningful understanding. According to Vygotsky, learning should be a collaborative process where teachers and students work together to achieve the best outcome. The significance of teacher-pupil relationship cannot be overemphasized since the teacher is the next most important

and influential adult in the life of the children after their parents. It is especially critical in the case of internally displaced children who have lost in some instances, both parents.

The findings from the observation further confirmed the assertions of the PPs and PBs. The observation which was aimed at assessing the extent and quality of the UBE practice provided an eye-witness evidence of the happenings in a typical IDP classroom. Just like the CMs, CTs and PBs stated, it was clear during the observation that the displaced children are enthusiastic about learning. The teacher also appeared keen to teach and this was reflected in the teacher-pupil relationship observed. However, the setbacks that were recounted by all the stakeholders were clearly seen which include, need for qualified teachers who have the pedagogical content knowledge and expertise for IDP teaching, there is an acute lack of resources and infrastructures. Although the class size was within the stipulated ratio as prescribed by the policy, children were seen sharing seats (2 children to a seat), with no tables. The environment was far from being enabling for learning as the building was uncompleted and dilapidated. Although the teacher showed keenness during the lesson, the mechanisms required to enhance teaching effectiveness were visibly unavailable such as, the teacher's little board was broken, only the teacher had access to the textbook, resources the children required was not available. This situation has the capacity to demotivate, frustrate, and dampen a teacher's morale. It is, therefore, difficult for an unhappy teacher to communicate hope, care, or encouragement to pupils in teacher-pupil relationship.

Other impediments to effective UBE practice as revealed by CMs, CTs, NSTs and PBs include the need for good nutrition for the IDPs, stating that learning cannot happen when the children have hungry stomachs. They lamented about the acute hunger in the camps and how children go for up to 2 days in some instances without eating because of lack of food, the children also echoed this. Literature shows that good nutrition has an impact on learning just as the CMs have highlighted. The significance of wellbeing for children cannot be overemphasised. Wellbeing is viewed as a condition of health, peace, comfort, and happiness. Good nutrition, however, is a key factor in achieving wellbeing, this is because it benefits the body as well as mental health, improving the sense of wellbeing. Recent studies have demonstrated that nutrition affects students' thinking skills, behaviour, and health, all factors that impact academic performance. Access to nutrition improves students' cognitive, concentration and energy levels. Nutrition also indirectly impacts school performance. Research has also established a link between nutrition and behaviour. Studies have found that access to nutrition, particularly breakfast, can enhance a student's psychosocial well-being, reduce aggression, and school suspensions, and decrease discipline problems (Brown et al., 2008). This agrees with CM3's assertion about the importance of children having breakfast to help them focus on their classwork. In contrast, nutritional deficiencies early

in life can affect cognitive development of school aged children (Sorhaindo and Feinstein, 2006). IDP trauma was a factor that came up frequently amongst the PMs and PPs, stressing the need for mental wellbeing for the children due to high levels of traumatic experiences they encountered during the terrorist attacks that preceded their displacement. This, they consider a prerequisite for effective learning as it can impede the children's motivation to learn. However, the NSTs and CM3 claimed that they do not have trauma issues with the IDPs. The NSTs stated that the IDPs in their school have accepted their fate, but receive help from extracurricular activities the school organises, and from guidance and counselling provided. This concurs with the assertion of the PMs who revealed that teachers who studied 'guidance and counselling' were deployed to the affected camps to treat the trauma through offering counselling sessions, before commencing teaching. Camp 1 also provides trauma healing sessions for the displaced children through the services of an expert although, they admit that it is limited for lack of enough professionals as this therapy can only be administered by professionals and not trained teachers, contrary to the claim of the NSTs. CM3 on the other hand, shared that some of the children in their camp arrived the camp when they were very little as such, are not aware of the past occurrences because they are grown now. He/she claims that all these children know is camp life, as a result, the children live life as normal. However, just because they have grown in the camp and feel life is normal, does not mean that life is normal for them (Messiou, 2012). From the data and literature, it is evident that the children's wellbeing is fundamental to successful teaching and learning. Worrysome however, is that despite the declaration in the Child Act of Nigeria stating that, 'the best interest of the child should be paramount in all actions and every child shall be given such protection and care as is necessary for the wellbeing of the child...', this appears to be far from becoming a reality for displaced children in Nigeria thereby, posing a threat to reaching quality UBE provision.

The CMs pointed out other factors that have inhibited the provision of quality UBE for IDPs to include, lack of structures, lack of teachers with expertise to teach IDPs, conducive environment, resources, uniforms, and funding to keep the teachers. The literature on Nigeria's UBE shows how the same factors were responsible for the failure of the UPE policy and currently the factors bedevilling the success of the UBE policy (Aluede, 2006; Okugbe, 2009; Oyadiran, 2014). With this situation at hand, can there be a ray of hope? This is against the PMs' assertion that, "*...All our plans are predicated on the concept of result getting. So, you know very well that if you don't monitor, if you don't check to be sure that all the plans are properly implemented, you may not be able to get the expected results.*" The question however, is, what are these plans? This is of concern because the PMs' have clearly stated that there is no plan anywhere, "*...I can't see a detailed plan to implement in the event of such a situation, it's just not there...*" This implies that the government is not making any effort to at least mitigate this IDP plight.

The PMs further asserted that IDP camps no longer exist in X State. This assertion questions their awareness about the number of camps in the State because camp 1 is an existing camp in the same State. Having opined that IDP camps no longer exist in the State, the PMs claimed that the IDPs have returned to their communities or other communities and the children have been relocated to nearby schools which have become over-populated. These claims point back to Ibeanu's (1999) assertions mentioned earlier about government's inclination to quickly claim successful resettlement of IDPs when this is not the case. The PMs revealed that there is no organised method to track or follow up to confirm that the children have returned to school. What is the certainty therefore, that the children are actually currently in school? How true is this claim? This is discouraging especially considering the role of the PMs and their assertion of ensuring that policies are implemented by monitoring. This, however, contradicts the success rate they claimed the UBE has attained since its universality cannot be ascertained to have reached all the IDPs. A comparison of the policy promises and the PMs responses, shows clearly that although PMs are responsible for policy planning, formulation, implementation, and evaluation, they appear to be disconnected from the policy statements which portrays a fundamental issue.

It is evident that these factors are a huge impediment to the implementation of the UBE especially in an IDP context, also as revealed by several researchers. Abdulrasheed et al.'s (2015) empirical study on 'Effects of Insurgencies on UBE in Borno State of Nigeria', further shows the contrast between the claims of the PMs and the realities on ground. The research which focused on investigating the state of UBE in the face of security threats, to examine the impact of insurgencies on both pupils and teachers, revealed a heightened decline in school attendance from fear of being kidnapped resulting from the Chibok girls' abduction. This also resulted in displacement of teachers as they had to flee for safety, leaving majority of schools indefinitely closed. Bertoni et al. (2019) also highlight the impact of the Boko Haram conflict on education in North-East Nigeria which has disrupted education access and other social services, killing of teachers, destruction of schools and turning some into camps. These have massively led to a decline in school attendance. Similarly, many Iraqi professors had to flee their country because of fear from threats after 500 of them were killed by militia (Jones et.al, 2022). Although insurgencies have adversely affected UBE provision, these insurgencies have only aggravated an already existing problem as Abdulrasheed et al. (2015) point out. They reveal that UBE provision in the State has always encountered impediments such as, shortage of classes for teaching and learning, shortage of instructional materials and teachers, lack of funding, lack of payment of teachers' remuneration which have led to incessant strikes by basic schoolteachers, similar factors that have been attributed to the cause of UBE ineffectiveness.

Like Abdulrasheed et al. (2015) reveal from their research, Umaru and Terhembra's (2014) research on investigating the state of UBE in Damaturu, Yobe state in the face of incessant security challenges encountered in the State, revealed that although both parents and teachers are keen about their children's education, they are unwilling to send them to school due to induced by fear of recurrent attacks, resulting to a 28% decline in school attendance.

Bearing in mind that these insurgencies and displacements have been ongoing in Nigeria for over two decades and its end not in sight, there was a need to find out from the PMs about intentions of possible educational response plan by them. This is in line with Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) who started off by assessing Nigeria's state of preparedness in their paper. They assert that a country's level of preparation is expected to meet at least the basic demands of IDP education and show her ability to proactively deploy resources to meet emergency situations as they arise. As such, the level of preparation is determined by the economic circumstances of the country. The findings of this research, from the responses of the PMs interviewed further confirm the assertions above. The PMs revealed that there is no budget available for IDP education therefore, only contingency arrangements were made to support the IDPs, which were unsustainable. The PMs further admitted that although displacement has been in existence since 2001, there is yet no detailed plan to implement in the event of an emergency. It is disheartening that although the policy promises to relocate IDPs to other schools, while ensuring that school structures/resources are being arranged to ensure that these children enjoy their right, despite this proclamation, the government is yet to make a budget provision for IDP education. It, therefore, shows that the rejection of IDPs by neighbouring schools is genuinely because the resources for their education are not available. The case of the neighbouring school in this research is evidence that although the school was noble enough to absorb the displaced children, both the teachers and displaced children revealed their lack of educational resources. It is safe to say then that the policy statements appear to be empty words. Oyadiran (2014) states that, improper planning is the gateway to failure of any programme no matter how bright the intentions may appear. Ogbiji (2016) adds that, policy gives a sense of direction which governs the activities and actions of stakeholders. In Nigeria however, due to deficits in education infrastructure and the government's inability to cater for the basic education requirements generally, preparation for IDP education suffers significant deficiencies (Obashoro-John and Oni, 2017). Bertoni et al. (2019) also revealed from their research, how lack of school attendance due to Boko Haram attacks has led to a reduction in the number of years children have to complete their schooling hence, children becoming overaged and no longer within the age of compulsory education. This presents a bigger challenge for Nigeria as the country is yet to make any plan for IDP education. The case in Rwanda, however, shows that where there is a will, there will be a way. Rwanda, like Nigeria

experienced in 1994 genocide that had its toll on education. From Mattina's (2018) research, findings revealed that the genocide shortened the years of schooling for the persons who were children at the time of the conflict, just like in Nigeria's case. However, Rwanda was purposeful and committed to the education of their children as such, two policies in 2000 closed this educational gap by 2010. These policies were the UN World Food Program and the 2003 proclamation of free and compulsory primary education. A commitment to the implementation of these policies yielded the desired outcomes. This goes to show the unwillingness of Nigerian government to alleviate the educational plight of IDPs.

Impressive as the policy statements appear, the practicality on ground in terms of its achievability is what determines its success. The policy statements are irreconcilable with the happenings on ground. This shows a marked gap that exist between policy and practice, evidence of the lack of accessibility through the policy promise of freeness, universality of education, as well as relocating displaced children to neighbouring schools. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the provision of UBE, let alone 'quality' UBE for IDPs is still at the theory stage and yet to see the light of day. On the other hand, UBE failure especially in this context can be ascribed to government's nonchalant attitude towards IDPs or described as a situation where government appears to have conned its citizens and invariably the vulnerable children who deserve to the enjoy their fundamental rights. Therefore, based on the above discussions from stakeholders' responses, it is safe to conclude that IDP education policy suffers from non-implementation due to the following reasons, the policy has not been put into effect as proclaimed, there is a disconnect between PMs as those saddled with the responsibility of executing the policy, lack of efficiency on all levels i.e., PMs and PPs, or in the case of camp1, their best effort is not enough to tackle the overwhelming challenges which are beyond their control (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984)

### 5.3 RQ2: How is quality UBE perceived in an IDP context? Perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness for displaced children (Effectiveness strand)

#### 5.3.1 Quality Perceptions

As stated above, RQ2 is aimed at discussing the responses that address educational effectiveness/quality in an IDP context. Responses to this RQ were elicited from PMs, PPs and PBs. Since one of the focal points of this research is 'quality' UBE provision for IDPs, RQ2 was aimed at investigating the level of UBE effectiveness in this context and to bring out the possible need for not just mere education provision for the IDPs but 'quality' provision. If the gap of educational inequality in this context will be bridged, then IDPs should equally be provided with quality education like every other Nigerian child and as stated in the policy. However, as popular as the concept of 'educational quality' is globally, the definition of 'quality' has proved to be a complicated term due to its relative nature. RQ2 is significant in this research because it gives a picture of what stakeholders view as 'quality' education which invariably determines to a large extent their expectations and contributions towards its realisation, especially in an IDP context.

Much as there are varying perceptions of the concept of quality education, measuring educational effectiveness appears challenging due to differences in the views held about education effectiveness (Kelly, 2001). NST1 shared the same view with Kelly (2001) by stating that the concept of quality education depends on individual views, *"...Quality education for each child depends on the way you are seeing it; depends on the way the other person is seeing it"* although, NST1 goes further to share his/her view about what quality education means. NST1 describes quality education as education that caters for all aspects of the child including one-to-one teaching/interactions and teaching good moral behaviour. This view agrees with the assertion of A4ID (SDG4 Legal guide) which identifies the universal diversities for individuals and cultures as responsible for the difficulty in defining the concept of quality education. NST1 narrows down his/her view by defining quality provision as education that covers 'all aspects'. This statement is ambiguous as there are no clear boundaries to what 'all aspects' represents. It is interesting that NST1 who is headteacher in the neighbouring school, views quality provision as teachers being able to attend to children individually to ensure the success of the learning process. This is a contrast to what obtains in their school where the class size is 100:1 or 79:1, as revealed by NST2 and the children although, NST1 gave a divergent figure of 45 Or 50:1. Going by the ratios revealed by NST2 and the children, it is an indication that the teacher is left with no opportunity to attend to individual needs of the children in fact, one of the children expressed sympathy for their

teacher's work load during the interview. NST1 focuses also on moral behaviour as a vital part of quality provision. The question thus is, 'is there a correlation between moral behaviour and quality provision. How does moral behaviour translate into quality UBE provision? does behaviour have a relationship with educational attainment/achievement?'. For NST2, quality education means availability of learning materials, conducive class that will enable teaching and learning. Unlike NST1, NST2 focuses on specifics and factors that aid the teacher's teaching and children's learning in the classroom, a view that corresponds with the views of CTs. O'Sullivan (2006) shares the same view in his assertion that quality education focuses on the actual happenings in the school and classroom, claiming that the teaching and learning process are topmost on the quality agenda. Despite their perceptions of quality education, both NSTs asserted that their school provides quality education for the children, ascribing it to the qualification of their teachers and measuring it against their effort and commitment to raise funds from the PTA to cater for some educational needs of the children. Their position is, however, contestable looking at the myriads of setbacks they have recounted. The NSTs' perceptions about quality education and their claim of offering quality education are contrasting. This then shows their contentment with the current state and therefore, means that they might not see the need to increase the level of input they make to improve the quality of their provision.

In sharing their perceptions of quality education (UBE), the PMs focused on different aspects of education. For PM1 quality/effectiveness in an IDP context will have to begin with improvement of the teacher training curriculum to include training for teaching in emergencies and for IDPs, as a preparation to meet IDP educational needs such as providing appropriately trained teachers, resources, and a conducive environment. This would mean to include 'teaching in emergencies' in the Teachers Registration Council (TRCN) of Nigeria's policy on licensure which states that teachers should possess a minimum of a National Certificate of Education (NCE) before engaging in teaching. PM1 adds that this should be included in the federal constitution as well as, proper planning for emergency situations by the government. The CTs concurred with PM1 on the need for specialised training for teaching in an IDP context although the NSTs claimed to have gained the necessary expertise to teach IDPs from the normal teacher training they received. They believe that the teacher training encompassed every element required for teaching in this context. This is contrary to the perception of PM1 who is one of those saddled with the responsibility to formulate the policy, putting him in a position that he/she is aware of the teacher training curriculum. This issue also raises concern about whether normal teacher certification is enough to teach IDPs. Golghaber and Brewer (2000) acknowledge the significance of licensure because of its role in ensuring a basic level of quality or skill of teachers however, they add that little research evidence exists on the impact of licensure on teachers' teaching and on student

achievements. Therefore, they argue that although, teacher certification is ubiquitous, there is little precise verification that it results to teacher effectiveness. Kane et al. (2007) support this assertion by stating that whilst on the average, teacher certification as the initial certification status of a teacher is viewed as having small impacts on student test performance, no two teachers are the same even if they have the same experience and certification status, there is always a marked difference. This therefore implies that teacher effectiveness goes beyond certification especially in an IDP context where there exist intangible challenges.

PM2 on the other hand perceives quality education in an IDP context as ensuring the implementation of the UBE/curriculum as he/she believes that every educational need is captured in the curriculum however, added passively the need to include aspects specifically on handling IDPs. He/she did not define what these aspects are, hence, it is difficult to determine the seriousness of that statement. It is interesting that the PMs show an in-depth awareness of what quality education should look like in an IDP context, but the question is, as PMs, why has it not been implemented in the camps? It could, however, be argued that admitting and describing quality education in this context is commendable and could be seen as a start in the right direction. Whilst the PMs focused on curriculum implementation, the need for teachers that are specifically trained for emergency situations, adequate resources, conducive environment, and government conscious involvement, CM2 and CM3 had a different focus. For them, quality education begins with the children having food to eat because they sometimes go up to 2 days without eating for lack of food. They asserted that a lack of proper feeding prevents children from learning.

CM1 shared a similar opinion with the PMs and the other CMs, he/she perceives quality education to be good nutrition for the children as well as having good facilities, and teachers who can teach the curriculum. He/she stresses the need for teachers from the children's backgrounds who will give the children learning support by interpreting lessons in their local language to help the children comprehend what is taught. This is like the suggestion made by Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) that IDPs who are teachers or professionals should be engaged by supporting educational and recreational activities for the children. This could be a means of therapy for the teachers however, there is no certainty that they would embrace the opportunity as the gravity of their loss may be a determining factor. CM1 raises a key point as one of the measures of quality education which is, that the children should be given access to all national examination. This is crucial since National examination (UN) is a measuring tool used to determine the success standard of a learning process. The national examination encourages all parties to work hard to achieve better learning outcomes.

Class size was a common factor that was raised by the stakeholders as a prerequisite for ensuring quality education. CM3 believes that having smaller class sizes of 45 children rather than what they have in their camp which is 100 children to one teacher will enhance quality. Research has shown how significant class size is and this has been alluded to by the PMs and even the children.

*“My teacher cannot do all the work by herself; she cannot mark the register and mark our books and do other things all by herself. The work is too much for her...We are 79 in the class”*

(C2A/CH1). It is obvious that the children are aware that the teaching they receive does not match the required quality due to their teacher's workload which must have created gaps in the learning process. This raises concern about the initial claim by the teachers that the education offered in the school is effective. Although, there is no standard perfect number for what constitutes a good student-teacher ratio, the more one-on-one attention and individualised teaching students can glean, the higher the quality and personalisation of their learning. Much as a lower ratio does not guarantee quality, smaller ratios gravitate towards a more positive and tailored teaching approach. The Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) of Nigeria states that the pupil/teacher ratio in basic education level should be 35 children to 1 teacher (35:1). This indicates that class size plays a vital role in determining quality provision because it has the potential to either enhance or mar quality provision.

The CTs, being the ones responsible for putting the curriculum into practical terms in the camp, expressed their views about quality UBE for IDPs as the availability of facilities, resources, and good nutrition which concurs with what the other shareholders defined. Their perceptions were like the CMs, but they focused more on the intangible aspects of education as factors that enhance the teaching and learning process. These were, adequate teachers, ability to help children read and write, IDPs' ability to take national exams successfully like other children, pedagogical content knowledge for the teachers, and having an enabling environment. They focus on intangible aspects of education that enhance quality and stressed the need for educational outcomes to be realised. Learning outcomes are written statements of what the successful student/learner is expected to be able to achieve at the end of the programme module/course unit or qualification (Adam, 2004). Learning outcomes are statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning. There are many factors that facilitate learning abilities beyond merely being attentive in class. The environment is one that is critical in the learning process because of its capacity to enhance attention, creativity, concentration, and calmness. The general belief is that colour is the most important visual experience for people as it has the potential to increase memory performance (Dzulkifli and Mustafar, 2013).

As described earlier, only a few of the PBs could express their perceptions about quality UBE through the aid of school pictures displayed by the researcher. The views expressed include the children equating good education with regular availability of teachers in the class and the teachers' ability to teach the right content. Describing the picture displayed, children stated, *"Because they don't get good education... like the teacher is not coming always"* (C1/CH4); *"Because the teacher is not giving them good education, by not teaching them the right thing that is supposed to teach them"* (C1/CH5).

The question is, how the children measure ineffectiveness and effectiveness. What yardstick have they used to determine the poor condition of their education provision? It is, however, clear that the children know that a teacher's absence with no alternative teacher means that the lesson for that period is lost and thus, sets them back. This is shown in the quotes presented earlier where the children reported how some of their teachers have left and some constantly absent for reasons of personal business. This is enough reason to make children feel marginalised and increase their trauma as idleness is a brooding ground for such.

However, the general perception of quality education by all the stakeholders concurs with some of the common indicators of education effectiveness Stoll and Fink (1996); Macbeath and Peter (2001); and Kelly (2001) assert which include, purposeful teaching and learning environment. It is not surprising that the perceptions of stakeholders in this study differ with most of the definitions found in literature. This is because in literature, the emphasis is on a normal school environment whereas, an IDP context is completely different and presents different kinds of challenges. This lack of a clear definition on 'quality education' especially in refugee/IDP context shows clearly that there are gaps in policy and research on refugee/IDP education quality (Motala, 2001).

The discussion on 'quality' in this study zeros in on teacher effectiveness as a critical part of quality education provision. This has been made evident from the responses of all the stakeholders, stating in various ways the role of the teacher in making quality education happen. No matter how laudable the policy is, if teachers are not available, the policy statements will only remain words read in a document, that is why Haertel (2013) opines that, teachers matter enormously. O'Sullivan (2006) concurs by pointing that the actual happenings in the classroom i.e., the teaching and learning process are topmost in the quality agenda. Therefore, Green (2004) maintains that as much as accommodation, excellent resources, brilliant schemes of work are important, these factors have been considered limited value if the actual teaching, the point of delivery, the interaction between teacher and pupils are not of high quality. The teacher in this context is therefore viewed by the children as a parent, one they can depend on to receive care. In Lewis' (2017) qualitative study on teacher effectiveness, the participants who were teachers show how the teachers themselves

perceive the concept of 'teacher effectiveness.' The teachers described teacher effectiveness as always looking for the best, the shining examples, putting the success story out there'. A teacher who knows who his/her students are and integrate students' cultural background and one who has a love pedagogy. A teacher who sets out time in the day to show the students they are loved for who they are, what they are and what they can contribute. The participants described effectiveness as characterised by qualities of kindness, caring, love, knowing and seeing, stating that being kind and caring means understanding and accepting people for who they are and what they can contribute. Similarly, Bollnow (1960) and Ryans (1960) also suggest other innate factors which they consider enhancing teacher effectiveness, these include love, patience, trust, enthusiasm, alert, sense of humour and understanding. It is interesting that teachers themselves in Lewis' (2017) research did not link teacher effectiveness to certification. This goes to show that the dynamics that are present during the actual teaching and learning time are beyond certification (Green, 2004; O'Sullivan, 2006). The features are intangible but play a crucial role in the learning process of children hence, if these factors were in existence in the camp, the child would probably not be wanting to 'go back home' as the fundamental question would be, where is home? With this kind of disposition, it becomes very challenging for children to engage in any meaningful learning process as such, posing an impediment to achieving quality education.

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act calls for the employment of only 'highly qualified' teachers because research has shown that teacher quality is the most important educational factor predicting student achievement (Ferguson, 1998; Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin, 1999). However, Geo (2007) argues that both teacher quality and teaching quality are required to enable teacher effectiveness, viewing it as two sides of a coin. While teacher quality refers to teacher certification, teaching quality focuses on what teachers do in the classroom that indicates quality.

The need for not just mere education but quality basic education for IDPs cannot therefore be overemphasized. Achegbulu and Olufemi (2020) have also stressed the critical need for IDPs to access quality education. This is a perception that all the stakeholders in this study share, the need for quality UBE provision for IDPs, as also enshrined in the UBE policy. Achegbulu and Olufemi (2020) allude to the significance of quality education for IDPs as a key factor in terminating the plight of IDPs. Much as quality education for IDPs is a necessity, the question is, what kind of education do IDPs need? Will regular education benefit their context?

In response to the kind of education IDPs need, Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) propound that refugee/IDP education should be one that is targeted at promoting social connections, meaningful and useful in offering information that are directional thereby, addressing their psychological need and providing stability. This education must translate into practical terms in the form of

restoration of their lives, communities, and energies that lead to reproductive and significant lives for the refugees/IDPs. To achieve this, Obashoro-John and Oni (2017) point to the need for IDP education to be characterised by professionals who are equipped to provide this kind of education that is functional in nature rather than merely academic. They focus on areas such as, basic knowledge, technical or job-related skills, positive attitudes, inter-personal relationship, and productive consciousness for personal and communal efficiency. IDP education for Achegbulu and Olufemi (2020), should consider when IDPs will return to their places of origin and tailor the education provision towards knowledge and skill acquisition that will enhance a well-ordered reintegration (Guiding Principles, 1998). However, it has been established from literature that displacements are not usually short-lived and so, just focusing on skill acquisition might create a limitation to IDPs who have other ambitions that are academically inclined.

Much as teacher effectiveness is key in the IDP quality education agenda, the IDPs have varying learning challenges that impede the quality process. Bokko (2019) highlights some of the barriers that prevent displaced children in camp schools from attending, staying, and finishing successfully through his assessment of UBE provision in a paper titled 'Problems of Learners in IDP Camps Schools in Borno State'. The barriers identified from this qualitative research were in 4 categories, educational, health, personal and social. All groups of learners observed in the camp schools shared similarity with the health and social factors but differed in some degree with personal and educational. However, the general impediment in their education was the lack of enthusiasm for schooling due to an indoctrination by the insurgents that western education is prohibited as such, this put fear in the IDPs as they believe that insurgents will continue to attack western education schools. Bullying was another challenge that affected learning, this was a resultant effect of children who had become over-aged learners because of long periods of no school attendance but have found themselves in the same class as younger learners. The over-aged learners face the feeling of stigmatization which leads to bullying.

The educational barriers and high level of insecurity revealed through this empirical research shows that UBE provision in displacement context is far from being effective. Although, Ferris and Winthrop (2011) assert that educational impediments are experienced differently due to the displacement pattern, in this context and from Bokko's (2019) research, the educational barriers are largely the same. Schooling has been disrupted by insurgents, some children confined in camps, complicating, and impeding continuous access to education.

Despite the policy statements, incessant challenges related with IDP accessing education has resulted in a grim venture. From literature, Edmonds (1979) describes educational quality as skill mastery, with equity. True as this assertion might be, findings from all the stakeholders reveals

the lack of equality and equity in education provision for IDPs, and even where there is some UBE provision, the barriers that militate against quality provision and teacher effectiveness are onerous. It is, therefore, safe to conclude that 'quality' and 'teacher effectiveness' are still in a fantasy realm or just words used for lip-service. The fact that this area of IDP quality basic education is scant in literature suggests the need for more research to further build on this body of knowledge.

## **5.4 RQ3: What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs? (Improvement strand)**

### **5.4.1 Improvement Required**

RQ3 was aimed at addressing the 'improvement' strand connected to the 'quality' thread that runs through this research. As stated earlier, educational effectiveness was narrowed down to teacher effectiveness and in this section, educational improvement is discussed from teachers' perspective, by exploring from data collected, the mechanisms available to aid teacher improvement which invariably will lead to educational effectiveness. The essence of this RQ is in line with the global demand for educational improvement which is beyond a mere expectation as opined by Gray et al. (1999). If schools are required to set improvement targets because there is need to improve, then surely, the issue of improvement must also be considered in an IDP context. It cannot be overemphasised that teachers are very significant in any education system because they are the ones saddled with the responsibility of translating the policy theory into practical terms as they are in direct contact with the PBs. Therefore, for any meaningful educational improvement to happen especially in this context, teachers must be accorded their significance as key players in the process of ensuring quality standards. Heartel (2013) echoes this fact by arguing that teachers matter enormously due to the critical role of teacher quality as a key component in predicting student achievement and educational improvement (Ferguson, 1998; Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin, 1999).

As shown in literature, educational quality/effectiveness cannot happen as an incident, it would require going through a process due to the nature of its complexity, which demands a strategic approach (Nikel and Lowe, 2009). Motala (2001) concurs and further points out the issues that

that make educational quality complex which have affected current perceptions on education change. These complex issues include the lack of visible impact on school standard from positive policy and legislation mandate, as well as the misplaced focus on educational change. Motala (2001) asserts that this misplaced focus is evident in the way structure and putting systems in place are given priority, leaving out pedagogy and the processes of teaching and learning.

The different voices significant to answer this question were PMs since they plan, formulate, and ensure implementation of the policy. The teachers (CTs and NSTs) themselves since they are responsible for giving legs to the policy. It is assumed that since they are grassroots people as PPs, they would be more aware of what is required to improve their effectiveness to bring about quality provision. The challenge here though, is that policy practitioners are excluded from the policy planning and formulation stage (Kim, and Rouse 2011). The voices of the CMs were also acknowledged here due to their role as gatekeepers of the camps. Although, none of the CMs interviewed is an educationist, they provided responses based on what they assume to be the requirement for improvement. The PBs on the other hand expressed their views about the areas they believe require improvement in terms of their education. Although, they are minors and do not have the professional expertise, their role as beneficiaries of the policy, makes their voices count in terms of them expressing their needs and aspirations for their education.

In suggesting areas that require IDP educational improvement, the PMs had different approaches. PM1 approached educational improvement from the need for an upgraded teacher training curriculum that will incorporate areas such as psychological needs of IDPs, skills acquisition. He/she further states that there is a plan already in motion to execute the suggestion about upgrading the teacher training curriculum, and even gives a time frame of 5 years for its implementation. This is a questionable statement considering their earlier assertion that there is no plan anywhere for IDP education. However, the CTs shared the same view as PM1 stating that they require to receive training that will give them the expertise to handle traumatised children outside of the normal teacher training. This is because they believe that the current teacher training is not enough and does not provide the expertise for the job. The NSTs on their part believe that the normal teacher training they received encompasses all aspects of teaching, including teaching in displacement context as such, do not require specialised training. Despite the NSTs claim, the IDPs who attend their school all told the researcher that they want their school changed because they are not happy. When probed, the children explained how difficult it is for them to commute to school because they must cross a river to get to school and it gets worse during the rainy season when the river overflows. This usually results to their lateness to school yet, the school authorities punish them severely for their lateness, *"I want us to change school because of the river I do not like the river that we have to cross, and when we come late to*

*school, we are flogged.*" (C2A/CH1). This was all the children in that camp pleaded for when asked how they wanted their school to be better. It obviously shows that the children now face a different level of trauma coupled with challenges of lack of school materials. If this situation is not addressed, educational quality cannot be realised. It is clear from the account of the children, that the teachers require training to be able to develop those intangible skills described by Bollnow (1960) and Ryans (1960) e.g., love, patience, trust, enthusiasm, understanding for the children, etc, to enhance their effectiveness. The critical need for teachers to be supported and trained has been further buttressed by Obashoro-John and Oni (2017). This, they believe will provide teachers with the skills to confront the challenges of teaching in IDP communities. They further recommend that since teachers and other professionals are likely to be among the IDPs, they could be engaged with activities such as supporting the organising of educational and recreational groups for IDPs. These teachers and professionals should be given anticipatory training in relevant areas where possible.

PM1 adds the need for a conducive and hygienic learning environment as well as the provision of social amenities. PM2 on the other hand, approached the educational improvement issue outside of academics by emphasising the need for a good value system, moral training, medical treatment, and provision of physical needs. This, PM2 maintains will have to precede any form of academics as Machel (1996) states that conflict has a devastating impact on children's entire development, physical, mental, and emotional. As such, any meaningful programme should first seek to cater for these needs. It is interesting that PM2 states the need for government involvement in this process because most of the points raised are system related. This means that, it is within the jurisdiction of the PMs to make the provision. However, the PMs have admitted that there is no plan anywhere for the care and education of IDPs despite the policy proclamation. Achieving change goes beyond simply deciding to embrace them but having a conscious effort at implementing the new practices. Educational improvement does not happen haphazardly; rather it is a carefully planned and managed process that stretches over a period of many years and one that is a professional obligation of all educators that should be given priority within existing resources (Hopkins, 1987).

Ferris and Winthrop's (2011) assert that host governments (for refugees) or national governments (for IDPs) are solely responsible for providing educational access and they achieve this through their policies. CM1 shares the same view by stating that IDP education should be the responsibility of the host government by integrating IDP education into the State education policy. It is not surprising that CM1 makes this suggestion since the IDPs in his/her camp fled from another part of the country and were rejected from being admitted into both government and private schools, the same experience as CM2 in a different State.

On a general note, the educational improvement suggested by the stakeholders bordered around teachers and the mechanisms that will enhance their improvement to bring about educational quality. Nishimuko (2007, p21) confirms this by stating that, “the quality of education also depends on the quality of teachers.” This assertion is buttressed by Hanushek (2000) who adds that improving teacher quality is a critical element in determining or improving student performance. Therefore, the stakeholders shared commonalities in the improvement mechanisms they proffered, these have been categorised in four groups i.e., teacher training, system support, school level and teachers’ role. The PMs, CM1 and the CTs allude to the fact that teachers require to be trained to gain the expertise for counselling and supporting the children through to overcome their trauma. This is because mental wellbeing will enhance learning. This training is considered a necessity because as Baum et al. (2013) state, it is effective in the resilience building process for children. From their empirical study aimed at assessing the effectiveness of a short-term resilience building teacher intervention on reducing post-traumatic distress in children, Baum et al. (2013) revealed that this short teacher training equipped teachers with the required resilience-building techniques for themselves and their students. The intervention proved effective because the skills learnt were further strengthened by the natural leadership role of the teacher which was durable and practical. On the other hand, Barret and Berger (2021) from their empirical study, the teachers interviewed revealed that working with these children had adverse effects of mental and emotional stress on them because it demanded that the teachers got emotionally involved. This study shows that teachers equally face psychological stress and require their resilience built to be able to support the children, hence the need for training. Teacher training should also include pedagogical content knowledge awareness.

For teachers to be effective especially in this context, they must receive the required support from the education system. This is because being a teacher in an IDP or refugee context can bring serious impact on teachers’ emotional wellbeing and ability to effectively perform their role (Middleton and Potter, 2015). All the stakeholders communicated this by stating emphatically, the need for government to get involved and make a commitment to ensuring IDP education. This will mean providing the necessary funds/budget to create access to education where there is none, just like Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017) asserted. There cannot be teachers if there is no education provision because teachers require a system to operate in. The only way EFA and the UBE policy can be successful is by ascertaining that the educationally displaced are given access to education, making the role of the education system vital (Totenhagen et al., 2016). Other elements that the educational system is required to provide include, staff remuneration, required resources, facilities, good nutrition for the children, well-trained and adequate teachers, enabling environment, access to national exams for the children, and other basic needs (Strolin et al.,

2006). The absence of these factors constitute harsh conditions under which teachers are required to teach. Despite the need for teachers, the reality in IDP camps is that there are inadequate and inadequately trained teachers due to teacher turnover/transience. The paucity of teachers in this context has been ascribed to several reasons which correspond with the revelations of the stakeholders interviewed in this study. Middleton and Potter (2015) like the PPs suggest insufficient resources, lack of career advancement opportunities, low salaries, nature of work e.g., stress, emotional exhaustion, burnout, and lack of job satisfaction as factors that affect the insufficiency of teachers. Totenhagen et al. (2016) have highlighted wages/remuneration as a significant factor that either boosts or discourages teachers, maintaining that it accounts a major reason why teachers leave their job. This assertion was confirmed from the CMs, PPs and PBs who revealed that the lack of staff retention was largely due to financial reasons. The children also revealed how their teachers miss school to attend to their personal business. Although, they add that burnout can challenge good remuneration, they draw attention to the fact that teachers remain in their job only to while away time until alternative employment opportunities are available. This was another revelation that all the CTs interviewed expressed. They all have plans to move to greener pastures as soon as possible.

The school also plays a critical role in supporting teachers to improve their effectiveness. All the teachers interviewed expressed the significance of extracurricular activities as an avenue to create outlets for the children. This is especially a concern for the IDPs who live and school in the camp, both the teachers and children spoke about a necessity for the children to have a sense of freedom as shown in these quotes, *"Sometimes we are happy sometimes we are not... they don't allow us to free ourselves"* (C1B/CH4); *"providing outlets for children, sporting activities... also other extracurricular activities like dance and even music..."* (CT1). On the 'freedom' issue, CH4 spoke about how they are not allowed to be free (children need freedom/space) while CH5 wants to go back home to attend a day school, this implies that the confinement has a negative impact on their wellbeing. Much as confinement has a negative effect on the children, their security is equally important as they are still prime targets of attack. This is one of the reasons why they are confined, coupled with the lack of funds to organise fieldtrips as revealed by the CTs. Although, the children who attend a neighbouring school have the chance to leave the camp to attend school, they are exposed to the danger of being drowned in the river while crossing as well as, other security challenges. The NSTs on their part, claimed that they offer extracurricular activities for the children in their school. Although, extracurricular activities play a key role in the teaching and learning process, carrying this out has been difficult due to lack of funds as explained by the CTs.

Much as the discussion in this section borders on mechanisms available to support teacher's effective performance, the teachers' input is equally required (Guppy, 2005). As stated very explicitly in preceding discussions, the role of the teacher in providing quality education is very critical and immeasurable, making them a key component in the improvement process. It must begin from the teachers' perception of themselves as agents of change and this is evident in the qualities that make for a good teacher such as, knowledge of significant areas and content, pedagogical skill, ability to self-appraise, empathy and good classroom management skills (Fredriksson, 2004). Gibbs and Miller (2014) add that teachers should view themselves as successful managers of their classrooms and of the levels of commitment they put into their teaching. This is evident in camp 1 where the CM and CTs have gone the extra mile to first create the opportunity for the IDPs to have some form of education due to rejection from schools and without any form of government assistance. They have also set up intervention classes for these children to offer learning support resulting to some of their children having the ability to sit for national examinations and pass. This exceeds Fredriksson (2004) assertion on the yardstick for gauging quality education, stating that the minimum expectation is for children learn basic reading, writing and arithmetic skills. This shows a high level of commitment based on how CM1 and the CTs perceive their need to succeed as education providers for the IDPs.

Fredriksson (2004) further submit that as a necessary part of quality improvement, teachers need to have quality awareness by constantly reflecting and assessing their teaching methods and aiming to improve their techniques and skills through personal development and professional ethics. The CTs show quality awareness when they indicated their need for more than a normal teaching certificate to teach the IDPs, hence requiring the necessary expertise to be able to deal with the children's mental health issues of the IDPs. This was different with the NSTs who claimed they are qualified enough thus, not requiring further training. Gopinathan (2006) alludes to the fact that teachers play a significant role in ending the patterns that have served as educational and social limitations which gained roots from both national and local circumstances as such, teachers require to come to this realisation. Bullnow (1960) and Ryans (1960) suggest features that show teacher effectiveness, these include love, patience, trust, enthusiasm, alert, sense of humour and understanding. Abulon (2014) includes other inherent characteristics such as, the teacher exhibiting 'patience' considering the large class sizes, having a good sense of humour and emotional stability, being flexible, humble, energetic, open-minded, self-confident, sincere, honest, spiritual, and ability to adjust to unanticipated circumstances. These are especially necessary inherent factors the teacher should possess to aid the educational improvement process.

The A4ID in the SDG 4 legal guide, which refers to the UNESCO Institute for statistics and the Global Education Monitoring report for the 2019 High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development, reveals that the whole world is grappling in the dark and yet to find the pathway to achieving EFA. This has been worsened by the high dropout rate, poor quality of education, inadequately trained teachers and the consequence of conflicts which leads to dearth of quality teachers due to the unattractiveness of those circumstances, especially in sub-Saharan Africa (Jones et.al, 2022). The covid-19 pandemic heightened the situation as it accounted for massive learning losses for children enrolled in school. This situation is worsened by displacements which have increased the hardship. Therefore, Dryden-Peterson et al. (2017), propound that the EFA and the SDG4 Education 2030 Agenda will only be realised if genuinely, quality education is inclusive and equitable to meet the needs of refugees and IDPs.

Although, teachers are at the grassroots and saddled with the responsibility of putting policy statements to practice, they cannot achieve this task without the necessary machinery. Much as change should be seen as a process and not an event (Hopkins, 1987), if the government is serious about the UBE policy and desires the successful implementation of the policy, the tools needed for teachers' performance must be top on the priority of government's education agenda.

### **5.5 Summary**

This chapter discussed the findings that were presented in the previous chapter from the qualitative data collected. It focused on insights gained and deductions made from the findings. Interpretation of these findings followed the two main threads that run through the research and were discussed under the RQs with themes that emerged as subheadings. These RQs each represent a thread as such, RQ1, captured the policy thread which mainly addressed the issues of policy implementation as it relates to accessibility. RQ2 and RQ3 came under the quality thread, however, they both captured the two strands under the quality thread. RQ2 focused on education effectiveness with particular focus on teacher effectiveness, while RQ3 focused on education improvement as it relates to the mechanisms available for teachers to improve their effectiveness. The discussion drew mainly from the findings and linking it with relevant literature reviewed to make inferences. Following the in-depth critical analysis of the findings, the next chapter draws from this to presents the conclusion which captures a summary of the key findings, recommendations, reflections, and implications for the future.

## Chapter 6 Summary, Future Directions and Conclusions

### 6.1 Introduction

This final chapter pulls together all the key elements of this thesis which focused on displaced children residing in IDP camps in Nigeria and the provision of basic education for these children (single case), through examining the implementation of 'UBE policy' (unit of analysis) in that context (see section 3.2.2). It provides a summary about the thesis before recapping the key findings from the qualitative data collected and relating it to the key contributions the study has made to both research and practice on IDP education. The chapter also highlights the reflections on the research process, implications for future studies as well as main conclusions.

### 6.2 Overview of this thesis

Education has variously been defined as permanent change in behaviour because of learning that is acquired in the process. It consists of all efforts made by society to accomplish set targets which are desirable in terms of individual as well as the societal needs. Education, therefore, remains one of the most powerful instruments for both development of man and transformation of human society. All over the world, primary education has been regarded as the most important as well as the most inclined to by people. This may be since it is the foundation on the whole educational pursuit, which is expected to provide literacy and enlightenment as well as the social encouragement and security to the citizenry. The importance of primary education can as such, be seen in the sense that all beneficiaries of all the other levels of education by necessity, must pass through its level (Tsafe, 2013). Indeed, the success and failure of the entire system is determined by primary education, and it is at the heart of the concept of basic education which has been defined as the universalisation of accessibility to education (Oni, 2008). The significance of primary/basic education is the rationale for my choice of this level of education. Despite the importance of primary education, displacements have challenged attainability especially as displacement is now experienced globally. UNESCO (2011), in their report, state that armed conflict in the world's poorest countries is one of the greatest barriers facing the EFA goals and it calls upon the international community to strengthen the role of education systems in preventing conflicts and building peaceful societies.

Nigeria, especially the North-Central and North-Eastern regions, the context of this research, has faced protracted displacements largely caused by the Islamic terrorist group 'boko haram' and the 'Fulani herdsmen'. This has brought about huge losses of family, places of heritage, source of livelihood and educational displacement. Some of these IDPs have found refuge in camps organised mostly by kind-spirited individuals or organised by the IDPs themselves, only a few are government organised. In this research, only one IDP camp out of the three camps involved is a government set up camp. These displacements have caused huge deficits in education as well as, widespread inequalities, marginalisation, and a lack of equitability, aggravated by government's proclivity to act oblivious of IDP plight. This is against UNESCO's (2014) report that over the last decade, there has been significant progress in expanding access to primary education (MDG2), with over 50 million additional children in school. This effort appears to be futile due to persistent forceful displacement of people which has adversely affected the educational provision, resulting to an extensive neglect of the educational needs of IDPs (Ajayi and Awodiji, 2016). Literature reports that children of primary school age usually constitute the largest percentage in any displacement situation. However, whilst regular school attendance is pivotal in the developmental process of children, internally displaced children, especially those trapped in IDP camps lack access to education in most cases. The disparity between refugees and IDPs has further heightened this challenge as IDPs are more in population, more vulnerable but less visible and less protected.

The UN Guiding Principles for displacements came about only recently when IDP plight gained global awareness. Nations adopted the guidelines in formulating domestic policies for IDP protection and welfare. As a result, Nigeria came up with her IDP policy, however, because of the focus of this study, which is on IDP education, only the policy that directly addresses IDP education were discussed. Alongside the Nigerian IDP education policy, there was the Nigerian UBE policy which was launched in 1999 for the aim of catering for the educational needs of all school age children, including those whose schooling has been abruptly terminated. This provision as stated in the policy will be of high quality, compulsory and free. Laudable as the policy statements are, consistent attacks on education have posed as barriers to its realisation, especially for IDPs. Quality Education provision is necessary for the success of any educational system and teachers are considered a vital part of promoting quality education through the effectiveness of their teaching. As such, in discussing educational quality, this study zoomed in on teacher effectiveness and improvement mechanisms that enhance their effective performance. Due to the complex nature of displacement and education provision in that context, defining quality UBE provision and teacher effectiveness is challenging. This was further difficult because of the paucity of literature that covers this area as such, my research aimed at making

contributions in this regard by adding to this body of knowledge. The section below expatiates on my contributions.

This project aimed at shining the light on the IDP education policy and its practice, focusing on the availability and/or extent of quality UBE provision in displacement contexts and exploring the possible need for the provision and/or improvement of quality basic education for displaced children who reside in IDP camps in Nigeria. Although the research mainly focused on quality UBE provision for IDPs, the findings have reflected the general state of UBE in Nigeria. In addition, the perceptions, and performances of teachers in the camps and in the neighbouring schools appeared to be very similar.

To carry out this investigation, three research questions were raised through a qualitative approach to serve as guides. The following were the research questions that served as navigators that steered the course of the study.

**RQ1.** To what extent is the provision of UBE available for IDP children?

**RQ2.** How is quality Universal Basic Education (UBE) perceived in an IDP context? The perceptions of stakeholders about UBE quality/effectiveness in IDP camps.

**RQ3.** What provision and/or improvement mechanisms are available to support teachers in providing quality UBE for IDPs?

From the research aim and RQs, this research had two golden threads running through it, policy, and quality. The strands that were linked to the policy thread were, IDP education policy and UBE policy, while effectiveness and improvement were the strands that were linked to the quality thread. To answer the RQs, data was elicited from stakeholders in UBE education, these comprised, 2 policy makers (PMs), policy practitioners (PPs) comprising, 3 camp managers (CMs), 3 camp teachers (CTs), 2 neighbouring schoolteachers (NSTs) and 20 policy beneficiaries (PBs), who are the displaced children. The PMs were involved because of their role as the planners, policy formulators, policy implementors and monitors of success of the UBE policy. It was necessary to include the perspectives of the CMs in the research since they are gatekeepers, and managers of the camp as well as serving as parents to some of the IDPs in some instances. The CTs and the NSTs were also considered a significant part of this research because of their role at grassroot level translating policy theory to practical reality and interacting directly with the PBs. The IDPs who are the PBs were considered a very crucial part of this research since they are the recipients of the UBE policy, and because the research was all about their education. Their voices were very key in determining the availability and/or extent of UBE accessible to them. The study undertook a case study design using qualitative approach to collect data. Instruments used for

data collection included individual semi-structured interviews for the adults, focus group semi-structured and child-friendly interviews for the children in groups of fives, one classroom observation and document review. The research design had to be modified to accommodate online data collection as against the initial plan to collect data physically, this was owing to the covid-19 pandemic and restrictions that accompanied it. Data collected was transcribed by the researcher, coded, and analysed thematically.

The RQs were designed to elicit the responses that will address the threads, as such, the aim of RQ1 was to first investigate the policy declarations on IDP education with a focus on the Nigerian UBE policy, and its level of implementation. RQ1 probed into the availability of UBE for IDPs, then assessed the extent of the quality of its provision in cases where UBE is available. Three themes emerged from findings to answer RQ1 and these included, 'extent of UBE provision, setbacks to quality UBE provision and, IDP wellbeing', discussed under one main theme, 'extent of UBE policy implementation.' These were areas that respondents highlighted, which inferences were drawn from to do justice to shining the light on IDP basic education.

RQ2 was targeted at gaining data that revealed stakeholders' perceptions about the concept of educational quality/effectiveness. It was significant to seek their perceptions because it is believed that this will determine to a large extent how they view the need for quality provision and what they would perceive their contribution to actualising it would be. RQ2 narrowed down to teacher effectiveness in an IDP context due to the critical role teachers play in the quality provision process. In this section, one theme emerged from the coding process which was, 'quality perceptions.' All the stakeholders shared in various ways their perceptions about what they believe quality IDP basic education is. Therefore, RQ2 addressed the quality thread and the effectiveness strand. RQ3, like RQ2 sought responses from stakeholders that addressed the quality thread through the improvement strand. Educational improvement here was focused on mechanisms available to enhance teacher improvement in an IDP context. The theme that emerged under RQ3 was, 'improvement required.' Data collected from stakeholders led to significant findings.

### **6.3 Key Findings and Contributions of this Study**

Key findings are presented in this section according to the threads that run through this thesis in relation to my original contributions discussed in chapter one. Therefore, the findings unravelled the following.

### 6.3.1 Policy:

There is clearly an existing gap between theory and practice of IDP education. This is evident in the lack of accessibility and general deteriorated state of basic education provision in Nigeria. The IDP education/UBE policy is yet to see the light of day as it is still at theory level. Whilst the children (IDPs) desire education, believing it would give them a better future, the lack of government presence to ensure implementation of the UBE policy makes it obvious that IDP education and welfare are not government's primary concern as promised in the policy. Although displacements from terrorist attacks have been ongoing since 2001, there is no practical plan or budget for IDP education, neither is there a system in place for smooth absorption of IDPs into neighbouring schools thus, constituting a major barrier to education accessibility. Although, the policy has been espoused, its enactment is problematic therefore, the policy is not being experienced. Thus, making it a case of non-implementation as Hogwood and Gunn (1984) describe, possibly due to one or both factors, the unwillingness and/or inefficiency of those involved in ensuring implementation or on the other hand, the overwhelming nature of the impediments outweigh their best efforts. From the responses of all the stakeholders however, it is not surprising to tilt towards the former as the reason for the lack of implementation.

The gap between theory and practice despite the increasing contributions of researchers in the field of 'refugee and IDP education' and 'conflict and education', served as a motivation for the researcher to carry out this study. One of the reasons for this gap has been traced to the disproportion in the existing literature between IDPs and refugees especially as it relates to the actual implementation of refugee and IDP education policies. IDPs have been described by Ferris and Winthrop (2010, p11 & 12) as "more vulnerable, less visible, and less protected than refugees." Sadly, IDPs constitute the largest number of displaced persons globally and twice invisible in the global and national data unlike refugees. This assertion can be proved with PM2's interview response stating that the government has no track of the learners (IDPs) who they claim were once resident in IDP camps.

Therefore, the contributions this study purposed to make include bringing to light the existence and plight of IDPs and the level of implementation of UBE policy for IDPs by shinning the light on IDP education policy and practice. This is hoped to assist policy makers in facilitating the construction of practical programmes that will lead to the successful implementation of the UBE. This research has done justice in unveiling the fact that there is indeed a gap between theory and practice, it has revealed that IDP camps exist contrary to what the PMs stated in their interview. The study has gone further to uncover the extent of hardship that the IDPs are subjected to as well as reveal the height of inequality, marginalisation and in most cases, denial of access to basic

education that IDPs suffer. The findings of this study have brought to light government's lip service and hypocrisy towards IDP education despite the praiseworthy policy statements.

### 6.3.2 Quality – Effectiveness:

The findings revealed that UBE provision for IDPs, both in-camp provision and neighbouring school provision are far from being effective for circumstances discussed in the previous chapter. Although, teachers are largely the drivers of quality education, data collected showed that the meagre IDP teachers grapple with being effective. The factors ravaging effectiveness include, non-availability of teachers, inadequately or unqualified teachers, teacher absenteeism, limited teaching infrastructure and poor or no welfare package for teachers. Data collected unveiled a lack of quality, equality, and equity especially in UBE provision for IDPs.

My study also aimed to contribute to academic discussion on education provision in emergencies and post-conflict situations, due to the significance of education as the fourth pillar of humanitarian response (Machel, 2001). Therefore, there is a critical and urgent need for educational response to conflict and displacement. This research has proved the necessity for education in displacement situations to abate or end inaccessibility to UBE during displacements, especially those caused by insurgencies. This is evident in the responses of all the stakeholders, especially the PBs (see previous chapter), who all echoed their need for quality IDP education. An in-depth investigation of IDP situation especially as it relates to basic education provision was carried out in this research with the aim to establish the critical need for education to be given its pre-eminence in emergencies. Findings from research revealed that the IDPs themselves desire to enjoy their fundamental rights in views they shared like, ***“We want to become meaningful people in the society so that we can help poor people who are suffering”*** (C2B/CH4). Whilst CMs, CTs and the IDPs lamented about other needs like food, clothing, accommodation, etc., the children placed more emphasis on their education. This shows that they have an awareness of the significance of schooling and the capacity it has in shaping and giving them a bright future.

Also, in contributing to academic discussion on the provision of UBE, building on existing knowledge and bridging the gap between theory and practice in the field of IDP education. This study revealed the scarcity of literature available on IDP basic education provision, the actual teaching and learning that is provided for IDPs. Basic education is paramount at this stage because the largest population in displaced situations normally consists of children of primary school age, as literature has shown. The researcher found that existing literature cover mostly areas such as, 'Education in emergencies', the need for IDP education etc, studies that border around the actual delivery of basic education.

### 6.3.3 Quality – Improvement:

Investigating the mechanisms available for teacher improvement revealed that educational improvement will only happen when the government takes IDP education/UBE policy seriously, commits to its implementation, as this will naturally make the required tools needed for teachers' effective performance to become top priority.

Another contribution this study aimed to make towards educational improvement was to explore flexible approaches to quality basic education provision for IDPs and provide recommendations for how to practically proceed in situations of educational reconstruction and reforms to create access to sustainable UBE for displaced children. The recommendation section captures ideas and suggestions of approaches that can be adapted to ensure that IDPs access quality UBE considering the uniqueness of every IDP context so that it is not a one size fits all approach. However, based on Hogwood and Gunn's (1984) proposition, it is necessary to probe into what went wrong at the policy implementation stage, clarify reasons why, to ascertain whether it is a case of non-implementation or unsuccessful implementation.

## 6.4 Limitations of Study

This research would have benefitted more from collecting data physically in the actual context of the participants but due to the pandemic, fieldwork was carried out via online. This reduced the depth of data that would have been retrieved from participants especially on occasions where internet connection was poor.

There were challenges during the online fieldwork, these included network failure, and lack of internet access in some cases.

The interviews that were conducted via phone calls, being international calls, cost much.

Some data collection locations became inaccessible due to insurgencies that broke out.

Some gatekeepers refused to give access to the teachers in their camp, on the basis that they were being used for selfish gains, as explained earlier.

Lack of sufficient literature on the actual UBE provision for IDPs, as most of the literature focus on the impact of insurgency on UBE provision or the need for education provision for IDPs.

Observation made by the researcher while conducting the FG interviews was that in both camps, one group of children (FG interview group) did not appear comfortable to share their experiences as such, it was hard to get their candid views. As such, their answers seemed to be mechanical

and in favour of the school. While the other group were open and expressed themselves confidently. This led to contrasting views from children living in the same camp and attending the same school.

## 6.5 Recommendations

Light has been shone on IDP basic education policy and practice, and awareness has come. The findings have drawn attention to the urgent need for government to acknowledge the existence of IDPs purposely and seriously, make their presence visible by responding to the challenges through providing basic education for internally displaced children. To provide accessibility, government will need to restructure the education system to ensure that IDPs are smoothly absorbed into neighbouring schools as soon as displacement happens. In situations where IDPs cannot gain access into mainstream schools, government should ensure that education is provided in the camps. Government needs to prioritise IDP education by consciously planning and providing a budget for their education and welfare. This will include making the effort to have a database of displaced children as this is considered first step and will enhance informed planning, guaranteeing to an extent, universality of education provision. Government/PMs should come up with practical measures of implementing policy declarations and follow up with an evaluation plan to ascertain the extent of success and areas requiring improvement. This is because PMs are responsible for agreeing on and initiating programmes, commissioning these programmes and setting up evaluation techniques as well as, the custodians of the evaluation reports. Evaluation is a key part of the policy cycle because it creates room for timely monitoring of policy to examine progress and possible impediments including, providing both short-term and long-term results of policy implementation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Government should also determine to make UBE education truly completely free as promised in the policy to address educational inequalities.

Another level of ascertaining policy implementation is by PMs giving deep thought at the policy design stage to envisage possible challenges that might be encountered during implementation and in the Nigerian context, examine the causes for the failure of UBE to produce the successful outcome as desired by the initiators of the policy (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984). It has been recommended in the SDGs Legal Framework, the need for the inputs of the legal sector in the development of an all-inclusive education system where every child enjoys their fundamental rights regardless of their socio-economic background (SDGs Legal Framework). Following this, government should conduct research on the displaced children who do not reside in camps, to

find out if they are in school and if not, to ensure that they are absorbed into schools. This will enable universality of the UBE.

Policy practitioners (teachers) should be included in the policy planning and formulation stage as part of their role. This requires giving them the appropriate recognition by allowing them to actively engage in education policies rather than being one of the features utilised in education policies (Kim, and Rouse, 2011). This will give them a sense of ownership and commitment as well as serve as a motivation for teacher effectiveness.

Quality education is a non-negotiable in any education setting therefore, IDPs are also entitled to this benefit. The Nigerian education system must be committed to providing not just mere education but quality education, especially for IDPs. Since teachers are at the heart of quality provision, the education system needs to make available the necessary machinery that will aid teacher effectiveness and improvement, as this will naturally spiral into educational effectiveness and improvement. This can be made possible by government making available infrastructures, nutritional provision, teaching and learning resources, access to national examinations, teacher training specifically for emergency contexts, adequate teachers, child-friendly learning spaces, recreational provision, teacher remuneration, inter alia (as discussed in section 2.8.2). Although, government has a major part to play in the process of ensuring quality provision, teachers who are the practitioners of the policy, working directly with the recipients of the policy, also play a significant role in making quality education a reality. This is because every education system will rise or fall based on the quality of its teachers and their teaching. It begins with the characteristics that make for a good teacher which include, knowledge of significant areas and content, pedagogical skill, ability to self-appraise, empathy and good classroom management skills Fredriksson (2004). Qualities that apply more specifically to teachers in IDP contexts as derived from literature and from CTs and NSTs will include, resilience, commitment, love, patience, trust, enthusiasm, alertness, sense of humour and understanding for the children (Bollnow, 1960; Ryans, 1960) since there are more intangible issues that teachers in this context face.

The peculiarity of IDP settings as compared to mainstream schooling is enormous and makes the teaching content complicated especially as camp life is perceived as very transient. However, literature shows that displacements and camp life are not normally short-lived, all 3 camps involved in this research prove this assertion. As such, it becomes pertinent to consider the curriculum content for IDPs and how it can be delivered with quality as this is what will bring about effectiveness and improvement. Despite teachers' role in ensuring quality and improvement, this cannot be achieved in isolation. The education system must cater for the needs

of the teachers as described above, to boost teacher morale and help to sustain their commitment.

Thus, teachers are to be supported and trained to meet the challenges of teaching in IDP communities. Teachers and other professionals among the IDPs should be identified and supported to join in organising of educational and recreational groups for IDPs. Where applicable and practicable, anticipatory training may be given to such teachers and professionals on the educational tools required. This will serve as help to give the teachers and professionals who are IDPs themselves, a sense of normalcy and serve as a source of livelihood for them.

Due to the uniqueness of every displacement context, it is imperative to organise educational provisions that best suit the setting rather than a one-size-fits-all. Therefore, integration into neighbouring schools will work in some instances while UBE provision will be required in some camps. Vocational and technical trainings should be introduced and provided with quality, as this will create opportunities for IDPs to become self-reliant. Setting up intervention classes to bring the children up to speed with the curriculum is recommended, especially as some of the children have been out of school for a long time.

The findings also draw the attention of NGOs and other bodies to assist/support the provision of UBE for displaced children. The findings also provide palatable information to other researchers who would like to conduct study on IDP/refugee education.

Rebuilding of an education system following conflict displacements is often characterised by an environment marked with high levels of political instability and uncertainty, chronic financing deficits, low levels of capacity and teacher shortages (Barakat et al., 2013). Therefore, government should make the security of the IDPs and their teachers a priority as well as, cater for the welfare of teachers and IDPs to allay their fears and uncertainties. If Rwanda could close the education gap within ten years (Mattina, 2018), Nigeria very well can, as 'the giant' of Africa! It will have to go beyond lip service to a heartfelt, deep commitment on the part of the Nigerian government.

## **6.6 Reflections on the Study Process**

As with all research accounts, this thesis does not reflect all the struggles that occurred prior to the fieldwork and throughout the subsequent research. During the months after the confirmation milestone, the researcher experienced a delay in obtaining ERGO and Data Protection approvals. The covid-19 pandemic had a huge impact on the researcher's fieldwork due to the global

lockdown. This resulted to a 10-month delay as participants were not accessible as well as risks and restrictions on international travels. The ripple effect of this was that the methodology proposed for fieldwork was impacted and this compelled the researcher to redesign the project to enable carrying out the fieldwork via online and phone interviews for locations that lacked internet access and smart phones. The fieldwork started in mid-May to the end of July 2021 however, unavoidable changes occurred during the data collection period. Jos, Plateau State (IDP camps) was the initial case study of this research, but due to insurgencies that broke out, the researcher was compelled to continue data collection in other parts of the country which were considered safer. These were, FCT Abuja, Adamawa State including a part of Plateau State.

Although, online fieldwork enabled a wider coverage, it came with some challenges. All the participants did not have an idea about Microsoft Teams as zoom is more popular so, interviews for those with internet access was carried out via zoom and by phone call for those who did not have internet or smart phones. There were internet connectivity issues which disrupted the some of the interviews. The lack of internet was the reason why consent and assent were given verbally at the start of the interviews.

The data collection process recorded reasonable progress, out of the proposed sample of 2 PMs, 3 CMs, 6 CTs, 6 NSTs, 30 IDP (children) and 3 classroom observations, only the following were achieved. Individual interviews of 2 PMs, 3 CMs, 3 CTs, 2 NSTs, focus group interviews for 20 IDPs (children) and 1 classroom observation. It was challenging recruiting some participants, it seemed that due to the researcher's inability to be physically present, made it hard for the gatekeepers/ participants to accept or have the required commitment to connect the researcher with others (potential participants). Classroom observations proved quite challenging hence, the reason for the success of only 1 observation. The reasons for this include the children who attend neighbouring schools, are spread across different schools and in most cases, the lack of internet access as well as laptop/smartphone posed as barriers. In Borno State for instance, access was given to an IDP camp for the researcher to conduct focus group interviews for the children, but this sadly failed due to the reasons mentioned. The fieldwork became slow-moving at a point because of other challenges that arose from gatekeepers not willing to give access due to their impression about being used only for the purpose of researchers' gains as explained in section 4.1. This presented another level of inequality where the researcher ends up acquiring a PhD from the research while the participants remain in the same situation. CM3 for example, was initially hesitant to grant an interview and although he/she finally did, he/she refused to give access to the camp teachers and children. The purpose of this research was however, made very clear to the gatekeepers and no promises were made to address their plight despite their persistent plea to the researcher to get government intervention.

Some of the interviews became emotional as the participants broke down while lamenting about their plight. This touched the researcher who had to summon the courage to continue the interview when the participant had calmed down. However, every camp that participated received either bags of raw food and/or money as a token of appreciation and to make the participants know that the researcher identifies with their pain.

As stated above, there were situations where the researcher was put in a corner to make a promise to send them help. The participants pleaded for assistance, asking the researcher to speak to the government and other bodies to come to their aid. The researcher did not make any promises but reminded them that the essence of the research is to offer recommendations to the government and hope for a change.

## **6.7 Implications for Future**

The findings and conclusions from this thesis present several implications for future research. Due to inadequate literature on IDP education, further research is required to examine the basic education provision for children residing in IDP camps and displaced children outside the IDP camps.

There is a gap in literature of basic education provision. There is none thus far that addresses the extent of education provision, only those that address the need for IDP education or the effects of displacement/terrorism on basic education. Therefore, this thesis opens discussions for further research on the actual teaching and learning, the day-to-day experience of IDPs.

My focus on the teacher as a significant agent of quality education provision will also benefit from further research, focusing on teacher effectiveness in an IDP context.

The IDP education policy and how it still appears not to have taken off from theory level to practice is an area worth investigating. Perhaps, the findings from this investigation will open channels for improvement and accessibility.

Another area that will be worth researching is the impact of IDP camps on the IDPs, this will be to examine if the camps help to improve the IDP situation or worsen it.

NGO's play a key role in providing relief and education for IDPs, usually at the grassroots level, having direct contact with the IDPs. Therefore, this is an area that will benefit from future research to understand the concept of IDP education from that perspective.

While this work focuses on the experiences of Nigerian IDPs, it has relevance theoretically and practically not only for children in conflict-affected nation-states but also for children experiencing more localised conflict, social instability, and lack of equal educational opportunities who similarly struggle to chart pathways to educational success (Dryden-Peterson, 2017).

## 6.8 Conclusions

In conclusion, the goal of this research was to contribute to bringing an awareness of the need to provide access and improved education for displaced children who constitute the most marginalised group of children in Nigeria and the world. Education in displacement contexts assumes a two-dimensional role, it is considered the fourth pillar of humanitarian relief and has the function of bringing about development. This can be made possible if intervention that addresses basic education needs is employed promptly.

For education to be an effective tool of transformation, government must be determined to throw its weight on the education system to ensure that all educational projects are implemented (Tsafe, 2013). However, for any education system to thrive, peace and tranquillity are required as this is necessary remedy for successful teaching and learning, to allow IDPs enjoy their fundamental rights according to policy declarations.

Political commitment is a requisite factor that will bring about advancement of education and learning goals that will enhance the successful implementation of educational policies globally and nationally, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. Back to the question, who protects the rights of IDPs in Nigeria? The Nigerian government must be committed to UBE education by ensuring that the policy cycle is complete particularly for IDPs. Quality education provision should be at the heart of the implementation process therefore, the factors that facilitate effectiveness should take centre place in the education system. Investing in the mechanisms that improve teacher effectiveness in IDP contexts will be worthwhile since teachers play a critical role in the education process as the policy practitioners. Government's commitment will aid the filling of the theory-practice gap and enable the rebuilding of education systems from a knowledge base which will result in education effectiveness and improvement. Attention also needs to be paid to the quality and relevance of UBE education offered in IDP context since it is identified as having a marked effect on the ability of children to benefit from later educational opportunity, foster a sense of normalcy and provide for a meaningful future. Much as providing education for IDPs appears onerous due to overwhelming obstacles, it is not impossible to

## Chapter 6

achieve. This is because, where there is a will, there will always be a way and it may look impossible, until it is done.

## Appendix A Ethics Approval

ERGO II – Ethics and Research Governance

Online <https://www.ergo2.soton.ac.uk>

Submission ID: 61289

Submission Title: Quality Basic Education for Internally Displaced Children in IDP Camps: A Case study of IDP Camps in Jos, Nigeria

Submitter Name: Vivienne Rwang

Your submission has now been approved by the Faculty Ethics Committee. You can begin your research unless you are still awaiting any other reviews or conditions of your approval.

Comments:

- Good luck with your interesting research!
- [Click here to view the submission](#)

*Tid: 23011\_Email\_to\_submitter\_\_Approval\_from\_Faculty\_Ethics\_committee\_\_cat\_B\_\_C\_Id: 340644*

*vkr1g14@soton.ac.uk coordinator*



## Appendix B Data Protection Approval

Vivienne - Happy for you to proceed. But you will need to do a bit more work on the DPIA form to complete the review process. While I wasn't in attendance at the Panel meeting last Thursday to discuss your form (a work emergency drew me away), there were some comments for addressing. None of these comments (by nature) stop you proceeding in my opinion (i.e. they are clarificatory in nature, rather than requiring you to change your project design), but the sooner you can provide answers, the better:

### Panel comments

In general, the Panel is happy with the personal data processing aspects of your project. However, they would like you form (i.e., the record of the data flows – which is independent from your ethics forms) to be clearer. In particular, it needs to be clear what data you will collect, how the data will be stored, how the data will be transferred, and when they will be destroyed.

I can make suggestions for how you can amend your form to the more legal questions (e.g. the section on international data transfers), but please can you provide comments on the following:

1. Fieldnotes include very detailed information –
  - a) where are the fieldnotes (paper, electronic) stored?
  - b) Are the notes that have been typed up destroyed?
  - c) At what point are the notes anonymised?
2. Zoom used for the interviews –
  - a) What not use Microsoft Teams as the data are stored directly on University servers?
  - b) How long are the recordings kept?
  - c) When are they deleted?
3. Who is transcribing the interviewees?
4. How is data transferred (for example, from Zoom to Microsoft OneDrive on University servers)?
5. Clarify how long the data is stored (demonstrate that you understood the university guidelines) (distinguish between storage of recordings, fieldnotes and transcriptions)

Some of the answers may be succinctly answered by creating a data flow diagram. But written answers – as best as you can - also fine in response to this email.

## Appendix C Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet for Camp Manager

Study Title: Quality Basic Education for Internally Displaced Children in IDP Camps: A Case study of IDP Camps in Jos, Nigeria

**Researcher:** Vivienne Kachollom Rwang

**ERGO number:** 61289

You are being invited to take part in the above research study. To help you decide whether you would like to take part or not, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please read the information below carefully and ask questions if anything is not clear or you would like more information before you decide to take part in this research. You may like to discuss it with others, but it is up to you to decide whether to take part. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

### **What is the research about?**

This research focuses on IDP basic education policy and its practice in IDP camps. It is set to shine the light on the level of IDP basic education policy implementation as well as, investigate possible strategies for the provision of quality Universal Basic Education for displaced children who now reside in IDP camps. The research focuses on basic education because of its significance as the fundamental, rudimentary and foundation level of education. Much as this is a crucial stage in education, protracted conflicts have adversely affected the provision of education thereby constituting a barrier to education equitability. These persistent and widespread disparities that exist particularly with disadvantaged and vulnerable children form the basis for this research.

I am a Postgraduate research student at the University of Southampton, United Kingdom. This research forms a part of my project which is towards achieving a Doctoral Degree qualification. I am particularly interested in investigating the level of UBE provision in IDP camps comparing it with policy statements on IDP education.

### **Why have I been asked to participate?**

You have been asked to participate in this study for two reasons. Firstly, to be interviewed because of your role as a Camp Manager and carer of displaced children, which puts you in the capacity to provide useful data about their basic education provision in the camp. The interview

will be arranged at your convenience and held in your office lasting 45 minutes and it shall be held only once. Secondly, as gate keeper in the camp, to request your permission to grant access to interview and conduct classroom observations with some of the children (8 – 11-year olds) about UBE implementation in the Camp. This information is the basis for my research. This research will be carried out in a total of 3 camps and similar data will be collected from the Camp Managers of each camp.

If permission is granted and the assent of the children received, Ten children in your camp will also be approached to be participants in this research through focus group interviews because as children living in the IDP camp and main (expected) beneficiaries of the UBE scheme, it is hoped that they are in the position to offer useful data for the success of this research work. The focus group interview will take place in 2 batches which will consist of 5 children in each group. Some of the children will be required to be part of 16 members of a class along with their teacher, who will be observed during your normal classroom lesson period. Both focus group interviews and observations will be arranged at their convenience and will be held in the camp. The focus group interview will last about one hour while the observations will last 45 minutes, and it will be done only once; it should not have any negative effect on the children.

#### **What will happen to me if I take part?**

If you give your consent to be interviewed, it will be arranged at your convenience and will be held in your office or at a quiet place of your choice. The interview will last about 45 minutes and it is a one off. The interview will be conducted by the researcher via zoom video call and will be recorded to be transcribed with a high level of accuracy.

If you give your consent for 10 children to take part in a focus group interview as well as observations of a classroom setting, it will be arranged at the children's convenience and will be held in the camp where you live. The focus group interview and observations will be conducted by the researcher over zoom video call (it will be video, and audio recorded) but the equipment and set up for the interview will be carried out by a staff of Stalwart Communities; The focus group interview will involve a total of 10 children who will be interviewed in 2 groups of 5 children each. The observations will take place in one selected classroom and will take place during a normal classroom lesson period (Ages 8 -11 years) and should last 45 minutes. The focus group interview and observations will be video, and audio recorded in order to be transcribed with a high level of accuracy.

#### **Are there any benefits in my taking part?**

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I hope that you will find taking part an interesting experience. Due to the nature of the research, which is to shine the light on IDP education policy and practice, the research will bring to light the realities about the current state of UBE provision in the camps. Although this research is primarily for educational study, the researcher plans to share the findings with the Universal Basic Education Board (UBEB - Policy makers), so as to bring to light the current situation of IDP basic education, with the hope to spur the policy makers to see the need for improvement mechanisms to be put in place where necessary. The results will hopefully give policy makers a better understanding of IDP situation especially as it relates to the provision of basic education in the camps. It will create an awareness of the expectations and standards for basic education provision. It will also suggest alternative strategies that quality basic education can be provided for IDPs especially where formal education or schools are not available.

There is very little research that investigates IDP education policy and practice, therefore it is hoped with this research; valuable insights will be gained on how to further improve the provision of quality UBE for IDPs.

The selected children will be rewarded with snacks and drinks and the art materials used will be donated to the IDP camps.

### **Are there any risks involved?**

There are no real risks involved for you or the children in taking part in this study. You or the children will not be obliged to talk about any experiences you feel uncomfortable discussing or find distressing.

### **What data will be collected?**

This research takes a qualitative approach, therefore the data that will be collected from you will be a one-to-one interview with you and a focus group interview with the children. The interview is intended at eliciting information from your experience as a Camp Manager and from the children, as direct recipients of the UBE. The interviews will be conducted by the researcher (me) via zoom video call however, a staff of Stalwart Communities will assist with the equipment set up.

Direct observations will be carried out as another source of evidence for my research. This will take place in the camp and will be an opportunity to gain more substantial information relating to the topic and shed more light on possible answers to the research questions. The focus is to observe a classroom environment, teaching and learning to assess the quality of UBE provision in the camp. This will be a 45-minute observation of one selected classroom of children between ages 8-11 years in each camp. This will be your normal classroom setting but will have one of the

teachers taking part in the interview. The observations will be carried out by the researcher via zoom video call but the tablet device used for the zoom will be handled by the staff of Stalwart Communities.

Confidentiality is very important in this project. Participants' identity will not be disclosed as well as names of the camps. The raw recordings will first be transcribed, and any documents will be stored on a computer which will be password protected so that it cannot be accessed by anyone else. In any written documents your name and the names of anyone else you mention will be changed, as will any other details by which you could be identified. Information will be kept safe in line with UK laws (the Data Protection Act) and University of Southampton policy.

The research data will not be shared outside of the researcher and supervisor. All transcriptions will be done by the researcher. Findings from the research will be shared with the academic community and written up for my dissertation study.

#### **Will my participation be confidential?**

Your participation and the information the researcher will collect about you during the research will be kept strictly confidential.

Only members of the research team of the University of Southampton may be given access to data about you for monitoring purposes and/or to carry out an audit of the study to ensure that the research is complying with applicable regulations. Individuals from regulatory authorities (people who check that we are carrying out the study correctly) may require access to your data. All these people have a duty to keep your information, as a research participant, strictly confidential.

A staff of Stalwart Communities will assist in setting up the interview equipment i.e. tablet and phone for zoom interviews and observations in the camp

#### **Do I have to take part?**

No, it is entirely up to you to decide whether to take part. If you decide you want to take part, you will need to sign a consent form to show you have agreed to take part.

#### **What happens if I change my mind?**

You have the right to change your mind and withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without your participant rights being affected. However, there is a time limit for when you can withdraw your consent after which you cannot withdraw from the study. This will be after data has been collected and submission of the thesis, when the information already gained has been

## Appendix C

used for the purposes of achieving the objectives of the study. You will be given about 2 days to decide whether to take part. I will take time to explain the forms and answer any questions that may arise.

### **What will happen to the results of the research?**

Your personal details will remain strictly confidential. Research findings made available in any reports or publications will not include information that can directly identify you without your specific consent.

The project will be written up into a Doctoral Thesis. This anonymised research data will be made available for future research projects and will be stored for a minimum of 10 years for staff and postgraduate research students as per University of Southampton policy. This can be longer if required by funder or statutory obligation.

### **Where can I get more information?**

You can get more information by sending an email to this address: [vkr1g14@soton.ac.uk](mailto:vkr1g14@soton.ac.uk)

### **What happens if there is a problem?**

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should speak to the researchers who will do their best to answer your questions.

If you remain unhappy or have a complaint about any aspect of this study, please contact the University of Southampton Research Integrity and Governance Manager (023 8059 5058, [rgoinfo@soton.ac.uk](mailto:rgoinfo@soton.ac.uk)).

### **Data Protection Privacy Notice**

The University of Southampton conducts research to the highest standards of research integrity. As a publicly funded organisation, the University has to ensure that it is in the public interest when we use personally identifiable information about people who have agreed to take part in research. This means that when you agree to take part in a research study, we will use information about you in the ways needed, and for the purposes specified, to conduct and complete the research project. Under data protection law, 'Personal data' means any information that relates to and is capable of identifying a living individual. The University's data protection policy governing the use of personal data by the University can be found on its website (<https://www.southampton.ac.uk/legalservices/what-we-do/data-protection-and-foi.page>).

This Participant Information Sheet tells you what data will be collected for this project and whether this includes any personal data. Please ask the research team if you have any questions or are unclear what data is being collected about you.

Our privacy notice for research participants provides more information on how the University of Southampton collects and uses your personal data when you take part in one of our research projects and can be found at

<http://www.southampton.ac.uk/assets/sharepoint/intranet/Is/Public/Research%20and%20Integrity%20Privacy%20Notice/Privacy%20Notice%20for%20Research%20Participants.pdf>

Any personal data we collect in this study will be used only for the purposes of carrying out our research and will be handled according to the University's policies in line with data protection law. If any personal data is used from which you can be identified directly, it will not be disclosed to anyone else without your consent unless the University of Southampton is required by law to disclose it.

Data protection law requires us to have a valid legal reason ('lawful basis') to process and use your Personal data. The lawful basis for processing personal information in this research study is for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest. Personal data collected for research will not be used for any other purpose.

For the purposes of data protection law, the University of Southampton is the 'Data Controller' for this study, which means that we are responsible for looking after your information and using it properly. The University of Southampton will keep identifiable information about you for 10 years after the study has finished after which time any link between you and your information will be removed.

To safeguard your rights, we will use the minimum personal data necessary to achieve our research study objectives. Your data protection rights – such as to access, change, or transfer such information - may be limited, however, in order for the research output to be reliable and accurate. The University will not do anything with your personal data that you would not reasonably expect.

If you have any questions about how your personal data is used, or wish to exercise any of your rights, please consult the University's data protection webpage (<https://www.southampton.ac.uk/legalservices/what-we-do/data-protection-and-foi.page>) where you can make a request using our online form. If you need further assistance, please contact the University's Data Protection Officer ([data.protection@soton.ac.uk](mailto:data.protection@soton.ac.uk)).

## Appendix C

Thank you for taking the time to read the information sheet and considering taking part in the research.

# Appendix D Consent Form

## CHILDREN'S ASSENT FORM

**Child's Name:** .....

**Study title:** Quality Basic Education for Internally Displaced Children in IDP Camps: A Case study of IDP Camps in Jos, Nigeria

**Researcher name:** Vivienne Kachollom Rwang

**Ethics reference number:** 61289

**Instruction:** Circle the happy face if your answer is YES, Circle the sad face if your answer is NO

I know why we are having this  
(conversation/observation)



I am happy to take part in this  
(conversation/observation)



I understand that my name won't be used



I want to be included in this  
(conversation/observations)



My initials .....



## **Appendix E Teachers' Interview Schedule**

1. Introduction
2. Confirm that the PIS clearly is understood, and consent form signed
3. How long have you been in the teaching profession?
4. What teaching qualification do you possess?
5. Have you had the experience of teaching children in IDP camps before?
6. If yes, what was your experience?
7. What curriculum do you use in teaching?
8. How enabling is the camp/school environment for the children to learn?
9. Are resources available for teaching and learning?
10. Do you think you possess the qualification to teach displaced children?
11. What are the challenges you encounter in teaching these children?
12. Based on your experience, how would you rate teaching IDPs as compared to teaching in a regular school?
13. Do you think that IDP children need more than academic provision? Please explain.
14. How do you perceive quality UBE in an IDP context?
15. Does the above perception match your current reality?
16. From your experience, do you think you have been adequately supported to be effective?
17. What areas do you think you need improvement to be effective?
18. If yes, what are those areas?
19. If no, why do you think you do not need improvement?
20. Do you organize extracurricular activities for the children? Please give examples.
21. Is there anything else about your experience with the displaced children that you will want to share?

Thank you for your time.

## **Appendix F FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

### **ACTIVITY ONE – 10 minutes**

Start: Introductions

Going through the PIS to ensure children understand

Explaining the assent form and giving the children 5 minutes to circle their choices

Ice breaker game (Identify the sound)

### **ACTIVITY TWO – 15 minutes**

Setting ground rules so that children understand the need to wait their turn

Pictures of a typical school day/setting will be shown to the children to prompt talk/engagement

8. Have you been to school before?
9. Do you enjoy going to school?
10. Why do you enjoy going to school?
11. Do you think you have to go to school?
12. Why?
13. What do you think might happen to you if you don't go to school?
14. Do you attend school here in the camp?

### **ACTIVITY THREE - 15 minutes**

Singing some school songs by prompting the children to suggest songs.

6. How often do you go to class?
7. Do you have teachers coming to teach you?
8. How do you feel about your teachers?
9. Do you have resources to use in your learning? What are the resources you have?
10. What do you think about your education in the camp?

### **ACTIVITY FOUR - 20 minutes**

Artwork - Children will draw pictures of their ideal school

Read Story - The Fish who could Wish

This is to elicit further information from the children about their schooling and improvement they would like to see.

## **Appendix G      OBSERVATION SCHEDULE**

### **OBSERVATION SCHEDULE**

**Location:** IDP Camp

**Date:** To be arranged

**Time:** To be arranged

**Persons to be observed:** IDP camp teacher and children in a classroom setting.

## **FOCUS AREAS FOR OBSERVATION**

1. Researcher's initial impression of the class
2. Teacher's delivery/instructional strategy
3. Pedagogical content knowledge
4. The environment – is it enabling?
5. Availability of teaching and learning resources
6. Children's engagement and enthusiasm during the lesson
7. Children's behavior
8. Teacher's relationship with the children
9. Lesson outcomes

## **Appendix H      Policy Maker 1 Transcript**

17/05/2021

**Vivienne:** Good afternoon, it is nice to talk with you. My name is Vivienne Kachollom Rwang, a PhD student at the university of Southampton. I am in the Education school and my thesis is on Quality Basic Education provision for IDPs resident in IDP camps. My focus is the children between the ages 5/6-11, that is why I reached out to you. Can you please confirm that you read and understood the PIS and the consent form sent to you?

**PM 1:** Yes

**Vivienne:** The first question I want to ask is, what your role is in SUBEB.

**PM 1:** First of all, I am VO, Director of primary education under Plateau State Basic Education Board. The department is solemnly concerned with basic education, the establishment and maintenance of schools in all the public primary schools we have including the ECC, Early Child Care education, is under my watch. And these schools, enrolment of pupils, not just enrolment, we make sure we ...them up to completion -nursery to JS3.

**Vivienne:** How would you describe the success rate of the UBE generally?

**PM 1:** UBE...the rate of performance, I think I will grade it 95%. UBE has been contributing very well to the establishment, development and upgrading of schools. Presently, they have given us some grant which schools are under construction, projects are on now...constructions, renovations...not just classrooms but also toilet facilities and water sources. All those ones we are

able to assess it because the governor of Plateau State was able to pay the counterpart fund and we have accessed it and are using it.

**Vivienne:** Having said that, what do you think is the extent of IDP education policy implementation? Because I know that there's a policy for IDP education. So, I want to know, how would you assess the implementation of that policy?

**PM 1:** The IDP programme, the implementation stepped up more because of the crisis we are facing in Nigeria now. We need to have a better sound standing so that at the grassroots so that ...

**Vivienne:** Alright, thank you for that. How many IDP camps are in the State?

**PM 1:** Presently we have ah...the local governments that are affected, we have 17 local governments in Plateau State and those local governments that are badly affected are 6. We have Bassa, Barkin Ladi, Riyom, Bokkos and Mangu. In these local governments we have schools that were badly affected. As at the time I am speaking to you now, some schools have not even been opened. For Bassa local government...eh...20 schools are affected, was closed down. Riyom, we have 10, Barkin Ladi 20, Bassa 6, Bokkos 5, Jos north and Mangu one, one each.

**Vivienne:** OK, so for how long has this been existing? The camps, do you have an idea?

**PM 1:** (silence)...yes since 2018

**Vivienne:** Since 2018?

**PM 1:** 2018

**Vivienne:** Within these IDP camps, what would you say is the percentage of children that exist there? Like children within this age bracket that I mentioned earlier, the primary school age. What would you say roughly is the percentage of the children amongst that population?

**PM 1:** Up to 65%

**Vivienne:** So, which means those primary age children form the larger population of the IDPs then?

**PM 1:** Yes

**Vivienne:** Wow, that's interesting. So, is there any education provision for these children in the camps?

**PM 1:** Yes, ...the board in her initiative, seeing to the plight of the learners at the IDP camps, a 7-man committee was set up about 2018. This committee went, they visited the camps...of the

learners and thereafter, we have volunteer teachers. We have about 126 volunteer teachers who were teaching in those camps and we have also guidance counselors, they assist in counselling the learners across the IDP camps. But we also provide instructional materials, registers, textbooks, exercise books, whatever to assist them in teaching and learning.

**Vivienne:** So that means there is school going on inside the IDP camps? Is that what it means?

**PM 1:** Yes, but not now

**Vivienne:** OK, how long ago was it happening? Was it in that 2018 that it was happening?

**PM 1:** Yes, 2018

**Vivienne:** So, do you have an idea when it stopped happening?

**PM 1:** Around early 2020

**Vivienne:** OK, so what was the cause, was it the covid or what was the cause?

**PM 1:** The situation was ok, the State government made provisions in their various communities and they were able to go back to their various communities.

**Vivienne:** OK, so what you are saying now is that they have now gone back to their various communities?

**PM 1:** Yes

**Vivienne:** So, they go to school? Does it mean that there is no IDP camp existing, or they go to school and return to the IDP camp?

**PM 1:** They have gone back to their various communities, so there is no IDP camps now.

**Vivienne:** OK, so does it apply to all the local government you mentioned that were affected? All the camps have been closed and there is no camp anymore?

**PM 1:** Yes, no camp

**Vivienne:** OK, children have all gone back to their communities?

**PM 1:** Yes, but as I told you earlier, that there are schools that have been closed down, those villages are no go areas. They moved to the nearby schools.

**Vivienne:** Will nearby school be schools in another community or school in another area?

**PM 1:** Yes

**Vivienne:** Wow! I can imagine how there will be loads of children...ehmmm

**PM 1:** Overpopulation!

**Vivienne:** Yes overpopulation, but do you people keep track of children who were in IDP camps and moved back to their communities and couldn't stay and moved to another community? Do you have any track of those kinds of children?

**PM 1:** Well for now, we only have the names of the villages, the names of the communities but we don't have the track of the learners.

**Vivienne:** I was going to ask you a question before that ehm...when they were in the camps, was there anytime that they were given the opportunity to go to a neighbouring school? Assuming there is a school just around the camp. Has that happened before, where children in the IDP camps can go to school and come back to the IDP camp? I don't know if that has happened.

**PM 1:** Yes, it happens.

**Vivienne:** Alright, I am looking at my questions and I don't need to ask you some because you have already said yes to some. So, for those times that schools were happening in the camps, in that 2018, how often was it happening? Was like a normal school routine/day? Or were period of times arranged to have some kind of educational provision i.e., lessons.

**PM 1:** Yes, Yes, the teachers organized lessons for them. It's not a full recommended, established school but an assistance to enable them to learn something while they...operate in the morning just like the normal school period/time, thereafter, they will relax and sometimes in the evening, they go back gain to refresh them.

**Vivienne:** For those ones who will normally go to school outside the camp, like what I said a while ago, those that will go to nearby schools, are you aware if they were consistent in going to school or they just went haphazardly?

**PM 1:** No, they were consistent, because some of them were matured enough, maybe classes 4, 5 and 6, will trek to the nearby schools and come back.

**Vivienne:** With the experience of trying to provide education for them in 2018, was it every child that benefitted from it or the focus was more on particular groups of children?

**PM 1:** We focused on all the children that were in the camp, those of the learning age, we catered for them.

**Vivienne:** You have embedded some of the answers in the questions you answered, so I don't want to repeat some of the questions. But did you ever give alternative education like maybe, skill acquisition and some of those things. Did you make provision for things like that, or it was just academic work that the teachers provided?

**PM 1:** It was just academic work and counselling.

**Vivienne:** What informed the counselling if I may ask?

**PM 1:** Some of them were traumatic and that calls for the counsellors to calm them down because that is not the end of life. To see that peace is very important...we find it necessary to calm their nerves down.

**Vivienne:** Would you say that even while learning in the IDP camp, that the environment was conducive, did they have enough resources? Because I remember that you mentioned that they were given textbooks and all of that. Would you say that it was enough to go around the children? Was it available for the children?

**PM 1:** No, our own was just an intervention, to make sure they continue with their education. You know how congested the camp is, it is so congested that...anyway, it's not a place that you can call a formal school area whereby effective teaching and learning will happen, we just manage it to ensure life continues.

**Vivienne:** So, I just want to ask now because you have spoken about teachers and volunteers, how available are these volunteers? From your experience, is it easy getting people to volunteer their services to teach in the camp?

**PM 1:** It's not easy but the people, some of them were teachers who were in the areas or communities affected. Some of them are people from the nearby communities who were not affected and they felt there was a need to assist the learners because they will miss a lot if they do not intervene. They volunteered and submitted themselves. (Network problem) ...it wasn't easy for them to render such assistance.

**Vivienne:** I am interested in knowing the level of...well you said that they were teachers who were already working in the communities and so they offered themselves to help. I was going to ask how qualified they are, the teachers.

**PM 1:** Oh no, they were qualified teachers, not just anybody apart from teachers we have, anyone who wants to come and render such assistance, we make sure they are qualified persons.

**Vivienne:** But then the question I want to ask you sir, do you think that regular teaching qualification is enough to teach IDPs? Like you get your N.C. E, B.Ed. or college of Education. Do you think that is enough qualification to teach IDPs?

**PM 1:** No, it was in point of emergency, but in a normal cause of emergency but people with Master's can go into teaching in the primary school level, that will be very helpful. It will add a lot of value to the educational standard...and above.

**Vivienne:** Actually, where I'm going to is, you know you mentioned that you had counsellors and talked about how traumatized the children were and all of that. So, I'm asking from that point of view that if somebody just goes to university to study N.C.E or college of Education and they come out with that teacher qualification that we know, I have it as well. Is that enough to actually meet the needs of these IDPs? Because I think from what you have said, they are traumatized and so on and so forth. Do you think that they teachers need some kind of expertise to be able to really perform effectively? I'm not only referring to the past now but going forward because we have not seen the end of the crises yet. We keep praying and trusting that things will change.

**PM 1:** Yes, in fact, especially like the education in emergency programme. That needs to step up very well in Nigeria so that when such thing occurs again then we should be able to manage it. You know from past experience, we just rushed into it because we saw that our people were being saved and were being attended to. But it's good to have it as a genuine plan that will come under such programmes so that we can come against such happenings in Nigeria. A programme like education in emergency, that curriculum should be established and eh...and teachers should go into learning it very well.

**Vivienne:** You have said something that interests me, 'education in emergencies', so if you were going to give the course outline, what will be the topics that you think teachers should be taught so that they have this expertise that will meet the needs of this IDPs?

**PM 1:** Yeah, I think I courses like there should be the psychological aspect of life. Then apart from the psychological aspect of life, they should plan to have programmes such as skills too, other skills acquisitions to be involved apart from the normal curriculum of the school. The skill be included and the psychological aspect considered, so that teachers should be trained within these areas, so that they should be able to handle such cases.

**Vivienne:** That is actually where my thesis is heading to, it's like it happened with covid. During the first lockdown, people didn't quite know what to do but they were better prepared during the second lockdown. Having said that, is there any plan to train the teachers? You are part of the

policy makers, so I am asking whether there is such a plan because you have made a wonderful suggestion here.

**PM 1:** Yes, there's a plan for it to be inculcated in the education programme at all levels of training, N.C.E and above'.

**Vivienne:** I know that it is not entirely in your power, but if we were to project and to say when this will begin to be implemented, the teacher training, when do you think it will start?

**PM 1:** I don't have the capacity to guess as to when such thing will happen. Giving it a time frame, should be from 5 years it should be okay.

**Vivienne:** Okay, so you think that by 5 years it should have started?

**PM 1:** Yes

**Vivienne:** Okay, we are hoping that it will happen.

**PM 1:** Amen.

**Vivienne:** Do you think that IDP children need more than academic provision?

**PM 1:** Yes, you know change of environment affects one's life, so by leaving the comfort of their homes to come and settle where they didn't plan for it, is not easy. So, a lot of things have to be put together so that if anything of such, they should be given a good conducive learning environment. But the IDP is not a place one can recommend for effective teaching, talk less of normal life which eh...they are being overcrowded in an environment, the hygienic level is not there, the social amenities are not there. The environment in the camp is not something one should imagine to be there.

**Vivienne:** Wow! So, it means it's now looking like a hopeless situation?

**PM 1:** Yeah, we need to step up a lot of things. If government can afford to create camps or places that if such should occur, let's have a place to camp or accommodate these people. Let's have it at the back of our minds that, let's prepare that if such thing should repeat itself. There should be people to take care of them. But you cannot imagine yourself all of a sudden something happens, and you have no place to go to except the camp. You are not even secure in the camp, so how do you think people will cope, automatically it will just take the grace of God.

**Vivienne:** I should have asked this from the beginning, are the IDP camps you mentioned all government owned IDP camps or people just gathered themselves in one place and then the government reached out to them?

**PM 1:** Yes, they gathered...some of them were some philanthropists, some people donated their houses, some are churches gave up their environment where their members and non-members, people within their community just rushed in there to have life continue.

**Vivienne:** And how do those camp leaders emerge?

**PM 1:** From the members/community, those that are within the camp. You know in every situation; you will have a leader who can stand for you.

**Vivienne:** Thank you very much, you have given me very useful information. What will you say your perception is about quality basic education in an IDP context? How will you describe/define quality basic education in an IDP context?

**PM 1:** First of all, that has to be enshrined in the curriculum, when it is enshrined in the curriculum, then it will be that if a camp emerges, then we need to have the teachers, trained teachers specifically for situations like that, have the resources to prepare for this people. Then the environment too, I mean a place should be provided. When it is enshrined in the curriculum and when we have the teachers that are trained specifically to handle such kids then if it happens, it is a matter of taking them...hey you...1...2, go to this camp, you go to that camp. When they appear, the materials are there for them to teach the learners. It will make life continuous, there will be no breakage. Government should ensure that education in emergency is established and enforced to a certain level so that we can have teachers that are trained under such programmes. We should have the resources on ground incase of any happenings, so that if we have those things on ground, it means we are assuming that in future something might occur again. So, we work on if it occurs, we have people on ground to take care of them. Just like someone going into marriage, you plan your life, how many children am I going to have? 5 children. How am I going to take care of them? You need to plan for them. So, the stakeholders in education, in the house of Assembly should make sure the constitution involves this in the local level and the State level, so also the federal level. But you know, this is an area where we need to plan. Sometimes we have the plan quite alright but the implementation matters.

**Vivienne:** It just reminded me about the initial thing you said that resources were taken but they were not enough for the children. What was the reason, what was responsible for the insufficiency?

**PM 1:** According to the capacity of the persons. Actually, as I mentioned earlier, we didn't plan for it so it's not there in the budget. Yes, it wasn't there in the budget. But as it emerges, we had cut one or two things to put one or two together to make sure that we help.

**Vivienne:** That's interesting. So, what would you say is the impact of displacement and all you have said on the children's education?

**PM 1:** One, the breakage in the learning process; two, the change of environment and three, these people... they are you know, some of them are used to their teachers and now that it is not the same people coming to teach them, they will find it difficult to get used to them. Life in the IDP camps, learners find it difficult to cope. It's just the grace of God that some of them are able to catch up, it is not good to talk about, they are our children so let us find something for them. But the impact is much despite our intervention, more needs to be done.

**Vivienne:** So, what would you say, if this carries on like this, what would you say the future will look like?

**PM 1:** A country without stable educational programme or stable educational standard, that country is bound to face problems. Assuming you are in an IDP camp, maybe you were supposed to write your final exams, and all of a sudden, this thing happens, failure to write your exam means maybe you will repeat. Some of them, that will change their attitude towards learning and go into other vices of which will affect the community. That is what is happening now. Most of them are dropouts, they prefer not to continue with education again because 'let me just learn one or two skills and make up my life'. But in a normal school programme, (network problem) from nursery to JS3 you will continue in life. But when there's a break, frankly it will only take the grace of God to make you go back again. The parents may not afford, who are looking for food to eat, they cannot afford to buy books, exercise books, pencils except otherwise. You are not in your environment, your comfort zone. You go out and labour for somebody to give you money to come and meet the demands of your children, you are being caged somewhere. So. It's very sympathetic.

**Vivienne:** It takes me back again to what you said initially that the UBE has recorded 95% success and I know universal basic education means providing education for every school age child, compulsory free education. So if we have such a number of children, we can't even follow up to know, I don't think schools can admit more than they have the capacity to. Would we now still say that we have 95% success rate?

**PM 1:** Yeah, the 95% rate that I mentioned earlier, you know if you consider when the State government, like Plateau State particularly, the Executive Governor was able to pay his counterpart to UBEC, then UBEC now sent the funds to...but judicious use of the funds in seeing that all schools in both rural and urban their advance are being paid in terms of structures, in

terms of water resources, in terms of school that is by building parameter fence. That thing is done perfectly within the State, that is why I mentioned the 95%.

**Vivienne:** In 2018 for instance when you had that intervention programme for the IDPs, was there any follow up to ensure that there was some level of quality, that it was effective? You know just follow up.

**PM 1:** Yeah, there was a follow up.

**Vivienne:** Okay from all that you have said about the IDP camps, would it be safe to say that UBE provision is not that effective in the camp?

**PM 1:** Yeah, not much.

**Vivienne:** Okay, but are there camps that children didn't even have any experience of education throughout their duration in the camp?

**PM 1:** No, no, no, no, we made sure we touched every camp.

**Vivienne:** Alright, so one of the questions I was going to ask you was about quality assurance measure in place, to ensure quality in the IDP camps but from all that you have said, they are so congested...

**PM 1:** We have the quality assurance.

**Vivienne:** Okay, but are they engaged to do things like that or...I know they go to schools to check that the standard is being kept so, I'm not sure if that happens in the IDP camps.

**PM 1:** Yeah, it happens. The quality department handles that.

**Vivienne:** Okay, are there any improvement mechanisms in place for achieving effective UBE in the camps? I know you've said there are no more camps, but do you know if there are still other camps now that you have not touched but they are not owned by government and there are people who are just heading it. Do you know some of such ones?

**PM 1:** Yes, there are such camps but can't be precise.

**Vivienne:** I know one in British America.

**PM 1:** That Recab or something like that...

**Vivienne:** House of Recab, yes.

**PM 1:** There are other ones too but eh...

**Vivienne:** Those camps that people are just running by the kindness of their heart, is there any way that the government is planning to just give support and find a way of improving because every of those children is a Nigerian and they have a fundamental right to education. So, I'm wondering if there is any kind of plan for improvement in that area.

**PM 1:** Personally, I don't know if there's any plan like that.

**Vivienne:** Okay, we will just leave it there. You have said this, but I was going to ask if there is any plan to resettle them to their families and their normal life, but you said that they went back to their communities, and they had to flee again because of the attacks and they have gone to neighbouring communities.

**PM 1:** I told you that the State government was able to structure some communities and members of the community went back and security was provided specially around Barkin Ladi side.

**Vivienne:** The last questions I have, you have already spoken about it cos I also wanted to find out if they receive government support, which you are the government and you have gone to support them so...yes. I am.

**PM 1:** The only thing is that we too need assistance, people should assist. In giving of education, qualitative education to learners, it is not just the responsibility of the government alone understand? We need individuals, communities, groups, international organisations can come to assist us. You can see the situation that is going on in Nigeria, so I am calling on these people to come and assist us. They can assist financially or otherwise.

**Vivienne:** So, we hear that these bandits, these terrorists chase these IDPs again. They go to the IDP camps again and still chase them. They have chased them from their homes, they try to settle somewhere, and they are still chasing them from there. Is there any form of security that the government is giving the IDPs?

**PM 1:** Yeah, they are making a lot of work to ensure that the camps are safe.

**Vivienne:** Is there something else you would like to add?

**PM 1:** It is a plea. I am calling on individuals, philanthropists, NGOs, and the rest to assist the government to ensure that our children are enrolled in school and acquire the free education up to completion. Because allowing government alone, it cannot provide all the needs of the learners.

**Vivienne:** Thank you very much sir for your time.

## Appendix I Qualitative Analysis procedure

Categorisation of Data.		
RQ1 CODES – PM1	CODES - PM2	Themes
UBE has been successful	Role of Planning, policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring	Success rate of UBE implementation
Policy implementation improved due to crisis	Ensuring enrolment of all children in school	UBE provision for IDPs
Local governments affected by terrorists	UBE Quality education provision	Resettlement of IDPs
Schools badly affected	Retention/dropouts	Duration of camps' existence
Duration of camps existence	UBE policy cycle	Number of camps and Percentage of displaced children
Percentage of children in the camps	Components of UBE	Setbacks of IDP UBE provision
Education provision – teachers and resources	Distance to school	Quality education perception
Education provision stopped	Schools taken to remote areas	Challenges of policy process
Resettlement of IDPs to their communities	Success rate of UBE	IDP wellbeing
Back to their communities/no IDP camps	Enforcement of school attendance	Improvement required
Schools closed	IDP education policy implementation	No plan for the future

Children attending nearby schools	Trauma	
Overpopulation	Extent of IDP education provision	
No track of children in communities	Teachers prepared to handle emergencies	
Children attend nearby schools	Trauma relief measures	
Lessons organised as assistance	Lack of proper planning/intervention measure	
Nearby school attendance	Inadequate response to displacement	
Focus on basic education	Response/approach to displacement	
Alternative education provision?	No response plans/Improvement suggestion	
Only academic work and counselling	Follow up on children who have gone back to their communities.	
Trauma	These children might very well be constituting societal nuisance	
No enabling environment/education as an intervention	Inaccessibility of schools due to fear	
Availability of teachers	Relocation of children to communities	Teacher availability and qualification
Teacher qualification	Some schools inaccessible due to insecurity	
Inadequate teacher qualification	No effective way to follow up children	
Lack of proper planning	Number of IDP camps/No IDP camps	
Suggested courses for teacher expertise	IDP camps not govt organised/Govt support	
There is a plan to inculcate IDP teaching in teacher training	One organised govt IDP camp	
Projection for when IDP teacher training will start	Percentage of children in camps	
IDP children need more than academic provision	Education provision	
Improvement required	Intervention measure	
Security issues in the camp	No future plans	
Camps not government owned	Unaware of existing camps	
How the camp leaders emerge	Education halt	
Quality education in IDP context (Perception)	No organised approach	
Reason for insufficiency of resources	Not conventional classroom	

Impact of displacement on children's education	Acknowledged the existence of IDP camps	
The way forward/vices	Ignorant if government supports	
Freedom issue	Confirms UBE provision in HoR	
95% success rate explained	Neighbouring school enrolment	
Follow up to ensure quality	Treat trauma first/well being	
UBE provision not effective	Environment not conducive	
Reached out to all camps	Provided resources	
Quality assurance	Deployed teachers were qualified	
Quality assurance	Teacher qualification is adequate	
Awareness of other non-govt camps	All teachers are qualified	
Unaware of any plan	Not sure when teachers' curriculum was reviewed	
Resettlement	Change in curriculum	
Plea for assistance	Improvement suggestion	
Security provided for IDPs	Challenges of policy making process	
Plea for assistance	IDPs need more than academics	
	Quality education perception	
	Quality assurance	
	Improvement required	
	Resettlement responsibility of central govt.	



## Appendix J Policy Makers' Codes and Themes

Codes	Direct Quotes
<p>Success rate of UBE</p>	<p>UBE...the rate of performance, I think I will grade it 95%. UBE has been contributing very well to the establishment, development and upgrading of schools. Presently, they have given us some grant which schools are under construction, projects are on now...constructions, renovations...not just classrooms but also toilet facilities and water sources. All those ones we are able to assess it because the governor of Plateau State was able to pay the counterpart fund and we have accessed it and are using it. (PM1)</p> <p>Well, essentially, my role is that of planning, policy formulation and implementation, and it goes with aspect of monitoring. That's to do with implementation, we do a lot of monitoring just to make sure that our plans are properly implemented. All our plans are predicated on the concept of result getting. So, you know very well that if you don't monitor, if you don't check to be sure that all the plans are properly implemented, you may not be able to get the expected results. So, that is basically, but in SUBEB, and by and large the ministry of education, our role is to make sure that all the children that are of school age basic education as it were, are enrolled first, are all enrolled... So, along with it is to build schools, schools are built because we look at the teacher factor first, we look at infrastructure and then the environment and then we also look at the children factor... ... We try to take care of those issues and ehh remove those hindrances or obstacles based on the child to learn... (PM2)</p> <p>... And we have tried of recent to make sure that schools are planted very close to the children, arising from insecurity. In fact, the policy in the country is that no child walks more than 3 kilometers radius to school and back... (PM2)</p> <p>I wouldn't be able to give you in mathematical terms, I may not but in some aspects, I can give you in some aspects related to Plateau State, maybe in some mathematical terms within the realm of what I have said so far. If we are to say enrolment, enrolment, I don't have the mathematical figures now, but enrolment has drastically gone up. When we came, the schools I think, the population of the school was about less than 12,000. Now, the number of schools has increased, well over 12,500. It has gone up, I wish that I could give you the percentage increase if I had known that this will come up, I would have given you... (PM2)</p>
<p>Number of camps and percentage of displaced children.</p>	<p>Presently we have ah...the local governments that are affected, we have 17 local governments n X State and those local governments that are badly affected are 6. We have A, B, R, K and M. In this local governments we have schools that were badly affected. As at the time I am speaking to you now, some schools have not even been opened. For A local government...eh...20 schools are affected, was closed</p>

	<p>down. R, we have 10, B 20, A, 6, K, 5, J and M one, one each... (PM1)</p>
	<p>I can't say now, I can't say how many there are. We are likely to find IDP camps in R, in B, in K and A. These are the places likely to find IDP camps, but I don't think there are. You don't find it anymore... They are not government organized camps, they are organized by the NGOs, government provides support to the inhabitants of the camps. (PM2)</p>
	<p>Yes, but not now... (PM1)</p> <p>That's what I said, I said I suspect, I'm going to find out. Even if there are camps, we have not received report because does not fall within the boundaries of our assignment and maybe if you ask the people in the emergency relief agency, they will be able to tell us precisely if there are existing camps now on plateau if there is any camp at all, it will be in Bassa LGC. There have been incessant attacks. But I'm going to find out that. (PM2)</p>
	<p>Children in the camps like the Geosciences at that time there were more than a hundred, all of them were children from primary school and junior secondary school. (PM2)</p>
	<p>Up to 65%... (PM1)</p>
<p><b>Duration of camps' existence.</b></p>	<p>(silence)...yes since 2018... ... Around early 2020... (PM1)</p> <p>...that if since 2001 in Plateau State, we started experiencing crises situation, people are thrown out of their homes, they are displaced, what happens to the children? (PM2)</p>
<p><b>UBE provision for IDPs</b></p>	<p>Yes, ...the board in her initiative, seeing to the plight of the learners at the IDP camps, a 7-man committee was set up about 2018. This committee went, they visited the camps...of the learners and thereafter, we have volunteer teachers. We have about 126 volunteer teachers who were teaching in those camps and we have also guidance counselors, they assist in counselling the learners across the IDP camps. But we also provide instructional materials, registers, textbooks, exercise books, whatever to assist them in teaching and learning. (PM1)</p> <p>Yes, Yes, the teachers organized lessons for them. It's not a full recommended, established school but an assistance to enable them to learn something while they...operate in the morning just like the normal school period/time, thereafter, they will relax and sometimes in the evening, they go back gain to refresh them... (PM1)</p>

We focused on all the children that were in the camp, those of the learning age, we catered for them...

It was just academic work and counselling.

(PM1)

Well...ehm, in every state policy, sometimes we are confronted with emergencies, and the IDP, our education is an inclusive education, the policy allows for...it's inclusive. It is an inclusive policy education so, you don't have any policy that is entirely left for those who are in the IDPs, the policy is applicable to children, whether they are children that physically challenged or children that are in IDP camps or in the conventional classroom situation, the policy applies to all of them...

But I can tell you that it is not the conventional classroom situation, you may not expect the best just like you find in a situation in a classroom where normalcy is there...

I will say no, if you say provision, it means that there is a plan, with its own budget. But there is no such plan. When we mobilized to the camp, it was a contingency arrangement that was made actually, it was not just that it was planned. We didn't plan that if a situation like this arises, this is the amount we are going to spend on, no. We didn't have any such at all. It came like an emergency, and we looked for resources from somewhere and then just to...

(PM2)

We had to deploy some of our teachers there, we brought writing materials and gave to them until normalcy was restored to those areas. (PM)

But we know that in literature, we are prepared as teachers to handle the teaching of children in emergency situations and you don't wait or teach only when situations are normal even when situations are not normal, you will find it some ways techniques that you need to apply to help these children and because at that particular time we deployed guidance and counselors, those of our teachers that read guidance and counselling, they are familiar with the psychology of working on the trauma of these children...(PM2)

Setbacks of IDP UBE provision.

In these local governments we have schools that were badly affected. As at the time I am speaking to you now, some schools have not even been opened. For Bassa local government...eh...20 schools are affected, was closed down. Riyom, we have 10, Barkin Ladi 20, Bassa 6, Bokkos 5, Jos north and Mangu one, one each...

No, our own was just an intervention, to make sure they continue with their education. You know how congested the camp is, it so congested that...anyway, it's not a place that you can call a formal school area whereby effective teaching and learning will happen, we just manage it to ensure life continues...

**(PM1)**

... but there is no organized way, approach in handling those situations...

... we don't have an organized approach that once it happens, but once it happens, this will be the approach. But it's the same thing if it happens, we will look at the resources that are available to us and then we just take care...

...No, you are not too ambitious, you are just saying the ordinary that anybody will say. That if since 2001 in Plateau State, we started experiencing crises situation, people are thrown out of their homes, they are displaced, what happens to the children? This will be the pertinent question to ask. How do we organize ourselves to respond to this kind of situation? If they all move to the camp, their education will be stalled and there will be learning regression and that's to say that there will be a cut, a disconnect so...

... I can't see a detailed plan to implement in the event of such a situation, it's just not there...

... I want to say that many of the schools in Barkin LADI, Bassa LGC, Riyom to this point cannot be accessed by both the teachers and the children on account of fear of the uncertainty from impending danger by herders, gunmen and ... (network problem) ... so that's just the situation...

... some of our teachers cannot access some of the schools, they cannot because of perpetual fear from the herdsmen or whoever that their attackers are...

... no effective way to determine a follow up that these children have returned to a school after the crises reduced...

There are not government organized camps, they are organized by the NGOs, government provides support to the inhabitants of the camps. (PM2)

<p><b>Resettlement of IDPs</b></p>	<p>The situation was ok, the State government made provisions in their various communities, and they were able to go back to their various communities...</p> <p>They have gone back to their various communities, so there is no IDP camps now...</p> <p>Yes, but as I told you earlier, that there are schools that have been closed down, those villages are no go areas. They moved to the nearby schools.</p> <p>Overpopulation!</p> <p>Well for now, we only have the names of the villages, the names of the communities but we don't have the track of the learners... (PM1)</p> <p>You know I'm going to say the same thing there's not an organized way to do a follow up to see whether these children who actually were in the camp at the Geosciences have returned to school or they are out of school. I don't have a way to know that and I'm not sure that we did it in an organized manner to give us records, for anyone asked to present such records...</p> <p>What I said is that some of the children may have returned to the original schools, they returned to the communities where they were coming from and I said for some of them that have lost both parents during the crises, the tendency for them to have returned to those locations may not be there. They may be with some other relations in some other communities. So, you won't say or determine whether they are in school or not... (PM2)</p>
<p><b>IDP wellbeing</b></p>	<p>...Some of them were traumatic and that calls for the counsellors to calm them down...</p> <p>... you are being caged somewhere. So. It's very sympathetic... (PM1)</p> <p>... the first time I went there I saw how traumatized the children were, all the children had lost both parents, they were taken from school straight to the camp... to help these children... we deployed those of our teachers that read guidance and counselling, they are familiar with the psychology of working on the trauma of these children but some of them were above them...</p> <p>... the most important thing is that you wouldn't just start teaching them, you needed to treat the trauma first. If you didn't treat the trauma, it will be difficult to teach and achieve anything. So, we first attended to the physical needs, we brought clothing for them, some food items... They must be given food, clothing, good moral, we appreciate that they can be frustrated, they can even commit suicide for some of them (PM2)</p>
<p><b>Challenges of policy process</b></p>	<p>I don't have the capacity to guess as to when such thing will happen... (PM1)</p> <p>The curriculum is not a one man's thing, it's not a one man's show, it's one that the curriculum review goes through a referendum, you ask questions, you consult, there's an approval process of</p>

	consultation before you come out with something. And there are different levels of interest... (PM2)
<b>Teacher availability and qualification</b>	<p>It's not easy but the people, some of them were teachers who were in the areas or communities affected. Some of them are people from the nearby communities who were not affected and the felt there was a need to assist the learners because they will miss a lot if they do not intervene. They volunteered and submitted themselves. (Network problem) ...it wasn't easy for them to render such assistance...</p> <p>Oh no, they were qualified teachers, not just anybody apart from teachers we have, anyone who wants to come and render such assistance, we make sure they are qualified persons... (PM1)</p>
<b>Quality perception</b>	<p>First of all, that has to be enshrined in the curriculum, when it is enshrined in the curriculum, then it will be that if a camp emerges, then we need to have the teachers, trained teachers specifically for situations like that, have the resources to prepare for this people. Then the environment too, I mean a place should be provided. When it is enshrined in the curriculum and when we have the teachers that are trained specifically to handle such kids then if it happens, it is a matter of taking them... the materials are there for them to teach the learners...</p> <p>... Government should ensure that education in emergency is established and enforced to a certain level so that we can have teachers that are trained under such programmes... have the resources on ground in case of any happenings... ... the stakeholders in education, in the house of Assembly should make sure the constitution involves this in the local level and the State level, so also the federal level... ... we need to plan... Sometimes we have the plan quite alright but the implementation matters. (PM1)</p> <p>... it is the same policy, it is the same curriculum, we will not go out of the curriculum. It is the implementation now that it probably will be different. Maybe in that school curriculum we need to include aspects specifically in handling children in IDP... (PM2)</p>
<b>No plan for future</b>	<p>we need to plan... Sometimes we have the plan quite alright but the implementation matters.</p> <p>... A country without stable educational programme or stable educational standard, that country is bound to face problems... Personally, I don't know if there's any plan like that... (PM1)</p> <p>... I'm prompted by the question you have asked now, and I need to look at that properly and see what we can do in that direction... it's better for one to plan for the unexpected... (PM2)</p>
<b>Improvement required</b>	... courses like there should be the psychological aspect of life... plan to have programmes such as skills too, other

skills acquisitions to be involved apart from the normal curriculum...

... Yes, there's a plan for it to be inculcated in the education programme at all levels of training, N.C.E and above'...

Giving it a time frame, should be from 5 years...

... you know change of environment affects one's life... they should be given a good conducive learning environment...

the hygienic level is not there; the social amenities are not there... (PM1)

It's the value system, everything should arise and be driven by the value system... what is right and what is wrong... These are the things that outside academics, we should teach the children...

... Physiological needs, they also need moral training ... before any child begins to learn, you must provide for the needs of the child especially in the IDP. In the IDP there's acute want of physical needs ... There's a need for government to provide. ...

... they must be given medical treatment medical attention.

When all these things are well taken care of then you can now introduce academics.

(PM2)

## Appendix K Themes

Analysis	Research Question 1	Research Question 2	Research Question 3
<b>Themes</b>	Extent of UBE policy implementation	Quality perceptions	Improvement required
<b>Codes</b>	*Success rate of UBE/ Extent of UBE provision *Setbacks to quality UBE provision *IDP wellbeing	*Teacher availability and qualification *Quality perception	*Plan for the future *Improvement required *Challenges of policy process

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