

Literature review on the support to refugee children and youth

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Foreword

One of the recommendations of IOB's report 'Education matters: Policy review of the Dutch contribution to basic education 1999–2009' (2011) was *'to now focus on access to quality basic education for the most disadvantaged and poor people in countries, regions and groups'*.

Regrettably, this recommendation ignored as shortly before the report was published, the Dutch government decided that basic education was no longer a priority. All but gone were the budget and the education experts in The Hague and at the Dutch embassies.

Now, seven years later, education is back on the Dutch aid agenda, together with youth employment, and especially in countries in the Middle East and the Horn of Africa that are coping with a major influx of mostly young refugees.

Against this background, the Policy and Operations Evaluation department of the Netherlands ministry of Foreign Affairs agreed to undertake a literature review to support the ministry in deciding what to do for the target groups in these countries regarding education and employment.

Unfortunately, the starting point for this exercise was not very promising with a Campbell systematic review of 2015 concluding after having gone through over 9 thousand records that '(the) available evidence was insufficient to determine if programmes affect the economic self-sufficiency and well-being of resettled refugees as no studies met the review's inclusion criteria'.¹

This literature review confirmed this finding about the lack of evidence on what works for refugee children and youth. Nevertheless, it attempted to identify some lessons that emerge from the literature, even if it was not from evaluations. An important lesson is to avoid blueprints in favour of programmes developed specifically for each country context and to give attention to the needs of specific groups within the broad category of refugee children and youth, especially the young girls and women. Moreover, as being a young refugee is only a temporary state, a comprehensive approach with a longer-term perspective is required. And obviously, the review calls for closer monitoring and evaluation of such programmes, with special attention to gender impacts.

The authors hope that, despite its limitations, the literature review will do what it was set out to do: making policy-making and the spending of money more evidence-based and that it will address the needs of refugee children and youth - victims of conflict and strife not of their own making.

¹ Ott and Montgomery, 2015: 6.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ALP	Accelerated learning programme
CfW	Cash-for-Work
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DRC	Danish Refugee Council
ECHO	European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations
EIIP	Employment Intensive Investment Programme
EU	European Union
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Office
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
IRC	International Rescue Committee
LC	Livelihood Center
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MENA	Middle-East and North Africa region
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations, Education, Science and Culture Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

1. Main findings and recommendations

Despite the disappointing lack of quality evidence on what works for refugee children and youth in the areas of education and employment, the following conclusions can be drawn from the information that is available. These careful conclusions lead to six recommendations to the ministry of Foreign Affairs.

There is a clear value of education and employment for refugee children and youth

There is clear evidence that education is important, both as a means to an end and as an end unto itself (as a human right). This evidence is worldwide but applies equally to refugees and in some instances even more so. Countless UN, EU and INGO declarations and treaties exhort the importance, value and moral duty of providing education and employment opportunities for all, including refugees. Education and employment can maintain a sense of normality and a link to a life that has temporarily been put on hold.

1. *There are sufficient valid **reasons, instrumental as well as rights-based, for the Ministry to support** education for refugee children and employment for refugee youths in the MENA and Horn of Africa regions.*

There is, however, a severe scarcity of evidence on what works, why and for whom

Much of the literature reviewed acknowledges the scarcity of evidence and data on interventions in the areas of education and employment for refugees. A lot might well work, but that is unfortunately not recorded. Evidence on how to best intervene on behalf of refugee children and youth (and specific groups such as refugee girls) is sorely lacking. The evidence on the effectiveness of employment programmes is even weaker than that for education programmes and there are even less studies for the Horn of Africa than there are for the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region.

With some notable exceptions.

Some organisations are worth highlighting here for best practice, because of the detailed and comprehensive analyses of their interventions, monitoring and measuring outcomes. The best examples found in the literature are the Norwegian Refugee Council, the Danish Refugee Council² and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). These organisations share evaluations of their programmes and must be lauded for this.

2. *Future programmes funded by the Ministry should be **closely monitored and evaluated, with special attention to gender impacts.** Of course, evaluating programmes targeted at refugee populations, children and youth, raises specific challenges. However, given the urgency to act and the limited resources available for young refugees, doing the right thing right is ever so important and evaluation can help doing so. As always, the way in which programmes are monitored and evaluated will depend on the type of programme, target groups and context. Refugees are not a homogenous group of people, so attention should be paid to different impacts according to target groups (age groups, gender, origins, in/out camps etc.).*

² See for example the DRC M&E portal <http://melmop.drc.dk/>.

Some relatively basic interventions seem to go a long way to support education for refugee children

There is insufficient evidence to favour any one intervention in any given context. The following interventions are most often discussed in the literature as potentially effective for providing refugee children with access to quality education (through interventions addressing both the demand and the supply of different forms of education):

- Teacher training and support to ensure that access and quality of education is not jeopardised because of increased influx into the system and the specific challenges faced by refugee children,
- Improving access to schooling through more and closer schools or providing space for refugee schooling within existing structures,
- (Conditional) cash transfers to overcome financial (and non-financial) barriers to education for specific groups of young refugees,
- Providing accreditation, both for refugee children to be able to receive quality education after they have fled and for them to continue education once they settle home or elsewhere,
- Curriculum reform, particularly second language instruction, to increase the relevance and accessibility of formal education for refugee children.

But the effectiveness of employment and employability programmes is clearly hindered by legal frameworks.

The evidence base on the effectiveness of employment and employability programmes is even weaker than for education programmes. Livelihood/job/youth centres are places where different employment and employability programmes come together and successfully work together to support young refugees (but also host communities). However, the lesson here is rather clear: *without addressing legal frameworks around work, employment programmes can do very little*. Such legal frameworks are of course the sovereign domain of the host countries, but without movement in this area it seems that the lack of meaningful and safe employment opportunities for refugee youth is difficult to overcome.

3. *Programmes funded by the Ministry aimed at employability and employment for young refugees need to be accompanied by **improved legal frameworks** so that there are sufficient income-generating opportunities for refugees (in both formal and informal sector). The national Compacts (e.g. Jordan, Ethiopia) are one form of doing so (though the progress of existing Compacts is to be closely monitored and evaluated).*

A comprehensive approach with longer-term perspective is important,

A key lesson noted in the literature is that though studies often focus on one specific intervention in isolation, in practice different interventions should work together coherently to achieve their goals. There is potential complementarity in the field of education and employment. This requires the various actors to improve the coordination of their activities. Moreover, a comprehensive approach also implies attention for host community children and youth.

4. *The Ministry requires a **programmatic approach**, combining interventions across sectors, to improve conditions for refugee children and youth given the complex and interlinked challenges they face both during the crisis and thereafter.*
5. *A **detailed stakeholder mapping exercise** is an important first step of any programme supported by the Ministry, exploring who does what where and for whom (and what might be missing) to avoid the risk of duplication as well as gaps.*

With context-specific interventions rather than blue-print approaches.

Refugee contexts are all different, with specific needs and challenges even within refugee communities (e.g. culture of region of origin, in or out camps, registered or not, female or male, age groups, socio-economic backgrounds...). It might well be that the actual interventions on the ground are much more context-specific than the literature that described them as seemingly blue-print approaches. Such deep understanding of the local context seemed missing in the publicly available reports or studies collected through this literature review.

6. *Apart from better monitoring and evaluation (M&E), the Ministry requires sound **contextualised needs assessments and context analysis** before implementing a programme, with attention to subgroups within the broad categories of 'children' and 'youth' (e.g. girls) and the specific barriers they encounter. This includes listening to refugee children and youth and responding to their context-specific needs rather than taking a prescriptive approach.³*

³ O'Hagan, 2013.

2. Introduction

2.1. Aim and scope of the report

This report describes the results of a review of the publicly available literature and other documentation on interventions addressing education of refugee children (under 18) and employment opportunities for refugee youths (15-24) in the Middle East and North Africa region and the Horn of Africa. Its main aim was to determine which interventions worked and why and, ultimately, to help preventing a 'lost generation' of children and youth.⁴

The literature review focuses on refugee children and youth who have *crossed borders*. According to UNHCR, **refugees** are people who have been forced to flee their country because of a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership of a particular social group persecution, or because of war or violence. Their status is recognised by international laws.⁵ 'Refugee' is not a fixed identity, but a temporary (even if for longer term) situation of heterogeneous individuals. Worldwide, in 2016 31% of refugees live in camps; however, this figure varies per regions and per year.⁶ The review does not deal with internally displaced people (IDP), fleeing *within* countries, and so-called protracted refugees (e.g. Palestinian refugees), who have been in exile for more than 5 years, for the reason that they face different challenges than people fleeing across borders (see text box 1).⁷

Text box 1. Challenges refugee children and young people face

Though several of the challenges refugee children and youth face are similar to those experienced by young people in other underprivileged parts of the world, the situation of these young refugees is exacerbated by:⁸

- Posttraumatic stress as a result not only from the conflict witnessed but also from the act of having to flee and leave their homes behind
- Having to adapt to a new country, culture, language, for the (unaccompanied) children without much support of family
- Uncertainty of their situation, which is expected to be temporary at the start and limits the willingness/ability to plan and invest in the future (by individuals, donors, governments),
- Lack of status, often not being registered as citizens and thus lack of rights (e.g. to work, public services),
- Hostility experienced in host community (at times itself under pressure due to influx of refugees), expressed in, for example, bullying of refugee children at schools or harassment on their way to school,
- The short-term nature of interventions in refugee camps as it is the intention for refugees to return home or integrate into host communities.

⁴ As noted amongst others by UNICEF Deputy Executive Director Justin Forsyth, speaking after a visit to southern Turkey in January 2017 (<https://news.un.org/en/story/2017/01/549792-turkey-unicef-cites-risk-lost-generation-syrian-children-despite-enrolment>). See also <http://nolostgeneration.org/>, a multi-donor initiative focused on refugee children and youth.

⁵ Most notably the 1951 Refugee Convention and its 1967 Protocol as well as other legal texts, such as the 1969 Organisation of African Unity's Refugee Convention.

⁶ In the MENA region, no more than 20% of the refugees lives in formal camps and most people live among host country communities. In Africa (as a whole), however, most refugees live in camps. See UNHCR, 2017. <http://www.unhcr.org/alternatives-to-camps.html>.

⁷ Where there are, however, relevant studies specifically on IDP, these are noted in the text. See, for example, IIEP, 2016.

⁸ Based on literature review and, among others, <https://blogs.unicef.org/blog/refugee-children-crisis/> and UNICEF, 2015.

This combination of challenges has led to increased vulnerability of refugee youth, e.g. witnessed by a rise in child marriages among Syrian refugees in Lebanon.⁹ Though not studied as yet, these characteristics will probably also affect the effectiveness of standard education and employment interventions when applied to refugee contexts.

The **geographical focus** is on refugee populations residing in countries in the Middle East (e.g. Syrian refugees in Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey) and in the Horn of Africa (e.g. Somalian and South Sudanese refugee populations in Uganda and Kenya). This geographical focus is highly relevant as the most recent figures show: according to UNHCR, Lebanon hosts the largest number of refugees relative to its national population (1 in 6 people are refugees), while Jordan (1 in 11 people are refugees) ranks second. Turkey (third with 1 in 28 people are refugees) hosts the largest number of refugees worldwide (2.9 million).¹⁰ Spurred by the crisis in South Sudan, Uganda registered the fastest-growing refugee population in 2016. This group grew by 64% during the second half of 2016 from 854,100 to over 1.4 million, the majority of whom were children.¹¹

Finally, the review uses literature **from 2011** onward, with 2011 the year in which the civil war in Syria began which, in turn, proved the beginning of the current crisis in a large part of the MENA region. A few articles from before this time were nevertheless included, including those offering lessons from previous crises, particularly in the Horn of Africa.

Identifying relevant literature in the public domain that could answer the main question ‘which interventions worked and why’ indeed proved a major challenge: most of the literature is descriptive, describing the context, barriers to education and employment or explaining the interventions that have taken place. Therefore, as also noted in the foreword, there is simply too little evidence of what works to draw strong conclusions and make specific recommendations on what to do for refugee children and youth regarding education and employment. What the report *does* do however is to describe *what is known about those interventions that are most often described in the literature since 2011 and that are thought to have been effective in supporting education and employment for refugee children and youth.*

2.2. Limitations

The methodology for this literature review is described in depth in Annex 1. However, a few methodological issues are worth noting upfront:

The largest and most glaring, as mentioned above, is the **general lack of scientific rigour and evidence** for the success or failure of many of the interventions analysed. This finding is confirmed by the different overview studies in the field. Obviously, the context within which the interventions take place is not the easiest for evaluating results, but a few good studies show that it can be done.

Secondly, drawing out general conclusions about interventions from **vastly differing and context-specific situations and target groups** seems inappropriate. The MENA region is not the Horn of Africa. Refugee children in primary school face different difficulties than youth in

⁹ According to a survey conducted in 2016 among some 2,400 refugee women and girls living in Western Bekaa, school enrolment was found to decline sharply as girls aged and girls with less education were found to be more vulnerable to becoming child brides. As per UNFPA and UN websites (<https://www.unfpa.org/news/new-study-finds-child-marriage-rising-among-most-vulnerable-syrian-refugees>).

¹⁰ The geographical focus on the MENA region also finds its origin in the *Regeerakkoord Vertrouwen in de Toekomst* (2017), page 49, 51.

¹¹ <http://www.unhcr.org/globaltrends2016/>.

secondary do. Nevertheless, most of the literature does not specify the target group of interventions. Nor do the articles provide sufficient detail on interventions to determine where and for whom it takes place (formal/informal education, in/out camps, rural/urban, boys/girls etcetera). Without knowing what the objectives are of interventions, it is impossible to compare likes with likes and answer what works best.

Thirdly, one of the largest gaps identified in the literature is the issue of **gender**. It is axiomatic that there are different barriers for boys and girls regarding enrolment and that dropout rates differ between girls and boys in different contexts. One study by CARE described the situation of Syrian women, and the way in which, both in Syria and in the refugee context, they encounter substantial barriers as they try to establish new livelihoods. The report provides evidence of how adolescent girls have had their education interrupted inside Syria and as refugees and have been forced to assume livelihoods-related responsibilities from an early age, including care for family members and early marriage, to reduce economic burdens on the family. Nevertheless, none of the evaluations addressed gender issues. The literature describes some of the differences in challenges in general terms (e.g. girls kept inside due for cultural reasons, boys to work rather than go to school). However, very little primary research was conducted on education and employment interventions targeted at women and girls, nor is gender included as a topic or unit of analysis in other studies (e.g. comparing outcomes for women and for men). Most studies do not even use gender disaggregated data, with the notable exception of Zubairi and Rose's study, 'Supporting Primary and Secondary Education for Refugees - The Role of International Financing' (2016). Regarding youth and employment, IFAD and ILO conducted a review of active labour market policies in Jordan, with special attention to young women and the barriers they face (2017).

Finally, the language used for the search was English. Therefore, most of the literature is from western (donor) organisations, and there is **little information or literature by local people and organisations**. This literature may exist, but as the researchers for this report are not Arabic or Swahili speakers, for example, any literature written in these languages could not be included.

2.3. Report structure

The report starts off (chapter 3) with a discussion of the rationale behind support for the two distinct, but inextricably linked intervention areas: why invest in education and employment for young refugees? This chapter also provides a preliminary overview of who is currently active in these fields in the MENA region and the Horn of Africa. Thereafter, the report describes the implementation of both education for children (chapter 4) and employment for youth (chapter 5), even though, as noted already in 2010 by the International Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), the review finds 'a near universal call for holistic approaches that offer a continuum of services to facilitate the transition from education/training to income generation...'.¹²

¹² INEE, 2010.

3. The case for investing in young refugees

3.1. Rationale

Before moving on to what works in education and employment for young refugees, a key question is: *What makes these worthwhile interventions to engage in?* In the response to this question, the review identified the following overarching motivations:¹³

1. Firstly, there is the rights-based approach. For example, in both the Universal Declaration of Human Rights - in Article 23 and Article 26 - and the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights - in the Articles 14 to 16 - there is a provision for education and work. Refugees suffer from a loss of fundamental rights the moment they flee, but it is possible to restore some of these fundamental rights, through education and employment interventions for children and youth.
2. Secondly, there is the overwhelming evidence of the social and economic benefits of education and employment for individuals all over the world.¹⁴ As stated in one of the main overview studies, education 'is the most effective way of reducing poverty and inequality and is integral to people fulfilling their life goals'.¹⁵ Girls' education in particular has an empowering impact.¹⁶ There is no reason for this to be different for refugee populations.
3. Moreover, education and youth programmes can be used as entry-points for other valuable services. For example, schools can facilitate access to other life-saving services, e.g. school feeding and safe drinking water provision.¹⁷ Programmes focused on youth employment can similarly have secondary effects on participants (e.g. engagement, empowerment, life skills).¹⁸
4. Fourthly, these kinds of programmes are future-oriented, looking beyond the current crisis.¹⁹ Education is, for example, thought to give refugee children and youth 'a place of safety amid the tumult of displacement'²⁰ And allows them to maintain a sense of normality and a link to their old life that has been put on hold. Some employment programmes (e.g. training) are also intended for a future use when refugees return to their home countries or integrate into their new host countries, though most of them seem to focus on immediate employability. As noted in the work by Collier and Betts (2017): 'If our duty is to restore the lives of displaced people to something as close to normality as possible, re-establishing their autonomy should be high on the agenda. One of the most important components of autonomy is the right to earn a living.'²¹ Finally, there is an expected global impact because of the potential stabilizing effect of education and employment programmes in the region. Strengthened capacities of the young are expected to facilitate development and rebuilding after the conflicts in the region have been resolved.²² About the impact of education and employment programmes on the spatial movements and longer-term settlement of refugees

¹³ In most studies these motivations are implicit.

¹⁴ See for example IOB, 2011.

¹⁵ Nicolai et al, 2015.

¹⁶ See for relevant literature chapter 3 of IOB, 2015.

¹⁷ As noted in OCHA, 2017.

¹⁸ As suggested in by UNICEF in a description of their Innovation Labs providing training in technology innovation and creation for young refugees. This programme will be evaluated by Gender and Adolescence: Global Evidence (GAGE) a nine-year (2015-2024) mixed methods longitudinal research and evaluation programme funded by UK Aid. <https://www.gage.odi.org/blog-empowering-youth-technology>.

¹⁹ See O'Hagan, 2013, on how education is a major priority for returnees, internally displaced and host populations, second only in importance to improved national security and freedom.

²⁰ UNHCR, 2017b. <http://www.unhcr.org/59b696f44.pdf>.

²¹ <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2017/mar/22/why-denying-refugees-the-right-to-work-is-a-catastrophic-error> - Collier and Betts, 2017.

²² See for example World Bank, 2005.

- back home, in host countries in the region or further towards the West – little is known. One survey among South Sudanese, showed how South Sudanese who crossed the border with Ethiopia identified the lack of access to education back home as the most important reason for choosing to leave the country to settle in Ethiopia.²³ Providing refugees with opportunities to continue with their education and improve their employability might well give some of these refugees a reason to stay in the region. However, on the other hand, limitations in education and employment programmes might just as well increase frustration and raise dreams of fleeing the region so torn apart by war and turmoil.²⁴

3.2. Who invests?

There are many different actors in the field of education and employment for young refugees in the MENA region and the Horn of Africa. However, despite existing overviews of for example UNHCR²⁵ or ODI²⁶, and despite several coordination and partner initiatives,²⁷ it is impossible to get the full picture, including local actors, without further research, including interviews with people active on the ground.²⁸

Such a stakeholder mapping is certainly recommended as a start of any education/employment programme with young refugees as several actors have commented on the risk of duplication.²⁹ Any such mapping should pay due attention to local organisations as important actors in these areas. In 2016, the so-called Grand Bargain multi-donor initiative echoed this by committing donors (including the Netherlands) and aid organizations to providing 25 per cent of global humanitarian funding to local and national responders by 2020 (among other commitments) as part of a quest to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of humanitarian assistance.³⁰

Acknowledging these limitations, for now the following categories of actors, with some examples, could be identified. In each country or even refugee context, there will be different compositions and cooperation of:

- **National governments of host countries**, e.g. ministries of Education managing national education systems, ministries of Labour/Economic Affairs overlooking the legal frameworks regarding employment of refugees, and ministries such as the Jordanian Government's Syrian Refugee Affairs Directorate that deal specifically with refugees.

²³ REACH, February 2017, 'Akobo Port Monitoring', www.reachresourcecentre.info/system/files/resource-documents/reach_ssd_factsheet_akobo_portmonitoring_february2017.pdf.

²⁴ Frustration with limited opportunities upon return, despite education and employment programmes while refugees, has been registered in O'Hagan, 2013.

²⁵ <http://data2.unhcr.org/en/situations>.

²⁶ Röth et al, 2017.

²⁷ These include the Humanitarian Response Plans coordinated by the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) (see <https://fts.unocha.org/content/guide-funding-response-plans-and-appeals>); the Regional Refugee and Resilience Plan (3RP) (see <http://www.3rpsyriacrisis.org/the-3rp/strategic-overview/>) and the No Lost Generation Initiative, in which the Netherlands participates together with numerous other bilateral and multilateral donors and INGOs and that focuses on children and youths (see <http://childrenofsyria.info/2017/03/07/what-is-no-lost-generation/>).

²⁸ See for example, Röth et al 2017.

²⁹ See, for example, <http://www.unhcr.org/innovation/5-challenges-to-accessing-education-for-syrian-refugee-children/> or OECD, 2017a.

³⁰ The 'Grand Bargain (on efficiency)' is an agreement between more than 30 of the biggest donors (including the Netherlands) and humanitarian aid providers that aims to get more means into the hands of people in need. The Grand Bargain includes a series of changes in working practices such as the 25%. See: <https://interagencystandingcommittee.org/grand-bargain-hosted-iasc>

- **Non-governmental organisations from the region**, e.g. the Jordan Hashemite Charity Organization for Relief and Development³¹ active in the field of education in and out camps, Syrian Arab Red Crescent or Project Amal Ou Salaam in Turkey offering volunteer informal training to refugee children in camps.
- **Multilateral organisations**, such as the European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations (ECHO), the UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), UNICEF and the World Bank with programmes in and out of camps in both regions. The work of the IMF with governments of host countries can also indirectly affect employment and education programmes (e.g. Jordan Compact).³²
- **International non-governmental organisations and networks** that work in specific countries or globally, e.g. DRC – Danish Refugee Council, IRC - International Rescue Committee, NRC - Norwegian Refugee Council, Islamic Relief and including Dutch NGOs such as Cordaid, who work with employment and youth in Syria. UNHCR has signed different Memoranda of Understanding with INGOs (e.g. the Lutheran World Federation, LWF) for the implementation of UNHCR programmes.
- **Bilateral donors**, among which the European Union, the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, Japan, and Norway, who pledged in London in 2016 to fund education for one million Syrian refugee children in neighbouring countries during the 2016-17 school year.³³

Text box 2 provides an example of bilateral, government-to-government, support for education for refugees.

Text box 2. Bilateral support to refugees and education

The Department for International Development (DFID)'s latest Education Policy, Get Children Learning, of February 2018, mentions as one of its aims the integration of refugees and internally displaced children into mainstream education. In Lebanon, for example, where the education sector has doubled in size to ensure places for Syrian refugee children, DFID supports both vulnerable Lebanese and refugee children, including through non-formal education to help those who have missed out on schooling to catch up. UK technical assistance has supported the Lebanese government in the development of the Reaching All Children through Education (RACE II) strategy, which combines emergency response with sector planning, including planning and coordination of international support (supposedly a world's first).³⁴

³¹ See <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/local-humanitarian-action-practice-case-studies-and-reflections-local-humanitarian>.

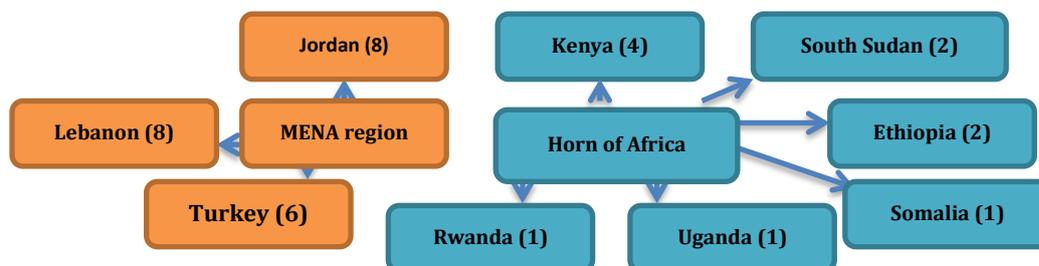
³² http://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/working_group.php?Page=Country&LocationId=107&Id=60.

³³ Human Rights Watch found, however, that the funds pledged at this conference have failed to materialise, arrived too late or proved untraceable and too many Syrian refugee children remain without schooling (see <https://www.hrw.org/report/2017/09/14/following-money/lack-transparency-donor-funding-syrian-refugee-education>). On the other hand, a report of the Brussels conference of world leader states that in 2017 19% of grant contributions (US\$566 million) from donors responding to the Syria crisis was for the education sector (see Supporting Syria and the Region Conference July 2017, Supporting Syria and the region: Post-Brussels conference financial tracking. Conference report. <https://www.supportingsyria2016.com/news/post-brussels-conference-financial-tracking-report-co-chairs-statement-2/>).

³⁴ DFID, 2018.

4. Literature Analysis - Education and Children

Twenty-eight articles were examined about the education of refugee children, out of which ten took a global, general perspective, summarising existing literature on refugees in general (including from the regions on which the literature review focuses) and the others describing specific education interventions in specific countries. Only 11 articles dealt with the effectiveness of specific education interventions for refugee children (of which three were overviews of evaluation results, summarising different studies).³⁵ While several articles deal with more than one country, the figure below shows that there is much more information on interventions in the MENA region (22 articles) than in the Horn of Africa (11 articles).



Education can be formal, informal and non-formal education processes. UNICEF stresses the importance of quality education, which must entail the following:³⁶

- Learners who are healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn, and supported in learning by their families and communities;
- Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender-sensitive, and provide adequate resources and facilities;
- Content that is reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills,
- Processes through which trained teachers use child-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools
- Outcomes that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society.

Despite the contextual differences between these regions, the literature does come up with some general, crosscutting observations on barriers to education and potentially beneficial interventions. These are presented in the following sections.

4.1. Challenges to Education for Refugee Children

Becoming a refugee changes everything. It disrupts the normal course of childhood development. About half of the refugee population in 2016, as in recent years, were children below 18 years old.³⁷ In Sub-Saharan Africa, refugee populations have even higher proportions of children, reflecting the general population structure. At the primary level, only 1 in 2 of these children go to school and only 1 in 4 is at lower secondary level.³⁸ In Lebanon, Turkey, and

³⁵ Including Burde et al, 2015 (and before that INEE, 2011).

³⁶ UNICEF, 2000.

³⁷ UNHCR, 2017, <http://www.unhcr.org/globaltrends2016/>.

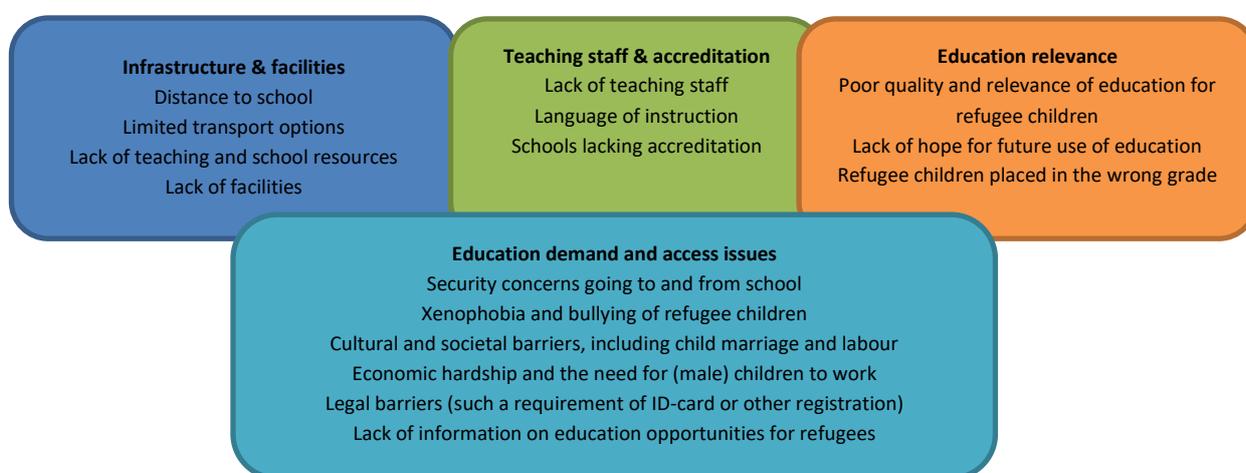
³⁸ Nicolai et al, 2015.

Jordan alone, this amounts to at least 542,000 Syrian refugee children not attending formal education.³⁹

The barriers to education for refugee children are varied, interactive and complex. The following is a brief overview of the main challenges, based on the 2017 UNICEF report *Education Uprooted*, which documents the educational challenges faced by nearly 50 million uprooted children around the world.⁴⁰

These challenges might well be similar for children in dire circumstances who aren't refugee, though as noted above in box 1, the challenges for refugees are often even starker due to, amongst others, uncertainty, temporary measures, and post-conflict trauma.

It is also important to note that though these barriers occur for both children inside and outside camps, their weight varies. For example, in urban areas refugee children will join often already overstretched national education systems together with children from the host communities, while in camps mostly non-formal education is provided through separate facilities often for refugee children only and often following the curriculum of the country of origin. Financial constraints to education (e.g. transport costs, materials) are more pressing outside the camps, where living costs are high.⁴¹ The figure below gives an overview of the main barriers.



It is evident that the barriers refugees face are vast. Any intervention by itself could not possibly expect to solve or address all these issues. A programmatic approach, combining interventions across the education sector, both on the demand (pupils and their family) and the supply (teachers and schools) side, is required to improve education for refugee children. On the other hand, it is also important to adapt programmes to the specific context and target group as the barriers to education that are to be tackled will vary accordingly. For example, the needs of refugee girls are not the same for boys. In the literature, the example often comes up of security being a major barrier to education for girls, while for boys it is often the need to provide for their family while on the run that steers them away from education.⁴² Unfortunately, however, the literature examined did not distinguish different impacts for different target groups (age groups, gender, origins, in/out camps etc.).

³⁹ Culbertson and Constant, 2015.

⁴⁰ UNICEF, 2017.

⁴¹ Dryden-Peterson, 2011.

⁴² EMMA cited in NRC, 2016a.

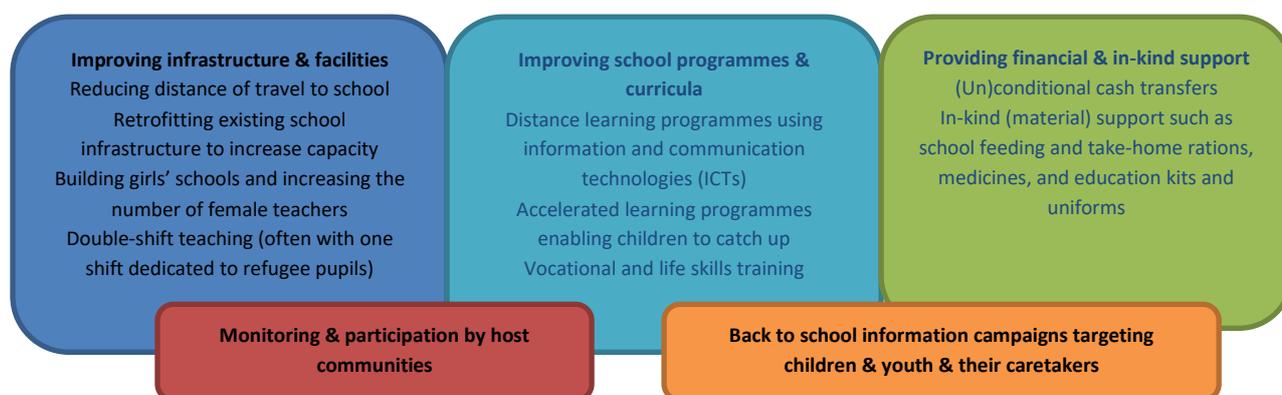
4.2. How to provide Education for Refugee Children

Education for refugee children can broadly be broken down into three, crosscutting and overlapping, categories of interventions (covering different types and levels of education):⁴³ (i) to promote access to education; (ii) to improve quality of education; and (iii) to promote child wellbeing.

It is important to note that the interventions listed below are not recommendations, but merely an overview of those interventions most often described as potentially effective according to the literature reviewed. Determining what do requires further context-specific research, including needs assessments, case-specific context analysis and mapping of stakeholders. As noted in an UNHCR evaluation of 2011, ‘understanding of the conflicts out of which refugees come and the political situations in settings of exile must impact the design of appropriate educational interventions for education to protect children rather than fuel poor quality learning and on-going intolerance, prejudice, injustice, and conflict’.⁴⁴

4.2.1. Access to Education

Promoting access to education consists of course of getting refugee children to attend school once they have temporarily settled in or outside of a camp in the region of their origin. However, a large part of promoting access to education also involves reducing dropout rates, as far more refugee children drop out of schools than the ‘regular’ population of the host countries (e.g. due to high teacher-to-pupil ratios).⁴⁵ The figure below recapitulates the interventions to promote access to primary and secondary education.



Of these interventions, the following are most often discussed in the literature as examples of what can be done (see Annex 3) and are therefore described in some more detail below:

- accelerated learning programmes (ALPs)
- reducing distance to school (most often in the form of setting up of schools⁴⁶)
- cash transfers
- community participation and
- accreditation.

⁴³ Burde et al, 2015. Interventions may well influence, e.g., both quality *and* access. Each intervention will be discussed under the categorization on which it has the seemingly greatest impact.

⁴⁴ Dryden-Peterson, 2011.

⁴⁵ UNHCR, 2016b.

⁴⁶ In new or existing buildings, also within existing schools.

The interventions apply both to primary and secondary schooling and include formal and informal education. The literature unfortunately does not distinguish effects per type of education, let alone per target group (e.g. refugees in/out camps, boys and girls).

Accelerated learning programmes can be defined in any number of ways, but at their most simple, it is a 'programme which enables children to catch up, be certified and reintegrate back into the formal education system if they have missed'⁴⁷ a certain amount of schooling. ALPs may involve basic literacy and numeracy for children who have never been to school, but also an accelerated course of language instruction if the language of instruction is different from the language spoken by the refugees. Examples of these kinds of programmes could be found in Jordan, Lebanon, Kenya and Rwanda.⁴⁸ It is applicable to refugee children in camps (e.g. Kenya by UNHCR) as well as those joining the national education system of the host country (e.g. Jordan). For example, the Government of Jordan's Accelerated Access to Quality Formal Education programme includes a new 'certified 'accelerated' programme [which] enables children to catch up, be certified and reintegrate'⁴⁹ back into the formal education system.'⁵⁰

These ALPs are most often in the form of non-formal, small-scale programmes, which are said to often be underfunded and lack accreditation.⁵¹ The international Accelerated Education Working Group (UNHCR, UNICEF, USAID, the Norwegian Refugee Council, Plan International, Save the Children, International Rescue Committee and War Child) has been set up to strengthen such education programmes to promote access to certified education for those who have missed out on substantial amounts of schooling.⁵²

There is some, albeit limited in numbers and depth of research, evidence that ALPs may serve a useful purpose of reaching those hardest to reach groups, such as refugees: 'ALPs may be particularly effective in enrolling populations that are typically marginalized or stigmatized'.⁵³ A 2011 study of refugees in Liberia found ALPs 'to be effective in enrolling targeted overage and disenfranchised out-of-school youth.'⁵⁴

Tackling the distance to school primarily involves the construction of school buildings, or the refurbishing or repurposing of existing buildings, and improving transportation and infrastructure towards schools. Programmes involving school construction and reducing distance to schools were found in Turkey, Lebanon, Jordan, and Kenya. However, once again there is a shortage of studies directly providing evidence on the effectiveness of these interventions. Only two studies focus on specific interventions (rather than providing an overview of literature) though remain mostly descriptive.^{55 56}

It is, however, fairly obvious how such interventions may increase school attendance, especially where no nearby school previously existed, for the simple reason that if there is no school or educational space (e.g. class room), children simply have no possibility of attending school.

⁴⁷ Zubairi and Rose, 2016.

⁴⁸ As described in, for example, El-Ghali et al, 2016.

⁴⁹ Syrian refugee children who would integrated into the formal education in Jordan but cannot because of missed/different education back home, are able to do so (i.e. 'reintegrate') after the accelerated programme.

⁵⁰ Zubairi and Rose, 2016.

⁵¹ Zubairi and Rose, 2016.

⁵² <http://www.unhcr.org/accelerated-education-working-group.html>.

⁵³ See, for example, though not specifically for refugees, Longden, 2013.

⁵⁴ Manda, S. (2011). Evaluation of the accelerated learning programme in Liberia: Final Report. Ministry of Education and UNICEF, quoted in Dana Burde et al, 2015.

⁵⁵ Hos, 2017.

⁵⁶ Mackinnon, 2014.

Evidence collected in Burde's overview of interventions indeed suggests 'that interventions that focused on providing new schools and infrastructure had the largest average effects on enrolment and attendance.'⁵⁷ Proximity to schools has been found to be particularly beneficial in overcoming barriers to access, especially for girls, as it has been found that sometimes 'family members do not permit girls to attend school because of the lengthy travel distance required'.⁵⁸ The major challenge, however, remains providing quality education in those schools established (as will be discussed here below).⁵⁹

An overview of the use of **cash assistance** in 45 cash-related education programmes in 21 UNHCR operations, both in and out of camps, at different education levels in Africa and Middle East, concluded that cash assistance has a positive impact on school attendance and educational outcomes.⁶⁰ Conditionality does not necessarily lead to better outcomes.⁶¹ A combination of cash grants with supply-related services (schools, teachers) enhance their effects. The UNHCR study also concluded that the duration and size of the cash transfer matters a lot. The effect of cash assistance only lasts for as long as the support lasts. So, for school completion, cash assistance for multiple years is required.

Two studies conducted in Syrian refugee communities that settled in urban areas outside camps in Jordan confirmed the importance of the size of a (unconditional) cash transfer.⁶² These studies of UNHCR and UNICEF cash transfers show that the biggest proportion of those transfers was spent on rent for accommodation. Beneficiaries used only a minor part to cover school-related costs. As a result, cash assistance was not linked to a significant increase in enrolment even though it did have some positive effect on spending on schooling and improved academic performance. Moreover, the study shows that once children have been out of school for a prolonged period, cash is rarely sufficient to encourage re-enrolment, especially for adolescents (who have more opportunity to work and earn income).

On the role of **community participation**, NORAD/NRC describe how their programmes in the Horn of Africa involved communities in school management, planning and parent-school linkages, in order to improve education access and quality.⁶³ One study describes, for example, a secondary school head teacher in Lebanon who engaged the local host community, and after much negotiation, convinced this community and local authorities to allow him to open a second shift in his school, which now accommodates 130 Syrian children.⁶⁴ UNICEF stresses the importance of community involvement 'especially in emergencies when participation is proven to promote healing and cohesion' and to ensure efforts are 'locally sustainable'.⁶⁵

Accreditation is an oft-mentioned problem associated with many newly constructed and established schools and education programmes. Accreditation is first of all needed to ascertain the level of the refugee child and to determine where to place him/her in a new system and secondly to allow education to continue where it left off when refugee children move. The ultimate goal is to put into place international systems of certification and record keeping that protect students' identities when they are uprooted and yet allows them to continue their

⁵⁷ Burde et al, 2015.

⁵⁸ Distance is mentioned in several studies as a barrier, among which ODI, 2017 and Culbertson et al, 2015.

⁵⁹ Hos, 2016.

⁶⁰ UNHCR, 2017a.

⁶¹ Conditionality is thought to work especially when addressing other, non-financial types of barriers (i.e. cultural or behavioural).

⁶² Hagen-Zanker, et al, 2017 and Bassam Abu Hamad, et.al, 2017.

⁶³ NORAD, 2017Community most likely mix of host and refugee populations, however, not specified.

⁶⁴ Mendenhall et al, 2017.

⁶⁵ UNICEF, 2013.

education and find work during their journeys and at their destination.⁶⁶ Articles that focused on schools in Turkey and Lebanon explicitly raised the issue of accreditation. Mainly based on interviews with refugees themselves, accreditation is seen as an issue of great importance.⁶⁷

According to the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) ‘accredited learning and exams have proven successful tools to motivate learning and open doors to further learning and employment.’⁶⁸ One study of education for Syrian refugees in Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey found that refugees are less motivated to attend a school without accreditation, which they need to ensure recognition in the future when they move to a new school, new country, or back to their country of origin.⁶⁹ Another study confirmed that the accreditation of schools by the national government ‘need[s] to be prioritized so that all parties involved including teachers and parents can set future goals.’⁷⁰

‘Teachers deserve our wholehearted support – suitable pay, the right materials in sufficient quantities, and expert assistance.’ (Filippo Grandi, UN High Commissioner for refugees)

4.2.2. Quality of Education

The interventions discussed so far have been concerned with quantity, increasing the number of children in education. While this is naturally worthy, as mentioned earlier in this report, the quality of education that they receive is of course also a matter of concern and a determinant in the benefit the education provides. The literature reviewed mentions the interventions mentioned in the figure below to improve quality of education in one way or another.



Of these interventions, the most discussed and evidenced in the literature are teacher training and different approaches to curriculum reform, especially languages of instruction.

The hiring, training and support of teachers was most frequently mentioned in the articles analysed. Related interventions focused on either the training of existing teachers to better deal with the issues presented by teaching refugees, or on the training and hiring of additional teachers where necessary. Such interventions were found in Kenya, Turkey, Jordan, Lebanon, Ethiopia, and Rwanda. As noted by NORAD, teacher training is strongly dependent on the local context, e.g. the ability to work with both teachers in the public, formal and in the informal, CSO-managed sector. In Jordan, Turkey and Lebanon, for example, shortages were solved by hiring of unemployed university students and Syrian teachers, after government had adapted legal

⁶⁶ UNICEF, 2017.

⁶⁷ See INEE, 2010; Talbot, 2013; Hos, 2017; Human Rights Watch, 2016; Culbertson et al, 2015.

⁶⁸ INEE, 2010.

⁶⁹ Culbertson et al, 2015.

⁷⁰ Hos, 2017.

frameworks to allow Syrian teachers to work. In Turkey, a framework was developed to provide incentives to Syrian volunteer teachers through the Ministry of National Education, reaching over 8,700 teachers by end of 2015.⁷¹

Improving the qualifications of teachers through training happens in various ways.⁷² However, the literature describes mostly what is done, rather than the effect this has on education quality. Reviews by NORAD/NRC assess how the availability of teachers and quality of teaching has improved through their support of both governments and NGOs but unfortunately do not collect information on education outcomes thereof.⁷³

Adaptations to the curricula is an intervention often mentioned in the literature for its expected impact on access and quality of education for refugee children. It is a complex and (politically) sensitive topic, and it is important to stress that it does not refer to large-scale curriculum reforms (despite this being the term often used in the literature). There are two main strands to these interventions. One focuses on the language of instruction, the other on the actual content of the lessons to improve the relevance and accessibility of education for refugee children.

The problem of the language of instruction is particularly prevalent in Lebanon and Turkey.⁷⁴ In Lebanon, the language of instruction is English, French and Arabic. Most Syrian refugees only speak Arabic, and so cannot engage with curricula taught in English or French. The same issue applies in Turkey, but with the standard language of instruction being Turkish.⁷⁵ The language barrier can be overcome in different ways, by language instruction on the one hand, or by using the language of the refugees for instruction on the other. In Kenya, the Kenyan curriculum is mandatory in all schools, formal or informal, in or out of refugee camps. In such circumstances the challenge is to develop adaptations within the formal national curriculum that allow teachers to find strategic ways to provide more relevant education to refugee and other students (e.g. allowing students to make use of their own life stories).⁷⁶ Accreditation, as discussed above, is also an issue regarding curricula reforms, as such reforms need to be recognised.⁷⁷

There are a few examples in the literature of successful adaptations of the curriculum, most notably a private Lebanese school that translated the curriculum to Arabic.⁷⁸ 'An arrangement between the school principal and [Ministry] made it possible for students to answer the official exams in Arabic instead of English. The passing rate for secondary students in this school was the highest compared to other provisions where the curriculum was taught in English.'⁷⁹ There is also a case study from Turkey where temporary education centres offer the Syrian curriculum, giving the refugees a greater chance to reintegrate when they return home. On the one hand, the use of the Syrian curriculum with adaptations is said to have helped refugees' transition into their new context. On the other hand, certain community schools in Turkey are using what is known as the Syrian Adapted Curriculum, which is based on the Syrian curriculum

⁷¹ Zubairi and Rose, 2016.

⁷² Burde et al, 2015.

⁷³ NORAD, 2017.

⁷⁴ The issue is somewhat less problematic in Jordan, where the primary medium for instruction is Arabic, while English is also used and in general at a much higher standard than that commonly found in Syria.

⁷⁵ Culbertson et al, 2015.

⁷⁶ Mendenhall et al, 2017.

⁷⁷ Culbertson et al, 2015.

⁷⁸ Shuayb, 2015.

⁷⁹ Shuayb 2015.

but adapted in terms of political messages and pedagogy. This Adapted Curriculum is linked with the Syrian Opposition Government, and is, as such, politically charged.⁸⁰

Closely related to education for refugee children are interventions that aim at improving **child wellbeing** more generally. Though not within the scope of the literature review, it is worthwhile noting some of the interventions that overlap with the education field and emerged from the studies analysed (see text box 3).

Text box 3. Child Wellbeing

Though strictly speaking not education programmes, these programmes aiming at improved child wellbeing in practice often overlap with education programmes and therefore featured in the literature reviewed (though not evaluated unfortunately):

- **Risk reduction**
 - Approaches to manage daily stress and post-crisis sources of risk (e.g. violence)
 - Specific support programmes and referrals for the most vulnerable and for girls versus boys
- **Prevention**
 - Socioemotional learning approaches
 - Culturally relevant programme design
 - Inclusive teaching practices
- **Resilience**
 - Community participation in the school environment
 - Positive school climate and peer relations
 - Creative arts and play therapies
 - Early childhood development programmes
 - Parental and caregiver support
 - Opportunities for youth to demonstrate leadership and agency

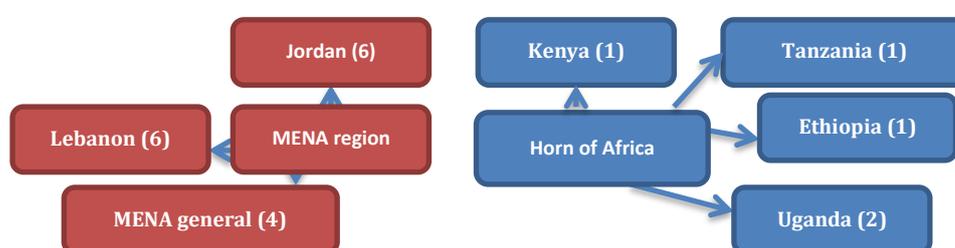
⁸⁰ However, this conclusion is based on a limited study of one school in Turkey, focusing on the experiences of teacher and administrators in the school. See Hos, 2017.

'Refugee youth want the same things young people everywhere want: to be consulted, to be listened to, to contribute, to engage, and to be part of solutions' (UNHCR, 2016, Global Refugee Youth Consultations)

5. Literature Analysis - Employment and Youth

Twenty-two articles were examined on employment and employability programmes for refugee youth in the two regions of concern, either providing youth with employment opportunities or preparing/training them for future employment. Of the 22 articles, five took a global perspective, summarising existing literature on refugees in general, while 14 focused on the MENA region and only three discussed countries in the Horn of Africa. Most studies described interventions regarding employment for (young) refugees. Only seven articles were evaluations of the effectiveness of specific employment-related interventions for refugee youths. For sure, there are more evaluations of employment programmes elsewhere in the world,⁸¹ however, this literature review focuses on refugee *youth* in the MENA region and the Horn of Africa.

The geographical breakdown of the interventions is shown in the figure below (some articles deal with more than one country and some are unspecified) and makes clear is that once again there is much more literature available on interventions in the MENA region than in the Horn of Africa.



5.1. Challenges to Employment for Youth

The primary barrier to employment for refugee youth is legal. In the majority of the countries analysed for this report, refugees do not have the legal right to work in the host countries' economy (or only under very stringent conditions).⁸² Except for Uganda and to a lesser extent Jordan, the picture is primarily one of legal restrictions and barriers, which refugees have no chance of overcoming and interventions can rarely address.⁸³ As a result, the employment opportunities for refugee youth are often within the confines of the camps or in the black, informal economy in competition with the most vulnerable of the host country's population.

As a result, any intervention aimed at improving employment and employability of refugee youth through the interventions described here below will be hindered by the legal frameworks that prevent refugees from working. Even if the intervention is aimed at the future, i.e. employability once back home or elsewhere, training without actual practice or employment prospects is likely to be less effective. Moreover, legal barriers to work are bound to frustrate

⁸¹ See for example Kluve and Puerto, 2016.

⁸² See for an overview from 2017: <https://www.al-fanarmedia.org/2017/02/fact-sheet-syrians-work-rights-in-neighboring-countries/>.

⁸³ See for a description of the labour market for Syrian refugees in Jordan, DRC, 2017, Alternatives to cash assistance. Jordan.

refugee youths. Text box 4 below describes the benefits of a more liberal legal framework, as used in Uganda.

Another example worthwhile noting is the so-called Jordan Compact, a partnership established in 2016 between the international community (including the EU) and the Government of Jordan whereby Jordan receives concessional loans and preferential trade terms in return for labour market access for Syrian refugees.⁸⁴ For example, the release of funds from the World Bank programme is tied to work permits issued (130,000 by 2019), as well other commitments such as improving the investment climate. Permits are, however, only available in certain sectors, mostly for minimum-wage jobs, and the worker is tied to a single employer under a one-year contract (with a strict ratio of the number of Jordanian workers to Syrian workers).⁸⁵

Text box 4. Employment for refugee youth and legal frameworks – the case of Uganda and Ethiopia⁸⁶

As discussed, the legal barriers to work are by far and away the biggest problem refugee youth face in gaining employment. The ability of refugees to become self-reliant in countries of asylum is closely related to whether they are in an environment that enables their economic inclusion in the host society. The impact the legal barriers and frameworks have on youth employability, is best illustrated through an analysis of the difference between Ethiopia and Uganda regarding the refugee employability. Refugees have faced far greater restrictions in Ethiopia than in Uganda, including more limited opportunities to access work and to create their own businesses.

In Uganda, refugees have traditionally benefited from a legal framework that grants them rights and access to land, with refugees engaging in business opportunities that benefit local communities, allowing for their greater self-reliance and contributing to Uganda's economy. Uganda is one of the designated pilot countries of the UN Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF), which is based on the idea that refugees should be included in the communities from the very beginning and camps should be the exception.⁸⁷

In Ethiopia, it is only since 2009 that government has somewhat relaxed its policy of encampment for all refugees. However, whether or not refugees live in camps or cities, they are generally unable to engage in formal employment and have very limited access to land. Only in a few projects (with international donors) have refugees been allowed income-generating activities in the informal sector (e.g. Dollo Ado Camp). Following the examples in Jordan and Lebanon, Ethiopia is now also working on a national compact for job creation with support from donors.

The World Bank has identified Uganda as one of the few countries where entrepreneurship training has had a demonstrative benefit for both refugee youth and the local economy. In one of the few scientific quantifiable studies, a Youth Opportunities Programme in North Uganda, paying for a vocational training course, tools, and business start-up costs, was shown to result in a clear increase in employability and wage earnings; about two-thirds found skilled work after the programme compared to one-third of the control group (both men and women).⁸⁸ The reason for this is that the refugees have legal rights to work and set up businesses, meaning training programmes and business start-up funding serves a practical purpose, which can immediately lead to employment, whereas in countries with legal barriers to this, refugees do not see the point of engaging with such programmes.

⁸⁴ ODI, 2018. Also, IRC, 2017a.

⁸⁵ For a journalistic evaluation, see Howden, Patchett and Alfred, 2017, *The Compact Experiment in the Refugees deeply*, <http://issues.newsdeeply.com/the-compact-experiment>.

⁸⁶ OECD, 2017c.

⁸⁷ The CRRF is the first of two Annexes to the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants adopted in September 2016 at a High-level meeting of the UN General Assembly. Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania and Zambia are all committed to applying the comprehensive framework (so-called pilot-countries). It is also being applied to the Somalia situation. See <http://www.unhcr.org/comprehensive-refugee-response-framework-crrf.html>.

⁸⁸ World Bank, 2012 and World Bank and IPA, 2011.

Other barriers to employment for refugee youths discussed in the literature are:

- the absence of employment opportunities
- lack of information on job opportunities
- lack of skills and/or experience
- medical conditions or injuries
- having dependent family members and children requiring care
- host community resistance
- cultural barriers to work, especially for women.

5.2. How to promote Employment for Youth

Interventions in the field of employment and employability of refugee youths fall into three broad categories:

- financial support such as Cash for Work (but also the cash grants discussed earlier in 2.4.1);
- training and skills (including an innovative initiative to exchange skills as described in textbox 5); and
- livelihood centres where different services come together.

It must be noted that most of the interventions were directed at the refugee population of working-age and not specifically at youths. Youths were mostly identified as an important sub-group, but interventions were rarely geared specifically at this group.⁸⁹

Therefore, once more, the interventions listed here below are not recommendations, but rather examples of interventions that are most often described as potentially effective in the literature reviewed. Very little known of what works in this field, so that any investment should include rigorous monitoring and evaluating of the impact of such interventions on the specific circumstances of young refugees.

Interventions described – but not evaluated – concern Cash for Work programmes, training and skills programmes and livelihood centres. These are therefore described below.

Cash for Work (CfW) programmes were some of the rare employment-related interventions described in the literature that aim specifically at refugee youth living in camps (e.g. for Syrian refugees in Lebanon). These programmes create work for willing participants and create outputs (e.g. sanitary facilities, classrooms) that can in turn help to address other crisis-related issues and needs inside these camps). In the Lebanese CfW programmes, described by the ILO, vocational training was often added to the programme to ensure a more sustained impact through skills development of beneficiaries.⁹⁰

There is unfortunately very little evidence of the benefits of CfW programmes for refugee youth due to a lack of sound research in this area. CfW is found to appeal mostly to men, both because of the type of work (generally manual, short-term labour) and the working conditions (e.g. long

⁸⁹ Only the three UNHCR reports of 2016 explicitly discuss the challenges that young refugees face regarding employment, however, these reports are descriptive rather than evaluative and do not detail country level interventions.

⁹⁰ This training consisted of on-the-job training or a separate in-class training component, by NGOs such as IRC and CESVI. Battistin and Leape, Virginia, 2017.

working hours, lack of childcare services).⁹¹ An evaluation of the UNDP employment programme in Jordan (not specifically aimed at youth though) showed how beneficiaries of CfW had an increase in income and often moved on to the establishment of microbusinesses (supported by UNDP as well). However, the benefit was larger for Jordanian participants.⁹² Research conducted in Lebanon suggested that when implemented in conjunction with Livelihood Centres (as discussed below), together CfW have the potential to help refugee youth in finding longer-term work.⁹³

Training and skills programmes include:

- Technical, Vocational and Educational Training (TVET)⁹⁴
- Apprenticeships
- Skills exchange programmes among community members
- Tertiary Education support and scholarships
- Entrepreneurial Programmes, such as intensive business skills training courses

Training in one form or another comes up in the literature more than any other intervention relating to employment/employability. It is discussed in 8/22 of the articles analysed, with five of them providing evidence on specific interventions and with McLoughlin (2017) and Hassan (2016) providing the most detailed intervention-specific information (though McLoughlin focuses mostly on refugees from protracted crisis). Still, none of the studies comes up with evidence of results.

Nevertheless, UNHCR, for example, supports a range of TVET activities for refugees, from language and IT training, life-skills and employability training, to entrepreneurship training, to the provision of locally recognised diplomas.⁹⁵ UNHCR recognises the importance of access to the internet and technology in the modern world, and therefore launched the Community Technology Access programme in 2009 (among others in the Horn of Africa and the MENA regions), which ‘gives refugees access to computers, the Internet and associated learning and employment opportunities.’ It also includes providing employment for refugees online, through data-outsourcing and ‘microwork’^{96,97} Its effectiveness has unfortunately not been reported.

Text box 5. The award-winning Time Bank in Azraq Camp, Jordan⁹⁸

Though not evaluated with a sound study, the skills exchange initiative set up by young refugees in the Azraq Camp in Jordan is worth noting. This initiative is a so-called Time Bank, where time instead of money is used as a currency to access services and exchange skills within the community. The idea for the Time Bank came up in the Social Innovation programme with workshops and bootcamps for young individuals in the camp, designed by UNICEF to enable the young refugees to think creatively about problems affecting their communities.⁹⁹ The Time Bank was selected as the winner of the UN OCHA Humanitarian Award for Jordan in the innovation category in August 2017.

⁹¹ Battistin and Leape, 2017.

⁹² UNDP evaluation quoted in Hassan, 2016.

⁹³ Battistin and Leape, 2017.

⁹⁴ This can be once-off, short term workshop-style training or longer-term training.

⁹⁵ McLoughlin, 2017.

⁹⁶ A series of small tasks that contribute towards a larger project and are completed by many individuals over the Internet.

⁹⁷ UNHCR, 2014.

⁹⁸ <http://unicefstories.org/2017/09/12/lessons-from-six-young-refugees-that-started-a-skills-exchange-in-azraq-camp/>.

⁹⁹ <http://unicefstories.org/2016/11/29/leveraging-the-potential-of-youth-in-azraq-camp-jordan/>.

The challenges with TVET and other training-related interventions are similar to those described in the education chapter. For example, physical access to TVET locations and quality TVET with relevant curricula and good teachers are as important for these types of training for young refugees as they are for the children accessing basic education. Apparently, the quality of TVET for refugee youth leaves much to be desired: ‘TVET is currently associated with low quality education that does not provide concrete prospects for employment’, as noted during a 2016 conference of donors working in the MENA region.¹⁰⁰ There is, for example, too little transfer of technical knowledge and inadequate soft skills training. This is not necessarily an argument against TVET programmes per se, but rather an argument for improving quality and relevance of the training.

Livelihood centres (LCs) are youth employment centres or community centres, which provide a venue for job-seekers and employers for training activities, information and employment-related services to jobseekers, training providers, and employers, addressing together many of the barriers discussed above. Youth can often access bundle of employment-related (and other) services, for example to

- find work
- gain (life) skills and support
- get career guidance
- receive help with paperwork and legal issues

Also referred to as youth centres, youth employment centres, community centres, and career guidance centres, they are discussed in 6/22 of the articles analysed. Compared to some of the other interventions, there is quite some evidence in support of these centres.

This being said, it remains unclear from the literature which of the individual services offered at these centres works, whether the bundle of services works or whether the centres themselves work to promote refugee youth employability. The evidence from one livelihood centre in North Lebanon suggests that by providing a combination of services, including training and a Cash for Work schemes, LCs can offer support for refugee youth (e.g. better matching of candidates for CfW). Furthermore, an interesting side-effect of these centres is that they can be used by both refugees and local people, building connections and helping to prevent the spread of resentment towards refugees, as was noted in the example of the same livelihood centre in North Lebanon run by the International Rescue Committee, where 59% of users were Syrian and 41% Lebanese.¹⁰¹

¹⁰⁰ UNICEF, 2016.

¹⁰¹ Battistin and Leape, 2017.

Annex I - Methodology

This Annex describes the search methodology used for the literature review on education for refugee children and employment opportunities for refugee youth in the Middle East and North Africa and in the Horn of Africa. A justification is given for the steps taken, along with a discussion of the gaps discovered in the search.

Search terms

The first decision made was to divide the search into the two distinct areas of 'education' and 'employment.' While there is inevitably some crossover between the two, there was sufficient difference in the types of programmes and support, as well as the target groups of 'children' and 'youth' to justify dividing the search accordingly.

Children and education

The search began with refugee children and education. Together, the authors discussed the initial relevant search terms, based on their own understanding of the issues and the call from the IOB. The searches were done initially on Google, and then Google Scholar. Any literature, which was potentially relevant, was saved in a document, and then reviewed and assessed later. The search continued on each term until the researchers determined there was little to be gained from each further page on Google. The average search ended 7 pages into Google Scholar. Following the search of said terms, the researcher also searched a number of relevant websites and databases of well-known NGOs and international institutions and organisations. These were decided upon again based on previous understanding of the topic as well as organisations which routinely appeared in the Google searches. This step yielded a further 15 articles.

Youth and employment

The search on youth and employment followed the same approach. There was less information on employment available, with the first search yielding only 19 articles, resulting in a broadening of the search (e.g. through websites, references). The initial search resulted in a great deal of information on employment programmes in Western host countries and resettlement programmes, but not on the target region of this literature review. The broadening of the search by accessing websites of well-known NGOs and international institutions and organisations, a further 17 articles were found.

Extended search

Following the initial collection of literature, the list compiled was compared with an overview document previously created by IOB. This showed that while there was a great deal of overlap in the literature, the overview document had a higher number of NGO reports compared with our initial collection of literature, which had more scientific articles. This resulted in a deepening of our search, focusing more on NGOs working in the region. Additional literature was found as a result of this new search, following up on references in previous literature and as a result of the further searches of NGO websites. Following this second search, 5 more articles were found on 'education and children', and 6 more were found on 'youth and employment'. This additional literature was added to the literature document. The assumed reason for this literature not showing up in the original search is that many of the reports are not coded in such a way as to show up in Google searches, requiring a direct search on the website instead.

Exclusion criteria

The search results were then organised by type and organization. Following this, the literature was reduced as the researchers began to exclude some literature. The first criteria for exclusion were that the literature was outdated, fell outside the scope of the study, or did not deal with the regions in question. However, if a study dealt with themes, which could be relevant for this study, the lessons learned were kept.

Quality criteria

Literature was also excluded if it was not of a high enough standard as determined by the researcher. As discussed above, there was little high-quality research, i.e. conducted according to scientific standards (e.g. control groups, large enough samples). However, for this literature review to be of use despite lack of strong evidence, it was agreed to relax the quality criteria to some extent (e.g. by allowing for overview articles and descriptive studies) and explore those interventions that received most attention in the literature. Quality criteria included:

- Opinion articles and political pamphlets were excluded.
- A distinction was made between articles that reported on evaluations of the effectiveness of an intervention or that were rather descriptions of an intervention or situation. All evaluations (17 in total) were based on combinations of primary and secondary research. While at first the focus was only on evaluative studies, later descriptive studies that fulfilled the other quality criteria, were included as well
- The quality of the literature was, moreover, judged on the professionalism and accuracy of the writing, whether it was in a well-known or regarded journal, website or other source, and whether the documents adhered to basic social science norms on bias and impartiality.

Final selection

As a result of exclusion based on relevance and (some degree of) quality, the literature on 'education and children' was reduced from 47 articles to 28 and the literature on 'employment and youth' was reduced from 42 to 22 articles (see the table below).

Overview of evidence – evaluations

	Children & education	Youth & employment
Articles, of which	28	22
Out of camps	9	3
In camps or both	19	19
MENA region	13	14
Global	10	5
South Sudan or Somalia origin	7	3
Evaluations (including overviews)	11	7
Evaluation Africa	1	1

The final literature, having been organised by type and organisation, and deemed relevant for the study, was then analysed to form the core of this report, detailing what is being done where on education for children and employment for youth in the MENA region and the Horn of Africa and what are the lessons to be learnt about the results and way of working.

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Annex III – Classification of the literature reviewed - Education

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
Zubairi and Rose, 2016	ALPs Tackling the distance to school Teacher Training	Both	Jordan, Kenya, Uganda	Syria, South Sudan, Somalia	Descriptive	No
Culbertson et al, 2015	Tackling the distance to school Second Shifts Curriculum Adaptation Teacher Training Community Participation Accreditation	Both	Turkey, Lebanon, and Jordan	Syria	Descriptive	No
Burde et al, 2015	Overview of all Interventions in literature: ALPs; Tackling the distance to school; Curriculum Adaptation; Teacher Training	Both	Global	All	Evaluative	Yes
Dryden-Peterson, 2012	Tackling the distance to school Financial Support	Both	Global	All, but focus on Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan	Descriptive	No
El-Ghali et al, 2016	Legal Changes Waiving Book and School Fees Second Shifts ALPs Tackling the distance to school	Out	Lebanon	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
Hos, 2017	Tackling the distance to school Curriculum Adaptation Accreditation	Out	Turkey	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Human Rights Watch, 2016	Tackling the distance to school Teacher Training Second Shift ALPs	Both	Turkey, Jordan, Lebanon	Syria	Descriptive	No

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
Jalbout, 2015	Teacher Training Establishment of Monitoring Commissions Second Shift Tackling the distance to school Accreditation	Both	Turkey	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
Mackinnon, 2014	Curriculum Adaptation Tackling the distance to school Teacher Training	In	Kenya	Somalia	Evaluative	Yes
Mendenhall et al, 2017	Teacher Training Curriculum Adaptation	Both	Kenya	South Sudan, Somalia	Descriptive	No
NORAD, 2017	Teacher Training Tackling the distance to school Community Participation	Both	Jordan, Lebanon, South Sudan and Somalia	South Sudan, Somalia, Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Bassam et al, 2017	Cash transfers	Out	Jordan	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Hagan et. al, 2017	Cash transfers - Unconditional	Out	Jordan	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
O'Hagan, 2013	Education demand - spatial impact	Both	South Sudan	South Sudan	evaluative	Yes
Shuayb et al, 2015	Curriculum Adaptation ALP	Both	Lebanon	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Susan Nicolai et al, 2015	Teacher Training Emergency Response Plans Tackling the distance to school ALPs Community Participation	Both, primarily Out	Global, focus on Ethiopia and Rwanda	South Sudan, Somalia, Burundi, DRC	Descriptive	Yes
UNHCR, 2017a	Cash transfers	Out	All / Kenya and Turkey	All	evaluative	Yes
UNHCR, 2017b	Scholarships for Tertiary Education Teacher Training	Both	Ethiopia, Lebanon, Jordan, Turkey	Somalia, Syria	Descriptive	No
UNHCR, 2016	Scholarships for Tertiary Education Tackling the distance to schools Teacher Training ALPs	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	No

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
UNHCR, 2011	Overview of Interventions, Focus on Barriers Refugees Face Recommendations for Future Programmes	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	No
UNICEF, 2017	Investment through Governments and NGOs Tackling the distance to schools ALPs Curriculum Adaptation	Both	Global, case Lebanon	Syria	Descriptive	No
UNICEF, 2015	Information Campaigns Legal Changes Teacher Training Tackling the distance to schools Community Participation	Both	Jordan	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
UNICEF, 2013	Tackling the distance to school Community Participation Teacher Training Planning Advocacy	Out	Global	All	Descriptive	Yes
UNICEF/Unesco, 2015	Conditional Cash Transfers Curriculum Adaptation	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	Yes
Watkins and Zyck, 2014	ALPs Accreditation Tackling the distance to school	Both, primarily out	Lebanon	Syria	Descriptive	No
World Bank, 2016	Technology Tackling the distance to schools Curriculum Adaptation	Both	MENA	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
World Bank, 2018	Overview of Best Practice Focus on Technical and Political Barriers	Out	Global	All	Descriptive	No
INEE, 2010	Overview of all Interventions in literature including: ALPs; Tackling the distance to school; Curriculum	Both	MENA	Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan	Evaluative	Yes

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
	Adaptation; Teacher Training; Accreditation					

Annex IV – Classification of the literature reviewed - Employment

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
ODI, 2017a	Mapping actors CE+YE	Both	Jordan	Syria	Descriptive	No
OECD, 2017a	Donor programmes CE+YE	Both	South Sudan	South Sudan	descriptive	no
IFAD/ILO, 2017	TVET Livelihood Centres	Both	Jordan	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
CARE, 2016	Legal Barriers, focus on Women	Both	MENA	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
Fehling at al, 2015.	Overview of interventions	Both	MENA	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
Hassan, 2016	Infrastructure TVET Entrepreneurship Support & Microbusinesses Establishment	Both	Jordan	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
ILO Report, 2017	Legal Barriers Infrastructure TVET Livelihood Centres	Both	MENA	Syria	Descriptive	No
Battistin, et al, 2017	Cash for Work Schemes Livelihood Centres	Both	MENA, focus Lebanon	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
IRC, 2017a	Livelihood Centres Special Economic Zones	Both	Jordan	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
IRC, 2017b	Employment programmes - Jordan Compact	Out	Jordan	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
Mcloughlin, 2017	Cash Transfers TVET Livelihood Centres	Both	MENA	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Mencütek, 2015	Focus on Barriers, especially legal Community Participation	Both	Lebanon	Syria	Descriptive	No

Title	Type of Intervention	In or Out of Camp	Country	Country of Origin Refugees	Descriptive or Evaluative	Research with survey
Roth et al, 2017	Cash Transfers TVET Livelihood Centres	Both	Jordan	Syria	Descriptive	Yes
UNHCR, 2013	Overview of Problems Faced by Syrian Refugees	Both	Lebanon	Syria	Evaluative	Yes
Milner, 2011	Self Reliance Strategies Legal Barriers	Out	Uganda, Kenya, Thailand, Tanzania	Somalia, South Sudan, DRC	Descriptive	No
OECD, 2017c	Legal Barriers TVET Special Economic Zones	Both	Ethiopia, Uganda	Somalia, South Sudan, DRC	Evaluative	Yes
ILO, 2015	TVET Technical Advice	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	No
OECD, 2017b	Legal Barriers	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	No
UNHCR, 2016b	Scholarships for Tertiary Education Infrastructure Teacher Training Accelerated Learning Programmes	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	Yes
UNHCR, 2016c	Overview of barriers	Both	Global	All	Descriptive	No
World Bank, 2012	Overview of Youth Interventions, not focused on refugees	Out	Global	All	Descriptive	Yes