



## RESEARCH PROJECT

# Advancing Educational Solutions: Research for Scaling Education Innovations in Education Emergency and Fragile, Conflict- and Violence-affected Areas of Burkina Faso, Ghana and Nigeria

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## Nigeria's Situational Analysis Report

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BY:

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March 2026

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## Acronyms and Abbreviations

ABEP	Accelerated Basic Education Programme
AEP	Accelerated Education Programme
AFC	Associates for Change
AGILE	Adolescent Girls Initiative for Learning and Empowerment
BAY	Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe
BESDA	The Better Education Service Delivery for All
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
ECW	Education Cannot Wait
EiE	Education in Emergencies
EiEWG	Education in Emergency Working Group
EiEWGN	Education in Emergencies Working Group Nigeria
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FCDO	Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office
FCV	Fragility, Conflict, and Violence
FDGs	Focus Group Discussions
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
G4G	Girls for Girls
GEI	Gender, Equity, and Inclusion
GFPs	Girls Focused Programs
GPE KIX	Global Partnership for Education, Knowledge, and Innovation Exchange
HOVIPAD	Horn of Hope Vision of Peace and Community Development
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IRC	International Rescue Committee

KABHUDA	Kanem Borno Human Development Association
KII	Key Informant Interview
LEA	Local Education Authority
LGAs	Local Government Areas
LGEA	Local Government Education Authority
MMC	Maiduguri Municipal Council
MTN	Mobile Telephone Network
MTSS	Medium Term Sector Strategy
NEMA	National Emergency Management Agency
NESRI	Nigeria Education Sector Renewal Initiative
NGOs	Non- Governmental Organisations
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
OOSC	Out-Of-School Children
OOSCY	Out-Of-School Children and Youth
PSS	PsychoSocial Support
PTAs	Parents and Teachers Associations
REPs	Radio Education Programmes
SEL	Social and Emotional Learning
SBMCs	School-Based Management Committees
SUBEBs	State Universal Basic Education Boards
TVET	Technical and Vocational Training
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene

## **Acknowledgment**

The Centre for the Study of the Economies of Africa (CSEA) would like to express its sincere gratitude to the Global Partnership for Education Knowledge and Innovation Exchange (GPE KIX), and International Development and Research Centre (IDRC), Canada, for providing the necessary funding for this research project, titled "Advancing Educational Solutions: Research for Scaling Education Innovations in Education Emergency and Fragile, Conflict- and Violence-affected Areas of Burkina Faso, Ghana and Nigeria".

We would also like to acknowledge the invaluable collaboration of our consortium members, led by Associates for Change (AFC) and its director, Dr. Leslie Casely-Hayford, as well as Centre d'Études, de Recherches et de Formation pour le Développement Économique et Social (CERFODES), and Dr Ricardo Sabates Aysa.

We also acknowledge and appreciate CSEA's research team, comprising Dr Adedeji Adeniran, Dr Oluwatosin Edafe, Dr Adamu Wudil, Tikristini Olawale, Salihu Abdulkhalid Anda, Tolulope Owolabi, Favour Chiwemmeri, and Munachiso Ifechukwu for their support and contributions in conducting and putting together this Situational Analysis Report.

We are also grateful to our partner, Kanem Borno Human Development Agency (KABHUDA), and their team of enumerators and supervisors, who made significant contributions to the data collection process. We would like to thank the education authorities, including the State Universal Basic Education Board, State Agency for Mass Literacy, and Local Government Education Authority, for granting us permission to conduct the data collection exercise.

Also, we appreciate the community heads, teachers, headteachers, PTA/SBMC, parents, and students who participated in the interviews and Focus Group Discussions. Without the collective efforts and inputs of all these individuals and organisations, this research project would not have been possible.

## Executive Summary

Education in Nigeria's North-East, particularly in Borno State, continues to face severe disruption due to the combined effects of conflict, displacement, climate-related shocks, and systemic weaknesses. This situational analysis, examines the state of education in emergencies (EiE) across three Local Government Areas (LGAs); Maiduguri Metropolitan Council (MMC), Jere, and Konduga, representing varying levels of fragility and access to education services. The study aims to generate evidence to inform the scaling of education innovations that improve access, retention, and learning outcomes for vulnerable children in fragile, conflict, and violence affected (FCV) settings.

Using a mixed-methods approach, the study draws on data from, 100 household surveys, 80 focus group discussions, 57 key informant interviews with stakeholders including teachers, learners, parents, government officials, and non-governmental organisations, and 17 school observations. The analysis is complemented by a desk review of national documents focused on education policies, sector plans, EiE-related frameworks, and partner reports to map the formal policy and institutional context shaping EiE in Nigeria. Findings show that education disruption is widespread and prolonged. Approximately 59% of sampled schools reported closures in recent years, with 90% of these closures lasting extended periods. Flooding emerged as the most common cause of disruption, followed by insecurity and conflict, particularly in high-risk areas such as Konduga LGA. These shocks have contributed to reduction in school enrolment, irregular attendance, and reduced participation in learning. While some recovery is evident in relatively stable areas, access to education remains uneven and fragile.

The study estimates 142 out-of-school children across the sampled schools, with slightly higher representation among girls. Gender disparities persist in enrolment and retention, driven by factors such as gender-based violence, domestic responsibilities, and socio-cultural norms affecting girls, alongside economic pressures pushing boys into labour. Teacher deployment is highly uneven, with some areas experiencing severe shortages and high student-teacher ratios, undermining the quality of instruction and learning outcomes. Despite these challenges, a range of education innovations is present. Accelerated Education Programmes (AEPs), girls' education initiatives, psychosocial support, and radio/digital learning platforms have helped restore access and support continuity of learning. However, their availability and effectiveness vary significantly across LGAs, with limited coverage in more insecure and remote areas. Institutional challenges including, weak coordination, fragmented service delivery, limited teacher training, and inadequate infrastructure continue to constrain the effectiveness and scalability of these interventions.

The policy environment for EiE in Nigeria is relatively well-developed, with national strategies and contingency plans in place. However, implementation gaps remain significant at subnational levels due to limited resources, weak operationalisation, and insufficient alignment between policy and practice. Based on these findings, the study highlights the need for strengthened investment in resilient education systems that can withstand shocks. Key priorities include expanding access to alternative and accelerated learning pathways, improving teacher recruitment and deployment, strengthening psychosocial and gender-responsive support systems, enhancing coordination among stakeholders, and ensuring that national EiE frameworks are translated into actionable plans at state and LGA levels.

# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Background and Context of the Study

Education is a fundamental human right and a powerful tool for fostering peace, stability, and development. However, in times of crisis such as armed conflicts, natural disasters, epidemics, and forced displacement, this right is often disrupted, leaving millions of children vulnerable and out of school (Ogunode et al., 2025). Nigeria, Africa's most populous country, has the third-largest number of out-of-school children (OOSC) globally (ICIR, 2023). Statistics also reveal that approximately 19.7 million children are out of school in Nigeria, consisting of 9.7 million primary-age children and 10 million secondary-age youth (ICIR, 2023; UNESCO, 2022). The northeast region, notably the BAY areas (Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe states), experiences a higher concentration of these figures, with Borno state alone accounting for almost 54% of OOSC in Nigeria (Sunday, 2024). Protracted conflict, displacement, climate stress, socio-economic fragility, and insurgent activities have led to the destruction of educational infrastructure, along with the abduction and killing of students and teachers. This has resulted in high numbers of out-of-school children, weak learning outcomes, and increased risks of dropout, especially among girls and other marginalised groups. Hence, causing a significant disruption to the education system in those areas. The need for education in emergencies has become increasingly urgent in Nigeria due to persistent security challenges, natural disasters, and humanitarian crises. The Boko Haram insurgency, farmer–herder clashes, communal conflicts, and banditry have contributed largely to the displacement of millions of children, particularly in the North-East and North-West regions. In addition, floods, epidemics, and other environmental shocks continue to disrupt educational access, compounding pre-existing structural problems such as inadequate infrastructure, teacher shortages, and poor funding (Ogunode et al., 2025).

Borno State has experienced prolonged conflict and displacement, which has significantly disrupted access to education. Many schools have been damaged, closed, or repurposed as shelters for displaced persons, limiting opportunities for children to continue their education. This situational analysis examines the current education context in selected LGAs and identifies key challenges affecting schooling in fragile and conflict-affected communities. This critical issue has necessitated the rise of innovative education solutions in Nigeria. Innovations such as Accelerated Education Programme (AEP), Girls-Focused Programs (GFPs), Socio-Emotional Learning (SEL), and Psychosocial Support have emerged as vital interventions to address the needs of marginalised groups, including out-of-school children and youths affected by poverty, conflict, and crisis. These interventions and programmes are designed to complement formal schooling and help to establish strong links with the public education system, facilitating children's transition into formal school upon their completion in these programs (Adeniran et al., 2022). These interventions have been implemented as a means of reducing the OOSC rate, increasing enrolment and improving learning outcomes in fragile and conflict-affected regions. Thus, education interventions in conflict and emergencies serve as a vital tool for protection, stability, and hope. It provides affected learners with a sense of normalcy, safeguarding children from exploitation, trauma, and long-term social exclusion through psychosocial support and opportunities for future development (Ogunode et al., 2025). It also contributes to peacebuilding and social cohesion by promoting tolerance, inclusion, and resilience among affected communities (Ayoko, 2025).

This situational analysis provides a comprehensive and evidence-based assessment of the operational, institutional, and socio-political contexts for scaling education innovations in fragile, conflict- and violence-affected (FCV) areas in Borno state, Nigeria. Drawing on recent data and field-based insights, the study examines how conflict, displacement, and structural fragility shape access to education, learning continuity, and system resilience. This report will serve as a foundational analytical resource to support learning and inform strategic decision-making by Education in Emergencies (EiE) stakeholders, including governments, development partners, civil society organisations, and practitioners. By synthesising contextual and comparative evidence, this analysis identifies key challenges, opportunities, and leverage points for strengthening EiE policies, programmes, and practices, while advancing the right to inclusive, equitable, and quality education in crisis-affected contexts.

Building on evidence from previous GPE KIX and IDRC-supported research on Accelerated Education Programmes (AEP) and Girls-Focused Programmes, this study seeks to strengthen the evidence by examining the availability and effectiveness of selected education innovations designed to enhance access to learning, improve retention, and support holistic child development in emergency and conflict-affected settings. These innovations include Accelerated Education Programmes for out-of-school children, socio-emotional learning and psychosocial support training for teachers, inclusive education strategies for vulnerable and marginalised groups, and alternative learning modalities such as radio-based and digital education. By systematically assessing the impact and scalability of these interventions across low, medium, and high-risk FCV areas, the research aims to generate actionable evidence to inform policy, programming, and investment decisions.

The report is structured to guide both policy reflection and operational planning. Following this background and introduction, the methodology section outlines the study design, data collection tools and instruments, enumerator training processes, data management and analysis procedures, ethical safeguards, and study limitations. Subsequent sections review national EiE-related policies and plans in Nigeria, highlighting gaps between policy intent and implementation, as well as lessons from regional and community-level stakeholders, including international and local NGOs. Within the context of conflict and displacement, the analysis documents patterns of school closures in formal education, their underlying drivers and duration, and the experiences of out-of-school children, refugees, and internally displaced persons. It further explores how affected learners and communities adapt to disrupted educational environments, providing insights to inform more responsive, resilient, and context-sensitive education interventions in FCV settings.

## **1.2 Research Problem**

Education remains a cornerstone of individual well-being and societal development, yet across West Africa, it is increasingly undermined by protracted conflict, violence, and fragility. In Northern Nigeria, insecurity has severely disrupted education systems, leading to rising numbers of out-of-school children and youth (OOSCY) and persistent declines in learning outcomes (Cadamuro et al., 2021). These disruptions are driven by interlocking factors, including armed conflict, displacement, poverty, weak infrastructure, and socio-cultural norms, which collectively limit access to safe and continuous schooling. Girls and young women are disproportionately affected, as interruptions to education often coincide with increased exposure to early marriage, teenage pregnancy, domestic responsibilities, and unsafe

livelihoods, resulting in long-term inequalities in education, health, employment, and civic participation (World Bank, 2024).

In Nigeria, prolonged insurgency and terrorism have resulted in approximately 19.7 million school-age children being out of school, with girls from poor and rural households bearing the greatest burden (UNESCO UIS, 2022; Oyekan, Ayorinde & Adenuga, 2023). Entrenched socio-cultural practices such as gendered norms, early marriage, and household labour expectations, alongside recurrent ethnic and religious conflicts, continue to constrain educational access. These challenges are compounded by growing internal and regional displacement, intensifying pressure on already limited education and social services and heightening local tensions over land, food, and basic resources (UNHCR, 2023). These dynamics underscore a severe challenge in how to sustain education provision, protect learners and teachers, and maintain quality learning in contexts of chronic insecurity.

Despite the presence of several education interventions, many children in Borno State remain out of school due to insecurity, displacement, poverty, and limited access to safe learning environments. Understanding the current education situation is essential to strengthening education-in-emergencies interventions and improving learning continuity. Limited understanding of which education innovations are most effective, adaptable, and cost-efficient in such contexts constrains the development of resilient education systems capable of withstanding shocks and ensuring learning continuity for all children, particularly girls and other marginalised groups (INEE, 2020). Addressing this evidence gap is essential for informing policy, strengthening practice, and breaking cycles of intergenerational poverty and exclusion across FCV areas of Nigeria.

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

The objectives of the study are to;

1. Assess the current state of formal education in high, medium, and low-risk areas in Borno state, Nigeria.
  - a. Assess the state of schools in Fragile, Conflict, and Violence-affected (FCV) contexts.
  - b. examine school infrastructure, teaching quality, safety, psycho-social support, gender responsiveness, alternative learning programmes, and community engagement to inform strategies for scaling education innovations.
2. Map out and identify non-formal and accelerated education interventions
3. Examine the psychosocial and gender equity programmes at the field level
4. Assess the broader conflicts/migration and risk contexts affecting education.
5. Assess key stakeholders' capacity to respond to this potential risk, fragility and conflict
6. Identify the barriers and drivers to inequality in education in the emergency space
7. Assess the feasibility for the scalability of effective education innovations identified for research (AEP, girls' programmes (G4G), SEL and digital radio interventions, etc.).

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1 Study Design**

This study adopted a mixed-methods research design combining quantitative surveys and qualitative data collection methods to capture both statistical trends and stakeholder perspectives on education challenges in the study areas. The design was selected to capture both the policy systems architecture and the lived, operational realities of EiE implementation at national, regional, and Local Government Area (LGA) levels. Given the complexity of EiE, where education delivery intersects with conflict, climate shocks, displacement, and institutional capacity, a flexible and exploratory design was essential to uncover gaps, constraints, and opportunities that may not be evident through a single method or data source.

At the core of the design was a descriptive and analytical situational assessment, combining document review, key informant interviews, and field-level insights. The document review focused on national education policies, sector plans, EiE-related frameworks, and partner reports to map the formal policy and institutional context shaping EiE in Nigeria (see appendix for the national education strategy and EiE contingency plan). This component provided a macro-level understanding of policy intent, strategic priorities, and alignment with global EiE norms, particularly the INEE Minimum Standards, which emphasise preparedness, coordination, protection, and continuity of learning in crisis settings (INEE, 2024).

The qualitative orientation of the study was deliberate, recognising that EiE effectiveness is strongly influenced by institutional practices, informal coordination arrangements, capacity constraints, and perceptions of risk, which are best explored through in-depth, semi-structured engagement (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Interviews were designed to elicit perspectives on preparedness, response mechanisms, coordination practices, teacher deployment, psychosocial support, and challenges encountered during school disruptions.

The study design also incorporated a multi-level systems lens, ensuring that insights from national policy actors were triangulated with regional-level experiences, particularly in crisis-affected or high-risk areas. This approach allowed the analysis to surface implementation gaps between national frameworks and regional realities, a recurring issue in EiE contexts where contingency plans may exist on paper but face constraints in operationalisation. The chosen study design aligns with good practice in EiE and humanitarian education research, which recommends triangulated, qualitative-heavy approaches to understand dynamic crisis environments, institutional readiness, and system resilience (INEE, 2024; UNESCO, 2020). The design ensured that the situational analysis was not only descriptive but also analytically robust, capable of informing practical EiE programming, policy adaptation, and system strengthening within the Nigerian context.

### **2.2 Profile of the Study Area**

The study was conducted in three Local Government Areas (LGAs) in Borno State: Maiduguri Metropolitan Council (MMC), Jere, and Konduga. These LGAs were selected due to their varying levels of conflict exposure, displacement, and access to education services.

**Table 1: Study Area**

<b>LGA</b>	<b>Description</b>
MMC	Urban area with relatively better access to education services
Jere	Peri-urban communities affected by displacement
Konduga	Rural communities with significant infrastructure and security challenges

**Source:** Author's Illustration.

Borno state is situated in the north-eastern region of Nigeria. This region is characterised by semi-arid climatic conditions, seasonal rainfall, and a predominantly agrarian economy. It is also among the country's most socio-economically disadvantaged areas, with high poverty incidence, limited infrastructure, and recurrent exposure to climate-related shocks, particularly flooding and drought. In addition, the region has been significantly affected by the insurgency of the extremist Boko Haram. Conflicts and violence have led to large-scale displacement, humanitarian crises, and destruction of infrastructure, particularly in Borno State, Yobe State, and Adamawa State (BAY states). These structural vulnerabilities intersect with education outcomes, making the region highly relevant for an EiE situational analysis.

**Figure 1: Selected LGAs in Borno State, Nigeria**



Among the three selected local government areas, Konduga is a high-risk area, while MMC and Jere are medium to high-risk areas. Across all three LGAs, education systems operate within contexts of chronic vulnerability rather than isolated shocks. Schools serve communities where poverty, climate stress, insecurity, and social exclusion intersect, increasing the risk of learners dropping out or never enrolling. Accelerated Education programmes (AEP) and NGO-supported interventions are therefore common features of the local education landscape, particularly for out-of-school children and those affected by displacement or household shocks. The selected LGAs thus provide a representative yet differentiated picture of EiE realities in northeast Nigeria, capturing how conflict, climate, and structural disadvantage shape education access, continuity, and system resilience at regional and community levels.

### **2.3 Study Population and Sampling Size**

The study population for this situational analysis comprised education system actors and community stakeholders directly affected by, or involved in, Education in Emergencies (EiE) across the three selected LGAs (Konduga, Jere, and Maiduguri Municipal Council (MMC)). These LGAs were selected because they represent diverse yet overlapping EiE risk profiles, including exposure to conflict and insecurity, climate-related shocks such as flooding, and persistent educational exclusion among vulnerable groups. All these provide a robust empirical basis for understanding EiE dynamics in fragile and shock-prone settings in Nigeria. The study

population included multiple, interrelated categories of respondents to capture the full education ecosystem operating before, during, and after emergencies. These groups comprised:

- i. Teachers and headteachers in public schools,
- ii. In-school learners and students at primary levels,
- iii. Accelerated Education Program (AEP) learners, particularly those transitioning into the formal system,
- iv. Household heads, parents, caregivers, and broader community members, and
- v. LGA-level education and NGO actors, including state ministry of education officials and EiE-implementing organisations.

Including these diverse groups ensured that the analysis reflected both institutional perspectives and lived experiences of learners and communities, which is critical in EiE contexts where shocks affect households, schools, and governance structures simultaneously (INEE, 2024).

A stratified sampling approach was adopted, consistent with the qualitative-dominant design of the study. LGAs were first selected based on EiE relevance, after which respondent categories were stratified to ensure balanced representation across gender, role, and exposure to emergency-related disruptions. Teachers and headteachers were selected from schools with known histories of closure, displacement, or learning disruption, while learners were selected with support from school authorities to ensure age-appropriate and ethically sound participation. For AEP learners, both current participants and programme graduates were included to capture insights on access, continuity, and reintegration into formal education during and after emergencies.

In terms of sampling size, the study did not seek statistical representativeness; rather, it aimed for analytical depth and thematic saturation, which is appropriate for situational analyses in humanitarian and EiE research (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Guest et al., 2012). The study was conducted in 33 communities across the three selected LGAs. 17 school surveys were conducted, and 100 household surveys were done across the communities. In addition, 80 FGDs (for students, teachers, parents, communities) and 57 KIIs (with headteachers, NGOs, State/LGA representatives) were conducted. This sample size was sufficient to enable comparison within and across LGAs, while allowing the study to identify recurring patterns, gaps, and context-specific variations in EiE preparedness, response, and recovery.

## **2.4 Methods of Data Collection and Procedure**

The situational analysis adopted a mixed-method data collection approach, combining primary and secondary data sources to generate a comprehensive and contextually grounded understanding of EiE in the selected LGAs. In line with established EiE and humanitarian research practice, the study relied on a qualitative-dominant design, complemented by a structured survey/questionnaire to capture descriptive patterns and strengthen triangulation across data sources (INEE, 2024; UNESCO, 2020). This integrated approach enabled the study to examine both policy system dimensions and the lived experiences of education disruption and response. A systematic desk review constituted the first stage of data collection. Relevant national and sub-national documents were reviewed, including the Education Strategic Plan,

EiE-related frameworks and contingency plans, Ministry of Education operational guidelines, and reports from development partners and NGOs implementing EiE interventions. The desk review followed a structured analytical framework focusing on policy objectives, institutional roles, coordination arrangements, and identified implementation gaps. Findings from this review informed the design of primary data collection tools and helped refine key lines of inquiry for the fieldwork.

Primary data collection comprised three main methods: key informant interviews (KIIs), focus group discussions (FGDs), and a structured survey/questionnaire. KIIs were conducted with key stakeholders, State and LGA officials, headteachers, teachers, NGO programme staff, and community leaders. Semi-structured interview guides were used to ensure consistency while allowing flexibility to explore context-specific issues. Interviews focused on EiE preparedness and response mechanisms, coordination practices, teacher deployment and retention, psychosocial support, inclusion of vulnerable learners, and operational challenges during periods of disruption. This method was particularly effective for eliciting institutional perspectives, experiential knowledge, and system constraints that are often undocumented (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

FGDs were held with teachers, students, parents, and community members. These discussions provided insights into collective experiences of school closures, access to alternative learning pathways, protection concerns, and community coping strategies during emergencies. FGDs were conducted in gender-sensitive groupings and, where necessary, separately for adults and children to ensure safe and open participation. Participatory facilitation techniques were employed to encourage reflection and dialogue, making FGDs especially valuable for understanding how emergencies affect learners and households differently and how community responses interact with formal education systems (UNICEF, 2019).

In addition to qualitative methods, the study administered a structured survey/questionnaire to a subset of respondents, primarily teachers, headteachers, and education intervention implementers. The questionnaire captured descriptive quantitative information on issues such as frequency and duration of school disruptions, access to alternative learning modalities, availability of learning materials, teacher presence, and perceived preparedness for emergencies. The inclusion of the survey strengthened the situational analysis by enabling the identification of patterns and variations across communities, while complementing the depth provided by qualitative narratives.

The data collection procedure followed a sequenced and ethical process. Following completion of the desk review, all field tools (interview guides, FGD guides, and questionnaires) were finalised and reviewed to ensure clarity, cultural appropriateness, and alignment with EiE objectives. Entry into LGAs and communities was coordinated with LGA Education Offices and local authorities to secure approval and facilitate community trust. Data collection teams were oriented on research ethics, child safeguarding, conflict sensitivity, and EiE principles before field deployment. Data were collected in English and relevant local languages (Hausa), with careful translation where necessary. Interviews and FGDs were documented through detailed note-taking and, where consent was granted, audio recording to support accurate transcription.

## 2.5 Training of Data Enumerators

Before field deployment, a comprehensive training of data enumerators was conducted in Borno state to ensure consistency, data quality, and ethical compliance during the situational analysis field work. The training brought together approximately 40 participants, comprising State Ministry of Education staff, local NGO partners, and experienced enumerators drawn from Konduga, Jere, and MMC LGAs. The training focused on familiarising participants with the objectives of the EiE situational analysis, the study design, and the specific data collection tools, including key informant interview guides, focus group discussion protocols, and the structured survey/questionnaire. Emphasis was placed on ethical research conduct, including informed consent, confidentiality, child safeguarding, and conflict-sensitive engagement, in line with EiE and humanitarian research standards (INEE, 2024; UNICEF, 2019). Enumerators received training on the study tools, ethical considerations, and procedures for conducting interviews in conflict-affected communities. Practical sessions were used to walk enumerators through the tools question-by-question, followed by roleplays and mock interviews to ensure shared understanding, appropriate probing, and consistent administration across LGAs.

**Figure 2: Enumerator training and preparation for data collection in Borno state**



In addition, the training addressed field procedures and quality assurance measures, including respondent selection, accurate recording of responses, translation into local languages where necessary, and daily debriefing protocols. Enumerators were also oriented on managing sensitive discussions related to insecurity, displacement, and psychosocial distress, with clear referral guidance provided where protection concerns emerged. By the end of the training, enumerators demonstrated readiness to undertake data collection in a manner that was ethically sound, technically consistent, and responsive to the fragile and emergency-affected contexts of the study areas.

## **2.6 Data Management and Analysis**

Data management and analysis followed a systematic, multi-stage process designed to ensure data quality, confidentiality, and analytical rigour throughout the situational analysis. Both qualitative and quantitative data were managed in accordance with good practice in education and humanitarian research, with clear procedures established for data handling, storage, and analysis from the point of collection through to interpretation and reporting. Immediately after fieldwork, all completed interviews, focus group discussion notes, and survey questionnaires were collected, labelled, and sorted by LGAs, respondent category, and data collection method. This initial sorting facilitated tracking of coverage across Konduga, Jere, and MMC LGAs, ensuring that all tools were complete before analysis commenced. Audio recordings and field notes were securely stored, with access limited to the core research team to maintain confidentiality.

Qualitative data from key informant interviews and FGDs were then transcribed verbatim by a team of selected and trained transcribers with experience in education and social research. Transcription was conducted in English, with careful translation from local languages where required, and followed a standardised transcription protocol to ensure consistency across transcripts. Completed transcripts were reviewed by the research team for accuracy and completeness before being cleared for coding and analysis. This step was critical for preserving the integrity of participants' narratives and contextual meanings.

Quantitative data from the structured survey/questionnaire were entered into Microsoft Excel for cleaning, validation, and descriptive analysis. Data entry templates were designed to minimise errors and ensure consistency across districts. The quantitative analysis focused on generating descriptive statistics (frequencies, proportions, and comparisons across LGAs) related to school disruptions, access to alternative learning modalities, availability of teaching and learning resources, and perceived preparedness for emergencies. These results were used to complement and triangulate qualitative insights, helping to identify patterns and variations that informed deeper qualitative interpretation.

## **2.7 Ethical Considerations**

The study was conducted in accordance with established ethical principles for social, education, and humanitarian research, with particular attention to the sensitivities associated with EiE contexts. Ethical practice was guided by the principles of voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality, and do-no-harm, consistent with international standards for research in fragile and crisis-affected settings. Before data collection, permission was obtained from relevant education authorities at the state and LGA levels through our partners, KABHUDA and HOVIPAD. In addition, community entry protocols were observed to ensure

transparency and trust. All participants were provided with clear information about the purpose of the study, the nature of their participation, and their right to decline or withdraw at any stage without consequence. Written or verbally informed consent was obtained before interviews, focus group discussions, and surveys were administered (please see appendix for Consent Form). For children, teacher and child assent were secured, and data collection was conducted in child-friendly and safe environments. Enumerators were trained in child safeguarding, confidentiality, and conflict-sensitive engagement, and no personally identifiable information was included in transcripts or datasets. Where discussions revealed distress or protection concerns, facilitators followed referral guidance to appropriate local support structures. These measures ensured that the study upheld high ethical standards while safeguarding the dignity, safety, and well-being of all participants.

## **2.8 Gender, Equity, and Inclusion**

The research project prioritised gender, equity and inclusion throughout its implementation. To ensure a fair representation, the recruitment of enumerators and transcribers maintained a balanced gender ratio. The team composition was deliberately structured to comprise at least 50% female members, allowing for male-female pairing of enumerators. The interview process was designed to capture a balanced representation of both female and male voices. Whenever possible, interviews were conducted in a gender-specific manner. For instance, female enumerators facilitated Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with girls, while male enumerators led FGDs with boys, promoting a more comfortable and inclusive environment for all participants

## **2.9 Limitations of the Study**

This study is subject to several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, security constraints and recent flooding in the study area restricted data collection to Local Government Areas (LGAs) and communities that were confirmed to be safe and accessible. As a result, highly insecure or hard-to-reach locations, where education disruptions may be most severe, were not included, potentially leading to an underestimation of the scale and intensity of challenges in the most affected areas.

Second, the study was conducted in three LGAs (MMC, Jere, and Konduga), which, although selected to reflect varying levels of fragility and access to education services, may not fully represent the diversity of education conditions across Borno State or other fragile and conflict-affected contexts in Nigeria. Thus, the findings are context-specific and should not be generalised beyond similar settings. In addition, the sample size, while sufficient for qualitative depth and thematic saturation, was not designed to achieve statistical representativeness. This limits the ability to draw inferential conclusions or establish statistically significant relationships across variables.

Third, the study relied significantly on self-reported data from key informants, focus group participants, and survey respondents. This introduces the possibility of recall bias, particularly when respondents were asked to reflect on past events such as school closures and enrolment trends, as well as social desirability bias, where participants may overstate positive outcomes or underreport challenges. In addition, the cross-sectional nature of the study provides a

snapshot of conditions at a single point in time and does not fully capture the dynamic and rapidly changing nature of education in fragile and conflict-affected environments.

Fourth, while the study examined access to education, participation, and system-level factors, it did not directly measure learning outcomes such as literacy and numeracy. This limits the ability to assess the effectiveness of education interventions in terms of actual learning gains. Similarly, although gender, equity, and inclusion were integrated into the research study, deeper intersectional analysis, particularly relating to disability, displacement status, and other dimensions of vulnerability, was constrained by data availability and sample size.

Finally, variations in data quality may have risen (despite efforts to standardise training and data collection procedures), due to differences in enumerator interpretation, translation from local languages, and contextual understanding across LGAs. In addition, the presence of ongoing humanitarian and education interventions in some communities may have influenced both respondent perceptions and observed conditions, potentially leading to more favourable assessments compared to underserved areas. These limitations notwithstanding, the study provides valuable, contextually grounded insights into education challenges and opportunities in fragile and conflict-affected settings in Borno State.

### **3. Selected Education Innovations and Interventions**

This study focuses on three evidence-informed education innovations that have demonstrated strong potential to restore access to quality learning for out-of-school children and youth (OOSCY) in fragile, conflict-, and violence-affected (FCV) contexts. These innovations have been deliberately selected because of their relevance to Gender, Equity, and Inclusion (GEI) and their capacity to address the compounded educational, psychosocial, and protection challenges faced by vulnerable girls, boys, and young people in conflict-affected communities.

The first innovation is Accelerated Education Programmes (AEPs). AEPs serve as an innovative intervention in both conflict and deprivation contexts. AEPs are flexible, age-appropriate programmes that operate on an accelerated timeline, aiming to provide access to education for disadvantaged, over-age, out-of-school children, adolescents, and youths who have missed out on or had their education interrupted due to poverty, marginalisation, conflict, or crisis. AEP models are implemented in Northeast Nigeria through local organisations such as Horn of Hope and Kanem Borno. Although these models have expanded under various donor-funded initiatives, their long-term institutionalisation and government ownership remain limited. Evidence generated through ongoing GPE KIX research led by Associates for Change (AFC), Centre for the Study of the Economies of Africa (CSEA), and partners demonstrates that AEPs are highly effective in enabling children and youth in rural and deprived settings to acquire foundational literacy and numeracy within compressed timeframes and to successfully transition back into formal schooling (AFC, 2023a; AFC, 2023b; Owusu et al., 2023; CSEA, 2023).

The second innovation cluster focuses on girls' education and inclusive, gender-transformative programming, including girls' clubs, mentoring schemes, and community-based support structures. These approaches are designed to address entrenched gender norms, early marriage, teenage pregnancy, and school dropout in FCV settings. In Northeast Nigeria, programmes such as the Girls for Girls (G4G) initiative—implemented by Kanem Borno with support from FCDO and UNICEF—have reached more than 135,000 girls in Koranic schools and primary

and junior high schools. The model relies on trained community mentors and integrates socio-emotional learning (SEL) and psychosocial support (PSS) to improve retention and completion while reducing harmful practices (UNICEF, 2022h).

The third innovation area centres on teacher training in socio-emotional learning (SEL), psychosocial support, and retention-focused pedagogy, including the use of radio and digital platforms. Initially scaled during the COVID-19 pandemic, these approaches have become critical education continuity mechanisms in Nigeria due to ongoing insecurity and school closures. Research evidence indicates that Radio Education Programmes (REPs) can effectively support distance learning for learners while simultaneously strengthening teachers' capacity to respond to trauma, displacement, and psychosocial distress (UNICEF, 2024a).

A growing body of research confirms that AEPs, Girls' Learning Circles, and SEL-integrated approaches are cost-effective strategies for expanding access to quality education in marginalised contexts while advancing GEI outcomes (Kebede, 2018; Owusu et al., 2022; AFC, 2023; Strømme, 2023). Despite this strong evidence base, limited research has examined how these innovations perform under sustained conflict and violence, particularly in relation to psychosocial support for learners and teachers and their adaptability at scale in FCV contexts. The proposed research, therefore, seeks to interrogate existing evidence while generating new, context-specific data on the effectiveness, equity outcomes, and scalability of these education innovations in Nigeria.

## **Study Findings**

### **4. Situation of Formal Education in Borno State**

This section examines the current state of formal education across three Local Government Areas in Borno State: Jere, Konduga, and Maiduguri Metropolitan Council (MMC). It highlights key trends affecting school operations, access to education, and learning conditions within the formal education system. Drawing on data from the sampled schools, the section provides insight into issues such as school closures, enrolment patterns, teacher deployment, and support systems for learners and teachers.

#### **4.1 Number of School Closures**

Data from the 17 sampled schools across the three LGAs show that 10 schools reported experiencing closure at some point. Disaggregating by LGA reveals notable variation: Konduga recorded the highest closure rate, with all 4 sampled schools reporting closures, followed by Jere, where 2 of 3 schools reported closures. MMC recorded the lowest rate, with 4 of 10 schools reporting closures while 6 remained continuously operational.

These figures indicate that school disruption is not an isolated occurrence but a widespread phenomenon across the sampled LGAs, with Konduga and Jere experiencing disproportionately higher levels of disruption compared to MMC. The pattern suggests that conflict-related shocks and flooding have had a significant cumulative effect on school continuity in the area.

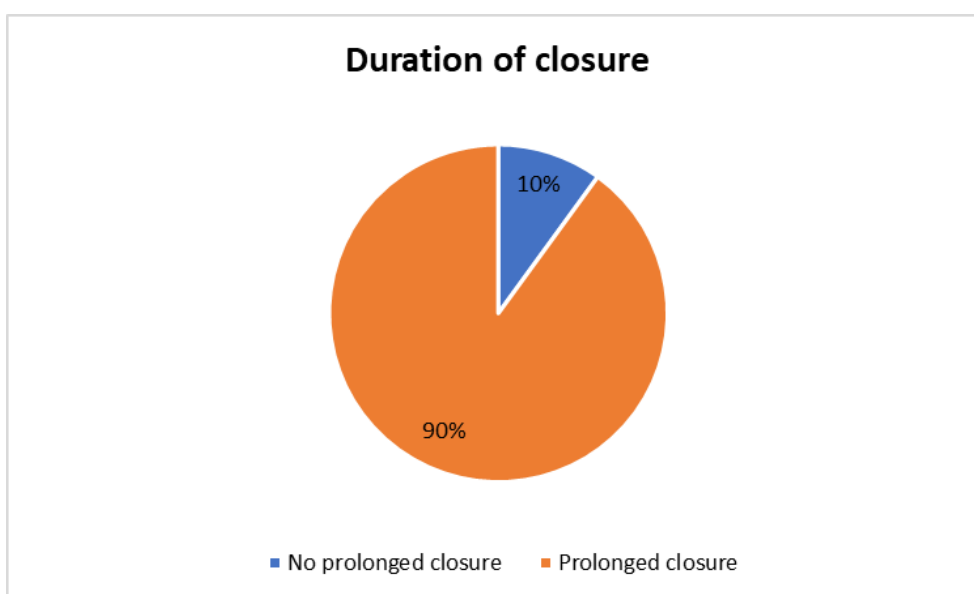
The prevalence of school closures, particularly in Konduga and Jere, points to a critical gap in education continuity that requires targeted intervention. Schools in these LGAs may need

additional support mechanisms such as temporary learning spaces, catch-up programming, and psychosocial support to mitigate the long-term impact of repeated disruptions on learners' access to education and learning outcomes.

#### 4.2 Duration of School Closure

Among schools that reported closure in the past three years ( $n = 10$ ), 90.0% indicated that the closure was prolonged, while only 10.0% reported that it was not prolonged. This suggests that school disruption extended beyond short-term interruptions in many affected schools. The high prevalence of prolonged closure underscores the severity of educational disruption in the study areas, particularly in conflict and climate-affected contexts.

**Figure 3: Duration of School Closure**



*Source: CSEA field data, 2026.*

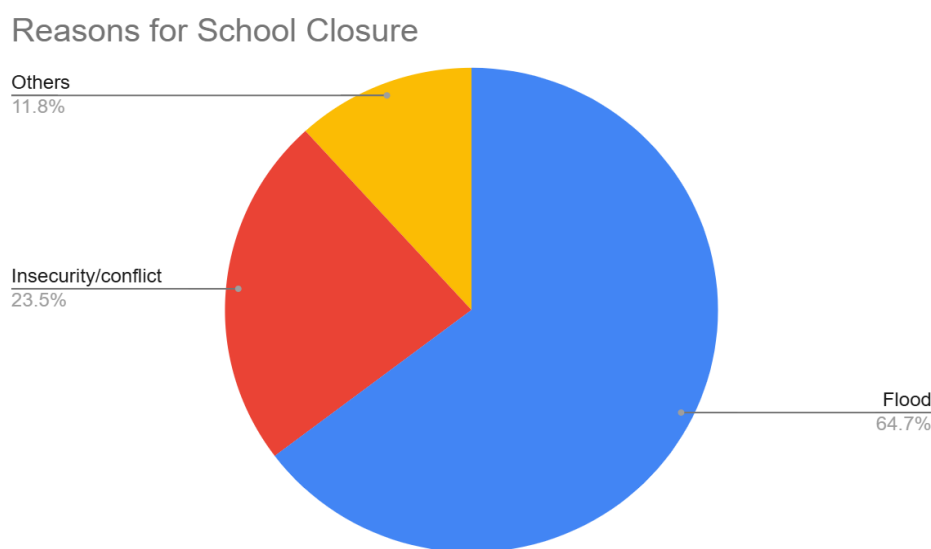
*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

#### 4.3 Major Causes of School Closure

School closures across the assessed LGAs were driven by a combination of environmental shocks and conflict-related disruptions. As shown in Table 3, flooding was the most frequently reported factor associated with school closure, accounting for 64.71% of cases across the study area. Flood-related closures were reported in all three LGAs, with the highest proportion recorded in MMC (70.00 per cent), followed by Jere (66.67%) and Konduga (50.00 per cent). In contrast, insecurity and conflict accounted for 23.53 per cent of school closures overall, with Konduga reporting the highest proportion of conflict-related closures (50.00%). A small number of schools reported other causes or indicated that the school had never closed. These patterns suggest that while flooding represents the most common immediate trigger of school closures across the study area, conflict and insecurity continue to play a significant role in disrupting education in specific locations, particularly in Konduga. The coexistence of environmental shocks and conflict-related disruptions highlights the complex crisis environment within which schools operate in the region.

Qualitative evidence from headteachers further illustrates how these shocks affect schooling beyond the initial closure of schools. Respondents explained that during periods of flooding or insecurity, some schools closed temporarily while others were repurposed as shelters for displaced populations, delaying the resumption of teaching and learning activities. As a teacher from Fogoli explained, “*The school was closed during the flood disaster because of the inaccessibility of the teachers and the students to the school where it happens here in the Jere community.*” In several cases, previously closed schools have reopened or are undergoing rehabilitation; however, many continue to face infrastructure damage and overcrowding, particularly where schools were merged following displacement. Headteachers also reported that insecurity contributed to reduced teacher availability due to fear, relocation, displacement, and transportation challenges, with some schools experiencing prolonged staff absences and, in extreme cases, the loss of teachers. While flooding and insecurity directly contribute to school closures, their effects extend beyond the temporary suspension of classes. These disruptions have had broader consequences for enrolment, attendance, and participation, as households face displacement, economic hardship, and lingering safety concerns. The following section examines how these crisis conditions have influenced learner access, attendance patterns, and participation in schooling across the study LGAs.

**Figure 4: Reasons for School Closure**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

### **Impact of Crisis on Enrolment, Attendance, and Participation**

The crisis conditions described in the previous section, including flooding, insecurity, and displacement, have had significant effects on school participation across the study LGAs. As shown in Table 4, the most frequently reported impact was reduced enrolment of learners, reported by 47.06% of respondents. A further 23.53 per cent reported a reduction in the overall number of learners attending school, suggesting withdrawals or prolonged absence from school. Smaller proportions reported reduced learning participation (11.76%) and reduced

learner understanding (11.76%), while only one respondent (5.88%) indicated that the crisis had no impact on school participation.

These findings suggest the most commonly reported impact of crisis conditions was a decline in school access and enrolment, followed by disruptions to regular attendance and classroom engagement.

### **Theme 1: Decline in Access and Enrolment**

The most dominant impact of the crisis is the decline in school access and enrolment. Nearly half of respondents reported reduced enrolment of learners, while an additional quarter noted a reduction in the number of learners attending school. Together, these responses suggest that crisis-related disruptions have reduced school participation across the study areas. Qualitative findings reinforce this pattern. Respondents explained that flooding, insecurity, and displacement have contributed to declining enrolment and increased dropout in several communities. As a headteacher from Shokari (MMC) explained, *“Due to the recent flood, this also results in decreased enrollment and increased dropout...”* In several cases, teachers were killed, displaced, or relocated, reducing the operational capacity of schools and contributing to declining enrolment. Economic hardship also played a role, as parents whose livelihoods were affected by conflict or flooding, particularly farmers, reported difficulties in maintaining school expenses, leading to withdrawals and prolonged absence among learners. Although some schools have reopened and enrollment is gradually improving in safer areas, access to education remains uneven across locations, particularly in communities still recovering from conflict or displacement.

### **Theme 2: Irregular Attendance and Disrupted Participation**

Beyond enrollment, crisis conditions have also disrupted regular attendance and participation in learning. While only a small proportion of respondents explicitly selected “low turnout” or “reduced participation” in the survey responses, other response categories, such as reduced enrolment and reduced number of learners, also reflect attendance challenges. Qualitative evidence further indicates that absenteeism was commonly reported during periods of insecurity and displacement. As a headteacher from Cofa, Konduga explained, *“It affects school and learning processes directly. Because with this insecurity in place, students are not coming to school as usual and punctually. So we are having issues with the attendance of students in the school.”* Respondents also reported that fear of attacks, displacement, and transportation challenges prevented students from attending school consistently. Although stability is gradually returning in some communities, irregular attendance remains a lingering challenge in previously affected areas.

### **Theme 3: Disruption of Teaching, Learning Processes, and Educational Quality**

Crisis conditions have also affected the quality and continuity of teaching and learning. Although only 11.76% of respondents explicitly reported reduced learner understanding, qualitative responses suggest that teaching and learning processes were also affected. Damage to school infrastructure, overcrowding in merged schools, and shortages of teachers created strained learning environments. In some cases, the teaching and learning process was severely interrupted, particularly where teachers were killed or displaced. The relocation of teachers across local government areas disrupted staff stability, while trauma and insecurity affected both teacher effectiveness and learner concentration. Although schools in safer areas report

resumed activities and improved teacher availability, the cumulative effects of infrastructure damage, teacher disruption, and psychological stress continue to affect learning outcomes.

#### **4.4 School Operations Following Conflict**

At the beginning of 2025, conflict and violence against civilians in Borno State continued due to attacks by armed groups (Stefano, 2025). These incidents significantly disrupted community life, affecting livelihoods, healthcare services, farming activities, and access to education. Within the education sector, the conflict directly affected school operations and the ability of institutions to provide stable learning environments.

One of the immediate consequences of the crisis was widespread displacement. As homes were destroyed and communities were forced to relocate, several school facilities were repurposed as temporary shelters for internally displaced persons. This situation disrupted normal school functioning and contributed to overcrowding in the classrooms that remained operational. As a headteacher from Gwange explained, *“Yes, of course. Some schools were previously closed or used as temporary shelters for displaced persons. Even now, certain schools struggle to operate effectively due to the damaged infrastructure. So, the status of the facilities. Many classrooms are overcrowded.”*

In addition to overcrowding, the destruction of school buildings in some communities forced learners to relocate to temporary learning spaces. In these cases, education activities were conducted in improvised settings while communities and partners worked toward restoring formal schooling. A headteacher from Monduganari described the situation, noting that *“Many children attend temporary learning centres, makeshift classrooms or classes hosted in community halls, morgues, churches, or IDP camps.”*

Despite these disruptions, several recovery interventions have been implemented to support the continuation of education. Non-Governmental organisations and government agencies have introduced programmes aimed at restoring learning opportunities for affected children and youth. According to a headteacher from Gwange, *“Non-formal education in LGA includes the accelerated education programme, speech schools, catch-up or remedial classes, skills-based learning centres for youth.”* These initiatives help address learning gaps created by prolonged school closures and displacement.

Survey data from the assessed schools further illustrate the extent of these recovery efforts. Overall, 58.8% of schools reported adequate availability of remedial or catch-up classes, with the highest proportion recorded in MMC (70.0%), followed by Konduga (50.0%), while Jere recorded the lowest availability (33.3%). However, 41.2% of schools indicated that remedial or catch-up support remained inadequate, suggesting that many learners affected by conflict may still have limited access to learning recovery programmes (Figure 5).

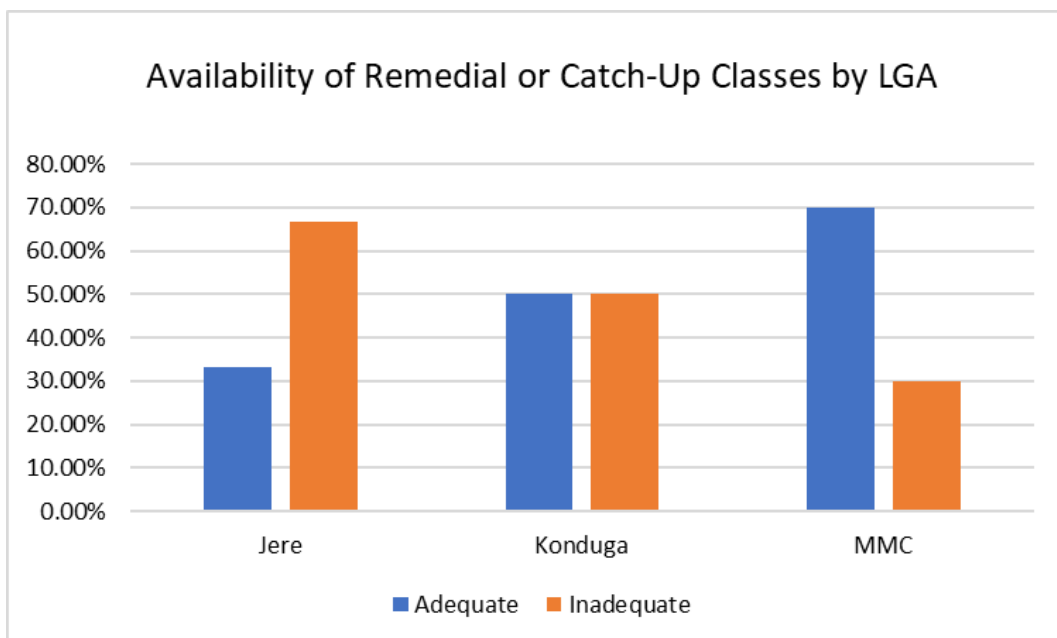
Teacher capacity building has also been an important component of the recovery process. Among the schools assessed, 52.9% reported adequate teacher training within the last twelve months, with MMC again showing the highest coverage (70.0%), followed by Konduga (50.0%) (Figure 6). In contrast, all assessed schools in Jere reported inadequate teacher training during the same period. These findings indicate uneven access to teacher training opportunities across LGAs. Qualitative responses support this pattern. A headteacher from Gwange explained that *“NGOs and government agencies provide teacher training, teaching kits, pre-societal support training and incentives for volunteer teachers. However, support is still*

limited, and teachers face heavy workload, burnout and lack of adequate teaching materials.” Similarly, a headteacher from Galtimari noted that “Recent teachers’ trainings emphasise classroom management, emotional support, and creating a welcoming environment for children.”

In addition to teacher support and remedial programmes, digital and radio-based learning tools have also been used to support education continuity in some communities. Overall, 58.8% of the assessed schools reported adequate availability of digital or radio learning tools, with higher availability in MMC (70.0%) and Jere (66.7%). However, access remains relatively limited in Konduga, where only 25.0% of schools reported adequate availability of such tools (Figure 7). As a headteacher from Galtimari stated, “Yes. The interventions that use digital tools are being used to support learning. Moreover, radio lessons like platforms and community information centres have really helped learners access educational content even outside school hours.” However, access to these tools is not uniform across locations. For example, a headteacher from Shokari reported that “We don’t have such digital tools in place for now.”

Overall, the findings indicate that while conflict significantly disrupted school operations through displacement, infrastructure damage, and overcrowding, various recovery measures have been implemented to restore learning opportunities. Nonetheless, challenges remain in ensuring adequate infrastructure, sufficient teaching materials, and equitable access to support interventions across all communities.

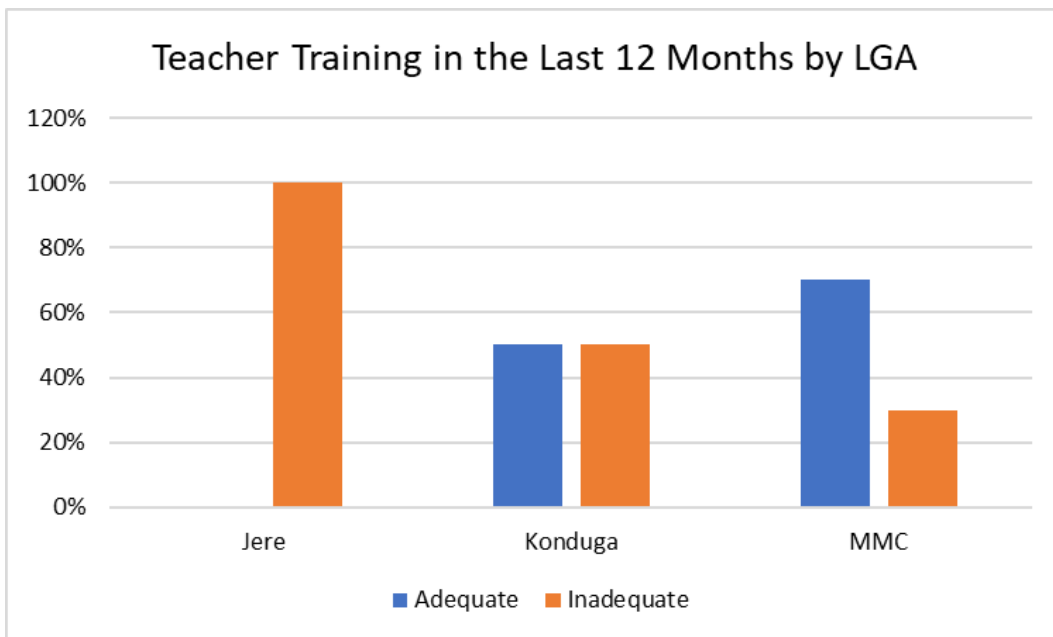
**Figure 5: Availability of Remedial or Catch-Up Classes by LGA**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

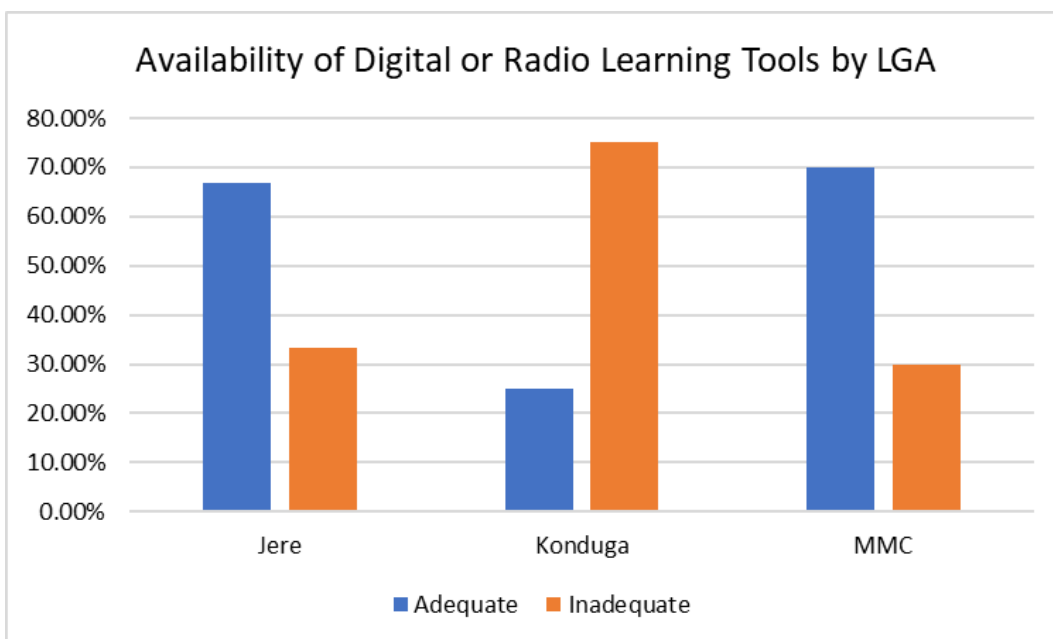
**Figure 6: Teacher Training in the Last 12 Months by LGA**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

**Figure 7: Availability of Digital or Radio Learning Tools by LGA**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

## 4.5 Analysis of Out-of-School Children

The data show variations in the number of out-of-school children across the three LGAs, with clear differences in scale and gender distribution. In total, 142 out-of-school children were reported across the 17 schools assessed. MMC accounts for 61 cases, Jere for 74 cases, and Konduga for 7 cases. Within the sampled schools, Jere records the highest number of out-of-school children among the three LGAs, followed closely by MMC, while Konduga reports substantially fewer cases within the sampled schools.

When disaggregated by gender, the figures reveal a slightly higher prevalence of girls among the total out-of-school population. Across all LGAs, 77 girls are reported to be out of school compared to 66 boys. In Jere, girls account for 41 out of 74 cases, compared to 33 boys, suggesting a slightly higher number of girls among the reported out-of-school children. Similarly, in MMC, 32 girls are reported out of school compared to 29 boys, indicating a smaller but still present disparity. In Konduga, the reported figures show 4 boys and 4 girls, suggesting gender parity within a relatively small number of cases.

These patterns suggest that while the scale of out-of-school children varies significantly by LGA, minor gender differences are observed, particularly in Jere and MMC, where girls slightly outnumber boys. The higher concentration of cases in Jere and MMC may reflect larger school populations, greater urban vulnerability, displacement pressures, or socioeconomic constraints affecting attendance and retention. The data point to the need for targeted re-enrolment strategies that are both location-specific and gender responsive, with particular attention to the barriers affecting girls' continued participation in schooling.

**Table 2: Estimated Number of Out-of-School Children (Aged 8–16) by LGA and Gender**

LGA	Total OOSC	Boys (Total)	Girls (Total)	Boys (Mean)	Girls (Mean)	Overall Mean	SD	Min	Max
Jere	74	33	41	11.00	13.67	24.67	39.26	2	70
Konduga	7	4	4	1.00	1.00	1.75	1.26	0	3
MMC	61	29	32	2.90	3.20	6.10	8.89	0	30
<b>Total</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>3.88</b>	<b>4.53</b>	<b>8.35</b>	<b>17.36</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>70</b>

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

## 4.6 School Dropout Trends and Gender Distribution

The gender distribution of enrolment across the three LGAs shows a consistent pattern of higher male enrolment compared to female enrolment. Overall, males account for 57.48% of total enrolment, while females represent 44.05%, indicating a clear gender gap in school participation. Konduga records the smallest disparity, with females making up 47.18% of enrolment compared to 52.82% males. In Jere, females account for 41.64% while males represent 58.36%. MMC, which has the highest total enrolment, also shows a notable gap, with

male students significantly outnumbering female students. Although the disparities are not extreme in all LGAs, the consistent pattern of lower female enrolment across all areas suggests underlying gender related barriers to access and retention. The data therefore indicate the need for targeted interventions to promote gender equity and ensure that recovery efforts support equal access to education for both boys and girls.

Concerning overall school enrolment in the state, head teachers from different communities reported varying experiences. A head teacher from Gwange stated that *“The school enrolment in general local government has increased overall, mainly due to the presence of displaced families and returnees settling in areas. However, the increase has also led to overcrowded classrooms and stretched facilities”*. While another from Ngomari Konduga said, *“School facing many problems, and there are a lot of dropouts. Some here relocated to a safer environment”*. This variation in responses suggests that although there have been improvements in some areas over the years, communities that were directly affected by the crisis continue to experience significant enrolment challenges. In such locations, the crisis has taken a toll on school participation, as families prioritise safety over education.

Headteacher responses suggest that girls may be more vulnerable to dropping out of school. The Mafoni Liberty MMC head teacher noted that *“Most of the dropouts are females”*. However, this does not exclude the fact that male students also leave school, often for economic reasons. The Gwange head teacher explained that *“Many boys drop out to engage in repetitive trading, farming or labour to support their families. The dropout among girls. Girls are at risk due to early marriage, domestic responsibilities and lack of female teachers, which affects their attendance.”* These responses suggest that dropout patterns are gendered but driven by different underlying factors. While boys are more likely to leave school to contribute to household income, girls face social and structural barriers such as early marriage, domestic responsibilities, and limited female role models within schools. This indicates that interventions aimed at improving retention must be gender responsive, addressing both economic pressures on boys and socio-cultural constraints affecting girls.

**Table 3: Gender Distribution of Enrolment by LGA**

<b>LGA</b>	<b>Total Enrolment</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>% Female</b>	<b>% Male</b>
<b>Jere</b>	610	254	356	41.64%	58.36%
<b>Konduga</b>	780	368	412	47.18%	52.82%
<b>MMC</b>	1,870	814	1,106	43.53%	59.14%
<b>Total</b>	3,260	1,436	1,874	44.05%	57.48%

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### **4.7 Increase and Stability in Enrolment Trends**

Findings from key informant interviews indicate that, alongside previously discussed cases of decline and disruption, several schools have experienced gradual increases and relative stability in enrolment in recent years. However, the drivers of enrolment growth vary across communities, suggesting that recovery is uneven rather than uniform.

In Galtimari, a head teacher observed that *“The school enrollment has been gradually increasing over the past few years. The environment becomes more stable, and the communities regain confidence.”* Similarly, in Kasuwa, the head teacher stated that *“Enrollment in the school has improved because the security situation has also improved.”* These responses indicate that in the period following the crisis, improved security conditions in some communities have directly influenced parents’ willingness to return their children to school.

In Gwange, the head teacher noted that *“The overall trend in school enrollment in recent years is... The school enrollment in the general local government has increased overall, mainly due to the presence of displaced families and returnees settling in areas. However, the increase has also led to overcrowded classrooms and stretched facilities.”* This indicates that while enrolment growth is occurring, it is also placing pressure on existing infrastructure and resources.

External support also appears to influence enrolment patterns in certain areas. The head teacher from Konduga explained that *“The presence of NGO's has led to more enrollment.”* This suggests that education support initiatives, community sensitisation, or material assistance may be contributing to improved access. Overall, while enrolment trends show signs of recovery and stabilisation in several communities, the experiences differ across locations, with growth in some schools accompanied by resource constraints and capacity challenges. Yet for other schools, recovery has been slower and more uncertain.

#### **4.8 Decrease in Enrolment**

Interviews with head teachers indicate that declining enrolment remains a serious concern in several communities, particularly in areas heavily affected by conflict and instability. In some LGAs, enrolment is described not only as reduced but also unstable, fluctuating in response to changing security conditions and the availability of learning facilities. A headteacher in Monduganari explained that *“In many conflict-affected local governments, school enrollment has generally declined or remained unstable. Attendance often fluctuates because facilities relocated, school closed, or learning spaces are unsafe. In some locations, enrollment shows slight increases when humanitarian support, e.g. temporary learning spaces, feeding programs, community mobilisation, is provided, but gains are usually fragile.”* This highlights the temporary nature of improvements where structural challenges remain unresolved.

In Wulari, the scale of decline was described as substantial. The headteacher noted, *“It's low. Because before we get many students, for now, it's very low. How many learners have dropped out or athletes have dropped out? Probably 60%. Yeah, that's because we don't have enough qualified teachers; most of their parents can't afford to sponsor them.”* This account underscores how teacher shortages and economic hardship combine to weaken enrolment levels. Where qualified teachers are insufficient, and families struggle financially, parents may withdraw their children or fail to enrol them altogether.

Economic pressures and livelihood demands also emerged as significant drivers of dropout. In Bulabulli Deyabe, the head teacher reported that *“Some of the parents do not allow their children to be enrolled because they are helping them on the farm. The children have drop out from school both boys and girls they drop out because of crisis.”* This reflects how household survival strategies directly compete with schooling, particularly in agrarian communities affected by crisis. The decline in enrolment, therefore, affects both boys and girls, though the reasons may differ.

Gendered patterns are also evident in certain locations. The head teacher in Mallam Umarari stated, *“They are few in numbers, especially the girls after the primary school, they will go into marriage.”* This points to retention challenges beyond the primary level, where early marriage reduces continued participation for girls. At the same time, infrastructure constraints remain a foundational issue. A headteacher in Shewari remarked, *“We need structure first and shelter before talking of enrollment.”* This reinforces the idea that without safe and adequate learning environments, efforts to increase enrolment are unlikely to succeed.

Overall, the findings show that enrolment decline is driven by a combination of insecurity, inadequate facilities, teacher shortages, economic hardship, and gender related factors. In many cases, even when temporary support leads to slight improvements, gains remain fragile unless underlying structural conditions are addressed.

#### **4.9 Gender Patterns in School Enrolment**

Findings from focus group discussions and school leadership interviews indicate that gender patterns in enrolment across the assessed communities are uneven and shaped by intersecting social and economic pressures. Participants consistently described fluctuations in the participation of both boys and girls, particularly as children transition from primary to higher levels of schooling. While enrolment at lower levels appears relatively balanced in some areas, disparities become more visible after primary school, where retention challenges intensify.

In MMC, concerns were raised about the declining number of girls beyond primary education. A headteacher from Mallam Umarari observed, *“They are few in numbers, especially the girls after the primary school, they will go into marriage.”* This reflects the continued influence of early marriage on girls’ educational trajectories, particularly at the post-primary level. The transition point between primary and junior secondary school appears to be a critical stage at which female participation drops significantly in some communities.

Similarly, perspectives from Monduganari suggest that dropout patterns are not limited to girls alone but affect both genders, albeit for different reasons. As noted by the Headteacher Monduganari, *“Now, here, although exact numbers vary by communities, common pattern include dropout trend. Higher dropout among girls, especially due to early marriage, domestic responsibilities, insecurity, or pregnancy. Boys, boys dropping out at higher rate in some areas because of child labour hardening or joining informal work to support families.”* This account highlights the gendered nature of vulnerability, where girls are more affected by marriage, pregnancy, and domestic burdens, while boys are pressured into income-generating activities and informal labour.

Overall, the evidence suggests that gender patterns in school enrolment are shaped by deeply rooted social norms, household survival strategies, and local insecurity dynamics. While girls face heightened risks of early withdrawal linked to marriage and reproductive roles, boys are

also vulnerable to dropping out due to economic expectations placed upon them. These findings underscore the importance of examining gender not as a fixed disadvantage for one group, but as a dynamic outcome influenced by context-specific pressures affecting both boys and girls across different communities.

#### 4.10 Factors Influencing School Enrolment and Dropout Rates

A bivariate analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between selected household-level factors and the prevalence of out-of-school children. The results show observable differences across displacement status, conflict exposure, poverty, and LGA, although none of the associations was statistically significant at the 5% level. This suggests that while certain vulnerability patterns are evident, they should be interpreted with caution, likely due to sample size limitations.

Displacement status presents the clearest gradient, with OOSC prevalence increasing from 25.9% in the least affected category to 100% in the most severe category. Although this relationship was not statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 3.21$ ,  $p = .201$ ), the upward trend indicates that severe displacement may heighten the risk of school exclusion. Poverty also shows a similar pattern, with OOSC prevalence rising from 16.7% to 50% across categories, suggesting that economic vulnerability may contribute to enrollment instability, even though the association was not statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 4.07$ ,  $p = .254$ ).

Conflict exposure shows minimal difference between exposed and non-exposed households, with OOSC prevalence of 30.4% and 33.3%, respectively ( $\chi^2 = 0.03$ ,  $p = .874$ ), indicating no clear independent effect. Geographic variation was also observed, with Jere and Konduga recording higher OOSC prevalence at 37.5% compared to 12.5% in MMC, though this difference was not statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 1.75$ ,  $p = .418$ ). Overall, the findings suggest that displacement severity, poverty, and location may influence school participation, but further investigation with larger samples would be needed to confirm these relationships.

**Table 4: Household-Level Factors Associated with Out-of-School Children**

Factor	% With OOSC	$\chi^2$ (df)	p
<b>Displacement</b>	25.9%–100%	3.21 (2)	.201
<b>Conflict Exposure</b>	30.4%–33.3%	0.03 (1)	.874
<b>Poverty</b>	16.7%–50.0%	4.07 (3)	.254
<b>LGA</b>	12.5%–37.5%	1.75 (2)	.418

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

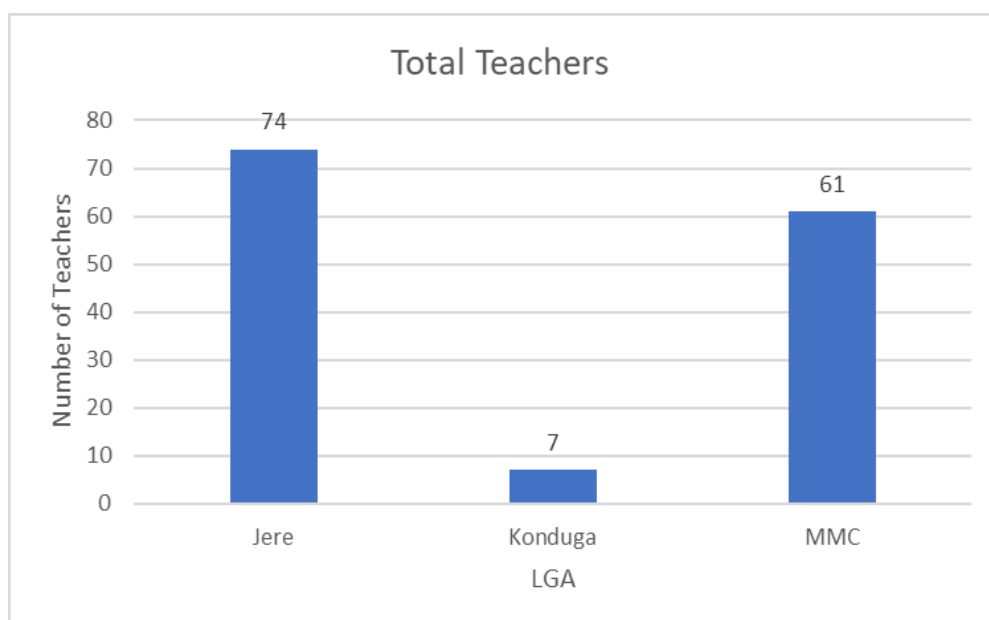
### 4.11 Deployment of Teachers

An assessment of teacher distribution in relation to enrolment reveals significant imbalances across the three LGAs. While Jere has 74 teachers serving 610 pupils, MMC has 61 teachers for 1,870 pupils, and Konduga has only 7 teachers for 780 pupils. When examined through pupil–teacher ratios, the disparities become more pronounced. Jere, records an estimated ratio of about 8 pupils per teacher, MMC about 31 pupils per teacher, and Konduga an alarming 111 pupils per teacher.

These figures suggest that teacher deployment is not proportionately aligned with enrolment levels. MMC, despite having the highest enrollment, maintains a moderately manageable ratio, indicating a relatively balanced staffing situation. Jere LGA appears comparatively well-staffed relative to its enrollment size. In contrast, Konduga is significantly underserved, with a teacher workforce that is clearly insufficient to meet the needs of its student population.

The implications for teaching and learning are substantial. In Konduga, such a high pupil–teacher ratio likely translates into overcrowded classrooms, heavy teacher workload, reduced instructional quality, and limited individual learner support. Over time, this may negatively affect student performance, attendance, and retention. The data therefore points to the need for a more needs-based redistribution strategy to ensure equitable access to qualified teachers across all LGAs.

**Figure 8: Teacher Deployment**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

**Table 5: Teacher Deployment and Gender Distribution by LGA**

LGA	Total Teachers	Female Teachers	Male Teachers	% Female	% Male

<b>Jere</b>	74	33	41	44.59%	55.41%
<b>Konduga</b>	7	3	4	42.86%	57.14%
<b>MMC</b>	61	29	32	47.54%	52.46%
<b>Total</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>46.48%</b>	<b>54.23%</b>

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### 4.12 Gender Distribution of Teacher Deployments

Analysis of school-level teacher deployment indicates that 82.4% of the surveyed schools reported having at least one male teacher, while an equal proportion, 82.4%, reported having at least one female teacher. This suggests that, at an aggregate level, gender representation within the teaching workforce appears relatively balanced across the sampled LGAs. In practical terms, most schools have access to both male and female teachers, which is important for fostering inclusive and gender responsive learning environments.

Disaggregation by LGA, however, reveals some variation. MMC demonstrates the strongest representation, with 90% of schools reporting the presence of both male and female teachers. Konduga follows with 75% of schools confirming the presence of each gender, while Jere records the lowest proportion at 66.7%. Although the overall pattern suggests broad gender balance, Jere’s comparatively lower representation may have implications for learner support, particularly for adolescent girls who may benefit from the presence of female role models and mentors within the school setting.

It is important to note that this analysis reflects only the presence of at least one male or female teacher per school, rather than the overall numerical balance of male and female staff. A school may report having both genders represented even if one gender is significantly underrepresented in total numbers. Nonetheless, the findings indicate that most schools across the LGAs have some degree of gender diversity among teaching staff, which can positively influence student engagement, classroom dynamics, and gender sensitive support systems.

**Table 6: Presence of Male and Female Teachers by LGA**

<b>LGA</b>	<b>Schools with Male Teachers n (%)</b>	<b>Schools with Female Teachers n (%)</b>	<b>Total Schools</b>
<b>Jere (n=3)</b>	2 (66.7%)	2 (66.7%)	3

<b>Konduga (n=4)</b>	3 (75.0%)	3 (75.0%)	4
<b>MMC (n=10)</b>	9 (90.0%)	9 (90.0%)	10
<b>Total (N=17)</b>	<b>14 (82.4%)</b>	<b>14 (82.4%)</b>	17

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### 4.13 Attrition Trends and Exit Rates

Analysis of reported teacher attrition across the sampled LGAs shows relatively low overall exit rates, though variations exist by location. Out of 88 teachers captured in the dataset, 10 teachers, representing 11.36%, were reported to have left, while 78 teachers, representing 88.64%, remained in post. This suggests a generally stable teaching workforce within the study period. However, differences across LGAs point to uneven retention dynamics that may have implications for staffing stability and instructional continuity.

Konduga records the highest attrition rate, with 5 out of 27 teachers, representing 18.52 %, reported to have left. This is notably higher than MMC, where 3 out of 32 teachers, representing 9.38%, exited, and Jere, which records the lowest attrition rate at 6.90%, with only 2 out of 29 teachers leaving. Although the majority of teachers across all LGAs did not leave, the comparatively higher exit rate in Konduga may signal contextual pressures such as insecurity, limited infrastructure, or reduced professional incentives that affect teacher retention.

These patterns suggest that teacher mobility and retention are influenced not only by deployment levels but also by local conditions that shape teachers' willingness or ability to remain in post. In areas with higher attrition, schools may face disruptions in lesson continuity, increased workload for remaining staff, and potential declines in morale. Even where overall attrition appears moderate, sustained exits over time could weaken system stability, particularly in LGAs already experiencing staffing imbalances. Strengthening retention strategies, including incentives, professional support, and improved working conditions, may therefore be essential to maintaining a stable and effective teaching workforce.

**Table 7: Reported Teacher Attrition by LGA**

<b>LGA</b>	<b>Teachers Did Not Leave n (%)</b>	<b>Teachers Left n (%)</b>	<b>Total (n)</b>
<b>Jere</b>	<b>27 (93.10%)</b>	<b>2 (6.90%)</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>Konduga</b>	<b>22 (81.48%)</b>	<b>5 (18.52%)</b>	<b>27</b>

<b>MMC</b>	<b>29 (90.62%)</b>	<b>3 (9.38%)</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>78 (88.64%)</b>	<b>10 (11.36%)</b>	<b>88</b>

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### **5.14 Coping Support Platforms for learners and teachers with emotional stress**

Out of the 17 schools assessed, 11 schools, representing 64.7%, reported having some form of counsellor or referral support service in place, while 6 schools, representing 35.3%, indicated that such services are not available. This indicates that although a majority of schools have introduced coping support mechanisms, a considerable proportion still operate without formal emotional or psychosocial support structures for learners and teachers. When disaggregated by LGA, MMC records the highest number of schools with available services, with 7 out of 10 schools, representing 70%, confirming the presence of counsellor or referral systems. Jere, follows with 2 out of 3 schools, or 66.7%, reporting such services, while Konduga presents a more divided situation, with only 2 out of 4 schools, representing 50 %, indicating availability. Although the sample size in Jere and Konduga is relatively small, the proportional differences nonetheless point to variations in access to structured psychosocial platforms across locations.

Taken together, these figures suggest uneven implementation of psychosocial support across the LGAs. While MMC appears comparatively better resourced in terms of formal counselling or referral services, Konduga shows notable gaps that may leave a significant share of learners and teachers without organised emotional support. In contexts already affected by insecurity, displacement, and resource limitations, the absence of structured coping systems can heighten vulnerability, reduce learner engagement, and affect overall well-being. This underscores the need to strengthen formal counselling structures, standardise referral pathways, and promote more consistent access across schools to ensure equitable emotional support.

The qualitative responses provide deeper insight into how these services function in practice. In some schools, psychosocial support is embedded within routine school activities and complemented by external actors. A head teacher from Gwange explained that, *“The school offers basic psychosocial support such as teachers, lay counselling or classroom guidance, peer support groups, referrals to NGOs providing specialised mental health support, awareness talks or stress management, child-friendly spaces in some schools”*. Similarly, a head teacher from Mairi Kandahar noted, *“Yes, there is some NGOs who are coming to teach some students in a very social manner to an extent that they will dance while teaching the students and what have you. So it helps the students to regain their consciousness in part of the trauma they have gone through”*. These accounts reflect collaboration with organisations such as UNICEF, NRC, Save the Children, Plan International, AGILE, and other partners that support schools in conflict-affected areas.

At the same time, the interviews highlight differences in the extent to which teachers themselves benefit from structured support. While a head teacher from Abbanagaram MMC stated, *“Teacher were trained for four weeks by the government in collaboration with UNICEF, they were trained on how to handle learner who are traumatized by insurgency”*, another from Bulabulli Deyabe observed, *“Some organisation came to counsel our students telling them to*

*relax and be calm. My teachers have not receive any training*”. This contrast suggests that although learner-focused psychosocial interventions are relatively visible and, in some cases, supported by government and development partners, teacher training and capacity building are not uniformly implemented across communities. Overall, the findings point to a system where psychosocial support exists but remains uneven, often project-driven, and more concentrated on student well-being than on sustained investment in teacher resilience and professional preparedness.

**Table 8: Availability of Trained Counsellors or Referral Support Services by LGA**

<b>Counsellor or Referral Support Services</b>	<b>Jere (n = 3)</b>	<b>Konduga (n = 4)</b>	<b>MMC (n = 10)</b>	<b>Total (n = 17)</b>
<b>Yes</b>	2 (66.7%)	2 (50.0%)	7 (70.0%)	11 (64.7%)
<b>No</b>	1 (33.3%)	2 (50.0%)	3 (30.0%)	6 (35.3%)
<b>Total</b>	3 (100.0%)	4 (100.0%)	10 (100.0%)	17 (100.0%)

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### **4.15 Budget support and functionality**

Findings from the household survey reveal substantial funding and resource gaps that continue to constrain effective education delivery across the assessed communities. As shown in Table 12, the most frequently identified need was teacher housing and support, selected by 55.68% of respondents. This was closely followed by demand for gender sensitive policies and programmes at 51.14%, reflecting community concern about structural barriers that limit equitable participation in schooling. School fee subsidies were also widely prioritised, with 44.32% of households indicating that financial costs remain a significant burden. In addition, psycho-social services for both learners and teachers were each selected by 40.91% of respondents, highlighting recognition of the emotional and psychological strain associated with conflict, displacement, and economic hardship.

**Table 9: Community-Identified Educational Needs**

<b>Educational Need</b>	<b>% Selecting</b>
<b>Teacher housing/support</b>	<b>55.68%</b>
<b>Gender-sensitive policies/programmes</b>	<b>51.14%</b>

<b>School fee subsidies</b>	<b>44.32%</b>
<b>Psycho-social services for learners</b>	<b>40.91%</b>
<b>Psycho-social services for teachers</b>	<b>40.91%</b>
<b>Security for schools</b>	<b>39.77%</b>
<b>Better school infrastructure</b>	<b>28.41%</b>
<b>Non-formal education</b>	<b>21.59%</b>
<b>Community involvement in school management</b>	<b>19.32%</b>
<b>Conflict Mediation</b>	<b>4.55%</b>
<b>Others</b>	<b>1.14%</b>

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

Beyond these leading priorities, nearly 40% of respondents identified school security as a pressing need, underscoring the continued influence of insecurity on education access and continuity. Infrastructure improvements were selected by 28.41%, while non-formal education and community involvement in school management were mentioned by smaller but still notable proportions. The relatively low reporting of conflict mediation at 4.55% does not necessarily imply the absence of conflict concerns, but may reflect the perception that more immediate operational needs, such as staffing, housing, and financial relief, take precedence. Overall, the pattern suggests that households are not only concerned with access, but also with the quality, safety, and sustainability of schooling.

To further clarify priority areas, Table 13 ranks the top six educational needs identified by households. Teacher housing and support ranks first, with 49 respondents selecting it, reinforcing the centrality of teacher welfare to school functionality. Gender sensitive policies and programmes follow closely in second position, cited by 45 respondents, signalling community awareness of persistent gender disparities in enrolment and retention. School fee subsidies rank third, with 39 respondents, reflecting economic pressures on households. Psycho social services for learners and teachers jointly occupy the fourth and fifth positions, each with 36 responses, while security for schools ranks sixth with 35 responses.

**Table 10: Priority Educational Needs Identified by Households**

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Educational Need</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
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1	Teacher housing/support	49	55.68
2	Gender-sensitive policies/programmes	45	51.14
3	School fee subsidies	39	44.32
4	Psycho-social services for learners	36	40.91
5	Psycho-social services for teachers	36	40.91
6	Security for schools	35	39.77

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

While these findings demonstrate strong demand for increased financial and programmatic support, perceptions of institutional functionality present a more nuanced picture. As shown in Table 14, a substantial majority of respondents, 84.09%, reported that local leaders are very active in supporting educational programmes. This suggests that governance commitment at the local level is widely acknowledged. However, this commitment varies significantly across LGAs, as indicated by the chi-square test result,  $\chi^2(6) = 17.41$ ,  $p = .008$ , which confirms statistically significant differences in perceived leadership engagement across locations.

**Table 11: Level of Local Leader Commitment to Educational Programmes by LGA**

Commitment Level	Jere n (%)	Konduga n (%)	MMC n (%)	Total n (%)
<b>Very active</b>	29 (100.0)	18 (66.67)	27 (84.38)	74 (84.09)
<b>Somewhat involved</b>	0 (0.0)	9 (33.33)	3 (9.38)	12 (13.64)
<b>Not involved</b>	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.12)	1 (1.14)
<b>Discourage education</b>	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.12)	1 (1.14)

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

Jere stands out with universal reporting of very active leadership engagement at 100%, indicating strong local political and community support for education. In contrast, Konduga records a higher proportion of leaders described as somewhat involved at 33.33%, suggesting more moderate or inconsistent engagement. MMC shows small but notable proportions of respondents reporting leaders as not involved or even discouraging education, each at 3.12 %, pointing to pockets of governance weakness.

Taken together, the findings reveal a dual reality. On the one hand, perceived leadership commitment to education is generally strong across the study areas. On the other hand, communities continue to face significant funding shortfalls and service delivery gaps, particularly in teacher welfare, gender responsive programming, financial relief for households, and psycho social support. This indicates that governance commitment alone is insufficient without corresponding financial investment, targeted programming, and systemic strengthening to address the priority needs identified by households.

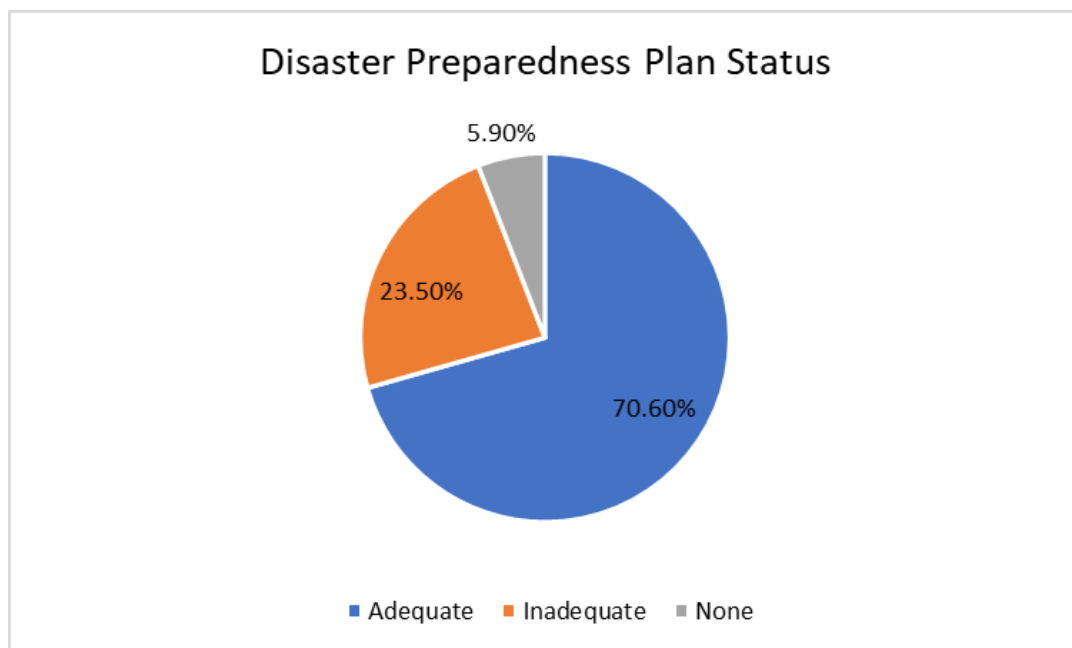
## 5. Disaster Risk Management

This section examines how schools prepare for and respond to disasters and emergencies, including conflict, flooding, and displacement.

### 5.1 Disaster Contingency

Analysis of disaster preparedness measures across the sampled schools (17) indicates generally strong foundational structures, though some gaps remain. As shown in Figure 9, 70.6 % of schools reported having an adequate written disaster or emergency preparedness plan, while 23.5% described their plans as inadequate and 5.9% reported having no plan at all. This suggests that although the majority of schools have formal documentation in place, nearly one-third operate with either weak or absent preparedness frameworks. The presence of inadequate or missing plans may limit coordinated responses during crises and reduce overall school resilience.

**Figure 9: Overall Availability of Written Disaster or Emergency Preparedness Plans**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.  
*Data based on 17 Schools*

In contrast, physical safety infrastructure appears more uniformly established. Findings show that all surveyed schools reported having clearly marked and accessible emergency exits. This

reflects a strong level of compliance with basic safety standards and indicates that schools are structurally equipped to facilitate evacuation during emergencies. The universal availability of emergency exits is a positive indicator of risk awareness and institutional commitment to safeguarding learners and staff.

Similarly, teacher capacity in child protection and emergency response appears robust. All 17 schools, representing 100%, confirmed that teachers have received training on child protection and emergency response. This suggests that, at least at a basic level, schools are investing in human capacity to respond to crises. However, when considered alongside the gaps identified in written preparedness plans in Fig 1, the findings imply that while individual-level training and physical infrastructure are strong, institutional-level planning frameworks may still require strengthening to ensure a fully integrated and effective emergency response system.

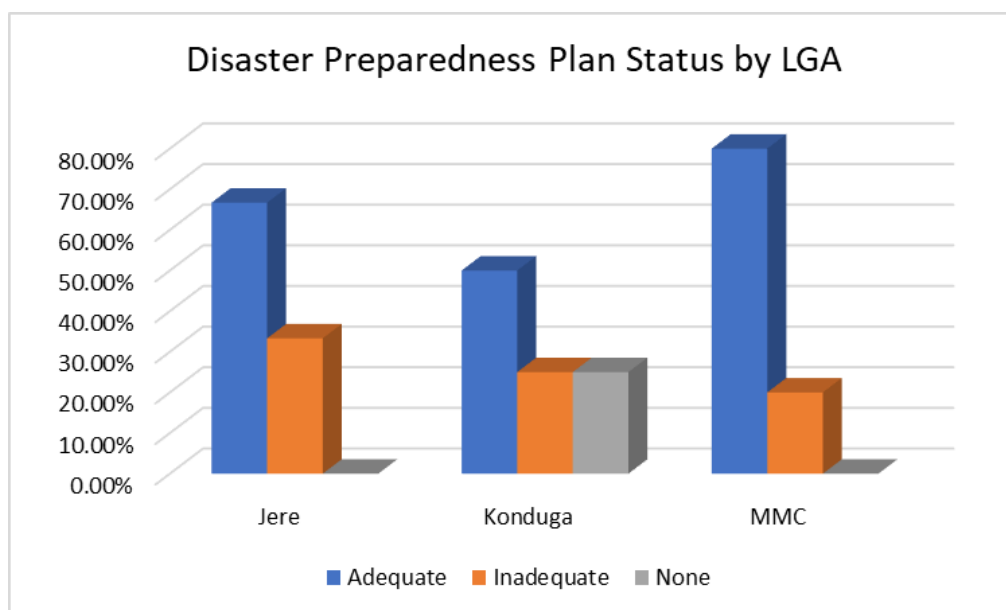
## **5.2 Disaster Contingency by LGA**

This section assesses disaster preparedness across 17 schools in Jere, Konduga, and MMC, focusing on written contingency plans, evacuation infrastructure, and teacher training in emergency response.

Notable variation exists across LGAs in the adequacy of written disaster preparedness plans (Figure 10). MMC records the strongest performance, with 80.0% of schools reporting adequate plans and only 20.0% classified as inadequate. Jere, follows with 66.7% adequate coverage, although one-third of schools in the LGA reported inadequate plans. Konduga demonstrates the weakest preparedness profile, with only 50% of schools reporting adequate plans, 25% reporting inadequate plans, and 25% indicating the complete absence of a written preparedness plan.

The variation across LGAs indicates uneven institutionalisation of disaster preparedness planning. MMC demonstrates relatively stronger implementation, while Konduga shows more pronounced gaps, including a school without any written plan, and Jere reflects partial but incomplete standardisation. These differences suggest disparities in administrative oversight, technical capacity, and monitoring. As a result, schools in lower-performing LGAs may face greater operational risk during emergencies due to weaker procedural clarity. Targeted support and harmonised planning standards will therefore be necessary to ensure more consistent preparedness across all LGAs.

**Figure 10: Availability of Written Disaster or Emergency Preparedness Plans by LGA**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

All 17 schools assessed, representing 100% across Jere, Konduga, and MMC, reported that emergency exits were clearly marked and accessible. There is no variation across LGAs, indicating full compliance with this minimum safety requirement. The uniform availability of clearly marked and accessible emergency exits across all LGAs suggests strong compliance with basic structural safety standards, possibly reflecting effective regulatory enforcement or prior infrastructure investments. The absence of variation indicates that evacuation infrastructure is not a differentiating weakness between LGAs. However, while this finding is positive, infrastructure alone does not guarantee an effective emergency response. Without clear procedures, regular drills, and a reinforced safety culture, the existence of emergency exits may not translate into efficient evacuation during crises. Continuous monitoring and integration of evacuation protocols into routine school practice, therefore, remain essential.

Schools across the three LGAs reported that teachers received training on child protection and emergency response within the past 12 months, representing 100% coverage. No differences were recorded between Jere, Konduga, and MMC. The data reflect strong institutional investment in teacher capacity building for safety and protection, with universal training coverage indicating that emergency response awareness has been effectively mainstreamed across LGAs, likely through coordinated state-level programming or partner support. This consistency suggests that human capacity for emergency response is comparatively robust and may help offset some gaps in formal documentation. Qualitative evidence from MMC further illustrates how this capacity is translated into practice. When asked how schools support children affected by trauma or distress, a community leader in Mallam Umairi explained, “*They give them a talk on how to behave in the face of an emergency and to be calm and be on alert.*” This account indicates that teachers and school authorities are not only trained but are also actively engaging learners in basic psychosocial stabilisation and emergency awareness activities.

However, sustained effectiveness will depend on refresher training, simulation exercises, and closer alignment between training content and written contingency plans. Ensuring that trained teachers operate within clear and standardised disaster frameworks will be essential for translating knowledge into consistent and effective action during emergencies across all LGAs.

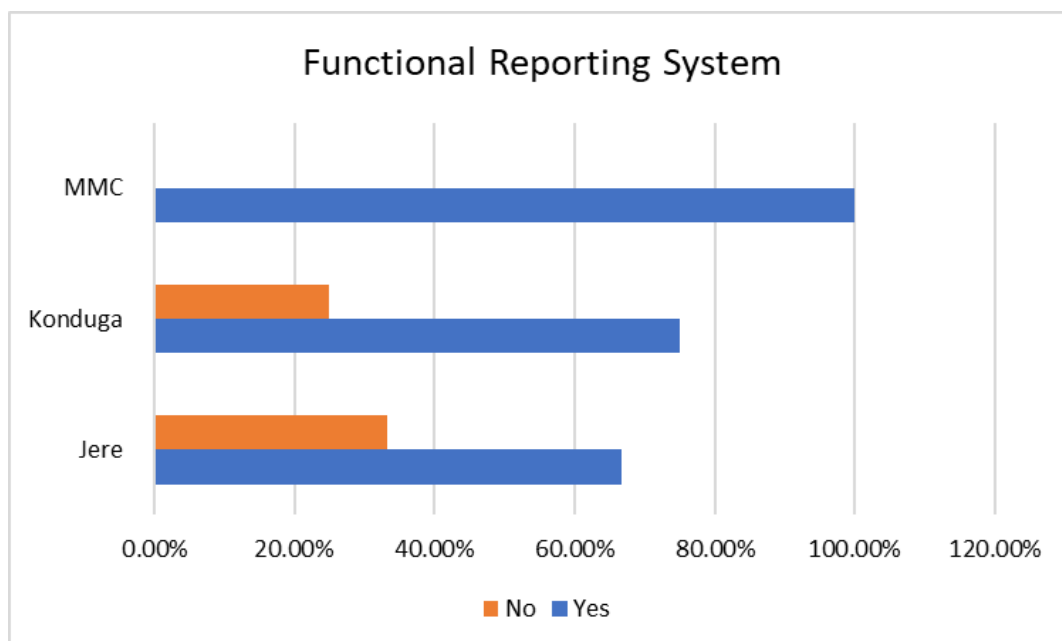
### **5.3 Child Protection and Gender Safeguarding in Schools**

This section examines the extent to which schools across Jere, Konduga, and MMC have institutionalised child protection and safeguarding mechanisms, focusing on reporting systems, anti-bullying measures, GBV prevention policies, and the overall learning environment. Taken together, these indicators provide insight into both the structural and practical dimensions of school-level protection systems.

The presence of functional reporting systems for incidents of violence and abuse is relatively high, with 88.2% of schools across the three LGAs confirming that such mechanisms are in place. However, variation exists at the LGA level. MMC records full coverage at 100%, while Konduga reports 75.0% and Jere 66.7%, with one school each in Jere and Konduga lacking a reporting mechanism. Qualitative responses suggest that in several schools, reporting pathways involve internal escalation to headteachers and, in some cases, referral to external authorities. For example, a teacher from Lamisula (MMC) stated, *“Yes, when anyone sexually harasses a girl, such cases are handed over to the authority to answer questions and meet appropriate punishment.”* Similarly, a teacher from Abbanagarm (MMC) explained, *“Alhamdulillah, whenever we are in class and see any girl sitting alone quietly, we keep an eye on her and try to find out what happened. If it is a serious matter, we will report to the head teacher for further action, and we may take it to the human rights commission.”*

However, gaps in formalisation remain. A headteacher from Gwange (MMC) noted, *“The school has an informal rule against bullying and harassment, but it is not very effective because it is not written. There is no report system and no trained staff to enforce it.”* This suggests that while reporting systems are widely reported, their structure and effectiveness may vary. Overall, although most schools indicate the presence of reporting mechanisms, inconsistencies in documentation and enforcement point to the need for stronger standardisation and oversight to ensure reliable and safe reporting channels across all LGAs.

**Figure 11: Presence of a Functional Reporting System for Incidents of Violence and Abuse by Local Government Area**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

In contrast to the variation observed in reporting systems, anti-bullying measures appear universally present, with 100% (17 schools) of schools in Jere, Konduga, and MMC indicating that such measures are in place. No LGA-level differences emerge on this indicator, suggesting that basic behavioural protection standards are widely embedded within school routines. Qualitative responses indicate that these measures are commonly implemented through school rules, headteacher directives, and close supervision of learners. A head teacher from Jajeri (Konduga) stated, “*Yes, there is. The head teachers will instruct the learners against bullying and harassment.*” Similarly, a teacher from Gonikachallari (Jere) explained, “*We don’t even allow the school prefect to hold a cane or anything that will harass or scare the students, so we are controlling it.*”

Despite this universal reporting, the depth of formalisation may vary. In several instances, anti-bullying practices appear to rely more on informal enforcement and leadership commitment than on clearly documented frameworks. While anti-bullying norms are broadly recognised, strengthening documentation and monitoring would enhance consistency and long-term effectiveness.

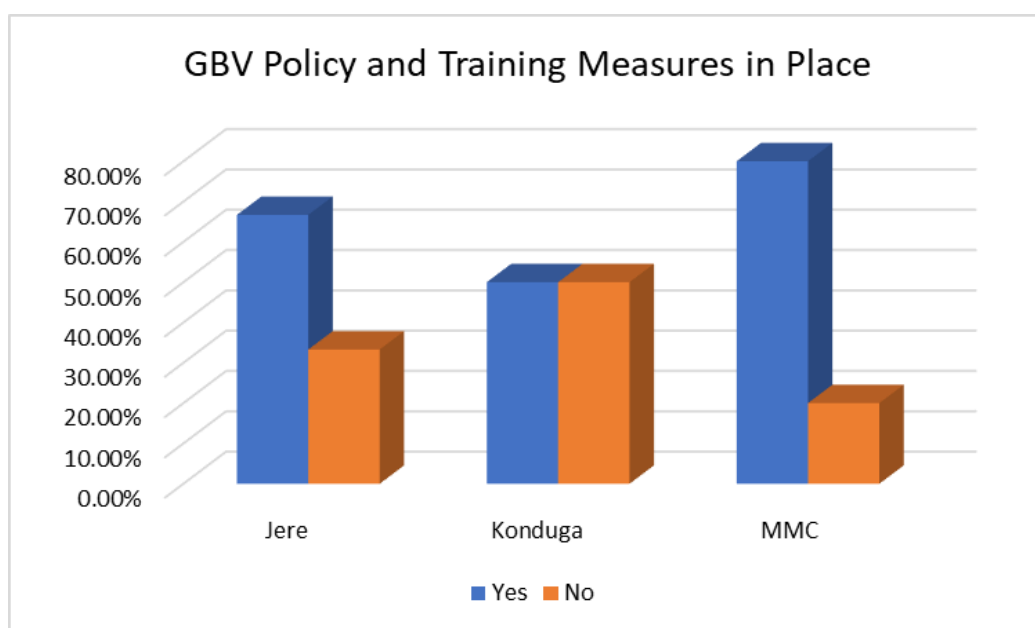
More pronounced variation emerges in the implementation of GBV prevention policies and related training. Overall, 70.6% of schools reported having GBV policy and training measures in place, but disparities are evident across LGAs. MMC records 80.0% coverage, Jere 66.7%, and Konduga 50%, with half of the schools in Konduga reporting no GBV policy or training measures. These patterns suggest that while general behavioural safeguards are widely institutionalised, specialised GBV prevention frameworks are less consistently embedded.

Qualitative responses illustrate this variation in both formality and enforcement. A headteacher from Ngarannam (MMC) explained, “Yes, we have, we make policy for them that we don’t support G.B.V. Whoever is caught is sent out of the school or handled him/her to a vocal person of one of the organisations in the community.”

Similarly, a teacher from Muna Koreri (Jere) stated, “Yes, we have, when a teacher is caught, the teacher may be suspended and when the offence is extreme, a letter may be sent to the government to terminate the culprit (teacher), and this measure has gone a long way to curb, reduce or eliminate the problem.” At the same time, a headteacher from Kasuwa noted, “There is no written policy, but there are measures have been taken to create awareness. Are there steps with the responsibility of keeping eyes on the student,” while a headteacher from Shokari (MMC) acknowledged, “Yes, we have policies. GBV and bullying rules exist, but need better enforcement.”

These accounts indicate that in some schools, GBV measures remain informal or weakly enforced. Strengthening documentation, enforcement consistency, and alignment between policy and training will therefore be essential to building a more uniform GBV prevention framework across LGAs.

**Figure 12: Presence of GBV Prevention Policies and Training by Local Government Area**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

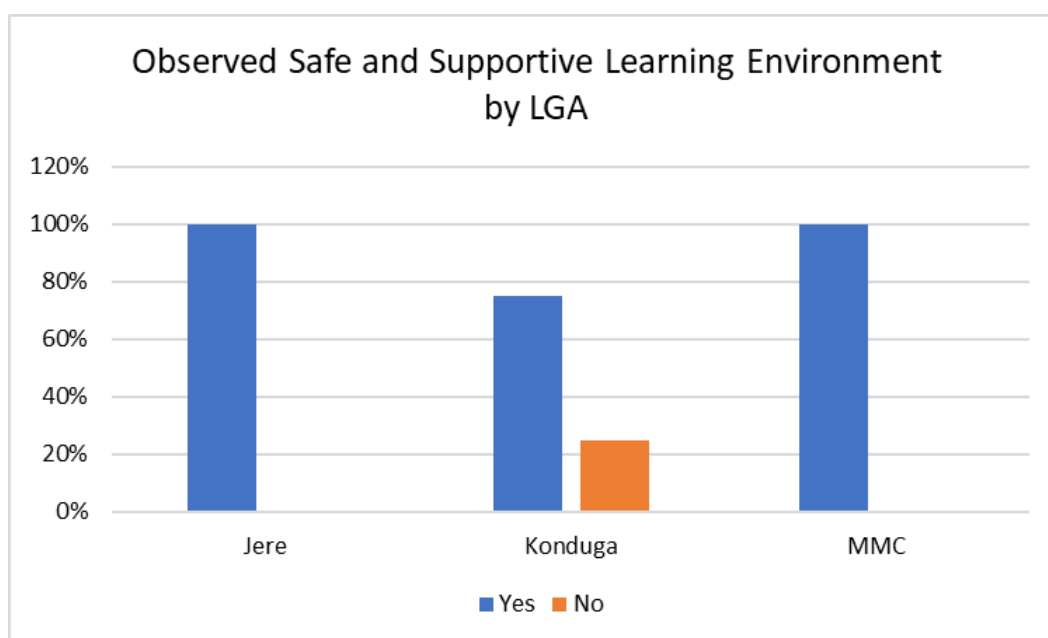
Finally, observational assessments indicate that 94.1% of schools were classified as having a safe and supportive learning environment. Jere and MMC recorded full coverage at 100%, while Konduga reported 75%, with one school not meeting the criteria. This suggests that most

schools demonstrate visible characteristics of supportive and protective environments, although some variation persists. Qualitative evidence reinforces this perception. A teacher from Abbanagarm (MMC) explained, “*Alhamdulillah, whenever we are in class and see any girl sitting alone quietly, we keep an eye on her and try to find out what happened. If it is a serious matter, we will report to the head teacher for further action, and we may take it to the Human Rights Commission.*” Similarly, a teacher from Bulumkutu (MMC) noted, “*We have guidance and counselling that talk over such issues.*”

While the overall climate appears positive, the variation observed in Konduga underscores that supportive environments depend not only on visible orderliness but also on consistent enforcement of protection measures, trained personnel, and functional reporting systems.

Taken together, the findings suggest that school-based child protection systems across the three LGAs are partially institutionalised but uneven in depth and formalisation. General behavioural safeguards such as anti-bullying measures are widely embedded, and most schools report functional reporting systems and supportive environments. However, specialised GBV prevention policies and structured documentation show greater variation, particularly across LGAs. This pattern indicates that while foundational protection norms are present, strengthening standardisation, enforcement, and integration of formal safeguarding frameworks will be essential to building a more coherent and resilient child protection architecture across schools.

**Figure 13: Observed Safe and Supportive Learning Environment by LGA**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

#### 5.4 Presence of IDP/Refugee Learners

The displacement profile of respondents confirms that schooling across the assessed LGAs occurs within a context of widespread fragility and population movement. Household data show that 89.77% of respondents identified as internally displaced persons, with MMC

recording the highest concentration at 96.88%, followed by Jere (86.21%) and Konduga (85.19%). Refugee households were reported only in Konduga, where they accounted for 11.11 % of respondents. This distribution indicates that while internal displacement is pervasive across all locations, Konduga may also face additional pressures related to refugee presence and integration.

Qualitative accounts from school leaders reinforce the scale of displacement and its implications for education delivery. A headteacher from Moduganari (MMC) noted that “*Many children attend temporary learning centers, makeshift classroom or classes hosted in community halls, morgues, churches, or IDP camps,*” highlighting how displacement has reshaped learning spaces. In some communities, vulnerability affects the majority of learners. As the headteacher from Shawari MMC explained, “*If we are to speak on the most vulnerable learners, I would say 99% of our students are vulnerable.*” This suggests that in heavily affected areas, vulnerability is not confined to specific groups but characterizes the broader student population.

Displacement also contributes to irregular attendance and dropout risks. A headteacher from Muna Korreri (Jere) described how vulnerable learners often struggle with consistency in school participation, explaining that “*...some of them, it will lead to this drop out. They are not coming always, they just as a tourist, they come today, tomorrow they will not come.*” In addition to mobility and economic pressures, fear and insecurity continue to shape schooling decisions. One respondent observed that some adolescents hesitate to return to school because they remain afraid that insurgents may still be present. At the same time, some school leaders report modest improvements in support for vulnerable learners. A headteacher from Galtimari (Jere) noted that “*...children now have access to learning centres and school materials...*” while teachers are paying increased attention to the needs of internally displaced children, girls, and learners with disabilities. However, vulnerability is not limited to IDP camps. A headteacher from Kasuwa emphasised that host community children may face similar or even greater hardship, stating that “*Even in the host community, they are vulnerable and worse than those from IDP camps...*”

Several responses also highlight the strain placed on teachers and communities in sustaining education under displacement. In some cases, teachers improvise learning materials using personal resources, while others emphasise the need for stronger government support for displaced learners, particularly girls and orphans who lack basic school supplies. Overall, the findings indicate that displacement is a dominant structural condition shaping education access and delivery across the study LGAs. Beyond physical relocation, displacement influences schooling through disrupted learning environments, heightened vulnerability, irregular attendance, and resource constraints. While some targeted support for vulnerable learners is emerging, sustained investment in safe learning spaces, psychosocial support, and material assistance will be necessary to ensure that displaced and host community children can remain engaged in education.

**Table 12: Displacement Status of Respondents by LGA**

Displacement Status	Jere n (%)	Konduga n (%)	MMC n (%)	Total n (%)
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<b>Internally Displaced</b>	25 (86.21)	23 (85.19)	31 (96.88)	79 (89.77)
<b>Non-displaced</b>	4 (13.79)	1 (3.70)	1 (3.12)	6 (6.82)
<b>Refugee</b>	0 (0.00)	3 (11.11)	0 (0.00)	3 (3.41)
<b>Total</b>	29	27	32	88

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

## 6. Presence and Activities of Accelerated Education Programmes

Interviews with headteachers were conducted to assess the availability, uptake, and perceived responsiveness of Education in Emergencies (EiE) innovations and Accelerated Education Programmes (AEPs) as learning support options for vulnerable learners in Jere, Konduga, and MMC. The findings reveal marked variation in the presence of these innovations across local government areas (LGAs), reflecting uneven access to alternative learning pathways in communities heavily shaped by displacement and learning disruption. Overall, while some targeted support is emerging, the adequacy of these programs remains inconsistent, particularly in high-need areas.

LGA-level patterns show that Maiduguri Metropolitan Council (MMC) consistently reports the highest coverage and adequacy across several indicators. For instance, 80% of schools in MMC reported having a sufficient disaster preparedness plan, and 70% provided adequate remedial or catch-up classes. In contrast, Konduga recorded a disaster plan in only 50% of schools, while 25% reported having no plan at all. Jere LGA presents the most constrained environment; although 66.7% of schools have a disaster plan, 100% of surveyed schools reported an inadequate structured curriculum and a lack of trained teachers on campus, with 66.7% also lacking adequate remedial classes. These figures indicate that the LGAs experiencing significant system stress, particularly Jere, are also those with the lowest access to structured learning recovery options, creating a mismatch between educational need and program availability.

Headteachers in LGAs with limited programmatic presence noted that these gaps constrain their ability to respond to learners affected by conflict and displacement. While some schools have successfully integrated mechanisms like reporting systems for violence, reaching 100% in MMC, the coverage drops to 66.7% in Jere. Where support like psychosocial counseling is available, it is viewed as a valuable entry point for reintegrating learners, yet its absence in over 35% of schools overall suggests that many institutions lack clear pathways to support student well-being and academic recovery. This uneven distribution underscores the importance of examining how existing innovations are linked to formal education standards, which is explored in the following sub-sections.

## 6.1 Availability of Education in Emergencies (EiE) innovations

Headteachers of schools were interviewed to determine the availability of Education in Emergencies (EiE) innovations when operating under emergency or crisis-affected conditions. These EiE innovations include disaster preparedness, emergency exits, emergency-response-trained teachers, a reporting system for violence and abuse, and counsellors and referral systems. Information collected from school headteachers shows that the availability of each EiE innovation is not uniform, with some LGAs better equipped than others.

Regarding disaster preparedness or contingency plans, 70.6% of schools in the LGAs reported having a sufficient plan, compared with 23.5% that were not adequately prepared, suggesting a greater advantage in handling disaster-related disruptions. Local Government analysis reveals some variations. In MMC, the proportion of schools having a disaster plan was highest at 80%, followed by Jere at 66.7%, and Konduga at 50%. In Konduga, 25.0% of schools reported having no disaster or contingency plan in place, suggesting a need for greater reforms. While these gaps are relatively limited, they are notable as they reveal the vulnerability of most of these schools to educational disruptions due to disasters. These findings suggest that disaster emergency plans are largely sustained in schools; however, targeted support is needed in regions with lower adequacy ratios.

In terms of the availability of emergency exits and teachers trained in emergency response and child protection, there are notable improvements, as 100% of schools in each LGA have agreed to have available emergency exits and sufficient teachers trained in emergency response and child protection (Figure 15) (Figure 16). This suggests a better positioning of schools to coordinate education in emergencies.

In the availability of reporting systems for violence and abuse, 88.2% of schools agreed to have systems put in place for reporting cases of violence and abuse within schools, as compared to 11.8% that disagreed. This corresponds with the responses from the interviews and FDGs with teachers and headteachers. They noted that these mechanisms primarily rely on internal disciplinary committees to monitor student conduct and external partnerships with NGOs to report cases of Gender-Based Violence. For example, teachers in Jere and MMC highlighted that these committees and referral pathways serve as both a deterrent and a structured means of reporting incidents, ensuring that cases of abuse are documented and addressed through the appropriate organisational channels.

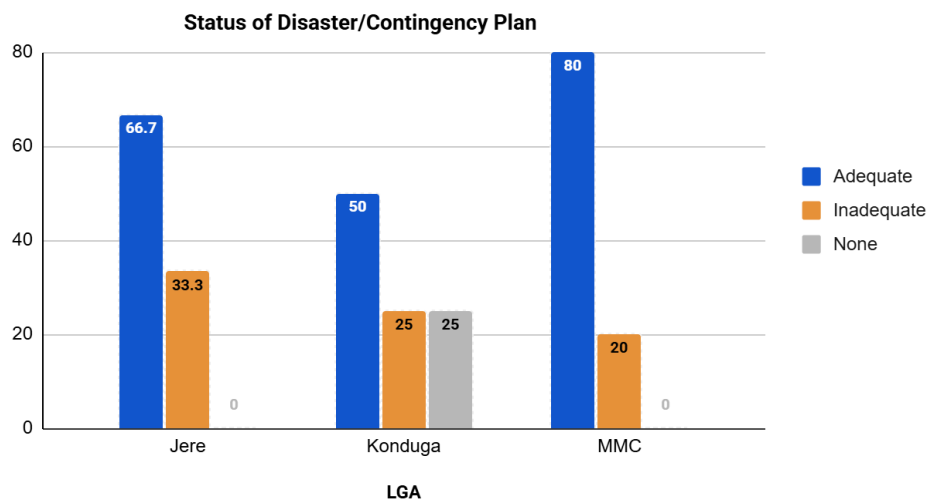
*“We have a disciplinary committee that watches over the students, so for now we don't have such issues.” “There are some organisations that we were reporting this Gender-Based-Violence to.”*

In MMC, 100% of schools agreed to have these reporting systems in operation, followed closely by Konduga at 75% and Jere at 66.7%. This suggests an improved system for managing acts of violence and abuse within the schools. The findings indicate increased targeted support for schools in Jere and Konduga LGAs, while deploying measures to ensure the sustainability of impact in MMC LGA.

Finally, regarding the availability of counsellors and referral support, 64.7% of schools responded positively to having standby counsellors and referral support available for learners affected by conflict, violence, and abuse, compared to 35.3% that did not. In MMC, 70% of schools agreed to having these psychosocial support systems in place, followed closely by Jere at 66.7% and Konduga at 50%.

Overall, the findings from the data reveal that in terms of EiE innovations, MMC has more favourable outcomes than the two remaining LGAs, Jere and Konduga, suggesting the need for targeted support in Jere and Konduga Local Government Areas, while deploying measures to ensure the sustainability of this impact in MMC.

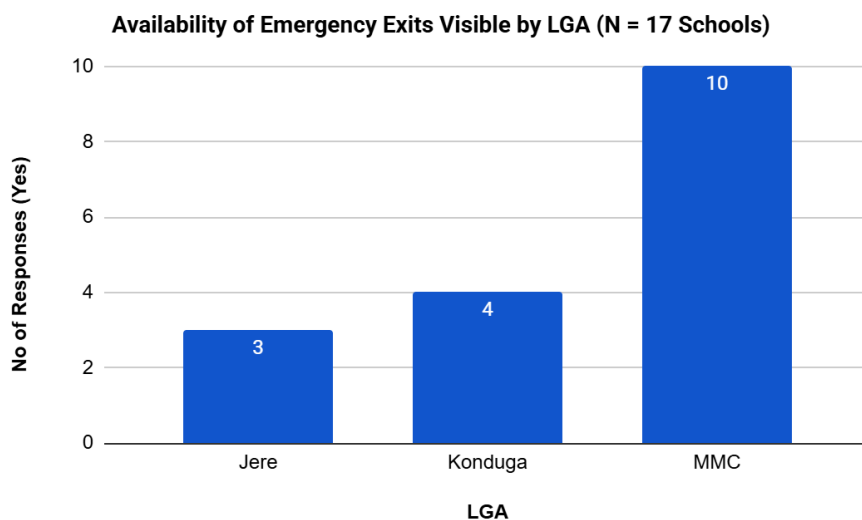
**Figure 14: Status of Disaster/Contingency Plan**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

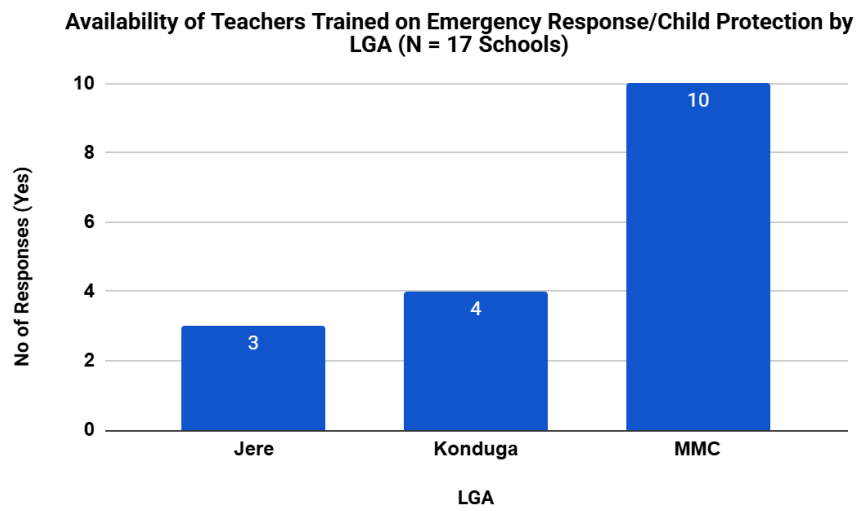
**Figure 15: Availability of Emergency Exits Visible by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

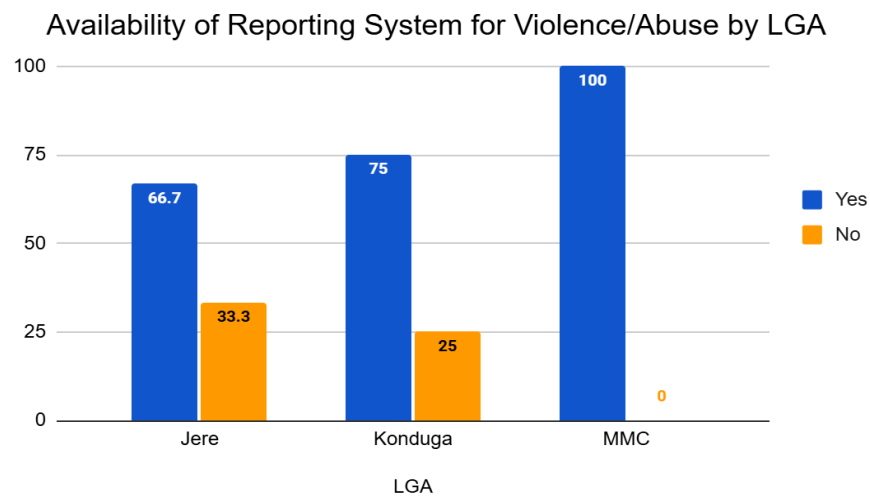
*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

**Figure 16: Availability of Teachers Trained on Emergency Response/Child Protection by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



Source: CSEA field data, 2026.

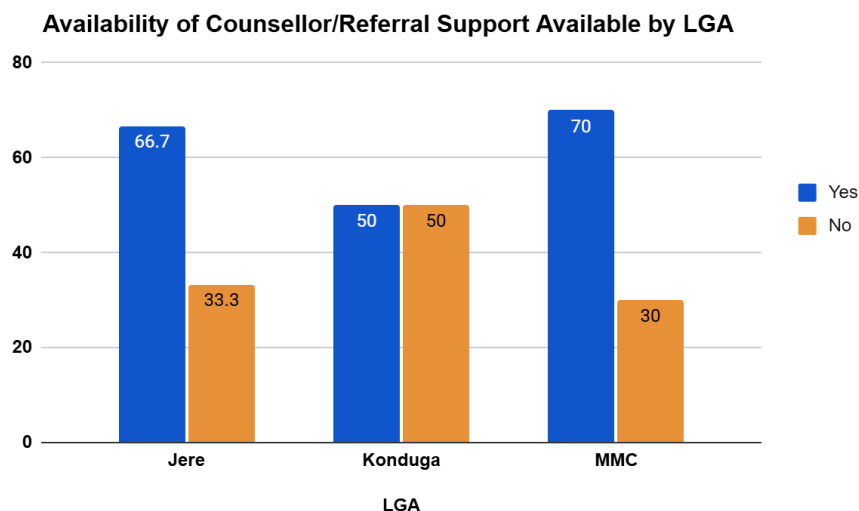
**Figure 17: Availability of Reporting System for Violence/Abuse by LGA**



Source: CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

**Figure 18: Availability of Counsellor/Referral Support Available by LGA**



Source: CSEA field data, 2026.

## 6.2 Availability of teaching and learning Programs in school

Access to teaching and learning programs varies significantly among the surveyed schools in each Local Government Area (LGA), highlighting discrepancies in staffing and infrastructure. These programs include the effectiveness of a structured curriculum or timetable, the availability of remedial or catch-up classes, and the presence of qualified teachers on campus. Information gathered from the headteachers indicates that the availability of these programs is inconsistent across LGAs, with some areas being better equipped than others.

In Jere Local Government Area (LGA), the situation is particularly constrained, as 100.0% of schools reported that they do not have an adequately structured curriculum and trained teachers on campus, and 66.7% reported not having adequate remedial or catch-up classes for learners. This shortfall compounds the challenges already posed by limited EiE innovation in the area.

Konduga demonstrates a relatively robust educational framework, with 50% of schools providing structured curricula, remedial "catch-up" classes, and campus-trained teachers. While these metrics suggest a more supportive learning environment compared to other regions, the adequacy of these programs remains a concern. Qualitative feedback from teachers' Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) reveals a significant gap between availability and sufficiency. One teacher pointed out that while teaching materials are present on campus, they remain inadequate to meet the students' actual needs.

*“We have them, but we cannot say that they are adequate. They are relatively enough.” “We do get the material, but it is not adequate. This is a government school; we do get the supplies, but when it finishes, it takes time to get another one.”*

In contrast, MMC occupies the most advantageous position in accessing these programs, with 80% of schools having an adequately structured curriculum, and 70% having adequate remedial classes and trained teachers on campus. These variations highlight persistent inequities in school-level inputs, with implications for learning quality, retention, and recovery following

disruption. This also supports findings from the FDGs with the headteachers in MMC, as one teacher noted:

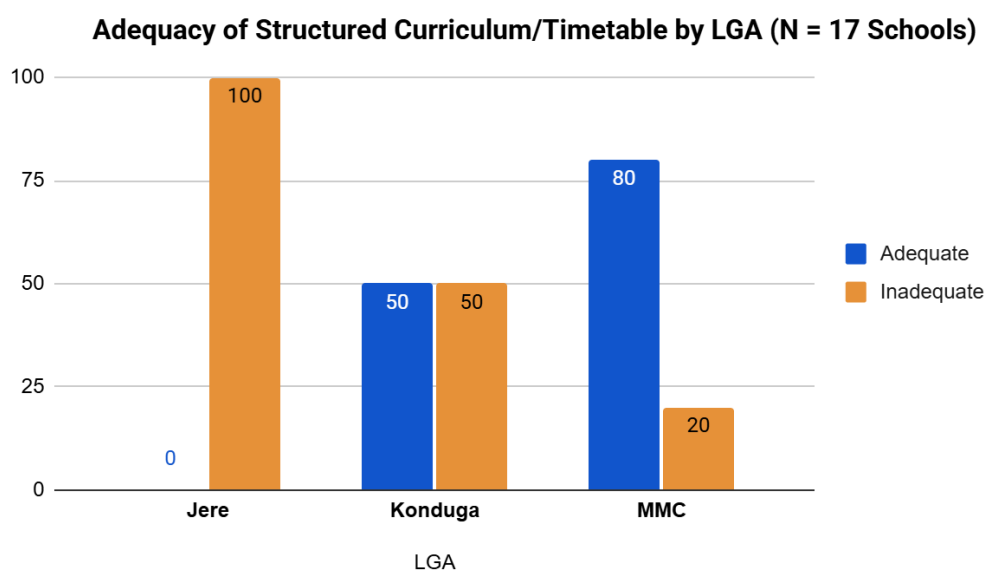
*“We have some of the teaching materials which are provided by the local education authority, and the principal sometimes provides the chalk.”*

Another teacher also re-echoed this finding:

*“Not bad, we have teaching aids in school, but we will need more, like cardboard paper.”*

Overall, the findings point to the need for more targeted and equitable provision of teaching and learning programmes, particularly in Jere and Konduga, which are experiencing higher vulnerability and system stress.

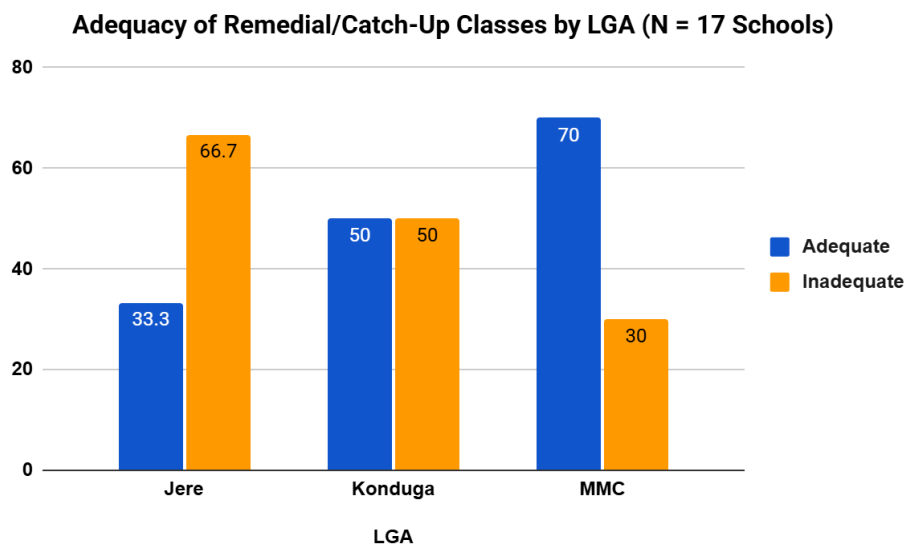
**Figure 19: Adequacy of Structured Curriculum/Timetable by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

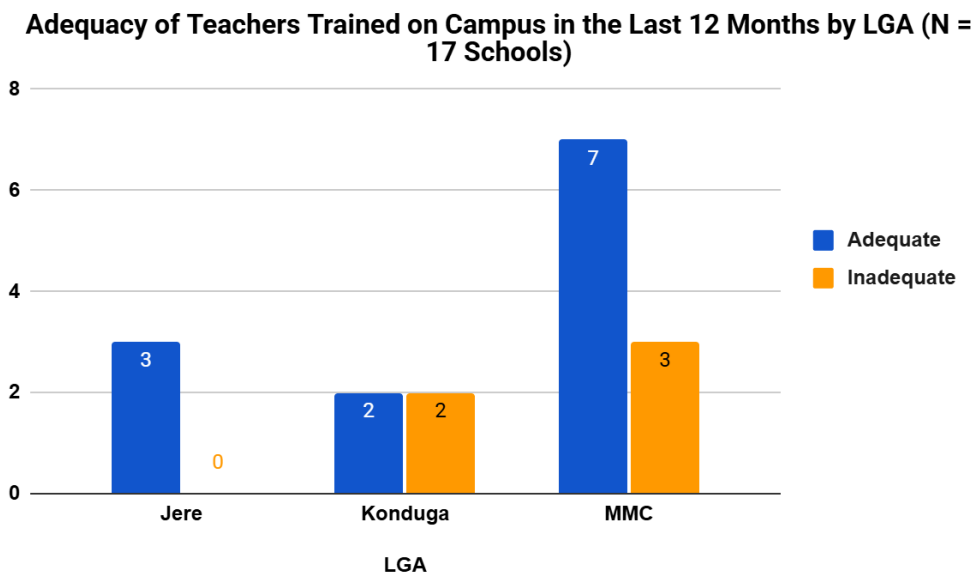
*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

**Figure 20: Adequacy of Remedial/Catch-Up Classes by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



Source: CSEA field data, 2026.

**Figure 21: Adequacy of Teachers Trained on Campus in the Last 12 Months by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



Source: CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.3 School Curriculum Alignment with Formal Education Standards

Headteachers were interviewed to ascertain how well schools maintain curriculum alignment with formal education standards, even in emergency or crisis-affected situations. Overall, the findings show that most schools continue to implement a structured curriculum at 58.8%,

indicating a strong commitment to maintain formal learning continuity despite unique challenges.

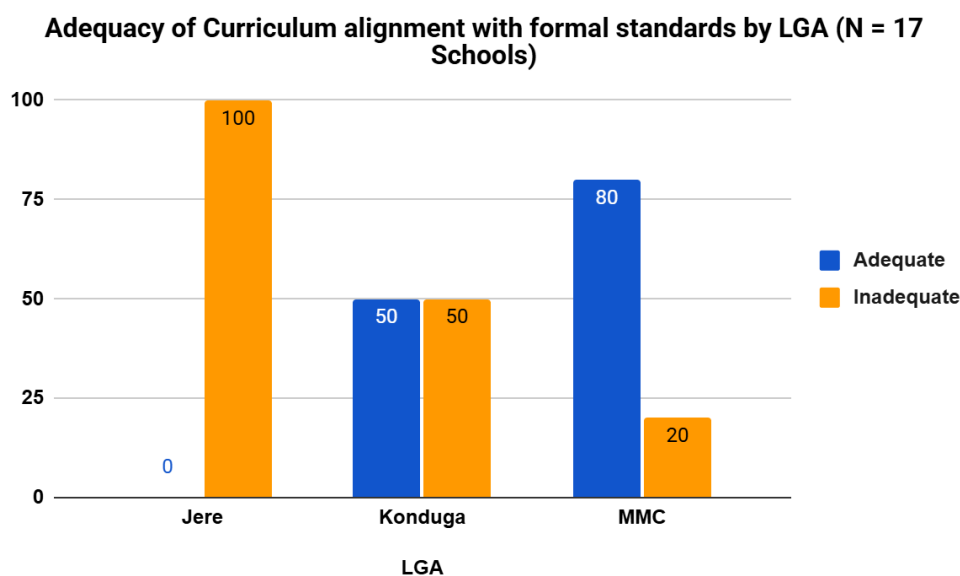
Local government analysis reveals some variations in this alignment, with schools in MMC recording the highest use of structured curriculum at 80%, indicating strong alignment with formal education standards. According to the FDGs, a headteacher in MMC noted that the educational curriculum was fully aligned with formal standards.

*“Yes, they are using the same curriculum.”*

In Konduga, small gaps were observed. 50% of schools reported the absence of a structured curriculum, compared to 100% of schools in Jere, which had inadequate curriculum alignment with formal education standards (Figure 22).

Again, these gaps are notable for schools in Jere LGA, increasing educational vulnerabilities experienced in the area, such as limited EiE innovations and access to teaching and learning programs. Overall, the findings indicate that curriculum alignment is largely sustained in MMC and relatively in Konduga; however, targeted support is required in Jere, where disruptions risk weakening consistent curriculum delivery.

**Figure 22: Adequacy of Curriculum alignment with formal standards by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

#### 6.4 Remedial classes for children in emergency contexts

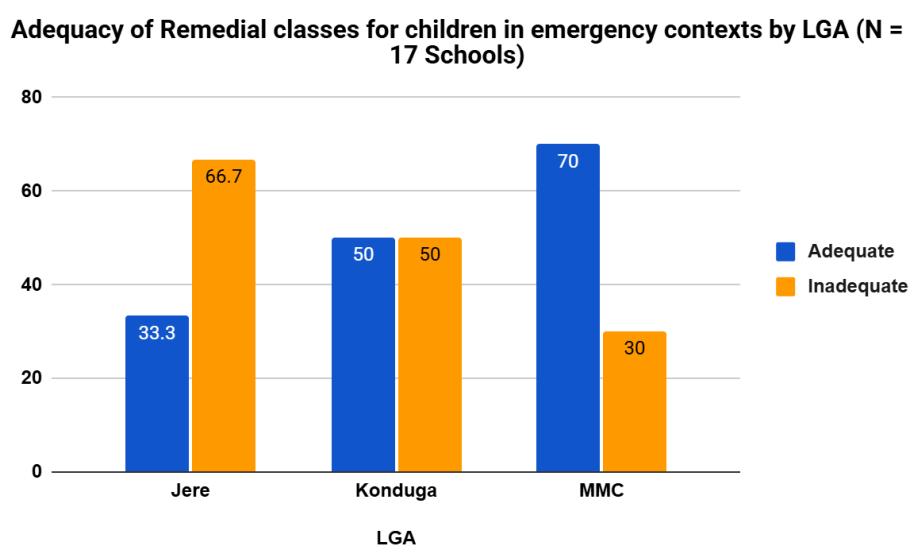
The organisation of remedial classes as a learning recovery strategy in emergency and fragile contexts remains uneven and limited across the study LGAs. Remedial classes are particularly important in settings where conflict, displacement, and social instability disrupt regular schooling and create learning gaps. However, findings from the school survey indicate that such targeted learning support is relatively implemented, and distance or contingency learning modalities are rarely utilised during periods of disruption at 58.8%.

Local government analysis reveals significant contrasts. 66.7% of schools surveyed in Jere LGA revealed the inadequacy of remedial classes available for children in emergency contexts, a significant concern given the area’s prolonged exposure to conflict and limited access to EiE innovations and teaching programs (Figure 23). In contrast, MMC demonstrates stronger engagements, with 70% of schools reporting the provision of remedial classes, suggesting greater capacity to support learning recovery. These findings are corroborated by qualitative reports from school leadership regarding the diversity of available programs. A headteacher in MMC detailed the variety of non-formal pathways currently in place:

*“Non-formal education in LGA includes the accelerated education programme, speech schools, catch-up or remedial classes, and skills-based learning centres for youth. And that is it.”*

Konduga recorded remedial classes in 50% of schools, indicating partial but still limited coverage. Overall, only 10 out of the 17 schools surveyed reported offering remedial classes, highlighting a substantial gap in structured learning recovery interventions for children affected by emergencies. These findings point to the need for stronger integration of remedial and catch-up strategies within schools in emergencies, particularly in Jere and Konduga, which are experiencing sustained instability.

**Figure 23: Adequacy of Remedial classes for children in emergency contexts by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



**Source:** CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.5 Availability of Radio Programmes or Mobile Learning Sessions

The assessment shows that radio-based and mobile learning sessions are moderately present across the three study regions, with 58.8% of schools agreeing to have digital and radio learning tools as alternative systems to face-to-face instruction in emergency contexts. Local government analysis shows minimal variations between Jere and MMC regions and low coverage in Konduga. In MMC, only 30% of schools assessed reported not having adequate digital and radio learning tools. Jere shows a similarly high level of provision, with only 33.3%

of schools reported not having adequate digital and radio learning tools (Figure 24). In Konduga, only 25% of schools agreed to adequate provision of digital and radio learning tools. This supports findings from the qualitative data in Konduga. A headteacher noted:

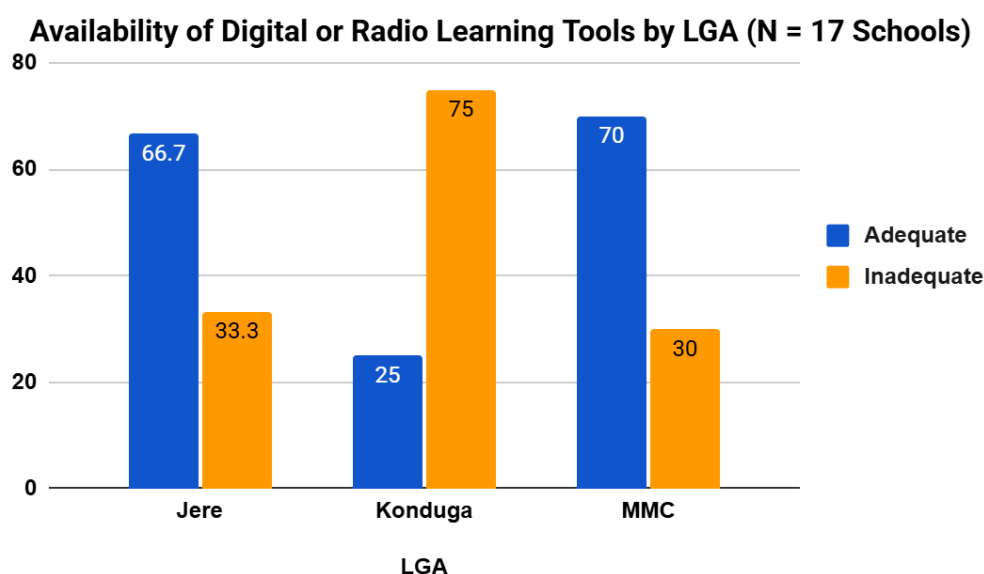
*“No, no, no, for now. But we hope that with this government improving the state of education in the states, we hope that these things will come in the near future.”*

Another teacher re-echoed:

*“There is nothing like that.”*

Across the 17 schools, only seven reported inadequate support for radio and digital learning tools. This data underscores a marginal improvement in emergency learning preparedness; however, it also highlights a critical need to strengthen low-cost, scalable distance learning options as a core component of "Education in Emergencies" (EiE) responses.

**Figure 24: Availability of Digital or Radio Learning Tools by LGA (N = 17 Schools)**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

## 6.6 Psychosocial Support by Non-Governmental Organisations

Psychosocial support services are moderately present within surveyed communities, with 51.1% of respondents reporting awareness of such interventions. However, nearly half of households remain unaware, indicating uneven information dissemination and outreach gaps across LGAs. The distribution of awareness does not significantly vary by LGA, suggesting that limitations in knowledge of available services are systemic rather than geographically concentrated.

Education Innovators constitute the dominant provider of psychosocial support, accounting for 47.7% of reported service provision. In addition, 27.3% of households identified NGOs such

as Plan International, TaRLI Organisation, and other NGO actors. This corroborates findings from the headteachers’ interviews. One teacher in MMC stated:

*“Yes, at least a Non-Governmental organisation and also even the government itself usually trains the teachers from time to time. This psychosocial support also boosts the capacity of the teachers.”*

In terms of the psychosocial support for learners, another teacher in Jere re-echoed:

*“More especially, the NGO introduced a child spacing program.”*

Government agencies, CSOs, and religious bodies collectively represent less than 10% of identified providers, indicating that psychosocial service delivery is largely non-state driven. This finding underscores the critical role of Non-Governmental actors in education-in-emergency contexts.

Regarding the type of intervention provided, emotional support services are most prevalent, reported by 65.9% of respondents. Psychological interventions, including counselling and trauma-informed support, account for 27.3%. Only 2.3% reported the absence of any support. The emphasis on emotional support reflects an intervention focus on resilience-building and coping skills rather than structured clinical or trauma-recovery programming.

Importantly, 45.5% of households report that their children received psychosocial or counselling support in the past 12 months. Although the receipt varies somewhat by LGA, this difference is only marginally significant. However, a statistically significant association exists between psychosocial support and school enrolment status. Households whose children received psychosocial support were significantly more likely to report full enrolment ( $\chi^2 = 4.07$ ,  $p = .044$ ). This suggests that psychosocial interventions may play a protective role against school exclusion in fragile and conflict-affected settings.

Overall, the findings indicate that psychosocial support in the study areas is heavily driven by NGOs and education innovators, with limited visible government leadership. While coverage is substantial, it remains incomplete, and expansion of structured, institutionalised psychosocial programming may enhance both educational participation and child wellbeing outcomes.

**Table 13: Psychosocial Support Awareness, Providers, and Receipt**

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Awareness of psychosocial support</b>		
Yes	45	51.14
No	43	48.86
<b>Type of support provided</b>		

Emotional support	58	65.91
Psychological support	24	27.27
No support	2	2.27
Other	4	4.55
<b>Primary provider</b>		
Education Innovators	42	47.73
NGO/Plan/Taal (from Others)	24	27.27
CSOs	3	3.41
Government agencies	4	4.55
Religious bodies	1	1.14
Other/None responses	14	15.91
<b>Received support in the last 12 months</b>		
Yes	40	45.45
No	48	54.55

CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.7 Training in psychosocial learning

Findings from the survey indicate notable progress in training teachers in psychosocial learning across the three Local Government Areas (LGAs). Over the past 12 months, 17 teachers in Jere, Konduga, and MMC LGAs reported receiving training in psychosocial learning, suggesting greater exposures among teachers. This aligns with qualitative data, as most schools reported that their teachers have received training in psychosocial support from NGOs such as UNICEF, NRC, Plan International, and Save the Children. A headteacher in MMC reported:

*“Yes, of course. Some teachers have received training. Training was provided by NGOs such as UNICEF, NRC, Save the Children and Plan International.”*

Another teacher in Jere also noted:

*“Yes, early this year, we received training on this psychosocial support for our teachers by NRC.”*

Similarly, 11 out of 34 teachers surveyed indicated that their schools have trained counsellors or referral support services, indicating a growing but still inadequate capacity to support learners experiencing emotional and psychosocial challenges in fragile contexts. Overall, only 6 teachers agreed not to have counsellors or referral support services in their schools, signalling the need for greater teacher support and psychosocial learning.

**Table 14: Training in Psychosocial Learning**

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Teachers trained on child protection in the past 12 months</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>School has trained counsellors or referral support services</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>64.7</b>
<b>The school has no counsellor or referral support services</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>35.3</b>

CSEA field data, 2026.  
Data based on 17 Schools/Observation

### **6.8 Availability of Programmes Promoting Girls’ Education**

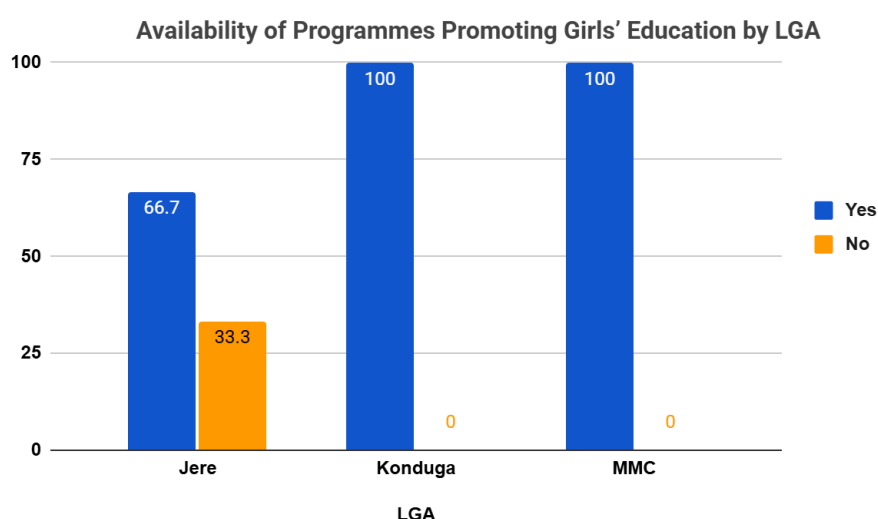
At the national level, initiatives to promote girls’ education in Nigeria primarily focus on expanding access through higher enrollment and retention rates. These efforts are complemented by strategies to enhance learning quality through vocational skills training and the introduction of safety measures to protect students. These interventions are mostly relevant in Northern regions, where insecurity, climate change, and restrictive socio-cultural norms continue to challenge female education. Within such settings, targeted programmes that address barriers to girls’ participation are critical for sustaining enrolment and progression through the education cycle.

Findings from the school assessment reveal an uneven availability of girls’ education programmes across the three study areas, Jere, Konduga, and MMC, although this difference is only marginal. Jere recorded the lowest coverage with only 2 schools reporting girls’ education programmes. In contrast, Konduga shows a relatively stronger engagement with 4 schools reporting the availability of girls’ education programmes. MMC occupies the highest position, as 10 schools agreed to the availability of girls’ education programmes. In general, 16 schools agreed to have programmes that support girls’ education. This augments findings from the FDGs with headteachers, as the majority reported implementing the AGILE project in their schools.

*“Yes, there is. There is this organisation, popularly known as AGILE. They have encouraged girls' education through mentoring, distributing dignity kits, and running awareness campaigns.”*

Overall, the findings underscore the need to scale up and better target girls' education programmes across all districts, with particular emphasis on contexts where socio-economic pressures and insecurity continue to undermine girls' access, retention, and learning outcomes.

**Figure 25: Availability of Programmes Promoting Girls' Education by LGA**



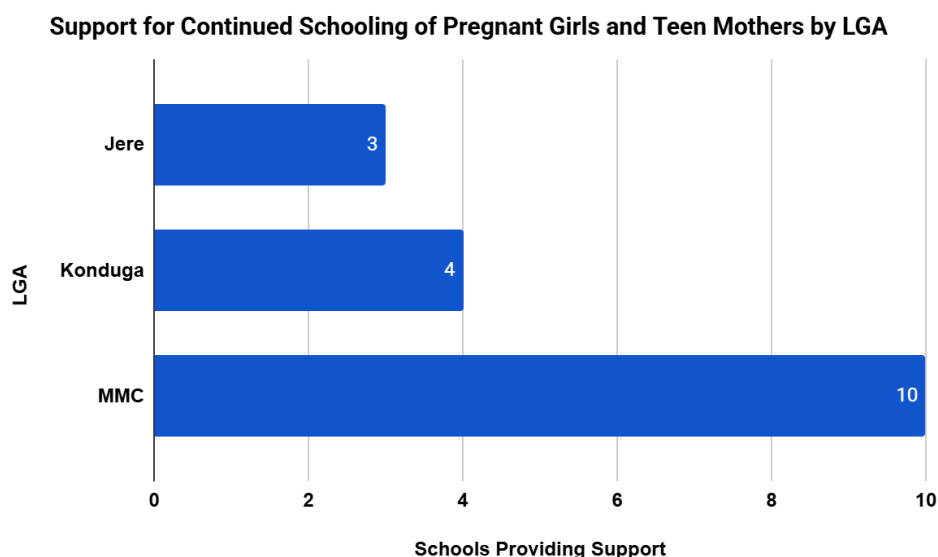
*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

## 6.9 Support for Continued Schooling of Pregnant Girls and Teen Mothers

Support mechanisms that enable pregnant girls and teenage mothers to remain in school are critical for reducing dropout, advancing gender equity, and improving long-term social and economic outcomes. In Nigeria, particularly in deprived and fragile regions such as Northern states, national policy commitments and community-level support are intended to ensure that pregnancy does not permanently exclude girls from education. School-friendly practices, guidance and counselling, flexible arrangements, and supportive community attitudes play a crucial role in helping young mothers continue their education and break intergenerational cycles of poverty.

Findings from the survey reveal uneven but optimal availability of such support across the three study areas. In Jere, all 3 schools reported having support systems for pregnant girls and teen mothers to continue schooling, followed closely by Konduga, which had only 4 schools. Although this is a substantial difference from MMC, which is reported to have 10 schools that provide support for pregnant girls and teenage mothers, it represents optimal availability in all areas, as it accounts for 100% of the schools surveyed. Overall, the results indicate the need for more deliberate and sustained interventions in Jere and Konduga to strengthen school-level support for pregnant girls and teen mothers and ensure equitable access to education across all districts.

**Figure 26: Support for Continued Schooling of Pregnant Girls and Teen Mothers by LGA**



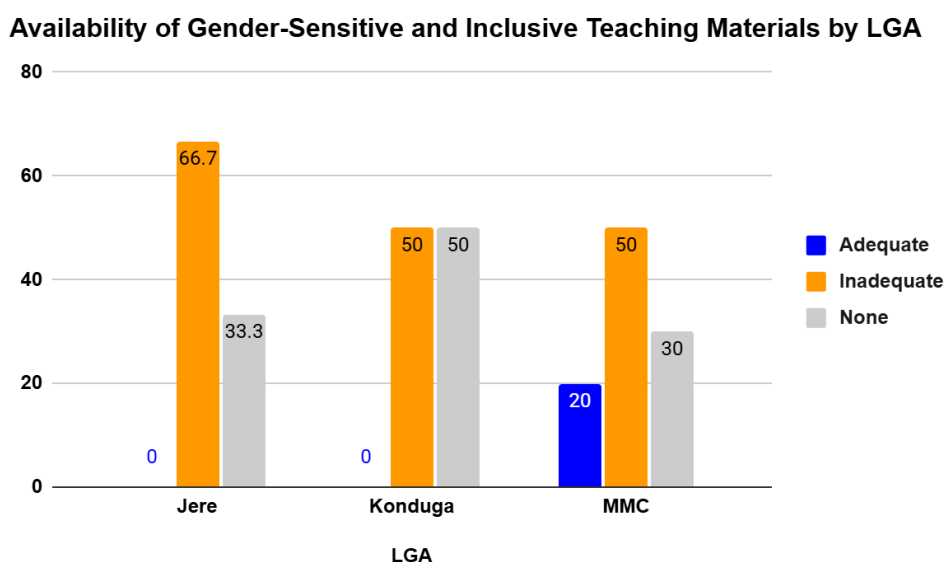
*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.10 Gender and Inclusion Sensitivity

Gender and inclusion sensitivity in teaching and learning materials is particularly important in the study context, where conflict, displacement, and socio-economic vulnerability can deepen existing gender and social inequalities. Inclusive teaching and learning materials help promote equity, positive representation, and safe learning environments for all learners, including girls, children with disabilities, and other marginalised groups. In fragile settings like Northern states, such materials reinforce social cohesion and reduce stigma by ensuring that diverse identities and experiences are reflected in classroom content.

Findings from the school assessment show that gender sensitive and inclusive teaching materials are largely absent across the three study areas, indicating limited representation of girls and children with disabilities in education innovations in emergency contexts. Overall, only 11.8% of schools surveyed across all three regions reported adequate provision of gender-sensitive and inclusive teaching materials. Local government analysis shows very limited coverage and low variations between regions. Only 2% of schools in MMC agreed to have these gender-inclusive materials. Jere and Konduga reported 0%, respectively, indicating no measures were put in place to ensure adequate provision of these resources. In total, only 2 schools recorded adequate provision, 9 recorded inadequate provision, and 6 recorded no provision for gender-sensitive and inclusive teaching materials.

**Figure 27: Availability of Gender-Sensitive and Inclusive Teaching Materials by LGA**



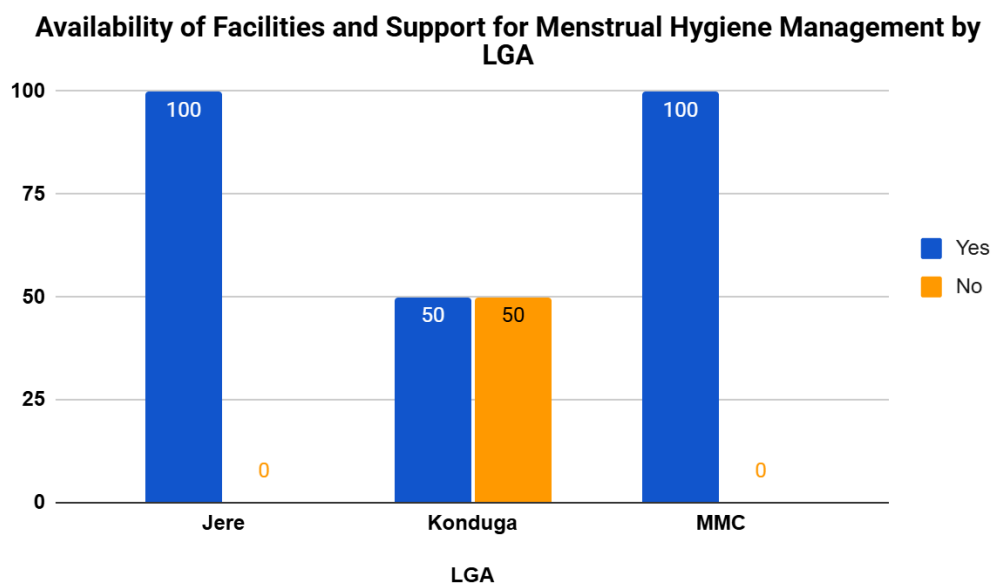
*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.11 Facilities and support for menstrual hygiene management

The availability of adequate menstrual hygiene management facilities and support is essential for safeguarding girls’ dignity, health, and continued participation in schooling. Access to safe, private, and functional WASH facilities, alongside appropriate menstrual supplies and guidance, directly influences girls’ attendance, concentration, and retention, particularly during adolescence. In fragile and conflict-affected contexts such as parts of the Northern states, gaps in water, sanitation, and hygiene infrastructure are often intensified by insecurity, displacement, and limited resources, making menstrual hygiene management an even more critical concern.

Findings from the study indicate that inadequate menstrual hygiene facilities and support remain a constraint in schools in Jere and Konduga LGAs, contributing to absenteeism and discomfort among adolescent girls. In contrast, MMC showed higher availability of facilities and support for menstrual hygiene, with 10 schools reporting positive outcomes. However, where facilities are insufficient or poorly maintained, with no access to water, girls are more likely to miss school during menstruation or disengage from classroom activities. The evidence highlights the need for strengthened investment in gender-responsive WASH infrastructure, consistent provision of sanitary materials, and school-level sensitisation to ensure that menstrual hygiene does not become a barrier to girls’ education, especially in vulnerable and emergency-affected communities.

**Figure 28: Availability of Facilities and Support for Menstrual Hygiene Management by LGA**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.12 Incidence and Response to Sexual Abuse Cases in the School

In fragile and conflict-affected contexts, the risk of sexual abuse and exploitation in and around schools requires sustained attention, as insecurity, displacement, and weakened community protection systems can heighten children’s vulnerability. Effective prevention, reporting, and response mechanisms are essential to ensuring safe and protective learning environments.

Findings from the survey indicate a high prevalence of violence within the educational environment, as 70.59% of the headteachers reported incidents of violence or abuse in their schools within the last 12 months. Despite this high incidence, only 47.06% reported having a functional system for reporting such incidents. These response mechanisms include measures to address Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and bullying in schools, although they vary by type of intervention. Under awareness and training, 94.12% of schools agreed to have timetabled GBV awareness sessions and to provide GBV training to teachers and staff. Under preventive measures and support services, 88.24% and 70.59% reported having bullying prevention measures in place and the availability of counsellors or referral services. For policy and documentation, 64.71% of schools already have a written GBV policy or manual. This is supported by interview responses from headteachers, which showed that most schools already had written GBV policies, although some reported that these policies were informal, and others were inactive. *“Yes, that policy is under the custody of the discipline master.” “Yes, we have a policy, though unwritten, but we have a policy that is well known among all staff of the school, that bullying and harassment will not be tolerated at all. This policy is well known among all of our staff.”*

Additionally, findings also reveal the response capacity index by study area, which measures the overall institutional strength on a scale of 0 to 6. The mean score of 4.9 shows that, on

average, the response capacity of the three study areas to incidents of GBV and abuse within schools is relatively fair. Jere has the lowest mean score (4.00), indicating it faces the most significant gaps in addressing violence and supporting victims compared to the other two areas. Konduga falls in the middle (4.25), performing better than Jere but lagging behind the metropolitan centre of MMC. In contrast, MMC demonstrates the highest response capacity (4.90), suggesting better-equipped facilities or more consistent policy implementation.

Overall, the findings suggest a significant implementation gap between measures that promote GBV awareness among teachers and staff and measures that promote prevention, such as functional reporting systems and a written GBV policy in schools. It also suggests that although schools are generally above average in their GBV response capacity (mean = 4.59 out of 6.0), the minimum score of 1 indicates that most schools are almost entirely vulnerable to GBV. More attention and focus should be given to schools in Jere LGA to reduce GBV occurrence by strengthening response systems and capacity.

### **6.13 Evidence of gender-sensitive awareness and discriminatory practice mitigation in schools**

Mitigating discriminatory practices for girls remains a critical indicator of a school's capacity to promote gender equity and create a safe, inclusive learning environment. School leadership plays a central role in setting norms, enforcing rules, and responding to behaviours that undermine girls' participation, dignity, and retention in education. Where headteachers can recognise discrimination, they are better positioned to put in place corrective measures, strengthen child protection mechanisms, and foster school cultures that uphold equal treatment for all learners, particularly in fragile and socially conservative contexts where girls' education is often at greater risk.

Findings from the study show that while 8 schools reported little or no access to gender-sensitive materials, only 9 schools agreed to an adequate supply of these materials, suggesting a need to strengthen reforms and programmes to increase access in the study areas. In making these materials accessible to learners with special needs, 88.2% of schools agreed to adopt measures to improve access. This supports findings from FGDs, as most schools had adequate learning support for learners with special needs. *"We have it. So, we have modified teaching methods, extra time for tests, individualised learning plans, and teacher training in inclusive education."*

There is also an improved effort in schools to provide safe learning and inclusive environments for girls.

These results underscore the need for sustained sensitisation and programmes to strengthen access to gender-sensitive materials for schools, as addressing this problem is essential to ensuring equal access to education, safeguarding girls' rights, and promoting inclusive school environments where all learners can participate fully and safely.

The availability of gender-sensitive materials is notably limited within the surveyed institutions. Only 11.8% of respondents reported having an adequate supply of these materials, while the majority (52.9%) categorised the supply as inadequate. Furthermore, 35.3% reported having no gender-sensitive materials. This indicates a significant gap in the provision of resources specifically designed to support and represent girls, which may hinder efforts to mitigate discriminatory practices in the classroom.

In the inclusive aspect of gender-sensitive materials and learning environment for girls, a substantial 88.2% of respondents indicated that these resources are accessible to learners with special needs, whereas only 11.8% reported a lack of such accessibility.

Additionally, a safe learning environment was observed in 70.6% of cases. However, 29.4% of schools noted the absence of a safe environment, suggesting that nearly one-third of learners may still be exposed to risks that could disproportionately affect girls' participation and retention.

Overall, while there is strong evidence of resource accessibility for special needs and a generally safe learning environment, the systemic lack of gender-sensitive materials remains a critical weakness. Addressing this deficit is essential for moving beyond classroom safety toward a truly equitable educational experience that actively challenges discriminatory practices.

#### **6.14 Safety of Girls within the School Environment**

Safety indicators within the surveyed schools are remarkably high, with several key protections achieving universal coverage. Specifically, 100% of respondents reported the presence of separate washrooms for boys and girls, clearly marked emergency exits, and anti-bullying measures. Furthermore, teachers' capacity in this area appears robust, as 100% of respondents confirmed that teachers have been trained on child protection. These findings suggest a strong foundational commitment to gender-segregated sanitation and established behavioural protocols. This corroborates findings from interviews with headteachers, as most teachers reported that they have received training in emotional and psychosocial support for learners.

*“Yes, of course. Some teachers have received training. Training was provided by NGOs such as UNICEF, NRC, Save the Children and Plan International.” “Yes, they have trained some of our teachers in such a learning process, or teaching process, I would rather say. And it's very effective, especially for the students. Yes, there is one NGO called NRC.”*

In the physical security conditions of the schools, 94.1% have a secure perimeter in place, with only 5.9% reporting its absence, 88.2% have an active system for reporting violence or abuse, and 70.6% have a formal emergency plan.

Despite these strengths, specialised support services represent a notable gap in the safety framework. Counsellor or referral support is available in only 64.7% of schools, leaving over a third (35.3%) without structured psychological or referral pathways.

Overall, 70.6% of schools reported a safe learning environment, while the remaining 29.4% reported a lack of safety. This suggests that although schools have made progress in emotional and psychosocial training for teachers, there is still a need to strengthen support systems through counsellor or referral services and emergency preparedness.

#### **6.15 Female Staff Involvement in Identifying and Following Up on Girls' Absenteeism**

The presence of staff dedicated to identifying and following up on girls' absenteeism is a critical safeguard for ensuring educational continuity and protecting learners from potential risks such as early marriage or permanent dropout. These staff members, often female teachers or community volunteers, provide a vital link between the school and the home,

offering structured guidance and intervention when a girl stops attending classes. In fragile and conflict-affected settings like Borno State, where girls face heightened barriers to education, the active involvement of such personnel signals an institutional commitment to the safety, retention, and equitable educational outcomes of female learners.

Findings from the survey show positive outcomes regarding proactive measures to address absenteeism, as teachers from most schools reported having staff or mechanisms in place to follow up on girls who stop attending school. However, while some schools have formally trained desk officers, others rely on dedicated female volunteers who conduct home visits and engage with parents to resolve barriers to attendance. From the FGDs, the majority of headteachers confirmed that female staff are preferred for this role as students feel more comfortable discussing sensitive issues with them.

A teacher from Gwange highlighted the importance of gender-sensitive support, noting:

*"Yes, female teachers help track and counsel girls because students feel more comfortable discussing sensitive issues with them."*

Another teacher from Mafoni Liberty MMC emphasised the shift towards professionalising this support:

*"Female teachers are being trained for such."*

A teacher from Konduga added:

*"Some of our female staff volunteer[s]... they follow her to her house and ask what the problem [what the problem is], to ensure that she gets back to school and continues her education."*

Overall, this finding underscores the need to institutionalise and provide systematic capacity-building for these staff members to ensure all girls receive consistent and professional support.

## **6.16 Presence of Anti-Sexual Harassment Policy**

The presence of a clear anti-sexual harassment policy is a critical safeguard for protecting learners, particularly girls, from abuse, exploitation, and intimidation within school environments. Such policies provide structured guidance on prevention, reporting, and response mechanisms, while also signalling institutional commitment to dignity, safety, and accountability. In fragile and conflict-prone settings like the Northern Nigerian states, where risks to girls are often heightened, these policies are especially important for fostering a safe and respectful learning climate that supports regular attendance, sustained participation, and equitable educational outcomes for both girls and boys.

Findings from the survey show positive outcomes for schools with written policy measures to address and prevent bullying and GBV, as 17 out of the 17 schools assessed reported having an anti-sexual harassment policy in place. From the FGDs with headteachers, the majority confirmed the availability of clearly written GBV policies, although priority was given to better enforcement. A teacher from MMC noted:

*“Yes, we have policies, and they are fairly active.”*

Another teacher from Shokari supported this point:

*“Yes, we have policies. GBV and bullying rules exist, but need better enforcement.”*

The presence of this policy reduces vulnerability and improves education outcomes for learners, especially girls. It can also lead to improved attendance, active classroom participation, and a lower risk of dropout. This finding, therefore, underscores the need to ensure the sustainability of this policy, enhancing the safety of schools and the availability of gender-conducive learning spaces.

### **6.17 Staff Responsible for Monitoring Students with Special Needs**

The presence of designated staff to monitor learners with special needs is a core requirement for inclusive education. Such staff play a critical role in tracking learners’ academic progress, identifying barriers to participation, and coordinating relevant support within the school and with external services. In contexts affected by fragility and limited resources, structured monitoring becomes even more important, as learners with disabilities or learning difficulties are at heightened risk of exclusion and neglect.

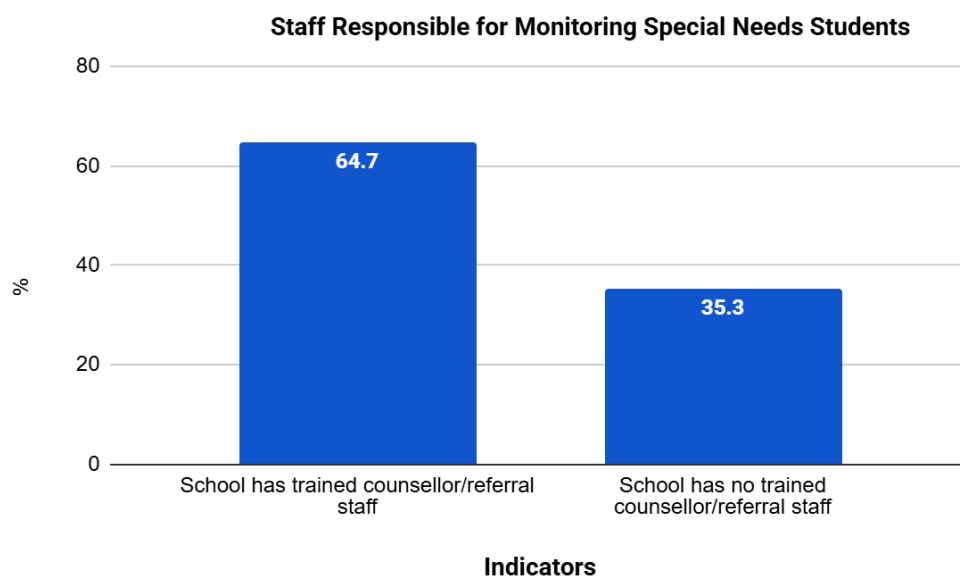
Findings from the survey indicate that only 11 out of 17 schools reported having trained counsellors and referral staff responsible for monitoring students with special needs. This ‘slightly above average’ level of coverage showcases the existing gaps in inclusive education practice across the study areas. The absence of such monitoring mechanisms in 6 schools limits their ability to provide targeted support, adapt instruction, or track learning progress for special needs learners, thereby increasing the likelihood that these learners will fall behind academically, disengage from schooling, or be excluded altogether.

This supports findings from interviews and FDGs with headteachers, which confirmed the availability of staff responsible for monitoring students with special needs, although these staff are inadequate.

*“The support is limited. Teachers provide extra time informally, but there are no assistive devices, specialised instruction materials or training on inclusive education.” Yes, sometimes we do give them specific attention if the need arises.”*

Therefore, the findings highlight an urgent need to strengthen institutional capacity for special needs education by appointing and training dedicated staff, improving referral systems, and strengthening the integration of inclusive education within school management practices.

**Figure 29: Staff Responsible for Monitoring Students with Special Needs (N = 17 Schools)**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

*Data based on 17 Schools/Observation*

### 6.18 Support for Learners with Special Needs

Providing adequate support for learners with special needs is central to achieving inclusive education, as it ensures that all children, regardless of physical, sensory, or learning challenges, can participate meaningfully in schooling and benefit from instruction. In fragile and resource-constrained contexts such as Northern Nigeria, targeted interventions and the presence of trained or designated staff are particularly important for early identification of learners with disabilities.

Findings from the study indicate that most schools (88.2%) surveyed in the study area have at least one learner with special needs enrolled. While access to learning resources and the availability of counsellors and referral support services are moderate, 70.6% and 64.7%, respectively, there is still a need to strengthen school capacity to encourage inclusive education training and equitable opportunities across all districts.

**Table 15: Support for Learners with Special Needs**

Indicator	n	%
Schools with at least one learner with special needs enrolled	15	88.2
Schools with no learners with special needs	2	11.8

<b>School accessible to learners with special needs</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>88.2</b>
<b>Counsellor/referral support services available</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>64.7</b>
<b>Access to learning resources</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>70.6</b>

*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.19 Teacher Training on Gender Inclusion

Data on capacity building for teachers shows a significant divide between specialised protection training and general training. While 100% of teachers have been trained on child protection, and 100% of schools have established GBV policies or GBV-related training structures, other instructional training is less consistent. Only 52.9% of teachers reported receiving any form of training in the last 12 months, leaving nearly half (47.1%) without the training. This suggests that while safety and protection protocols are universally institutionalised, ongoing pedagogical support is not yet a systemic guarantee.

Furthermore, only a small fraction of schools (11.8%) reported that gender-sensitive materials are adequate. The majority of schools (52.9%) categorised their supply of these materials as inadequate, while 35.3% reported the absence of gender-sensitive materials.

Overall, the findings indicate that teacher training is heavily skewed toward protection and safety, while resource allocation for gender inclusion remains significantly underserved. Strengthening the supply of inclusive materials alongside regular teacher training cycles may be necessary to bridge this gap.

**Table 16: Teacher Training and Gender Inclusion Practices**

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Teachers received any training in last 12 months</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>52.9</b>
<b>Teachers received no training in last 12 months</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>47.1</b>
<b>Teachers trained on child protection</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>School has GBV policy / GBV-related training structures</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Gender-sensitive materials adequate</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>11.8</b>
<b>Gender-sensitive materials inadequate</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>52.9</b>

No gender-sensitive materials observed	6	35.3
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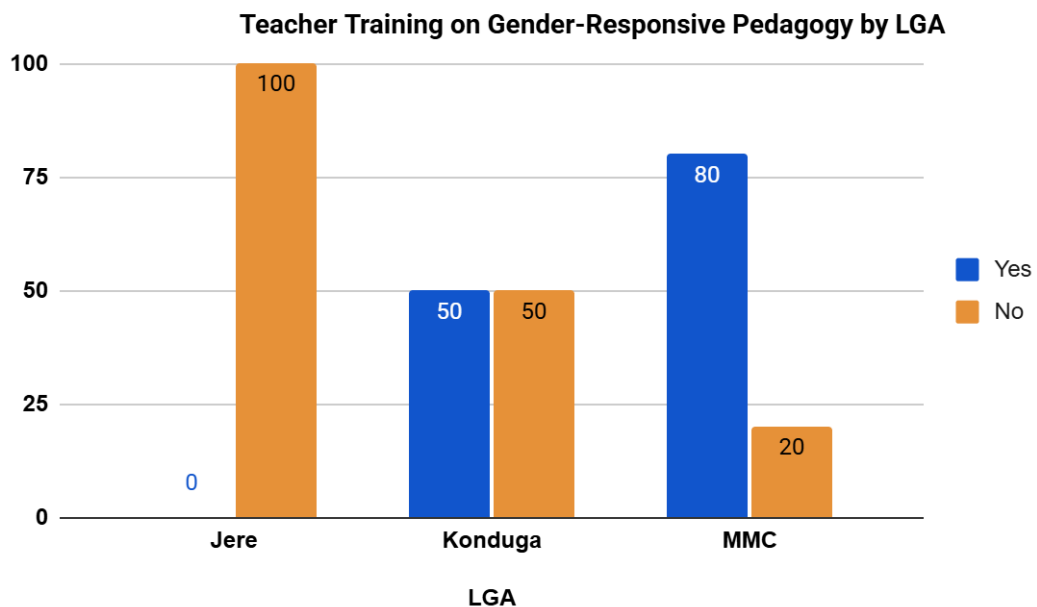
*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

### 6.20 Community/CSO Gender Supports

Training in gender-inclusive practices is moderately present among teachers, with 58.82% of the total surveyed teachers reporting having received such training. However, over 41% of teachers remain untrained in gender-responsive pedagogy, indicating a significant gap in the systemic integration of gender-sensitive teaching methods. This finding suggests that while more than half of the teaching workforce has been reached, professional development in this area is not yet universal.

For local government analysis, MMC shows the highest level of capacity building, with 80.00% of teachers reporting they have been trained in gender inclusion. For Konduga, training reaches exactly half of the surveyed educators, with 50.00% reporting "Yes" and 50.00% reporting "No". Finally, for Jere, 100.00% of schools reported they have not received training on gender-responsive pedagogy. Overall, the findings indicate that teacher capacity for gender-inclusive instruction is inconsistent. While MMC shows strong progress, the total lack of training in Jere highlights an urgent need for targeted outreach.

**Figure 30: Teacher Training on Gender-Responsive Pedagogy by LGA**



*Source:* CSEA field data, 2026.

## 7. Communications and Essential Services

This section explores the issue of communications and essential services in relation to education systems within the broader context of fragile and conflict-affected areas. Precisely,

this section examines how insecurity, migration, and displacement shape educational access and outcomes. The analysis considers the institutional roles, responsibilities, and capacities of government and civil society organisations in supporting Education in Emergency responses within fragile contexts. Key focus areas include coordination mechanisms, policy and planning frameworks, and the effectiveness of implementation strategies at the regional and district levels. The section also explores youth volunteerism and participation in schools and Accelerated Education Programmes as forms of community-based engagement, as well as the extent of support provided by Regional and Local governments for education service delivery.

Additionally, this section analyses the availability, accessibility, and adequacy of formal and non-formal education services, including Gender Equity and Inclusion initiatives and psychosocial support services for both teachers and learners. Attention is given to identifying gaps in provision and variations in coverage across districts. The analysis concludes by examining the reach, accessibility, and perceived effectiveness of radio and digital learning modalities as mechanisms for learning continuity in disrupted and resource-constrained settings. Taken together, the findings provide actionable evidence to inform EiE policy design, adaptive programme implementation, and evidence-based decision making, aimed at strengthening education system resilience in contexts of crisis and fragility.

## **7.1 Migration and Displacement Context**

Migration and displacement in fragile settings encompass both voluntary and forced movements, but within conflict and violence-affected contexts, the dominant concern is forced displacement. Globally, forced displacement has reached unprecedented levels, with more than 123.2 million people displaced by the end of 2024 and rates doubling over the past decade (UNHCR, 2024). The majority of these remain within their countries of origin as internally displaced persons and often face prolonged insecurity, limited protection, and disrupted access to basic services. The consequences of displacement are multidimensional, including trauma and psychosocial distress, loss of livelihoods and social networks, heightened exposure to gender-based violence and child exploitation, and severe disruption to education, health, water, and sanitation systems. These pressures also extend to host communities, where already constrained resources are stretched further, sometimes generating social tension and deepening poverty, while displacement situations frequently become protracted, lasting for decades rather than months.

The North-Eastern Region of Nigeria has been particularly affected by insurgency, banditry, natural disasters, and the consequent displacement of people. Of these, insurgency in the form of Boko Haram has been most disruptive. The Boko Haram crisis and ongoing insecurity have led to the destruction of educational and other infrastructure as well as the displacement of communities. The North West and the North Central follow closely behind in the number of internally displaced people (IDP). Together, they make up 3,575,114 internally displaced persons with an additional 408,561 displaced persons distributed towards Cameroon, Chad, and Niger (UNHCR Nigeria, 2025). Evidence from community members and school actors highlights how displacement undermines education through loss of income, inability to afford learning materials, overcrowding host schools, trauma and fear linked to ethnic identity or livelihood patterns.

Although efforts by both international and local NGOs, the government, Parents and Teachers Associations (PTAs) and School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs) are ongoing, responses remain constrained by insecurity, limited funding, lack of teachers and weak data. In

sum, the North Eastern Region represents a critically fragile context characterised by internal displacements and vulnerable to insurgencies, banditry and climate change - a problematic disposition for education, social cohesion and sustainable development.

## **7.2 State of Education before Conflict**

*“Before the crisis, things were in order”*. This observation by an Almuhajirun respondent perhaps best encapsulates the pre-conflict context. Before the intensification of the conflict in the late 2000s, the North East region of Nigeria maintained a relatively stable educational landscape characterised by the coexistence of traditional Islamic education and an expanding Western-style formal system. Despite lower literacy rates compared to other parts of the country and a cultural preference for Islamic schooling, access to free formal education was widely available, fostering an environment conducive to learning without pervasive security concerns. As one head teacher in Gamaoru reflected, *“We are learning in a peaceful environment without fear,”* highlighting a time when schools operated smoothly, and students could engage freely. This stability contributed to higher enrollment and retention, with communities viewing education as a pathway to socioeconomic advancement, even amid economic hardships.

This pre-conflict era was marked by strong community involvement and resource efficiency in education delivery. Parents and local stakeholders actively supported schools, often contributing to basic needs, while teachers found the region attractive for professional development. A teacher in Shawari MMC observed, *“...the enrollment of the students before the crisis was also very high...,”* underscoring robust participation driven by a secure and supportive atmosphere. Facilities were adequately maintained, with better student-teacher ratios and proximity to schools reducing strain on the system. As a head teacher in Gwange noted, *“Before the crisis, schools had fewer students, better teachers, student ratios and more stable learning conditions. Facilities were less strained, and more students lived close to their schools...”*

The escalation of conflict has profoundly disrupted this foundation, transforming a once-peaceful and community-backed education system into one plagued by insecurity, displacement, and resource shortages. Cycles of violence have led to school closures, teacher exodus, and student dropouts, with many adolescents shifting to informal livelihoods or early marriage. Economic activities have suffered, as a head teacher in Cofa Konduga explained, *“So, how we used to live before this insurgency is different from how we are living now. We are living in fear and anxiety. So, economic activities are not going well like they used to be.”* Overcrowded classrooms, damaged infrastructure, and diverted funds to security have compounded learning losses, leaving the system overwhelmed and highlighting the urgent need for targeted interventions to restore pre-conflict gains while addressing current emergencies.

## **7.3 Effect on Teaching and Learning**

The crisis in Northeast Nigeria has inflicted profound and multifaceted damage on teaching and learning, systematically eroding the foundations of the education system and perpetuating cycles of disruption and vulnerability. Direct attacks on schools, teachers, and students, rooted in the insurgency's opposition to formal Western education, have led to widespread closures, infrastructure destruction, and a pervasive climate of fear. Even in areas where violence has subsided, attendance remains erratic, with children and families deterred by ongoing anxiety and sporadic threats. As one head teacher in Muna Koreri observed, *“... the children didn't dare*

to come to school," highlighting how psychological trauma undermines motivation and engagement. Curriculum delivery is severely compromised, with lessons interrupted, instructional time lost, and learning outcomes stalled. In reopened schools, the absence of qualified teachers—many of whom have relocated for safety—exacerbates the issue, forcing makeshift arrangements such as combined classes or unsupervised sessions. As a head teacher in Monduganari noted, these are *"In many conflict-affected local governments, school enrollment has generally...remained unstable. Attendance often fluctuates because facilities are relocated, schools closed, or learning spaces are unsafe..."* This instability is perhaps the most pronounced. It not only widens learning gaps but also heightens dropout risks, particularly for displaced children, making education a fragile casualty of the conflict. Recovery efforts, such as temporary learning spaces or community mobilisation, yield tentative gains, but as a head teacher in Monduganari noted, these *"... gains are usually fragile."* amid fluctuating security, underscoring the need for sustained, trauma-informed interventions to rebuild trust and continuity in teaching and learning.

Even after the peak of the crisis, as a head teacher at Umarari noted, *"... most parents could not take their children back to school again"*, symbolising the difficulties in returning children to the few schools remaining. The crisis has also triggered a devastating economic downturn, dismantling livelihoods and amplifying barriers to education through poverty and resource scarcity. Insurgency-related disruptions have curtailed farming, trade, and daily activities, leaving families in precarious financial states. Head teachers reported that fear prevents access to farmlands, with one in Muna Kokeri lamenting, *"... we can't go out to farm so that we can have something to eat ..."* directly linking agricultural losses to food insecurity and reduced household capacity to support schooling. Burned farms and destroyed assets further compound this, while climatic shocks like floods exacerbate closures and displacement, as noted by a teacher in Konduga, *"During the flood, the school was closed..."* In urban resettlement areas, the influx of IDPs has overwhelmed facilities, as a head teacher in Gwange described: *"... the system is overwhelmed with damaged facilities, limited teachers, and a much larger student population."* This economic strain manifests in irregular attendance, as hungry or displaced children prioritise survival over learning. Perhaps this is best encapsulated by a head teacher in Shewari, *"Where there is hunger they won't come, but ... when they have food they will come"*. Overall, the crisis has created a vicious cycle where livelihood collapse undermines educational access and quality, perpetuating intergenerational poverty. Long-term strategies must integrate economic recovery—such as livelihood support and resilient infrastructure—with education to break this cycle and foster sustainable development in the region.

#### **7.4 Impact on Vulnerable Groups**

The conflict in Northeast Nigeria has had a profoundly disproportionate and destructive impact on already vulnerable groups, systematically intensifying pre-existing inequalities and exposing affected populations to layered forms of harm. Among those most severely affected are internally displaced children, children with disabilities, orphans, and girls, each of whom faces compounded barriers to educational access and participation. In contexts already marked by poverty, teacher shortages, and inadequate infrastructure, the additional burdens imposed by displacement and trauma create conditions that are extremely difficult for the most marginalised learners to overcome.

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugee children constitute one of the most visible and acutely vulnerable populations. Many have lost homes, caregivers, assets, and social networks through forced displacement and find themselves in host schools and communities that are

themselves already under strain. A head teacher at Shawari MMC observed that *"if we are to speak on the most vulnerable learners, I would say 99% of our students are vulnerable"*, a statement that reflects the scale of vulnerability in conflict-affected areas. In Bulabulli Deyabe, a head teacher noted that *"most of the students are in IDP camps because they have lost their parents. These are mostly displaced in the community and they [are] finding it difficult to cope"*. The economic consequences of displacement compound educational barriers: a head teacher in Umarari observed that *"the vulnerable don't have enough basic material to come to school"*, while in Gamaoru, it was noted that *"some don't have a uniform and some don't have the means of paying for their accommodation"*. These material deprivations translate directly into absenteeism and dropout.

Children with disabilities face some of the most severe exclusionary barriers within conflict-affected education systems. Mobility constraints mean that children living far from schools or those who require adaptive infrastructure often cannot access learning at all. As a head teacher in Konduga noted, the conflict has created a *"problem of mobility of the vulnerable, especially the disabled, during crisis"*. Teachers in Gonikachallari pointed out that physically challenged students need wheelchairs to attend school, noting that some *"sit at home [thinking] that when they come to school they won't be helped"*. Community leaders and school actors further emphasised that children with disabilities were among those least likely to receive targeted support, with assistance often limited to referrals to social welfare offices with little tangible follow-up. A head teacher in Abbanagaram MMC observed that while *"the government ensured [children] have good education"*, in practice, *"the vulnerable learners suffer a lot because of the crisis"*

Girls represent another group whose educational trajectories have been severely disrupted by the crisis. A head teacher in Mairi Kandahar described how girls' cultural restrictions exacerbate their vulnerability: *"...most of the vulnerable learners, I would say female students are the vulnerable learners, which some of them, due to their culture, they can't work in the marketplaces, so it affects them rigorously to an extent that they have stopped coming to school"*. The intersection of insecurity, poverty, and cultural norms around female roles creates a particularly hostile environment for girls' continued schooling. The limited availability of menstrual hygiene facilities, fear of harassment in transit, and the economic pressures that push families to withdraw girls from education all compound these barriers. Meanwhile, boys face distinct but equally severe challenges, particularly those aged sixteen and above, for whom economic desperation and school closures create pressure to migrate or engage in informal labour.

Psychosocial distress is a cross-cutting dimension of vulnerability that affects all learner groups but is particularly acute among displaced children and those who have lost family members. A head teacher in Bulumkut observed that *"some were in trauma, some were traumatised, while others were overstressed"*. Teachers in Jajeri noted that *"there was no education for the vulnerable ones and they were in trauma, everything affected them"*. The pervasive nature of trauma undermines cognitive functioning, motivation, and the capacity to engage with learning, yet psychosocial support services remain limited, inconsistent, and poorly integrated into school systems. Efforts to address psychosocial needs have primarily come through partner-led programmes, particularly NGOs providing training for teachers to better support conflict-affected learners. However, these programmes remain fragmented and do not systematically reach the most isolated communities.

In sum, the conflict functions as a powerful force multiplier of vulnerability. It systematically erodes the fragile protections available to displaced children, girls, children with disabilities, and orphans, exposing them to physical danger, economic deprivation, and prolonged psychological harm. Addressing their needs is not merely a humanitarian obligation but a prerequisite for educational recovery and sustainable peace. Any effective response must therefore prioritise targeted protection, inclusive education design, livelihood support for caregiving households, and accessible psychosocial services, without which cycles of vulnerability and educational exclusion will persist across generations.

### **7.5 Interventions to Promote Peace and Uninterrupted Schooling in FCV Areas**

A range of educational and protection interventions have been introduced across conflict-affected local government areas in Northeast Nigeria, targeted at restoring and sustaining schooling under conditions of fragility and insecurity. These span formal government programmes, international and national NGO initiatives, and community-led responses, reflecting both the diversity of actors engaged in the EiE space and the uneven coverage of their efforts. Key themes across these interventions include accelerated education, girl-focused programming, teacher capacity building, school feeding, and psychosocial support, though the depth and continuity of implementation vary considerably across LGAs.

The Accelerated Education Programme (AEP) emerged as the most widely referenced formal intervention across head teachers, teachers, and community FGDs. In multiple locations, including Konduga, Lamisula, Galtimari, Gonikachallari, and Shokari, respondents confirmed the operation of AEPs, which provide flexible, time-compressed learning pathways for over-age and out-of-school children. As a head teacher in Muna Kokeri explained, *"this non-formal education, they will move to the formal after graduation. They are enrolling them from non-formal to formal in six months, so definitely it helps, and it reduces this dropout"*. This transition function is particularly valued in areas where prolonged displacement has created significant learning gaps. The AEP was typically implemented through NGO partnerships, with the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) and PLAN International frequently cited as lead implementers. A SUBEB official in Konduga LEA noted that programmes including the Accelerated Basic Education Programme (ABEP) were *"... organised by UNICEF [and] Borno State Agency for Mass Literacy..."*, alongside the International Rescue Committee's (IRC's) 'Opportunity to Learn' programme.

The AGILE (Adolescent Girls Initiative for Learning and Empowerment) programme was repeatedly identified as the principal targeted intervention for girls' education. Across a majority of survey locations, head teachers confirmed AGILE's presence and noted that it addressed mentoring, dignity kit provision, safe space clubs, scholarships, and campaigns against early marriage. A head teacher in Galtimari described it as supporting girls' education *"through mentoring, distribution of dignity kits and awareness campaigns"*, while a head teacher in Gonikachallari acknowledged that AGILE *"constructed a classroom building for us"* alongside providing writing materials. In Jajel Konduga, respondents confirmed both AGILE and the Girls for Girls (G4G) programme. The AGILE programme reflects a wider set of gender-responsive education interventions whose reach, though significant, remains limited in the most insecure and remote communities. As the EiE Working Group for Northeast Nigeria notes, gender-specific needs, including *"ensuring a safe and secure learning environment specifically tailored for girls"* and *"supporting female teachers as well as adolescent girls' specific needs related to reproductive health, life skills and vocational training"* continue to require targeted investment (Education Cluster & UNICEF, 2024).

Beyond these programme-level interventions, several community-level and institutional responses have contributed to sustaining schooling during periods of disruption. School feeding programmes, cited in Gwange, Shewari, and other areas, were identified as critical for maintaining attendance, particularly among children facing food insecurity. A head teacher in Shewari noted a transition *"from feeding programme to cash"*, with parents receiving financial support to provide food for children, representing an adaptive programming shift. Teacher training in psychosocial support, classroom management, and conflict-sensitive pedagogy was facilitated by UNICEF, NRC, Save the Children, and PLAN International, and was widely described as valuable where it occurred. Community mobilisation through PTAs and School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs) also played a central role, with head teachers noting that these structures *"participate in meetings, give feedback, help with school construction and repairs, support enrolment campaigns, and monitor attendance"*. Additionally, skills acquisition programmes specifically targeting girls were introduced by several NGOs, with Almuhajirun reporting *"a special skill training for girls for two to three weeks, like weaving and sewing"* as part of their programming. In September 2024, when floods devastated Maiduguri, NRC also provided shelter and relief items to displaced families, demonstrating that holistic, integrated responses are essential for maintaining education continuity under compound crisis conditions (Jegede, 2025).

Despite the range of interventions described above, important gaps persist. Coverage is uneven, and many schools reported receiving no targeted support. Head teachers in several communities, including Shawari MMC and Mallam Umarari, indicated that *"... there is no programme that is focused on teachers..."*. As a head teacher at Cofa Konduga noted, *"the ones focused on teachers, I can say, are very minimal..."*. The sustainability of programmes once external funding ends was also flagged, with a head teacher in Shokari observing that *"...some organisations get funding for 12 months or so. When they withdraw due to fund cutoff, no one to take over instantly..."*. Taken together, the evidence points to a landscape of patchy but meaningful intervention efforts, where pockets of good practice exist but are insufficient to systematically address the scale and complexity of educational disruption across the region. Education Cannot Wait's most recent \$15 million Multi-Year Resilience Programme, implemented through a consortium including Plan International, Save the Children, and UNICEF, aims to reach over 130,000 children in Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe states and signals a step-up in funding ambition (ECW, 2024). However, without coherent coordination, sustained financing, and community-anchored implementation, the risk of fragmentary short-term responses remains high.

## **7.6 Challenges in FCV Areas**

The implementation of education and protection interventions in Northeast Nigeria's fragile and conflict-affected contexts is shaped by a constellation of intersecting challenges that go well beyond conventional development or humanitarian programming constraints. These challenges span security and access restrictions, livelihood collapse, institutional capacity gaps, infrastructure deficits, and structural social dynamics, each of which compounds the others and makes sustained educational recovery difficult to achieve.

Insecurity and its knock-on effects on livelihoods represent the most fundamental and pervasive constraint. The conflict has severely disrupted farming, trade, and daily economic activity, with families unable to access farmland or markets due to fear of attack. As a head teacher in Cofa Konduga explained, *"the biggest challenge is our daily activities. Most of our people here are farmers. So farming in this situation is becoming more difficult by the day. So*

*this directly affects our daily lives as a community".* A head teacher in Muna Kokeri similarly observed that food price increases *"definitely affects the price of food items in the market"*, linking food insecurity directly to reduced household capacity to support schooling. The destruction of livelihoods creates a cycle in which parents prioritise survival over schooling, children engage in informal labour or hawking, and educational participation becomes secondary to economic necessity. As evidenced in the head teacher FGDs, communities in Gwange identified *"limited livelihood opportunities and rising poverty, overcrowded housing and poor living conditions, insecurity around farmlands, irrigation areas and markets"* as the dominant challenges facing families.

Infrastructure damage and the absence of functional learning environments compound these difficulties. Schools across multiple LGAs reported damaged or destroyed classrooms, inadequate furniture, and a lack of basic learning materials. A 777 Housing head teacher observed that *"the biggest challenges the community faces are a lack of infrastructure because most of those things, the incentive and other things that are in the area were destroyed"*. Teachers consistently raised the absence of adequate teaching and learning materials as a barrier to effective instruction, while students attending overcrowded or under-resourced schools face markedly diminished learning conditions. Poor road infrastructure and lack of transport further restrict children's ability to access schools, disproportionately affecting girls, children with disabilities, and those living in remote communities.

Teacher recruitment, retention, and welfare represent a critical and interlinked challenge. As noted in the SUBEB interviews, attracting and retaining teachers in conflict-affected areas requires ongoing motivation and incentives, yet the formal employment system remains constrained. An MMC Education Secretary acknowledged that *"even if teachers are attracted to come to school, if the government didn't open portals to employ them, there is no way"*. Volunteer teachers, who fill critical gaps across many schools, receive only minimal tokens or stipends, typically less than ₦10,000, according to head teachers, and operate without formal training, adequate supervision, or protection. As SUBEB officials noted, recent implementation of a ₦70,000 minimum wage for permanent teachers has helped, alongside regular training opportunities, but structural employment gaps remain. The instability of teacher supply creates a vicious cycle in which schools that lack teachers are less able to retain students, particularly in communities where consistent schooling is already precarious.

Socio-cultural dynamics and gender-based barriers add further layers of complexity. Early marriage, household chore responsibilities, cultural restrictions on girls' mobility, and community ambivalence toward formal Western education in some areas continue to suppress girls' enrolment and retention. Meanwhile, the influx of IDP children into host schools creates classroom overcrowding that, as a SUBEB official in Jere (MS Officer) noted, results in *"overcrowdness and the management of classes becoming difficult for teachers"*. Traumatized and displaced children who have experienced violence or loss can be difficult to integrate into structured learning environments, requiring teachers to navigate significant emotional and behavioural complexity without adequate training or support systems.

Coordination and sustainability challenges affect the long-term effectiveness of interventions. Many programmes are implemented in silos without adequate linkage to government systems or multi-year financing commitments. The SUBEB data highlights that while psychosocial support training has been provided by NGO partners, follow-through is inconsistent: *"most of the NGOs have brought us psychosocial support programs to address the issue of mental health, well-being of our teachers, by training our teachers on psychosocial support"*, yet

coverage remains partial. Weak data systems further limit the ability of SUBEB and LGEA officials to track enrolment, attendance, and dropout trends with precision, making it difficult to target interventions effectively or demonstrate programme impact. Taken together, these challenges underscore that education in emergency contexts in Northeast Nigeria requires not merely a humanitarian response but a long-term systems-strengthening approach grounded in sustained investment, community ownership, and adaptive governance.

## **7.7 Civil Society and Government Structures Supporting EiE**

The Education in Emergencies response architecture in Northeast Nigeria is anchored in government-led structures that provide formal mandates and policy direction, but whose operational capacity is significantly strained by protracted conflict, resource constraints, and access limitations. The State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) and Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) serve as the primary government institutions responsible for education delivery, including curriculum oversight, teacher management, school supervision, and coordination of emergency education responses. In practice, however, these bodies are stretched by teacher attrition, limited logistics, and restricted access to volatile areas. SUBEB officials in the MMC confirmed that monitoring is increasingly conducted digitally, with a data officer tracking school-level information online, yet this system's reach remains uneven across LGAs.

International organisations play an indispensable role in filling capacity and financing gaps within the EiE system. UNICEF is the lead coordinator of EiE activities at the national and state levels, co-chairing the Education in Emergencies Working Group Nigeria (EiEWGN) alongside Save the Children International. UNICEF supplies education-in-emergency kits, supports teacher training on psychosocial support, advocates for safe schools, and finances local and international implementing partners. A Konduga LEA official noted that their school had *"received a lot of digital instruments from Save the Children, Plan International, UNICEF, BESDA, International Rescue Committee"*, including computers, laptops, tablets, and radios, reflecting the breadth of material support provided. The Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) has been particularly active in the AEP space, working with SUBEB and the State Agency for Mass Education to enrol out-of-school children in nine-month catch-up classes; as of 2025, approximately 5,048 learners have been mainstreamed into formal state schools through this model (Jegade, 2025). The EiEWG's 2023 Contingency Plan for Northeast Nigeria, co-prepared by UNICEF and Save the Children International with inputs from WASH and Child Protection sectors, provides the coordination framework within which these actors operate (Education Cluster et al., 2023).

At the community level, a range of civil society organisations, faith-based institutions, and community-based structures provide frontline support that complements and often extends beyond what formal institutions can deliver. Local NGOs, including Almuhajirun, Kabhuda, and Yiagedsod, operate non-formal education programmes targeting Almajiri and out-of-school children, often working with traditional leaders as entry points. As a Kabhuda respondent observed, *"traditional leaders are the central partner for the programme; their roles include mobilisation, sensitisation and advocacy on mediating and acting as focal"*. A Yiagedsod respondent emphasised that community involvement begins with needs assessments before any project is implemented, *"to know their needs"*. PTAs and SBMCs serve as the most immediate community-level governance structures for education, with community leaders in Konduga noting that these bodies *"carry them along in all our doing and we don't face any challenges with them"*, using WhatsApp forums and regular meetings to manage coordination.

Traditional and religious leaders exercise influence that is difficult to replicate through formal channels. They mobilise parents, communicate key messages about schooling during prayers and community gatherings, advocate for girls' education, and provide legitimacy to external NGO interventions. A head teacher in Gwange summarised their role as *"mobilising parents to enrol children, advocating against early marriage, supporting peace-building messages, helping NGOs gain community acceptance"*. A SUBEB official in MMC underscored that *"without the traditional rulers and religious leaders, nothing is possible; we must inform them of our activities, and they will give us fatherly advice"*. However, Konduga LGA officials also noted a challenge: that some traditional leaders *"show a lack of concern for school, and at times see school projects as a means to enrich themselves"*, pointing to the complexity of community power dynamics and the need for accountability mechanisms in partnership models.

Despite the density of actors involved in EiE delivery, the system remains fragmented and unevenly resourced. Students and community members consistently highlighted the need for stronger government and NGO support, particularly in the provision of learning materials, furniture, infrastructure rehabilitation, and digital resources. The EiEWG notes that only 13% of the education response for the Nigeria Humanitarian Response Plan was funded before recent Education Cannot Wait investments (ECW, 2024), underscoring a fundamental financing gap. Overall, the EiE system in Northeast Nigeria reflects strong local resilience under chronic strain: government institutions hold the mandate but lack reach; international partners bring resources but face access and contextual limits; and local civil society provides trust and continuity without sustainable funding. Strengthening EiE, therefore, requires rebalancing the system toward flexible, long-term support for local CSOs, district-level structures, and community-owned solutions that can endure insecurity while safeguarding learners and teachers.

## **7.9 Regional and Local Government Support to Education**

Under Nigeria's decentralised governance framework, State Universal Basic Education Boards and Local Government Education Authorities are mandated to oversee the planning, delivery, and monitoring of basic education services, including in crisis-affected contexts. In principle, these structures bear responsibility for teacher deployment, school maintenance, infrastructure provision, and community engagement. In practice, however, their capacity to fulfil these roles in Northeast Nigeria's conflict-affected LGAs is severely constrained by insecurity, weak fiscal space, fragmented data systems, and competing emergency priorities.

SUBEB officials interviewed for this study described a range of efforts to maintain education services under difficult conditions, centred primarily on teacher motivation, non-formal programme implementation, and digital monitoring. The introduction of the ₦70,000 minimum wage for permanent teachers was highlighted as a key incentive measure, alongside workshop-based training and step-down psychosocial support programmes. As a Jere Social Mobilisation Officer noted, *"motivating and giving them incentive and implementation [of the] ₦70,000 minimum wage"* represented the primary mechanism for teacher retention. MMC officials confirmed investment in digital monitoring systems, with an Education Secretary observing that *"I am monitoring all the schools online"*, reflecting an attempt to maintain oversight in contexts where physical access to schools is constrained.

However, several structural limitations fundamentally restrict the effectiveness of local government education support. The deployment of qualified teachers to conflict-affected schools depends on the federal and state governments' willingness to open employment portals,

a process over which LGEA officials have limited control. As an MMC Education Secretary acknowledged, *"even if teachers are attracted to come to school, if [the] government didn't open [a] portal to employ them, there is no way"*. Infrastructure rehabilitation and classroom construction, while undertaken in some areas such as Mairi and Ngomari Konduga, are frequently disrupted by insecurity and depend heavily on NGO partnerships. Community leaders in Goni-kachallari emphasised that sustaining AEP programmes requires *"support from government and NGO"*, with Konduga community leaders calling specifically for *"the introduction of radio learning"* as a government-supported mechanism for learning continuity.

The SUBEB data reveals a nascent but underdeveloped digital infrastructure that holds potential for improved school monitoring and distance learning, but requires additional investment and maintenance support. Konduga LEA officials noted that their schools now have data officers enabling digital data collection and reporting, while the MMC has invested in computer training centres. Yet peacebuilding coordination remains limited: a Jere MS officer could not identify specific community peacebuilding programmes, while only one official referenced the existence of *"peace ambassadors"* as a community-led peacebuilding structure. Safety clubs in schools, noted by the Konduga LEA, represent one institutional mechanism for addressing peace and emotional issues, but their coverage is uneven. In sum, while SUBEB and LGEA structures retain institutional mandates and some operational capacity, their role in EiE is more reactive than strategic, shaped by resource scarcity, security constraints, and the dominance of NGO-driven programming. Strengthening their effectiveness will require targeted capacity building, flexible funding mechanisms, and deeper coordination with community actors and civil society organisations to enable a coherent, government-anchored EiE response in Northeast Nigeria's most fragile districts.

## **8. Role of Community Clubs and Non-Formal Education Networks**

Community clubs, non-formal education networks, and volunteer-based learning structures represent a critical grassroots layer of educational support in Northeast Nigeria's conflict-affected local government areas. Operating within a context where formal school systems are frequently disrupted, understaffed, and under-resourced, these community-based mechanisms serve as alternative access points for learning, psychosocial support, and social protection. They are distinct from the AGILE and CAMA/FAWE models prominent in the Ghana context but reflect a parallel set of community-embedded structures, including School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs), PTAs, faith-based networks, evening and afternoon class programmes, and skills acquisition groups, that together constitute a fabric of community-driven education resilience.

The AEP and its community facilitation model are the most widely reported formal non-formal structures, bridging the gap between out-of-school learners and the formal system. As described in preceding sections, this programme operates through community facilitators in partnership with NGOs and SUBEB, running afternoon classes typically from 12:30 to 4:00 pm. Community leaders in Galtimari and Konduga confirmed that AEPs are effective in addressing learning gaps among displaced and over-age children, with Konduga community leaders stating that the programme is *"very effective"*. However, the continuity of these programmes depends heavily on external NGO financing, and community leaders in Gwange and Konduga repeatedly called for *"support from government and NGO"* and the involvement of the federal government as prerequisites for programme sustainability.

Faith-based education structures, including Quranic and Islamic schools (often accommodating Almajiri learners), play a significant parallel role in communities where formal education provision is weak. The Almuhajirun Association reported running informal literacy and numeracy sessions for Almajiri children who have never attended formal school, engaging them *"two to three times a week"* with a focus on *"basic reading and arithmetic skills"*. This model, while not formally recognised within the national curriculum framework, provides a critical safety net for children who would otherwise have no structured learning access. It also reflects the deep integration of Islamic education traditions in the social fabric of Northeast Nigeria, which any comprehensive EiE strategy must engage with rather than bypass.

Evening and remedial classes, organised through community initiative and NGO support, represent another widely adopted mechanism for learning continuity. A head teacher in Gamaoru noted that *"the evening lesson is helping a lot"*, and Plan International's involvement in running Thursday and Friday evening lessons in the community was specifically cited. In Abbanagaram, the community itself organised extra lessons three times a week for dropout learners from both the community and nearby IDP camps, with a head teacher noting that *"the community organised extra lessons three times a week to teach the dropouts in both the community and the IDPs"*. These locally initiated responses underscore the importance of community agency in filling the gaps left by formal systems and external actors.

Radio and digital learning clubs represent an emerging but unevenly implemented modality for learning continuity. Several communities, including Bulabulli Deyabe, reported that *"the children use their radio to listen to educational programmes [and] the radio has changed the educational life of the children"*. In Mairi Kandahar, a head teacher noted that *"they have been teaching the nursery pupils with radio, where songs have been played, and it has improved the learning process of the pupils"*. MTN's provision of tablet devices to Sandakarimu was highlighted by a head teacher as a recent example of the private sector's contribution to digital learning access. However, these modalities remain fragmented: power and battery constraints, limited radio coverage in rural areas, and the absence of systematic content aligned with the national curriculum limit their effectiveness as standalone interventions. Community leaders in Konduga identified radio learning as a priority, recommending *"the introduction of radio learning"* as a key measure for improving educational access during disruption.

Skills acquisition programmes targeting girls and young women represent a further dimension of community-based educational engagement, particularly important in contexts where formal schooling participation is limited by gender-based barriers. NGO-run skills programmes in areas including sewing, weaving, and vocational training offer girls not only economic empowerment but also alternative pathways to social participation and self-reliance. A head teacher in Gamaoru noted a skills acquisition programme targeting girls specifically, where *"they were given machine[the] thereafter"*, signalling a practical orientation toward post-crisis livelihood building. Almuhajirun similarly organised *"special skill training for girls for two to three weeks, like weaving and sewing"*. While these programmes sit outside the formal school system, they reflect an important layer of community-based investment in girls' futures that EiE strategies should recognise, resource, and link to formal pathways where possible.

### **8.1 Positive Impacts of Community Club and Non-Formal Education Interventions**

Evidence from focus group discussions and key informant interviews consistently highlights the positive and sometimes transformative impact of community-based education interventions on learners, families, and communities across Northeast Nigeria's conflict-affected LGAs. At

the individual learner level, participants described improved access to education for out-of-school and displaced children, renewed motivation among previously disengaged students, and tangible gains in literacy and numeracy through AEP and evening class participation.

A head teacher in Muna Kokeri captured the integration function of AEPs succinctly, noting that after nine months of non-formal learning, *"they are enrolling them from non-formal to formal"*, representing a concrete pathway back into the formal education system for children who had been excluded. A head teacher in Shewari observed that interventions had changed *"the learning environment from 30% to 60%"*, quantifying a measurable improvement attributable to radio learning and NGO support. In Abbanagaram, a head teacher noted that some participants in earlier non-formal programmes are now *"in higher institutions like Ramat Polytechnic"*, evidencing the long-term potential of community-based interventions to redirect educational trajectories that conflict would otherwise have foreclosed.

Community engagement and social cohesion benefits were also widely reported. Traditional and religious leaders involved in mobilising parents for school enrolment campaigns described improved community-school relations and increased understanding of the value of education. The involvement of PTAs and SBMCs in monitoring attendance and contributing resources, while modest, signals growing community ownership. As a head teacher in Gwange summarised, *"the outcomes [include] increased access to learning materials for displaced children, improved teacher skills after training, stabilisation of school attendees through feeding and psychosocial support, [and] greater awareness on protecting children"*. These layered benefits underscore the multiplier effect of well-implemented community-based interventions.

The psychosocial dimensions of community programmes are also significant. Where schools have introduced guidance and counselling as part of their structure, and where teachers have received trauma-informed training from partners including NRC and UNICEF, learners and staff have reported improved emotional well-being and a greater sense of safety within the school environment. A head teacher in Shokari observed that *"we put guidance and counselling as part of our curriculum and it is effective"*. The presence of these support mechanisms, however limited in coverage, provides evidence that integrated, holistic approaches to community-based education that address psychological as well as academic needs can yield meaningful outcomes for learners experiencing conflict-related trauma.

## **8.2 Limitations of Community Club and Non-Formal Education Interventions**

Despite the positive outcomes described above, community-based and non-formal education interventions in Northeast Nigeria face fundamental limitations that constrain their reach, quality, and long-term sustainability. These limitations are rooted in structural financing gaps, human resource deficits, coordination failures, and the persistent security context that shapes all programming in the region.

The most pervasive limitation is the short-term and discontinuous nature of most interventions. As a head teacher in Shokari observed, *"Some organisations get funding for 12 months or so. When they withdraw due to fund cutoff, no one continues"*. This pattern of project-based programming without sustainable government integration means that community learning gains are frequently reversed when external support ends. AEPs and evening class programmes cited across multiple LGAs were described as non-operational in several communities, including Jajeri and Ngarannam, where respondents noted that *"they were not existing now"*

and *"they were doing [it] before but not now again"*. The absence of government systems to absorb and sustain these programmes creates a cycle of dependency on external actors that undermines community resilience rather than building it.

Coverage gaps are equally significant. Many communities reported no access to AEP, radio learning, or NGO-supported classes at all. In Bulumkut, a head teacher confirmed *"we have none for now"*, while in Shewari and Cofa Konduga, respondents expressed hope for future digital and non-formal learning interventions without being able to confirm any current access. These gaps are particularly severe in the most remote and insecure communities, where the need is greatest but the reach of formal programming is weakest. The absence of systematic needs mapping and real-time data on community-level learning provision makes it difficult for SUBEB, NGOs, and donors to prioritise effectively or measure overall system performance.

Quality assurance presents a further challenge. Volunteer facilitators and community teachers typically operate without formal training, standardised curricula, or supervision mechanisms. Teacher FGDs highlighted the need for modernisation of teaching approaches, with respondents from Gonikachallari calling for the learning process to be *"digitalised"* and teachers in Kopa-Konduga recommending the use of *"modern devices like computers"* in classrooms. These aspirations reflect an awareness of the quality gap between current community-based provision and what an effective learning environment requires. Without investment in facilitator training, curriculum standardisation, and supervision systems, community-based programmes risk delivering low-quality learning that fails to bridge the gap with formal schooling or prepare learners adequately for transitions.

Finally, the absence of coordinated linkage between non-formal community programmes and the formal education system limits the transformative potential of these interventions. While AEPs are designed to facilitate transition into formal schools, in many communities, the pathway from community learning to formal enrolment remains unclear or non-functional. Teachers noted that children are sometimes not prepared for transitions, and the absence of bridge mechanisms, recognition frameworks for non-formal learning, and data sharing between NGO implementers and SUBEB further widens the gap between community effort and systemic educational recovery. Addressing these limitations will require not only increased funding but a deliberate shift toward system-integrated, community-anchored, and government-sustained approaches to non-formal education in Northeast Nigeria's most fragile contexts.

## **9. Conclusion**

Within the context of conflict, displacement, and socio-economic vulnerability in Northeast Nigeria, this study examined the status of education access, continuity, safety, and resilience across three selected Local Government Areas (LGAs) in Borno State, including Jere, Konduga, and Maiduguri Metropolitan Council (MMC). The findings reveal that although schools and communities have demonstrated considerable resilience, the education system continues to face persistent structural and operational challenges that undermine equitable learning opportunities.

School closures remain a major barrier to sustained education delivery. More than half of the sampled schools reported experiencing closures due to insecurity, flooding, and other shocks, often for extended periods. These disruptions have serious implications for learning continuity, contributing to interrupted lessons, learning losses, and heightened dropout risks. At the same

time, disparities in access to schooling remain evident across the LGAs, with a considerable number of out-of-school children identified, particularly in Jere and MMC LGA. Gender disparities persist as well, with girls representing a slightly larger proportion of out-of-school children, reflecting enduring socio-cultural and economic barriers that limit their participation in education.

The study also highlights significant imbalances in teacher distribution and support systems. While Jere and MMC LGA maintain relatively adequate staffing, Konduga LGA experiences acute teacher shortages and high pupil–teacher ratios that may compromise instructional quality. Although teacher attrition rates are generally low in Jere and MMC, challenging working conditions, insecurity, and limited incentives affect teacher retention in some communities. Additionally, psychosocial support services for learners exist but remain uneven and largely dependent on external partners, suggesting the need for stronger institutionalisation within the formal education system.

Beyond access and staffing challenges, the assessment points to gaps in disaster preparedness, protection systems, and inclusive learning resources. While many schools report having emergency exits, child protection training, and basic safety measures, the presence and implementation of comprehensive disaster preparedness plans remain inconsistent. Policies addressing gender-based violence and school safety exist in many schools but are not always effectively enforced. Furthermore, the availability of gender-sensitive teaching materials, inclusive resources for learners with disabilities, and alternative learning modalities, such as radio or digital learning, remains limited across many schools.

The broader context of conflict and displacement further complicates the education landscape. With millions of internally displaced persons across Northeast Nigeria, host schools are increasingly overstretched, and vulnerable groups, including displaced children, girls at risk of early marriage, children with disabilities, and orphans, face heightened barriers to accessing and remaining in school. Despite these challenges, community-based initiatives and non-formal education networks, including Accelerated Education Programmes (AEP), faith-based learning centres, and community learning clubs, have played an important role in maintaining learning opportunities. However, these initiatives often depend heavily on external NGO support, with limited integration into the formal education system.

Overall, the findings demonstrate that while important progress has been made in maintaining educational access in crisis-affected areas, substantial gaps remain in system resilience, inclusive learning provision, teacher support, and institutional coordination. Strengthening these areas will be essential to ensure that education systems in Northeast Nigeria can effectively respond to ongoing and future emergencies while providing safe, inclusive, and continuous learning opportunities for all children.

## **10. Policy Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following policy recommendations are proposed to strengthen education access, system resilience, and protection for vulnerable learners in conflict-affected contexts in Borno state.

1. Borno state ministry of education in partnership with SUBEB, NGOs and other development partners should expand and improve on flexible learning mechanisms, such as temporary learning spaces, catch-up programmes, radio and digital learning

platforms, to ensure that schooling can continue during periods of disruption. Underserved communities, especially high-risk LGAs like Konduga, should be mapped and prioritised for AEP expansion.

2. Borno state government and development partners should prioritise school reconstruction in high-impact areas affected by flooding and conflict to reduce strain and overcrowding on existing infrastructures. Climate-resilient infrastructure designs should be adopted to minimise flooding risks.
3. The Federal and Borno State Ministries of Education should adopt a needs-based teacher deployment system to ensure more equitable staffing across LGAs, particularly in underserved areas such as Konduga and Jere. Teacher retention strategies should include improved incentives like housing allowance, professional development opportunities, psychosocial support, and enhanced working conditions in high-risk locations.
4. Borno state ministry of education with support from NGOs should integrate Psychosocial support services into the formal education system to ensure consistent support for learners and teachers affected by trauma. Teachers should be trained as first-line psychosocial responders using standardised modules, and referral pathways linking schools to health and protection services should be established
5. SUBEB and EIEWG should standardise disaster preparedness planning across all schools, ensuring that every school maintains updated contingency plans and conducts regular safety drills and simulation exercises. These measures will help ensure that teachers and learners are better prepared to respond to emergencies.
6. SUBEB in collaboration with NGOs and CSOs should improve the availability of gender-sensitive teaching materials, assistive devices for learners with disabilities, and gender-responsive infrastructure such as separate sanitation facilities for girls. These improvements can help reduce absenteeism and promote inclusive participation. In addition, community leaders should conduct community sensitisation campaigns to address gender norms and ideologies affecting education
7. Strong coordination mechanisms should be established among government agencies, humanitarian organisations, and community actors to improve planning and resource allocation. Borno state ministry of education should update the Education Management Information System (EMIS) to include EiE indicators such as school closures, displacement, teacher availability, e.t.c. Real-time data systems for tracking displacement, school enrolment, and programme coverage can support more responsive education planning.
8. Federal and state governments, donors, and development partners should prioritise long-term, flexible funding that allows successful (EiE) interventions to be integrated into the formal education system. This will help reduce fragmentation and ensure the sustainability of effective programmes beyond short-term humanitarian funding cycles.

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## Appendix

### 1. Education Strategy Plan

The Nigerian government has various policy frameworks that aim to promote access to quality education and cater to the out-of-school situation in the country. Its education strategy and planning frameworks exist in several national policies and strategic documents. A Medium-Term Sector Strategy (MTSS) for education is developed periodically to align the education sector with national development priorities. The MTSS provides a strategic roadmap for planning, budgeting, and implementing education policies, focusing on governance, financing, service delivery, and monitoring of the education system. Key goals of this plan include: improving access to education, strengthening education governance and financing, enhancing the quality of teaching and learning, and improving monitoring and accountability. In addition, the government recently launched reforms under the 2025 Nigeria Education Sector Renewal Initiative (NESRI) to transform the education system. This initiative focuses on expanding technical and vocational education and training (TVET), reducing the number of out-of-school children, improving school infrastructure and learning facilities, and strengthening digital and skills-based education (FMINO, 2025).

### Education in Emergency (EiE) Contingency Plan

Nigeria's National Contingency Plan, developed by the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), includes a section on Education in Emergencies (EiE). The plan recognises that disasters, conflict, and displacement can interrupt schooling and emphasises preparedness to ensure education continues during crises. It highlights that EiE programmes are critical to maintaining learning and reducing psychosocial trauma among affected children. The education component focuses on: maintaining access to education during emergencies, providing temporary learning spaces, supporting psychosocial services for affected children, and coordinating humanitarian actors and education authorities (NEMA, 2019). In addition, its national policy on safety, security and violence-free schools drafted by the Federal Ministry's Education in Emergencies Working Group is developed on four distinct pillars:

#### i. Safe Learning Facilities (resilience to environmental hazards)

This pillar focuses on ensuring that school infrastructure is designed and maintained to withstand environmental hazards such as floods, fire, and other physical threats. It also includes strengthening school perimeters, improving lighting, and providing secure water and sanitation facilities, all of which are essential for creating an enabling environment where children can learn without fear. In regions like the North East and North West, where insecurity and environmental risks are acute, safe learning spaces are not only about infrastructure but also about protecting children from direct harm.

#### ii. Prevention and Response to Violence Against Children in Schools

Violence in schools, whether physical, sexual, emotional, or peer-related (bullying), has been a major barrier to access and retention. This pillar emphasises child protection systems within schools, mechanisms for reporting and responding to abuse, and the training of teachers and school administrators in safeguarding practices. By tackling

violence head-on, the policy aims to reduce dropouts and build a culture of trust where parents are confident that their children will be protected at school.

### **iii. School disaster management**

Recognising that many schools are located in areas prone to conflict, displacement, or natural disasters, this pillar promotes the creation of school-based disaster management committees. These committees are tasked with conducting risk assessments, identifying vulnerabilities, and preparing contingency plans. The committees also serve as rapid response structures when emergencies occur, ensuring that learning can continue through alternative arrangements such as temporary learning spaces or community-based schooling.

### **iv. Risk and Resilience Education**

The final pillar integrates resilience-building into the education system. This includes the development of early warning systems for threats (such as conflict, disease outbreaks, or weather-related hazards) and incorporating resilience practices into the school curriculum. By teaching children skills in disaster preparedness, conflict resolution, and psychosocial coping, this pillar aims to empower learners to navigate uncertainty while sustaining their education.

However, evidence from LGA and state-level experience suggests that the existence of national-level frameworks does not automatically translate into effective implementation. Recent EiE landscape analysis drawing on semi-structured interviews with regional, LGA, and community stakeholders indicates that in parts of Konduga and Jere LGAs, school closures have at times lasted weeks, leaving displaced learners without consistent access to alternative learning arrangements. In addition, findings highlight that education offices in LGAs and partner NGOs are often operating under significant constraints, including:

- teacher shortages and posting/retention challenges in FCV-affected districts, undermining learning continuity
- fragmented psychosocial support services, frequently project-dependent and insufficient relative to the scale of trauma experienced by learners and teachers; and
- weak coordination and information-sharing mechanisms, resulting in parallel reporting systems, duplication of efforts, and uneven geographic coverage, particularly in remote and border communities.

Hence, it is important to note that the effectiveness of the national EiE contingency plan will hinge on the extent to which it is translated into LGA and state-ready Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs), supported by adequate financing, shared coordination, and clearly defined roles and responsibilities between FMoE, state actors, and partners.

## **2. Consent Form and Participant Information**

Greetings!

My name is \_\_\_\_\_, and I am working with Centre for the Study of the Economies of Africa (CSEA), Nigeria—a research consortium supported by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), in collaboration with Associates for Change (AFC, Ghana), and Centre d’Etudes, de Recherches et de Formation pour le Développement Économique et Social (CEFODES), Burkina Faso, and the respective Ministries of Education in the three countries. We are conducting this interview to learn more about education experiences in your community. You have been selected as a participant because your views and experiences are valuable to helping us understand the state of education, especially in areas affected by conflict or instability.

### **Purpose:**

This guide is developed to facilitate structured conversations with students to explore their lived experiences, perceptions, and recommendations regarding education in FCV-affected areas. The findings will contribute to a deeper situational analysis for scaling effective education interventions.

### **Duration:**

The interview will take approximately 60 minutes.

### **Risks and Benefits:**

There are no known risks associated with participating in this study. While you may not directly benefit, your participation will help improve policies and programs that support education in your community and beyond. The results will be used to promote quality and inclusive education for all.

### **Confidentiality:**

All responses will be kept strictly confidential. Your name and personal details will not appear in any report or publication. The information you provide will be grouped with data from other communities and analyzed anonymously. All data will be securely stored and only accessible to the research team. Our interviewers have signed confidentiality agreements to protect your privacy.

### **Compensation:**

There is no financial or material compensation for participating in this study.

### **Your Rights:**

You have the right to ask any questions before, during, or after the interview. You may refuse to answer any question and may end your participation at any time. Participation in this survey is completely voluntary.

### **Consent to Participate**

Do you have any questions about the study before we begin?

Do you agree to participate in this interview?

Yes

No (If “No,” thank the respondent for their time and end the interview.)