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PEACEBUILDING
EDUCATION
SOCIAL COHESION

INDICATORS
FRAMEWORK

BY PHUONG PHAM, PATRICK VINCK



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The framework is based on research in four countries, Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Uganda. In each country, we benefited from the support of numerous individuals and the participation of thousands of respondents. They are acknowledged in each country report. We would like to thank the team at UNICEF in each country. We would like to acknowledge the essential role and contribution from Andrew Dunbrack, Bosun Jang and Friedrich Affolter at UNICEF in New York. At the Harvard Humanitarian Initiative, we would like to acknowledge Niamh Gibbons, Mychelle Balthazard Negeen Darani, and Roger and Jennie Sherwin who provided editorial comments and reviews.

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Assessment Framework for
Peacebuilding, Education and Social Cohesion

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1. THE ASSESSMENT FRAMEWORK

1.1. Origins of the Education, Peacebuilding and Social Cohesion Assessment Framework

Until recently, programming in post-conflict situations has not deliberately embraced the potentially transformative contribution of education to peacebuilding. However, a growing body of evidence shows that education, whether at school or at home, has a profound influence on children’s development and on how youth perceive, react to and respond to violent conflicts. Education may promote reconstruction, reconciliation, respect for diversity, tolerance, human rights, justice and the use of nonviolent means of expression and dispute resolution.¹ Importantly, education has the potential to promote the peaceful co-existence within and between social groups and the institutions that surround them – in other words, social cohesion. Education, conversely, also has the potential to drive conflict by fueling grievances and stereotypes. Despite these opportunities and risks, education efforts today are largely not planned from an explicit peacebuilding perspective.²

Considering the role of education and the strategic importance of risk mitigation and peacebuilding, as recognized in the Sustainable Development Goals and other recent United Nations documents,³

¹ Harris, Ian M. and Mary Lee Morison. *Peace Education*. Jefferson: McFarland & Company, Inc., 2013.

² Scherto Gills and Ulrike Niens. “Education as humanization: a theoretical review on the role of dialogic pedagogy in peacebuilding education.” *Journal of Comparative and International Education* 44:1 (2014); Novelli, Mario, Lopes Cardozo, Mieke and Smith, Alan. “A theoretical framework for analyzing the contribution of education to sustainable peacebuilding: 4Rs in conflict-affected contexts.” Working Paper. UNICEF, The Netherlands. (2015).

³ Kagawa, Fumiyo and Selby, David. “Child-Friendly Schooling for Peacebuilding.” UNICEF (September 2014); “The Role of Education in Peacebuilding: A Literature Review.” UNICEF (May 2011); “Learning for Peace Advocacy Brief.” UNICEF (January 2014)

UNICEF designed a programme to strengthen social cohesion, resilience and human security through improved education policies and practices – the Peacebuilding, Education and Advocacy in Conflict-Affected Contexts (PBEA) programme or “Learning for Peace”. The theory of change underlying the PBEA programme holds that a child or youth’s expression of social cohesion and resilience is shaped (positively and/or negatively) by her or his educational experience. This educational experience itself is the result of the combined interactions with his or her family, community, school, and local authorities. A positive educational experience contributes to peacebuilding and towards achieving the SDG goals, particularly Goal 4 (Quality Education), 5 (Gender Equality), 10 (Reduce Inequalities), and 16 (Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions).

The Education, Peacebuilding and Social Cohesion (EPSC) Assessment Framework presented here is the result of PBEA’s work and is a response to the need to identify simple, reliable and valid measures to examine the interconnection between education, social cohesion and peacebuilding and to determine the effectiveness of related programming. At the same time, the proposed approach is not limited to measuring social cohesion. There is no lack of measurement tools in the field of peacebuilding, and increasingly, social cohesion and resilience.⁴ However, these measures have not been well explored in relation to social services, including education. This was a critical issue when attempting to answer questions raised by PBEA on the role and effectiveness of education programming in fostering social cohesion, resilience, and ultimately, peace. The resulting EPSC provides a comprehensive approach to understand the challenges and opportunities for peacebuilding and the role of social service providers. It is focused on education services but is equally relevant across services (health, water...). Focusing on both conflict factors and existing resources to respond, adapt and transform toward a more peaceful

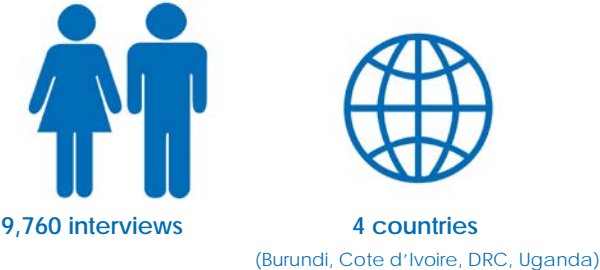
⁴ “Compilation of Tools for Measuring Social Cohesion, Resilience, and Peacebuilding.” UNICEF (April 2014); Milante Gary, and Jang, Suyoun. “Measuring Peacebuilding and Statebuilding in the New SDG Framework.” *Journal of Peacebuilding and Development* 11:1 (2016); See also <http://www.peacebuildingdata.org/measurements>.

society, the framework can serve to ‘scan’ or analyze conflicts as much as it serves to understand positive factors for social cohesion, resilience and peacebuilding. This is critical to ensure that social service providers and governments leverage resources where they are needed most

1.2. Why an Assessment Framework?

The EPSC Assessment Framework synthesizes lessons learned from developing, testing and implementing four studies on peacebuilding and education between 2014 and 2016, with the support of UNICEF’s PBEA programme. It further builds on over ten years of empirical research about reconstruction in the aftermath of war and other forms of violence, including interviews with over 60,000 individuals in communities affected by violence.

Figure 1: Studies directly informing the Assessment Framework



For each study, various instruments were designed to assess individuals’ experience of education and its relationship with peacebuilding, social cohesion and resilience. The process of identifying dimensions, domains of measurement, and specific measures utilized an interdisciplinary, participatory approach informed by both theoretical frameworks and the authors’ past research experience in peacebuilding and social reconstruction. This research development process quickly showed that the elements of individuals’ education experience and the

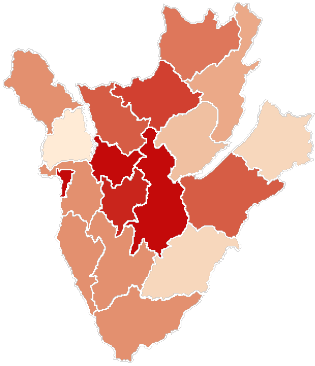
manifestations of social cohesion, resilience and peacebuilding differed across countries, reflecting cultural and contextual differences, especially in relation to the nature and dynamics of conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction. As a result, each country needed its own set of specific measures, albeit with significant overlaps across these measures, particularly across higher-level domains of measurement.

The EPSC Assessment Framework is therefore not meant to provide an index, a scale, or a static, pre-defined set of indicators. Rather, it outlines an approach developed over time and highlights a flexible set of domains of measurements and indicators whose relevance and applicability depends on contextual factors. The underlying implication is that the process and measures used to assess the expressions of education, social cohesion, resilience and peacebuilding will vary from country to country - and possibly over time - to reflect highly specific and dynamic contexts.

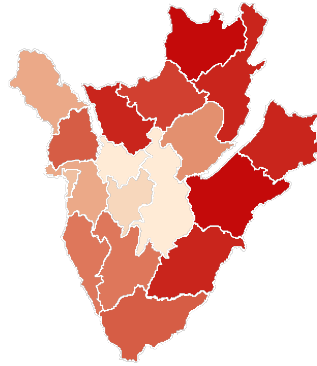
As such, the EPSC Assessment Framework provides a structure to guide research on peacebuilding and education across contexts and specific research questions of interest. If the assessment using the framework is done in a participatory and systematic way, it can help identify, analyze, and prioritize needs; help design and monitor the progress of social services and program interventions; serve as a data source (baseline and endline) for program evaluations; and provide links to available resources, potential funders, and relevant humanitarian agencies. The assessment framework can also support local actors in driving the assessment, analysis and “owning” of the process. Assessments can serve as a consultation mechanism to ensure that peacebuilders and social service providers are informed and take into account the views of the population. Finally, the results of the assessment also serves as an engagement tool to continue dialogue beyond the reporting of results. For that purpose, interactive maps proved to be an effective communication mechanisms. The figure below illustrates some maps from the research in Burundi.

Figure 2: Interactive maps for Burundi – www.peacebuildingdata.org

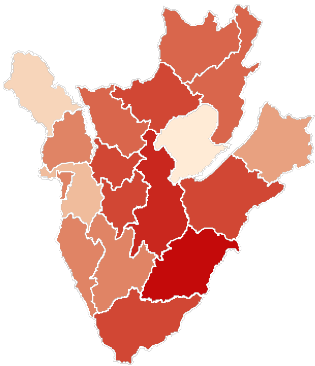
Access to services scale



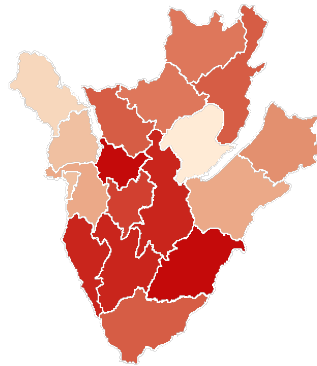
Trust in state institution scale



Perception of service equality scale



Social comfort scale



1.3. The Assessment Framework

Acknowledging the contextual nature of the education experience, of resilience and of peacebuilding processes, the EPSC Assessment Framework positions and articulates the forms and manifestations of education, peacebuilding and social cohesions in relation to particular context and places. The Framework has six **dimensions**: (a) social cohesion; (b) leadership, good governance and inclusive politics; (c) access to resources and opportunities; (d) the legacies of past conflict; (e) information and communication networks; and, (f) justice and security.

These dimensions are commonly understood elements of peacebuilding, but they remain highly abstract concepts. Operationalizing measurements associated with them requires a set of less complex concepts – or **domains of measurement**. Each dimension can then be thought of as the aggregation of multiple, less abstract domains. This conceptual clarity is useful to subsequently define clear measures associated with each domain.

The EPSC research finds that dimensions are stable across countries. The domains of measurements, however, are context specific. Emphasis on specific domains varied greatly between countries, reflecting significant differences in the nature and dynamic of violence and peacebuilding. For example, domains and measures of social cohesion – such as tolerance or inter-group relations – vary greatly depending on existing dynamics in different countries, including the degree of diversity and levels of isolation between various social groups (e.g. ethnic or economic groupings).

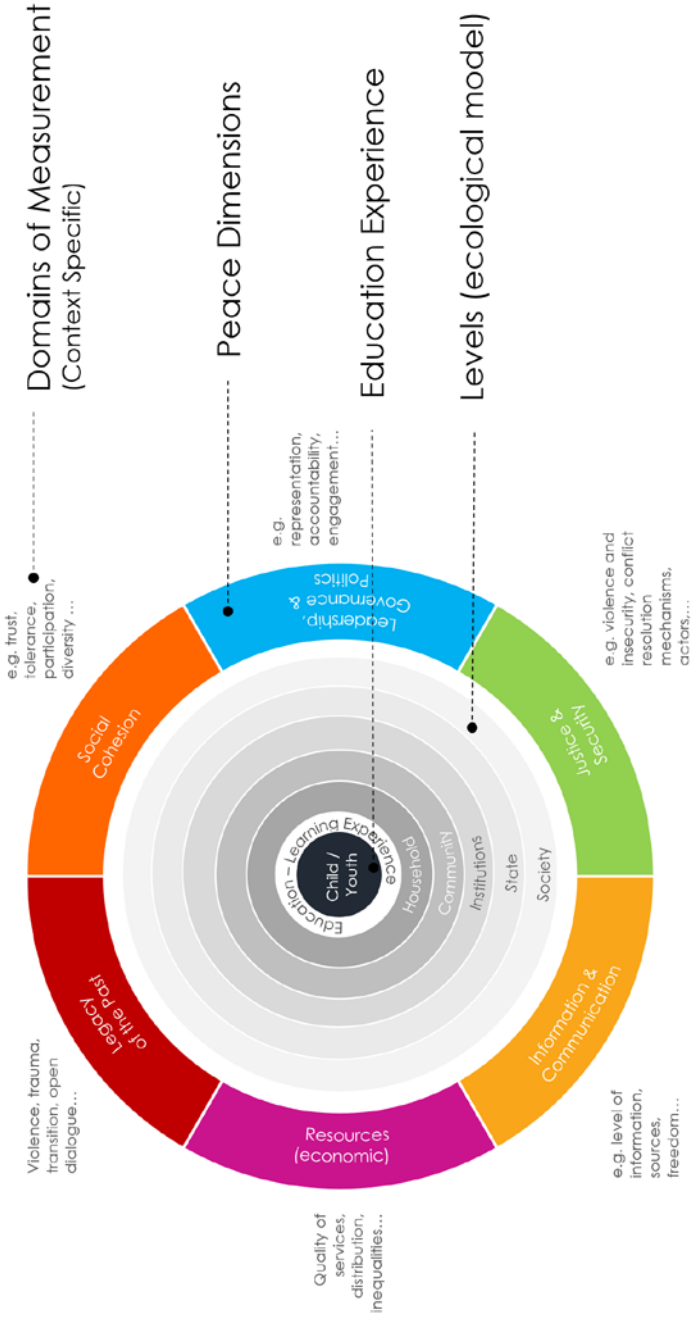
The research informing this Framework further made clear the importance of the **social cohesion** dimension as the connective tissue that binds the different components of conflict-affected social systems. Particular forms of social cohesion – such as trust, tolerance, or participation – are vital for the functioning of networks and may shape patterns of inclusion or exclusion.

This and other research suggests that the expression of the various dimensions of peace in a given context is both influenced by and influences **educational and learning experiences**. While it is evident that a safer, more supportive environment will lead to enhanced educational experiences and outcomes, the relationship between peace dimensions and educational experience is expressed across multiple structural levels of interaction such as the household, community, institutions, state and society. In other words, the relationship constitutes a multi-level ecological model. The EPSC Assessment Framework operationalizes these levels by defining indicators both within and across levels (e.g. trust of an individual in state institutions).

Finally, at the center of the EPSC Framework is the individual, who possesses a certain degree of **resilience** – his or her ability to withstand, anticipate, prevent, adapt to and recover from stresses and shocks - which is affected by that particular individual's endogenous or innate factors as well as his/her exogenous or environmental factors.

This EPSC Assessment Framework is not limited to this structured understanding of educational experience, peacebuilding and social cohesion. Rather, it must be seen as just one piece of the required participatory process to develop and implement research on peacebuilding and education. The following chapters provide a more detailed discussion of the indicators (chapter 2) and the overall assessment development cycle (chapter 3). While the indicators can be used in isolation from the methodological and practical considerations presented in chapter 3, it is the combination of both that provides unique value for a rigorous and contextualised assessment.

Figure 3: Education, Peacebuilding and Social Cohesion Assessment Framework



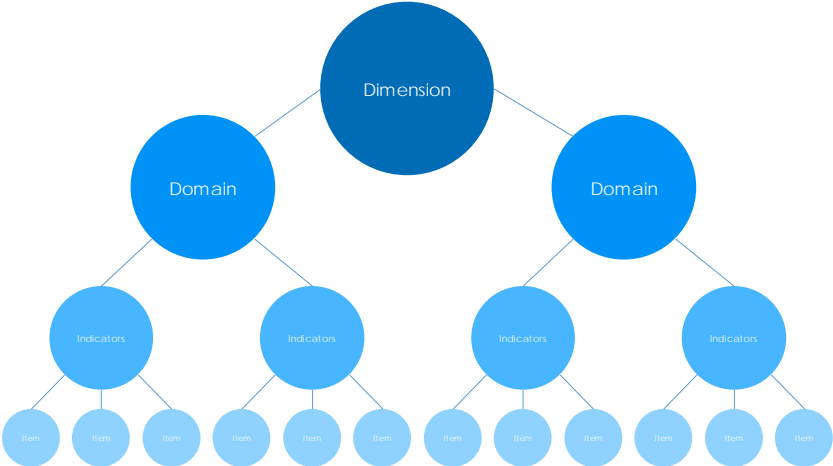
2. THE INDICATORS

2.1. Structure

The EPSC Framework uses a hierarchical approach to structure the measurement of complex concepts associated with education, peacebuilding and social cohesion. This approach includes four levels:

- Dimensions of higher order or complex concepts;
- Domains of measurements, which are components of dimensions associated with less complex concepts, but may not be directly measurable;
- Indicators, which are an operational measure associated with domains of measurements;
- Items, which are questions leading to a direct measure or response tied to the specific indicators.

Figure 4: Indicators Structure



2.2. Dimensions of Higher Order

As noted in the introduction to the EPSC Framework, there are 6 peace dimensions:

A. Social cohesion

Measures associated with the peaceful co-existence within and among social groups and the institutions that surround them, or the degree to which 'vertical' (a state responding to its citizenry) and 'horizontal' (cross-cutting, networked relations between diverse community groups) social capital intersect.

B. Leadership, good governance and inclusive politics

Measures associated with the perceived legitimacy and inclusiveness of the state and its institutions.⁵

C. Access to resources, services, and opportunities

Measures associated with economic foundations and access to assets as traditionally defined under livelihood frameworks, including access to key services

D. Legacies of past conflict

Measures associated with how societies navigate and draw on past experiences in dealing with the manifestations, causes and legacies of violence. This is strongly related to accountability and transitional justice.

E. Information and communication

Measures associated with the use of and access to traditional and mass media as well as new media and social networks.

F. Justice and security

Measures broadly relating to the rule of law, linking justice and a people-centered notion of human security and personal safety, as well as the institutions established to maintain them, such as the police.

⁵ Interpeace CSO input paper to the Expert Meeting in Washington D.C., Assessing Progress in 'Legitimate Politics'. 2011.

In addition to the 6 dimensions, there are two other concepts of importance that are considered at a higher order:

G. Educational and learning experience

Measures associated with the experience in which learning takes place, whether formal or informal, at school or out of school.

H. Resilience

The ability to withstand, anticipate, prevent, adapt to and recover from stresses and shocks.

Educational and learning experience is both influenced by and influences the 6 dimensions of peace, within an ecological model that includes **multiple levels** such as household, community, institutions, state and society-level interactions. In practice, these levels are operationalized by defining indicators within and across levels (e.g. trust of an individual in state institutions). In an ecological model, the individual is at the center, possessing a certain degree of **resilience**, which is affected by that particular individual's endogenous or innate factors and exogenous or environmental factors.

As must be expected, the limits of these 6 dimensions and 2 high order concepts may not be clearly defined and some overlap exists – for example, measures associated with the concept of rule of law do not fit squarely under dimensions of 'good governance' or 'justice and security'. The hierarchical categorisation presented here and in the subsequent pages, however, reflects converging ideas that emerged throughout the research. In Table 1, domains and indicators are listed for each dimension and other high level concepts.

Table 1: Summary of domains and indicators

<u>Social cohesion</u>	<u>Access to resources and services</u>	Security actors
Trust	Access to services	Access
Trust in family	Satisfaction	Perception
Trust in the community	Socio-Economic outlook	Disputes, Violence and Crimes
Trust in groups - bonding	Optimism	Exposure
Trust in groups - bridging	<u>Legacies of past conflicts</u>	Role of Security actors
Trust in state / institutions	Accountability	Domestic violence
Engagement	Need	Disputes
Participation	Value	Acceptability of violence
Importance	Settlement & transition	Violent behavior
Quality	Fairness	Conflict resolution
Frequency	Inclusiveness	Sense of justice
Social relations	Knowledge & participation	Access
Acceptability / comfort	Knowledge	Perception of actors
Social distance	Participation	Means to obtain justice
Support and solidarity	Dialogue	Conflict management
Support	Openness	<u>Education, Learning Experience</u>
Solidarity	Trauma and recovery	Access
Identity, belonging and inclusion	Prevalence exposure	Perception
Identity	Mental health	Participation
Sense of belonging	<u>Information and communication</u>	Registration
Sense of inclusiveness	Access	Attendance
Sense of inclusiveness	Sources	Achievements
Tolerance	Consumption patterns	Perception (value, effectiveness)
Stereotypes	Level of information	Generalized value
Discrimination	Factual knowledge	Life skills preparation
<u>Leadership, governance & inclusive politics</u>	Perception	Violence and discrimination
Civic engagement	Independence	Prevalence
Participation	Fairness	Perception
Perceived rights	Trust	Parenting style and role models
Freedom	<u>Justice and security</u>	Parenting style
Representation	Security conditions	Role models
Perception	Perceptions of security	<u>Resilience</u>
Inclusiveness	Causes of insecurity	Ability to adapt and cope with whatever comes
Prevalent exclusions	Trends	Self-esteem
Divisive role of politics	Confidence in future	Sense of coherence
Performance of the state	Perception of efforts	
Government performances	Improvement Areas	

2.3. Social Cohesion

Social cohesion is an increasingly popular term in relation to broad themes of social integration, stability and disintegration, with the notion of belonging being at the core. However, existing literature frequently lacks a clear definition. An important component to consider is the interaction of 'vertical' (a state responding to its citizenry) and 'horizontal' (cross-cutting, networked relations between diverse community groups) factors. Through these interactions, it becomes clear that social cohesion is not inherently good in the ways it can manifest. Armed groups may be highly cohesive. This presents important challenges and opportunities for how social cohesion is measured, and highlights the importance of examining cohesion across ecological levels and groups, using notions of both bonding social capital – links between similar groups - and bridging social capital - links between groups with manifest differences. Participatory processes in each of the country studies for the EPSC Framework emphasized different elements of social cohesion. This is not surprising as social group dynamics in Burundi, for example, may be vastly different than other contexts like Cote d'Ivoire. The key domains of measurement and indicators found to be relevant across the peacebuilding and education studies are detailed here.

Table 1: Domains of Social Cohesion

Trust
Community engagement
Social distance and relations
Support and solidarity
Identity, belonging and inclusion

Each of these is presented in more detail below, along with examples of the specific items (questions) used to measure them.

a. Trust

*“In general, how much do you trust the following?
Tell me if it is: Not at all, Little, Moderately, A lot, Extremely”*

Trusting behaviors are associated with higher levels of social connection, and are a good proxy measure of social cohesion. This research used a generalised measure of respondents’ beliefs about the **trustworthiness of a range of actors**. The actors were identified for each context and can be broadly grouped into 5 categories:

- Trust in family (parents, siblings...);
- Trust in the community (neighbors, friends...);
- Trust in groups – bonding (trust within ethnic, religious or political groups);
- Trust in groups - bridging (trust across ethnic, religious or political groups); and,
- Trust in the state (trust in government, local authorities...).

Questions use a standard Likert scale to score the level of trust from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely). Unweighted total scores can be computed for each category or across all actors.

b. Community engagement

*“Are you a member of any association?”
“How often do you participate in community meetings?”*

Another set of indicators of social cohesion is the engagement and participation of respondents in groups, associations and public events. Measures of respondents’ involvement in community life included actual **participation**, beliefs in the **value**

and effects of participation, and **quality and frequency** of participation.

c. Social distance and relations

*"In general, how comfortable are you with the following?
Tell me if it is Not at all, Little, Moderately, A lot, Extremely"*

The social distance domain was defined by measures of the **quality** of inter-group relations, the **acceptability** of various kinds of inter-group relations and events, as well as the level of **comfort** with relationships such as marriage or close living conditions across social, ethnic or religious groups.

*"In general, how would you rank your relations with the following?
Tell me if it is Very Good, Good, Neither Good nor Bad, Bad, or Very Bad"*

In addition, a **generalized quality of social relations** ranking was used to assess respondents' perceptions about the quality of their relationships with various groups and social actors.

d. Support and solidarity

Social cohesion requires shared values and expectations with regard to social behaviors – a sense of support and solidarity are fundamental. Under this domain, two sets of indicators were defined:

- **Support** – examines the presence of support networks (e.g. how often do you turn to friends or neighbors for help or assistance, how often do you receive advice); and,
- **Solidarity** – especially focused on unity of action such as the ability to do things together, or come together to assist those in need.

e. Identity, belonging and inclusion

*“Which of the following best reflects who you are?
Your family, your ethnicity, your religious belief or your nationality?”*

Respondents’ perception of their identity can be complex and reflects, among other things, social position and status. **Identity** can be measured in relation to membership in a particular group or in what defines them most.

*“How much do you feel you belong to...?”
“How much would you say your friends listen to you?”*

In that sense, identity may strongly influence respondents’ **sense of belonging** – the idea that they are welcomed, and accepted within social groups, and more broadly, society.

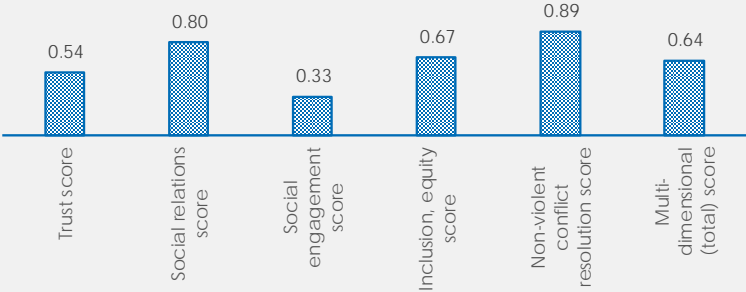
Measuring respondents’ **sense of inclusiveness and tolerance**, or inversely, their sense and perception of exclusion, further contributes to understanding the complex nature of identity in relation to social cohesion.

“Have you ever been discriminated against / called names / were insulted because of your [religion, ethnicity]?”

Importantly, beliefs associated with **stereotypes** – negative images associated with other social groups – and **discriminatory behaviors** toward other social groups can also be assessed. Relatedly, these measures can be expressed in relationship to various levels of the ecological model at the center of the Framework. For example, the sense of inclusion can be measured in relation to specific groups, or in relation to the government (e.g. *the government only cares about some groups*). This is an area of overlap with the dimension of leadership, good governance and inclusive politics.

In Uganda, we interviewed 2,079 randomly selected respondents, with a nationwide sample and additional groups in four regions where UNICEF is most active. One third were youth aged 14-24 and two thirds were adults aged over 24. The social cohesion domain was measured in terms of five factors: 1) trust, 2) social relationships, 3) social participation, 4) inclusion and attitudes toward social processes and services, and 5) constructive dispute resolution. Scores ranged from 0 (lowest) to 1 (highest), with higher scores indicate stronger social cohesion. The overall average score for social cohesion was .64 nationally.⁶

Figure 5: Social cohesion measures in Uganda



The civic participation score was the lowest (nationally and in all four regions), and the nonviolent conflict resolution score was the highest. Trust is a composite score for the level of self-reported trust in family members, the community, ethnic groups, authorities (elected officials and community leaders), and NGOs. Trust scores toward people from other ethnic groups and authorities were the lowest.

⁶ Following the work in Uganda and further consultation, the non-violent resolution of conflict has been included under the 'justice and security' domain, rather than social cohesion. However, this points to the inherent conceptual overlaps and interdependence between variables.

2.4. Leadership, Good Governance and Inclusive Politics

The dimension of “leadership, good governance and inclusive politics” groups together measures associated with the perceived legitimacy and inclusiveness of the state and its institutions, including the ability of citizens to participate in political activity and electoral processes, how leaders conduct and implement decisions about public affairs, and how they manage public resources. Fragility of public institutions is an important element of this dimension as it reflects the capacity (technical, administrative and financial) of the state to carry out its mandate and respond to the needs and expectations of the population. Fundamentally, this dimension reflects the importance of the relationship between people and their leaders for peacebuilding, and of leaders showing understanding and responsiveness to the needs of people. Trust in institutions, while similar, is an important, related domain that is explored under the dimension of social cohesion.

Table 2: Domains of leadership, good governance and inclusive politics

Civic engagement
Representation, inclusiveness
Performance of the state

a. Civic engagement

*“Have you participated in the following activities?”
(community meeting, local political campaign or activities,
protest / strike, vote in local elections, vote in national elections, etc.)*

The ability of citizens to participate in political activity and electoral processes is an essential element of legitimate politics. It is also closely related to the ‘vertical’ elements of social cohesion that define the relationships between the state and individuals.

For this research, civic engagement was assessed in terms of **participation** in past elections and intention to participate in future elections, to participate in other forms of political action (party, protests, etc.), as well as in terms of **perceived rights and freedoms** (e.g. perception of people's freedom to participate in politics).

b. Representation and inclusiveness

“How much would you say that nationally elected officials represent your interests? Not at all, Little, Moderately, A lot, Extremely”

This domain focuses on how key stakeholders and leaders are perceived to adequately **represent the interests** of the population or how much their **own interests** matter in public affairs. Questions were adapted to a specific range of key stakeholders, ranging from local leaders to religious leaders, elected officials and others.

“Do women have the same opportunity as men to participate in politics?”

The ability of citizens to participate in political activity and electoral processes is categorized under civic engagement. Specific issues of **exclusion** from civic affairs (real or perceived) along gender or socio-economic lines were examined using a series of items exploring the ability of various social groups to participate in politics.

At the same time, the **divisive role of politics** was also explored, through items such as the importance of having opposition parties, open debates about politics, or the ability of respondents to consider different political viewpoints.

c. Performance of the state

*“How would you rate the government efforts to reduce crime here?
Very Good, Good, Average, Bad, Very Bad”*

Perception of leadership and governance is informed at least in part by direct perceptions of the **government’s performance** in achieving specific policies and/or delivering services. The surveys used context-specific lists of policy goals to examine respondents’ perception of government performance toward achieving these goals.

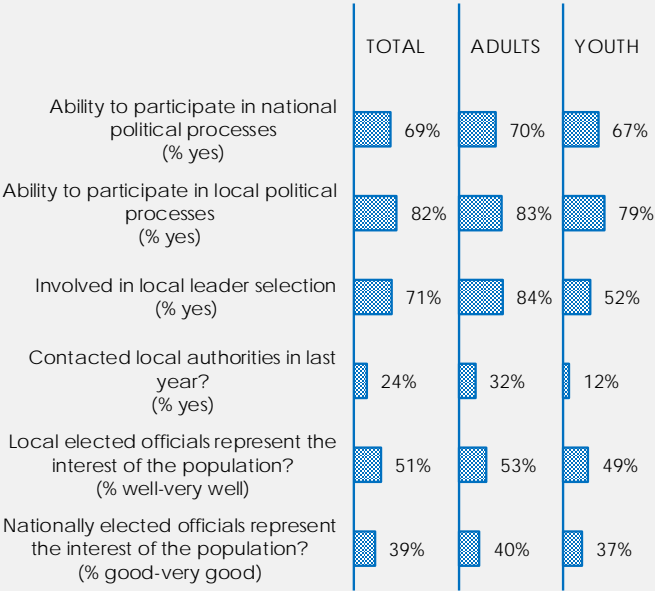
In Burundi, we interviewed two groups of respondents randomly selected nationwide: youth aged 14 to 24 years old (1,484 respondents) and adults 25 years or older (1,507 respondents). Stakeholders consulted in the conceptualization phase highlighted the importance of focusing broadly on fragility of the state. For this reason, domains associated with leadership, good governance, and inclusive politics; justice; and, access to resources and services were more developed than elsewhere.

- Leadership, good governance and inclusive politics were assessed by questions related to civic engagement and representation.
- Justice was evaluated in part by looking at access and performance of its actors.
- Access to resources and services was examined by asking respondents about their satisfaction with social services and basic needs.

The findings suggested that citizens, especially youth, are not sufficiently able to participate in political activity and electoral processes. The meaningful engagement of youth is necessary in public and community life, as well as for building effective security and judicial institutions.

Few respondents saw their current access to services, basic needs and information positively. Judicial institutions were perceived especially poorly in terms of their accessibility, performance, and independence, and the informal traditional judicial system was generally seen more positively than the formal judicial system. This likely undermines the perception of the state’s legitimacy.

Figure 6: Civic engagement and representation in Burundi



2.5. Access to Resources, Services and Opportunities

Several critical components of access to resources and services were highlighted in the various countries of research, primarily focused on issues of equal access to services and resources, and whether respondents were optimistic about human and economic development in their respective countries. We regard this as an area for further exploration through future studies since this study did not develop them as much as other domains.

Table 3: Domains of access to resources and opportunities

Access
Outlook

a. Access to services

How individuals perceive services, especially state services, may reflect the overall relationship between the state and the population. Several items were explored to assess **satisfaction** with services, including social services (how would you rank your access to education?) and more general economic opportunities (how do you rank opportunities to find work in this area?)

b. Socio-Economic outlook

The socio-economic outlook indicators sought to capture respondents' level of **optimism** (or pessimism) about future economic and human development (e.g. thinking about the future, one year from now do you think that access to health care will be better, the same, or worse than now?)

2.6. Legacies of Past Conflicts

The dimension of legacies of the past is concerned with how societies navigate and draw on past experiences in dealing with the manifestations, causes and legacies of violence. It influences societies' ability to cope, adapt to and recover from new violence. Legacies of the past also influence intra- and inter-group relations and the re-establishment of trust in the social contract between the state and its people. At the same time, this dimension can constrain, or inversely, open up educational opportunities with regard to historical events and how to deal with conflicts. For this reason, several domains and indicators were defined for this dimension:

Table 4: Domains of legacies of past conflicts

Accountability
Settlement and transition
Knowledge and participation
Dialogue
Trauma and Recovery

a. Accountability

Indicators were designed to assess the **need** for and beliefs in the **value** of holding perpetrators accountable for serious crimes committed during past conflicts.

b. Settlement and transition

More generally, respondents were asked how they perceived the ways in which past conflicts were resolved, especially in terms of **fairness** and **inclusiveness**, and included their perception of institutions set up to deal with conflict in the past (e.g. truth commissions, special tribunals, etc.)

c. Knowledge and participation

This domain assessed the degree to which perceptions of accountability and past transitional justice efforts were informed by self-reported (subjective) indicators of **knowledge** about these mechanisms, an objective assessment of such knowledge and direct experience of and **participation** in such mechanisms.

d. Dialogue

This component explored how openly people talk about past conflicts and with whom. The **openness** of this dialogue is important in understanding the lasting impact of violence that divided groups or divided the state and its people.

e. Trauma and recovery

The last domain was focused on respondents' experience during the conflict and its lasting impact. This includes assessing the **prevalence** (and incidence in ongoing conflict) of **exposure** to various forms of violence caused by parties to the conflict. The list of events is tailored to the context. Beyond exposure to violence, the lasting effect is assessed by measures of **mental health**, which, among other issues, can include symptoms of anxiety, depression or post-traumatic stress disorder. Importantly, trauma can be transmitted across generations, so assessment should not be limited to those directly exposed to violence.

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, we interviewed 849 children in 6th grade and 847 of their parents (adults) in two school districts: Mbandaka in the northwest of the country, province of Equateur, and Kalemie, in the Eastern province of Tanganyika. We examined self-reported knowledge about the wars that have affected the country, and how often this topic is discussed in family and with friends, as well as in school for children.

Figure 7: Dialogue on war among parents in the DRC

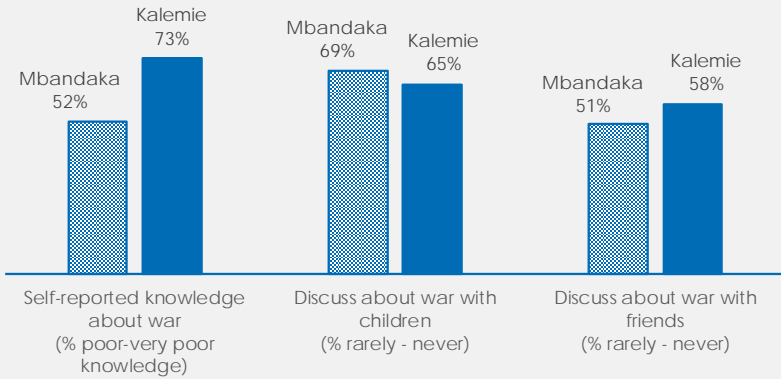
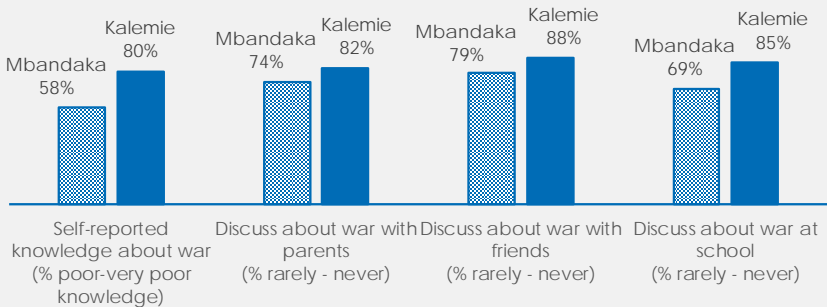


Figure 8: Dialogue on war among 6th grade students



The results show that knowledge is relatively poor and that the events are rarely discussed at any level (family, friends, school). Parents more frequently discussed wars with their friends. Participation in peacebuilding and education programs was not associated with differences in how frequently youth discussed wars with their parents and friends

2.7. Information and Communication

The research on peacebuilding and education included a focus on information and communication, and the results indicate that effective information flows and communication (through media and other means) promote trust and social cohesion among people, and between people and institutions. Inversely, weakness in information systems undermines the ability to resist, recover or adapt in the face of adversity.

In terms of measures, the information and communication dimension was operationalized through measures associated with the use and access to traditional and mass media as well as new media and social networks; the perception of these media; and self-reported levels of information and actual knowledge on key issues.

Table 5: Domains of Information and communication networks

Access and Level
Perception

a. Access and level of information

Access was assessed in terms of **sources**, with a focus on distinguishing whether respondents relied on formal information sources (e.g. media) or informal sources (e.g. friends, family), and to what degree they relied on each source.

“What is your main source of information about...”

More generally, **media consumption patterns** were assessed through frequency of consumption, such as number of days per week listening to the radio or reading newspapers.

*Have you heard of the International Criminal Court?
Do you know who is on trial at the ICC?*

The **level of information** is a self-reported measure of respondents' sense that they are informed about a range of issues. The issue can be context-specific (e.g. how informed would you say you are about the International Criminal Court) or more generalized (how informed would you say you are about events in your community). Self-reported sense of information may not reflect **factual knowledge**. In some contexts, assessing factual knowledge on specific issues (e.g. knowledge about a specific transitional justice mechanism) was found to provide valuable insight on the spread of rumors, which in turn can impact trust and social cohesion. Factual knowledge questions must be developed for each specific context.

b. Perception of media channels

Perception of the various information sources was also assessed, especially in terms of perceived **independence and fairness** (e.g. media are free to provide information that is not positive for the government) as well as beliefs that these sources can be trusted. This echoes the generalized **trust** domain assessed as part of social cohesion; however, since it is about trust in a particular set of actors (media sources), it was treated separately.

2.8. Justice and Security

In recent decades, non-military threats and risks to individuals, as well as the state, have been analyzed increasingly through a people-centered lens of 'human security', encompassing freedom from fear and want. More narrowly, there is increased interest in measuring how ordinary people perceive and experience risks and personal safety, and how

they perceive institutions established to maintain justice and security.⁷ Establishing and strengthening basic safety, security, and a functioning justice system are essential for peacebuilding. Insecurity translates, among other things, into the looting and destruction of necessary infrastructure and the loss of human resources, and it creates major barriers to trade and the transportation of goods. Justice, or the lack thereof, affects security and confidence in dispute and crime resolution mechanisms. The key domains identified and operationalized in this dimension are listed below.

Table 6: Domains of Justice and Security

Security conditions
Security actors
Disputes, violence and crimes
Justice and conflict resolution mechanisms

a. Security conditions

Security conditions were assessed using multiple indicators, including sense of physical security, perception of security trends and means of improvement.

“In general, how safe are you in the following situations?
Tell me if it is Not at All, A Little, Moderately, A Lot, Extremely”

Our past research examines the population’s **perceptions of security** in their community and in their daily lives using a series of common situations to rank respondents’ sense of security. The list of events can be contextualized, but analysis of the scales used across the research suggests that the general sense of security in daily activities and the sense of security walking alone

⁷ Inglehart, Ronald F., and Pippa Norris. "The four horsemen of the apocalypse: understanding human security." *Scandinavian Political Studies* 35, no. 1 (2012): 71-96.

at night offer a short but effective way to measure the overall sense of security. In some contexts, situations such as talking openly about the conflict or meeting security actors may yield unique insights associated with the legacy of past conflicts. These items are typically used to compute a total score.

“What are the main causes of insecurity?”

The **causes of insecurity** are assessed through an open-ended, more qualitative approach in order to understand local dynamics.

“Compared to last year, how would you rank your security today
Safer, Less Safe, or the Same”

In several countries, the idea of assessing **trends and levels of confidence in future security** were also used, and showed important associations with elements of vertical social cohesion (e.g. trust in the state).

“How would you rank the government’s efforts to improve security?”

“What, if anything should be done to improve security?”

Finally, assessing respondents’ **perception of efforts and avenues to improve security** also yielded insight into the role of the state and the community, and their relationships with individuals.

b. Security actors

There were two main sets of measures associated with security actors:

- **Access** – which includes physical access, knowledge (e.g. do respondents know how to contact certain actors) and socio-economic access factors (e.g. perceived economic and social barriers).
- **Perception** – the general sense of trust in security actors was explored as a component of social cohesion, but more specific items were used to examine the

perception of fairness, efficacy and overall behaviors of security actors.

c. Disputes, violence and crimes

This domain of measurement encompasses the respondents' experience with violence, as well as the acceptability of violence and violent behaviors.

There are numerous instruments designed to assess lifetime (prevalence) or short-term (incidence) exposure to various forms of violence. Three key components were identified for this research:

- **Exposure to crimes and violence**, such as theft, or threats to physical integrity or sexual violence. This may include various forms of discrimination and denial of basic rights;
- Exposure to **violence and crimes committed by security actors**;
- Exposure to **domestic violence**; and,
- **Disputes** such as land conflicts or disputes over money or inheritance.

For each component, lists can either be drawn from standardized instruments, or localized based on commonly reported events. Sorcery, for example, is seldom considered in standard crime lists but can be highly relevant in some contexts.

In addition, surveys explored the **acceptability of violence**, for example, whether or not it is acceptable to use weapons to defend the community or to render justice.

Finally, the possibility that respondents **engage in violent behavior** was assessed. We used an aggressive behavior scale

that included items such as self-reported tendency to react aggressively when confronted with various events.

d. Justice and conflict resolution mechanisms

The indicators associated with the justice and conflict resolution mechanisms reflect those discussed under security and security actors. Key elements include:

- **Sense of justice** – Whether justice is possible, and whether it exists in a fair and equitable manner;
- **Access** – As with security actors, we assessed physical access to justice, knowledge (e.g. do you know how to contact certain actors?), and socio-economic access factors (e.g. perceived economic and social barriers); and,
- **Perception of actors** – using specific items to examine the perception of fairness, efficacy and overall behaviors of justice actors (e.g. judges treat everyone equally, women have the same rights as men).

In addition, the existence of various **means to obtain justice or resolve conflict** is explored (e.g. how are specific disputes resolved). This includes seeking a deeper understanding of the factors influencing the choice of dispute resolution avenues and may be approached **in relation to specific crimes** (e.g. whom do you contact if you experience a theft? What about cases of sexual violence?)

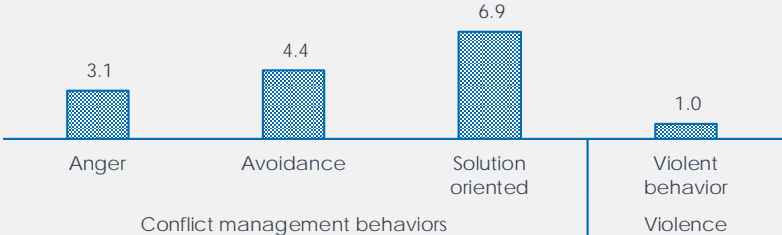
Finally, **conflict management behaviors** are examined using items about respondents' engagement in specific behaviors when confronted with conflicts, such as avoidance behavior (e.g. isolating one's self, avoiding thinking about the conflict, etc.), whether respondents are solution-oriented (e.g. trying to find a solution alone or with others, thinking positively, etc.), or whether anger dominates (e.g. being angry, using violence, etc.).

In Ivory Coast, we interviewed randomly selected youth aged 12 to 17 years old and 18 to 26 years old throughout the country. Conflict management behavior as a domain of justice and security was examined by measuring which type of conflict management youth were more likely to engage in. Specifically, youth were asked how often they engaged in various actions associated with three conflict management behavior:

1. Avoidance (isolating one-self, avoid thinking about the conflict...);
2. Solution-oriented (trying to find a solution alone or with other, thinking positively); or,
3. Anger dominated (being angry, using violence).

The use of violence was assessed separately. A score was computed for each behavior type, with a higher score corresponding to a more frequent behavior. Youth appeared to engage most frequently in positive solution seeking as opposed to avoidance or anger.

Figure 9: Conflict management behaviors in Cote d'Ivoire



The study showed that the solution-oriented score was higher among youth exposed to peace programs compared to those not exposed (7.4 v. 6.8). Inversely, these youths scored lower on anger and violent behaviors.

2.9. Educational and Learning Experience

Educational and learning experience in relation to the peace dimensions was at the core of this research. We used a number of measures associated with the experiences in which learning takes place, whether formal or informal, at school or out of school.

Table 7: Domains of Education and Learning Experience

Access
Participation
Perception
Violence and Discrimination
Parenting Style

a. Access

Access to education, whether physical, financial or cultural was explored in terms of both subjective measures (e.g. how would you rank certain aspects of education) and objective measures based on experience of limited access.

b. Participation

Access, however, is insufficient to understand overall engagement with school. Other indicators are better associated with ongoing participation, such as **registration** (including at school and birth registration); **attendance**, including after-school programmes; and overall **achievements**, which were assessed using questions specific to each country, and sometimes, the type of respondents.

c. Perception (value, effectiveness)

One important factor affecting youth educational experience is how they, their parents and/or society value education and perceive its effectiveness. The research used a **generalized**

value scale (e.g. how important is it to attend school) as well as a **life skills preparation** scale (e.g. schools prepare students to find work, to make decisions, etc.) to examine how respondents perceived the value and importance of education.

d. Violence and discrimination

The perception of education and its effect on future behavior is influenced by experiences of violence and discrimination in school. We assessed the **prevalence** of various forms of violence and discrimination experienced by respondents (and incidence for those still in school) as well as **perception** of safety and discrimination associated with schools (e.g. teachers treat all children equally regardless of gender or social groups appurtenance).

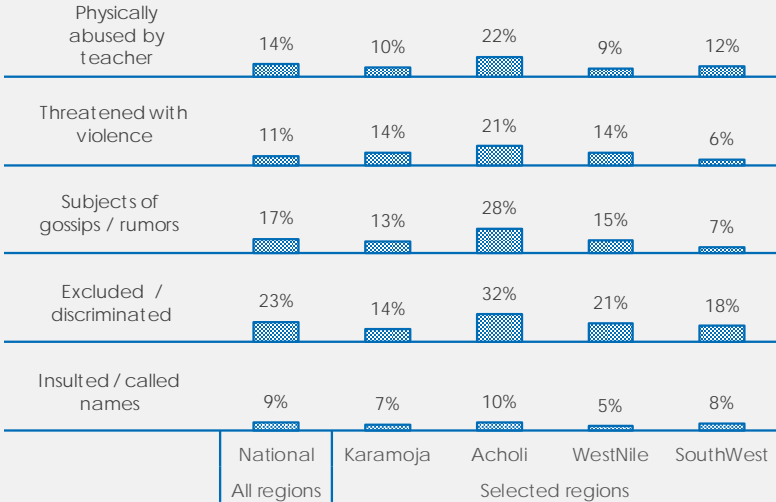
In Uganda, selected items to measure educational experience included:

1. Attendance - children attending school regularly?
2. Access: If children are not attending school regularly, why not; main problems in school.
3. Violence and Discrimination: excluded or discrimination in school, direct exposure, insulted, humiliated, threatened with violence; or, physically abused
4. Security in school was evaluated by asking the respondents to rank how safe they or their children are in school, which conflicts in school are most likely to turn violent, and whether the community's security generally has improved in the past year.

Most respondents' children attended school regularly (91%). The most common reasons for missing school were child's illness (57%), distance of school from home (25%), and financial hardship requiring the child to work (21%).

Scarce resources also affect how schools function; shortage of food was cited as the most common source of conflict. Almost 90% of respondents described school as “safe”, and the majority reported improved security in their community in the past year. Yet violence and discrimination are still quite common. Nationally, 14% reported being physically abused by a teacher in a way that resulted in pain, discomfort, or injury while 11% said they were threatened with violence.

Figure 10: Violence and discrimination in schools in Uganda



e. Parenting style and role models

In addition to the domains above, which are primarily focused on formal education, some studies included a component assessing **parenting style**. This scale distinguishes between three parenting styles: (1) permissive or lenient and non-directive parenting style, which places few demands, rules or controls on the child, (2) supportive, which involves setting clear goals, rules

and limits and helping the child achieve them, and (3) punitive, in which rewards and punishments are heavily used. Studies also examined the perception of various stakeholders as **role models** and/or the presence of role models for youth.

2.10. Resilience

Resilience refers to the processes and outcomes of doing well despite adversity. It is the ability to withstand, anticipate, prevent, adapt to and recover from stresses and shocks. Resilience is situated at the intersection of individual capacities and the responsiveness of environments to provide the resources needed to thrive. However, because of the lack of definition and conceptual clarity, resilience is often used as an alternative term to social cohesion with reference to other peace dimensions discussed in this report. The EPSC Assessment Framework uses a narrower but nevertheless useful perspective on resilience based on mental health and individuals' self-reported capacity to overcome adversity. Three measurements were used throughout the various assessments:

- A resilience scale focused on self-reported ability to adapt to and cope with whatever conflict arises;
- A self-esteem scale focused on assessing individuals' sense of self-worth, including both positive and negative items; and,
- A sense of coherence scale measuring how much an individual perceives his/her environment to be comprehensible (i.e., rational, understandable, consistent and predictable), manageable and meaningful (i.e., challenging and worthwhile).⁸

⁸ Antonovsky, A. (1987). *Unraveling the mystery of health: How people manage stress and stay well* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

3. IMPLEMENTATION

As noted in the introduction, the EPSC Assessment Framework, structured through the understanding of educational experience, peacebuilding and social cohesion developed during this research, is not intended to provide a definitive list of indicators. Rather, the selection of these indicators must be context specific. In the second section of the Framework, we discussed key considerations for implementation throughout the assessment cycle. The selection of indicators and methodological choices are inherently linked - it is the combination of both that provides unique value for a rigorous and contextualized assessment.

3.1. Working in Context of Wars and Other Forms of Violence

Research linking education with peacebuilding and social cohesion takes place, almost by definition, in post-conflict situations where tensions, divisions and sometimes violence remain prevalent. This often means that the conflict-affected population is at an increased level of vulnerability and that the research itself can be seen as highly political. Research in this context is often limited, but it is nevertheless important to inform decisions about critical policies and limited resources. There are several issues of concern to be carefully considered in conducting assessments in this context:

- Adequate scientific and technical resources are not always available – this may require longer training and close supervision of the data collection process as well as rigorous quality control of the incoming data;
- Access to populations can be challenging and rapidly changing. People move frequently – this may impact the

representativeness of the sample and makes follow-up studies challenging;

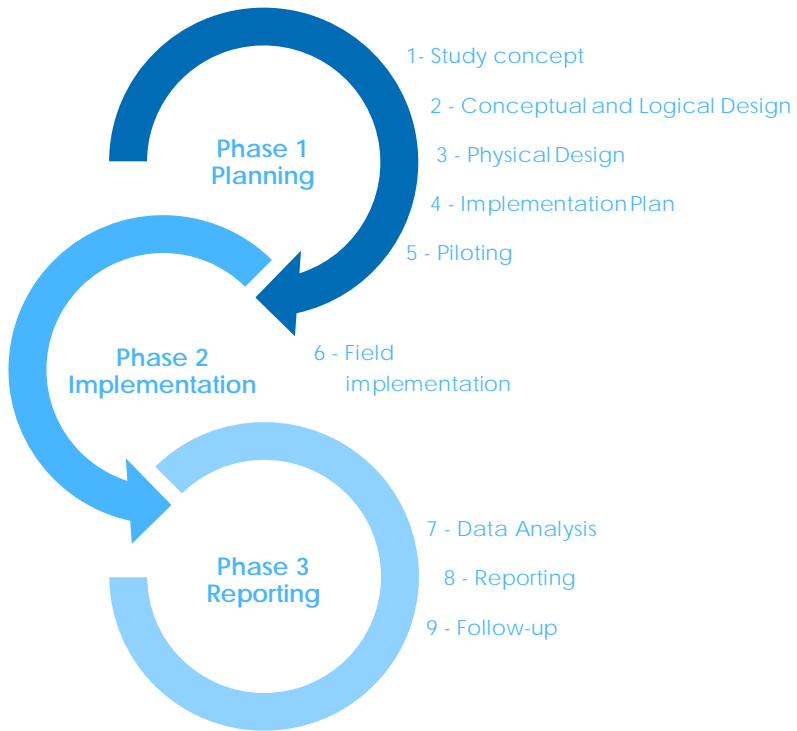
- Respondents and interviewers may be at risk when discussing sensitive topics. This requires careful design, communication, training and mitigation steps to ensure confidentiality and data protection; and,
- Pressure may arise to influence the design, implementation and diffusion of results. Being a neutral researcher and maintaining methodological rigor help build credibility.

With these considerations in mind, assessments become necessary components of building evidence to inform the design of interventions and assess their effectiveness. They can serve as a consultation mechanism to ensure that the views of the population are taken into account. A key lesson learned is the importance of local involvement and local expertise. This is necessary in order to ensure the appropriateness and local validity of the instruments, the ethical and context-sensitive design of the protocol, and the local grounding of findings and recommendations. What follow are specific considerations attached to various stages of the assessment cycle.

3.2. Assessment Stages

It is useful to introduce a formal assessment cycle so that key considerations for the design and implementation can be discussed at each stage. Through practice, we have structured our research cycle in three phases with a total of 9 stages. Importantly, this is not a linear process. Sometimes findings from a later stage require returning back to earlier stages. From an implementation standpoint, activities from separate stages may need to be pursued at the same time; however, each stage has a distinct objective and role as discussed below.

Figure 11: Research Cycle



3.2.1. Study Concept

The study concept stage has four main objectives to define:

- a. The assessment question and objectives;
- b. The expected outputs;
- c. The target audience; and,
- d. The relevance of the assessment.

The primary means to achieve these objectives are a literature review and stakeholder engagement.

Before an assessment is even launched, the assessment questions and objectives are typically pre-defined in the terms of reference and other documents. However, the experience from this research highlights a substantial difference between study objectives as they are stated in written documents and the study objectives as they are outlined by key stakeholders. There were two broad categories of studies implemented:

- Formative assessments undertaken with a primary focus on understanding the context and gathering the information needed to design programmes and interventions; and,
- Outcome assessments undertaken with a primary focus on understanding the effects of a programme or intervention.

Whether the assessment was formative- or outcome-focused had importance for the selection of indicators and the overall design. Outcome assessments specifically required an attempt to reconstruct a baseline that did not exist: for example, recalls were used to estimate conditions one year ago or more, which can lead to inaccuracies. However, formative assessments often lacked focus – an attempt to get everything about everything – and required strong local engagement to refine and narrow what would be collected. Ultimately the choice of either type of assessment is primarily driven by programmatic questions (looking back at what was achieved v. informing planning for the future.)

3.2.2. Conceptual and Logical Design

The conceptual and logical design stage is primarily aimed at:

- a. Defining all the relevant concepts;
- b. Selecting the overall research methods;
- c. Identifying the sampling approach and potential biases; and,
- d. Defining and addressing ethical issues.

The definition of all the relevant **concepts** was required for the in-depth qualitative work and stakeholder consultations, and was the basis for the dimensions, domains and indicators discussed in the previous chapter. The key considerations here were:

- The need to move away from pre-defined theories of change and logical frameworks to open a dialogue about what high order concepts people identified as essential to investigate, and how these concepts are related to each other; and,
- The use of a participatory approach to define indicators associated with the concepts. These were later reviewed with reference to the literature and validated measures, but it offered a way to define concepts and their measures locally.

The instruments used in this process were participatory concept maps, as well as “personas”, a technique adapted from technology development. Personas define individuals in relatively specific terms – typically an information source (e.g. a vulnerable person in the population) and an information sink (the decision-maker) – so that participants could brainstorm what information needed to flow from the source to the sink.

The overall **research method** selection can be constrained by local context, but this research always employed mixed methods, with three approaches selected:

- Sequential design, in which qualitative work was conducted first and informed the design of a quantitative survey;
- Embedded design in which a qualitative component was conducted within the quantitative study; and,
- Convergent design in which a qualitative assessment was conducted in parallel with a quantitative assessment, and results were analysed together.

Regarding the sample, the key considerations were the assessment questions and the definition of who the “sources” of information were. Across the studies, this research engaged with various assessment populations:

- Youth in schools supported by UNICEF programmes, youth in schools not supported by the programmes, and youth in the general population including those out of school;

- Adults in the general population, adults who are parents of children in schools (supported and non-supported by UNICEF);
- Mothers with young children; and,
- Teachers.

Each assessment population required its own sampling strategy, using lists whenever they were available.

As with any research that deals with human subjects, **ethical considerations** must be taken into account, especially if the research involves youth and children who are minors. Assessment protocols should identify any potential risks and benefits to the respondents and how risks will be minimized. In addition, informed consent from the respondents should be obtained, risks and benefits should be clearly identified and outlined to the respondents, and respondents should be given opportunities to ask any questions or follow-up. More specifically, the informed consent should provide a description of any foreseeable risks and discomforts to the participants and any expected benefits to the participants as well as the importance of the assessment undertaken.

Given that the research deals with sensitive topics such as issues of trust, perceptions of groups of varying identities and institutions, and self-reported behaviors and attitudes toward education, peace and social cohesion, there may be risks to the study participants related to the sensitive nature of the survey questions. Responding to questions that address topics such as violence, social dynamics and security can trigger negative reactions, especially among those who have direct negative experience with these issues. This can be addressed in the following ways:

- In the training related to survey administration, the enumerators must be told how to monitor respondent distress and ask to terminate the survey should the respondent seem uncomfortable or traumatized;

- At the end of the survey, in the case of early termination due to distress, the enumerators should provide a referral to a local organization that provides psychosocial services;
- In the piloting phase, the assessment team should work closely with local partners to monitor whether responding to these questions puts respondents at risk from authority figures who may be wary of such questions; and,
- The assessment team should be familiar with doing research on these topics and have experience following best practices and minimizing risk in these contexts. If they do not have internal expertise, a local partner and/or subject matter expert should be obtained.

In addition to the above, those conducting interviews for the assessment should have a space at the end of each survey to make notes, to assess their interaction with the respondents, and to report any issues. This information must be reviewed when surveys are submitted.

3.2.3. Physical Design

The physical design defines all the parameters for the actual design of the research and encapsulates the formalization of all the decisions in a formal assessment plan and protocol. Specifically, this involves drafting the assessment instruments based on the concepts defined in earlier stages and developing the sampling frame.

3.2.4. Implementation Plan

The implementation plan outlines the practical implications of the assessment plan and protocol. It serves to define in a very precise manner the following:

- Logistics – how to get to the various sample points, how data will be stored, where people will be housed, etc.;
- Timeline – a very specific data collection calendar is established, assigning teams of interviewers their own calendar by locations;

- Budget – while the overall budget exists, at this point, the breakdown by teams of interviewers is computed, reflecting the differences in cost of transport and housing, the length of employment for each team member, among other factors; and,
- Feasibility – this is a constant issue to consider, but at this time any final issue concerning, for example, access to sampled locations are addressed.

3.2.5. Piloting

The piloting stage consists of a small-scale implementation of the protocol in a controlled environment to monitor the process and address any remaining issues. It is typically conducted alongside a week-long training focused on interview techniques, sampling approaches and content of the assessment.

3.2.6. Field Implementation

Assuming that all the stages in Phase 1 have been carefully developed, the implementation can be rather straightforward, although flexibility is always required. The key consideration, besides actually collecting data, is about quality control.

This research relied on the use of KoBoToolbox, a digital data collection software package. The tool automates a number of functions such as skipping patterns and response validation, which results in better quality data. In addition, the collection of time stamps and GPS coordinates, and the regular transfer of data electronically means that the lead researchers can frequently review collected forms, ensuring that interviews are conducted within a reasonable period and in the appropriate locations. Researchers can also assess the existence of outliers and response patterns, directing questions and recommendations to the field teams in near real-time.

In addition, KoBoToolbox includes an archival function (i.e., KoBoLibrary) that allows researchers to save and share questions to assess each of the measures developed. The advantage of storing data in the KoBoLibrary is that the data can be integrated in a digital form in the future without the need for further programming and it could be used in a standardized way. The stored questions can also be edited for contextualization as well. The questions used for PBEA are stored in a KoBoLibrary.

Figure 12: Interview using KoBoToolbox



**This is a practice interview conducted in Haiti © Moira Hennessey*

3.2.7. Data Analysis

The data analysis provides a systematic analysis (assessment) that answers the core research questions and examines the links between education, resilience, peacebuilding and social cohesion. The key outputs are: (1) the raw data in a cleaned format, (2) basic descriptive

statistics, and (3) bivariate and multivariate analyses as needed and required in the analysis plan.

This analysis process and the interpretation of the results must rely on consultations with local stakeholders who can ground the results, raise relevant questions and highlight consistencies and inconsistencies with existing knowledge. This can lead to further analysis.

In practical terms, the raw data file is generally a voluminous and rich source of detailed knowledge, anecdotes and statistics. Sometimes, it can be a daunting task to sort and identify which data is important to highlight and use in the report. It is rarely possible to use every single piece of information acquired and to maximize usage. In fact, much of the data will need to be synthesized into trends and aggregated into analytical categories such as geographic regions and localities, gender, age, identities, economic status, etc. Also the initial consultation with key stakeholders during the design phase could yield key insights into which information will be most useful to present and featured in the report.

The dissemination of aggregated data can carry risks but there is value in making results available and accessible beyond a report. In the future, stakeholders may wish to explore in greater detail a specific issue or region that is only covered in summary form in the final documentation. We have taken a small step in this regard by making the research accessible through interactive maps, allowing users to navigate a broad set of indicators.

3.2.8. Reporting

Following the broad consultation on findings during the analysis stage, the process of report writing requires synthesis and interpretation. This is most effective when done by a small group of people. However, given the importance of ownership by partners and other stakeholders, draft reports must be shared with those who participated in the design and implementation of the assessment as well as relevant stakeholders with knowledge of the topic.

This final stage can be described as a “validation” phase wherein the findings are presented to persons from different sectors of society so that they can give their stamp of approval, and highlight points where they disagree. Some groups may point out that their views, which were shared during the consultation, have been misrepresented or otherwise under-represented. It also provides an opportunity for them to see how their own perspectives fit in with other perspectives that exist in the country. Importantly, this follow-up serves as a feedback loop for assessing education, peacebuilding and social cohesion itself, as new questions and insights are raised.



PeacebuildingData.org

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