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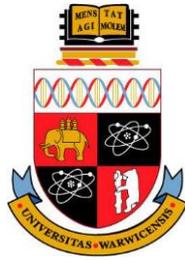
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**Understanding the Syrian Refugee Educational Experience:  
Engaging with a Drama Intervention by Syrian Refugees in Turkey**

By  
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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the  
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in  
English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

Centre for Applied Linguistics  
University of Warwick

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*To my mother: my heart, my soul and my eyes*

&

*To my beloved mother: Syria*

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## **Declaration**

I declare that the work in this thesis is all my work and due reference was made to relevant literature. I also have to acknowledge the guide of my two supervisors Keith Richards and Steve Mann in terms of theoretical framework, decisions made in the field and feedback when writing this thesis up. I also declare that this work would not have been possible without my determination to do the research despite all the difficulties which seemed at the time dead end but I always believed it would work out. For me, I was doing more than a research study; it meant a lifeboat to safety, a passport to get out of the war. It also meant I was helping out my fellow country people, particularly teachers and students at a critical time where education became a luxury to access. At some moments, though, I felt my research is useless taking into account the magnitude of the crisis; i.e. when issues such as children dropping out of school were at stake. On the other hand, the writing up of the thesis was particularly challenging due to the difficult circumstances I faced at the time. One thing I never imagined at the start was that I will become a refugee myself throughout the process of doing this PhD.

Reem Doukmak

## Abstract

The refugee crisis is making headlines around the world as one of the worst humanitarian crises in recent times. Millions of people, including myself, have been forced away from Syria. In this thesis, I address the refugee crisis through a small-scale action approach where I introduce drama as an innovative method to the English language classrooms of Syrian refugees in camp and urban schools. The thesis draws on two main research field trips to the Turkish-Syrian borders in 2014 and 2015. The overarching research question driving this thesis investigates the educational situation of these schools and how collaboratively engaging refugee teachers in educational interventions is desirable and possible. This stands in contrast to most of the interventions whereby the focus is on refugees rather than with them.

According to participants' educational experiences, refugees live in a liminal space where they are caught in between different physical and virtual spaces. Their in-between position renders them uncertain and in search for change to improve their livelihoods. The Turkish unpredictable integration policy has added up to their uncertainty and has contributed to many teachers and students dropping out of school. While volunteer teachers were seeking job opportunities with NGOs, students were looking for cheap labour opportunities to support their families. Lack of resources and space to play, untrained teachers, and using traditional teaching methods were reported among the main obstacles for teachers. Being aware they needed change and being willing to collaborate to bring about change to their classes, teachers reported how drama created 'a revolution' and how students responded positively to the intervention.

Taking into account the fluid nature of the refugee context, it was appropriate to adapt a case study design to capture the reflexive relationship between the nature of the changing context and the process and outcomes of the research itself. I used methods such as ethnography and participant observation at the initial stage of the research to gain a good understanding of the nature of the context. My participatory action research project was developed with refugee teachers. Formal and informal interviews, workshops and classroom observation all contributed to gathering participant views and perspectives on the innovation. Their collaboration in terms of access negotiation and drama implementation shaped how the current intervention took place. The thesis also provides a commentary on the role of the researcher, her background, stance and position. Overall, the research process enabled some of the teachers to embrace aspects of drama in their classrooms (even when I was not present). Most importantly, it succeeded in creating a positive atmosphere in a very challenging and bleak situation.

## Acronyms

<b>AFAD</b>	Afet ve Acil Durum (Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency)
<b>CARA</b>	Council for At Risk Academics
<b>CBE</b>	Community-based Education Programmes
<b>FSA</b>	Free Syrian Army
<b>IBC</b>	International Blue Crescent
<b>IDP</b>	Internally Displaced Person
<b>ILM</b>	Syrian Education Commission الهيئة السورية للتربية والتعليم
<b>INEE</b>	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
<b>IRF</b>	Initiate-Respond-Feedback
<b>ISKUR</b>	Türkiye İş Kurumu (Turkish Employment Agency)
<b>Kimlik</b>	Turkish Identification (ID card)
<b>MoNE</b>	The Ministry of National Education in Turkey
<b>MPGs</b>	Multi-purpose cash grants
<b>PTSD</b>	Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
<b>3RP</b>	Regional Refugee and Resilience Plan
<b>SIG</b>	Syrian Interim Government
<b>SNC</b>	Syrian National Council
<b>SPHERE</b>	Handbook on Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response
<b>SuTPs</b>	Syrians under Temporary Protection
<b>TEC</b>	Temporary Education Centre

## **Chapter One: Introduction**

This chapter presents an overall summary of how this thesis started and evolved. It also sets the global and local educational scene where the current research has been situated. The chapter draws on my experience as an individual who fled the war and who came to share a refugee status similar to the participants during the process of research and the rationale for carrying out this piece of research in the first place. The methods used to conduct the current study are highlighted with an emphasis on the case study framework which combines a descriptive-interventionist approach to illustrate how this study was conducted. The chapter brings together the micro and macro perspectives of implementing drama as an innovation in the refugee classroom and broadly how interventions work in refugee contexts. In addition, the chapter provides a summary of the main findings in this study such as the role of drama in creating a ‘playful’ space for learning a foreign language.

### **1.1 Rationale of the Study**

The idea of this PhD started way far since I was still in Syria. It is a story of survival of an academic at Al-Baath University (Guardian 2015) who was caught up in the war. As a Syrian, I did live the crisis from its very peaceful beginning up to its armed conflict stage. I was also thinking of helping my fellow country people who were paying the price for a decent life with dignity and equal opportunities. I had to help myself out first. Having completed a Masters degree in ELT at Warwick University in 2007, I always wanted to do a PhD. Interest was not enough and I had to look for grants and scholarships. I came across the Council for At-Risk Academics (CARA) in the process and I applied for a fellowship which helped me to come to the UK and to start a PhD degree.

The written text which makes up the thesis is a fruit of four years of planning, field work and reflection. This is to be added 2 gap years which were torn between health, financial difficulties and accommodation hunting. This is the third version of previous reports submitted to monitor progress. One of the challenges of producing the text lies in the richness and complexity of the experience the text aims to represent. The experience was tough emotionally, psychologically and physically. For me, it is part of my life which shaped who I am today.

Among the 15 million children that have been caught in conflict violence around the globe in 2014, more than 7.3 million children were Syrian, many of who became displaced and are acutely vulnerable (UNICEF 2014). The number is on the rise with ISIS advances and attempts to capture border cities and with this increasing number, the need for education and other services rises. The current project aims to assist Syrian refugee teachers and students in Turkey to understand their English learning and teaching situations and to articulate the major problems that confront them through the use of drama. The research will contribute to highlight the situation of English language education for Syrian refugee children in terms of their needs and experiences. By identifying some of the educational and linguistic needs in the current context, the study then attempts to address those by introducing drama as a teaching method which teachers can draw on to motivate students, build their personalities and voice their aspirations. In the long term, the research contributes to add up to the dearth of studies on the researched context. Questions such as the status of teachers and students, the impact their cultural environment on their learning experience and students' attitudes to learning a foreign language can be equally important in refugee/non-refugee contexts in today's richly diverse classroom.

Participatory action research was used to complement the ethnographic aspect of the current case study framework. It is worth mentioning that when I started the current study, I had no intention to do an intervention. However, when I realised the urgent need to support teachers and students, in their educational practices, I decided to extend my research to help bridge the gap. Despite the criticism that case studies are not generalizable, they are useful to 'inform, be adapted to, and provide comparative information to a wide variety of other cases' provided that the researcher takes all differences into consideration (van Lier, 2005:197-198). The case of Kilis refugee camp and city, once unveiled, will contribute significantly to the enrichment of our knowledge of refugee settings where access remains a challenge for researchers. The action-oriented nature of research allows a democratic, equitable, liberating, and life-enhancing approach to research (Stringer 2014:14-15) while drama allows creative and authentic learning through engaging students particularly in secondary classes in 'real-world issues, dilemmas and narratives' (Rainer and Lewis 2012:1). It also serves a 'liberating function'; it creates an 'affective space' where students engage emotionally and feel safe to express their 'voice' and to take risks with the target language (Winston 2012:3). By giving voice to students, I would argue it becomes possible to understand their needs, aspirations and the challenges which they face in their everyday life as refugees and which NGOs and governments require in order to

plan their response policies. The playful nature of drama makes the learning experience enjoyable for students (Winston 2012:4) and helps students give meaning to their learning in a liminal space where uncertainty is the norm.

Based on the understanding built from observation, interviews and documents collected over the course of a five-week preliminary study, the second stage aimed to bring together an experimental initiative which was designed to provide action support to refugees in their day-to-day teaching and learning experience. The action stage lasted over a full semester (about 4 months). The intervention process incorporated using drama activities (fairy tales, daily life scenarios and literature) arranged in collaboration with English teachers at the secondary schools of Kilis refugee camp and city. Teachers had the opportunity to review the tasks before they carried them out in class. During the application process, teachers were encouraged to reflect on how the intervention worked and what needed to be modified. Such a dynamic process required the participation of all stakeholders in order to ‘build collaboratively constructed descriptions and interpretations of events that enable groups of people to formulate mutually acceptable solutions to their problems’ (Stringer 2014:40). By groups, I mean teachers, students, parents, school participants and education administrators. Due consent was obtained from relevant stakeholders. Participatory Action Research was the guideline for developing and introducing new teaching ideas yet teachers were innovative and spontaneous outside the reference model.

## **1.2 Significance of the Study**

The significance of the current study derives from global and local dimensions. First, it addresses an ongoing crisis which has been described the UNHCR (2016) as one of the largest-scale crises in modern history. Second, it aims to provide an understanding of a local context, almost impossible to access, and uncovers some of the pressing needs of refugee teachers and students and how these link to national and global dynamics. When an insider perspective is obtained, it gives insights into key issues which researchers need to take into account when designing interventions and programmes of relevance to refugee population. Third, the study puts forward the role of applied linguistics as a field to respond to critical situations and draws on other disciplines such as education, anthropology and refugee studies to respond to education in crisis situations. Fourthly, the research account is offered by a Syrian who became

a refugee during the research process. Such transition opened the eyes of the researcher into many issues which could be hard to understand for an outsider. Most importantly, the current study proposes an innovative though small-scale response to develop a framework for post-war Syrian curriculum. The macro-micro depth of the study invites key stakeholders, including academics, to design their interventions in ways which go beyond meeting the research plan to address urgent problems in our human history.

### **1.3 Aims and Outcomes**

This piece of research aims to provide an understanding of the educational situation of Syrian refugee teachers and students who have fled the war in Syria and have settled in temporary camp and urban settings in Turkey. The overarching question which underpins the current research focuses on understanding and responding to the refugee educational situation on the Turkish-Syrian border. Understanding the urgent needs and complex experiences of refugees drives the first research question which was the main focus during the first field visit.

1. What are the educational needs and experiences of Syrian students and teachers in refugee settings?

The current study revealed that teachers' and students' educational experiences and needs are influenced by the existing educational agendas which advocate varying goals depending on the funder's affiliation such as religion, politics or humanitarian causes. The Turkish integration policy, on the other hand, has been found top-down and very little informed by refugees' experiences. As a result, teachers became anxious about losing their jobs while students were concerned their degrees would not be accredited. Uncertainties about their educational future pushed many students and teachers to drop out of school in search of secure financial support for themselves and their families. Emphasis on appearance of educational centres and refugees' facilities, rather than on the quality of refugees' educational experiences, raises question marks over the efficiency of the Turkish integration policy. In terms of the imported Syrian curriculum, the study showed that teachers depended heavily on traditional teaching methods such as Grammar-Translation method which according to students were not very helpful. The need to learn English versus Turkish is also unpacked. Obviously, students and teachers need to learn Turkish to be able to navigate their life in Turkish-speaking country. However, this resembles living in an 'egg' and if they want to go outside that egg, they will need English to

communicate with the world. The study shows varying levels of awareness of the importance of English to develop prospects for further education and employment.

The two questions which followed were born as a result of the first field visit. Having come across the different needs of teachers and students, I found it essential to introduce a coping technique to assist learning and teaching in transitional circumstances. Based on my communication with teachers and students as well as classroom and ethnographic observation, I developed a vision to implement a creative form of art, specifically drama to be this coping mechanism. The aim of using drama was to examine its contribution, if any, to advance the teaching and learning experiences of Syrian refugees who with little resources and interrupted schooling may not be able to see ways, beyond their immediate needs, to develop their teaching and learning practices. I want to acknowledge the role of drama practitioners and teachers in UK universities and schools in helping me develop my understanding and practice of using drama in the classroom.

Seeds for using drama in the classroom emerged during ethnographic and classroom observation from the first visit. These included interest on the part of students to speak out, sing, play and perform during celebrations. On the other hand, teachers were aware that by using traditional teaching methods, they were finding it difficult to attract and maintain students' attention. Through the cognitive, social and affective roles which drama assumes in language learning, it was possible to understand the response of teachers and students towards the drama intervention in this study. By using gestures, facial expressions, body language and imagination, students and teachers were able to build confidence, express themselves creatively and engage meaningfully in the classroom interaction. Most importantly, drama succeeded in creating a context for interaction in the foreign language classroom where students felt safe and encouraged to interact and act creatively.

## 2. What contribution does drama make to improving the teaching and learning situation?

Once I was in the field introducing drama through drama workshops and through teachers' use of drama in their own classrooms, I realised the importance of keeping record of the process which involved the second research question above. Taking into account the challenges I

encountered in negotiating access throughout the first and second visit, I decided that it was worth dedicating the third research question to reflect on lessons about research implementation.

### 3. How did Syrian refugee teachers engage in the intervention?

By drawing on the engagement experiences of refugee teachers with the current research, I recognised that the scope of this study goes beyond the classroom and here emerged the third research question, which along with the implications which follow, invites academics and stakeholders in the refugee crisis to share intervention practices with the aim to develop a field with urgent needs.

The study shows that teachers engaged with negotiating access in the first place and with the research implementation as a whole. Ranging from accompanying me to negotiate with the gatekeeper to helping with translation or logistics such as accommodation and potential venues to run the workshops, engagement of teachers was key to make the current research happen. Through collaborating with the researcher to attend workshops, provide feedback, arrange peer observation and invite me to their classes, it was possible to follow up on the impact of the drama intervention and to explore the varying patterns of teachers' engagement. As teachers reported, by joining drama workshops, they became in a better position to access to jobs with NGOs and to create a professional network with other teachers so they can share ideas and resources. Moreover, some teachers were encouraged to create a drama group in collaboration with a local director. The varying patterns of engagement depended on different factors whether positive such as having a flexible curriculum and being expected to join general training programmes for teachers and negative factors such as lack of motivation and changing school timetable.

It is worth mentioning that the above research questions call for understanding the educational experiences of refugees and building on this understanding to come up with innovative approaches to designing research interventions that meet refugees' needs. By doing so, it becomes possible to enlighten policy makers and stakeholders of pressing challenges and potential solutions so they can take these into account when working with refugees.

## **1.4 Structure of the Thesis**

The way this thesis is represented reflects the journey of the researcher into the field and it calls the reader to embrace a post-modern approach where emphasis on structure is downplayed for meaningful purposes. The reader is invited to experience some of the complexities which the researcher encountered in the field and meanwhile writing up the thesis. The thesis includes lengthy raw data extracts to illustrate that it deals with a disjointed context and so the researcher had to come up with an unusual response. The first chapter introduces the thesis and sets the background and the aims of the thesis. The context chapter provides an overview of the global and local dynamics which interact in the production of the study. Literature is then reviewed highlighting the main issues in refugee education and ELT in different contexts. The research methodology chapter gives insights into the process which involved data collection and the relevant issues when investigating the ethical complexities of the current context. Access is borrowed from an analytical position to serve, along with the context chapter, a bridge between the research methodology chapter and developing a basis for analysing data. Data analysis chapter illustrates the key findings and analysis of the data set. Finally, the discussion chapter gives insights into positioning the analysis threads in relation to literature, acknowledges limitations of the current study, and provides implications for future studies.

## Chapter Two: Context

*Education starts with the children as human beings by building their morale and knowledge. It is not just about going to school; it's about attending to their needs and experiences.*

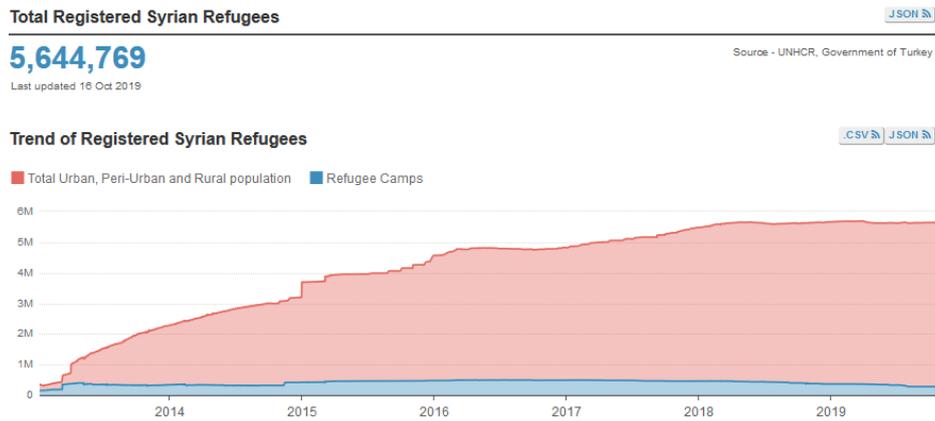
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### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter sets the contextual background where the study took place. This includes border dynamics which determine refugees' livelihoods. Kilis 'compass' policy is highlighted and the impact of changing policy in border areas on camps and urban neighbourhoods are reflected in the everyday lives of refugees including educational practices. A rising hybrid educational system is also captured which features the Syrian oppositional administration and the support of Turkey's government for an alternative curriculum. The role of NGOs is also recognised in terms of funding formal and informal education. A deeper picture is depicted of refugees' lives between camps, urban areas and borders through the ethnographic description and voices of participants living in Kilis. The narrative includes the researcher and the relationships of trust she built during her stay in few containers over the first visit to the current context. Emphasis on teacher training is brought up by participants and the value of such programmes to improve the teaching and learning practices in transitional contexts is brought to light. The chapter goes further to reveal 'the reality' of what refugees think is happening across the borders in contrast to what the official and media rhetoric chooses to report. An insight into a school day illustrates the complexity of the educational system and how refugees cope with it. The thick narrative description allows an insider view into a tightly secured context.

### 2.2 Contextual background

With the war in Syria setting the stage for its ninth year, Turkey hit the record being the largest host of Syrian refugees in the world. According to the UNHCR (2016), among than five million and a half Syrians were registered in neighbouring countries, Turkey alone hosts more than 3.5 million Syrians (UNHCR 2019). The figure below shows the increasing scale since 2013.



*Figure 1: Registered Syrian refugees (UNHCR, 2019)*

According to Turkish officials, up to 70,000 people headed towards the borders in one week only (Guardian 2016). The picture below captures the escaping families from Aleppo towards Bab al-Salameh Border Crossing.



*Photograph 1: Displaced families heading towards the borders (Turk Press, 2016)*

Kilis is a Turkish border city with Syria and its border crossing Bab Alsalameh is one of the most vibrant crossings that stretch along the Syrian-Turkish borders and it has become an escape gate for Syrians fleeing the conflict over the past years of the crisis. The majority of the newly arrived Syrians come from the northern part of Syria such as Aleppo, Idleb and Lattakia. Some Syrians have a Turkmen ethnic background and speak Turkish as mother tongue.

Kilis city population is estimated about one hundred thousand. New arrivals of Syrians have doubled the population according to the *Life Guide for Syrians* which I had access to through a

participant in the current research. At the time the Turkish candidates were beating the clock to win seats in the parliament, more security measures were taken by the Turkish government such as closing the borders with Syria, tightening access to refugee camps for camp refugees and denying access whatsoever to non-refugees or to refugees who want to visit family members who happened to be allocated a tent or a container in one of the twenty camps along the borders.



*Photograph 2: Election van in Kilis (photo: Doukmak)*

Although the borders are closed, it is not uncommon to see Syrian families attempting to cross to Turkey through what is called ‘Tail’ route. The word Tail refers to barbed wires which line the estimated borders between the two countries. When one crosses the Tail they are taking the risk of being shot by the Turkish Jandarma forces. The journey of crossing can be as costly as one’s life and attempts to rescue the shot passengers can be an impossible journey. At the time the Turkish authority was cautiously counting the days until the seventh of June 2015, Syrians were holding their breath and praying dearly that Erdogan’s AK party would win the parliament elections. Opposition candidates have threatened to oust Syrians from Turkey in case they win the elections. When the prime minister came to Kilis to rally support for his party, apprehension of being harassed by local populations made Syrians stay indoors.

The presence of the Syrian Interim Government adds another dimension to the political scene. The temporary political body which was announced in April 2013 has been recognized by Turkey and a number of Western countries as the representative of the Syrian opposition forces. The interim government connects with the opposition forces inside Syria and have limited power on Syrian refugees in Turkey. However, it played a partial role in setting the educational scene which I will discuss in the next section.

Öncüpınar or Kilis 1 camp is one of 20 camps which Turkey set up along the borders with Syria to accommodate Syrians fleeing the war. A huge arch heralding the gate to the camp and reads “Kilis Konaklama Tesisleri” or as the Turkish name translates as ‘Accommodation Centres’ as the photograph below shows.



*Photograph 3: Öncüpınar or Kilis 1 camp gate (photo: Doukmak)*

The term ‘Accommodation Centres’ suggests the Turks do not mean this enclosed densely populated area to be a refugee camp. For Syrians in Kilis, on the other hand, they use the term ‘refugee camp’ to refer to where they are living at the moment. Not far from the local nominalisation is the UN and NGOs reference to a ‘refugee camp’ which refers to a temporary settlement to accommodate refugees. Although AFAD, the Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency, the immediate authority to manage the camp, has chosen to make Kilis and other camps a replicate of a UN refugee camp, the Turkish authority set up these to accommodate Syrians as ‘guests’ rather than ‘refugees’. They hold temporary protection status and are given the temporary protection identification document or Kimlik as the photograph below shows:



*Photograph 4: Yabancı Kimlik ID Card (photo: Doukmak)*

### 2.3 Educational situation

The education scene in Kilis gives insight into the education system of Syrians in Turkey. In 2013, when the first Syrian school (Ekerm Çetin) was opened in Kilis city, the school or education centre was purely Syrians and at the time the Ministry of Education in the Syrian Interim Government was responsible for setting the school term times and exams. Over the past two years, the scene has changed. The Turkish authorities have started an integration policy by appointing Turkish principals along with Syrian principals. They also implemented the Turkish school year times and issued Turkish school certificates for Syrian students.



*Photograph 5: UNICEF Umut Education Centre (photo: Doukmak)*

In order to open an education centre, the Turkish Education Ministry requires a full academic-year sponsorship and hygiene acceptable standards. Sponsors vary between NGOs, charities and individual sponsors. These rules were implemented after some sponsors failed to support some schools or the school buildings did not meet the Ministry's standards. Incompatible schools were closed. Before the end of 2015 school year, Syrian teachers and principals were notified that no student should fail, a policy which is already implemented in Turkish schools. Enrolment rates in primary schools have been reported higher compared to the rate of enrolling in secondary grades (British Council 2016). Having considered the general educational scene, it is worth visiting the schools in the camp to build a deeper understanding of the scene.

The girls' school 'Peace School' and boys' school 'Freedom School' were built, before any other facility in the camp, to accommodate Syrian students who dropped out of school when

they had to flee their homes with their families towards the Turkish border. The buildings of the two schools almost looked the same. The three-step elevated entrance leads into a hallway with a desk tucked to the corner where the gatekeeper would be sitting. The two-storey building includes 24 classrooms, a teachers' lounge and some offices which differ in function and staffing between the two schools. All windows are iron barred making the school appear like a prison. On the school banner, just like on the camp banner, the Turkish flag and AFAD logo appear at the two ends of the banner that carries the name and the level of the school in big Turkish font with an Arabic and English translation appearing less visible below. The segregation was a Syrian idea.

## **2.4 Context narratives**

In this section, I give insights into context specifics from a data perspective. I deliberately provide the reader with a postmodern non-linear representation of the data to embrace the messy nature of the context and the experiences of participants and the researcher in living and interacting with such contexts so that the reader can build a good understanding as the thesis proceeds. The subverted representation (in an italic font) suggests the need for creating a space within the thesis to integrate aspects which can be represented differently from academic writing standards for showcasing a point in the PhD research.

### **2.4.1 Why Kilis is not a perfect camp**

'We are living in a five-star camp if you know,' the wife of my second host exclaimed while joining a conversation about the possibility of visiting other camps and Islahiya camp in particular. She was lucky to live in the same camp as her sister and brother. Sana is a teacher of Arabic language in the girls' school and she knows that the camp where she lives is not worth one star if she takes a breath in her busy day. She has a baby and a three-year old kid and she stayed with her husband in one caravan along with his four sisters. The room which she made as a private space looks like no private. It is a kitchen, a study room and a storage of clothes and food.



*Photograph 6: Caravaneh kitchen/bedroom (photo: Doukma)*

At the beginning, she stayed with her husband and baby at her sister's or other people's containers. She and her husband worked as teachers in the school. They used to go to AFAD to ask for a caravan to stay in, but they would be told there are no available caravans. 'We couldn't stay any longer in the caravan the family kindly offered us to share. The family was expecting more members to arrive from Syria and that meant the couple had to move, but where to? Sana didn't know and wasn't worried that night as they were spending the night in the hospital where their little baby was diagnosed with dehydration. They had to face the harsh reality of leaving the camp. They tried all possible means to give AFAD a reason for them to stay. 'We are teaching in the school and we have the right to stay,' she begged AFAD director who would ask them to come back later; all his promises seemed empty.

'We decided to come back from the hospital, pick our stuff and go somewhere or rather nowhere! We thought or rather me, as my husband gave up hope, to talk to AFAD director again. I don't want the best caravaneh. I just think a caravaneh is great and it's equal a palace!', she desperately kept going on defending her case. The promise to come back this time wasn't empty. She was told there's an empty caravaneh occupied by fighters from the Free Syrian Army and they were notified that if they don't come back from Syria, the caravaneh will be allocated to a family. 'When he gave me the keys' the woman continued, 'I felt he gave me the keys to a palace. I just couldn't believe it; a whole caravanah for me, my husband and my baby'. Although it was mouldy and stuffy inside and we spent three nights with open doors and windows, the content teacher found every reason to like this tiny palace. 'There are two

playgrounds for over 15,000 people in the camp. We never have the chance to play’, a tenth grader boy pointed out in a focus group session.



*Photograph 7: A playground between the two schools in the camp (photo: Doukmak)*

‘The school is on the verge of a catastrophe,’ the religion teacher thoughtfully admitted while sitting in the chair of the girls’ school principal. He sometimes sat there when the school principal was moving around. He explained why this camp is not perfect and why the school is in a worrying situation: last year, teachers used to be paid monthly and they were more committed to come to classes unlike this year. The boys’ school principal further explained this problem by clarifying that ‘all the teachers who work in the school are volunteers and they do the job out of their dedication and if one day they won’t show up or work as hard as they should, I can’t blame them. I have no power over them’, Mr Ali commented with a deep sigh. Mr Jameel didn’t just speak on behalf of teachers, but he’d also support his theory of a deteriorating school with numbers. He explained why students no longer go to schools they either go to Syria to fight or leave to find a job in the city or towns nearby.



*Photograph 8: A poster in class showing logos of fighting groups (photo: Doukmak)*

Last year, the school was far better. There weren't as many students who dropped out nor teachers who quit for other jobs. 'The Sham Islamic Committee was paying monthly salaries for the teachers and school staff,' the head of the four schools clarified 'but the situation now is getting worse,' he added. According to Bilal, who is supposed to be the highest Syrian authority in the schools, this sponsoring body which is based in the Gulf shifted their support to the schools inside Syria.

'It was last year, the Turkish interpreter (mama), told the story of the hierarchy in the school, when there were three Turkish principals for the Salam/Hureeyeh and Zeitun schools. The three Turkish principals had a Syrian counterpart that is fully responsible for the classes and schools properly functioning or rather 'control of Syrians in the school'. The residents of the camp started building a tent in front of their caravans; it is an extension of the caravaneh so 'we'd eat, sit and only come back to caravaneh to sleep,' an Arabic teacher explained. The advantage of the tent was not just space but it also meant people could tolerate the heat of the tent in the burning summer compared to staying in a simmering metal caravaneh. 'They say it is an uncivilised element from the plane view,' one English teacher explained while we were on the way back from school to her caravaneh. 'The tents from a plane view would make the camp look as a tent camp and not as caravans,' she added 'as if one should care about the appearance of a refugee camp'. The head of the four schools has been referred to as having 'weak personality, 'if you tell estaz Bilal we want to let students go home, he'd say ok let them go home. Then when somebody comes and asks him why did the students go home, they have to stay for a class or something, he'd agree and says they shouldn't have gone home,' the boys'

school principal reflected on the situation and why he does not like it anymore. Ali appeared serious about leaving the school, ‘when something wrong happens, they’d say ‘where are you Mr Ali!’ but when they’re going on a trip, they will forget about me and choose anyone the other principal chooses’, he could not hide his frustrations. ‘I don’t have a problem with the other principal, but this is unfair,’ he added. One of the most annoying power exercised in the school context is the selection of school staff members to run the UNICEF workshops.



Photograph 9: Certificate for completing UNICEF training (photo: Doukmak)

‘Four candidates were chosen or rather one and this one (the other principal) selected the rest of the three, who were two teachers at school and school secretary. The latter is well deserved, he has a BA in religion studies, but the two teachers don’t; one holds a high school degree and the IT teacher was doing an open programme in agriculture before the revolution’, explained Ali. Ali himself is a BA holder and he sees that priority should go to those who take the position or rather nominate themselves to be a principal as was Basel’s case, who was the first school principal who claimed to have a BA degree but because there were no documents to prove that, everyone believed him and he was a principal for a whole year. Even the Turkish principal, according to Ali made the same mistake when they asked the girls’ school to nominate three school staff members to run the UNICEF short course. The three were to attend the same course two days before they had to deliver it in Kilis Camp 2 which is a replica of this camp, i.e. Kilis Camp 1 but three times larger. The two other teachers who should not take that position do represent the majority of the school teachers who are still in the course of doing their undergraduate degrees. This was the second time he raises this question in front of me. Two days earlier as we were walking back from school, he said ‘I need your advice on this. I was

offered to work with an NGO for summer and there is a big chance that he'll get an annual contact to work with them. He feels stuck and he would be easily convinced to apply for immigration or asylum in some other countries. He has a friend in Sweden who tells him she is willing to send him an invitation but she cannot really afford it at the moment. His wife wants to make me Maqlobeh, a Syrian dish with rice and aubergine and he would try to avoid going shopping. 'Why not take miss Reem' as they'd all call me because he called me so, 'with you?' he made a suggestion and looked at me to get the confirmation. I was glad to join. It was no wonder the family's man avoids shopping today it is the day when the food credit card is topped up.



*Photograph 10: Shopping mall in the camp (photo: Doukmak)*

Everyone in the family who has a fingerprint was also allocated a card to buy food from the camp supermarkets. We had to find our way through the men, women and kids who were there to collect their two-week shopping although people would not spend their credit all on the same day. 'Each person gets 30 TL credit in their food card. This was reduced from 40 TL which would last longer', a host's neighbour exclaimed. 'Look the bread is cheaper today', the host's wife was excited at her discovery but later on her sister explained the reason. 'Now there are less loaves in the bag: six instead of eight', I helped with carrying the shopping bags.

#### 2.4.2 What does a school day look like?

It is seven thirty in the morning when the car wheels roar on the tiles and sounds like a tank passing by. The teacher rolls on her narrow mattress which she happens to share with three more old and young girls. She buries her head under the pillow in the hope that the sound will disappear in the seemingly busy road in front of her caravaneh, buying herself few more disturbed-sleep minutes before early workers call on her ‘Maria, get up!’ No sooner the sleep fan closed her eyes than there was a noise at the door. The early riser from the kitchen room welcomed the early visitors in. The breakfast ritual which normally takes place in the kitchen would also be populated by other visitors and this time it’s a teacher who happens to have finished her classes early at school and came to give a school related update. She had a bite or two of the freshly baked bread which most of the time would take place before breakfast so that there is enough bread for a couple of days. But even thirty loaves won’t be much since some would go to the brother’s family next door and more urgently to make a quick sandwich to the first grader did who would be coming back home to ask for a ‘Lafofeh’, i.e. a wrap during the break between classes. He’d normally ask for a zaater, i.e. thymes wrap which would be one of the main dishes for breakfast.



*Photograph 11: A typical breakfast in the camp (photo: Doukmak)*

It would be luxurious to have water running from the tap for brushing teeth and dish washing before the host teacher. With the teacher’s friend, I head out to school. Most often the buckets in front of the door would serve the quick job of storing water for daily use. There is plenty of time before classes start but being at school early means meeting the staff from first shift and for the teacher, it would be a chance to meet up with her friends who would be teaching primary classes and exchange latest updates about the ‘red tomato’; a friend who was about to get

engaged. If you want to join the housewives' teachers in the principal's office, the chat would become more serious. This time they were discussing a treatment for dandruff. One teacher was making a suggestion to use a cup of vinegar to wash one's hair with. 'Isn't that strong?' another teacher with wide open eyes and a little frown wondered. She wanted to make sure that the former tried it before she takes the risk. Actually the discussion led to the desperate problem of lice in one of the teachers' daughter's hair which she found difficult to get rid of. By the time the bell rang, the serious and light discussants would disperse over the thirty-minute break before the second shift of classes starts.



*Photograph 12: Children arriving at school (photo: Doukmak)*

And this time it's older children who would be coming to school, although the school door would be open and because there was no school uniform to distinguish the old from young children, there would be in and out movements that are supposedly monitored by the door keeper who would be sitting in the corner behind a desk accompanied sometimes by a Güvenlik, i.e. security police member. With the early shift teachers heading home, my host teacher was heading to the boys' school where she has her first class there today. I went to the principal's office to double check the schedule which I already noted down and to look for the teacher who would be giving these lessons. The principal's office was busy with teachers coming to sign their attendance before they went to class and with students coming to pick students' attendance book to check for the day, as I understood. Today is Friday. It's a special day here. School staff and teachers are preparing for a goodbye party for one of the teachers who is leaving to Saudi Arabia. The young English teacher with her little smiles couldn't but show her tears as the party went. Each dish has been prepared by a teacher. The principal made Yalanji. This young teacher has gone through a disturbing experience of being married to a Turkish man then being shortly divorced. She has been back to school since then and most school staff appear sympathetic and

kind to the 'poor' young woman. The first lesson will not be given in the boys' school since Jumaa prayer happens at the same time. Therefore I stayed in the girls school who happened to celebrate a good-bye party. It is the second class of the school day. The classroom was half empty and students were seated in four rows out of five to the front of the classroom. The fourteen students didn't wear uniforms. They were putting on colourful scarves and long or medium length coats. Some looked attentive, others were bored. The classroom was bright with sunlight coming from the three-sided windows, one open and the other two partially top open. One chair was placed on top of a desk towards the back of the classroom. On the left was a big red noticeboard fixed to the wall with no notes. To the right front corner, there stood a two-meter high air conditioner which did not seem on at the time. On the back of the chairs and on the desks, scribbles of names and unintelligible handwritings appeared. I met another English teacher and enquired whether I can attend her lesson, she replied with a smile 'ya welcome'. The teacher announced the lesson is about progress test three.

The teacher started with an exercise about comparison expressions (whereas, in comparison with, etc.). The teacher would read the text and stop when there is a blank to elicit answer from the female students. 'Your book is missing,' said the teacher to one of the students who asked about some words. As the teacher is speaking, the door would be knocked and two Turkish cleaners came in with a bin bag and a shovel to collect the waste paper. The teacher and students would carry ahead with few looks at what the Turkish men are doing. The same teacher was about to give the third class but she had to take permission from the principal to leave to untie the stiches in her 4-year old daughter who fell off the carvaneh doorstep and had her head injured and banded. In the principal's office, the principal addressed the present teacher: 'we have the problem of ground cleanliness and writing on desks.' The religion teacher commented that the word *nizam* i.e. order is confused with the word 'regime' referring to the Syrian regime. Two students entered the office after the principal went on a tour around to check the school. The supervisor asked what was wrong and one student complained that the latter told her to eat \*\*\* (swearing word) to which the supervisor suggested that she could be expelled from school and then enquired what happened. 'I was putting my head on the desk when she would talk to me and make fun of me for not replying back. I had to stop her at that point'. The two girls received a warning from the supervisor and they left back to their class. In the boys' school, I met with the boys' school English teacher who didn't give a lesson to the eleventh graders as the last session of the day. The reason was he wanted to attend a lesson by the nursery teacher

who wanted to give a grammar lesson to the ninth graders and wanted me to attend and evaluate the lesson. The teacher of the ninth graders was also there sitting next to a student. The sessions for 11 graders at girls' school were cancelled since their teacher didn't show up. They said to the principal that she went to Syria and no lesson has been given since to these girls. Back I went to the ninth-grade lesson, I sat to the back of the classroom and watched the lesson taking notes.

At the end of the session, the two English teachers: the one who teaches at the nursery and the 10<sup>th</sup> grader teacher carried on the chat as we walked into the teachers' lounge. The latter raised the issue of having no course books for the tenth grade. They are not allowed to use the photocopy machine except for important documents, he referred to the photocopy machine in the Turkish principal's office in the girls' school. It takes really long to get a paper photocopied there, he added. I could see his point when I observed the tenth-grade class earlier that week. In the teachers' lounge, the 10<sup>th</sup> grade teacher wanted to show me a copy of the questions he prepared as an example of the questions he also prepared for the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> grades. They were made into four sections: reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary and writing. I wondered at that point, after both said students were weak, how students managed to answer writing questions about an essay. The teacher explained that they memorize these paragraphs before the exam. There was a student in the room using the computer placed in one corner. He wanted to participate in the conversation and he confirmed the point that he learns paragraphs by heart for the exam. The English teacher would explain how students are favouring Turkish to English 'They are learning something new. They're motivated and they can use the little things they learnt with the Turkish people in or outside the camp. On the way out from school, both teachers expressed their willingness to come to the UK to continue their education 'I want to go there to learn the language, to hear it,' the school teacher said and with a joking tone he asked if I can help them to do so.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

The context chapter combined both a structured and a narrative approach to describing the current context which invites the reader to combine a formal perspective which corresponds to a top down approach and a less formal narrative description which reflects the messy nature of the context from a grassroots perspective. From highlighting the dynamics at the borders to the

changing internal integration policy, the researcher explores lives and voices of refugees and the impact of these changes on the educational scene. The need for providing training programmes to teachers is identified and the role of the researcher in bringing this issue and others through conversations with the participants. The division of narratives into vignettes with a title was aimed to assist the reader in following up the line of narrative. It is worth mentioning that the data complements the contextual background of this study provided earlier.

## Chapter Three: Literature Review

*There can be no justification for conducting research into situations of extreme human suffering if one doesn't have the alleviation of suffering an explicit objective of one's research.*

(Turton 1996:96)

### 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will place my research on the map of research relating to the refugee landscape with particular emphasis on the learning and teaching experiences and needs of teachers and learners. At the outset of this chapter, it is important to examine definitions and approaches towards refugees in the literature in general and in education in particular and how these relate to the current study. I will make reference to examples of refugees in different parts of the world and how their situations illustrate key issues for this study. After that, I will examine the role of drama education in providing a space for aspirations and agency with particular emphasis on refugee contexts. I will then draw on teacher engagement and teacher development literature and how the current study is situated in terms of these. For the purpose of understanding the literature in context, I will clarify certain concepts before delving into deeper issues. These include presenting a definition of refugees, the position of Syrian 'Refugees' in Turkey, terminological issues used in refugee context and general impact of refugee discourse on refugees' agency.

#### 3.1.1 Who is a refugee?

The word 'refugee' linguistically speaking derives from the French verb *réfugier* (to take refuge) which dates back to the 17<sup>th</sup> century (Oxford Dictionary). A refugee according to Geneva Convention 1951, 1967 of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), is a person who:

owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence..., is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

Convention and Protocol relating to the status of refugees (2010:14)

The definition implies providing protection and assistance to refugees worldwide, but not all persons who experience escape for safety are treated in the same way by every country. The International Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, which was created in the aftermath of Second World War and signed by 148 countries, carries no obligations on countries if they are not signatories of the convention and therefore many people seeking refuge will fall outside the definition. Even countries who signed up for the ‘universal’ law have their own policy of dealing with displaced people. Turkey, which hosts more than 3.6 million refugees (UNHCR 2019), for instance, signed up for this convention but the government does not give Syrians inside Turkey a refugee status. So, what status do Syrians in Turkey hold?

### **3.1.2 Syrian ‘refugees’ in Turkey**

Syrians in Turkey do not have the status of refugees as defined in the UN Convention. Rather, they hold the status of ‘guests’ as the Turkish government would refer to them. According to the *New Draft Law on Foreigners and International Protection in Turkey* 2012 Turkey has become host to more than 80,000 Syrian refugees over the past year. However, the protection provided to Syrians in the camps near the border is temporary, as stipulated by sections three and four on mass flows in the 1994 Regulation on Asylum. This *de facto* protection does not involve UNHCR’s resettlement programmes, and ensures an open border policy, that is, with no forced return, no limit of duration of stay in Turkey, and offers the possibility of getting assistance in camps (UNHCR 2012) and urban settings. Having said that, Turkey has created its own local ‘temporary’ protection policy towards Syrians which illustrates the geographical limitation Turkey adopted earlier by ratifying the Protocol relating to the status of refugees in 1968 to be one among the three countries in the world (Congo, Madagascar being the other two) which ratified the New York Protocol and limited the scope of the Refugee Convention to include ‘persons who have become refugees as a result of events occurring in Europe’ (see Oxford Monitor or Forced Migration 2012:38). In 2016, Erdogan announced from Kilis that Turkey will give the opportunity to Syrians to apply for citizenship (Weise 2016). This only applies for skilled Syrians who are feared to leave to Europe in an attempt to save the Turkish economic recession.

There is no question that Syrian refugees fled their country for protection, but for them they still want to cross back to Syria i.e. to the liberated areas which are under the control of anti-

government forces. Turkey opened its borders temporarily to allow Syrians with temporary protection to cross back to Syria to mark religious celebration, such as the Eid, with their families (TRT World 2016). By crossing to the other side of the border, they are no longer under protection because these are not buffer zones; they become exposed to daily fire and air strikes from the Syrian regime. That explains the short repose and going back to exile again to flee a security situation which keeps deteriorating periodically.

The plight of Syrian refugees received global attention particularly after the picture of the Syrian refugee child was drifted ashore on the Turkish coast of Bordon city (Smith 2015). Media, charities and volunteer individuals have been calling for a positive response to the refugee crisis which stormed European borders by the end of 2015. On the other hand, politicians and nationalistic groups expressed their deep concerns towards the escalating number of refugees who are at their doorstep. Their concerns have been nurtured by Islamophobia rhetoric which has been ignited by terror attacks and political speech (Dearden 2018) and other parts in Europe, and if we consider other widespread perceptions of refugees in their host society, there are more radical images. Take, for example, the view of refugees as ‘disruptive’ entities of democracy, welfare and security (Soguk 1999:28) of the ‘peaceful’ community they invade. They often face the accusations that they are taking the opportunities of locals in jobs, education and housing. Their ‘threat’ is seen as prominent whether they happen to settle in urban areas or closed detached camps. Anti-refugee sentiments could lead to discontent with the presence of refugees (Cagaptay & Yuksel 2019) since they are seen as ‘an ultimate danger to everything “ours,”... to the ‘one-state, one-nation ideology (Zaviršek & Rajgelj 2019:1). In Turkey, anti-refugee sentiments featured in hate speech on social media, forcibly deporting refugees back to conflict areas (Sanderson 2019) and attacking refugees’ businesses (France 24, 2019). The view of refugees as a source of trouble echoes a concern all over the world: ‘every state avoids the refugees like the plague even if they travel in escorted carriages’ (Pawloski 1993 cited in Soguk 1999:31).

### **3.1.3 Terminological issues**

The term ‘refugee’ is to be distinguished from other categories such as asylum seeker; migrant, humanitarian protection status, IDPs and stateless as follows:

Refugee	‘a person who qualifies for the protection of the United Nations provided by the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)’ (p.168). See section 3.1.1 for full definition.
Asylum seeker	‘an individual who is seeking international protection ... whose claim has not yet been finally decided on by the country in which he or she has submitted it’ (p.12).
Migrant	a term ‘which is not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons’ (p.130).
Discretionary forms of protection	such as humanitarian protection, which are ‘granted at the discretion of State authorities to give protection on their territory to a person or a group of persons, either temporarily or more permanently’ (p.51).
Internally displaced persons (IDPs)	‘Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border’ (p.107).
Stateless person	‘a person who is not considered as a national by any State under the operation of its law’ (p.203).

(IOM Glossary on Migration 2019)

A comprehensive list of migration terminology can be found in IOM Glossary on Migration (2019). In the current study, I will be using the term ‘refugee’ to refer to Syrians who crossed

the borders and took refuge in Turkey for the following reasons: first, because of the wider implications the current research could bring to Syrian refugees who are living in similar conditions in other neighbouring countries and second because it is the term used by Syrians in displacement to refer to themselves. At the same time, my approach to the notion 'refugee' is rather critical. I want to argue in favour of an active rather than passive approach to refugee research. By active, I want to emphasize Turton's call (1996) at the start of this chapter to relieve the suffering of refugees if possible through research. This is not to deny that research into refugee experience is not useful when it is passive. This is because by the time initiatives by following researchers are implemented, the issues or the people involved would be no longer existent.

Although widely used in refugee studies, the term refugee has fuzzy boundaries with other categories such as forced migrant, forced settler among others. It is worth noting that these terms have been used by policy makers, and refugee researchers found it compelling to use them in their attempt to make their research 'relevant' to policy and practice. Turton identified the issue when he said that 'if we want our research to influence policy, then we had better define its subject matter in terms of categories and concepts which are employed by policy makers' (2003:1). Chimni (2009:12), on the other hand, questioned whether Refugee Studies and Forced Migration may actually serve as 'legitimizing the containment of refugees' (Chimni 1998).

I will be drawing on different artefacts in research on forced migration such as internally displaced persons (IDPs), refugees and migrants in order to bridge the 'research divide' (Cernea 2000) and allow to learn from lessons encountered by people sharing displacement experiences and who are obliged to 'reconstruct livelihoods' (Cernea 2000:35) after disintegration of place and social networks. Cernea (2000:17) lists a number of benefits for bridging the research divide 'comparing their factual findings... broadening their conceptualisations ... sharpening their enquiry ... and exchanging research techniques'. There are two main stages these displaced people go through according to Scudder and Colson (1982:271). First is the stage of denial where they think 'this cannot happen to us', and second is the stage when they avoid taking risks and 'cling' to what they believe familiar. It is no wonder then that some

refugees in Turkish settlements prefer to remain in the camp rather than consider the possibility of venturing to urban areas that are ‘unfamiliar’ to them. Psychological stress which often results in ‘a loss of trust in society generally and ... expression of opposition and antagonism towards the administrative authorities, and towards the staff of humanitarian organisations, which continue to have power over their lives’ (Colson 1991:1 cited in Turton 2003:2). Syrian refugees in Turkish shelters, for instance, describe their Turkish authorities as ‘a copy of the regime’ which they fled, and they developed antagonistic feelings towards the new regime which strictly imposes camp rules and deports whoever breaks these rules into less privileged shelters.

The language used to describe refugees is worth examining. When researchers and policy makers talk about refugees they often refer to them as ‘flows, streams, waves, flood, swamp, etc.’ (Turton 2003: 10). Such ‘ontological metaphors’ (Lakoff and Johnson 1980: 25-32) require the attention of those who are working or intend to work with refugees because by using this particular discourse, refugees become dehumanized and more likely to be marginalized as ‘persons’ in the communities they find themselves in. In a recent study, Taylor (2018) expressed her concern towards a rising dichotomy between ‘good’ and ‘bad’ migrants such as in the Windrush generation case and how ‘good’ migrants can be ‘reassigned to the bad’ depending on the political rhetoric (p.9).

### **3.1.4 Refugee discourse impact on refugees’ agency**

Refugee discourse is the product of their representation in society. For some people, they are ‘victims’ and should not be held accountable for the events that made them become refugees (Soguk 1999:28). That is the same as the language promoted by the UNHCR to draw sympathy to refugees’ cause. These are people ‘just like you and me. Except for one thing. Everything they once had has been left behind. Home, family, possessions, all gone. They have nothing and nothing is all they’ll ever have unless we extend a helping hand’ (Janks 2005:35). Erdogan has used the same discourse to justify the ‘open door policy’ his government took towards Syrian ‘neighbours’, laying emphasis on displaced women and children. In this sense, the representation of refugees is supposed to assist refugees in their plight. But to what extent promoting such language helps refugees and is it always useful?

Refugees are further viewed as 'passive' persons and the problem is when refugees themselves assume this role that is tailored to them. Soguk (1999:5) advocated refugees' 'capacity for agency against all odds'; along with the sense of deprivation and vulnerability, refugees have a secret power to 'remake their lives even in displacement'. This power drives Palestinian refugees, for instance, to 'adopt the term returners to inscribe their identities in their own terms' (Petee 1995: 177 cited in Soguk: 1999:5). Refugees' capacity for agency, Turton explains, leads us to 'increase our imaginative ability to identify with the suffering of others'. Only then do we become able to view them as 'potential members of our own moral community' (Turton 2003: 10-11). These representations tend to have a direct influence on refugees' presence in a particular society and reinforce historical attributes that were already assigned to them as Soguk (1999:30) explains:

refugee discourse ... takes for granted, never questions ... an "already there" quality in the representations of this hierarchy which is presumed to be already historically located, already articulated through prevailing forms and relations, and already empowered to speak and to be heard'.

This approach to question refugee vocabularies I believe gives insight to understanding refugees' status and constructed identities in the cultural, political and social contexts they become part of.

Conceptually speaking, displaced people lie beyond what Malkki identified as 'the national order of things' (1992). Being outside the state's border, refugees and other displaced people become homeless and speechless (1996: 378); they 'may speak, but they are not heard'. Not only do they lose their voice, but they become part of 'a canvas of a mass humanity without faces, without names and without personal histories to reckon with' (Malkki 1996 cited in Soguk 1999:197). Refugees, being out of the order of things, reveal the contradiction that exist between nation-state as a protector of rights (of its own citizens) on the one hand and as a political power that those refugees flee into another state in fear of prosecution (Turton 2003: 4). Their position makes them viewed and labelled as 'others' who are different from and inferior to their fellow citizens (Cernea 2000:12); they lose all individual rights ascribed to them at birth (Turton 2003:4).

There have been calls to raise this issue as ethically problematic. Refugees are not ‘identical molecules in a liquid’; they are ordinary people. They talk and walk like we do. When we see refugees as ‘ordinary persons, embedded in a particular set of local circumstances... it becomes ‘difficult then to ignore his or her plight’ (Turton 2003). Sensitivity to the pain and humiliation of refugees would create ‘human solidarity’ (Rorty 1989: xvi) with their cause and is likely to help us see their suffering as part of the human experience which we all share.

### **3.2 Liminality as conceptual framework**

To understand the concept of liminality, I will explore key definitions of liminality as a phenomenon and relevant components such as status and space.

#### **3.2.1 Definitions in liminality**

The major theoretical framework which emerged from examination of data in the current research derives from the concept of liminality that finds its roots in the early 20th century seminal work *Les Rites de Passage* by anthropologist van Gennep’s (1908) who explored tribal life crises among Australia aborigines. I will highlight the liminal phenomenon in terms of space and character’s roles. Before that, it is worth examining what liminality is. Limen is a Latin word which means a “threshold” between two different worlds. Turner introduced the notion of liminality as a limbo between the old and the new, the ‘between and betwixt’ which people experience when they move from one state to another (1987). Liminality captures the essence of the transitory status of refugees and explains how they function in such a situation.

Turner revived van Gennep’s idea of “rites de passage” which ‘accompany every change of place, state, social position and age’ (Turner 1964:47) but his focus was on the middle state of ‘liminality’ rather than the first or last states; separation and reincorporation respectively. Turner used the term ‘state’ as an umbrella term to encompass all van Gennep’s other terms that describe the rites of passage. By state, Turner means ‘a relatively fixed or stable condition’ (1969:93). It could be ‘a state of war or peace ... any type of stable or recurrent condition that is culturally recognized’. The separation stage involves a ‘symbolic behavior signifying the detachment of the individual or group either from earlier fixed point in the social structure or a

set of cultural conditions'. The final phase suggests passengers are given their new status and reincorporated into society (Turner 1969:94).

As for liminal *space*, it is seen as an imagined space in the service of building the nation. Malkki urged going beyond nationalism in order to explore the national order of things whereby 'the nation is always associated with particular places and times yet simultaneously constitutes a supralocal, transnational cultural form' (Appadurai and Breckenridge 1988:1 cited in Malkki 1995:5). Malkki's field research in Tanzania was potentially significant in terms of shedding light on how life in liminal spaces such as refugee camps becomes a fertile land for the construction and reconstruction of national identity among displaced people (Malkki 1995:3). Before I move to address the liminal status and roles, it is worth mentioning that liminal space is the local source where massive 'social reengineering' takes place in human societies (Hoellerer 2017:148), i.e. transitional beings or 'liminal persona' according to Turner is characterized by ambiguity (1969:359). They are typically sexless and anonymous in order to highlight the fact that they are undergoing transition; they are 'without position' (Turner 1969:102). Threshold people are also silent and submissive to the authority of the community they are part of (Turner 1969:103). The status of liminal individuals is therefore structurally 'invisible' (Turner 1967). Their in-between status affects their social networks, family and many aspects of their life (Menjívar 2006).

During the liminal period, an unstructured society 'a *communitas*' emerges (Turner 1969). A *communitas*, unlike a community, represents the 'modality of social relationship' rather than 'an area of common living' (Turner 1969:96). *Communitas* can be 'grasped' when placed in juxtaposition or hybridization with aspects of social structure' (Turner 1969:127). The unstructured character of *communitas* represents what Buber described 'Zwischenmenschliche' and it resembles 'emptiness at the center'. Although it is empty, it is essential to the functioning of the structure of the wheel (Buber 1961 cited in Turner 1969:127). This elusive structure corresponds to liminality's being seen as 'a time and place of withdrawal' (Turner 1969:167) from structural positions as well as from the social norms and values that are associated with these positions (Turner 1964:53). Henitiuk explains the role of going through *communitas* to revive communities:

While threatening social chaos by challenging and redefining societal roles and classifications, liminality can usefully act as a form of release or catharsis, revitalizing the liminal and his/her community.

(Henitiuk 2004:3)

The spoiling nature of the liminal status lies in the fact that ‘s/he eludes everyday controls’ (Henitiuk 2004:3). At the same time, these characters appear ‘commonly secluded, partially or completely, from the realm of culturally defined and ordered states and statuses’ (Turner 1967:98). In doing so, liminal individuals express ‘solidarity ... utopian ideals and hopes’, giving way to ‘alternative human expressions to emerge’ (Junker 2013:170). The concept of liminality will be explored further in the field of education.

### **3.2.2 Liminality and education**

This section explores the relationship between liminality as a theoretical framework and its general application to the field of education. It also highlights the mediating role of action research in bringing the two areas together, particularly in a liminal context such as a refugee context.

#### **3.2.2.1 Liminality of growing up**

Bigger (2010) identified two implications of liminality for education: the liminality of growing up and the fruitful chaos of learning as a process. When students grow throughout their school years, they cross the threshold between childhood and adulthood (Bigger 2010:5). The shift becomes particularly visible at the secondary school level where it is possible to observe ‘prolonging inappropriate models of childhood to the end of compulsory school’ (Bigger 2010 cited in Bigger 2010:5). Bigger calls for applying Turner’s analysis of liminality into education but he warns that during the transition from childhood to adulthood children encounter ‘psychic dangers such as low self-esteem, rebelliousness to excessive authority, aggression and learned powerlessness all of which threaten well-being and future prospects’ (Bigger 2010:11). Hampshire et al. (2008) argued that liminal spaces between childhood and adulthood, in refugee children case, can be ‘revolutionary’ spaces for young people to adopt strategies to cope with ‘long-term livelihoods insecurity’ which may result in inter-generational tensions’ with the elderly and those in authority (p. 26). Turner’s liminality reflects his Marxist view of ‘transition rites as social drama which enacted revolution to “incorporate” change and establish a new

status quo' (Bigger 2010:3). His idea of anti- structure, which 'puts pressure to change structure' (Turner 1969), seems to clash with the 'heavily structured' education system (Bigger 2010:9). In his anthropological rationale for theatre, Turner views performance as liminal and functioning as a 'teaching tool' where 'teachers are ... performers: their performances should empower learning and reduce emotional traumas' (Bigger 2010:6). On the other hand, 'students ... act out rituals in order to begin to understand their existential power' (Turner 1988:139-155).

### **3.2.2.2 Liminality is a space for active learning**

John Dewey called for an 'active education' where students learn through 'experience, participation and democracy' i.e. by 'giving learners a voice' (1938, 1963 cited in Bigger 2010:7). The term 'active' corresponds to growth both cognitively and socially, 'it is a process; it is communal; it is a growth experience, and it is continuous' (Dewey 1988 cited in Breault 2005:11). By becoming socially engaged in the classroom, children get prepared to assume active roles in society (Dewey 1988:40). Developing cognitive abilities, on the other hand, can potentially help students learn practical knowledge to contribute to a democratic society (Dewey 1994).

Liminality can be described as a 'fertile chaos' where new ideas and structures emerge which are likely to predict 'postliminal experience' (Turner cited in St. John 2008: 59-60). During this liminal process, people get involved in the social change and by witnessing and often participating in such performances. The less they fear change, the easier the transition will be (Lewin 1952 cited in Bigger 2010:4). If we think of liminality as a 'status-free process', the resulting chaos that is likely to accompany change can become fruitful only when liminality is 'facilitated and channeled'; i.e. when all actors in the education process such as parents, teachers and students engage in 'a community of practice' of thinking and 'grass-roots discussions' of issues that concern them all (Somekh and Zeichner 2009:8). Liminality gives schools a 'vision' to foresee the possibility of change and to 'cross over this change threshold' (Bigger 2010:9). Children, however, find it difficult to cross thresholds and borders. Therefore, there is a need to guide them during this process which is seen as 'dynamic' and 'empowering' through the change it produces (Bigger 2010:9). Hack emphasises the needs to assist students to feel 'home' at times of uncertainty:

Liminal spaces are characterised by troublesome, challenging and often counter-intuitive knowledge. It is recognised that students will cross these spaces at different speeds, and get stuck at different points. The challenge for teachers is to help students to get accustomed with the uncomfortable, and make them feel at home in a state of uncertainty.

(Hack 2018)

Meyer and Land (2006) suggest few ways to enable students to cross thresholds by ‘redesigning activities and sequences, through scaffolding, recursiveness, provision of support materials and technologies or new conceptual tools, through mentoring or peer collaboration’ (p.377). Junker (2013) called for understanding liminality in learning through its connection with Vygotsky’s Zone of Approximal Development (ZPD) (1978). By assisting a child, who is still in ‘the process of maturation’ (Vygotsky 1978:86), it becomes possible to engage them in learning and being creative:

In a Turnerian perspective, the participants within this environment can exercise their potential, voice themselves and be involved in communal experiences of creativity that can generate liberation, thus becoming the embodiment of *communitas*.

(Junker 2013:174-175)

The process of liminality also involves reflection and reflexivity which Turner elaborates on as follows:

Performative reflexivity is a condition in which a sociocultural group, or its most perceptive members acting representatively, turn, bend or reflect back upon themselves, upon the relations, actions, symbols, social structures, ethical and legal rules, and other sociocultural components which make up their public “selves”. Performative reflexivity ... is highly contrived, artificial, of culture and not nature, a deliberate and voluntary work of art.

(Turner 1988:24)

### **3.2.2.3 Liminality and action research**

In action research, reflexivity is associated with the concept of ‘inter-subjectivity’ where all participants in the research process interact to produce ‘certain versions of knowledge’ (Colombo 2003:2). This contemplation process allows the researcher to deal with subjectivity as ‘the object of research’ (Bigger 2010:4). In Colombo’s sense, ‘knowledge is not sustained by its correspondence to an objective reality, rather it is inherently constructed and sustained by

social processes, or, in other words, by communal practices' (Colombo 2003:2). A key aspect of AR is its emancipatory nature. There has been scarce attention to the connection between liminality and action research. Borg (2010) attributed the link to the reflexive element in both. AR interventions underline reflection 'in action' and 'on action' (Schon, 1983). Mann and Walsh (2013) advocated a 'data-led approach' to reflective practice where teachers reflect on their own data, context and experience to develop their teaching practice. This data-led approach echoes van Lier's call (2000:11) for an 'ecological research' perspective which considers the reflexive relationship between interaction, language, learning and knowledge (cited in Mann and Walsh 2013:299).

... reflection on collected data is integral. Improvement in awareness and teaching performance can be facilitated by the collection and analysis of a small amount of data. Here, 'data' are things like: recordings of a teaching session, a set of test results, feedback from a colleague who has observed a teaching session, a conversation with a group of students minutes papers and so on. (p.301)

When we consider a liminal teaching environment such as a refugee camp, or an urban setting where teachers work as volunteers and with little or no teaching skills, how can reflective practice assist them to improve their teaching practice? In addition, how can reflective practice be integrated into teacher development programmes that are more than essential for these teachers who occupy a limbo space with their students? And how helpful can teachers' reflection on the relations, actions, symbols, social structures, ethical and legal rules which they have to live with in refugee contexts day in day out? These questions emerged through the current research and therefore they are important in informing future research in relevant contexts.

Action research is seen to make a unique contribution to educational reform by means of 'grass-roots efforts' and 'new forms of dialogue' (Somekh and Zeichner 2009:6) connecting policy makers, activists and academics or what Appadurai called the 'globalization from below' (2001:16-20 cited in Somekh and Zeichner 2009:8). Stenhouse proposed that in action research teachers and students work together to explore the process of teacher-student interaction and learning (1975 cited in Somekh and Zeichner 2009:6). Somekh and Zeichner introduced a framework for analyzing action research practices in local- within-global contexts. The framework combines dimensions such as the purpose, conditions, philosophy, sponsors, incentives,

form of research to the relationship of action research to other research and the ways of representing action research to others (2009:10-11). According to Somekh and Zeichner, action research has the power to effect educational reform in times of ‘political upheaval and transition’ (2009:12). The political nature of action research makes it possible to be conducted in contexts where radical changes take place. In Namibia, for instance, Somekh and Zeichner reported that the theories and practices of action research had yielded double benefits of empowering teachers and building a local knowledge base as parts of the educational reform:

By writing case studies of their cortical practitioner inquiry research, teacher educators and teachers in Namibia have created a repository of local educational knowledge that is used in teacher education courses. (p.12)

Students may not see how school is relevant to their future (Bigger 2010:7) when they have lived for years in a liminal space such as a refugee camp. I want here to emphasise the role of the teachers in changing the mindset of students and promoting a learning environment through acknowledging the parallel relationship between liminality and action research in education.

### **3.3 Education and ELT research with refugees**

I will move now to review some of the wider discussion on refugee education literature and the need to consider adopting ‘refugee pedagogy’ practices. Then I will examine research in ELT that relate to a growing refugee debate.

#### **3.3.1 Refugee education: scope and definitions**

Before I cross to the definition of what refugee education is and the surrounding issues, I want to distinguish it from other concepts that may sound synonymous or relevant to refugee education. In unsettled situations, it is not uncommon to hear of ‘education in emergencies’ (Sinclair 2007), ‘education in crisis situations’ (Burde 2005), ‘interrupted schooling’ (Brown et al. 2006), ‘teaching in difficult circumstances’ (West 1960, Smith 2011) among others which all seem to share related issues and implications to education. Some programmes have been run to promote education causes such as *Educate A Child* (UNHCR 2012), *Education Above All* (Sheikha Mozabint Nasser of Qatar 2012), *Peace Education* (UNESCO 2005 *Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition* (UNICEF 2011). The term refugee education itself is

an umbrella term that covers different contexts rural, urban and camp situations. One is right to wonder whether I will draw on refugee education in the wider sense or just narrow my focus down to refugee camp and urban education, to which I would respond that my approach aims to learn from the lessons in different contexts with emphasis on camp and urban settings. In this section, I will draw on common issues in disrupted education in general and then discuss key elements in refugee education in particular such as inclusion and quality.

### **3.3.2 Role of refugee education**

Education plays a key role in developing the nations and it contributes to the well-being of individuals and to building their future. Education in emergency describes ‘education for populations affected by unforeseen situations such as armed conflict or natural disasters’ (Sinclair 2007:52). The result of these emergency situations is often ‘homeless’ people who by seeking safety in other countries become refugees (Sinclair 2007:52). The impact on educational system is similarly devastating; schools become damaged, destroyed completely or used as ‘temporary accommodations’, students drop out of schools and teachers lose their jobs and they both need quick support to overcome the ‘situational barriers’ they encounter. According to the UNHCR, around 4,072 schools have been destroyed or used as shelters in Syria (March 2014). Refugee education has been described as a ‘wasteland’ where refugees themselves are the ‘human waste’ of globalisation which reflects their marginal position in society (Pinson and Arnot 2007:399). Refugees are stateless people. This does not mean that they stop identifying with the nations they fled nor do they become people without an identity. But, rather, they are stateless because they have crossed national borders and sought protection. As a result, they no longer enjoy the privileges and responsibilities associated with a state, including access to their national education system.

Schools are said to symbolize ‘a refuge’ that can provide ‘security and normality for the child whose life was otherwise extremely unsettled’ (Power et al. 2001:37 in Rutter and Jones 2001). Although a school may function as a ‘normal’ space where students and teachers come to develop social relationships similar to those in normal life situations, the transitional nature of a refugee life illustrates a situation where difference is the norm. Education disruption often reveals the gap between students’ prior schooling and the current schooling experience (Brown et al. 2006:156). For instance, most of the Sudanese students in Australia who were placed in

year 10 were older than their peers due to the 'six-year' school interruption gap (Brown et al. 2006:156). In their edited book *Refugee Education: Mapping the Field*, Rutter and Jones (2001) raised various pressing issues that refugee students encounter when they join the education system in urban areas, particularly Inner London. They are often seen as 'not wanted' by schools that are already full of special educational needs, bilingual and disrupted students (2001: 6-7). Most of the time, refugee students 'don't fit into the tidy pattern of school year that starts in September and ends the following July'. Instead they would appear and disappear at different points of the term time. Such transition has been addressed by setting up 'undersubscribed schools' and guiding refugee children to take advantage of the special support offered for newcomers. Admission problems exist along with xenophobic and anti-refugee sentiments that refugee students often encounter in their environment. Such problems, according to Jones and Rutter, are not purely refugee problems. Rather they reveal dysfunctional issues that already exist in the mainstream education system (2001:1). In order to address similar challenges, there should be a 'continuous induction policy' that aim to 'welcome, reassure and effectively educate the newcomers' (2001:6), in addition to quality teaching sources and strategies that consider the interrupted or non-existent prior education of refugees, especially those who come from war-torn zones (2001:8). But how does refugee education in a 'tidy' London scene relate to educational practices in underdeveloped or camp settings? And should we learn from the lessons about refugee education that is taking place in different parts of the world? Shall we go beyond the artificial constructs of refugees and migrants and look at the underlying issues that could be relevant and equally important in different contexts?

In confined refugee contexts such as refugee camps, there is less need to integrate with the host community compared to urban settings. Although they are isolated from participation in the host community, camp residents still come in touch with camp administrators who are mostly part of the local community. Interaction with the host community may lead to 'post-migration stress' (Guerin et al. 2004 cited in Killian et al. 2018:130). Berry (2005) proposed 'acculturation strategies' to assist migrants in their intercultural contact with the aim to avoid conflict with the host culture. These strategies vary between a 'preference for maintaining one's heritage culture and identity' which is likely to result in 'marginalisation', and a 'preference for having contact with and participating in the larger society along with other ethnocultural groups' which is often conducive to assimilation (Berry 2005:704). Marginalisation and 'as-

similation' can take different degrees depending on the migrant's attitude and behaviour towards the larger society culture. Refugees are not very different from migrants and in some situations where they are placed in closed camps that are managed by host society population. Similar marginalization/assimilation issues can result.

Education is not just a right (Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989), but at times of emergencies it 'ensures dignity and sustains life by offering safe spaces for learning, where children and youth who need other assistance can be identified and supported' according to the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies' standards (INEE). INEE is an international network (connecting the UNHCR, UNICEF and other international bodies) and it was set up in 2000 with the aim to cater for individuals and institutions who have an interest in promoting emergency education (Sinclair 2007:52). On its website, INEE lists a number of education actors responding to the Syrian crisis such as *International Relief & Development*, *SAWA Lebanon*, *Jordan Hashemite charity organization* and others but it does not state whether it is involved in any project itself. Access to education should be promoted as a priority which should be free and compulsory particularly at primary level. Inclusion rights should also be given due attention so that students do not drop out of school in their attempts to support their 'household livelihood' through 'paid or unpaid work, scavenging, or having to take care of younger siblings or sick relatives' (Sinclair 2007:53). Also students lose interest in pursuing their education if they cannot see the 'ladder of education' (Sinclair 2007:53) open in front of them; what is the point of completing high school if high school certificate is not recognised? UNICEF's Core Corporate Commitment to education (2005) suggests the following standards for education in emergency:

- Setting up 'temporary learning spaces' with minimal infrastructure;
- Re-opening schools
- Starting the re-integration of teachers and children
- Providing teaching and learning materials and
- Organising semi-structured recreational activities.
- 

Funding is crucial if we want to implement the above criteria. Unfortunately, most of the time quality standards are doomed to failure due to under-funding by donors. The UNHCR in its 2014 Syria Regional Response Plan announced that only 30% of the required aids including food, health, education and protection needs have been met (Press Release July 2014) which

shows the general lack of adequate funding for refugee support including education. The funds from donors are usually spent to supply teaching and learning materials, furniture, textbooks and uniforms. In Kenya, for example, the budget cuts had negative consequences on the quality of education such as ‘lack of classroom supplies; non-completion of construction of classrooms; lack of teacher training; inadequate desks due to lack of resources; lack of sporting materials; laying-off of teachers’ (UNHCR 2000 cited in Brown 2001:112). So quality education seems to be associated with high costs. The educational case of Bhutanese refugees in Nepal, however, sets an excellent example of high-quality education in a refugee camp setting at a ‘relatively low cost to UNHCR’ (Brown 2001:116). If we consider the strengths and weaknesses of the Bhutanese case, the main lessons to be learned seek to answer questions such as ‘what resources are actually available?’ and ‘how do we maximize the use of these existing resources?’ (Brown 2001:117). In this sense, both the positive and negative aspects of the experience count equally important if we want to be realistic in our approach to learning from the refugee experience worldwide. One way to maximise resources in refugee schools is to implement teacher training programme. The UNICEF runs TOT or training of trainers’ programmes in some refugee camps in Turkey and one of them is Öncüpınar where four TOT trainers ran a teacher training programme to 156 teachers in the camp (UNHRC 28 April 2014) which I attended myself. The UNICEF says it is considering a ‘longer term support’ to volunteer teachers in the form of ‘incentives on a regular basis’ (PRP6 Monthly Update 2014).

### **3.3.3 Pedagogy for refugee education**

Having looked at what refugee education means and considered situations from different contexts, I want now to propose a more clearly defined approach towards refugee education, i.e. by suggesting the need for *Refugee Pedagogy*. I will do so by building on existing pedagogies and implications from the current study: Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1970), Theatre of the Oppressed (1979) and Pedagogy of Difficult Circumstances (1960, 2018). The diagram below illustrates how refugee pedagogy in this study connects the three pedagogies which address vulnerable population:

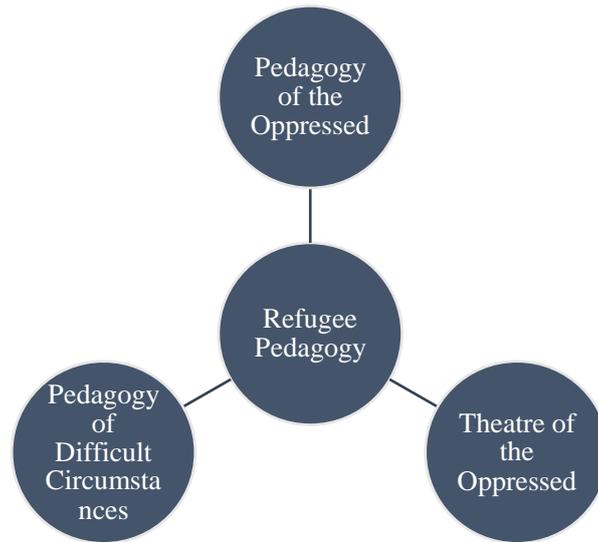


Figure 2: Refugee pedagogy position in relation to empowering pedagogies

In Freire’s *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970), he calls for an education system in which he opposes the ‘banking’ style where the teacher ‘deposits information into students’ heads’ and rather inspires a system based on engaging learners and teachers in a ‘process of inquiry’ through which children ‘invent and re-invent the world’ (Freire 1970:19). By doing so, educators will be able to promote ‘conditions’ that enhance students’ ‘epistemological curiosity’ so they become able to ‘apprehend and comprehend the object of knowledge’ (Freire 1970:19). Recent research into migration and integration (Mallows 2012) give insights into teachers and learners’ perspectives. A participatory approach, which embraces Freire’s pedagogy, invites language policy makers and providers to ‘re-imagine language teaching and learning’ by emphasizing the need for negotiated content which is ‘driven by the students themselves’ and which is likely to be ‘relevant and meaningful to the learners’ lives’ (p.4). In terms of language classroom interaction, participatory education promotes a ‘dialogic’ environment in which problems and new ideas are discussed between the teacher and students (Bryers et al. 2014). In participatory curriculum, traditional roles of teacher and students are challenged, calling on students to become ‘initiators’ rather than ‘passive recipients’ of information (p.16). According to the ESOL project *The power of discussion* (Bryers et al. 2014) which incorporated Freire’s participatory pedagogy, students were encouraged to engage and even facilitate discussions of social and political relevance to their own experience (p.38). I will now move to discuss Freire’s pedagogy echo in theatre, namely Boal’s (1979) *Theatre of the Oppressed*.

Boal promoted using theatre as a pedagogical tool where participants (audience in Boal's case) are empowered to initiate change; to claim the space as *Spect-Actors* where they can offer solutions to the drama dilemma at hand. Boal's techniques involve enabling participants to be 'active observers' not necessarily by 'tak[ing] the stage' but rather by being 'actively entangled in the problem or committed to the scene' (Boal 1995:40). In ESL, Boal's performative pedagogy has inspired a view of learners as 'sources of knowledge' where learners contribute with their lived experiences (Cook et al. 2015, Bryers et al. 2014) to make language learning meaningful. The *Act ESOL* project (Winstanley 2016) promoted integrating theatre and performance into the English classroom through encouraging learners to be creative and reflective.

Having looked at critical pedagogy from an education and theater perspectives, I want to zoom into the English language teaching pedagogy to explore the third framework among which the current study is situated: *Pedagogy of Difficult Circumstances*. The term emerged in language teaching in 1960 (West) and has recently developed as an umbrella term to cover different linguistic contexts including prisons (Banegas 2018), under-resourced secondary schools in Africa (Kuchah 2013) special education needs (Hillyard 2018) and refugees (AlYasin 2018). More specific attention has been given to language teaching and the need for a pedagogy for refugee education (Sengupta & Blessinger 2019). A common description of difficult circumstances involves dealing with large class size, little or no resources, lack of motivation, limited training for teachers and socio-economic situation of learners (Gautam & Sarwar 2018, Khuram 2018, Kuchah 2013, Smith 2015). Within such conditions, it has been argued that it is possible to conduct research to meet those challenges in the English classroom. For instance, in the case of a large size class, Kuchah implemented creative ways to motivate his secondary school students to learn writing through group work under the shade of trees (Kuchah & Smith 2011). Other studies looked at how teachers coped in difficult circumstances (Banegas 2018, Alyasin 2018, Hillyard) without directly intervening to assist teachers. They still played a role in enabling the teacher to reflect on their teaching practices and to consider solutions to the challenges they meet in their difficult circumstances. Despite the complexity of obtaining access to contexts under difficult circumstances, there is little or no mention of how the researcher accessed the context and participants in most existing literature.

Among the three pedagogies lies a pedagogy for refugee education in which the current study is situated. In *Language Teaching and Pedagogy for Refugee Education* (Sengupta & Blessinger 2019:3), a major emphasis is placed on access to education due to the ‘global scale’ of the refugee education crisis (p.5). Despite the huge efforts to meet emergency needs for refugees, education remains less considered as an urgent need for refugees. Short term, lack of funding and changing policies also make it difficult to maintain sustainable resources. Amongst these factors, researchers who come to study refugee education tend to focus on barriers and challenges and give little or no attention to the positive practices by organisations and refugee groups on the ground (Sengupta & Blessinger 2019:3). Refugee pedagogy calls for a more personalized approach to understand refugee education rather treating refugees as a ‘homogenous group’ whose experiences seem to be overlooked to keep a wholistic rhetoric which most of the time serve funding bodies and policy makers. Most importantly, refugee pedagogy recognizes the transitional nature of refugees’ experiences and that they have been through interrupted education which makes them ‘physically and emotionally out of place’ (Spiteri 2019) and therefore their learning experiences need to be understood within the context they become part of. For instances, they may have undergone varying levels of trauma before they arrive to a safe place. Language learning varies between a key for integration into the host community (Woods 2009:83) to a window on the outside world in confinement spaces (Banegas 2019:139). In both cases, refugee education functions as a ‘a stabilising feature in the unsettled lives of refugee students’ (Matthews 2008: 31). I will look at more examples of refugee education from an English language teaching perspective in the next section.

### **3.3.3.1 Refugee English language teaching**

Research into teaching English to migrants and refugees has been mostly concerned with reflecting the integration experience of migrants and refugees in their host countries (Coelho, 1994; Mallows, 2012; Warriner, 2003). Some scholars explored attitudes of refugees towards educational policies (Baron, Field and Schuller 2000; Khasandi-Telewa, 2007; Rassool 2004). Other projects voiced a similar call to boost refugee learners’ engagement in developing academic language proficiency such as the autobiographical approach Mehmedbegovic (2012) proposed to engage new arrivals and refugees in an inner-London secondary school. Although Mehmedbegovic claims that he would create conditions where participants could draw on their

prior experience to tell their own narratives, he was not sure whether this could inflict intimidation on the part of new arrivals (2010:68). His initiative invited Year 7 class children to write about a place they had left in an attempt to brainstorm significant refugee experience. Mehmedbegovic's project undoubtedly gave insight into the personal experience of refugees but it was restricted to un-negotiated script which less proficient children could fail to articulate in the target language. Moreover, the interaction likely to result, had it been voiced in spoken language, would be more authentic as there is more chance these refugees would narrate their stories in live encounters. The refugee experience starts before refugees cross the borders; it begins from the moment they sense threat back home and it continues to the late stages of settlement in their new relocations. The narrative which the refugee child is invited to write can trigger traumatic and painful memories and teachers should avoid disrupting students' lives in their attempt to teach a language.

In a similar vein, Dakin (2012) gave equal priority to writing narratives with more emphasis on home languages and such bilingual approach, Dakin argues, equipped children with 'the confidence to feel positive about their bilingualism' (Dakin 2012:16). According to Cummins (2001), incorporating children's home languages into the curriculum is more likely to lead to 'inclusive education that advocates for them, rather than against them' (cited in Dakin, 2012:18). Valuing home languages, Wardman et al. (2012:43) further clarify, is potentially useful as a shelter which children could resort to when they face difficulties in expressing themselves. Having said that, teachers vary in their attitudes towards allowing home language in the classroom. Some, for instance, would consider it 'off-task'. When we consider the imported Syrian curriculum to refugee camp and urban schools, it is worth remembering that traditional teaching methods were also brought along (Alyasin 2018). Teachers use the children's mother tongue heavily when they teach English.

### **3.3.3.2 ELT for refugees through arts**

Cocks and Dix (2012) highlighted the impact of arts on language acquisition from an ESOL perspective. Through their project *ESOL Island*, they provided a good example of how newly arrived refugees and migrants were encouraged to take control of their learning through drama activities (Cocks and Dix, 2012). The project aimed to support young learners' social and per-

sonal development. Activities involved play, relaxation, engaging the body, imagination, spontaneity, emotion. There was a notable emphasis on developing students' listening skills through the improvised drama roles students performed; they were 'forced' to listen to each other and also encouraged to 'take risks' with language. Spontaneity in Cocks and Dix' sense worked successfully. Operating in a dramatic world means that language can be put into context in order to aid understanding. For example, in one session participants were struggling to understand the meaning of the word, 'generous', but after incorporating the word in different scenarios, it became clear (Cocks and Dix 2012:98).

Drawing on Freire's (2000) critical pedagogy, Cocks and Dix argued for a learner-centred curriculum where students challenge traditional roles and they critically engage with the learning process through the 'magic box' reflection activity: 'learners take turns to articulate their response to the session' (Cocks and Dix 2012:99). The use of fiction allowed students to explore 'issues of conflict and their new lives' in a 'safe' space. Emotional involvement was reported positive and students were motivated to communicate with the exception of few students who were reluctant to take part due to literacy issues. Bringing drama into English language teaching in a migrant context is likely to 'empower' learners and bridge the 'divide' between teacher space and learner area which is common in traditional teaching environments (Cocks and Dix 2012). What if these learners and teachers come from a war background and have shared displacement experience? How can drama assist learners in such contexts without triggering traumatic reminiscence? How does 'taking risk' with language sound to refugees who may or may not like to take risks after they crossed the borders seeking peace in exile? In Zataari refugee camp in Jordan, for instance, *King Lear* was enacted by Syrian refugee children with the direction of the Syrian actor Nawar Bulbul who himself fled Syria because of a play he produced which was thought to be opposing the regime (New York Times, March 2014). Although the play was performed in children's mother tongue and was not part of a school programme, the message it sent on the conflict between hypocrisy and honesty was reported to inspire young refugees.

When each of Lear's first two daughters tricked him with false flattery in elegant, formal Arabic, the chorus members yelled "Liar! Hypocrite!" until the sisters told them to shut up. And when the third sister refused to follow suit, the chorus members yelled "Truthful! Just!" until the king told them to shut up.

New York Times, March 2014

### 3.3.4 Education of Syrian refugees

Since the beginning of the Syrian crisis, neighbouring countries and NGOs have taken emergency procedures to accommodate the humanitarian needs of the displaced Syrian population across the borders. The *Syria Crisis Education Strategic Paper* which came out of London 2016 Conference lays out the crisis response in Syria and five host countries: Turkey, Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq and Egypt. Educational assistance varied between setting up schools for Syrian children and allowing them to access public schools. In Turkey, Temporary Education Centres (TECs) were set up. In terms of access and quality, these temporary educational centres turned out to be lacking. Students who managed to access these education centres face the barrier that their education is not accredited by the Turkish education system due to the ‘low quality of teaching’ (Jalbout, 2015). Taking into account the integration policy Turkey has adopted as the Syrian crisis gets protracted, İçduygu and Şimşek (2016: 66) point out that “‘even though the right to education is available for all, Syrian refugees had difficulties enrolling their children into the public-school system’”. This is due to “‘lack of any clear regulation indicating the formal procedures for the enrolment of the students’”. According to World Bank report on Turkey’s response to the Syrian refugee crisis (December 2015), there are several challenges which the Ministry of Education faces to provide quality and sustainable educational services to Syrian children. These include:

- (i) The high degree of *mobility* of the SuTP population, which results in school dropout;
- (ii) High levels of psychosocial *trauma*, which disrupts concentration;
- (iii) Difficulties in *retaining Syrian teachers*—most are unable to register for work permits and are paid modest stipends;
- (iv) The lack of *quality* control of services provided through CBE; and
- (v) Overcrowding, damage, and disruption to Turkish schools where double shifts are in place.

(Turkey’s Response to the Syrian Refugee Crisis and the Road Ahead 2015: 8)

According to Sanduvac (2016), in the 2015-2016 school year, ‘247,000 Syrian children were enrolled in TECs. Another 73,000 Syrian refugee children are enrolled in Turkish public schools where they follow the Turkish national curriculum’. On the other hand, the percentage of students out of school, according to UNICEF June 2015 report, reached 64% of Syrian refugee children in Turkey. The current research touches on this issue but it is certainly beyond

the scope of this study to address the issue as it requires larger scale interventions. As a researcher, I came across different needs beyond education which I will tackle in the section on Implications and Limitations.

### 3.4 Drama in refugee contexts

I will review the significance of drama in education with an emphasis on refugee contexts. I will do so by drawing on key elements in drama creativity, agency, aspirations and resilience which are crucial for refugee education. Then I will visit literature with relevance to the role of drama in teaching and learning practices. After exploring why drama is important, I will then move to how drama can be introduced to the English classroom.

#### 3.4.1 Why drama?

Like rituals, drama and theatre are ‘all means of trying to describe the various forms of larger than life representations involving dominant cultural symbols, artistic media, changes in roles, in a designated space’ (Boal 1979). The space created in drama corresponds to liminal space where ‘the past is momentarily negated, suspended, or abrogated, and the future has not yet begun, an instant of pure potentiality when everything, as it were trembles in the balance’ (Turner 1982:45). The teacher’s role hereby is to create and keep the balance between ‘the need [for students] to feel comfortable and protected enough to risk themselves in the invention’ and ‘the desire to motivate and inspire the group and the need to keep the activity controlled and manageable’ (Goode and Neelands 1990:7). Drama teaching can be classified into three main types as the following table illustrates:

<b>Text interpretation and performance</b>	<b>Improvisations and role play</b>	<b>Process drama</b>
Focuses on performance skills and communication through characterisation and vocal and physical dexterity	Involve spontaneous, active interactions that often simulate real-life events	Combines type 1 and 2 with more focus on imaginary world context within which the participants interact.

Table 1: drama types

(adapted from Stinson and Winston 2011: 481)

For drama teachers, selecting one approach or another depends largely on their students' needs, curriculum goals and access to resources. Drama serves a cathartic role and helps students to think, reflect and articulate their problems and dreams. It is a safe space for suppressed and suffocated voices and emotions in exile. After individuals explore and mirror their internal surges, they will be invited to share their experience collectively to make sense of their present. Balfour (2013) articulates below the importance of performance for refugees as a means of survival and coping:

They are in passage, no longer Laotian, certainly not Thai, and not quite sure where they will end up or what their lives will become. Betwixt and between worlds, suspended between past and future, they fall back on the performance ... as an empowering way of securing continuity and some semblance of stability. Moreover, through performance flexibility they can play with new identities, new strategies for adaptation and survival. The playful creativity of performance enables them to experiment with and invent a new 'camp culture; that is part affirmation of the past and part adaptive response to the exigencies of the present. (p.38-39)

#### **3.4.1.1 Drama as a creative tool**

Drama encourages the creative engagement of students by increasing their imaginative abilities through creating a 'make-believe' world. The 'as if' world of drama enables students to practice language 'in a way that mirrors the unpredictability of language use in the real world' (Dora To et al. 2014:43). Boal (1992) emphasised our ability as teachers and students to imagine and be creative. In the process of drama, more than language is involved such as 'facial expression, body language, intonation, gesture, mime, movement and space' (Cremin and McDonald 2013: 84) so teachers and students can create meanings "from past experiences that are carried into the present" (Iannone 2001 cited in Moore 2004:15). By using gestures and tone of voice while narrating stories, teachers draw on the spontaneous production of language in second language learning contexts (Kao and O'Neill 1998). Wagner (1998) elaborates on the role of drama in building learners' imagination:

Drama is powerful because its unique balance of thought and feeling makes learning exciting, challenging, relevant to real-life concerns, and enjoyable. Participants work imaginatively in role to construct contexts and events. (p.9)

Within these foreign language contexts, teachers often think that creativity 'must be sacrificed' when it comes to covering an exam-based curriculum (Hulse and Owens 2019: 18). In his book, *Learning Through Imagined Experience*, Neelands (1992) highlights the role of drama

as a teaching method and ways of using it to implement the National Curriculum which means it is still possible to use drama for this purpose. Winston (2004) further argues that drama sits *at the heart of the curriculum* due to its creative value which can be a way to teach any subject discipline. Once teachers try drama, they tend to be keen to use it again in future classes (Hulse and Owens 2019: 28). This is attributed to drama positive impact on language learning (Wagner 1998) such as enhanced spontaneity (O'Neill 1995), fluency and confidence in using language (Backstrom 1989). Creativity in drama goes beyond improving oral skills into developing other language skills such as grammar (Even 2011) and writing (Neelands 1993; Bayraktar and Okvuran 2012). Drama, in this sense, emphasises the need to combine cognitive, emotional, practical and kinaesthetic learning. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (1985, 1993, 2000) seems to be popular in advocating for teaching different language skills through drama in ways which correspond to students varied learning styles (e.g. Moore 2004). Gardner's analysis of drama or *bodily intelligence* (1997), however, does not reflect the social dimensions of learning (Nicholson 2014: 117) which makes it controversial to understanding drama as *ensemble* endeavour (Winston 2012). Drama's creative role therefore corresponds to Bruner's 'possible world' (1986) where students *together* make meaning by putting language into context.

#### **3.4.1.2 Drama for agency**

If drama offers the opportunity to collaboratively create a space for language in context (Davies 1990), it needs to empower participants to actively engage and be part of co-constructing such space. Within drama's 'liberating' context (Winston 2012), it becomes possible for students to engage emotionally and feel safe to express their 'voice', tell their narratives, and take risks with the target language (Doukmak 2019). Such learner-centred approach echoes Freire's call (1975) to involve students in thinking critically about their education and actively participate in dialogue with teacher and peers. Dialogue according to Edmiston (2015) becomes '*active* when meaning is made continually with young people rather than expecting them passively to receive or regurgitate information or ideas ... as if we were elsewhere or were other people, especially when we imagine we are characters in stories or people referred to in any narrative text' (p.3). Engaging in dialogue in a safe space enable learners to 'make their own choices ... and to find the language needed to express those choices' (Di Pietro 1987:2). The concept of agency in drama and theatre studies has been linked with *Intersubjectivity* as the latter helps us

understand how agency works in the process of meaning making which is integral to drama (Wright 2011). Schiller (2008) examined whether drama directly improves the social skills and academic performance of at-risk students in public middle school and found that:

drama not only gives young people the desire to learn, but also teaches them how to learn, creating a life-long ability for critical thinking skills. Research shows that at-risk students are at the greatest risk for failure in educational settings. Drama provides a reason for being engaged in school and connecting with peers and adults.

(Schiller 2008:24)

### **3.4.1.3 Drama for aspiration and resilience**

For vulnerable children, including refugees and restoring their voice and agency through drama enable us researchers to understand their needs, aspirations and the challenges which they face in their everyday life as refugees and which NGOs and governments require in order to plan their response policies (Doukmak 2019). Drama activities nurtures a voice or ‘capacity to aspire’ (Appadurai 2004). Such aspirations usually ‘dissolve into more densely local ideas about marriage, work, leisure, convenience, respectability, friendship, health, and virtue’ (p.68). For refugees and migrants, their lives are caught in liminality which mirrors the tension between reality and imagination: ‘following migration, everyday life becomes a constant negotiation whereby the migrants seek to reconcile their experiences with their hopes and dreams’ (Benson and O’Reilly 2009: 9). In adverse refugee contexts, the quest for good life becomes even more urgent as refugees strive to meet basic needs (Maslow 1970).

In addition to its impact on promoting aspirations, drama increases resilience or psychological strength in young people (Bancroft et al. 2008; Folostina et al. 2015). According to INEE (2010) resilience is based on ‘coping mechanisms and life skills such as problem-solving, the ability to seek support, motivation, optimism, faith, perseverance and resourcefulness. Resilience occurs when protective factors that support well-being are stronger than risk factors that cause harm’ (p.122). To understand resilience in refugee context, Pearce (2011) distinguishes between children who ‘demonstrate persistence’ when confronting challenges with those who ‘shy away’ from those adverse conditions. Pearce argues that whatever the cause of adversity, the child’s ability to cope with it is crucial to their development and future success as it empowers them to ‘try new experiences, accept challenges, and cope with frustrations and failures’ (p.17-18). Folostina et al. (2015) examined how play and drama can

influence the level of resilience in children who witnessed traumatic experiences and who as a result were likely to drop out of school, lack concentration and display aggressive behaviours. However, after introducing drama, children were found to have improved their concentration level, become more creative and cooperated well in groups (p. 2368).

The UNHCR publishes a regular resilience plan: Regional Refugee & Resilience Plan (3RP) to help understand and promote resilience in countries affected by the refugee crisis (e.g. UNHCR, 2016). The British Council recently produced a report: *Language for Resilience* (2016) which explored the role of language learning in increasing resilience of Syrian refugees and host communities in Jordan, Turkey, Lebanon and Kurdistan Region of Iraq. They found that individual resilience of refugees was enhanced when they were provided access to education. They developed transferrable skills and the potency for integration and social cohesion. In the context of English language learning among displaced populations, language learning was similarly found as a key to success (Ameen and Cinkara 2018). The study explored the resilience level of the displaced adolescents in camp and non-camp schools in Iraq. The study, which was aimed at Syrian refugees and IDPs in Iraq, revealed the role of English language in building resilience of participants. Similarly, Cinkara (2017) investigated the level of resilience among Syrian refugees in Gaziantep at tertiary level learning either English or Turkish. While participants pointed out the importance of Turkish to access employment opportunities, they showed an awareness of the role of English as an ‘academic development tool’ (p. 198). Other positive outcomes of high resilience were reflected in students to earn higher grades in school and to less drop from schools (Horn and Kojaku 2001). As a medium for learning language, drama generates ‘a healing space for the participants to reflect on their experiences, to articulate their memories, negotiate many of their unresolved feelings, and consequently to arrive at a deeper insight in the trauma in their lives’ (Kurahashi 2013:250). For young people under high level of adversity, it is essential to help them first find their aspirations and help them work towards achieving them as resilience acts as a ‘mediator’ of aspirations and achievement (Sanders et al. 2017).

### **3.4.2 Introducing drama to the English classroom**

This section presents implications for introducing drama to teaching and learning (Winston 2005:4). I will first review the contribution of drama to support teachers and students through

the roles which drama play in enhancing teaching and learning. I will then examine the role of the teacher as being central to designing and facilitating drama activities. I will also question the role of learners as active participants in the process. I will then draw on the value of using drama activities and techniques when beginning to implement drama by teachers with little or no background in the field of drama. The novelty of introducing drama has several advantages. I will tackle them in terms of educational functions: cognitive, social and affective (Liu 2002; O'Neill & Lambert 1982; Di Pietro, 1987; Wagner, 1988; O'Neill, 1995; Kao, 1994).

Drama has a cognitive function when it comes to learning a language. Ausubel et al. (1978) distinguished between rote learning and meaningful learning with the former involving less or no commitment on the part of the learner to relate new concepts with prior knowledge, while the latter encourages the learner to integrate new concepts with already existing knowledge. Drama promotes meaningful learning as it is likely to 'enable students to be actively involved in acquiring the language skills in a meaningful context' (Liu 2002:7). According to Vygotsky, cognitive development is 'rooted primarily in dialogue with others, i.e. interaction happens first and is subsequently internalised in an individual's mind' (Bryers et al. 2014). Within this cognitive process, students develop their literacy skills through gestures or 'writings in air' and writing which originally is linked to 'gestures, scribbling, and dramatic or symbolic play' (Vygotsky 1978 quoted in Gupta 2008:8). By acquiring literacy skills, students become prepared to effectively 'think in English' (Banerjee 2014:80) and so improve their fluency. Therefore, drama promotes language development through combining concrete and abstract knowledge or, as Wilhelm and Edmiston (1998:42) put it, gestures are one form in which students articulate their ideas in the foreign language:

Students create the meaning of text through their words – both written and spoken, kinaesthetically through the motion and positioning of their bodies, visually through their stance, artwork and observation of others, emotionally through their feelings often expressed in gesture, music or writing, intrapersonally as they create shared meanings by reacting, and responding to dramatic actions of others.

Davies (1990) similarly argues that 'drama strengthens the bond between thought and expression in language, provides practice of supra-segmentals and para-language, and offers good listening practice'. Developing cognitive abilities in drama can be sustained through 'interactive play' and 'children imagining themselves acting in worlds that are

developmentally a bit above their actual physical and intellectual level' (Vygotsky 1962 and Bruner 1983 as cited in Wagner 1998). As drama puts language into context it provides learners with experience of real-life situations and in a way increases their confidence for dealing with the world outside the classroom (Davies 1990:97) through a 'dialogic dance between mind and body create[ing] moments of insight that are both cognitively and physically experienced (Vettraino et al. 2017: 81).

In Vygotsky's terms, knowledge is acquired through social interaction. Drama is a medium of learning by doing (Dewey 1991); it is a social action which requires the learner to interact with peers or teacher to live the experience in its context. In the classroom, students are given the chance to 'work together, watch and listen to one another, talk through ideas and improvise together shape material and present it in groups' (Winston 2012:5). Working with others potentially builds communicative competence as Nunan (1992) explained it: 'the cooperative, supportive interaction among peers ... prepares them for real-life communication'. Winston elaborates on the social nature of drama:

The spirit that characterises such work at its best is that of the ensemble – where everyone supports everyone else for the benefits of the whole group. Such an atmosphere is necessarily founded on trust and co-operation and will, when achieved, encourage students to find their own voices, lose their inhibitions, contribute and speak out in class. (p.5)

Such a space will potentially enable students to take an active part as they become open to interacting with peers and the teacher. As they engage in communication with their peers, students become more 'sensitive listeners and more apt and mature conversationalists' (Liu 2008:7). So they can learn as audience and gradually build their confidence to participate. Apparently, participation could be dominated by outgoing students while shy students have little or no chance to speak. However, the 'collective endeavour will always involve struggle ... the important thing is to find value in the struggle, not simply to avoid it' (Winston 2004: 53).

According to Krashen's *affective filter hypothesis* (1985), language learners encounter affective challenges when learning a language such as anxiety and low self-esteem. In order to overcome these barriers, teachers need to create an affective space with a relaxing atmosphere so the

affective filter could be lowered, and students feel comfortable to learn (Piazzoli 2011). This corresponds with Boal's notion of 'affective dimension' (1995, 21) which allows students to 'become engaged emotionally with the thrill, tension or straightforward enjoyment of a developing story' (Winston 2012:3). Through drama, learners particularly shy ones are likely to 'blossom' or build their confidence through having the chance to 'think and act creatively' (Hayes 1984:10). One reason why drama is likely to 'evoke strong emotional responses' (Schewe 1998: 218) is that it involves one's own personality in the given act or scenario. In addition, drama plays a central role in creating a *context for interaction* as it 'temporarily suspends the classroom context in favour of new contexts, new roles, and new relationships' (Kao and O'Neil 1998:4). Once teachers create an affective space within drama activities, participants feel supported to 'take risks' to express themselves in a foreign language (Stinson 2008:201). This is a *therapeutic* space (Boal 1995) where participants tell stories from their past, but as audience we concentrate on their telling of the story, on the 'here and now'. One of the advantages of taking on roles in an 'as if' situation, according to Byron (1968), is that 'there can be significant shifts in role-relationship between teacher and pupil, and in particular where the power and responsibility lies in that role-relationship' (p.118) which enables introducing innovation and new roles to the classroom. Having explored the different roles of drama, I want now to focus on the position of the teacher in facilitating drama use in with their students.

### **3.4.2.1 Role of the teacher**

The role of the teacher comes first when we think of introducing drama to the English classroom. In order to implement drama, teachers of English as a foreign language need to learn to use dramatic resources to bridge the gap of their knowledge about drama as a subject; their priority is to apply drama as a method. Heathcote recommends *Edging in* where teachers start using drama from where they are and introduce it gradually such as the last five minutes of a class period (quoted in Liu 2010:31). During drama activities, the teacher is expected to 'guide interaction among students, eventually leading the drama to an appropriate conclusion ... through careful planning, initial structuring, and gradual fading of teacher assistance as students become more adept at guiding the drama to a conclusion (Necco et al. 1982:24). In Heathcote words, the teacher 'arrests attention, wins commitment, magnetizes, combining both a wildness and a control in ... their work' (Heathcote 1967:15).

Neelands (1998) acknowledges in his book *Beginning Drama* the constraints which teachers are likely to face when introducing drama such as short period of class, awkward spaces, large classes of pupils who are not committed to do drama. At the same time, Neelands urge teachers to develop their own understanding of drama within these constraints rather than following other people's 'recipes'. According to Neelands, beginning drama needs to be based on three dimensions: *knowledge, skills and experiences*. It is the responsibility of the teacher to develop these to bring drama to life in their classrooms. Winston (2004:30) advises teachers before they attempt to use drama in their classes to consider the following questions to find out how confident they are with using drama techniques:

- |   |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How often do you tell stories to your class?</li> <li>• How playful is your teaching?</li> <li>• Do you ever take on simple roles with your class to give added purpose to a <u>particular exercise</u>?</li> <li>• How flexible is your classroom organisation? Do you consciously use space and objects as part of your teaching?</li> <li>• How good are you at giving non-verbal cues to children?</li> <li>• Do you have any playful methods for issuing-in certain routines that do not involve giving instructions?</li> <li>• Do you use circle time to engage children in open-ended and non-judgmental discussion of social and moral issues?</li> </ul> |
|---|

*Table 2: Drama checklist for beginning teachers*

Heathcote (1967) introduced *Mantle of the expert* framework where the teacher introduces meaningful activities to support students to take on responsibilities of an expert team. The teacher's role is to set up conditions which build 'a mantle of leadership, knowledge, competency and understanding' in every child in ways which respond to their needs and interests (Heston, 1993). On the other hand, the teacher-in-role models the use of target language production such as vocabulary, syntax and registers so students can learn by observing (Heathcote and Bolton 1994). The central role of the learners starts from the teacher, right at the planning stage as the teacher is expected to take students' interests and needs into account alongside the curriculum objectives. This is to be followed up in the class by considering learners as 'co-constructor of the learning' (Aitken 2013:35). I will discuss the learner's role further in the following section.

### 3.4.2.2 Role of the learner

When reviewing drama literature, little attention has been given to learners' role in the introduction of drama to the classroom. Although teachers have played a 'catalyst' role in introducing and developing drama, without learners' 'co-constructive' response no progress can be maintained. Through drama, learners express their own personalities by drawing on their abilities, interests and imagination (Davies 1990:97). Therefore, children contribute with their own experiences to enrich the drama practice together with their peers and the teacher. This does not mean that children are trained to become actors for stage, but rather develop their personality for learning purposes (O'Neill 1995 cited in Anderson et al. 2008:11). By drawing on their personalities, students become actively engaged since 'personalisation makes language more meaningful and memorable than drilling or mechanical repetition can' (Phillips 2003 cited in Torrico 2015:7). Children are curious by nature and curiosity, when tapped into, largely drives their learning. Stephens (2007:1) clarifies this saying: 'when conditions allow children to satisfy curiosity through safe, self-initiated, and playful exploration, learning occurs naturally'. When children enjoy the activities and find them meaningful, they will want to *keep the flow going*; 'they want to play them again and again' (Pinter 2019:141). Mutual respect and trust in interactions between teacher and students are also influential in fostering emotional security which is likely to support learning (Department for Children, Schools and Families 2009). O'Toole (1999) explains this further:

When mutual trust is achieved, then the teacher can trust that the class will work toward the proposed objective, and the students can trust that their concerns and ideas will be respected. (p.103)

It is worth mentioning that promoting a learner-centred environment is not just the responsibility of the teacher; learners play a complementary role in sharing the responsibility unlike a typical classroom. From an interactionist perspective into SLA, students 'interact with others, they are actively engaged in negotiation of meaning, they express themselves by sharing ideas and opinions, and they are responsible for their own learning' (Anton 1999:303). The role of the learner in drama introduction and development needs to be further investigated by research.

### 3.4.2.3 Using drama activities and techniques

Playing drama games and activities help introduce drama techniques and conventions such as *freeze frame*, *tableaux*, *trust exercises* and *mirroring*. Such techniques are vital building blocks for drama work (Winston 2012) where children learn and practice using target language in a fun and safe space. For instance, the aim of using warm-up activities at the beginning of drama is to ‘relax everybody, mentally and physically, and reduce any inhibitions they may have’ (Scher and Verrall 1975, 2004: 41). Krashen (1982:21) recommends teachers to ‘strive for meaning first with structure to be acquired later’ (quoted in Pierto 1987:125). This encourages students’ fluency and motivation to take part in role play rather than be inhibited by making mistakes. Heathcote highlighted the importance of creating a setting which is distant from students’ real life, an imaginary world such as that in folk tales, where students can ‘explore alternatives’ (Wagner 1998: 4). In Heathcote’s role play where she aimed at changing students’ racial attitudes, she devised a fishing setting which is different to the one students lived in for the purpose of creating a distance and enabling the students to see through a fresh perspective and possibly change their attitudes (cited in Wagner 1998). Moreover, using fairy tales potentially provides a space for students to develop ideas using a familiar structure.

Winston (2012) provides a helpful framework with practical steps to implement drama in the classroom. The framework illustrates the importance of preparing students to ‘enter into the world of drama’ through warming activities and using props to set the context. Winston provides a framework to introduce drama such as fairy tales to students. He draws on key elements including: getting physical, using props, introducing roles, narrating the story and acting it out (2012:17-20). For an illustration, see Appendix 1. The afore-mentioned framework informed the design of the drama intervention in the current study as the researcher herself attended drama workshops with Joe Winston on the *Drama in ELT* module for MA students at Warwick University.

Having introduced a model to implement drama, it is worth considering that ‘the best drama work ... [involves] important safeguards such as *boundary setting* and *debriefing* that can protect the Promethean fire without quenching its flame’ (Anderson et al. 2008:11). Maley and Duff (1978,1982) proposed a relevant framework to understand a drama situation. The situation framework incorporates the essential elements in any real-life situation where we begin from

meaning and move to language from there as the following adapted table from Maley and Duff (1978,1982: 10-12) demonstrates:

<b>Setting</b>	involves the physical environment such as at the restaurant or at the dentist.
<b>Role and status</b>	imply students are sensitive to the way in which their views of their roles and those of others are defined and likely to change. In a dialogue between a dentist and a child, a dentist may say: ‘Come on now, put your head back. That’s right’, which is likely to differ when he talks to an adult patient.
<b>Mood, attitude and feeling</b>	engage students’ feelings and make them aware of the need to express themselves depending on mood and disposition of others.
<b>Shared knowledge</b>	involve the unspoken assumptions in any real-life situation which is lacking in traditional textbooks as they draw on artificial language, e.g. ‘the blue pencil is longer than the red one’. So what?

Table 3: Drama situation framework

Such approach sets a transitional guide for teachers who embrace traditional teaching and a teacher-centred approach where the teacher assumes total power in the class and tend to ‘teach language in vacuum’ (p. 11). Scher and Verrall (1975, 2004) gathered more than 100 practical ideas for teachers to implement drama. These include:

<b>Drama Ideas</b>	<b>Example</b>
Games	<i>Freeze</i>
The Spoken Word	<i>Fortunately, unfortunately</i>
Warm-ups, mime and movement	<i>Guess the mime (What’s my job?)</i>
Characters, props and costumes	<i>Making a call</i>
Situation drama and improvised plays	<i>At the doctor</i>
Technique	<i>Concentration</i>

Table 4: Drama ideas and examples

Through games, students are given the opportunity ‘to stand on their feet and move around’ such as the *Go,freeze* game. Games enable teachers to spot students with extroverted personality and to benefit from this attitude to influence other students (p.9). *The Spoken Word* idea introduces discussions as it gives everyone ‘the chance to have their say in an orderly manner’ (p.28). For instance, in *Fortunately, unfortunately* exercise, turn-taking involves listening to other students and encourages a collaborative atmosphere to keep the story going. Drama usually starts with a warm-up which aims to put students at ease and concentrate from the start of the lesson (p.41). Miming exercises can be a good trigger to introduce jobs such as

asking: ‘What’s my job’ and miming one’s job – a chef, teacher or mechanic (p.57). Similarly, character building and props are usually attractive to students and help them become aware of ‘other people’s personalities’ (p.62). *Making a call* gives an example of creating their own story such as phoning the police, one’s boyfriend or a repair man (p.68). In situational and improved drama, children are given the opportunity to work in a small group to resolve a conflict situation. Clear directions by teacher before students start this exercise are particularly essential to avoid confusion and chaos. This could be introducing the characters: patient and doctor in *At the doctor* example and a summary of the situation from characters’ perspectives (p. 79). The *Technique* exercises are usually associated with professional theatre acting. However, in these techniques, there are transferrable skills to be learned which students need to be aware of. Most importantly, these techniques should be used ‘when the need for it arises’ (p. 119). For example, the *Concentration* exercise ‘Close your eyes. Now listen to all the sounds outside this room’ helps ‘restore a calm atmosphere’ and could be used at the beginning of the class or any other time the teacher thinks appropriate (p.120). Scher and Verrall’s framework (1975, 2004) has also guided the design of the current intervention and therefore the reader has been invited to explore some of the above drama ideas in literature which were key to inform the current study.

### **3.5 Engaging refugee teachers with research interventions**

In this section, I will explore how teachers engage with research interventions first by reviewing approaches to teacher development and its importance in refugee contexts. I will then examine teachers’ engagement with/in research in different contexts and will shed light on some of the best practices.

#### **3.5.1 Teacher development: definitions and approaches**

In order to understand teacher development, we need first to examine some of the key definitions in literature and how those relate to engaging teachers in research. According to Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), teacher development can be viewed as developing teachers’ knowledge and skills that are likely to ‘increase their ability to provide improved opportunities to learn for all their pupils’ (p.2). There are different ways for teachers to develop such as taking

courses, studying for higher degrees or joining training programmes (Hargreaves 1992: 216) which are more focused on a specific teaching context such as observing experienced teachers. In teacher development terms, knowledge is viewed as that of the practitioner and it involves ‘constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and *engaging* in particular types of activities and processes’ (Richards, 1990:6). This approach calls for reviewing teaching from being a means of ‘transfer of knowledge’ to a model of ‘creating conditions for the co-construction of knowledge and understanding through social participation’ (Richards p. 10). In order to be effective, teacher development needs to engage teachers ‘both as learners and as teachers’ and should ‘allow them to struggle with the uncertainties that accompany each role’ (Hamond and Mclaughlin 1996:203):

- *Experiential*, engaging teachers in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection that illuminate the processes of learning and development
- Grounded in inquiry, reflection, and experimentation that are participant-driven...
- *Collaborative* and interactional, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on teachers’ communities of practice rather than individual teachers
- Connected to and derived from teachers’ work with their students
- *Sustained*, ongoing, and intensive, supported by modelling, coaching, and collective problem solving around specific problems of practice
- Connected to other aspects of school change

Another level which needs attention to ensure professional development is the presence of policies which support building the capacities of teachers and schools in a way which does not come across as top-down but rather constructed with teachers and practitioners taking their contextual conditions into account (Hamond and Mclaughlin 1996). Such positive policies tend to promote the following practices:

- decrease feeling isolated
- promote taking the position of learner
- open up opportunities to learn
- create a safe space where teachers can build trust and problem-solving skills
- encourage creativity with space, time and scale in schools
- promote a learner-centred approach

(adapted from Hamond and Mclaughlin 1996:217-218).

At the time that positive implications are reinforced, we as teacher development initiators need to be mindful of the way interventions are implemented. Peters (2004), for instance, warns that teacher development should avoid being too brief, non-contextual and ignoring teachers’ needs

(p.537). On the other hand, it is generally recognised that addressing dilemmas and constraints is an integral part of learning and change. Groundwater-Smith et al (2001) drew attention to the centrality of dilemmas to educators' work (p.551). Effective teacher development interventions are those which are 'supportive, facilitating and create opportunities for teachers to work together' (Hargreaves 1992: 230).

Considerable emphasis has been placed on reflection (Schön 1983) to promote teacher development (Zeichner and Tabachnick 2001). The latter introduced four dimensions for reflection: (1) academic, whereby subject matter is given a priority in students' learning ; (2) social, which highlights implementing strategies based on research into teaching; (3) developmentalist, promoting students' learning progress; and (4) social reconstructionalist which puts social and political contexts in the forefront of the agenda towards change (p.74).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) identified the connection between teacher development and educational change through bringing together contextual examples from Canada, England and the United States. For them, micro and macro issues in educational change, ranging from imposed change to school-university partnerships, give insight into understanding teacher development. Sikes (1992) contributed in Fullan and Hargreaves by reflecting on the importance of how teachers and school staff manage the imposed change. By doing so, teachers take 'control' and 'ownership' of the change which make it more meaningful and positive experience to them (p.49).

In their book 'Teacher Development Over Time', Woodward et al. (2018) suggest practical activities for language teachers who took part in longitudinal studies to promote teacher development. For example, 'Freirean Problem Solving' activity (p.121) encourages teachers to challenge the 'banking model' where teachers 'deposit' information in their students and it invites teachers to use problem-solving skills with less emphasis on 'one right answer'. The activity is proposed to help teachers relate to their teaching context and understand the constraints and resources of the classroom. It guides teachers through a brief introduction, materials, procedure and further reading for teachers to use as reference points.

In refugee contexts, the need for developing teacher education has received little attention from researchers and education providers. The INEE *Minimum Standards for Education* (2010) emphasise the importance of professional development for teachers in emergency contexts which include: access to training made available to male and female teachers, context-appropriate training, recognition by relevant authorities, classroom relevant content, ongoing support to teachers and knowledge and skills for formal and non-formal curricula (p. 83). This also involves building teachers' capacities, promoting teacher retention and improving the quality of education service in general (Ring and West 2015:112). The Afghanistan Teacher Education Program (2004), for instance, aimed at enabling long-term plans for teacher development and establishing teacher-resource centres. The initiative demonstrated that teacher development programmes are mostly based on anecdotal evidence of poor teaching methodology and give little attention to understanding the learning process among teachers.

Through the IRC's *Healing Classrooms Initiative*, an action research project aimed at supporting and developing teachers' capacities in crisis situations globally, special attention has been drawn to the role of teacher development programmes in fostering refugee children protection and well-being. The intervention, which addressed Eritrean refugees in a refugee camp in northern Ethiopia, offered teachers training through workshops and access to online programme on dealing with urgent issues related to camp education such as life-skills education, including reproductive health and HIV/AIDS. Despite the fact that 'many of the teachers ... only became teachers since fleeing their homes and have had little training or professional development to guide them in their work ... [except] their own experiences of being in school to inform their pedagogy', many of them took the opportunity to reflect on their experiences and to complete their own education through advanced adult education classes in the camp (Kirk and Winthrop 2007:716-720). The Eritrean refugees case sets an example of promising practices in times of emergency as teachers' role in the community is acknowledged and invested to ensure children protection and education.

In Palestine, the UNWRA Teacher Policy (2013) enabled pre-service teachers at universities and teacher training centres to join a teacher development preparation programme while being at school. The programme aimed at sustainable teacher development and growth with an emphasis on active pedagogy, promoting literacy and numeracy, and learner-centred approach.

The policy website included professional development and teaching which gave access to teachers to engage in sharing ideas with other teachers and through professional support.

In post conflict studies, the Rwandan Teacher Development and Management (2003) policy exemplifies an initiative to meet the challenges of implementing teacher professional development programmes among unqualified teachers. The TDM aimed at increasing teachers' motivation and retention by ensuring decent teacher pay and training incentives as well as conducting training at the school level. Limited provision of mentoring and supervisory support affected the implementation of the policy. In the case of South Sudan, teacher development and training are available for teachers working in refugee settings, yet these are usually ad hoc, one-off and lack certification. This is due to the host country's policy which allow NGOs to provide training but not certification (Richardson et al. 2018:45).

Mendenhall et al. (2015) reported a successful teacher training programme Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya. Refugee teachers had the opportunity to join a one-year practical diploma programme which addressed curriculum, pedagogy and content knowledge in a way which allowed teachers to still go to class in the morning and attend the training in the afternoon. Through this programme, teachers were able to implement the new skills in their classes. As a result, schools did not lose teachers who still received their salaries during the programme. In the Syrian crisis context, recent studies have focused on teachers' perceptions about curriculum development (Alyasin 2015, Mawed 2016). Culbertson and Constant (2015) conducted a large-scale study on the education of Syrian students in schools in neighbouring host countries: Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan. The study highlighted the need to prepare teachers to work with traumatised refugee children and reported training programmes provided teachers with pedagogical training such as on classroom management skills.

### **3.5.2 Engaging teachers with research**

To understand teacher engagement in/with research, it is important to examine what we mean by engagement. Borg (2010) defines the term 'research engagement' as including 'both engagement IN teacher research (i.e. by doing it) as well as engagement WITH research (i.e. by reading and using it)' (sic p. 391). The current study examines how teachers were engaged,

as active agents showing different responses, with the researcher to conduct the research intervention.

There has been an increasing emphasis recently on enabling teachers to do research in their own classrooms. Why would teachers engage in research at the time they are under pressure of meeting teaching and management obligations of their classrooms? Engaging in research, Firth (2016) argues, generates awareness by teachers of their teaching practice and it also builds their skills ‘to evaluate findings from the literature and to use them for their own research-based interventions’. Such awareness will render more effective when teachers are encouraged to ‘co-create research evidence rather than simply us[e] it’ (p.162). This approach features ‘the emic’ perspective where teachers ‘can and do study their own development’ (Woodward et al. 2018: 198-199). Shifting the attention to engaging teachers with research puts greater emphasis on what teachers have learned from engaging with teacher development initiatives and how they used their understanding/skills in their own classrooms (Woodward et al. 2018: 198-199). Engagement of teachers with other teachers, according to Kennedy (2011:32), depends on the type of engagement teachers display and the extent of their shared concern; the deeper the concern about common issues, the more engaged the teachers will be such as in the case of shared problem-solving situation.

Level	Type of engagement	Extent of shared concern	Exemplification
1	Being beside others ( <i>Co-location</i> )	Common location	Colleagues in a staffroom Participants at an in-service course
2	Talking with others ( <i>Co-operation</i> )	Common interests	Stage partners (primary) or subject teachers (secondary) discussing curriculum
3	Engaging with others ( <i>Collaboration</i> )	Common problem or task	Colleagues involved in school-based action research project to address a shared problem

Table 5: Levels of engagement in collaborative CPD

Teachers who share common grounds of vision and drive for collaboration are considered to form a basis for a thriving learning community (Bolam et al. 2005; Wilson et al. 2008 cited in Kennedy 2011: 33).

### **3.5.3 How to engage teachers with research?**

Having reviewed how teacher development and engagement been approached in literature, I will move now to consider key aspects of how can research engage teachers with/in research. I will do so by focusing on the common barriers which teachers have to deal with and by visiting some of the strategies reported in literature on engagement good practices.

#### **3.5.3.1 Barriers to engagement**

Teachers are expected to engage with/in research, but less attention is given to the challenges which are likely to influence their engagement. Borg (2010) identified the following barriers to teacher research: ‘non-collaborative school culture; limitations in teachers’ awareness, beliefs, skills and knowledge; limited resources; de-motivational factors such as research efforts are not acknowledged by colleagues or managers; economic matters; leadership attributes and political issues’ (p.409):

Barrier	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Non-collaborative school culture</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Isolation of would-be teacher researchers</li> <li>• Lack of support or collaboration from colleagues and students</li> <li>• Factions of research-engaged and non research-engaged staff</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limitations in teachers' awareness, beliefs, skills and knowledge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fears that doing teacher research implies teachers are not competent</li> <li>• Concerns that doing and sharing research will make instructional 'problems' public (to learners and colleagues)</li> <li>• (Perceived) lack of skills and knowledge to do and disseminate research</li> <li>• Belief that findings will not be of interest or value to anyone</li> <li>• View of teacher rôle as knowledge consumer, not generator</li> <li>• Belief that research is done ON teachers rather than BY teachers</li> <li>• View of research as an academic, large-scale, statistical and technically difficult activity</li> <li>• Limited awareness of the value of professional development</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited resources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of time to do research, funds to support it, and access to literature</li> <li>• No expert support, internal or external</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demotivators</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teachers lack a good reason to do research</li> <li>• There is no tangible benefit (or reward) to them of being research-engaged</li> <li>• Their efforts are not acknowledged by colleagues or managers</li> <li>• No interest is shown in their work by the authorities</li> <li>• No opportunities to share the results of teacher research exist</li> <li>• Research is done but teachers lack any sense of ownership</li> <li>• Lack of clear structure/direction to guide teacher research</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economic matters</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Commercial schools maximize teacher workloads to make schools more profitable</li> <li>• Teachers are paid only for teaching time</li> <li>• Teachers are on part-time contracts</li> <li>• Teachers must do second job to earn a living</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leadership attributes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leaders do not support or may even actively discourage teacher research</li> <li>• Leaders themselves are not research-engaged</li> <li>• Leaders have limited awareness of and negative attitudes towards teacher research and professional development</li> <li>• Concerns that an interest in research will take teachers' attention away from their primary role as teachers</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political issues</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A desire (by teachers, school leaders, schools, and even society) to maintain the status quo</li> <li>• An enforceable requirement to conform to prescribed official curriculum</li> </ul>

Table 6: Barriers to teacher engagement

Lehtonen et al. (2016:187) similarly investigated barriers to research engagement in language centres in Finland. They found that teachers encountered the following barriers: no time for research engagement, lack of financial resources, lack of understanding research types and the benefits of professional development. When teachers engaged in research, they articulated the short support which they received when they engaged in research. The most pressing of these seems to be the lack of financial resources and consequently time to engage with/in research. Hargreaves (1997) used the term 'prisoners of time' to highlight the way 'particular

distributions and organizations of time' shaped teachers' practice in classroom, i.e. most of the teacher time should be spent in classroom teaching (p. 82). This involves 'limited time to cover the scope of the syllabus', 'no time to plan activities' and 'no financial compensation for research' (Sharma 2011:161). Le Fevre (2014) adds that 'if the level of risk [relating to educational change] is perceived to be too high, teachers will not engage in the pedagogical practices'. Boran (2018) explored whether research engagement enabled EFL teachers to experience more motivation and efficacy when they get involved in research. The study highlighted that teachers were de-motivated to participate in research when the school administration did not show interest in research and wanted the teachers to focus more on teaching. This is reflected in giving less or no priority to engage with/in research by teachers (Borg 2010). In their study on what teachers say about their engagement with research, Allison and Carey (2007) suggested that due to lack of mentoring and supervisory support, teachers felt reluctant to engage in research projects as they lacked confidence in their research methodology. They quoted the voice of a teacher who is experiencing this issue: 'need someone to help formulate questions, or talk through ideas' (p.70). Cochran-Smith & Lytle (1992) warned of major obstacles which hinder teachers from engaging in research (cited in Peters 2004:537).

While there is limited research into refugee teachers' engagement with research as most research tend to focus on refugee children education, most of the above barriers apply to refugee teachers depending on their specific contexts. According to *Saving the Children* report (2018), 'teachers of refugees need targeted support on how to teach refugee children. Teacher education should range from what teaching styles work best, to how to manage large class sizes, to how to teach different children at different learning levels, to how to support children's psychosocial recovery and cater for second language learners' (p. 37). Consequently, the need for teacher development for teachers in refugee context comes to the forefront and carries along its implications for the need of teacher engagement.

### **3.5.3.2 Best practices to engage teachers**

There is no one best practice that fits all contexts. However, there are lessons to be learned from good practices in terms of engaging teachers with research interventions. A toolkit for engaging teachers has been introduced by *Grantmakers for Education* (2014) which highlights the role

of teachers as ‘key stakeholders’ to ensure the quality of education. The toolkit addresses funders with advice on how to ‘learn from teachers, build engagement strategies, and design collaborative approaches to help create a framework that more deeply engages teachers in the design, planning and implementation of education reform and innovation’ (p.6). The toolkit presents a continuum of engaging strategies which range from informing teachers of tools for decision making, communication and feedback process (p.11). Key terms in engaging such as ‘collaboration and collegial support’ are getting recognised as ‘magic words’ to enable teacher engagement (Lehtonen, 2016:193). Peters (2004) argues that in order to ‘successfully engage in action research and associated practices, such as collaboration, critical reflection and professional reading and writing, more information is needed about the conditions that support or impede these practices’ (p.537). For teachers, they will engage with/in research most when it is linked to developing career prospects or as Borg (2010) put it ‘for personal and professional reasons rather than due to external forces such as promotion or employer pressure’ (p. 408). Goswami and Stillman's (1987) called for considering teachers as agents for change who are able to transform education through teacher research:

when teachers do research: [they] become theorists, articulating their intentions, testing their assumptions, and finding connections with practice.... [Teachers] step up their use of resources; they form networks; and they become more active professionally.... They become rich resources who can provide the profession with information it simply doesn't have ... they become critical, responsive readers and users of current research ... they collaborate with their students to answer questions important to both, drawing on community resources in new and unexpected ways. The nature of classroom discourse changes when inquiry begins

(cited in Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999:276)

Lehtonen et al. (2015) provided an account of a teacher engagement in/with research through the voice of a teacher who joined two pedagogy courses and who reflected on her professional development path. The account underlined the importance of ‘organisational support structure’ in enabling the teacher to develop prospects of engagement. Banegas et al. (2013) reported a successful engagement experience by a group of EFL teachers who collaborated to investigate their teaching practices through an action research project. The group contributed to improving the learning opportunities for their students through increasing students’ autonomy and motivation as a result of interaction with teachers who already showed high motivation and autonomy levels.

Another good example of positive teacher engagement is illustrated by Smith and Kuchah's (2016) report on *Cameroon English Language and Literature Teachers Association* (CAMELTA) group in Cameroon which was established in 2001. The group aims at 'helping teachers who are working in difficult circumstances to overcome day-to-day challenges, as an antidote to top-down directives from Ministry officials, donor agencies, or other "outside experts" who may be less well positioned to understand the actual classroom realities that teachers and learners encounter' (Smith and Kuchah 2016:220). The group promoted teacher development for teachers through reflecting on their teaching and sharing good practice with other teachers nationally through conferences and online interaction. Through such insights to 'local knowledge' Geertz's (1983), it becomes possible for teachers to develop communities of practice where teachers can 'build knowledge collaboratively' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999:291).

In refugee contexts, recent initiatives such as *Teachers in Crisis Contexts Working Group* (TiCC), which was founded by INEE in 2014, give an example of a global inter-agency effort to engage teachers in professional development through enabling teachers to 'collaborate, learn and support each other, as well as provide access to tools, materials and guidance' from experts who are supporting the group. The group provides an open-source training pack for teachers in crisis situations including refugee settings. The designed pack seems to address primary school level only and there needs to be a set of efforts to meet secondary and tertiary level education. An enlightening blog (Angong 2017), by a teacher from Kakuma refugee camp, gives a promising example of how TiCC resources have been used to support teachers in Kenya. The *Teachers for Teachers* training programme adopts a continuous professional development approach: 'peer coaching' through which teachers work in small groups to share experiences, challenges and potential solutions. In addition to learning about up-to-date research on teaching practices and curriculum resources, teachers are encouraged to consider the different cultures of refugee students as Kakuma includes refugees from more than seven countries.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

Having reviewed various literature which feed into the main questions driving this study, I want to summarise some key issues which emerged from literature. These include the need to examine the public discourse on refugees which seems to shape refugees' agency. On the other

hand, by understanding the refugee experience as a liminal passage, where refugees are likely to develop solidarity as they live in uncertainty is a fertile chaos where change is more likely to be embraced to achieve 'utopian ideals'. In the field of education, liminality offers insights into the growing up culture into adulthood and realising aspirations through active learning. Among research practices, Action Research, through its participatory approach proved to correspond to study contexts of transitions as it promotes dialogue at a grassroots level. Refugee education is then visited with the purpose to learn lessons from other contexts before the argument about the need for developing refugee pedagogy is brought to the front and drawing on relevant pedagogies which are likely to contribute to understand the situation and empower individuals to take ownership of their learning. By arguing that drama can potentially advance refugee education, I move to highlight key roles of drama and relevant issues of using it by beginning teachers. Having established the significance of drama for refugees, I then reviewed arguments on engagement *with research* versus *in research* with a focus on teachers and their interest in engaging in professional development. The wide range of literature I engaged with in this chapter illustrates the need to go beyond the limits of the linguistics discipline to learn from the wealth of existing literature on pressing refugee issues.

## **Chapter Four: Research Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter introduces the research framework of data collection for the first and second field work visits of the current research and several methods used for this purpose. Interest in liminality and drama education arose out of the first phase of field work to camp and urban schools in Kilis. At the same time, the urgent needs in the context meant I had to be guided by the context dynamics and correspond to emergent issues throughout the research process. Moreover, at the start of this study, there were no plenty literature about the education of Syrian refugees and most of the accounts coming from the field were journalists and NGOs reports. Therefore, it was important that I incorporate a context-relevant approach when writing up this thesis. The chapter draws on the underlying philosophy behind using the case study framework. Research questions are listed along with the key research phases. Discussion of ethical considerations that accompanied the data collection process follows. The chapter illustrates with pictures screenshots of data and data collection instruments on how data was gathered in the field and then represented in a PhD thesis. Interviews are classified, and relevant language issues are discussed. Videos, documents and pictures are elaborated as means of data collection. An insight into trust relationships is provided through interaction with participants and gatekeepers. The role of the researcher as a research tool is further acknowledged.

### **4.2 Research questions**

The current study is based on three main research questions which highlight the focus of the current study starting from an ethnographic perspective to describe educational needs of refugee teachers and students up to addressing those needs through a drama intervention and consequently examining the engagement levels by teachers who were expected to take the lead of the innovation.

1. What are the educational needs and experiences of Syrian students and teachers in refugee settings?
2. What contribution does drama make to improving the teaching and learning situation?

3. How do Syrian refugee teachers engage in the intervention and what are the implications for doing interventions in a refugee context?

The three questions are based on an overarching question which probes into understanding a refugee educational situation and how we, as researchers, may respond to meeting urgent needs which emerge throughout the research process. This could be done through collaboratively engaging refugee teachers in decision making and evaluation of the process. Each of the research questions could stand alone to be the main focus of a separate thesis due to the complex nature of the context where addressing an educational concern in a crisis situation can be just a drop in the ocean. However, I wanted to combine them all to show the urgency of the situation. The following table shows the instruments used for collecting data to answer each question:

<b>Research question</b>	<b>Instruments of data collection</b>	<b>Participants</b>
RQ 1	Ethnographic field notes, diaries, classroom observation, interviews, audio recordings, video recordings, chats, interviews, documents, open sessions, photographs, Facebook chats,	Camp and city teachers and students
RQ 2	Classroom observation, audio recordings, video recordings, photographs, chats, interviews, open sessions, What's app communication	Camp and city teachers and students, city students
RQ 3	Drama workshops audio, video recordings and photographs, interviews, chats, peer observation, invites to attend classes where drama is implemented, written and oral feedback	Camp and city teachers

Table 7: Summary of data collected to answer the research questions

### 3.3 Research phases

By research phases, I mean the major time spent at collecting data in the field or honing research skills meanwhile. I want to clarify that this division aims to help the reader have a timeframe for understanding that research continued before and after the field visits through ongoing communication and following up on a changing context.

Number	Description	Duration	Date
1 <sup>st</sup> Phase	Ethnography in refugee camp	5 weeks	31/3/2014 - 4/5/2014
2 <sup>nd</sup> Phase	Intervention design at Warwick University	10 months (approx.) / 40 weeks	5/5/2014 - 2/3/2015
3 <sup>rd</sup> Phase	Drama Intervention in camp/city	3 months (approx.)/ 14 weeks	3/3/2015 - 6/6/2015

Table 8: Main research phases

### **1<sup>st</sup> Phase: Ethnography in refugee camp**

I spent five weeks in Kilis 1 refugee camp while undertaking ethnographic research in the school and beyond. I also made brief visits to schools in Kilis city. Ethnography involved observation and participant observation in the schools and in and out of camp observations.

### **2<sup>nd</sup> Phase: Intervention design**

The phase involved the time between the first field visit up to the start of the second visit. I spent most of that time re-visiting data collected from first visit, reviewing relevant literature and engaging with academics including supervisors, drama practitioners, conference colleagues in conversations on designing innovative approaches to teaching and learning. I also attended drama workshops on how to teach English through drama at the MA programme at Warwick University. With the refugee context in mind and keeping in touch with participants in the field, I designed the next phase.

### **3<sup>rd</sup> Phase: Drama intervention in camp/city**

The drama intervention involved planning, implementation and reflection. The initial plan was to collaborate with teachers of English over school term time. Main participants included 11 teachers from the camp and the city, and 12 other stakeholders from schools and within the community. I visited all the educational centres/schools in the city. I was interested in learning about the educational situation rather than that of one school. Most of the time, I will be referred to some teachers in a school and that was how I came to meet most other teachers.

In addition to school visits, I ran 8 drama sessions for teachers and NGO workers. The reason why I opened the workshop for participants who were not teachers was the demand to learn spoken English by NGO staff. And because teachers themselves were eager to improve their English-speaking skills, it was thought feasible to include mixed audience in the workshops. Not to mention that some English teachers also worked for NGOs. Through the workshops, teachers had the chance to experience drama ideas as students before they went to implement those ideas in their classes or what Woodward (2003) coined as ‘loop input’.

#### **4.4 Case study research framework**

This study illustrates a case study approach along the van Lier (2005:197) model with a more tendency to go towards the ethnographic end of the spectrum at the start and towards action research towards the end. Based on the understanding built through ethnography, interviews and documents, the intervention phase complements this understanding by embracing Lewin’s thought: ‘If you want truly to understand something, try to change it’ (cited in Tolman 1996:31). One of the key outcomes of combining ethnography and action research in the same case study, as this study demonstrates, is to capture more layers of understanding and not just depend on mere observation, i.e. through observation in action. By doing so, the case study contributed to alleviate the suffering (Turton 1996:96) of people living in extreme conditions as it intervened to empower them to take the lead of the change.

##### **4.4.1 What is a case?**

Ragin raised the question of what makes a case (1992) and attempted to understand the phenomenon by drawing on the common ground as well as different views of a wide array of quantitative and qualitative research studies. The production of a sound definition for a case study has resembled a ‘torment’ (Gerring 2007: 65) which reveals the dispute over what a case study involves. For Gerring, what makes a case study stand out from other research methods is its emphasis on ‘a single, relatively bounded unit’ (2007: 33). On how big a unit should be, Richards (2011:5) clarified that it could ‘range from a focus on individual teachers or learners to the educational policy of whole countries’ in whichever case the size of data collection may vary to a great extent. Most recently, Yin (2014) has provided a two-fold definition:

A case study investigates contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in its real-world

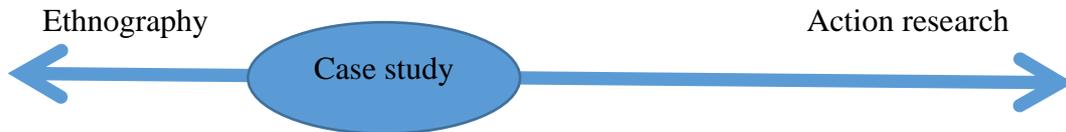
context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident. The second part of the definition points to case study design and data collection features (p.2).

Such emphasis on context foregrounds the contrast between experiment and qualitative case studies research where the researcher does not bring the participants to the lab but rather goes out to the field where the participants are (Gibbs, 2012). The phenomenon could be a person, an institution, an event or a place such as a refugee camp (Gibbs, 2012). And the desire to understand this blurred area between the context and the phenomenon is what distinguishes a case study from other kinds of research (Yin 2014:17). The current study sheds light on a real-world phenomenon but what makes it even more real, and probably challenging is that it reveals an on-going unpredictable course of events that echo what the educational situation in refugee camp and urban settlements looks like. Having said that, I still agree with Yin that boundaries are difficult to draw here; between the classroom phenomenon and the surrounding refugee context; in between there seems to be a fine line that could be very revealing in my case. The second part of the definition suggests that case study research is ‘an all-encompassing method’ (ibid.:17) which incorporates the approach to design and data collection techniques. In the fields of SLA and applied linguistics, case studies are also taken to be ‘contextual forms of research’ (van Lier 2005:197). A key challenge when we look at the context is to draw the boundaries around the case’ (van Lier 2005:197). Emphasis on context has been acknowledged by case study researchers such as Dyson and Genishi (2005):

A case, be it a community, a classroom, or a program, is not a separate entity but a located one, existent in some particular geographic, political, and cultural space and time (p.119-120).

The refugee case is similarly located in a geographic, political and cultural setting which makes it necessary to sketch the whole scene in order to understand the case at hand. It is worth pointing out that the camp and urban settings will be addressed together because I want to emphasise the issues in common. However, this is not to overlook the distinctive features of each. If case study research is to be placed at a distance from other qualitative research, one needs to consider how a case study intervenes in the setting. The degree of intervention in a case study is shaped to a great extent by its overlap with other research methods. ‘At the least intervention end research is more ethnographic, and at the more intervention end research becomes action research’ (van Lier 2005:197). The scale below, informed by van Lier model,

illustrates the continuum on which I position my case study whereby it is oriented towards ethnography in the first visit and more towards action research in the second visit:



*Figure 3: Case study model*

#### **4.4.2 How to describe a case?**

To understand the case under study, I shall place it within commonly known classifications:

##### **4.4.2.1 Intrinsic or instrumental case?**

If we describe a case study as intrinsic, it does not mean that ‘by studying it we learn about other cases or about general problem, but because we need to learn about that particular case’ (Stake 1995:3). By contrast, in an instrumental case study the purpose is ‘to accomplish something other than understanding this particular’ case (ibid. 3). The current study lends itself to instrumental case study research in the sense that there is an obligation to understand similar cases through it. Exploring the case of Kilis will have wider implications for understanding other Syrian refugee settlements in Turkey as it is expected to bring to light common issues of teaching and learning practices as well as practical considerations in those camps and urban areas. It is likely to touch on a number of prominent issues in all refugee settings in Turkey such as the adoption of a Syrian curriculum, Turkish management of the educational system, teachers’ status and criteria of selecting teachers and the accreditation of high school certificates. In Islahyieh (another refugee camp but less favourably situated than Kilis), for instance, a similar school system is established with Syrian teacher volunteers having low qualifications and no regular salaries. If we consider the fact that the Turkish government has built Kilis and other camps as a replication of a UN refugee camp, the case of Kilis is likely to inform our understanding of the broader refugee scene in the whole region. In countries like Lebanon, Jordan and Iraq, refugees receive similar education with the Syrian curriculum being imported from Syria and with students and teachers who are refugees themselves. If the case of Kilis has been explored in depth, it is likely to have important potentials for tackling similar matters of concern in other refugee settlements. The case selection therefore is made based on

contribution to a wider phenomenon; the refugee teaching and learning experience. The case selection therefore is made based on ‘its potential contribution’ (Richards 2011:7) to a wider phenomenon; the refugee teaching and learning experience.

#### **4.4.2.2 Descriptive, explanatory or evaluative?**

To further understand the nature of case study research, it is useful to look at the aspects that make a case study unique. When a case study highlights the intricacies of a situation, it is regarded as descriptive (Merriam 1988:14). In such a case, many factors will contribute and shape the given case study. The detailed description it aims to deliver is what distinguishes a descriptive case study and renders it as a straightforward approach. The detailed description it aims to deliver is what distinguishes a descriptive case study and renders it as a straightforward approach (Richards 2011:11). In the case of Kilis, my focus was not to explain how events happen using the cause and effect as explanatory case study function, nor was its concern to produce an ‘ultimate act of evaluation’ (Guba and Lincoln 1981:375 cited in Merriam 1988:28). On the contrary, it is meant to depict the current situation in the refugee settlements by presenting ‘a detailed account of the phenomenon’ rather than ‘hypothesising or theory testing’ (Merriam 1988:27).

Descriptions were developed during and soon after the field visits to illustrate the physical environment, events, actors, in short what it feels like to be present in this place at such time. What a school day looks like (see Context Chapter) is one of the episodes that shed light on how teachers and students practice their daily life inside and outside the classroom and what factors impact upon them in terms of contextual influence. Geertz (1973) has referred to the importance of developing a ‘thick description’ but I choose to refer to it a *re-production of the setting* through my co-constructed knowledge of the given context variables which could render thick or thin accounts depending on the possibility of access to the setting, people or events.

#### **4.4.2.3 Single or multiple case?**

A case study may consist of a single or multiple cases. Be it single or multiple, a case can be ‘holistic or have embedded subcases within an overall holistic case’ (Yin 2012:7). In terms of

the current study, it represents a single case of the teaching situation within a refugee camp and urban refugee settings and how life in these settings affect the embedded unit: the classroom. To understand the smaller unit, I thought it important to start from the wider context. Such an approach will make it possible to develop a rich picture of the idiosyncratic nature of the refugee settings and will enable the researcher to spot likely issues such as understanding the presence of small children in a twelfth or tenth grade English class.

One could say that it is still possible to trace these issues from inside the classroom out, but I would argue that this would likely give rise to questions the answers to which would require knowledge of the immediate environment in which the classroom is situated. Taking the example of the small children, it would not be possible to understand why students, in this case female students, would not consider having a child playing around as an unusual phenomenon within a study setting. Only if you live with these students in their cramped caravaneh space, will you be able to recognize that they would be studying and literally practicing their daily life activities in the presence of small children and people of all ages. Although it might be enlightening to know that most of the camp population come from rural areas where early marriage is a common cultural practice, it is still bewildering to see why a little child would be attending school with his/her mother. The picture becomes meaningful only when one familiarizes oneself with the school open-gate policy in the first place. Being able to interpret the holistic case is therefore seen as appropriate and even necessary to build a good understanding of the smaller unit rather than vice versa.

#### **4.4.3 What philosophy underlies this case study?**

My case study research assumes a 'relativist' position 'acknowledging multiple realities having multiple meanings, with findings that are observer dependent' (Yin 2014:17). Unlike a realist orientation to research which embraces a single objective reality, a relativist approach will 'capture the perspectives of different participants' (ibid.: 17) and such multiple constructed realities are likely to contribute to the reliability of the case study (ibid.: 47). In the classroom, the realities are captured through more than one channel; observation notes I have been jotting down, audio recording of lessons and video-taping by the hand of students (during the first visit); all of which demonstrate a distinctive dimension of the ongoing interaction in the classroom. This is not to claim that one channel is superior to the others; all are dealt with as

different sources of evidences constructing multiple realities seeking understanding to improve practice (Merriam 1988: xiii). A case study enquiry, Yin (2014:17) notes, 'relies on multiple sources of evidences with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion'. Such conversion of varying perspectives is what establishes the validity of qualitative studies (Guion et al. 2011:1). According to Merriam (1988:16-19), the principal purpose of qualitative research is to examine how people make sense of the experience. It is an effort to understand the nature of that setting - what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting (Patton 1985:1 cited in Merriam 1988:16-17).

If refugee students in their classroom are given the chance to express the meaning of their camp experience, they will reveal elements that I would not be able to discern no matter how immersed I strive to be. In fact, my understanding as a researcher will be enhanced by examining these elements that work together to produce the big picture (Merriam 1988:16). For instance, when I wanted to describe the classroom, I was mainly focusing on the physical setting and how people and objects were distributed in that location. Students in that classroom, when they video-record the lesson, chose to focus on other details of the setting; they chose to capture the border crossing from the window, as if they were opening my eyes to see beyond the immediate physical reality. Through their move, a new spectrum is illuminated. These students seem very aware of the war on the other side of the borders, of their position in the new setting and of their willingness to display themselves in the liminal space between the two spheres.

#### **4.4.4 Why Kilis Camp and City?**

Kilis is one of the six container refugee camps constructed by AFAD in Turkey and twenty-five refugee camps in Turkey and many more spreading in neighbouring countries. The camp has been described as a 'Perfect Refugee Camp' by the New York Times (2014). Interest in investigating this camp has also been triggered by the fact that it was the first camp where a school was constructed which became a model for similar school enterprises in the rest of refugee camps in Turkey. Kilis camp portrays the displacement story of all refugees who were forced to flee their hometowns and cities, cross the borders and cling to the hope of life beyond border crossing that separate them from the ongoing war in Syria. The camp therefore carries physical and symbolic value. It is situated exactly in parallel to Bab al-Salameh Border

Crossing and standing anywhere in the camp, one could see the large banner of the border crossing and the two flags of the neighbouring countries flying high; the Syrian post carrying the revolution flag. Having been denied access to the camp in the second visit, I expanded the case to include the city of Kilis. It is the close relationship between the city and the camp which made this expansion possible. Kilis city is the window for camp people to Turkey. They pay rare or frequent visits to the city for different reasons such as accessing health services and shopping. Not to mention that many families are split between the camp and the city. Also, many qualified camp residents seek job opportunities in the city. After the camp was denied access to any visitor, camp people are obliged to leave the camp to see their family members in the city.

#### **4.4.5 Why these participants?**

The teachers and students who participated in this study have been chosen on the basis of voluntary participation. I met with the teachers first and invited them to take part in the study. Afterwards, the teacher would either apologise or admit me into her/his class and then I would explain to students what the study I am doing involves, making it clear that students will have the chance to say if they want to take part and to withdraw at any point. In the first visit, ethical approvals were obtained through written forms. In the second visit, permission had to be obtained officially and therefore verbal consent was thought sufficient from teachers, students and other stakeholders. Participants in the two stages were living in the camp or the city having fled the conflict in Syria. Whether they would be coming to school from their container/caravaneh in the camp or a rented place in the city, students were secondary level and their shift was in the morning or afternoon.

Teacher participants were mostly volunteer teachers, with or without teaching qualifications. Some of them have been teaching at schools, others did private tutoring only. Interestingly, in the camp the boys' school principal also acted as an English teacher (the same post as he had occupied at the school earlier) filling a temporary vacancy of the class teacher who was visiting Syria at the time. The following table illustrates the group of participants in this study:

Participant groups	Number of participants	Data collection methods
1 <sup>st</sup> phase group	6 teachers (from camp) + 224 students from 2 schools	Classroom observation, participant observation, chats, lesson audio recordings, lesson video recordings, open sessions
2 <sup>nd</sup> phase group	5 teachers (from UK, Ireland, Spain, Kilis camp) from universities and schools	Interviews, Facebook chats, phone calls, Skype calls, classroom observation, email
3 <sup>rd</sup> phase group	13 teachers (from camp and city) + <300 students from 10 schools	Classroom observation, interviews, chats, lesson audio recordings, open sessions,

Table 9: Summary of participants in the research three phases

To have an idea about gender participation for teachers and students, the two tables below give a reference. The first one is for students from the first phase:

Grade	Number of Girls Students (142)	Number of Boys Students (82)
10th grade	67	32
11th grade	35	36
12th grade	40	14
<b>Total number</b>	<b>224</b>	

Table 10: Summary of student participants from 1<sup>st</sup> visit according to gender

The second table shows teacher participants from the third phase:

	Number of male teachers	Number of female teachers
	8	5
<b>Total number</b>	<b>13</b>	

Table 11: Summary of teacher participants from 2<sup>nd</sup> visit according to gender

## 4.5 Ethnography and Action Research: Conceptual Perspectives

### 4.5.1 Ethnography

I will introduce what ethnography is and locate it in the broad overview of knowledge. Then I will draw on general principles which are relevant to the current study. Ethnography is a combination of two words: 'ethno' referring to people and 'graphy' meaning writing, i.e.

‘studying people in their cultural context’ (Hammersley and Atkinson 2007). Ethnographic research is ontologically located in the interpretative perspective of knowledge where ‘there is no single “objective” truth or reality; because human existence and practices are all different, it acknowledges there are a number of realities’ (Draper 2015: 37); it is multiple-layered (Blommaert 2006:14). Epistemologically, ethnography emphasises the ‘dynamic process of knowledge gathering’ (Fabian 1986) where ‘knowledge construction is knowledge, the process is the product’ (Blommaert 2006:12).

Doing ethnographic research involves principles of practice (see Atkinson and Hammersley 1995). Principles include the way we understand ethnography; it is not just as a ‘method for social research but rather a way of thinking about social research that brings together a range of methods under a shared disposition’ (Mills and Morton 2013:2). So ethnographic researchers do not stop doing ethnography after a class observation or an interview. They continuously build their knowledge throughout the research process. Another principle that underpins doing ethnography is that it involves being ‘at risk’ (Haraway 1999, 190) from ‘being exposed to the profound complexities of the social and educational worlds of which ethnographic researchers are a part’ (Mills and Morton 2013:3). Encountering such complexities require an inquisitive approach where the researcher does not take things for granted but consider them as subjects for research. At the time that ethnography puts ethnographic researchers ‘at risk’, it requires empathy i.e. ‘the ability to understand and be attentive to the feelings of .. other[s]’ (Mills and Morton 2013:3). The emotional and intellectual risks in ethnography is what open up doors of knowledge. Finally, while doing ethnography, the researcher ‘should be concerned not simply with understanding the world but with applying its findings to bring about change’ (Atkinson and Hammersley 1995:14). In my ethnographic research, I attempt to address this question and I move on to use action research to bring about change.

#### **4.5.2 Action Research**

In order to understand the conceptual underpinning of action research, it is worth exploring where it is located theoretically and what are its main principles. The term Action Research was coined by Kurt Lewin (1946) in his attempt to resolve social conflict by advocating research as a tool leading to social action. Action research has been popular in the field of teacher education since the late 1960s. Schwab’s paper (1969) was influential in highlighting

the protests in the US against the Korean and Vietnam wars. Since then practitioner research became popular in response to educational and social change (McNiff 2013:43). Stenhouse advocated for the idea of teachers as researchers: 'Teachers should be the best judges of their own practice' (Stenhouse, 1975: 162 cited in McNiff 2013: 43). Action research is situated within a 'qualitative, interpretivist perspective' of knowledge (Taylor et al. 2006:4). Ontologically speaking, action research combines 'multiple values' and often these values are 'at odds' with each other. Knowledge in action research is something which action researchers do. It is a 'living process' where 'knowing becomes a holistic practice; the boundaries between theory and practice dissolve and fade away, because theory is lived in practice and practice becomes a form of living theory (McNiff 2013:35).

One of the key principles of doing action research is that it is 'a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such intervention' (Halsey 1972, cited in Cohen and Manion 1994:186). Having said that, the context-relevant information plus the general body of knowledge is what makes action research 'a powerful tool for change and improvement at the local level' (Cohen et al., 2000: 226) where the researcher is 'actively involved in the research process as an "agent of change".' (Gray 2004:374). This process involves 'systematic collection of information' (Bogdan and Biklen 1982: 215) which aims to bring about social change through ways that are 'democratic, participatory, empowering and life-enhancing' (Stringer 2014:29). Unlike conventional action research which comprises a set of cyclical steps (Kemmis and McTaggart 1988), in this study I understand action research as 'a process of learning from experience, a dialectical interplay between practice, reflection and learning' (McNiff 2013:13). For me, action research is a process which is done *in situ* yet has wider impacts for similar cases. It is done in collaboration with a team of regular participants and many others engage to different extents whereby the researcher develops their own as well other practitioners' practice through continuous evaluation and reflection. To give you a vision of what action research is, here is a diary description:

Action researcher is like a star; it turns around in the sphere of the context where it aims to bring about change. Towards the star, planets or participants rotate as close or as far as they are influenced by the change. These rotating planets build speed and effectiveness which in turn attract other planets to come to their orbits and to be influenced by the change. I am not claiming a new theory for action research but rather illustrating how action research works.

Diary 20-3-17

There are different types of AR approaches such as participatory action research, critical action research, classroom action research, action learning, action science among others (McNiff and Whitehead 2002:273-275). The current study adopts a participatory action research approach which advocates a ‘shared ownership of research projects, community-based analysis of social problems, and an orientation toward community action’ (McNiff and Whitehead 2002:273). What distinguishes participatory action research from other forms of social enquiry is that it places value on enabling action, advocating power to the researched and involving those who take part actively in the research process (Baum et al. 2006:854). I will now explore participatory action research further.

#### **4.5.2.1 Participatory Action Research**

Participatory Action Research (PAR) is democratic by nature as it promotes a non-hierarchical relationship between the researcher and participants. In PAR, knowledge is socially constructed and places emphasis on participation in that ‘everyone involved takes some responsibility during the research process (Greenwood and Levin 1998, quoted in Jacobs 2016:49). Such an approach stands out against the ‘individualistic’ approach to action research where teachers investigate teaching and learning in isolation (Richards and Freeman 1992). According to (Lykes 2013), PAR is a transformative praxis. The transformative nature implies that researchers should ‘not engage in research just for research’s sake but with the objective of leading to action and transformation’ (Worthen et al. 2019:157). The process of doing PAR involves ‘observing, documenting, analyzing, and interpreting characteristics, patterns, attributes, and meanings of human phenomena under study’ (Gillis & Jackson, 2002; Leininger, 1985 cited in MacDonald 2012:34). By combining different methods, PAR aims at capturing ‘the complexity of the phenomenon’ rather than a ‘reductionist understanding’ of what it involves (Jacobs 2019:165).

#### **4.5.2.2 Reflexivity**

In this section, I intend to reflect on the concept of ‘reflexivity’ which I tried to integrate into the writing of this thesis. I draw here on general issues and on how reflexivity was part of the research as well as the writing process of accounting for the research. For a researcher to be reflexive, they need to understand that ‘the knowledge of the world cannot be advanced apart

from their own knowledge of themselves and their position in the social world' (Gouldner 1970). Reflexivity engages in questions such as: 'How has this research transformed you? Has it penetrated deeply into your daily life and work? Has it varied your self-awareness of your work as a ... researcher?' (Gouldner 1970 cited in Robertson 2000:321).

Reflection in the field meant I had to process what was going on in terms of access negotiation and intervention procedures. At the time, I needed 'to digest the past, plan the future and live as much as possible in the present' (diary 13-4-15). That meant continuous reflection. In my diaries and journals, I was relating to the research context as well as integrating my personal feelings and thoughts into the research report (Finlay and Gough 2008:22). Feelings included stress, excitement, pain, loss, helplessness, homesickness and sadness. In the process of reflecting on research, I was wondering for instance 'Why should I experience living in a camp?' Although I was forced to leave my country, just like refugees, I was in a better position since I did not have to live in a refugee camp. That feeling would be triggered whenever I faced with dilemma. Two things kept me going and overlooking such feeling. First, I had a clear reason for going into refugee schools driven by my motivation to help children displaced because of the war. Second, I had no doubt that my research plan will not fail. So, I kept going and that made me respond to the context. Action research is a reflective process of progressive problem solving and it seems that through action-based inquiry teachers are enhanced to better understand and extend their professional activity as well as reflect on their teaching problems (Manesi and Betsi 2013:109). Potvin et al. (2010) argue that there is a place for reflexivity in PAR since the latter is 'the only means by which we can derive knowledge from others' actions and make sense of the way local conditions and contexts shape intervention actions and their effects' (p.446).

#### **4.6 Data Collection**

In this section, I present the data collection methods which I used in the current research.

## **4.6.1 Observation**

### **4.6.1.1 Why do observation in a case study?**

Observations, according to Stake, ‘work the researcher toward greater understanding of the case’ (1995:60). By noting down a detailed record of the events in the field, the qualitative researcher can ‘provide a relatively incontestable description for further analysis and ultimate reporting’ (Stake 1980:62). Researchers who can ‘develop an eye for detail in observing settings can collect an enormous wealth of data’ (Karp 1980:93 cited in Richards 2003:130). To do so, Richards suggests training oneself on how to observe as well as attend to ‘openness of viewpoint that snatches the unexpected and unguarded moment’ (2003:130). Before heading to the field, I honed my observation skills by observing some EAP classes at Warwick University in order to train my eyes to see and my mind to think of what is in the field. Because a case study is located in a real-world context, Yin calls it ‘direct observation’ which can range from formal to casual data gathering procedures (2014:113). Observation was used to build connections between different spaces. To be accurate, I was not a passive observer all the time. There were occasions when I took up different roles in the field and participated in the ‘actions being studied’ (Dewalt and Dewalt 2011 cited in Yin 2014:115) such as English teacher, invigilator, translator, mentor, interpreter, baby sitter, baker, and many more. The key advantage of being a participant observer is that it offers an ‘insider’ perspective within the case rather than looking at the case from an external position. Although the second visit adopted an interventionist approach, observation was key in guiding the action and consulting the participants’ responses.

### **4.6.1.2 Classroom observation**

During the first visit, thirty lessons were observed over the course of 5 weeks in the two secondary schools in the camp Peace Girls School and Freedom Boys School. An observation sheet was designed and was completed for each lesson. Observation involved examining the setting, distribution of students, activities and relationships such as teacher-student, student-teacher and student-student. The sheet included a space for drawing the physical setting and two-column table for lesson progress. Like many fieldworkers, I endeavoured to write down ‘everything possible’ (Delamont et al. 2008: 47) about the setting and lesson progression, noting what is usual and unusual. I arranged with teachers to invite me to their classes when

they want to use drama. Such invitations gave an indication that these teachers displayed varied levels of engagement. Three teachers invited me to observe seven classes each as the diagram below shows.

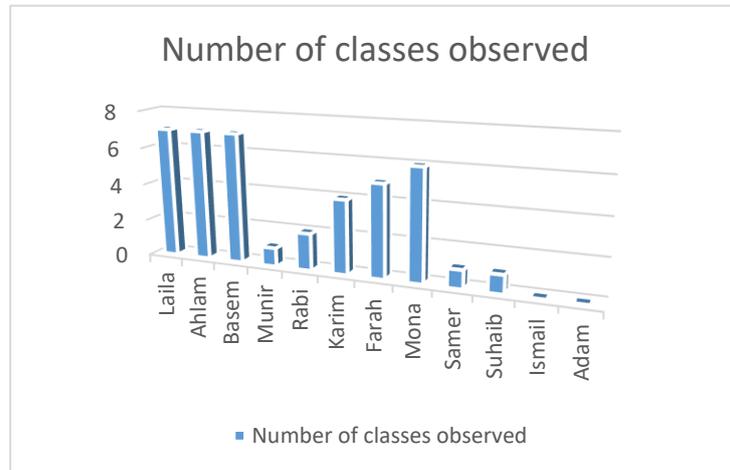


Figure 4: Classes observed during the drama intervention

Thirty-five lessons in total were observed in the second visit in order to see how teachers used drama ideas in their own classes having been to workshops or individual mentoring. My role shifted from being an observer into a guide observant who helped the teacher, when needed, with demonstration of drama techniques and ideas. The extent of my involvement largely depended on how confident the teachers felt about using drama. By time, teachers who were committed to the new practice showed considerable progress by trying drama games and stories without my support. Afterwards, they used to share their experiences and sometimes videos of the drama scenarios in their classes.

About seventeen observation notes have been recorded throughout the second fieldtrip. Although 35 audio recordings were reported, not all of them had been written on paper. Like field notes, observation notes were digitally reported using *EndNote* and *Notes* applications. Due to the nature of the context, it was not possible to write up the observation notes of lessons at the end of the day for two main reasons. First, the overwhelming context diverted attention to report major events of the day particularly with regard to access negotiations. Second, the purpose of observing the classes was not to report a purely descriptive account of the lessons. It was rather a constructive attempt between the researcher and the teacher to bring drama ideas

into life within a classroom context and after teachers have been exposed to these ideas before class. The observation note example below gives a glimpse into a ninth-grade afternoon lesson where the teacher requested *on the spot* that I demonstrate how to dramatise grammar examples. By *on the spot*, I want to emphasise that the teacher did not arrange that she wants demos by me before class. Besides, this teacher did not attend many workshops with the other teachers. So, it was a kind of improvisation for both of us.

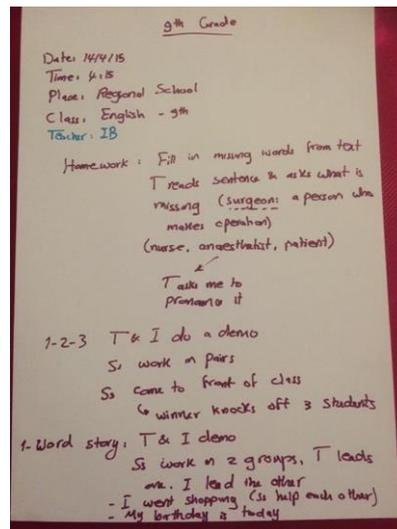


Figure 5: Class observation notes

#### 4.6.1.3 Open observation

Like an anthropologist, I went to live in the camp and later in the city which was another culture (Burgess 1990:11). And with the purpose to understand the classroom interaction experience between teachers and students, I started to observe the ins and outs of life outside the classroom and how it feeds into the classroom daily life. During observation, I wanted, as a qualitative case study researcher, to ‘let the occasion to tell the story, the situation, the problem, resolution or irresolution of the problem’ (Stake 1995:62). This is not to suggest that ‘life experiences are ... always cohesive stories’ (Emerson et al. 1995:16). On the contrary, by recounting what happened only after I could reach my pen and notebook at the end of the day, it has to be said that ‘most entries lack any overall structure which ties the day’s events into a story line with a point’ (Emerson et al. 1995:16). These fragments taking the form of fieldnotes would go through a textualisation process to make up a text making up narratives from the field.

#### 4.6.1.4 Fieldnotes

'Fieldwork is only as good as the fieldnotes, and the fieldnotes are only as good as the way(s) they are written, written up and analysed' (Delamont et al. 2008: 47). The field, however, will not allow such a smooth process. Although detailed fieldnotes were taken in the classroom, it was not possible to write them down in the field due to lack of space and time. For the reasons mentioned above, these had to be written down a bit later. In the second visit, it has been intended to use diary along with journal entries (see appendix for Data Set from second visit). The reason which lies behind it is the reciprocal relationship between the two. It is worth pointing out what each research method is taken to mean here before drawing out any distinctions. By diary I refer to the written-up text from the scattered fieldnotes. The latter were collected in a digital form through *Notes* and *Endnote* applications on *Apple* and earlier on a *Samsung* mobile phone. *Notes* is a default application while *Endnote* needs to be downloaded as it does not come in the default package. Below is an example of a field note (Endnote 14-3-15) and is followed by a written-up diary entry.

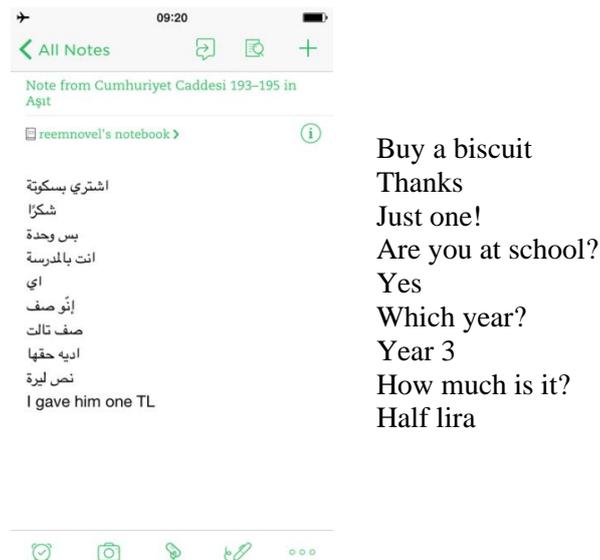


Figure 6: Field notes on EndNote

*I wanted to have fresh air so I sat in Muzzo café. The rain was drizzling but the fresh air didn't stop me from sitting in the chilly weather. A young girl approached me as I sipped my small Turkish tea glass and said Auntie please buy a biscuit from me. She was wrapping a scarf around her head like someone old did it for her. I asked her if she is at school and she said no. I am in the third grade but I should be in the sixth grade. You know we stopped for three years, she said as if I should know that she hasn't been going to school. I stopped going to school here after they asked for*

*50 Turkish liras. I wondered why and she shrugged her shoulders suggesting she had no clue. The little girl is now selling biscuits for half a TL (Turkish lira).*

Field notes 15-3-15

One may notice that the date of writing up the field notes is different from the one when the notes were taken in the field. This was due to the fact that writing continued late at night and resumed the morning after because I felt very drowsy and exhausted at night. The following written up fieldnotes illustrate the situation then:

*My hands are tired from typing. I wish I can pass the ideas from my brain onto the computer directly. I am lookgig aht the screen but my hands are tired.*

Field notes 11-4-15

*It is like a debt you have to pay, the more you borrow, the heavier your mind becomes and the more difficult it becomes to give it back. I wish there is a way for ideas to get immediately out of my mind.*

Field notes 13-4-15

Another worthwhile issue to note is the form in which the above notes were gathered. The dialogue spirit was maintained in the writing up as it may appear in other written up notes. However, it may sound difficult to distinguish between the voice of the researcher and that of the researched in the narrative. Typos were not uncommon as it is clear in entry 11-4-15 above. ‘lookgig aht’ means looking at. Journal entries were added at the end of the diary Word file and both were followed with the date of the day which they reported. The content of journals was mostly reflective of my status whether physical, psychological or emotional. Like diaries, journals contained typos because they were written late at night and it was not possible to proof-read them at the time. It should be emphasized though that diaries and journals did not always depend on fieldnotes; i.e. they were most written from memory-retained details. One main reason was that it was not always possible to write down notes due to being constantly on the move. Another reason was being busy and having to continuously follow up negotiations which made it difficult to make sense of what was going on during the day. It was only at night when I lied on my hard sofa bed when I was able to replay what happened during the day and to reflect on it. My reflections included my understanding of participants’ responses.

#### **4.6.1.5 Researcher as an ethnographic tool**

You cannot and should not be a ‘fly on the wall’ if you want to do ethnography, Emerson, Fretz and Shaw advised (1995:3). Although the metaphor seems to suggest an inappropriate neutral approach to the research field, it does imply the anchor position of a field researcher no matter how invisible they choose to be. To do ethnography, the field researcher has to “engage in the lives and concerns of the people studied” (Emerson et al. 1995:3). By doing so, the ethnographer tends to develop a perspective that is “intertwined with the phenomenon” (Mishler 1979:10) under study. It is not the ethnographer’s job ‘to determine “the truth” but to reveal the multiple truths apparent in others’ lives’ (Emerson et al. 1995:3). Equally important is the adaptation of the field researcher to the rules of the community being investigated. By joining the daily life of those people, the ethnographer ‘comes to enter into the matrix of meanings of the researched, to participate in their system of organized activities, and to feel subject to their code of moral regulation’ (Wax 1980:272-273).

Although I was not adopting ethnography in the sense of a research tradition, I used ethnographic techniques such as observing what goes on in the field, asking questions and referring to documents (Bassegy 1999:81 as cited in Richards 2009:9) to gather multiple sources of evidence as a means to convey the complexity of the natural context where my case was situated (Richards 2009:8). Being in a messy and complex setting, I was open to flexible and doable research methods. I found myself taking the approach of a recorder when it was not possible to record interviews with teachers and principals depending on my memory and modest mobile phone with a memo application through which I noted down 231 notes on the smart device. I tried to capture what was going on since I opened my eyes till the moment I put my head on AFAD pillow, day in day out over a five-week period to the extent that I had difficulty in switching off from the observation mode when I left the field.

Because it was a completely new environment to me, I also functioned as a camera by scanning the new places I encountered, such as the teachers’ lounge where it would not have been convenient to take pictures of the setting with teachers around. The room was always occupied by teachers preparing their lessons, correcting papers or chatting before their due class. If I took pictures, they won’t be representatives as there would be changes in furniture distribution and posters on the walls and even the characters who usually occupy this space. For instance,

Turkish teachers of the social centre will be sitting in a group round the big rectangular table and next to the window knitting and chatting in mysterious Turkish to me and to other Syrian teachers.

It is worth mentioning that observation focus at the beginning was more directed towards the physical setting, but it has to be said that the emotional landscape was so intense that I had to be attentive to both. Finding a connection between the physical setting and what people said to refer to it was something I found illuminating. On the door of one classroom, an A4 printed sign read 'Section 12' while you could see 8/4 handwritten on the door. The teacher explained, as we went on a tour around the school on the first day of my arrival that he and other teachers had been told by 'the Turks' to tell students off if they do that after walls and doors have been painted. He then commented with a moan, 'they misunderstood what freedom means' referring to rebellious students.

When a researcher functions as a research instrument, this does not mean that they become a machine. Intimate relations can develop with the participants as one lives and communicates with the people in the researched field. The principal of the girls' school, for instance, would express her worries about me having to leave the camp in order to obtain a new visit and would suggest that I stay with families she knew and trusted from outside the camp. The same principal would heartily exchange tears as I went to see her in her caravaneh and urged me to visit as soon as I could. Such intimacy makes me think of research as a cruel business, where relations with the participants reach a family level. In the end, one has to leave the field at one point and the luxury of being a member of that community becomes a memory. Rock (2001) comments on the position of the researcher when dealing with new settings and the role of combining an insider and outsider perspectives for a better understanding:

Venturing into terrain that is too alien will be disconcerting because it offers no paths and little reassurance that one is looking around oneself with an intelligent and informed eye. The new and the strange which is not too new and stranger may be the best compound, if only because ethnography demands a coming-together of the insider's understanding with the outsider's puzzlement, a state most often accomplished where the new is a little old, and the untoward familiar, where one may learn perspective through incongruity.

(Rock, 2001:33)

The reason I wanted to do ethnography in a refugee setting in the first place was because ethnography allows ‘a big net approach’ (Fetterman 1998:32) where the researcher does not enter the field with a fixed plan but rather be flexible to adapt the research methods as the field dictates. Life in a refugee camp, for instance, can be hard to predict taking into account the tight security measures by the camp authorities and the dearth of information coming out of these camps. Ethnography greatly depends on figuring out what life is really like when one joins a group and learn about this group through their daily interaction particularly in a messy and unpredictable environment. Appadurai (1991) explains the role of ethnography in capturing the migration experience:

As groups migrate, regroup in new locations, reconstruct their histories, and reconfigure their ethnic "projects," the ethno in ethnography takes on a slippery, nonlocalized quality, to which the descriptive practices of anthropology will have to respond. ... The task of ethnography now becomes the unraveling of a conundrum: what is the nature of locality, as a lived experience, in a globalized, de territorialized world?

(Appadurai 1991: 191,196)

#### **4.6.2 Interviews**

In qualitative research, to define what an interview is depends largely on the purpose and procedures involving the preparation and conduct of interviews. The definition provided by Burgess as ‘a conversation with a purpose’ (1984:102) is the guiding definition to illustrate the method used to conduct interviews here. In the camp, no formal record was kept of interviews; key ideas were captured and recorded in the diary completed at the end of the day. For example, through the chat with the English teacher, I learned that he had been serving in the army by joining the firefighting and rescue team. He told the heroic story of rescuing a child from fire when other rescue team members found it difficult to do so. Recording such conversations was not convenient at the time as it would create distance with the interviewee nor was it possible to write a report of what was said immediately after it took place due to the lack of private space both at school and in the caravaneh. The most important thing to mention here was that this chat took place on the day I was negotiating renewal of my visit with the gatekeepers of the Wali and the amount of stress it generated drafted my attention to a more serious business of extending my stay in the camp.

Interviews are said to be a ‘production of reflexive accounts’ when researchers ‘become more visible in their writing’ (Mann 2011:10). In this case, attention will be steered towards ‘representations of the researcher’ and not just ‘representations of the researched’. When I found it not possible to keep a record of most of the interviews in this study, I had to resort to second hand accounts, i.e. to my diary which I could grapple at the end of the day in order to describe and reflect on all the ‘difficulties, confusion and complexities’ (Clarke and Robertson 2001 cited in Mann 2011:10) I encountered throughout the day. These accounts display my own state as a researcher at that particular time and the lines of events that I found of particular interest when I was in the field. In the following example, one English teacher explained as he flipped through a year-five English course book what he used to do at the time he was teaching year five.

*‘We used to tell young students stories which they enjoyed. We used to do that when they disconnect and wanted something easy-flowing’. (A child from the host family knocks on the teacher’s lounge and told me the police came to pick me up). I had to pick up the course books, which the teacher lent, and hurry to the caravan to bring my papers and cameras. At that moment, I thought that access negotiation was done on my part and I don’t need to leave the camp.*

Diary 8-4-14

The field was a ‘mess’ which I had to live in, ‘understand’ and write about and so were the interviews. Not to mention the interruptions which access negotiation required, as the interruption in the above conversation with the English teacher evidenced and which Mikèné et al. (2013) consider as a ‘field-work reality’ when doing qualitative research. On understanding interviews, Bourdieu argues that interview relationship is a ‘social relation’ that has an effect on the results obtained (Bourdieu 2006:18) and the researcher has the task to ‘understand and master the distortions that are embedded in the structure of the relationship’ (Bourdieu 2006:18). The researcher can do so by adopting a ‘reflective and methodical’ approach that could be realized through being aware of one’s ‘presuppositions’ in the first place before attempting to engage with the knowledge of these presuppositions (Bourdieu 2006:18). This resonates with Mann’s conclusion that ‘all interviews are always already sites of social interaction where ideas, facts, views, and stories are collaboratively produced by interviewee and interviewer’ (Mann 2011:6). Whether the interaction requires analysis and whether to include it in the research report is a matter of conceiving interviews as ‘active’ relationship

(Mann 2011:6). Bourdieu emphasized the ‘active and methodical’ aspects of these relationships which should avoid the ‘pure laissez-faire of non-directive interview’. An interview has to strike a balance between ‘submission’ to the respondent’s account and ‘conscious or unconscious control’ by the researcher (Bourdieu 2006: 19). By doing so, the researcher can engage the participant with ‘reduced’ symbolic violence (Bourdieu 2006: 19). Although I ‘guided’ the interviews I conducted with refugees, participants were taking an ‘active’ role by taking the discussion to touch on issues that they wanted to raise and most of the time they would not answer my question; they were not listening.

As an attempt to understand the ongoing narrative, I thought it important to promote the voice of the researched. So, I included quotes of participants’ chat in the record I kept in my diary. However, my engagement with these and other reported events was again disrupted by key issues that emerged at that time such as the visit extension. The following extract illustrates the level of distraction from the school conversation I experienced at the time. I could be more reflective about the content of the conversation had I have no urgent issue of visit expiry that required immediate response.

*The teacher was enthusiastic to contribute to deliver a clear image of what is going on in Syrian. For him, the world is ‘ill-educated about our issue’. The principal further commented that they need help with producing a concise and meaningful message. ‘We want to make every use of your presence here’. I was furious when one police female member pushed me three times from the gate of the Wali. She’d say things in Turkish I didn’t understand and would follow it with ‘Memnou’ or ‘Rohi’ (which mean ‘Prohibited’ and ‘Go away’ respectively), to which I became deaf and was stubborn ‘I want to see the Wali’, I said in Arabic.*

Diary 8-4-14

It is worth noting that the conversation in the above extract was not literally interrupted as the previous example, yet the effect it had on me as a researcher was similar when writing up the fieldnotes at the end of the day.

#### **4.6.2.1 Why do interviews?**

Interviews can reveal deep meanings of ‘people’s experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations’ as they enable us to understand the ‘lived world from the perspective of the

participants involved' (Richards 2009:187). In a refugee context, interviews become pivotal when they complement the picture built through observation in the field and in the classroom. For instance, I used to chat with the teacher after the class to learn why there were fewer students attending the class on that day with the hope to obtain 'descriptions of an episode, a linkage, an explanation' (Stake 1995:65). The female English teacher would explain that most students were attending a ceremony in one of the two mosques in the camp for successfully completing recitation of some chapters from the Holy Quran. The event was organized by an Islamic charity from Bahrain to promote for students' religious education, as the Maths teacher explained at a later point. 'Well-informed interviews can provide ... short cuts to prior history of such situations, helping you to identify other relevant sources of evidence' (Yin 2014:113). These 'guided chats' were also useful to learn about the teacher's background, current living situations and their plans for the future. For example, one English teacher would express his ambition to come to the UK to experience the English culture which he learned about during his BA degree study of English Literature back home. Interestingly these exchanges enabled me to see beyond the immediate moment and helped me to answer some of the questions emerging in the field.

#### **4.6.2.2 Interviews in the city**

To set up an interview seemed like mission impossible in the current context. People are always on the move and catching them when they are not in a rush can be an *opportunity* for an interview. 'Walking interviews' illustrated an ideal technique for exploring issues around people's relationship with space' (Jones et al. 2008:2). The interviews conducted were aimed at teachers as well as school staff and community members who were seen to affect the teaching practice and experience of teachers. The difficulty of conducting interviews can be attributed to the busy environment. The teachers' lounge is where teachers were expected to be found when they are not teaching. In fact, they were always busy even during the break time. For instance, teachers and principals would be having a conversation on the latest test all school teachers had to sit and how it had no relevant questions to their teaching situations 'What is the name of the Prime Minister of Greece?'.

### 4.6.2.3 Language Issues

About 23 interviews were attempted. By attempt I want to emphasise the efforts which were put into making these interviews happen in the first place and maintaining them over. The interviews were conducted in one of the languages: English, Arabic and Turkish. It should be made clear, however, that as an interviewer I only used English and Arabic. I did not know Turkish at that time. There was more than one medium used on some occasions. When my interlocutor used Turkish during the interview, I was able with the help of an interpreter at the time or later, to access the interview content. To illustrate how the decisions were made to conduct the interview, it is worth examining the six scenarios within which the interviews took place (see Table 12 below).

Scenario	Medium of Interview	Participants' nationality	Example Interview
1	English	Syrian – Syrian	<u>Basem</u> & me
2	English	Syrian – English	<u>Siham</u> & me
3	Arabic	Syrian – Syrian	Ismail & me
4	Turkish	Syrian – Turkish – Syrian	Zahra, <u>Zaki</u> & me
5	Turkish & English	Syrian – Turkish	Khalil & me
6	English & Arabic	Syrian – Syrian	Laila & me

Table 12: Languages used in interviews

Language issues in interviews have been addressed in multilingual research (Giampapa and Lamoureux 2011; Androulakis 2013). Attia (2011) emphasized that the researcher will be in a good position to answer questions emerging from multilingual data analysis through ‘ongoing engagement with the data, reflection on multilingual practice, and articulation of research(er) experiences’ (cited in Mann 2016:221). On the occasions when Turkish was used, there were two scenarios (scenario 4 and 5). First the interviewee was incompetent in English. So Turkish was used to answer questions by participants when they found it hard to use English. The second scenario was having an interpreter who connected the interviewer and the interviewee. The interpreter will be using Arabic and Turkish for communication with both respectively. One might rightly assume that it will be more convenient to use the participants’ mother tongue which in this case was Arabic but there was an overriding reason to use English as a medium for interviewing. The use of English played an effective role in creating a professional *space*

for starting and keeping the interview going with less interruptions. Most interviews were conducted with teachers in the teachers' lounge according to their preference. When English was used, other teachers and administrative staff who sometimes happened to be present in the teachers' lounge were unable to take part in the conversation which was in a foreign language which not all teachers were able to understand. There was still the exception of the curious principal who took some courses before and found the English conversation a great opportunity to learn English. Interviews were of two sorts; formal and informal. The formal ones were arranged at a specific time and date. These were recorded. Informal chats happened on the move and these were recorded or reported in the written-up field notes.

#### **4.6.2.4 Open interview settings**

With regard to open conversations, those usually took place after and before class, throughout the school day or later in the evening. Due to the busy nature of life in the camp, it was hard to find a 'space' to conduct interviews. At school, there will always be teachers around in the teachers' lounge, principal's office and classrooms and even switching to another language might not be helpful. Thinking outside the school, there was the option of visiting these teachers in their homes or caravaneh and talking to them in their private space. This was similarly crowded; there would always be family, relatives, children and neighbours around who would more or less be part of the conversation and often would lead the ongoing exchange with very little chance for the teacher or principal to say what was on their mind. The option to carry the discussion further through social media platforms was not a success either. Participants who have accounts on a social medium like Facebook would be using it to socialize and would be using it on their mobile phone most of the time. Having no regular salaries meant those teachers could not top up their mobile phones to use the internet and that obviously made me abandon the idea of online communication. I can recall that I wanted to meet one of the teachers before the second school shift started but because he did not have sufficient balance on his mobile phone to use the internet, he did not receive my text and I ended up waiting for thirty minutes for him at school. Such realities made the settings of interviews or informal chats less controlled and more spontaneous. Through interviews, as a fieldworker I made the 'attempt to publish the history of a people, from the lips of the people themselves – giving a literal description of their labour, their earnings, their trials, and their sufferings ... to portray the conditions of their homes... families' (Mayhew, 1851: iii cited in Burgess 1990:102) and their views of their

situation.

#### **4.6.2.5 Semi-structured interviews**

In this kind of interviews, which took place towards the end of my visit to the camp, I focused on exploring some of the key issues which emerged during fieldwork. I interviewed the Turkish principal who was ‘in charge’ of the four schools (two schools with two shifts each). The interview took place in the principal’s office and on a tour around the camp as she introduced the social centres in the camp. I also arranged an interview on the phone with the education advisor to the Syrian interim government who was based in Istanbul. Throughout the interviews, I tried to provide ‘guidance and direction’, which refers to the structured aspect in the name given to such interviews and at the same time I would encourage the contribution of the interviewee to follow up on certain issues, which gives emphasis to the ‘semi’ quality of such interviews (Dörnyei 2007:136). The interviews were ‘based on an interview guide that identifies key topics that need to be covered’ (Richards 2009:186). These topics were emerging questions from the field which required urgent or long-term responses. For instance, I asked the Turkish principal whether it will be possible for Syrian students who graduate from high school to have their certificates recognised. The question emerged from my conversation with teachers and students before the interview took place.

#### **4.6.2.6 Open sessions with students**

It was possible to have open sessions with students as a whole class in two cases: when the teacher would be absent or when the teacher is present but did not feel like teaching. In the first case, the principal of the school would ask me to join a class though she would not directly ask me to teach them. The session involved answering students’ questions, listening to their thoughts and suggesting responses to the problems they raised. Other issues on how to understand and learn spoken English were raised and discussed with students with the presence and participation of the teacher of this class. The teacher would intervene on many occasions to make his own points which seem to reveal some teaching realities too. Although these open sessions were not part of the research method plan, I seized the opportunity to ‘probe beneath the surface ... to see things from the students’ perspective’ (Richards 2009:183) with due permission to record and use the recorded material.

### 4.6.3 Documents

In addition to word of mouth accounts, documents make it possible for things to be visible and events recorded (Prior 2004:375). Some researchers use the term artefacts to refer to documents which incorporate ‘the range of written and symbolic records kept by... participants in a social group’ (Goetz and LeCompte 1984:153). Documents collected from the field serve a two-fold purpose: giving details of school and classroom procedures and highlighting relevant issues in the camp. Documents from school varied between the school schedule, exam papers, names of students, photocopied course materials, a decree from the ministry of education in the interim government, paragraphs written by teacher and posters and drawings by students. Documents from the camp, on the other hand, ranged from ID of a camp resident, poems by a teacher, a psychology survey, a teacher’s letter to AFAD, etc.

Documents are a useful source of data to ‘furnish descriptive information, verify emerging hypotheses, advance new categories and hypotheses, offer historical understanding, track change and development’ (Merriam 1988:108). If you want to place yourself in a refugee camp, what value can data from documents add to understanding the refugee context? Take the poem produced by one of the teachers at school for instance. Such document revealed the view of a refugee teacher would want everyone around in the office to read it and he read it aloud himself to express his prediction of a failing education system. It is true that documentary data set is useful for qualitative case studies mainly because it ‘lends contextual richness and helps to ground an inquiry in the milieu of the writer. This grounding in real-world issues and day-to-day concerns is ultimately what the naturalistic inquiry is working toward (Guba and Lincoln 1981:234 cited in Merriam 1988:108).

Such evidence carries further significance when it is introduced by the participants themselves. They are not just guiding you to see what their life was like, but they also support you with written evidence of how you as a researcher should probably present it. Such individual’s written first-person accounts, as Taylor and Bogdan (1984:113) call them, reflect ‘life as it is lived without the interference of research’ (Selltiz et al. 1959:325). This poem (see Appendix 18) is part of a whole refugee newspaper project called *Refuge Newspaper: Pain and Hope* that

was under way at the time. A document sought by the researcher, on the other hand, usually falls under the category of public documents, i.e. ‘official or unofficial documents generated by or for the program’ (Patton 1980:152). By drawing on private and public documents as secondary data, I do not mean to favour one to the other; both are significant in their own terms with the former revealing a person’s attitudes, beliefs and view of the world’ (Merriam 1988:112) while the latter helps generate a more objective account of the phenomenon. Documents, in this study, generally include three main categories:

- Official documents (e.g. application forms, life guide, newspapers)
- Unofficial documents (e.g. contact notes, course book materials, business cards, school brochure)
- Others (e.g. election slip)

Below are four examples showing official, unofficial and other documents.



*Figure 7: Document examples*

#### 4.6.4 Photographs

Using photographs is a ‘creative and collaborative research tool’ (Winton 2016) which can be used as a means to ‘richly illuminate numerous aspects’ of the field and a visual aid which ‘can be integrated into reporting and presenting the research to others’ (Burns 1999: 101). For instance, photographs were taken during drama workshops of participants while taking part in the drama activities in order to keep record of the workshop and for the purpose of showing those pictures to other teachers who might be interested in joining the workshops but were not able to do so. In the following pictures, for instance, participants were photographed during two situation drama activities, the first being a journalist reporting from a village, the second a child being caught naked by his granny while dressing up.



*Photograph 13: Workshop - Journalist's report (photo: Doukmak)*



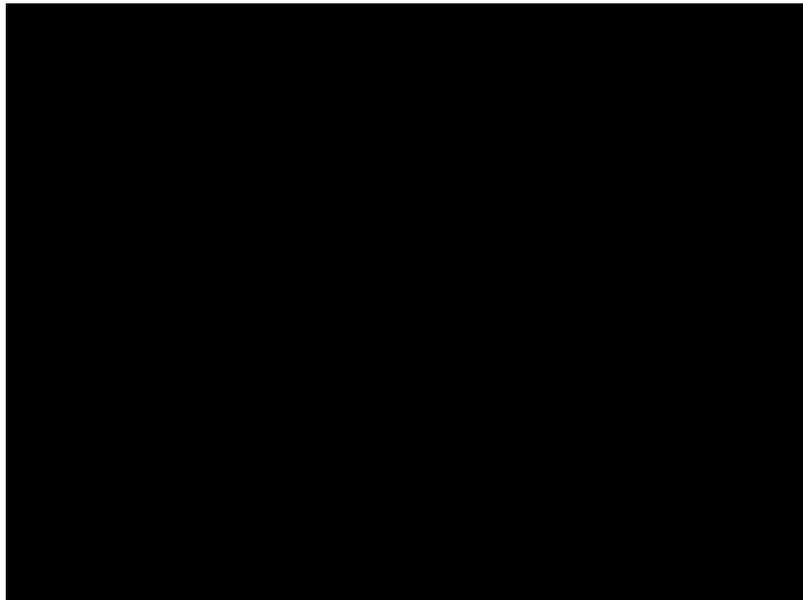
*Photograph 14: Workshop - Granny's sudden entry report (photo: Doukmak)*

#### **4.6.5 WhatsApp group**

The use of WhatsApp in social research is a newly emerging innovation which reflects ‘the social world shaped by Big Data and social media’ (Schutt 2016:10). As a means to facilitate communication with the group of participants who took part in the drama workshop, a WhatsApp group was created on 15 April 2015 for this purpose. The group comprised fifteen members, most of which are teachers of English in addition to the IBC Community Centre manager who had to join at the beginning and end of the sessions to let us in and lock the Community Centre at the end. A reminder will be sent to group members to make sure members remember to join the 2-5pm Sunday session. Members of the group also used the group for the following purposes:

- Posting pictures which members themselves took in the session with their mobile phones.
- Enquiring about the certificates at the end of the workshops and the required evaluation to receive a certificate.
- Reporting the political atmosphere and its impact (e.g. one member couldn't join the workshop because the camp was closed due to elections).
- Promoting for events in Kilis (e.g. fundraiser in Fatih school).

- Students' exam paper (a teacher was surprised by the mistakes which one student made).
- Final session group pictures.
- Apologies for not be able to join the workshop.
- Jokes.
- English versus Arabic translation humour
- WhatsApp update links.
- Pictures of classes where teachers used drama ideas.
- Q&A about the exam all teachers in Kilis had to take.
- Invitation to visit some teachers' classes.
- Call for boycotting Syrian bread after the price increased from 1.5 TL to 3 TL.



*Figure 8: WhatsApp group screenshots*

It should be clarified that these WhatsApp illustrations were screen shots taken in the UK at the time of writing up the thesis. Although I created the group with my Turkish number at the time I was in the field, I added my English number just in case. In fact, had I not done that, I would not be able to retrieve the WhatsApp chat threads because my Turkish number stopped. Even worse, the WhatsApp on my old phone which I used for my Turkish number also required re-installing and I lost all the WhatsApp chats there.

#### **4.6.6 Videos**

Video data is not very much used in action research. By using video cameras in research, it becomes possible to capture 'social life in motion' and it calls on research to develop their multimedia skills for research purposes (Bates 2014: 1-3). Out of the eight drama workshop sessions which were conducted over a two-month period, six were video-recorded. A camcorder was used to videotape the workshops. Two issues were worrying during the video

recording. First the space of the memory card was only 8GB. To record a three-hour session including a fifteen-minute break, an 8GB card was enough. However, the battery life lasted less than two hours and so a charger had to be connected to continue the recording. The red light which shows recording is on would flicker before the lens closes and the light goes off. The camcorder was first used in a stationery position but obviously that was taking a shot of one side only. The decision to carry the camcorder was to allow a panoramic view of the workshop. I started to videotape myself then I decided in the following session to ask a helper to do the job. It was hard to guide the session while carrying the camera around, I found. Helpers were volunteers who were invited to join the session or who worked in the IBC where the sessions were held. Below are two video shots comparing one stationery and another mobile camera positions. The first video shot illustrates a moment when participants were asked to freeze while doing yoga. The second shot shows the moment when the bears arrived. Apparently, the positions taken by the participants do not seem clear. So, the mobile camera shot gives advantage of a more panoramic view such as the setting and the participants including me as the conductor of the session.



*Video shot 1: Mobile camera shot*



*Video shot 2: Stationery camera shot*

#### 4.6.7 Drama intervention design

I will present here an overall insight into the design of the drama intervention as informed by the first visit to the field and second visit conversations with teachers. Appendix 15 illustrates the timeframe, attendance and content of the workshops (see section 6.3.6 on how drama emerged from the first visit). The following visual illustration summarizes the main steps of using drama in the second field visit:

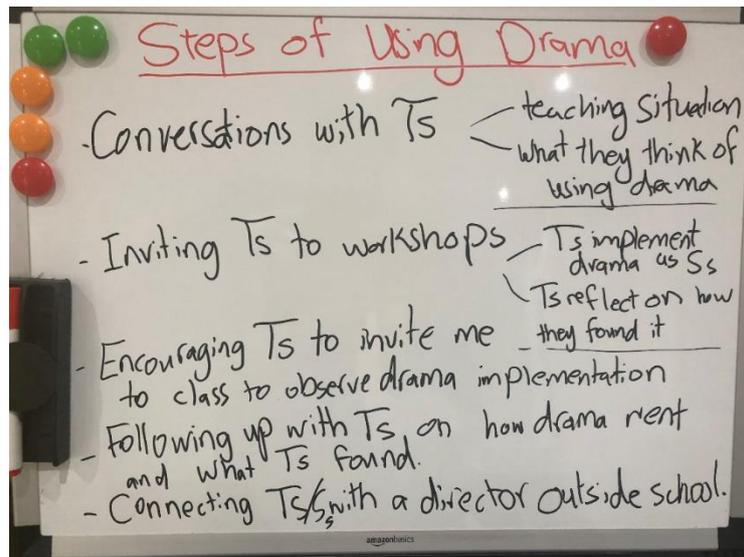


Figure 9: Steps of using drama

Before I started the drama workshops, I had conversations with the teachers about their teaching situation and if they used drama or any creative methods in teaching. These conversations were informative in terms of the role of teachers as collaborators who by supporting the design and implementation of the workshops shared ownership of the research (McNiff and Whitehead 2002:273). This involved planning the time, length, venue and other logistic issues. Teachers were also supportive throughout the implementation process with inviting other teachers to join the workshops by reporting on their own experience of joining the workshops. Overall, this stage was influential for teachers to learn about the intervention and for me to understand how to carry out the intervention in such context.

Once workshops were set up, teachers were invited to attend so they could experience as learners how drama works in a classroom setting. For this purpose, I set up a WhatsApp group to connect with teachers and to keep them posted about any changes. I also, at that stage, introduced the method of using drama and my interest in running drama workshops for teachers where they can have hands-on experience of what it is like to use drama in their classrooms.

I will now move to describe what it involved to run one of the drama workshops, e.g. the 3<sup>rd</sup> workshop. I will mainly draw on technical and research issues such as venue, participants, communication, publicity, session plan, drama materials, performance, outcomes, follow up conversations, research tools and researcher's reflection. The workshop took place in Ak Jern Centre, a community centre in Kilis city centre. It lasted for about three hours. Five male and female participants joined: four teachers and one NGO worker. The workshop was one of 8 workshops held every Sunday afternoon over two months. That was mainly because most teachers expressed their preference to attend the workshop at the weekend, so it does not clash with the school classes. Before the workshop, participants received a confirmation of the time and place through the WhatsApp group which was created to communicate information about workshops and resources. The plan of the 3<sup>rd</sup> drama workshop included activities and the fairy tale of *Beauty and the Beast*. I bought the book from a charity shop in Coventry while hunting for fairy tale books (see list of resources in Appendix). Here are the main activities:

- One-word story
- One-sentence story
- Fortunately / Unfortunately
- Antiques
- The Bears Are Coming
- Amazing A

To introduce *Beauty and the Beast*, the Walk/Freeze framework was introduced to prepare participants to meet the main characters: beast, old man and young daughter. The following screenshot from the workshop video shows one of the participants displaying a beast figure as a freeze frame.



*Video shot 3: Teacher freezing in a beast frame*

Participants were asked to walk and freeze then they were invited to show different frames such as old man leaning against his young daughter. As a facilitator, I encouraged other participants to comment on each freeze frame and to be constructively critical of each other performance. Afterwards, I narrated each scene separately and invited the participants to act each scene. At the end of each scene, I would say ‘Whoosh’ and that is when participants go back to their seats. Participants thought ‘Whoosh’ is like a magic word which makes everything disappear. Then I moved to narrate the following scene and they came to act it out and so on. Whole group work seemed fun to the participants and some were improvising how to perform certain lines. For instance, when the Beast captured Maurice and wanted to put him in the dungeon, the participant acting the role of the Beast headed to the door and mimed he is pushing the other participant ‘Maurice’ into the dungeon. Interestingly, one participant, more than others, was leading the other participants on what to do. The following screenshot illustrates the fight between Justen and the Beast.



*Video shot 4: Two teachers acting as Justen and the Beast*

Afterwards, participants were given the chance to act out the story with the recommendation to take turn in being the narrator who guides the group to act the scene out. I used a camcorder ‘Sony’ brand to videotape the session. At the beginning, I placed the camera still in one corner of the room. That is why it was not possible to capture what was happening beyond the scope of the camera. On the other hand, when I carried the camera in the latter part of the workshop, shots were not ideal either because I was constantly moving and trying to keep an eye on what the participants were doing. I made the materials of the workshops available after the workshop for teachers via a Facebook group: ‘Teachers of English Language in Kilis Camp’.



*Figure 10: Facebook group of English teachers in Kilis*

After joining the workshops, teachers were encouraged to invite me to attend classes where they implemented the drama ideas in their own classrooms. This enabled teachers to take an active role in planning classroom observation and preparation of resources they needed to carry out drama exercises and techniques. Figure 10, for example, shows the materials which one of the teachers prepared to teach Cinderella in her class. I met the teacher before the class and provided the book and the magic wand which I created for the workshop where teachers tried Cinderella as students. The fact that teachers had a hands-on experience during the workshops was meant to equip them with sustainable relevant skills rather than asking them to join the research for research's sake (Worthen et al. 2019:157). By involving teachers in different parts of the research, it became possible to capture the complex nature of the context under study from a community-based perspective which contributed to solve problems and make decisions (Ozer et al. 2016:152) to guide the research forward. Conversations with teachers continued after they invited me to their classes to ensure they had the opportunity to feedback on how the drama intervention went and to consider relevant issues in further classroom observations. In doing so, teachers shared the responsibility of evaluating action with the researcher and taking on roles where possible to lead the process. In a conversation with a teacher about implementing everyday scenarios with her students, she reported after class that she chose different scenarios to those she learnt about in the workshop (Chat with Ahlam 20-5-15). This teacher-led approach to build on the knowledge she received through the training seemed to enhance teachers' position in being agents of change in their own context. Ahlam and few other teachers, following up on post-workshop conversation, were also involved in creating a community drama group with a local director. Through contributing to a script about their educational experiences, along with their students, teachers' ownership of the intervention went beyond

school to promote their social engagement in addressing urgent issues which teachers and students were facing in their schools. As a researcher, I came to realise that opening up opportunities for relevant stakeholders through the PAR process can potentially build long-term support networks.

#### **4.7 Ethical complexities**

Between efforts to bring about benefits to refugee participants in social research and concerns to reduce the harms that could arise in the process of researching refugee environments (Block et al. 2012:1), the researcher should be ready to resolve any ‘anticipated barriers’ (Birman 2006:170) over the course of research. Such ‘dual imperatives’, as Jacobsen and Landau (2003:2) term it, are needed to meet the demands of ‘academic peers’ as well as to create an ‘influence’ on policy making institutions working with refugees. In fact, research influence goes beyond policy makers and academics and ‘transforms the phenomenon being studied’ in the research process (Finlay 2002:531 cited in Block et al. 2012:2). Bourdieu (1996) warned that researching disenfranchised groups could inflict ‘symbolic violence’ in the sense that the researcher might ‘misunderstand’ or ‘misinterpret’ the research participants; which seems to raise ‘ethical red flags’ according to Swartz 2011 (cited in Block et al. 2012:2). Symbolic violence is likely to occur ‘every time the investigator occupies a higher place in the social hierarchy’ and deprives the participants from any chance to negotiate the ‘rules of the game’ which the researcher sets earlier and continues to control through the research process (Bourdieu 1996:19 cited in Block et al. 2012:3). To resolve this complexity, Bourdieu calls for ‘reflexive practice’ of research which enables participants to ‘perceive and monitor on the spot’ (Bourdieu 1996:18). In refugee contexts, such practice allows young people to engage in ‘meaningful reflection on their lives while simultaneously producing findings of relevance to policy makers and service providers. At the same time, reflexivity is likely to ‘minimize’ the risks on research participants ‘rendered vulnerable through their relative powerlessness in encounters with researchers’ (Block et al. 2012:3). Ethical complexities, it must be noted, develop at two levels: ‘procedural ethics’ which seek consent through ethics committees and ‘ethics in practice’ which reveal ‘ethically important moments’ in the field and require immediate response in the given context (Guillemin and Gillam 2004 cited in Block 2012:2). Ethical complexities in this study will be addressed in terms of the access procedures, space issues, informed consent, participants’ rights to confidentiality and anonymity, trust relationships and finally implications for the researcher.

#### **4.7.1 Access and extension**

Access efforts started long before entering the field; around the end of October 2013. I first became in touch with one of the teachers in the camp school via her former teacher at Aleppo University who happened to be doing a postgraduate degree in the UK. Through this key contact (I shall call her primary contact), I had the opportunity to be connected with other teachers and school staff members whose advice and information helped me plan for my visit and obtain permission to accessing the camp. I tried to obtain initial approval from the school principals to visit the schools in the camp via my primary contact teacher. Having obtained that, I also wanted to check how camp visitors were allowed in the first place. Communications took place on Facebook. I learnt from my primary contact and four more school staff members (three teachers and a school principal) that visitors can obtain permission just at the camp entrance. One of the camp residents would submit an application requesting that their visitor be allowed in. Normally it is one of the immediate or extended family members who is allowed to visit, but exceptions such as friends and acquaintances are still possible if one knows one of the visit applications office staff who are based just at the right corner of the camp entrance. A visit would officially last 24 hours but could be renewed when the visitor is already inside the camp. In my case, I could extend it for two weeks before I was told that extension was no longer possible, and I had to leave the camp in order to be allowed access again. Extension was obtained through the school principal who had good relations with the Turkish principal of the nursery. But what is the role of the nursery principal in gaining access? I asked myself and then my primary contact this question even before I entered the camp. I was told that she enjoys a high status in the camp, but only after I had arrived in the camp and at some points of my research did I gain more insights into the answer.

#### **4.7.2 Whose space is it?**

Like most educational case data gathering, permission to gain access depends on identifying the key participants in the research. In a complicated hierarchal setting such as a refugee school, it is very important to identify the key actors in the research in order to know who has the power to give permission and could be involved in the research. Being the gatekeepers, the Turkish representatives played a key role in terms of providing permission to access the camp as well as to approving visit extensions. As far as the schools were concerned, they were managed by

Syrian principals at the time. As for city schools, an official permission was required from the Ministry of Education. Yet I needed to negotiate access each time I visited a school and was sometimes asked to share the times I wanted to visit the school.

#### **4.7.3 Informed Consent**

When participants provide their informed consents, they ‘voluntarily agree to participate in a research project, based on a full disclosure of pertinent information’ (Tymchuk 1992:128 cited in Morrow 1996:6). When participants are children, a ‘parallel process’ takes place in which the parent or guardian agrees their child to be the ‘a subject in the research’ (Tymchuk 1992:128 cited in Morrow 1996:6). Informed written consents have been obtained from teachers, students, parents and school principals (see Appendix 16 for an example). Consent letters were translated into Arabic before being delivered to all participants. Delivery of letters took place on the first occasion I met with the participants. Participants were given the chance to read the letter, ask for clarification and take the time to sign it. Teachers, students and principals were able to take the letter back home if they thought they need more time to consider the details of the letters. In the case of parents, an opt-out policy was deployed whereby students took consent forms back home for parents to sign and they would bring them signed if they were approved by their parents. I encountered moments in the field when participants would decline my request to observe or record and I had to respect their wish and take their well-being into account. In addition, the practice of video-record would be adjusted upon the request of students and teachers. For instance, girls would prefer to be recorded from the back of the classroom and the camera female student would respond to their preference. In boys’ classes, the camera was not an issue and students did not mind whichever position the camera male student took.

#### **4.7.4 Confidentiality and anonymity**

Issues of confidentiality can be challenging in refugee contexts. Considering the war background of participants and the involvement of young and old participants in the war scene across the borders, I had to take the questions of confidentiality very seriously. Any information revealed in this regard needed to avoid any ‘privity’ results (Fisher et al. 2002 cited in Birman 2006:169) and it would be only used according to the consent that the participants agreed to give; namely for research purposes. When the researcher is a member of the society in conflict,

this could be more problematic. The researcher in this case needs to be aware of this issue and should seek ‘sensitive ways’ to collect data (Chaitin 2003:1145). To maintain confidentiality, some researchers emphasized the importance of being proficient in the language of the refugees’ (Jacobson and Landau 2003 cited in Birman 2006:169). Identities of participants in this research were kept anonymous and pseudonyms were used to refer to participants in the research.

#### **4.7.5 Trust and relationships**

When researching a group of people, one will expect the people to be open and to be willing to give information. However, that might not be always the case. Normally a researcher will meet people for the first time, introduce the research and invite them to take part in the research or to help by providing useful information. Trust is a pillar in establishing and maintaining relationships with the participants. In the current study, the good will of participants played a large role in informing access negotiations and the course of action to be taken. However, there were situations when the researcher was viewed with mistrust and even accused of being a spy for the MI6.

Trust is crucial for a researcher who steps into a completely new space. Without trust it is extremely difficult to build sound relationships that win participants’ willingness to grant access to information and relations that could remain secret affairs for an outsider. I will highlight the trust relationship I constructed with participants and the significance of trust between camp population and camp management. Because I was admitted to the camp through my primary contact who I first came in touch with through her tutor at university when she was still in Syria, the camp people would usually associate me with her and they would count me as part of the family or more accurately ‘the family’s guest’. The social bonds that developed between us made it possible for me to extend my visit through other camp residents all of who mainly knew me through the school. Their trust allowed me to stay with their relatives who stayed out of the camp when I had to leave for a day or so and come back again. Although I came from the participants’ culture, it is worth noting that the time and space had obvious implications. It was not uncommon to hear about spies in the camp who worked for the regime in Syria. Therefore, I had to be open about my anti-regime stance in order to put hosts and camp people I came in touch with at ease. The Turkish presence was visible in the camp and had its implications for the relationships that developed between the Turkish ‘hosts’ and their Syrian

'guests'. Due to the 'insider' position that I gradually developed throughout my stay in the camp, I learned about sensitive issues in relation to camp people's attitudes towards Turkish management with regard to issues such as movement restriction, media coverage and water supply. I understood that revealing such issues at the time could create tension between the hosts and guests and so I had to keep them confidential. At the school, there would be also special groupings connecting Turkish and Syrian school community members. I managed to become a member of such groups and I would join the coffee time they used to have. For instance, I joined the family group that connected the Syrian-Turkish interpreter who acted as a 'mama' to the Turkish principal and some Syrian teachers. In such camp-produced communities, I learned about subtle issues about the hierarchy of the school structure and Turkish-Syrian relationships.

#### **4.8 Data analysis and representation**

In this section, I explain to the reader how data has been analysed and represented in the current study. I will draw on thematic analysis as the means for analysing the data then I will consider issues of representing the data in research outputs.

##### **4.8.1 Thematic analysis**

Conducting thematic analysis is most commonly used with textual data in qualitative research. It involves 'identifying and describing... themes' which emerge from the data. These themes are coded then to represent the identified themes (Guest et al. 2012:11). A key advantage of using thematic analysis is its 'flexible approach that can be modified' (Nowell et al. 2017:2) to meet 'pragmatic challenges related to managing, analyzing, and presenting the rich context-dependent data generated during fieldwork' (Abramson and Dohan 2015). Textual data in the current study range from transcripts of interviews and audio/video recordings from classroom and focus groups to ethnographic notes and narratives. Producing transcripts is itself a 'research activity' where recordings are closely examined to 'reveal previously unnoted recurring features of the organization of talk' (Atkinson and Heritage 1984). Narratives in ethnography, on the other hand, make 'data open and accessible' (Duneier 2011; Freese 2007). While in the first field visit, I used manual coding to identify main themes, I realised it will be useful to combine this with digital coding in the second visit as most ethnographic data was in digital

format such as diaries and journals (see Appendix 4 for an example of Nvivo coding). Analysing the data is followed by an interpretation process where the researcher is expected to draw on the ‘lessons learned’ Lincoln and Guba (1985) and to engage ‘creatively and critically in making carefully considered judgments about what is meaningful in the patterns, themes, and categories generated by analysis’ (Patton 2015). To verify the validity of the research, the inferences made by the researcher should be ‘supported by the data, and sensible in relation to earlier research’ (Perakyla 2011:365).

#### **4.8.2 Data representation**

Richards (2003) lists key techniques for representing data which include: claims, quotations, commentaries, narratives, photographs/documents and tables (p. 281-282). In the current study, I use the above techniques with varying levels. As the context and access displayed, data were handled earlier compared to a standard PhD thesis where data are usually dealt with in the findings chapter. The form of narratives corresponds to rethink the role of the researcher as a ‘storyteller’ who uses narratives to tell the story of participants while following in large part conventional structure of academic discourse (Holley and Colyar 2009:680). The researcher, therefore, has the right to challenge institutional representations for the purpose of representing ‘participants’ realities’. Taken the large database collected in both field visits, it was important to be guided by the research questions, which meant not all the data collected were possible to include in the data sets used to answer the research questions. As a researcher, I was part of the data. There has been a debate on the significance of including the researcher’s voice to reflect ‘the experience of interacting with social groups, cultures and institutions ... [projecting] different ‘selves’ in relation to those interactions’ (Walshaw 2008:325). Such positionality echoes the concept of ‘reflexive modernity’ (Beck’s 1992) where ‘individuals seek out by strategic means a coherent life story within a fractured landscape’.

#### **4.9 Conclusion**

This chapter explained the research questions and the research phases which illustrate the process of doing the current study. Being classified as a case study with two ends shows how the study proceeded from an ethnographic to a more participatory method. The underlying philosophy which informed the research methods was also highlighted making it possible to

the reader to understand the relativist position which the study embraced. The reflexive dimension of the study unpacks the role of the researcher as an ethnographic tool where other methods might be restricted. The discussion of the research methods, data collection and data representation tools used in this study invites the reader to think of technical and ethical issues when conducting research in a complex context such as the implication for building trust at top and bottom levels and how connections with participants in the field play a vital role in informing research access and practice. Questions such as how data can be represented once they are collected is raised and how using tools such as NVivo can help in engaging creatively and critically with the emerging themes and patterns from the data. The chapter urges us as researchers to consider adapting our research methodology to correspond to the context under study and to be reflexive when collecting, analysing and representing data so it becomes possible to learn from our research experience to inform future studies.

## Chapter Five: Access

*It is like a treadmill, the faster you think you go, you will reach your goal but in reality it takes you nowhere. You are moving in the same place.*

(Keith Richards, tutorial 2015)

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter functions as a bridge between the previous chapter of clarifying the research methodology used in this study and the following chapter which gives insights into the data collected and the analysis approach. I want to argue for the importance of tackling access as a phenomenon in itself as access is mostly denied to refugee contexts, and when it is permitted the process is often complicated and therefore is worth unpacking. The structured approach versus narrative approach contrast, in this chapter, reveals what it was like to negotiate access in the field; the fact that refugee agency tends to be administered by government and non-government organisations urges us to re-think refugee representation in research. This can be done by capturing the complexity of obtaining access, drawing on the voices of participants and being open about the process involved in interacting with this particular context. The chapter starts with a quote from second supervisor whose words seem to capture the concept of access in motion. It is worth mentioning that access has been a continuous negotiation process.

The chapter is particularly influential in shaping how the researcher came to build her understanding of access issues from early negotiations to the first visit and all the way through till end of the second field visit. This is depicted through the ethnographic lens which features in detailed narratives. Extending access to the field is also explored and the support of participants, who so much wanted the researcher to succeed, is considered. The chapter draws also on technical procedures which involved obtaining documents from supervisors and potential gatekeepers such as the Turkish Consulate in London and the Syrian Interim Government in Turkey. Travel and accommodation issues which the researcher encountered are also reported. A top down perspective into gaining access to the current context is provided by teacher trainers who were invited by NGOs to deliver a training programme. Recounting my access story to the current refugee context is particularly powerful in terms of depth and personal impact on me as a researcher. Being one fellow of the researched population gives an

extra involvement dimension. Fieldwork is not a straightforward work where “investigators leave their desks and go out into the field”, as Delamont (2004) points out. It is more like a maze, full of frustrations. Many routes will be blocked at some point and one will need to start from the beginning so many times. At the same time, access is a continuous story throughout the research journey. It had to be negotiated at different levels, often at the same time in order to secure a path forward.

## **5.2 Access negotiations**

### **5.2.1 Establishing contacts**

My first contact with the context started with conversations at Warwick University with a colleague who turned out to know some contacts in a refugee camp. Communication started in October 2013 with this initial contact who turned out to be a key contact to access the education scene in the current study. At the time, Maria was teaching in the secondary school in the camp. It was important for me to enquire about access to the camp since I had never been to one. According to Maria, a camp resident can apply for a visit for one of their relatives from outside the camp. The visit is only for a day and can be renewed for few more days. I clarified to Maria that I wanted to visit the camp for a month and I asked if I could stay with Maria’s family. She was welcoming. Maria warned that life in the camp is difficult. Maria was happy to answer my questions about access to the camp and schools. She was even happy to explore negotiating access even though I was still in the UK. For this purpose, she checked with a number of contacts such as the principal of boys’ school, teacher of religion and principal of girls’ school. I still wanted to explore if I can have access to school and to English classes. Maria came back to me after checking with the Syrian principal and she reported it was possible. However, she mentioned that there is a Turkish principal in the school. I forgot at the time to ask her whether that can be an issue. I also requested that she put me in contact with other English teachers in the school and she did connect me with three via Facebook. I messaged them and introduced myself and my interest in doing my research with them. The teachers were welcoming and offered to help as much as they can. At the time I was enquiring about access issues, I found myself engaging in other topics such as translation for one of the teachers who started working in an NGO and life in the UK for another teacher dreaming of coming to the UK.

I also knew someone who worked in the media office of the ‘Syrian National Council’, a representative of the Syrian opposition based in Turkey. I was referred to contact the deputy minister of the Ministry of Education to facilitate access. Having this official’s contact number was like Plan B for me if negotiations through Maria, did not work. At that time, as a Syrian, there was no requirement for me to obtain a visa. I took the plane from Istanbul Ataturk’s airport and arrived in Gaziantep within one hour. In the following section, I tell the full story of getting into Kilis camp.

### **5.2.2 Getting into Kilis Camp**

I finally managed to explain to the driver or to be accurate there was a Turkish driver with his son awaiting passengers for Kilis. I was lucky to meet a passenger from Aleppo who was able to clarify that I was on the right bus. I could tell from his conversation with the driver that it’s called ‘container’ rather than camp. The helpful passenger signalled me to get off at the last station of the bus and advised to wait in order to get on a bus that will take me to ‘Kilis Container’. I got off with my big bag and back bag as well as a small handbag. I waited in the sun looking around and trying to find a sign that shows where I am. The bus passed by and didn’t stop for me. I wasn’t sure what to do until a young man who stopped his car on the right side addressed me in Arabic and asked where I was going. I was suspicious of him at first especially when he offered me a lift. It was only when I looked into the car and was told it was a family that I accepted his offer. I found myself sitting next to two German journalists who were heading to Syria with the company of an interpreter who seemed to be their guide. They dropped me at the camp gate and the young man gave me his number in case I needed help with accessing the camp.

At the gate, there was a security member who approached me and asked in Turkish then he called on his wireless device ‘Mutarjem’ i.e. interpreter who soon appeared from inside. I explained to the interpreter that I am here to visit someone who is a teacher at school and he responded that she needs to come out herself in order to let me in. Families and kids were getting through after they put their cards on a scanning device which obviously was checking their IDs. The gate overlooked a big space, just after the highway that leads into Bab Al-Salameh crossing to Syria. The white small bus stood right opposite the camp.



*Photograph 13: Minibus dropping off passengers at Öncüpınar Crossing (photo: Doukmak)*

Because I didn't know how my host will look like I kept my eyes open at the young women coming from inside. They were three actually who came towards me or could recognise me from my travel bag. I was welcomed with a kiss and an apology about the problem with her phone. I could recognise her from her voice as I talked to her earlier on Skype. We had to go to the visit office to submit the visit application form my host brought with her from inside and to give two Syrian IDs: mine and that of my host's mother who was the one to allow me into her caravan under her name. They introduced me as her daughter-in-law to make things easier. I was given permission for twenty-four-hour visit only and the plan was to extend it once I was in. I accompanied the three ladies and their true daughter-in-law seemed to be stopped because of the laptop cable in the outside pocket of the travel bag. The bag was locked and they wanted to open it and check what was inside after they suspected it could contain 'prohibited' things according to them. The security office members were alert now and the female security guard beckoned me to open the locked travel bag. As soon as I opened it, the blonde female security member grabbed and opened every bag inside. The big shock was when she found the mini-tripod, borrowed from my supervisor, wrapped in a plastic bag. She held it and said words in Turkish. I had then to explain that I am a student and I was there on a mission for my study. The thing is I couldn't deliver that message and by the time I reached the document, the security lady carried on gathering more evidences that I was a journalist. I took out my document from university which requests access to the camp for research purposes. The security chair kept looking at the paper for a while. The document was in Turkish. I had to wait to see what was

next. The last decision that came from a phone call was to let me in with my clothes only and leave out everything else outside. They suggested to put them in ‘Amanat’ i.e. attended properties. So, I packed my clothes in the travel bag. When I stepped into the camp and as I was dragging my light travel bag, I had mixed feelings.



*Photograph 14: View of the camp where I stayed (photo: Doukmak)*

The excitement was still there despite the hard time they gave me. At the same time, I was disappointed that my data collection tools were confiscated. I looked around and it appeared a small city with stacks of containers, a ‘smurfs land’ as some camp tenants called it. There were people walking around. People holding stuff coming from outside the camp. I accompanied the host mother to her tiny uplifted dorm. With two windows and a metal door, we had to go up a step, a stone like those tiles that make pavement edges in order to get into the well-populated space.

### **5.2.3 Extending visit to the camp**

Communications started on the part of the principal of girls’ school to extend my visit for nine days. On the ninth day, I was asked to leave the camp. Continuous negotiations were useful, and I managed to have my visit extended one more day.



*Figure 11: Field note showing access negotiation*

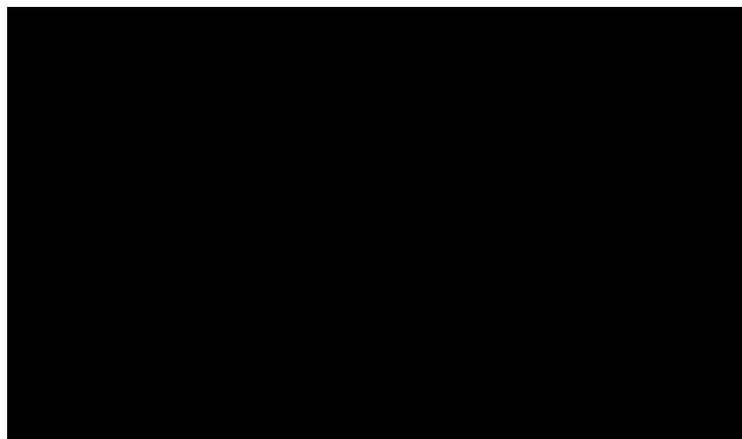
In the field note above, I report how I learnt about the expiry of my visit. The Police came to ‘collect’ me and throw me out of the camp. Negotiations were already underway through the camp security director. I was furious when one police female member pushed me three times from the gate of the Wali. She’d say things in Turkish I didn’t understand and would follow it with ‘Mamnou’ (i.e. Prohibited) or ‘Rohi’ (i.e. Go). If the Wali knew they didn’t prevent me from getting in, ‘they will be expelled from their job,’ one interpreter explained. When the police car came and they threatened me that they’ll kick me out if I don’t obey the rule, I realised they were serious, and I didn’t want that to happen. At the time of negotiating access, I had the perception that if I left the camp on that day my research will fail. As I think back of it, that gave me a chance to see what life was like outside the camp and how camp and urban life are related. One strategy I learned throughout the process of negotiating access is to think aloud, just like this narrative. That allowed the people around to suggest ways of help since they lived the ins and outs of the camp and they knew how things work. Their ways to help were not always successful. I was not in fact afraid but rather shocked at the thought that my project will be ruined. On many occasions I swallowed my tears before they fell. I could see some people sympathise with me but were helpless. ‘I wish I could help,’ the boys’ school principal lamented.

Although I had access to school, my visit time was an issue and at many times I had to leave school either to go and continue negotiations or to meet the deadline I was given. In the extract below, for instance, I had to leave school before the end of school day to get ready to leave the camp as I was told the day before by the security director. To my surprise, the working hours

of the gate administration came to an end and I found myself staying one more day in the camp, which made me happy at the time. The thought of leaving the camp was worrying since I knew no one in Kilis. Contacts in the camp also played a role outside the camp. I was recommended to stay with a family one of the principals trusted. Leaving the camp meant I had to go through the same procedures of applying for access again. This time I was going to the camp from Kilis, rather than from the airport. A mini bus, called the camp bus, sets off from the square of the old market towards the camp. The journey was straight forward this time and my host was waiting for me and so I went in again. After negotiations with the security director, I was allowed for a week.

#### **5.2.4 Second fieldwork visit**

The second visit was another roller coaster. Negotiations for the second fieldwork visit started months before I stepped into the field. After I returned from my first visit, security regulations were tightened, and it became impossible for anyone from outside the camp to be allowed access. I treasured my contacts and I kept in touch with them on weekly basis. The amount of communications was overwhelming. Negotiations started from London in the UK with contacting the Turkish Consulate and enquiring whether obtaining a visa will facilitate access to the camp and to Turkey in general. As a Syrian I came to know that I need no visa but it was still thought useful as it showed a valid reason to the trip I was planning to set off on. I completed an online application for this purpose and the communication took about five weeks. The discovery that a ‘research visa’ was a possibility happened after I booked my first ticket to Istanbul. In order to obtain a research visa, one needs an invitation letter along with the application documents.



*Figure 12: Research visa from Turkish Consulate in London*

But how on earth can I get a letter from a school in a refugee camp, I wondered? The school is run by Syrians, but Turkish officials are the gatekeepers. I spared no option no matter how tiny it was, and I contacted a school secretary in the camp to request a letter. It was the term-break time of school then. I had to squeeze my mind on the busy spot in the consulate. My long-awaited appointment was suddenly over as the lady behind the glassed window declared that I should come back with the missing letter. I resorted to my contact from my previous visit, the deputy minister. After many attempts to call him, he replied that he can write up such a letter, but it wouldn't be possible to send it at that time. Having chased the deputy minister for a few days, the letter arrived (see figure 4 below) and I forwarded it to the embassy. With the academic visa, I imagined the 'red carpet will be laid out', as my supervisor jokingly anticipated, once I reach the gate of the camp, but that was not the case.



*Figure 13: Letter from Ministry of Education*

### **5.2.5 Arriving in Kilis**

Having this official document amongst others in my bulletin, I thought they will be useful to allow me access. In the process of negotiating access, I learnt that it is possible to enter illegally

for few hours but I was not able to make such a decision because it would be unethical as well as threatening to my research which aimed at frequent visits to the schools in the camp. I took my flight from Stansted airport and I found myself negotiating access even before I boarded the plane. At the time it was in the news that three young women went to Syria to join Jihadist groups. I made sure that I was clear that I had no intention to go to Syria. The main aim of the journey was to do research and I showed them the ‘research visa’ to confirm my reply. The following entry of field notes was written on the night of arrival to Turkey for the second visit. The deputy minister after not replying to my call from Stansted airport dropped me a message on Viber saying that he is in a meeting and he’ll call me back later. Thirty minutes before the flight I had to clarify that my phone won’t work when I board the plane and asked whether he saw my email which I sent yesterday. He came back to me saying that he is in Istanbul following some medical procedure and that he will talk to AFAD. Having arrived around midnight in the hotel in Gaziantep, I had in mind an early start to set off to Kilis. I arrived in Kilis in a minibus. I had no idea where I was going but the plan was to meet one teacher who will show me the way to a hotel he trusted. The new sim card I bought in Gaziantep seemed to stop working. I was not sure what to do. I kept waiting to the side opposite the bus station.



*Photograph 15: Kilis city bus station (photo: Doukmak)*

I realised that I can ask for help from people passing by especially those speaking in Arabic. I borrowed a mobile phone, called the teacher and thanked the car driver who lent me his phone and who happened to park not far from where I was standing with my travel bag. Thirty minutes later, the teacher appeared and said he thought I was waiting inside the bus station. Actually, he came from the hospital where he was working at the time as an interpreter. The teacher

dragged my travel bag and I followed with my laptop and back bag until we reached Paris Otel in the centre of Kilis.



*Photograph 16: View of the city from where I stayed (photo: Doukmak)*

The question then was how long I was going to stay in the hotel. I was hoping they will let me in the camp. After putting my luggage in a room on the third floor I headed out to explore the place and most importantly to get my phone fixed. I started then contacting the people from the camp and asking about ways of access. After few days, with no progress to access the camp, I decided to go and visit the camp. I talked to a teacher I happened to have her number on WhatsApp and the plan was she will try to let me in through her husband's connection.



*Photograph 17: On the threshold of the camp (photo: Doukmak)*

On the bus, I met a Syrian woman who was going to visit her family in the camp. She started telling me about her story and how life was like for her sons and daughters who want to continue their study. I was beckoned to sit and the lady behind me who stepped ahead during my pause invited me to sit by her side although the whole bus was empty. She was a mother of five children the eldest was at university, the youngest in the eighth grade. ‘My eldest son was studying Information Technology in Syria, but we had to leave. I am sure you have heard about the incidents that happened at Aleppo University and it is no longer safe for young men and girls to study at university. I come from Tel Refaat. 42 rockets bombarded the village (in Aleppo countryside) and you can imagine the scale of destruction. My parents are still there. I have seen them once in four years. My daughter, she continued was studying Maths in Syria. Here she tried to apply to scientific majors, but she couldn’t find any. All the majors that were available were literary such as history, religion, Arabic. She wanted to study English but that wasn’t available either. My third youngest son has studied the baccalaureates twice now and he still has to pass some standardized test by the Turkish authority to be accepted at university. Last year, he studied the Italaf (Syrian Coalition) baccalaureate and failed. This year he studied the Libyan baccalaureate and after the first half of the year we learned that they stopped to certify the Libyan baccalaureate. How can the Libyan curriculum work? Their country is upside down and they are teaching it to our students. When my son saw that all his friends were studying the Libyan baccalaureate, he followed in their footsteps’, the mother added. I stood for an hour in the scorching sun outside the camp before the teacher appeared. She hugged me and we pulled ourselves towards the fence since the large trolley was making a U-turn after the border crossing was closed on the Turkish side. The border crossing was still open but the one on the Syrian side was closed. The teacher said that she had been to AFAD after trying to get in touch with the Wali she reported that it is Memnou. She said that her husband is in the FSA and due to his position, he has good relations with the Turks, but recently they haven’t been able to help other people to come into the camp.

*AD ;SG TACH DEVE.;ETN Zzzz*

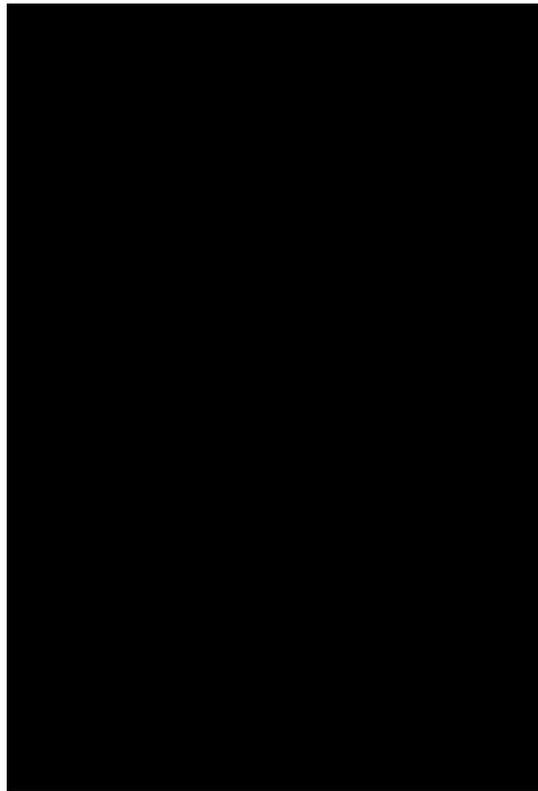
I fell asleep here and I woke up the next morning to write down the rest of the narrative of meeting the Wali of Kilis City. I went there with a teacher from the camp who knew some Turkish and who wanted to help me negotiate access to the camp. We were asked to come back the day after. I made up a sentence in Turkish: Ben Wali (made a hand gesture meaning see) Istiyorum. He got it and said Yok. He used the word Rendez Vous and secretaria which I understood that I need to book an appointment through the secretary. I asked whether the

secretary speaks Arabic and he replied Yok. He mimed to give him my telephone by saying Telephone and pointing to me. I gave him my phone and he typed in the number of the secretary. I thanked him and went out. As I went down the blue-carpeted stairs I was thinking who can dial this number and speak with the secretary. I contacted the x-principal since he can speak Turkish and it was his idea, but he didn't reply. Then I called one of my twin roommates who could speak Turkish. Meanwhile I missed two calls from the Education Deputy Minister. My portable Wifi battery was dead and I couldn't use it. When I called him back he told me that the Turkish authorities require some information about me and he said he'll chat with me on Viber so that I send him the information written in half an hour. I waited until I got his message. He requested some information: Full name, contact details, topic of PhD, who I will meet, the period I need, and the university in which I am doing my PhD. I sent him those details. He came back saying that the information has been sent and they will reply tomorrow. When my roommate came she asked whether Yasmin her friend booked me an appointment and I said she didn't come back to me. My roommate suggested that I take Ahmed one of her colleagues with me. 'He knows Turkish and he can go with you, she pointed out'. She gave me his number after she called him from her phone and explained that he needs to accompany me to the Wali. I contacted Yasmin in the evening via WhatsApp to enquire if she called the Wali's secretary. She replied that when she called them, they had already finished their working hours. She asked me to remind her at ten tomorrow and she took some information like who is going with me and the reason for the visit because she has to report the names of the visitors when she books an appointment.

It's all in the air, I thought while waiting to hear back. It is with people who are negotiating my request on two fronts. The first one is the formal one through the deputy minister who is trying to reach AFAD according to my access negotiation progress, which tipped the point of AFAD's direct responsibility for the camps. The deputy minister has not replied to my messages and telephone calls for two days. The last message I sent for today was finally answered by informing me that he is hoping for a positive reply by Monday. I knew that the school principal was supposed to address the Turkish principal of the school. Therefore, I called the school secretary who I happened to get her number through Facebook message exchange as I sat under the tall willows and was surrounded by black cocks that roamed the open-air café.

After we knocked on the door, me first and then the teacher with a louder knock, we entered and there were two men in black suits who were about to take their way out of the office. The director welcomed us ‘Hocgaldinez’ and the teacher took the lead to explain to the director since he could speak Turkish. At some point he asked for a translator, as he didn’t want to take any risk in making mistakes ... ‘Miss Reem has come from Britain to help us in teaching and that she would train the English language teachers to use some techniques to help them in teaching’. That last sentence was stopped by an exclamation by the director that WE train the teachers as if they will not allow me to do their job. The overlap between the officially and the locally advised routes features clearly in this visit since it was prompted by a local teacher. The frustration resulting was double since negotiations through recommended routes ended nowhere.

The Turkish director from the first visit, who now moved to another position in Kilis, helped with writing up letters to request access in Turkish. This attempt failed too. Then it came to my mind that I can still work with teachers from the camp without accessing the camp. I decided to open up my intervention into the schools in the city. I had to address the Ministry of Education to request access. The language barrier was a big hurdle which as a researcher I had to grapple with to gain access since the application documents had to be written in Turkish. So, I had to depend on the connections I have built especially those who are competent or native in Turkish. With the help of my roommate and the Turkish director, I was able to negotiate access and this time it was successful as the letter of approval below shows:



*Figure 14: Letter of approval from MoNE*

Although I didn't speak Turkish (only started to learn some) and the Turkish director didn't know much English, through Google Translate we were able to communicate. I learnt later that part of the reasons I was denied access was the fact that I was coming from a European country and was suspected to be a spy for MI6, which shocked me as I came to help out. Having obtained an official permission from the Ministry of Education, I started visiting schools, and this time I had to negotiate access with the Turkish principals in the schools. Finding schools was another issue. Although I used to go with a teacher, sometimes it wasn't possible, and I had to find the schools myself. The following shot depicts a moment of loss in the middle of nowhere as I was trying to find my way to one of the schools in Kilis.



*Photograph 18: Moment of loss while looking for a school (photo: Doukmak)*

### **5.3 Access by NGOs**

Many international NGOs have been negotiating their legal presence in Turkey. Most of the time, they were allowed to operate inside Syria but not in Turkey. The Turkish president Recep Tayyip Erdoğan has been sending out calls blaming Europe that it is not acting its due role. This contradictory discourse seems to make it difficult for humanitarian and educational actors to access the field and contribute with relevant support. According to an English trainer working herself with a ‘shadow’ organization which was not granted a license by the government, she explained that this could be due to the case where some NGOs can be misused. She added that it might be a matter of national pride:

- 1    Siham:    In Turkey initially two or three years ago, they were So
- 2                    reluctant any international working here in Turkey.
- 3                    there were some organisations that are here but they’re
- 4                    doing work in northern Syria
- 5    Reem:    They were in-
- 6    Siham:    and that they wouldn’t do work in Turkey and some of that
- 7                    is because AFAD because they have their own humanitarian
- 8                    agencies.
- 9    Reem:    which is already doing the job
- 10   Siham:    yeah and some of it I think was pride. And some of it was
- 11                    miscalculating the scale
- 12   Reem:    Yeah

13 Siham: it was just too big. It is not that Turkey... It is too big  
14 for any country  
15 Reem: it is  
16 Siham: and they've got their internal things. This is a HUGE  
17 crisis for them to be coping with.  
18 Reem: because it is non-stop. Just going on  
19 Siham: Well when I think politically they were worried about this  
20 part of the country when an influx of Syrians change certain...  
21 Reem: aspects maybe?  
22 Siham: yeah so I think this is what the Turkish government has been  
23 concerned about. And as with most host countries, some of  
24 it is legitimate some maybe a bit exaggerated but I might  
25 be very naïve about that.

#### Interview with Siham 10-4-15

One example of a training body which has managed to carry out training programmes is the International Blue Crescent or the IBC. The Mavi Hilal, as it is referred to in Turkish, is a Turkish NGO which operates locally and internationally in relief and development domains. The IBC caters for education and community needs of Syrians in Kilis city. It offers free access to Turkish, English, crafts and computer science courses. It is among the twenty-six NGOs which operate in Kilis being approved by the Turkish authorities. There are still NGOs which provide support, but they are not given license to work and therefore work as shadow NGOs to other approved NGOs. Trainers are usually invited from abroad to run training programmes for local teachers. They are given hints about the situation and they are requested to prepare a programme accordingly. But to what extent do the training programmes meet the needs of teachers? For an NGO like the IBC, which already supports six out of the ten schools in Kilis city, the needs of teachers could be possible to be identified. Limits in funding, however, can mean that even if the needs are identified the financial support may not be sufficient. In the current study, the community centre of one NGO was used to run the workshops for teachers which lasted over two months, one workshop per week.

## **5.4 Conclusion**

The access chapter provided a complementary view of the context through revealing the dynamics of how access can be obtained and maintained through the researcher's collaboration with participants and relevant stakeholders. Starting with establishing contacts before coming to the field to how the researcher gained access to the camp schools and later into city schools, access was a process with which the researcher went along to ensure the continuation of the research plan which otherwise could be cut abrupt due to giving up at deadlocks. The chapter provided a first-hand account on negotiating access from both a bottom-up and a top-down perspectives which both can be relevant to other researchers and actors who might be keen to extend a supporting hand to the refugee population in an ongoing crisis. The chapter also serves as a link with the data chapter. Including a chapter on access in the thesis in itself invites the reader to explore the journey of doing the current research through the researcher's voice and her interaction with the participants and stakeholders in this study. Insights, such as the researcher's frustration when denied access to the camp on the second visit, were possible to pin down when narrating the story of access negotiation. Access by NGOs to the field added another perspective about how negotiation can take official routes. Having built a vision of what it was like to obtain access, I will move in the next chapter to present the results of data analysis.

## Chapter Six: Data Analysis and Findings

*Transitional beings are ... neither one thing nor another, or may be both; or neither here nor there; or may even be nowhere (in terms of any recognised cultural topography), and are at the very least ‘betwixt and between’ all the recognised fixed points in space-time of structural classification.*

(Turner 1964:48)

### 6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the framework I used to analyse data. The analytical framework draws on liminality (Gennep 1908, Turner 1967) which emerged from the thematic analysis of the first field visit. In this light, I will explore the educational needs and experiences of teachers and students in camps and urban settlements. I will be examining findings from ethnographic observation, classroom audio and video recordings, interviews, documents and photographs. I will first investigate the liminal space where teachers teach and students learn, i.e. education centres and I will question the meaning of education for teachers and students. I will then examine some of the pressing challenges they experience in the new space such as financial constraints, lack of resources and unrecognised certificates and how these issues impact on their engagement with research projects. I will also tackle other relevant issues to schooling such as crossing back and forth to Syria. Afterwards I will look at the role drama played when introduced to teachers and students.

### 6.2 Educational experiences of teachers and students

In this section, I will explore teachers and students' experiences of living in Kilis and how their schooling practices are influenced by such liminal context. The following table demonstrates some of the main themes on those experiences and needs and their subcategories with evidence from data.

	Main themes	Sub themes	Codes
1	Experiences of Syrian refugee teachers and students	Education agendas	Ss wonder why other countries control them/Ts believe favouritism has penetrated to education/Ts receive incentives from different organisations, e.g. UNICEF and Islamic charities/ Focus on appearance rather than quality / Ts think education is not about a school building but rather about building students' personality
		Integration policy	Ts complain the Turkish principles intervene in details at school/Ts are worried they will lose their jobs when Ss are integrated into the Turkish system/ Ss rebel against 'order' at school as they think it's linked to the 'regime', Ts reported discrimination against Syrian refugees in Kilis city
		Crossing the borders	Ts take risks of crossing the borders/ Ss have families who cross to Turkey to see them/ Ts work as a link between schools in Syria and funders across the border/ Ts and Ss cross to see families in Syria/ Ts and Ss cross to fight in Syria / Ts get stuck in Syria when borders get closed/
		Dropping out of schools	Children selling biscuits on the street/Ts are thinking of quitting teaching to work in NGOs/No Turkish policy to require Syrian children to go to school/ child marriage/ Ts and Ss go to fight in Syria
		Teachers/students' absence	Ts absent for two weeks/ Ss complain their teachers are replaced (when absent) and they have to get used to a new teacher/ Ts don't go to school when they receive bad news from home / Ts cover other teachers' classes when the latter are absent / Turkish principals confirm there is a policy for school absence /
		Traditional teaching methods	Ss are bored during class / Ts depend heavily on GTM in teaching / Ss are used to translate the lesson word-by-word / Ts feel they need new ways to improve their teaching / Ts focus on English for exams particularly in the case of year 12 /

		Art interventions	Ss in the camp joined workshops on drawing and sculpture run by a refugee artist from another camp Ss in the city joined performance group which told stories about refugees' situation in Turkey
2	Needs of Syrian refugee teachers and students	Financial constraints	Ts don't receive regular salaries, only incentives / Ts and Ss are obliged to work outside or skip school to support their families / Ts work additional hours at the weekend and after school to afford expenses after paying the rent / Ts are advised to work in NGOs / Ts can't afford to top up their mobiles /
Lack of resources		Ss and sometimes Ts don't have copies of the textbook / Ts don't have resources for teaching / Ts lack access to professional support / Ts use drawing and songs to teach English / Resources in schools depend on funders / some TECs had no desks / No sound insulation to divide classrooms	
Unrecognised certificates		Ss lack motivation to study because they know their degree won't be recognised / Ss are worried if they will be able to sit end of high school exams (depending on age policy) / Syrian education official says the MoNE will recognise TECs certificates	
Why learn English?		Ss were not told English is important for them / Ts think the world speak English / Ss want to communicate with foreigners in Kilis / Ss want to learn English vocabulary in different fields / NGO workers think English will benefit children with employment prospects / Ts want to learn English through engaging with training / Turkish officials want to learn English / English hours at school have been reduced / For Ts, it's not just about teachers or students, all people in Kilis need English	
Why learn Turkish?		Ts think Ss need Turkish to communicate, to breathe / Ss use Turkish during English class / Ss want to communicate with Turkish staff / Turkish hours were	

		increased in TECs / Ss need to sit a Turkish exam to be able to study at university / Ts need to learn Turkish to communicate with Turkish staff at school
	Unqualified teachers	Some Ts are teaching for the first time / Ts want to join training to get qualification / Ts recruitment did not emphasise qualifications for volunteer Ts / Ts who quit school give the chance to unqualified Ts to take over / Ts have qualifications in other fields (e.g. radiography) / Ts need qualifications in providing psychological support
	Little or no space to play	TECs buildings were not originally schools, e.g. factories with no playgrounds / Ts think Ss need a space to play / Ts can't even move in the class due to packed classes and lack of space /
	Access to technology	Ts want to access teaching materials online / Ts don't have computers to type exam questions / Ts need photocopy machines to photocopy materials for Ss

Table 13: Summary of themes emerging from refugees' experiences and needs

### 6.2.1 Living in between

Syrians living in Turkey occupy a liminal space between home and their new place of refuge. In van Gennep's (1908) term of 'rites of passages', they crossed from Syria (separation) looking for a safe haven where they can settle (aggregation). Between the two positions, Syrians come to live in a middle margin; a 'limen' as Turner (1964:46) calls it. Occupying this liminal space involves transition, waiting and not knowing how long they will be there and if the war will ever end. Although they physically crossed the borders, they keep transitioning between the camp and the city, between the camp and Syria, between Kilis city and other cities in Turkey. The interplay between different geographic locations lends itself to another virtual transitional dimension which is evident in their everyday life in and out of schools. Because they live in uncertainty, they can envisage themselves to be literally anywhere. One teacher explains how a colleague keeps shifting in terms of future plans:

*My friend Ismail keeps changing his mind. One week he says he wants to find a job and he asks me to help him with this. I am trying, I tell him. Another week, he says he wants to travel. He has some money but the next week when I ask him what happened with your travel plan he dismisses the idea. Now the next week, he says our brothers and families in Syria need help and he plans to join the FSA. The next week he says all the FSA are thieves. Now the week after, he says he wants to get married.*

Field notes 28-5-15

People occupying such liminal spaces, like Ismail, are called *liminal personae* (Turner 1964:47). They become structurally invisible as if they fell between the cracks of social structure. In terms of Ismail's experience, he sounds like he is determined to change his living situation, but he is not sure what exactly he wants to do. Interestingly, he continues to come up with new ideas through which he navigates different spaces. These range from settled positions in Turkey such as obtaining a job and getting married to far positions where he will be travelling abroad or crossing back the borders to fight in Syria. Ismail's indecisiveness illustrates the phenomenon of liminality which refugees go through and which implies two forces behind it; a positive agency for change and an unclear vision to bring about this change. Children, similarly, live in a liminal space between war and life in exile. When they play, this transition comes up. The following note illustrates a child's memory of war during playing with his siblings in a container:

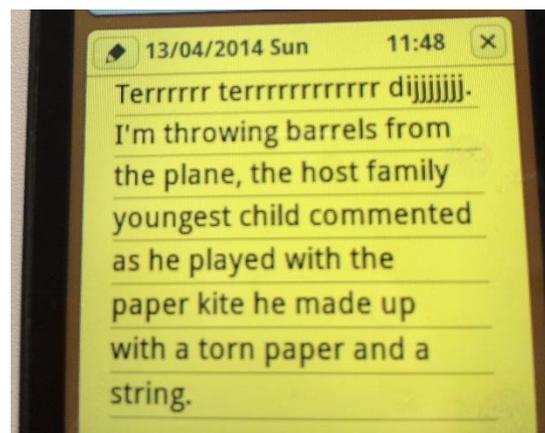


Figure 15: Field note on refugee children liminal experience

The note was recorded on a Samsung mobile phone Note software about children playing the caravaneh on Sunday morning. The child imagines he is dropping barrel bombs from his paper

airplane. The child's father is a fighter in the FSA. When he comes from Syria to visit, the father tells the children stories of 'his adventures'. Many children in Kilis share 'traumatic' experiences and these become visible when they play. Their exposure to war events through family members who fight in Syria make them revisit these memories; they are stuck in between. The collective Syrian identity produced in displacement is illustrated in the way Syrians in Kilis view themselves and their homeland fellows as refugees. One of the rituals that appeared and became common in the camp, for instance, is bread baking which echoes a tradition from home villages where most of the refugee population come from. Such practices are prohibited by strict camp rules because they are seen as wasting resources of energy as condemned by the Wali (Luju' Newspaper: Pain and Hope, July 2014) and apparently exceeding the limits of hospitality by which the Turkish government has stood for as 'an example of a strong national government response' (Kirişci 2014:27).

## **6.2.2 Schooling experiences**

I will examine the schooling experiences of teachers and students from these perspectives: crossing into Syria, absence and dropping out of school, current teaching methods, education policy and agendas.

### **6.2.2.1 Crossing the borders**

It is not uncommon for teachers and students to cross the borders to fight, take part in front line humanitarian support or visit relatives who are still 'inside'. This can sometimes cost them their lives or different kinds of injuries. They could also move to report news on the front through social media. Sometimes they are 'martyred', i.e. die 'fighting for their country' and so they never come back. Those who take part in humanitarian and schools support by connecting with NGOs and charities locally and internationally end up in one of the riskiest positions. Although many teachers and students crossed the borders to seek safety in Turkey, many still have families back home. They therefore find it necessary to re-cross taking all kinds of risk posed by the Turkish border forces and the fighting sides back home. The following diary entry gives an idea about the reason teachers and other staff tend to cross the borders back and forth:

*Most of the teachers at school: fathers, wives, sisters have beloved ones fighting in the FSA.*

Diary 20-4-14

For the majority of the refugee population, what is happening in Syria is a revolution. The outcome of crossing the borders is often a disruption in classes, particularly because teachers might get stuck at a certain point across the borders. One teacher describes his journey from Syria back to Turkey as follows.

*The hole I jumped in last time was three days ago. I went down and I am not used to such things. This is my second time. I always go through the gate but this time I had no choice. The hole I went down in was more than four meters deep. I stood there and closed eyes then jumped.... The problem is when the Jandarma catches you in the hole. They will beat you until you bleed.*

Interview with Farid 4-5-15

The extract illustrates the risk which teachers take when moving across the borders. In fact, some English teachers function as a link between inside and outside of Syria. Farid, for instance, visits the emergency schools in Syria and arranges the delivery of donations through his friends and contacts from all over the world. According to Farid, there are many orphans and widows living in liberated areas and they are in great adversity. The scarce external support is due to the difficulty in access to liberated areas and the lack of trust on the part of beneficiaries. Whether the aids will reach the people in need, he was in doubt.

#### **6.2.2.2 Teachers/students' absence**

Teachers and students' absence from class was found a common phenomenon when observing classes. As I mentioned in the previous section, teachers cross back to Syria and therefore do not come to class. For instance, while I was waiting for a teacher who was preparing an exam scale, I learnt that another teacher went to Syria two weeks ago and had not come back yet. The students of the absent teacher came to the teachers' lounge to enquire if she was coming as the following diary entry describes:

*Students kept knocking on the door of the teachers' lounge and asking whether their teacher was coming. A teacher who was there said that their teacher won't be coming to class.*

Diary 2-5-14

With family members living under war across the borders, teachers and students were apparently affected by the news. It was not uncommon that they missed classes because of that. The following entry refers to a teacher who was said to have lost her cousin. She received the news before the class and so she did not show up.

*The teacher was absent because her cousin was dying and many people she knew were badly injured. The news was bad and that was the reason she apologised from receiving us in her caravaneh.*

Diary 19-4-14

A teacher explained how the death of his brother impacted his teaching duties and joining training sessions:

*Unfortunately, you know my brother died. He was killed so we moved to Syria, me and my family. We spent one week then I returned back. And you know until I recovered..*

Chat with Adam 28-5-15

In terms of expecting teachers to come to their classes, a school principal explained that as a principal she could not blame teachers if they were absent as they worked voluntarily with little or no incentives as the section on financial constraints elaborates. Being absent did not necessarily mean going far. At boys' school, for instance, students tended to leave school in the last periods. Also, when it is Friday, they go to Jumaa prayer and some do not come back. Regarding their teachers' absence, students expressed their concern that this is likely to result in replacing the absent teacher by other teachers. A student explained how teachers keep being changed. No longer do they get used to a teacher than the teacher leaves:

*'We don't like that. The moment we get used to a teacher, they quit, and they bring us another teacher'.*

Diary 28-4-15

Absence could become permanent when teachers are able to get a job in an NGO. So 'if teachers are leaving schools, who is teaching at schools?' Ahlam posed this question as she expressed her concern about the future of children:

*Who will teach these children? She turned to me and admitted that all the English teachers are heading towards aid work. I wondered whether there are other teachers to cover them and she replied that those who fill their place are less qualified teachers, mostly undergraduate.*

Diary 8-3-15

The concerns echoed by Ahlam reflect the situation of teachers and students at TECs. Although she herself is considering applying for a job with an NGO, she thinks the gap left by teachers is widening and this leaves the door open to unqualified teachers to fill in the teaching roles in TECs. As a researcher, I want to clarify that in the course of this study it was challenging to keep in touch with participant teachers and students taken the high level of their mobility. Some of them quit schools to work in NGOs, some crossed the Mediterranean to Europe and others went back to Syria among others.

### **6.2.2.3 Dropping out of schools**

This section explains how both English teachers and students are dropping out of school. The transitory status English teachers occupy reflects the position of English language and gives an insight into the developing scene. Their competency in English singles them out by operating NGOs. Because English is a must to deal with foreigners, including NGO workers and journalists, those who are able to speak English are increasingly disappearing from schools. Adam emphasises this trend ‘*now lots of NGOs ask for people who speak English, not Turkish although we live in Turkey*’ (Chat with Adam 28-5-2015). Visiting journalists make another source which sucks teachers out of the educational scene. Teachers are offered translation and interpretation jobs connecting foreign visitors with local people. Farid explains how after he quit the camp school, he was translating for foreign journalists who used to come for reporting the news on the other side of the borders. Farid was detained with some of these journalists by extremist groups in Aleppo, as he mentioned after he was released (WhatsApp chat with Farid 1-2-16). Other teachers may still be teaching but outside school, i.e. through giving private lessons. When qualified teachers leave school, this creates a gap which tend to be filled by those who have no qualifications or teaching experience.

Teachers are becoming more aware of the gap which teachers leave behind when they go to NGOs. The following quotes from two teachers Adam and Ismail illustrate the situation:

*Now lots of NGOs ask for people who speak English.*

Chat with Adam 28-5-15

*We English teachers know that we need a teacher to join and fill in the gap that is there.*

Chat with Ismail 7-3-15

The quotes highlight the transient nature of the current context where teachers stand out as ‘liminal personae’ who are neither here nor there; they are ‘without position’ (Turner 1969:102). They are physically at school, but they are looking for a job in an NGO and other places. Like teachers, children could be seen in a large proportion in the job market doing manual jobs such as construction and agriculture. Children taking up jobs in the market such as shop assistants, cleaners or interpreters can be as young as six years old (Diary 15-3-15). The percentage of school dropout is on the increase with no measure taken against children employers. According to some officials who prefer to be kept anonymous, six thousand Syrian children, i.e. third of the refugee children in Kilis city were out of schools (Interview with Khalil 30-5-15).

#### **6.2.2.4 Traditional teaching methods**

In the observed classes, teachers depended largely on translation when teaching English which they imported from home. Ismail describes the situation in the classroom:

*The lesson is dry. You can see boredom in the eyes of students. The subject material is huge; a lot of information. And the student has no background, no linguistic background.*

Chat with Ismail 12-4-15

For instance, a teacher automatically translates every word, whether instructions or course content, from English to Arabic or they will invite students to translate by asking ‘*who can translate?*’ (Ali’s class video 9-4-14). The lesson usually finishes by the end of the reading comprehension or grammar exercises. Here is an example of a class for year 11 female students where the teacher invited students to translate the text after he read it:

- 1 Teacher: Now we are going to translate some of the chapter. The
- 2 first and half line. Our teacher also records Maths and
- 3 Science programmes for us to watch in our lessons
- 4 Student: our teachers (moulimina)

5 Teacher: our teacher, one teacher

6 Student: Our teacher (moulimuna) also (Aydan yusajel baramej al

7 riyadiat wa aloulum lana) records Maths and Science

8 programmes for us (li noushahidaha) to watch

9 Thank you very much. (moulimuna Aydan yusajel aw yakum

10 (fi drousina) in our lessons

11 Teacher: (bitasjeel baramij aloulum wa ariyadiat) recording Science

12 and Maths programmes for us to watch in lessons.

Ali's class video 9-4-14

The teacher in this lesson said the plan was to do some translation. However, he ended up translating every word. It is worth mentioning that students seem to respond well to GTM as the above extract shows. Although translation seemed a common teaching method in these schools, there is little or no reflection about the content of the course material that is being taught and it is not uncommon to see a student's book full of translation for each English word as the following year 11 book page illustrates:

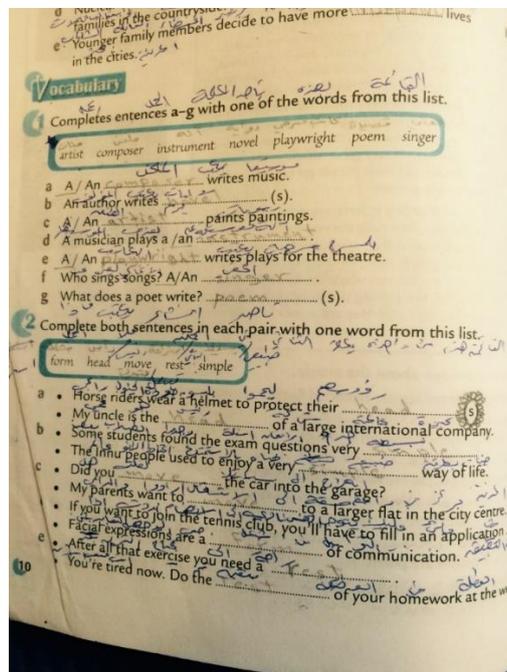


Figure 16: Year 11 activity book

During a focus group with students, they did complain that this method did not help them remember vocabulary and how to use them in context. When asked about learning English,

students complained that they usually forget the vocabulary which they ‘learned’ and they wondered if there is a more effective way to learn English. The following chat with students from Year 10 explains further:

- 1 Student1: I don't know why - I sat the English test and I  
2 learned all the vocabulary. Now I can't remember-
- 3 Student2 I learn words by heart and I forget simple words
- 4 Student3: It is the case of all subjects. After we sit the test we  
5 forget everything

Focus group with Laila's class 7-4-15

So is rote learning a problem? Or is it that teaching methods focus so much on translation and learning vocabulary with less emphasis on context? Some teachers showed a shift from traditional teaching methods, yet they were faced with mixed-abilities students which meant the teacher needs to do ‘patchwork’ in order meet the learning needs of different students. Basem explains this as follows:

*Five of my students can speak English, another five are medium level, the remaining ten students don't know the letters. I do patchwork. I give the lesson, then I go back and patch the areas that look torn or faulty. It is like a painter filling in gaps after first layer of paint, the English teacher responded to how he deals with the different levels in his class.*

Diary 11-4-15

### **6.2.2.5 Integration Policy**

The temporary education centres, which were set up for Syrians, illustrate a space for the transitory nature of the educational scene of Syrian refugees in Turkey and a gradual direction towards integration into the Turkish education system. In terms of who come to start and fund an education centre varies between Turkish authorities, NGOs and individual businessmen. On how they are run, for a quick visitor, they appear to be populated by Syrian students, teachers and school staff. However, upon a closer observation, one could see there is a Turkish administrative authority which seems to be gradually gaining control of how these education centres are run. The Turkish presence is becoming more evident through introducing Turkish language to the Syrian curriculum and having Turkish administrators in these education centres.

A Syrian principal captures the intricacy of the hierarchy in education centres or schools as Syrians refer to them below:

*'When they want to go on a trip to Istanbul, Nadia puts the names of principals and teachers she prefers and leaves out those she doesn't want. When it comes to any issue with cleanliness and problems she'd come directly to me and would ask me 'why is this classroom dirty?'. I can't stand this any longer', complained one of the Syrian school principals.*

Diary 27-4-14

The decisions made by the Turkish authorities, as the above example highlights, relate to issues such as extra curricula activities, number of language classes and teacher development. In a training programme, run in cooperation with UNICEF, again there was bias in selecting certain teachers to join training outside school before they train other Syrian teachers at school. *'Just imagine you have a university degree and someone who just finished high school comes and lecture you'*, exclaimed one Arabic teacher (Diary 27-4-14). Syrian teachers and principals are becoming more aware of the impact of the Turkish authorities making decisions about almost everything at school, as the following quote illustrates:

*According to one Syrian school principal, 'the Turks are intervening in everything. We gave them the right to do so. For instance, Khalil has to approve everything now and they would refer us to him for anything we want to do'.*

Diary 27-4-14

The nature of the changing dynamics in school management, i.e. moving towards a Turkish integration policy added further uncertainty to the everyday uncertain lives of teachers and students. For instance, Syrian school staff including teachers were worried that they would lose their jobs if TECs were closed. This hybrid system which was moving power to the Turkish side was in a way indicating an end to the temporary authority that was given to Syrian volunteer staff since the start of these schools. In the TECs which I visited, there was a clear emphasis on cleanliness by Turkish workers who at some points ended up shouting at students for stepping on wet floor and at teachers for not stopping students from doing so. Emphasis on appearance (New York Times 2014), of schools and other facilities to host refugees, seem to be prioritised at the expense of quality. Students on the other hand have been reported to write on desks and walls as a way of expressing 'freedom' and 'rebellion' against the new regime which controls their lives, as some teachers and headteachers pointed out. The following field note provides an example of the issue:

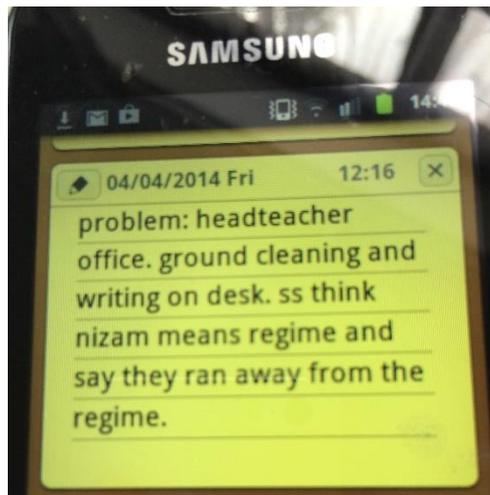


Figure 17: Field note about students' behaviours

From another angle, students themselves were seen by me cleaning their classrooms when their teacher was absent. 'There was a fuss in the classroom and it appeared that they were dusting the floor with a broom and a rack. Four of the students were doing so while the rest had to move aside whenever the former approached their desks' (Diary 4-4-14). Students seemed to have understood the emphasis on maintaining appearance. When students are admitted to school, as I mentioned in section (6.2.2.2) they are usually asked which level they were in and they are admitted to the year which they say they were in. Most of the time, they have no evidence to prove that they are at a certain level and so classes include mixed abilities and ages. Some students missed few years of school and when they came back to join school, it was hard to verify the right year for them. No formal assessment was done. According to some teachers, some students do not know the letters in English and it makes it difficult to work with them on the required course books as it is way higher than their level. The camp school is *on the verge of a catastrophe* (Diary 11-4-14) as the religion teacher predicted during a chat. He clarified that '*it is not only teachers who drop out of school but also students. Out of the 4,000 students who registered at the beginning of that school year, 500 have dropped off*' (Diary 11-4-14).

In the city, the situation is not very different. Some students never went to school when they arrived in Kilis. The principal of the biggest education centre, Ekram Chatin in Kilis explains the situation:

*According to the principal who had a Turkish delegation visiting from another Turkish school to celebrate Children's Day which was an official holiday the day after, the school has 12 classrooms and functions over three shifts to accommodate a larger number of students who exceed 2,000 in Ekram Chatin alone and the other*

*four schools accommodate 2,000 approximately. There are more 4,000 out of school because there's no capacity to include them at school, the principal added.*

Diary 22-4-14

The 'verge of catastrophe' features in the increasing number of school drop-outs. Students tend to drop out of school for different reasons such as early marriage for girls, joining the FSA as first aiders or fighters for boys and joining the labour market for both boys and girls to support their families. Interestingly, students may transition among these positions. For instance, a schoolgirl who gets married while at elementary school age will come back at secondary school age with a toddler. A schoolboy, similarly, will cross the borders to join FSA during summer holiday, will come back to school to resume study or they may not come back. Students do not just shuttle between the different spaces physically, their emotional state will depend on what is happening across the border. During an open session, one student clarified '*Our emotional state so much depends on the news coming out of Syria; if the situation is good, we will feel good. When the situation deteriorates, it will have an impact on us*' (Open session 3-4-2014). Having looked at some findings on the liminal experiences of teachers and students, it is worth understanding the role of education in the lives of refugee students and the overarching ideologies controlling education orientations.

#### **6.2.2.6 Whose education?**

In order to understand the educational experiences of teachers and students, it is worth examining the education agendas which run schools and their influence on education. These ideologies vary and reflect different agendas. I list the names of schools in Appendix 5. The numbering of the list is not correct from the source (WHH and Golden Hilal Movement 2015). The total number should be nineteen TECs in Kilis city and two camps. The table below shows the types of curriculum used in the ten schools which I visited in Kilis city and Kilis 1 camp. It is worth noting that some schools such as Ekrem Çetin teaches more than one curriculum:

	<b>Curriculum</b>	<b>School number</b>
1	Syrian opposition	6
2	Libyan	2
3	Islamic	2

Table 14: Types of curriculum taught in TECs

In terms of funders, these TECS vary between NGOs, Turkish Government, businessmen and Islamic charities. I will first look at the curriculum which represents the Syrian opposition as this seems the most common. According to the Minister of Education in *The National Coalition of Syrian Revolution and Opposition Forces* (Etilaf), the Eitlaf has been working in collaboration with Qatar to print modified coursebooks of the Syrian curriculum which replaces symbols and pictures of the Syrian regime by others of the ‘revolution’. The following picture illustrates the cover and the inside cover of Social Studies coursebook for Year 4 which has been modified by the Education Ministry in the SIG:



Figure 18: Example of a modified Syrian coursebook

The inside cover includes a note that the scientific content of the book has not been modified; only the symbols and the pictures which referred to the Syrian regime. Interestingly, the English coursebooks have not been modified as they do not include any political reference to the Syrian regime. These are used in TECs in camps and cities. According to Ismail, the curriculum is ‘dry’ and students need ‘something appealing’ to attract their attention (chat with Ismail 21-5-15). Another curriculum option which students could take in some mainstream schools was the Libyan curriculum which has been described as ‘easy’ by students and teachers. However, this is not recognised by the Turkish government. None of the lessons which I observed happened to be from the Libyan curriculum, so my findings were limited to the accounts by participants of what it was like. According to the Deputy Minister of Education in the Etilaf, the Libyan curriculum was first imported by the Syrian Education Commission to help Syrian students get recognised certificates. This was temporary as he explains the situation further:

*In 2014, we managed to run exams inside the liberated areas in Syria and in neighbouring countries with central test questions. Nearly 9,000 students received certificates then. From then on, these certificates were recognised through an official decree by the MoNE. This meant 3 certificates were possible then: the regime's certificate, the Etilaf certificate and the Libyan certificate. Among this chaos, there was confusion especially with regard to the Libyan certificate as it was seen as a violation of the Turkish education system and it didn't represent Syrian refugees. However, the Turkish government was accepting it to meet the needs of Syrian students. To solve this issue, they decided to do one standard test, similar to the American SAT exam which lasts 3 hours and includes English language and different scientific subjects which the Etilaf developed. We had negotiations and signed a protocol with the MoNE which included the test procedures. This entailed that the new test based on Etilaf curriculum was the sole curriculum that could be recognised by Turkish government. Students receive a Turkish certificate which is recognised worldwide. Neither the regime's nor the Libyan curriculum have been recognised since then.*

Interview with Deputy Minister of Education in Etilaf 26-3-15

Additionally, an Islamic curriculum was reported to be taught in the Islamic school 'Abo Ayoub Al Ansari' which was a destination for students from both the camp and the city.

*The booklet was a 1969 print version of the Ministry of Awkaf (religion) in Damascus. It contained themes about the history of Islam, the life of prophet Mohammad, the performance of prayers. Texts with exercises such as vocabulary and reading comprehension were the main practice students had to work on.*

Field notes 19-3-15

Among the different stakeholders, students appeared to be the least consulted about educational choices. In an open session with students, a year-10-student raised the question: why people should leave their country to study abroad?

*'Isn't it wrong for one to learn outside their country?' According to him, we should learn and develop so that other people come to learn in our country and not vice versa. The student then wondered 'why should the world control us?'*

Open session 3-4-14

### **6.3 Educational needs of teachers and students**

By educational needs, I mean the everyday challenges which impacted teachers and students' educational practices. These include the financial constraints teachers and students have to grapple with, lack of resources at school, unrecognised education, need to learn English versus Turkish and having no space to play at school.

### 6.3.1 Financial constraints

Teachers, in the current study, stated that they did not receive regular salaries but rather incentives every now and then. There was a rumour that MoNE will give regular salaries to teachers and school staff, but that rumour had been going around for a while and nothing happened. When a teacher brought up this topic during a chat in the staff room, other staff members seemed suspicious that this was likely to happen.

*'Shall I tell some good news?' he started with a doubtful voice. After a moment of silence, he went on. 'They will allocate us regular salaries just like a proper job'. The headteacher assistant received the news in a falling intonation 'We've heard that before'.*

Diary 2-4-14

Having little or no salaries, teachers were struggling to meet their daily life expenses such as topping up their phones to communicate with others including myself. Some were forced to sell their phones when they faced financial constraints as the following diary entry illustrates.

*The teachers here are penniless. I couldn't get in touch with the English teacher and the principal since the former sold his mobile phone while the latter couldn't afford to have megabytes (data) on his phone.*

Diary 19-4-14

Due to these financial constraints, teachers and school staff were obliged to look for other jobs out of schools. NGOs were a popular destination. Farid, explains the situation:

*Instead of teaching for free (i.e. as a volunteer) teachers of English are attracted to take current offers with NGOs. Take for example, Adam and Ali, they went on to work with NGOs. You can find teachers but having no salaries makes it difficult to keep them; they prefer to quit for a paid job. A teacher will talk to themselves saying: I have studied English. If I work out of schools, I'll be able to earn some money... I myself taught for free for 3 years in Syria and 2 years in the camp school. Why does a teacher have to do that?*

Chat with Farid 4-5-15

Financial support to get by and to help one's families seem to be affecting students as much as teachers. Walking down Kilis streets, one could see many school-aged children working at the time they should be at school. The following pictures illustrate some examples:



Photograph 21: Syrian children working in Kilis city (photo: Doukmak)

As a researcher, I was mostly out and about in Kilis, meeting participants and visiting schools. As I was sitting in café for a cup of tea in the sun, a little girl approached selling biscuits. The following diary describes the scene:

*I wanted to have fresh air so I sat in Muzzo café. The rain was drizzling but the fresh air didn't stop me from sitting in the chilly weather. A young girl approached me as I sipped my small Turkish glass and said 'Auntie please buy from me'. She was wrapping a scarf like someone did it for her. I asked her if she was at school and she said no. I was in the third grade but I should be in the sixth grade. You know we stopped for three years. I stopped going to school here after they asked for 50 Turkish liras. I wondered why and she shrugged her shoulders. The little girl is now selling biscuits for half TL.*

Diary 15-3-15

The chat with the little girl gives insight into the working conditions of many girls and boys out of school. According to the findings of a small-scale study (Doukmak 2015) which I carried out for a GRP conference at Warwick University, the following reasons stood out for children dropping out of school:

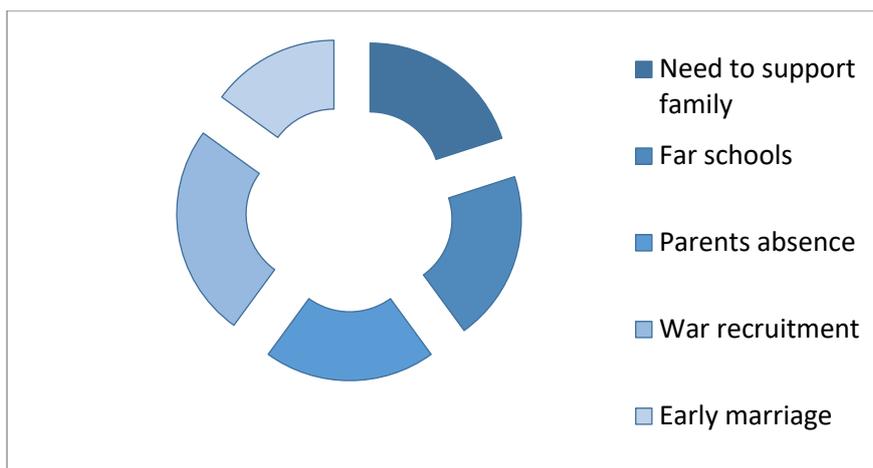


Figure 19: Reasons why children drop out of school

The financial factor is one which seems to be increasing. According to a Turkish official in the same study, in Kilis alone 6,000 children are out of school, compared to 10,000 who are registered at schools in the two camps and the city. A conversation with one English teacher, Mona brings this issue to light. *'They tell me go work in organisations because they are good financially'* (Interview with Mona 26-5-15). Having no sufficient income from teaching to pay their basic needs, teachers were seriously thinking of quitting to other better paid jobs such as those offered by NGOs. Ahlam revealed her intension to leave teaching as follows:

*I am thinking of leaving teaching because the incentive is not enough. We used to be given, a year ago, 1000 TL: 500 from the UNICEF and 500 from the Blue Crescent. The latter was cut off so we only earn 500 TL these days.*

Diary 10-3-15

Having little or no incentives, it was a disappointment for teachers who escaped the war for a better situation. Suhaib pointed out that the situation in Turkey is 'financially worse' than the situation back home. This is likely to affect the performance of teachers and consequently impact on students too, as he elaborated below:

*Here you will be surprised with a reality that is worse than the regime's reality, I mean worse. We went out for a freedom era or rather the opposite. Our situation became worse. The teacher who used to think of securing a salary now needs to worry more about it. Why? In the past, there was a salary. The salary was 20,000 SP which was not sufficient so the teacher used to take up another job. Here, the teacher's salary is 500 TL which is not enough due to high living expenses. The personality of the teacher will be reflected on the children in his/her class.*

Chat with Suhaib 4-6-15

### 6.3.2 Lack of resources

Another challenge which students and teachers encountered in camp and city schools was the shortage of course books and learning resources. For instance, in a conversation with a teacher of year 10, he reported that *it is the same problem* that caused him to start his class late:

*He said he himself didn't have a copy of the book and neither did the students. The same applies to the girls in the other schools. After few minutes, the teacher who left the room would open the door and invite me to join the lesson. There were only 10 minutes left but he was still interested in making use of that time.*

Diary 9-4-14

Another teacher reported that when she started teaching in Ekram Chatin school, students had no books. She explains how she made up for this in the following chat:

*They didn't have books. I wanted them to like me. We played. I put a ball on the table when I taught them the letters. I started with the easiest and told funny stories about letters.*

Chat with Farah 20-5-15

In another city school, a teacher described how students had to study on the floor when he first joined the school. He explained that the building of the school used to be a factory. Another problem, he added, was that there were no proper walls to divide classes; only dividers which did not insulate sound. In a lesson which I observed for this teacher, it was obvious that sound was an issue and the noise from nearby classrooms caused a clear distraction (chat with Suhaib 4-6-15). During the first training session for teachers, Laila also pointed out that as a teacher she lacked teaching resources and she expressed her interest in learning new ideas and how to use new resources (29-3-15). Another means for creating resources for teachers, which was 'completely missing' according to Suhaib, was to build connections between teachers where they can share ideas and materials such as a question bank for exams.

- 1 Suhaib: You mentioned a key point that the communication between
- 2 schools-
- 3 Ahlam: -is missing. In this training, the best thing was that
- 4 English teachers came together

Chat with Suhaib and Ahlam 13-5-15

During the above chat, Suhaib and Ahlam realised that they met previously in a training programme that was aimed at all teachers but they did not exchange contacts then. They both agreed on the importance of building a network for teachers. In fact, Ahlam completed Suhaib's sentence in the same extract. Taken the varied funding of those education centres, the resources available for teachers will differ from one education centre to another. I will move now to discuss how unrecognised certificates impacted students' learning experiences.

### **6.3.3 Unrecognised certificates**

The problem of unrecognised certificates from TECs, as the section on education agendas illustrated, seems to affect the motivation of students to complete high school. A year-12-female student who could not go to her school in Aleppo after her father became wanted by the regime forces complained: 'If I get my certificate from the camp, I will have a very small chance to study at university' (Diary 10-4-14). She came to Kilis camp school since most of her relatives did settle there. Students in Kilis schools faced this challenge for two years before the Turkish government agreed to recognise the high certificates obtained in Syrian schools inside and outside refugee camps. In a chat with a Turkish principal who was in charge of the four schools, I raised the question of whether Syrian students' high school certificates can be recognised. The Turkish principal urged me to encourage students to study as she and other camp officials are negotiating with the MoNE to acknowledge certificates of high schools obtained in Turkey (Diary 30-4-14).

The certificates issued by Etilaf are not recognised and they do not qualify their holders to pursue higher education. The issue of certificate recognition had its impact on students' motivation to study and complete their school education. As some students pointed out, they intend to study the Libyan baccalaureate which is recognised according to what they heard. In the following field note, a student who is studying for the Syrian baccalaureate clarifies why she is considering to leave it for the Libyan one:

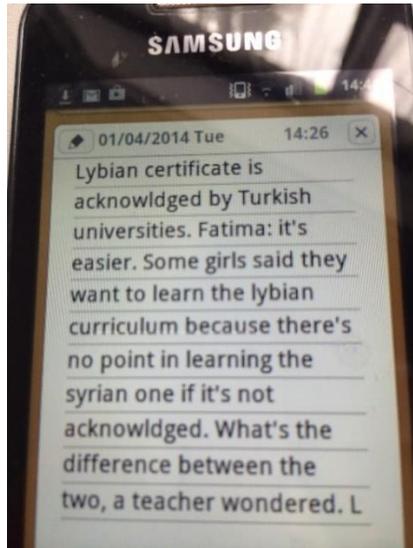


Figure 20: Field note about Libyan curriculum

Year 12 students did not just face unrecognition of their baccalaureate degrees but they also must have met a specific age criteria to sit high school exams. That made students unsure whether to study or not for the required exams. The following situation explains when female students came to the principal and expressed their concern that they may not be able to sit the end of year exam:

*Some girls came in and they looked pale; they had a desperate question that needed an answer. They came to enquire about the list of students' names who will be denied the chance to take the baccalaureate exam. They knew the number was fifteen, but they wanted to check whether their names were on the list.*

Diary 14-4-14

One student expressed her disappointment that she lost the chance to sit high school exams in Syria. She explains how she had to flee with her family. *'I was the top student at school and the principal would always say that he expected me to study medicine. I took two exams when the army entered our village and we had to leave our homes. My colleagues joined university but I'm sad I couldn't. I don't know what to do'* (Diary 28-4-14). As a result, feeling uncertain about their future seems to influence students' motivation to continue their education. Students in TECs, especially those towards graduation level, realize that their certificates will not be accredited so they feel less motivated to go to school and to prepare for their exams. They are caught between a transitional education system and an unclear integrative approach. This scene illustrates a hybrid Syrian-Turkish system of schooling where it is hard to draw the line where the Syrian authorisation ends and where the Turkish authority starts. Such 'integrative'

approach seems ad hoc and it does not have clear procedures as İçduygu and Şimşek pointed (2016: 66).

### 6.3.4 Need to learn English versus Turkish

At the time I was promoting for innovative methods of teaching English, English seemed to have low status in the given context. Turkish is the main spoken language in Turkey and Turkish classes at schools were on the increase. Like many teachers, Mona thinks that there is an attempt by the Turkish authorities to undermine the status of English: 'Here, English language is marginalised. It is not used' (Chat with Mona 26-5-2015). This started to cause worry to English teachers. For instance, Munir reflected on the decrease in English classes from 4 to 2 per week saying that '*English language is basic for us Syrians. It should not be our problem that the Turks are not interested in learning English*' (Chat with Munir 30-4-15). It is worth considering the reasons why students would be interested in learning English at the time they live in a non-English speaking country. Students in those education centres vary in their awareness of the role of English in their lives. One student explained the gap between the English they learn at school and the English they become exposed to when they meet foreign people or when they watch TV channels. '*I may see a foreigner. I don't know him. He doesn't know me either. Or a film or a news channel in English. They speak British English. When we speak, we pronounce all the letters, while they don't pronounce all the letters. Here I don't understand them*' (Class video Ismail 3-4-14). In another chat with students whose teacher did not turn up to class, students explained *they don't have a strong base in English. They still find difficulties with some letters and other things. Besides no one told them earlier that English is important for them* (Diary 19-4-14). From a teacher's perspective, students have little interest to learn English as it is a foreign language which they do not need in their everyday life. A teacher explains why students prefer to learn Turkish more than English:

*One reason Turkish is giving motivation to students is that they (Turkish camp authority) take them outside the camp to sing and participate in celebrations. They'd go into a class and pick the students who are best in Turkish and would take them to join such events. If students think English is like the camp, boring and with no future, how can we renew the learning practice of English, wondered one English teacher who expressed his interest in coming to the UK to learn the language best.*

Diary 4-4-14

If you live in Turkey, you need Turkish to ‘*communicate with people, to live, to breathe*’, as Basem put it (Chat with teachers 4-4-15). For other teachers, students need to learn English because the world speaks English as a teacher explains below:

*For me we are inside an egg. If we're going outside this egg we are going to the outside world. The world speaks English. If you want to go outside you need to talk in English. We are in Turkey. I advise students to learn Turkish but also not to forget about English. They say: I know Turkish, I know how to deal with the people. I don't need English. I reply: you will need it. Languages in general are very useful but English is number one.*

Interview with Farah 20-5-15

For Farah, living Turkey resembles living in ‘an egg’; in a context where students may not necessarily need English to survive in their everyday life. However, she believes that English is key to communicate with the world. But why would Syrian teachers and students need to communicate with the world? During a focus group at Laila’s class (Class audio 7-4-15), a student expressed her interest in ‘*learning English speaking skills to be able to speak about politics and economics*’. Another student in the same session pointed out that she would like to learn ‘*spoken English*’ to be able to communicate with English and American people. As for teachers, they would like to improve their English-speaking skills so they can find better job opportunities such as with NGOs. Adam explained the demand for speaking English saying: ‘Now lots of NGOs ask for people who speak English, not Turkish although we live in Turkey’ (Chat 28-5-15). Mona also thinks that English is useful to communicate with foreigners and if someone wants to travel abroad (Chat 26-5-2-15). Similarly, Basem expressed his vision about the importance of English for a better future:

*Actually they won't need English now. They will need English in the future. So if they continue to learn English speaking of course, after they get the certificate of the 12<sup>th</sup> grade, so they are able to work in organisations, in NGOs etc. etc.*

Chat with Basem 17-4-15

Varied awareness of the roles of languages such as English and Turkish in securing future prospectus varies between teachers and students. Teachers, in addition to the task of teaching obviously need to find ways to engage students by first raising their awareness of the significance of English as a passport to education and career then drawing on students’ interests on why they will need to learn English. As an open session with students show, students are keen to improve their communication and conversation skills. In this discussion which I held

when the teacher was present, students raised questions about how to learn spoken English. One question was: *how can one improve their English to understand movies and native speakers?* (Diary 3-4-14). Muaz who is an NGO worker, who joined some of the training sessions to improve his English speaking skills, added that ‘Yes Turkish is important but English is important also... I think to get a good job even in Turkish companies you have to speak English’ (Chat 31-5-15). Muaz further elaborated: ‘from my experience.. if you learn English when you are a child.. it’s very different when you learn English when you are in secondary school or university’. Findings demonstrate varying emphasis on learning English versus Turkish by both teachers and students for the following reasons: communicate with native speakers, understand movies, express their views, get a job, pursue their education and travel abroad. Such interests to develop English skills highlight the significance of the current study in bridging this gap. Although students and teachers vary in why they think English is important, both seem to recognise that being able to speak in English is key to help them develop their learning and create opportunities for a better future.

### **6.3.5 Little or no space to play**

Students seemed aware that there is hardly a space for them to play in the camp. Schools have only classrooms and students spend the break time in the alleyways, the class or go outside the school if there is no guard at the school door. In a chat about their experience of the camp life, a student clarified that *15,000 people live in the camp while there are only two playgrounds. We tend to play at night* (Diary 3-4-14). In the city, the situation is not very different. As the section on educational centres clarified, most of these centres were not school buildings; rather they were used as schools although they may not be appropriate. Space for play featured as missing in most of these centres. Basem confirmed that by commenting that where he went to school, he used to run in the playground during the break but that is not possible for students in his school. According to Farah, the classroom she used to teach in was too crowded to the extent that it was difficult for her to go around and check how students were doing:

- 1 Farah: I started teaching in Ekram Çetin for more than one year.
- 2 One class 70, another class between 50 and 60.
- 3 Reem: How did you teach them?

4 Farah: You should ask me how could you move between them... So the  
5 desk reaches like this here (teacher pointed her hand to a  
6 short distance from her body).

Chat with Farah 20-5-15

Having a little physical space in the classroom was a necessity to look for innovative methods of teaching. Among the TECs I visited, only one of the education centres visited had a playground. Students were seen there when teachers were absent.



Photograph 20: A TEC which used to be a factory (photo: Doukmak)

Students and teachers share the opinion that these ‘schools’ are not ideal schools as they are makeshift or adapted from factories or resident blocks having no playground where students can play during the break. Basem emphasised the importance of a ‘space’ in the school recalling how he used to play when he was little:

*So the problem is there is no playground. It's a big problem. I remember when I was in first grade, I used to run around the whole school.*

Chat with Basem 17-4-15

Students in the camp school expressed similar needs. They realised that part of why they cannot concentrate on school work is that the school does not have a playground. Shared views by both teachers and students illustrate their awareness of the lack of adequacy of temporary education centres to meet their educational experiences, no matter how clean and tidy they appear. According to UNICEF’s convention on the Rights of the Child, “every child has the right to

relax, play and take part in a wide range of cultural and artistic activities’’ (article 31). In addition, play is important to children’s health and well-being (Lester and Russel 2010:x). The need for a space to play advocates for the role of drama, which I will explore next, in improving the educational situation.

### **6.3.6 How drama emerged as an intervention**

The idea of implementing drama in the second visit originated from ethnographic and classroom observation as well as informal chats with teachers and students during the first visit. The crowded classrooms and the fact that there was little or no space to play in school and in the camp in general highlighted the need for creating space to enable students to engage and have a better learning experience. During a focus group with students, they complained that they barely get any chance to play in the camp playground: ‘imagine there are 15,000 people with one playground. We rarely get the chance to play’ (Diary 9-4-14). The main problem in terms of space, according to one teacher, was ‘the over-crowded classes and when you teach you need to be more a teacher: a carer, a problem solver, a psychological supporter, etc.’ (Diary 22-4-14). Another teacher added the need to respond to this saying: ‘students are suffering from psychological problems and need support’ (Diary 17-4-14). For teachers, dealing with these issues within limited and unsupported space was obviously a challenge.

On the other hand, lack of resources such as coursebooks or access to photocopy materials indicated the need to come up with supportive teaching materials which meet the ‘imported’ curriculum and correspond to students’ interests and levels. Before a class which I arranged to observe, the class teacher mumbled ‘it is the same problem again’ referring to the lack of coursebooks (Diary 9-4-14). Neither the teacher nor the students had a copy of the coursebook. When students came to ask the teacher what to do, he suggested if they could find a copy of the coursebook so he could try and make some photocopies of the lesson (Diary 9-4-14). Although he said so, the teacher clarified: ‘we are not allowed to copy except for important documents’ as he referred to the photocopy machine in the Turkish principal’s office (Diary 9-4-14).

With little access to teaching resources, teaching methods seemed also in need for change. This was illustrated on the part of both teachers and students. One teacher complained that although

she spends a whole lesson on teaching grammar, only two or three students seemed to learn by the end of the lesson (Diary 18-4-14). Having little or no teaching experience, teachers expressed their interest in improving their teaching practice and their English language particularly their listening and speaking skills. During a chat after class, a teacher expressed such interest: 'I want to learn the language, to hear it' (Diary 5-4-14). There were few occasions when students admitted that the teaching methods were not very effective 'we keep forgetting vocabulary' (Diary 6-4-14) and that they wanted to focus more on learning speaking and how to make a conversation. Interest in teacher training was also expressed by teachers who wanted to receive feedback on their teaching practice as one English teacher put it: 'we want to benefit from you' (Diary 2-4-14). It is worth mentioning that no training in English language teaching was provided to teachers prior to the current intervention. According to teachers, they 'learnt theories only at university but they don't know how to use these in practice' (Diary 10-4-14). Such awareness further highlighted the need for teacher training to assist teachers with understanding how to implement knowledge acquired from teaching theories. What creative methods, I started to wonder, can potentially improve teachers' and students' experiences?

In addition to the challenge of low qualifications, teachers and students lacked motivation to improve their teaching and learning practices. Teachers did not feel, for example, they wanted to teach or to even go to class as some teachers demonstrated when I was trying to observe their classes. They needed something to motivate them. As for students, they similarly lacked interest in participating in class. English class was particularly 'boring' to them just like 'the camp' (Diary 9-4-14). Teachers admitted that they found it difficult to attract students' attention and to sustain it. 'How can we renew the learning experience of English?', a teacher wondered (Diary 3-4-14). The low level of students in English language made it even more challenging. Students said 'they didn't have a strong background in English. They still found difficulty with some letters and other things' (Diary 14-4-14). Moreover, students were demotivated by the issue of certificate recognition as one student said: 'If I get my certificate from the camp, I have a very small chance to study at university' (Diary 10-4-14). Having had interrupted schooling and now facing uncertain futures, some students were still keen to express their aspirations and dreams. Malak, for example, showed interest in pursuing a degree as a pharmacist 'to help people, to give them medicine for free and to help her family too' (Diary 9-4-14). The social aspect of her life in the camp seemed to help her cope as she exclaimed after we left her caravan: 'The only thing that keeps me going here is the company of the girls' (Diary 28-4-14).

Throughout the conversations with teachers and students, it turned out that they wanted to learn communicative language skills such as listening and speaking to be able to connect with native speakers who they come in contact with through NGOs and with the world in general. For some teachers, ‘the world is ill-educated about their situation’ (Diary 8-4-14) and they hoped that through English they will be able to build this connection. Students were particularly interested in singing and performing when they were given the opportunity to ‘go outside the camp to sing and participate in celebrations’ (Diary 4-4-14). Students, for instance, ‘performed on Universal Children’s Day’ which was attended by the Wali of Kilis (Diary 23-4-14). Some teachers were aware they needed to invest in this emerging interest. While a teacher suggested ‘to perform a play, to train students to perform one’ (Diary 2-4-14), other teachers highlighted how they were able to attract students’ attention by telling stories: ‘we used to tell students stories which they enjoyed. We used to do that when they disconnected and wanted something easy-flowing’ (Diary 8-4-14). Evidence for using drama also emerged during classroom interaction. The following extract between a student and her teacher and peers illustrates a good example for a student who wanted to speak out and express her feelings:

- 1 Teacher: (looks at her watch)
- 2 Student1: Anseh bedi ehki a’n hali (Teacher I want to talk about
- 3 myself)
- 4 Teacher: Okay come here
- 5 Student1: Anseh enti esalini (teacher, ask me questions)
- 6 Teacher: Tell us about you
- 7 Student1: My name is Maya and I have 16 .. I like swimming and have
- 8 reading and singing and I have five brothers but I didn’t
- 9 any sisters just me my dad is working in Aleppo
- 10 University and my mum doesn’t do a job she just cooks er
- 11 (laughs) the better food in the world. I want to be - shou
- 12 yaani saydalanieh? (what is pharmacist in English?)
- 13 Teacher: Pharmacist
- 14 Pharmacist in the future because I like it very much..
- 15 Student1: Can you tell me about your country?
- 16 Teacher: Yes of course. I was living in err Aleppo country
- 17 Student1:

17 Teacher: I was living?  
18 Student1: [I was living  
19 Teacher: [lived  
20 Student1: in err or I lived in Aleppo country in Tel Rifaat. err I  
21 love it very very very very much ((sighs)) err I was-  
22 Teacher: Is it beautiful?  
23 Student1: Yes of course.  
24 I like it very very much and I miss it I miss it (0.5) so  
25 Much  
26 Teacher: How many times did you or didn't you visit IT?  
27 Student1: I don't know  
28 Teacher: How long you haven't visited your country?  
29 Yes. For one year  
30 Oh long time!  
31 Okay. What er  
32 Student1: You ask me! (address students)  
33 Amar  
34 Teacher: Can you ask her?  
35 Student2: Can you tell us about your life?  
36 Student1: Err what shall I say?  
37 Student2: Or about your opinion  
38 Student1: About what?  
39 About (.) Syria  
40 I love Syria and I ask Allah to (.) I mean  
41 To help our brothers in Syria and er and that's it  
42 Teacher: To relieve them from their pains  
43 Yerahum min awjahun (relieve them from their pains)  
44 Tayyebb (okay)  
45 Student1: Wahdeh kaman (another one ask me)  
46 Students: (xxx)  
47 Teacher: Raghad you didn't want to ask her?  
48 Student3: Maya can you sing now?  
49 Teacher: Is there any question?

50 Student1: First she wants er mishan ghanni (me to sing)

51 Teacher: About singing? Tayyebb (okay) err

52 Is there an English song?

53 Student1: No mata'a sgheer bi Titanic Awalu (small part of Titanic

54 first part) ma hafza ba'adu (I don't know the rest)

55 Student3: Ghanni souria mawjwaa Maya

56 Student4: La ghanni xxx (no sing xxx)

57 Teacher: In English it is better

58 Student1: Bas bil English? (only in English)?

59 Teacher: Just

60 Student1: Ma fi ghanyeh bil inglizi ma li hafzaneh (I don't know songs

61 in English by heart)

62 Student5: Ghanni arabi

63 Student1: Eh yella xxx bedkum?

64 Teacher: Dakika wahdeh khalset el hesa (one minute left class is over)

65 Tlateh ila ashra (ten to three)

66 Student1: ((Starts to sing)) lama tutul tzakar am tutul khayek (when

67 you kill remember you're killing your brother) W lama teh dum

68 tzakar am tuh dum baytaak (when you destroy remember you're

69 destroying your house) Souria mawjuuaa (Syria is in pain)

70 Souria mawjuuaa (Syria is in pain) Am tenzufe dmua'a

71 (it is bleeding tears) a'a ahla likanu shmua'a (on its people

72 who were its candles) a'a ahla lisaru graba (on its people

73 who became strangers) a'a ahla lisaru graba (on its people

74 who became strangers) skaba ya domoyee skaba (pouring are

75 my tears) beddam ta'atar traba (its soil was fragrant with

76 a'a ahla lisaru graba (on its people who became strangers)

77 a'a ahla lisaru graba (on its people who became strangers)

78 Students: ((clap for Maya))

79 Teacher: Maya kteer bet'hebb tghani (Maya likes singing so much)

80 ((laughs as she leaves the class))

16-4-14 Nadia's class

As the above interaction shows, a student (Maya) demonstrated her interest in expressing herself through asking the teacher to give her the chance to come out (line 2) to talk about herself and to elicit questions by her teacher and peers (lines 5, 32 and 45). It is evident from the interaction patterns that it is unlike typical classroom exchanges which are dominated by the teacher. In this example, a student nominates herself, holds the floor and invites questions to make a conversation. When she was given the opportunity, Maya voiced her feelings about the situation in Syria and how she loved and missed her country (line 24). Although the teacher still focused on grammar by correcting Maya when she failed to use the past tense (line 17), the student succeeded in leading the conversation and keeping it going. With her interest in singing and with the support of her colleagues to sing, Maya chose to sing although she was told there was only one minute left (line 66). The extract illustrates the need for students to express what is on their minds including their past experiences and their hopes for the future. From the evidence gathered through ethnographic and classroom observation as well as informal chats with teachers and students, drama combines different artistic elements such as the interest in learning conversation, speaking out in front of class, singing, and performing outside the classroom. In addition, lack of resources, qualifications and space underlined the need for a creative way of teaching which can correspond to these limitations and which is likely to bring about a positive atmosphere to the classroom where both teachers and students, who came out of the war, feel motivated to engage in improving their new teaching and learning situations.

## **6.4 The role of drama in improving the teaching and learning situations**

### **6.4.1 Drama functions**

Using drama in the English classroom in the current context has proved to be a novel idea or as some teachers described it ‘a revolution’. The novelty of introducing drama had several advantages. I will examine each function considering evidence from the data.

Main themes	Sub themes	Codes
<b>Role of drama</b>	Cognitive / critical thinking	Ss don't know the letters / drama helps Ss think in English, improve fluency / Ts think they need to use drama gradually / Ts use drama to teach grammar and vocabulary / Ts realized they had artistic skills / Ts have dreams to achieve
	Social / interactive	Ss enjoyed drama / Ss interacted with peers / Ss engaged with movement / Ss liked drama with more than one person / Ss self-nominated themselves during drama / Ss were immersed in real life situations
	Develops artistic skills	Ts realised they have the ability to be performers / Ss joined rehearsal group outside school / As a form of art, drama liberating function combats extremist mentality
	Affective / emotional	Ss were able to build confidence / Ss were physically and emotionally involved / Ss were motivated / Ts were able to understand students' personalities and spot the problems they face / Ss engaged in gestures by imitating the T / Ts create a context for interaction through drama / Ss became creative

Table 15: Summary of main themes and sub-themes of using drama

#### 6.4.1.1 Cognitive Function

Drama has a cognitive function when it comes to learning a language. In the current study, I worked with teachers to choose the right time for using drama in their lesson such as a way to revise what they learned such as grammar and vocabulary which they already focus on. Before we talk about how teachers introduced drama gradually, it is worth mentioning that most of the students had little or no English to start with. Basem explains how half of his class do not know the letters in English. He described his teaching like patch work where he needs to fill in learning gaps:

*Five of my students can speak English, another five are medium level, the remaining ten students don't know the letters. I do patchwork. I give the lesson, then I go back and patch the areas that look torn or faulty. It is like a painter filling in gaps after first layer of paint, the English teacher responded to how he deals with the different levels in his class.*

Chat with Basem 11-4-2015

Therefore, it was essential for teachers to start gradually so they reach out to students from different levels of language skills. Having started with activities which require minimum verbal language and more non-verbal cues, students were encouraged to take part even though they knew little English or they *didn't know they knew*. One teacher explains how using gestures was useful in engaging students to learn English.

*It encourages them because for example in the beginning they don't do anything just gestures just they do something... teaching them how to speak .. It's the same when you acquire the mother tongue... Drama can improve the acquisition of language.*

Interview Basem 2-6-15

The picture below is a screenshot taken from a lesson video where Basem was teaching *Beauty and the Beast* in year 5. The teacher was narrating the story from the course book and the students were asked to make corresponding gestures to the narrative. Students were acting the role of children working in the field, while the two sisters were standing aside. Beauty was milking the cow.

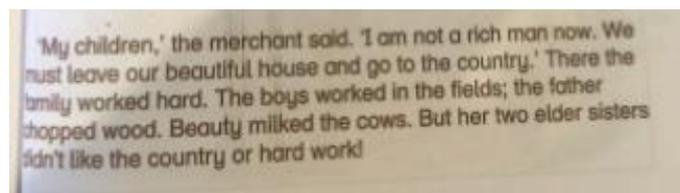


Figure 21: Extract from coursebook on *Beauty and the Beast*



Video screenshot 5: Gestures from Basem's lesson (photo: Doukmak)

By using gestures, students come to develop their literacy skills (Vygotsky 1978) in foreign language. By acquiring literacy skills, students become prepared to effectively 'think in English' (Banerjee 2014:80) and so improve their fluency as one teacher explains:

*In these games, you use your mind to think about a lot of things. If you want to speak English just the idea comes to your mind and you speak fluently. Just train your mind to think.*

Samer's class audio 16-4-15

According to Boal (1979), using physical expressions can help students to explore their experiences, feelings and ideas. Games and techniques used in this study allowed such exploration. Students were able to draw on their body language when they took part in these exercises such as acting out character in a story which the teacher was narrating.

#### **6.4.1.2 Social Function**

In Vygotsky's terms, knowledge is acquired through social interaction. Drama is a medium of learning by doing (Dewey 1991); it is a social action which requires the learner to interact with peers or teacher to live the experience in its context. In the classroom, students are given the chance to 'work together, watch and listen to one another, talk through ideas and improvise together, shape material and present it in groups' (Winston 2012:5). I will examine the social function of drama in the data. During a lesson by Mona as she was introducing *Little Red Riding Hood*, the following interaction took place between students and their peers and the teacher:

- 1 Teacher: What is she doing?
- 2 Student1: am tutuf azhar (she's picking flowers).
- 3 Student2: Leki! (Look!) Shakla mendemjeh (She seems having fun)
- 4 Student3: Pick up
- 5 Teacher: Okay
- 6 Student1: Shmeyha! Shmeyha! (Smell it! Smell it!). Fiki Tshmeyha
- 7 (It's okay to smell it)
- 8 Teacher: Thank you. Okay. You said about something that is related
- 9 to fruit. Yes you can pick up. You can imagine there is a
- 10 tree and you can pick up some fruit.
- 11 Student4: Am tamel hek (She is doing like that). Sawi hek! (Do like
- 12 this) ((She mimes she's picking flowers))
- 13 Student1: Jibi Asayeh w khbeti fiha shajara (Bring a stick and blow
- 14 the tree)
- 15 ((Teacher laughs, students laugh))

- 16 Student2: Had fraze! This is strawberry
- 17 Teacher: Thank you.
- 18 Student2: Tameena! (Give us some!)
- 19 Student5: Tafadali (Here you go!)

Mona Class audio 27-4-15

It is evident that students went beyond interacting with the teacher and started communicating with their peers such as giving them suggestions ‘*Smell it*’ (line 6), helping them with the right gestures ‘*Do like this*’ (line 11-12) and asking them to share some of the ‘imaginary strawberry’ ‘*Give us some*’ (line 18). For students, drama activities involved movement, interaction and fun. One student from Basem’s class in year 6 explained this further:

*We liked it because it involves being active: we had to get up, go out of our desks then come back. We had the chance to jump, play and laugh.*

Basem’s class audio 20-5-15

In addition to making suggestions to each other during role play, students also started to suggest to the teacher how to do things. For example, during Basem’s class, students came up with the following suggestions:

- 1 Student1: Estaz ino nitahadeth ma ba’d (Teacher that we talk to each other)
- 2 Student2: Let us do it in pairs
- 3 Student3: Teacher can each of us make a sentence

Basem’s class audio 16-4-15

Proposals, such as working in pairs (line 1 and 2), reveal the influence of drama on motivating students and changing the power dynamics in the classroom; students became a partner in directing the scene and their voice revealed how drama can promote for participants’ agency through moving from being an ‘audience’ to a ‘director’ position. Their voice of modifying the methods of doing the activity reflects the dynamics which a ‘spectator’ assumes in Theatre of the Oppressed (Boal 1979). Teachers who allowed pair work preparation during their class seemed to have noticed that students were more likely to participate with their peers, get ready then improvise in front of the class. Ahlam reported her students’ interaction during the telephone activity:

*Yes when I put them in pairs, each student started to talk and tell her colleague we will do so and so.. They wanted to work in pairs. They later told me: ‘when we went*

*for a break, we stopped speaking in Arabic. Teacher, we feel excited'. You can see that they have developed the skill to learn together.*

Chat with Ahlam 13-5-15

Rabi also reported how his students responded that they enjoyed 'drama' particularly 'with more than two persons' (Interview with Rabi 8-5-15). In addition, students became encouraged to nominate themselves as well as a friend. During a lesson by Farah, her year 10 students nominated themselves during 1,2,3 game saying:

- *Anaseh Ana! (Miss, me!)*
- *Aneseh khalena natle'a ana w Rima! (Miss, let me and Rima come out!)*
- *Anseh Itala ma'ek?(Miss, shall I come out with you?)*
- *Anseh ana ba'dha! (Miss, me next!)*
- *Anseh ana betla'! (Miss, I can come out)*

Farah class audio 14-4-15

The above self-initiation patterns were recorded during just one activity which confirms the social role of drama in encouraging students to interact with their peers and their teacher. Interestingly, in the previous example students were nominating themselves alone, with a peer or with the teacher. Rabi reflected on the role of immersing students in real life situations: one needs to develop convincing skills as he reported how the doctor-patient role play worked for students.

*One needs to convince the audience that he's really a doctor, that he has really a patient.*

Chat with Rabi 8-5-15

Such a space will potentially enable students to take an active part as they become open to interacting with peers and the teacher. As they engage in communication with their peers, students become more 'sensitive listeners and more apt and mature conversationalists' (Liu 2008:7). So they can learn as audience and gradually build their confidence to participate. Apparently, participation could be dominated by outgoing students while shy students have little or no chance to speak. The next section explores the role of drama in assisting shy students.

### 6.4.1.3 Affective function

Through drama, learners particularly shy ones are likely to ‘blossom’ and to build their confidence through having the chance to ‘think and act creatively’ (Hayes 1984:10). With the creative nature of drama, the connection between the teacher and students becomes consolidated; students find it useful when the teacher goes creative. It helps them to go beyond the action to the meaning (Heathcote 1967:15). One student explained this:

*By the way, I better understood what was said when the teacher used gestures though my English is not so good. I told the teacher that I learnt the word ‘hug’. After I saw the gesture, I will never forget the meaning of the word.*

Chat with a student after Mona’s class 27-4-15

So drama opens up an ‘affective space’ where students ‘become engaged emotionally with the thrill, tension or straightforward enjoyment of a developing story’ (Winston 2012:3). In this space, students feel safe to take risks when expressing their views and sharing their knowledge rather than being intimidated by making mistakes or feeling shy. During the ‘Go Bananas!’ activity (Swale 2009:65), where one of the players must answer every question with the word ‘banana’, students had the opportunity to ask questions in English and it is evident that they did come up with questions even though some made grammatical mistakes.

- 1 Student1: Do you love your friend?
- 2 Student2: Banana
- 3 Student3: Are you love me?
- 4 Student2: Banana
- 5 Student3: Are you love school?
- 6 Teacher: Do you love
- 7 Student3: Do you love school?
- 8 Student2: Banana
- 9 Student3: What’s your name?
- 10 Student2: Banana
- 11 Student1: What’s your funniest moment
- 12 Student2: Banana
- 13 Student4: what are you eating?

Although the teacher corrected student 3 (line 6), the same student carried on asking another question (line 9). Having a safe space, as the above drama activity illustrated, obviously encouraged students to explore ideas in a foreign language despite their limited language skills. In the following extract, a teacher explains how drama similarly encouraged her students to participate in classroom activities. She gave an example of a shy student who gained confidence after getting involved in a drama activity for reviewing grammar:

*Your idea about how to play the situation I did it many times .. it worked a lot. When I wanted to explain how past continuous interfere with past simple ... she was doing like this way... Asked one to do something and asked another... Ok one was talking and one hit her.. from behind. And it worked a lot because the girl I asked to hit her friend she was a very shy student and after that situation next day, I was going to school. She met me. Before she didn't show me her face. Now hi Miss how are you? So this situation encouraged her a lot.*

Interview with Farah 20-5-15

The fun element in drama exercises seems attractive to shy students as Farah reported in the above example from her class. According to Farah, she never heard the voice of the shy student before taking part in the drama activities. This teacher was amongst other teachers who shared the positive impact of drama on engaging their students and motivating them to participate during their classes. One reason why drama is likely 'evoke strong emotional responses' (Schewe 1998: 218) is that it involves one's own personality in the given act or scenario. Such involvement helps the teacher to understand the personality of the child and to spot any problems that require attention such as poor concentration as Suhaib explained:

*The most important thing about drama is that it reflects the child's personality; that this student is likely to be a leader in the future; that student is likely to be depending on others... for example I realised there was something wrong with Mosa. I called him to come for a chat ... I understood that he was facing a problem with concentration. So it (drama) helped me understand the personality of the child.*

Interview with Suhaib 4-6-15

Having the chance to act creatively and to draw on their personalities, students became more confident and more likely to respond to the given situation. One teacher explains this further:

*Drama is good it supports and improves our English... we think we are the same person who do this so we try to imitate the same accent and try to do the same gestures, body language... They (drama ideas) can create quick response and (students) immediately adapt to the new ideas.*

Interview with Adam 28-5-15

For Ismail, the affective function of drama in terms of its physicality and its trigger of emotions, enable students to draw on ‘lived experience’ so they keep tuned in and ready to engage in the interaction with their peers and teacher:

*Drama makes students live with the idea .. reach a stage where they experience a certain situation so they become more able to interact using the language to express themselves. I think they (drama ideas) created a context for interaction.*

Interview with Ismail 21-5-15

According to Boal (1979), fiction is influential in creating such a safe space where participants can share their feelings and use their voices to contribute to building a performance. Interestingly, Ismail highlights the role of the teacher in attracting students’ attention and enabling them to ‘experience’ the situation through language be it verbal or non-verbal. Drama is thought effective in creating a *context for interaction* as it ‘temporarily suspends the classroom context in favour of new contexts, new roles, and new relationships’ (Kao and O’Neil 1998:4). In terms of teaching methods, teachers become less reliant on translation and more ‘authentic’ in using gestures and sounds to convey the meaning: *‘students find it easier when I make a sound or a movement. There is no need to translate the word’* (Interview Ahlam 10-6-15). In the following extract from year 9 class, where the teacher used drama to review a text about ‘Tokyo’, students tended to be creative when it came to illustrating ideas such as Japanese fans and local meals:

- 1 Teacher: Japanese fans
- 2 maraweh yabanyeh (Japanese fans)
- 3 Student1: do like this (student mimes shaking a Japanese handheld
- 4 fan)
- 5 Teacher: and local meals
- 6 wajbat mahalyeh (local meals)
- 7 Student2: eat eat

Class Mona 21-4-15

Although the teacher kept using translation when introducing the text, students sounded more comfortable at leading how to embody the text at hand. For instance, students who are watching their colleagues acting out concepts such as ‘Japanese fans’ and ‘local meals’ gave instructions to their peers (lines 3 and 7) at the front of the class; miming how to use a fan and the act of eating respectively. This signifies that students went beyond the translated meaning to embodying it in ways they thought expressive. Education practice needs fun, as a local artist put it ‘*When you frown in my face, I won’t listen to you*’ (Nouredin 22-5-15). Among the functions mentioned above of drama, the affective and social roles potentially serve as empowering students and enabling them to be ‘spect-actors’ (Boal 1970) rather than passive recipients of knowledge. According to McLaren (1999), being a spectator draws on participants’ agency as they become liberated to act. Such action, even when it is fictional, for Boal is “a rehearsal for the revolution” (Boal 1979, 2008: 98); when participants engage in interaction with each other, they become aware of possibilities to act (McLaren 1999). In drama mode, students become conscious of what they want to do in the classroom. For instance, one student exclaims ‘*I want to take part*’ during a drama activity (Samer’s class 16-4-15). On the other hand, students’ emotional and physical involvement in drama activities invites the teacher to reconsider traditional teaching methods where the teacher is the only source of knowledge. Physical involvement included moving out of their desks, using body language when in role and when helping out other students on stage as well as using items in class (pens and papers) as props. On the other hand, emotional involvement was featured in students’ engagement with the thrill of the story such as students’ response in Mona’s class (21-4-15) to the scene of teenagers’ culture.

- 1 Student1: Act like teenagers
- 2 Students laugh
- 3 Student2: Jump
- 4 Student3: Leleleleleesh (exclamation of happiness in Arabic)
- 5 Students: laugh

#### Mona’s class 21-4-15

Students in this class excerpt were emotionally involved in acting out the role of teenagers. For them, teenage involves laughing, jumping and shouting out happy expressions as student 3 did (line 4). Interestingly, students played out the context which the teacher suggested by choosing to draw on positive emotions. This resonates with Boal’s (1979) Image Theatre which involves exploring abstract concepts through relationships and emotions. Having examined the response



Main themes	Sub themes	Codes
Engagement with the research	Negotiate access / guide routes to gatekeeper	Ts took part in negotiating access / Ts went to the Wali to seek access / Ts guided through their connections to help me with translation / arranging meetings with potential gatekeepers / Ts were let down during negotiations / Ts helped with logistics, e.g. accommodation sometimes sometimes hosted me / Ts sometimes helped me find schools / Ts explained to gate keepers the value of my training
	Show varied levels of collaboration	Ts joined drama workshops / Ts engaged in chats about using drama / Ts planned their own activities of drama / Ts invited me to observe/co-deliver drama activities in their classes / Ts observed other Ts using drama / Ts referred other Ts to the drama training / Ts used drama ideas in teaching other languages, e.g. Arabic / Ts implemented drama even when I was not invited to join and reported back / Ts couldn't join drama training as the camp was closed / Ts missed the drama workshops as they attended other training programmes / Ts suggested venues for running the workshops / Ts advised to give out certificates at the end of the training / Ts used fairy tales drama with their children /
	Impact of engagement	Ts reported they were able to get jobs after they joined the training / School administration was convinced to include drama in school summer programmes / Ts built a network with other teachers to share ideas and resources / Ts learnt new ideas / Ts were able to engage students who never participated in class / Ts had access to the training materials and other resources donated by the American Embassy in Turkey / Ts and Ss formed a group to do drama with a local director / Ts said they will continue to use drama in their teaching / Ss want to do more drama activities during English classes / NGO workers who joined the drama sessions said it improved their English

Table 16: Summary of main themes and sub-themes of teacher engagement

### 6.5.1 Engagement with access negotiation

English teachers amongst other participants played a key role with negotiating access to TECs in the current study. During the intervention, few English teachers supported me in negotiating access either on my behalf or by giving guidance. For instance, Adam suggested that I arrange with a local NGO to carry out the training sessions as follows:

*'Why don't you check the Blue Crescent? I think it will be good to establish a good relationship with the big head. I am like your little brother'.*

Diary entry 4-4-15

It is evident that teachers viewed me as a *'family'* member who they wanted to support. It is worth mentioning that I knew Adam from the first visit when he was still teaching in the camp. I kept in touch with Adam after first field visit. Clearly, maintaining conversations with teachers was useful to build on trust relationships when I came back as they helped me with access negotiation and with other logistic issues such as accommodation. In the second visit, Adam was working with an NGO where he also taught English to staff members. From his new position, he tried to help by connecting me with potential access facilitators.

*On the way, Adam said that he told his boss about me but he can't promise he'll be able to help. 'Let's try and if not we can look for another solution', he added.*

Diary 25-3-15

In fact, Adam was one of the main teachers who offered help with negotiating access. Others like Ismail went with me to the MoNE to negotiate access to camp schools but this was not successful due to the strict camp policy. By engaging in negotiating access, teachers were also engaging in learning about the intervention and in convincing gatekeepers of its value. The ongoing conversations through calls and meetings were useful to indicate their interest in making the intervention happen. At times when I failed to contact the right person, our ways seemed to cross at some point, thanks to previous camp contacts. In the following extract from a diary entry at an early stage of the intervention, the Turkish director who I knew from previous camp visit referred to the fact that he found out that I arrived in Kilis even before I contacted him.

*The funny thing is that someone called the director today and told him that there is a student who needs help to enter the camp. The director asked 'what is his name?' and the one on the phone said my name. He'd better wait and see the many other channels which were taken to negotiate access.*

Diary 14-3-15

In fact, being a Syrian did help with building trust with the Syrian population. Being a woman meant that I needed extra support, a *family protection*. For instance, the primary contact in the second visit booked me a room in a hotel which he trusted when I first arrived. He also continued to support me in negotiating access throughout the intervention process.

### **6.5.2 Key indicators of teacher engagement**

Teachers displayed different degrees of engagement. These can be summarised in three main patterns: maximum engagement, average engagement and minimum engagement. In the following table, I highlight some indications of teachers' engagement. I will then provide a typical example of each degree through one teacher whose response corresponded to such indications. I will also make reference to other teacher examples whose responses reiterated a particular engagement degree. I will draw on data from the training sessions, the classroom observations as well as the teachers' interviews. The following table provides a summary of teachers' engagement levels:

Engagement Indicators	Maximum Engagement (e.g. Ahlam)	Average Engagement (e.g. Laila)	Minimum Engagement (e.g. Munir)
1- <i>Training Attendance</i>	They attended most training sessions	They attended some training sessions.	They Attended little or no training sessions.
2- <i>Classroom observation</i>	They invited me to observe their classes	I arranged with them to observe their classes.	I asked them to allow me to attend their classes.
3- <i>Keeping in touch</i>	They kept in touch throughout the training	They let me know when I checked with them how it went.	They did not keep in touch and hardly arranged to meet me.
4- <i>Dissemination of drama ideas</i>	They helped with disseminating drama ideas.	They implemented drama ideas in their classes with my help only.	They asked me to implement drama ideas in their classes.
5- <i>Peer observation</i>	They observed other teachers' lessons when the latter used drama.	They engaged less with other teachers who used drama.	They did not engage with the other teachers.
6- <i>Participation in other initiatives</i>	Took part in external initiatives (library, play, etc.)	They showed little or no interest in non-drama initiatives.	They hardly engaged in drama initiative let alone other initiatives.
7- <i>Autonomy</i>	Used drama when I was not observing	They used drama only when I was visiting their classes.	They did not use drama even when I was in their class.
8- <i>Feedback</i>	They reported back how the drama ideas went	They did not report back how it went.	They did not use drama to report how it went.
9- <i>Drama integration into curriculum</i>	They integrated drama into the curriculum.	They used drama ideas but not necessarily relevant to the curriculum.	They did not try to use drama at all.
10- <i>Teaching methods</i>	They depended more on drama techniques and less on translation and grammar	They depended heavily on GTM and sometimes used drama techniques.	They only used GTM.
11- <i>Teacher-student interaction</i>	Allowed students to take the lead in classroom interaction	They were in control and hardly gave the chance for students to take the lead of the interaction.	They were fully in control of the interaction.
12- <i>Innovation with using drama</i>	They adapted the drama ideas to suit their classes.	They borrowed the ideas with no modification	They did not use drama let alone innovate with using it.

Table 17: Summary of teachers' engagement responses

The categorisation may sound artificial, but it has been a useful exercise for understanding the different degrees of engagement that teachers displayed over the intervention period.

### 6.5.2.1 Maximum engagement

Maximum engagement can be defined as a high level of engagement where teachers display commitment and enthusiasm (Rutterand & Jacobson 1986 cited in Cardwell 2011:17). Teachers

who showed maximum engagement were likely to continuously engage in interactions with the researcher and other teachers throughout the training process. In terms of attendance, those teachers attended most of the training sessions. They also implemented the drama ideas they learnt about in their classes. Ahlam, for example, attended five out of the eight training sessions held weekly. She was motivated to learn new teaching skills which were likely to assist her in teaching and potentially with future career prospects. Moreover, those teachers invited me to attend some of their lessons where they tried these ideas. It is also worth mentioning that I arranged with teachers to invite me at their convenience to observe their lessons. Their invitation in itself, therefore, indicated their growing interest to engage in a follow-up of the drama training. In fact, they implemented drama even when they did not invite me and I mainly knew about these through informal chats throughout the intervention. Although Ahlam was a typical example of maximum engagement, it is worth mentioning that she built her engagement level over time. She appeared in one of the earliest sessions she attended as unsure whether she wants to take part. Gradually, Ahlam built confidence to participate in the activities. This extract shows how she received some support from other teachers during *Beauty and the Beast* scene. Basem reminded Ahlam of her line (line 6). Soon after Ahlam looked for a prop ‘whiteboard eraser’ to show a magic mirror (lines 12-13).

1 Reem: Just as her father was taken away (narrating the story)  
2 Basem: Yes ((He stands and grabs another teacher by arm to take  
3 out))  
4 Reem: and explained that he wasn't crazy  
5 Ahlam: ((stands and addresses Basem)) Stop  
6 Basem: He is not crazy ((reminding Ahlam of her line))  
7 Ahlam: Yes he is not crazy  
8 Basem: He is crazy!  
9 Ahlam: Nooo  
10 Basem: ((laughs))  
11 Reem: she showed Gustin a magic mirror  
12 Ahlam Yes where is a magic mirror ((went towards to the  
13 whiteboard and took an eraser as a mirror))

Third drama workshop 12-4-15

Ahlam later used *'The telephone'* activity in her year 8 class. Here's what she reported in a chat after the class:

1 Ahlam: So today we did this exercise: answering the phone. At the  
2 beginning, I demonstrated how to answer the phone. All  
3 students were sitting in their place and they appeared  
4 afraid and shy. They were not sure what to say. One  
5 student said I can't do it. Another student came out and  
6 did it. She didn't do it well. So I demonstrated again.  
7 I felt they became more comfortable. After that, two  
8 students came to the front of the class and did it. I gave  
9 them 3 minutes after that to prepare. All the class were  
10 keen to do it to the extent that they didn't want to go  
11 out during the break

12 Reem: Was it helpful when you put them in pairs?

13 Ahlam: Yes when I put them in pairs, they wanted to talk more.  
14 Every student started talking to her peer telling her so  
15 and so

16 Reem: Probably it will be useful if you used a real phone?

17 Ahlam: The first part of the exercise was to be done by one  
18 student (answering the phone). After she answered the  
19 phone, I asked who was on the phone and what it was about,  
20 you know. They guessed who it was and what they were  
21 doing.. they started to make longer conversations. The  
22 second part of the exercise was done in pairs (I talk to  
23 her), as the students suggested. Students reported that  
24 when they went out for a break, they stopped speaking in  
25 Arabic. 'Miss, we are really happy', they said. You feel  
26 that they are able to teach themselves: 'I can speak with  
27 myself at home in English', you know. They were eager to  
28 go home to start practising so they are prepared when they  
29 come to class to take part.

Chat with Ahlam 13-5-15

Engaging with Ahlam in such conversations after class helped Ahlam to reflect on how she used drama and how students responded. As displayed above, Ahlam reported how she used drama with her students. I asked her whether exams influenced students' participation in the drama exercises. Ahlam replied that the exercise was before their exam. She pointed out that drama was useful to make them feel comfortable as the following chat shows:

1 Reem: You said earlier that they are usually stressed out before  
2 exams, right?  
3 Ahlam: They had two consecutive lessons. I told them the  
4 questions will not be hard  
5 Reem: Ah so they had an English test?  
6 Ahlam: Yes. I put them at ease. I just said we will do something  
7 different so we forget about the exam

Chat with Ahlam 13-5-15

Similarly, Basem reflected on how he used drama in his class. He went on to talk about his preferable interaction patterns in engaging students with drama:

*In the beginning, I prefer pair work. For the students, they are not used to participating in groups. They are just learning individually so pairs first. After this we can make it bigger and bigger.*

Chat with Basem 17-4-15

Teachers tended to engage more in interaction with students when they themselves experienced using drama. Interaction patterns were beyond IRF patterns (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975) which were typical in this context. Emerging patterns were more student-led (pair and group work) and the teacher acted as equal to students. For instance, during a one-sentence drama exercise which the teacher integrated into his lesson on daily routine, the teacher assumed an equal position in the interaction when he himself elaborated on what he used to do when he was a child.

1 Student1: I-  
2 Student2: min andi min andi (let's start with me)  
3 Basem: okay Saeed  
4 Student2: biddour (in turns)

5 Student2: I get up er I get up 4  
6 Basem: I get up ?  
7 Student2: er at 7 o'clock  
8 Basem: okay I get up at 7 o'clock  
9 Student2: laysh (why)  
10 Student3: Aye (yes)  
11 Student2: I  
12 Basem: I  
13 Student2: Play  
14 Basem: play computer games ya'ani ente bitfeek w bitela'ab! (you  
15 mean you get up and start playing!) ((Students laugh))  
16 Okay wa Allah ana kenet walad sagheer kenet a'mel hayk  
17 (Actually when I was a small child I used to do the same)

Basem's class audio 5-5-15

While being actively engaged, Ahlam was able to reflect on her teaching method. She pointed out that she became less dependent on grammar and translation: '*there is no need to translate every word*' (Chat with Ahlam). Maximally engaged teachers were also helpful in engaging other teachers. Ahlam for instance went with me to invite other teachers from other schools. She told those teachers about her experience with the training and how different she found it compared to other training programmes. One key element for her is 'experience' where teachers get the chance to experience what it is like to apply drama ideas from students' perspectives as she explained below:

*The most important thing is that you come and attend. As we were saying when she came and applied an exercise, I didn't feel it was as affective as when I applied it. We have been working as a group, working together and applying these exercises just as if we were students. So I experienced the feeling of the student inside me. This is the most the most important stage. No matter how someone comes and applied ideas in front of me and I saw it all.. the best thing is that I was applying them. I felt the feeling of the student, what came to their minds.*

Chat with Ahlam and Suhaib 13-5-15

To summarise, teachers who showed maximum engagement were those who attended most of the training sessions, implemented activities with their students and reflected on their teaching practice.

### 6.5.2.2 Average engagement

Teachers who displayed an average engagement level, I want to argue, were more likely to engage with the intervention in their classroom only, rather than attending the training beforehand. They attended one or two drama workshops but they kept in touch afterwards. For instance, Laila attended one training session but she was still interested in working with me in her classroom to implement drama ideas. Her motivation to join the training was to learn a new teaching method to use in her classroom: *'I want to benefit from you as much as I can'* (First drama workshop 29-3-15). On why she stopped attending the workshops, Laila clarified that because it was for mixed genders. Although there were two other females in the session, she was uncomfortable with the presence of male teachers:

- 1 Reem: Then you stopped coming to the workshop.
- 2 Laila: I didn't have time. That is one reason and the second
- 3 reason is that all the members were BOYS!
- 4 Reem: Ahhh!
- 5 Laila: It is difficult for me. I don't move as I can as I
- 6 want.
- 7 Reem: I didn't know that. You should have told me. We could
- 8 have separated-
- 9 Laila: That's the first and important reason.
- 10 Reem: Oh no! I wish I knew about it

Interview with Laila 27-5-15

Therefore, I arranged with Laila that I can come and observe/implement drama when she invites me to attend or through conversations on the phone. When she used drama without me being present, Laila did not report back unless I asked her how it went. In terms of dissemination of drama ideas, Laila displayed a variation between average and maximum engagement levels. She recommended another teacher to connect with me to learn about teaching English using drama. With regard to peer observation, Laila did not necessarily observe other teachers' classes. However, she kept in touch with another teacher who displayed a similar level of

engagement. She used to ask whether I was observing the other teacher's classes. Laila was not interested in taking part in other research activities outside school such as the school play.

In addition to implementing drama in her classes when I was present, Laila mentioned that she used drama in other classes but gave little feedback on how that went. As an averagely engaged teacher, Laila borrowed the drama ideas which I introduced with little adaptation to meet the curriculum. Continuous conversations though were helpful to choose techniques that were helpful to what she was teaching. For instance, she wanted to teach the past tense and I suggested one-word and one sentence stories to help her revise these tenses with students. It is worth mentioning that, outside drama activities, Laila continued to use typical grammar and translation in her lesson. In terms of teacher-student interaction, teachers like Laila were still in control of the interaction and hardly gave the chance for students to take a central role. Therefore, IRF patterns were prominent. Having continuous conversations with the teachers seemed to help them reflect on how they changed their teaching practice. Mona engaged with the following conversation after she tried *Little Red Riding Hood* with her year 7 class:

- 1 Reem: What about the students of the class?
- 2 Mona: I think they've seen another part of me. Yes.
- 3 Reem: which you usually show at home with the kids..
- 4 Mona: Yes, yes. True especially when I am changing my voice and
- 5 doing some expressions okay-
- 6 Reem: Yeah
- 9 Mona: and they're not used to have me as a fun teacher. Because
- 10 when I enter the class they're always depressed and they
- 11 say English is boring and it's very hard Miss. and it's
- 12 okay if we feel it because we're studying Islamic Studies.
- 13 You feel depressed when you read such sentences, such
- 14 comments.

Chat with Mona 27-4-15

So average engagement meant that teachers were willing to learn new ideas but when it came to implementing those ideas, they were less likely to take the lead and preferred working with me during class time to implement drama.

### 6.5.2.3 Minimum engagement

As I mentioned earlier, this section is brief as there was not much data to report the engagement of those teachers. Teachers who responded minimally to the drama intervention either attended no training or attended one session. On the other hand, they agreed that I attend one or two of their classes where I led the drama ideas myself while they were sitting to the side. Munir, for example, was invited to attend the training and he attended one training session. He however was not confident to try those ideas in his class. It is worth mentioning that most of these teachers learnt about the session towards a later stage of the intervention. So, their minimum engagement could be attributed to missing out on the training from the start. Munir regretted that the training he attended which clashed with the drama training was not very useful. For him, he seemed to have had some negative experience with previous training where he, as a teacher, felt like ‘guinea pig’ for irrelevant interventions.

*We are guinea pigs; everyone wants to try new ideas with us, said the English teacher at Ekram Chatin school. I regret attending the training programme. I didn't find it useful. It was my friends who signed me in. I wish I attended the drama training with the English teachers instead.*

Chat with Munir 30-4-15

Such a negative experience seemed to influence some teachers' engagement level. There are key aspects about schools and the educational environment which facilitated or obstructed teachers' engagement with the drama intervention. I will draw on the main aspects which particularly highlight how the teachers responded to the intervention as the following table shows:

Helpful factors	Hindering factors
Flexible curriculum	Changing timetable
Common training of teachers	Stuck in camp
Varied qualifications	Lack of commitment and motivation
Building a professional network	Poor communication

Table 18: List of helpful versus hindering factor to affect teacher's education

### 6.5.3 Contributing factors behind teachers' engagement

#### 6.5.3.1 Flexible curriculum

Teachers of most levels, except the 12<sup>th</sup> grade, were not strictly required to complete a certain amount of the curriculum and sometimes they were free to include or exclude textbook materials depending on their preference. For instance, Basem used to focus on songs in his lessons. Every lesson, he allocated some time to revise or learn a new song. For Basem, learning songs was good to assess students' oral skills in English as he explained during a chat after a class:

*'I told them we have 5 songs. If you can sing those 5 songs properly, you will have it (i.e. succeed in the oral exam).'*

Chat with Basem 16-4-2015

In the following extract, he engages students with revising a song they learnt in a previous lesson:

- 1 Basem: Group 1, we'll sing a song
- 2 Group! Group 1 are going to sing, okay?
- 3 Please group 2, group 3 listen to them (snapped his
- 4 fingers) So 3,2,1 sing!
- 5 Students: ((singing)) I'm going to go across the road
- 6 Be careful, don't run
- 7 We're going to play on the beach
- 8 We're going to play on the beach
- 9 Student1: I am-

10 Student2: I am going-  
11 Basem: bidkum tehadoo am tesrou shwai (you need to slow down, you  
12 are a bit fast) bidna nayed min awal w'jdeed (let's  
13 start all over again)

#### Basem's class 5-5-15

As per the above extract, it is possible to notice that teachers were flexible with using the curriculum through integrating songs to teach or, as Basem intended, to test speaking skills. Therefore, it was possible to suggest extra-curriculum materials and in a way to suggest new teaching methods such as drama when teaching the existing curriculum. In addition, the fact that some teachers used to be absent from class made it possible for other teachers who were asked to cover their colleagues' classes to allow extra-curriculum activities. During those classes, teachers were free to teach different activities including drama. For example, Ahlam was covering a lesson of an art teacher. Usually she allowed students to draw and sing or play games with numbers.

1 Ahlam: shall we play the game of numbers which we played last  
2 time?  
3 Students: eh anseh (yes miss)  
4 Ahlam: English  
5 Students: laa! (no!)  
6 Ahlam Arabi baaden inglizi (Arabic then English)

#### Ahlam's class 14-5-15

Later on, during the same lesson the teacher suggested that we try some drama exercises and I demonstrated with her the '1,2,3' exercise before she asked students to practice it in pairs. Such flexibility with time and materials gave teachers an extra chance to use drama ideas.

### 6.5.3.2 Common training of teachers

All teachers, including teachers of English were recommended and often obliged to attend training by local or international NOGs and government bodies which sponsored their schools. For instance, the *IBC* which sponsors few schools in Kilis required teachers to attend a pedagogy training course. Otherwise, teachers' incentives could be stopped. Although teachers never joined training on teaching English, the concept of training was somehow known in this

context. This was helpful for introducing the drama training. For instance, some teachers advised where to do training; others recommended I provide certificates for teachers at the end of the training course as most training bodies did. Having been through different training programmes, teachers were becoming more aware that they needed specific training on teaching English and not just psychological and pedagogical programmes. Therefore, the drama training was the first of its kind; something new and useful as it gave teachers a hands-on experience to teaching English through drama. What is even more useful in the training was that teachers had the chance to improve their spoken English skills. Suhaib explained this further:

*Generally speaking English teachers need one thing; spoken English. When Siham came here I liked to speak with her and to listen to her.*

Chat with Suhaib 4-6-15

The mixed attitudes towards training played a role in how teachers engaged in the drama training. It is worth saying that the overall attitude of teachers was positive towards learning innovative ideas that are likely to help them within their current circumstances.

### **6.5.3.3 Demand for qualifications**

Having different teaching qualifications, teachers showed a positive attitude towards learning new techniques which are likely to improve their teaching practice. In the first training session, many teachers expressed their willingness to develop their teaching methods where they depended heavily on translation. They varied between undergraduate students to graduates with little or no experience in teaching. Interestingly, with the varied qualifications, teachers sounded to agree on the need to develop professionally through following training programmes. Farah for instance pointed out that she was expecting to learn new ideas from the training so she can use them in her teaching:

*I am here because... I look for something new that I don't know. I like to be creative. I want to get new ideas from you.*

First drama session 29-3-15

Farah did have some teaching experience from home. Those teachers with little experience showed no less enthusiasm. Samer is an example of a graduate of English department with no

prior experience in teaching. His little experience, however, motivated him to join the training to develop his teaching skills:

*It is the first year I am teaching. It is the first experience. I love teaching very much. I am very happy helping the Syrian people.*

First drama session 29-3-15

Interestingly some teachers who joined the training were not interested in teaching as such. They still wanted to take up teaching, and to follow a professional training, until they secure a future career in their own field. Basem completed bachelor degrees in English translation and radiography and was keen to find a job as a translator but because his applications were not getting through due to vitamin 'wow' i.e. favouritism, he seemed to find himself teaching 'for the time being' as he spelled his thoughts out in the first training session:

*Actually I am not interested in teaching English. I am interested in translation but until now I didn't find the exact work; something that I want. I am teaching now until I find (something). Yes my career is.. I want to be a translator because it is my specialization at university. Here it is about vitamin wow. So you apply and apply and apply as a translator but nobody answers.*

First drama workshop 29-3-15

In addition to gaining professional development, the teachers of English articulated that they wanted to 'improve their English' particularly speaking skills as Laila wrote in her reflective notes after she used drama with her students.

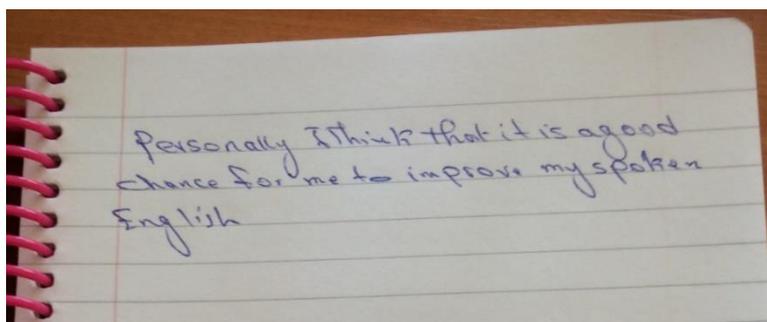


Figure 23: Laila's reflective notes 1 after implementing drama

Considering the varied qualifications and interests of teachers, it is worth noting that teachers were keen to move forward in their career. Engaging in the training programme was an opportunity in the direction of achieving their future aspirations.

Adam is an example of a teacher who did not graduate back home but he had been engaging in different jobs until he would hopefully get the opportunity to continue his study. He articulated his situation at the start of the training:

*'Unfortunately, I didn't graduate because of the current situation in Syria. I want to apply for a scholarship to continue my study. First, I taught English at schools. After that, I tried to apply for a lot of jobs. Until now I have hope to continue my study, but until when I don't know'.*

First drama workshop 29-3-15

Towards the end of the training programme, Adam reiterated the reasons why he engaged with the training: 'get experience' and more qualifications.

*I said yes because I want to get experience. The same now, I don't work with my specialisation, but I acted well then they selected me.*

Chat with Adam 28-5-15

#### **6.5.3.4 Building a professional network**

Teachers who took part in implementing drama ideas in their classrooms started to connect with each other in terms of observing each other's lesson, borrowing materials and conversations on how these ideas turned out. Such collaboration amongst teachers enabled those who missed the workshops where drama ideas were introduced to 'live the experience' through other teachers' practice and therefore gain confidence in taking these ideas into their classrooms. The conversation between Ahlam and Suhaib, which was reported in the need for resources section above, highlight the role of building a professional network to share resources. By coming to observe other teachers' classes, they were motivated to use the drama ideas too. This meant that teachers were not solely dependent on the researcher who was collaborating with them during field work; rather they gained the opportunity to develop professional relationships which were likely to continue even when the researcher was not present. For instance, Farah could not attend the workshop on *Cinderella*, but she went to observe Ahlam teaching the fairy tale through drama in her classroom. Farah borrowed some resources and also created her own to implement the drama ideas.

Teachers were empowered to grow personally and professionally. Having used these new ideas, teachers were further confident to demonstrate to other teachers who did not engage with the

researcher to observe their classes and join workshops which were run by the researcher. The new ideas became their own and they started disseminating them. A community of teaching practice started to build up. One of the best things about these workshops, according to Ahlam, is that *they connect teachers of English who otherwise will find it hard to meet other teachers* (Eighth drama workshop 25-5-15). Moreover, workshops connected teachers from the camp and the city which otherwise seemed less likely due to geographic limitation of other trainings in that context. Ahlam, who gradually implemented different drama exercises and stories as well as creatively used drama to teach curriculum materials, realised that these ideas deserve to reach out to other teachers so they also get the benefit of developing their teaching practice. She, therefore, invited other teachers to come and observe her lessons and she did refer some teachers to attend the workshops which I planned. In fact, she even succeeded in changing the administration perception of drama after principal and school staff went to attend her classes. The principal decided to add drama as a subject to the summer club and invited the teacher to teach that subject. In a chat with the same principal who observed some of Ahlam's classes, Ahlam reported that he realised '*there should be enough support for drama at school*' (Written feedback 25-5-2015).

## **6.5.4 Hindering factors which affected teachers' engagement**

### **6.5.4.1 Stuck in camp**

Taking into account that I was not able to access the camp, it was also difficult for teachers from the camp to engage in the intervention. At times teachers were not able to come out of the camp due to security reasons. Teachers from the camp were therefore not able to join the training, come for interviews and other research activities. That is why Ismail missed some of the training sessions in Kilis city. These restrictions amongst others minimised the engagement of camp teachers. For example, I had to depend on their own account to learn about their use of drama in their classroom. Some of them were interested in learning about the drama training but they were not able to make it to the sessions. So, I arranged one-to-one meetings to give them an idea of the drama activities. For instance, the following extract is from a chat with Maria:

- 1 Reem: There is the one-word story exercise. I went to the wood.
- 2 You and I will tell a story through saying one word each.

3                           For instance, I

4    Maria:            Like

5    Reem:            To

6    Maria:            Go

7    Reem             To

8    Maria             School

9    Reem             With

10   Maria            My

11   Reem             Friend

12   Maria             Friend

13                     (we both laughed as we said the same word simultaneously)

#### Chat with Maria 16-4-15

The one-to-one meetings sounded useful and could motivate teachers as Maria exclaimed: ‘*I feel excited to try them out*’. However, such meetings could not provide a safe environment where teachers can safely explore these ideas as students. Being stuck in the camp for different reasons hindered the teacher’s engagement with the drama intervention.

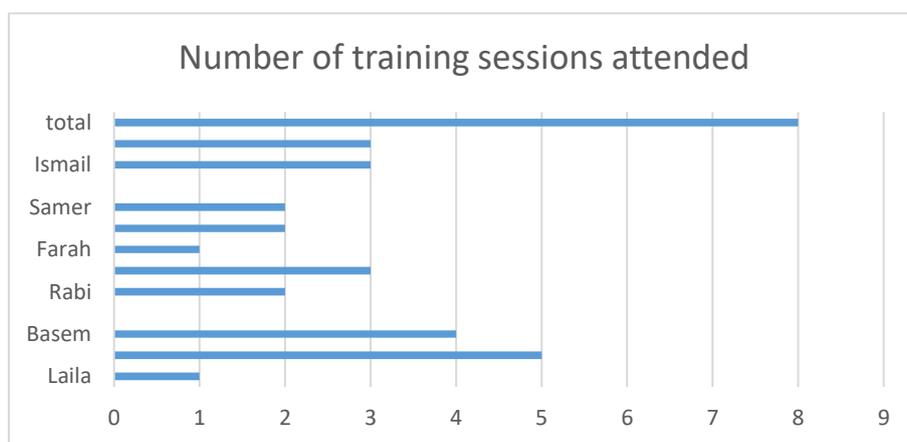
#### **6.5.4.2 Lack of commitment and motivation**

In order to be engaged, teachers first need to be motivated to take up the suggested ideas. Teachers will need reasons for them to get involved in outside initiatives. Otherwise they will abstain or avoid taking part in the first place. Motivation can be extrinsic such as receiving a certificate or meeting the requirements of employers, so they continue giving incentives. Having showed interest in getting involved in research, the next step for the teachers is to maintain this interest by committing to attendance and dialogue. Teachers feel ups and downs in this context. At times, they can show high motivation to new ideas. Other times, they feel very low and hardly want to engage in any activity. Emotionally speaking, teachers felt unstable and therefore not sure whether they want to take part in the suggested training. The following picture was shared by one of the teachers on the WhatsApp group I created to keep teachers updated of meeting details. The picture is an example of the greetings and jokes shared. It particularly reflected how most teachers looked when they felt down. It says: I don’t feel like doing anything.



*Photograph 21: How a teacher felt, shared on teachers' WhatsApp group*

The caption reads 'I don't feel like doing anything'. It was difficult to get teachers up and coming to join training and other extra school activities. Even motivated teachers admitted that it was hard for her to commit to attendance. Every time, Ahlam does not feel like attending, but when she makes it to the workshop she feels it was worth coming. She attended more than any other teacher, yet for her it was not easy to bring herself to the training. The following chart illustrates Ahlam's attendance rate compared to other teachers.



*Figure 24: Training sessions attended by teachers*

Every teacher has their own hopes for the future but the current situation makes them feel stuck and unable to proceed with their plans. Ahlam wishes to complete her study in Turkey but the process of crossing the borders to the regime's areas seems a nightmare she does not want to go through. She explains further:

*I have a dream. I have been for four years here and I didn't do anything. You feel stuck. You wait for something but it takes so long and you never know*

*whether you will get it. I have started my application to the Turkish scholarship but I can't proceed as I need to obtain a statement of marks from Syria but they say it is not possible and you need to get it yourself. I can't go back to Syria!*

Diary 17-3-15

Although professional development is not Ahlam's dream, she eventually has taken up the opportunity to join the drama training with the hope that she will be able to pursue her dream at some point. In the first workshop for teachers, they articulated their drive for getting involved; they want to develop their teaching practice by learning new methods and ideas. '*I want to make benefit of you*' (First drama workshop 29-3-15), Laila pointed out why she joined the workshop. Laila's motivation was also echoed by few other teachers who were glad to meet someone coming from Britain to help with improving their English first and with their teaching practice. In terms of commitment, teachers were engaged in other commitments which made them absent from school. Most teachers were on the move, either travelling or being involved in making their living through private tutoring or translation. Being in and out of the school was a challenge to taking up new ideas. Even when they were physically less mobile, they tended to be mentally and emotionally immersed in a lost past or an uncertain future. Some teachers attended some workshops then preferred to work within their classrooms and schools rather than committing to attend more workshops.

*The teacher whose voice is hoarse said let me try again as he was rehearsing the voice of the wolf. He pulled his partner towards the closet which was attached to the wall and he tried to fit him in, everyone was laughing. He appeared serious. We stayed for one hour later sticking the laminating film to the Little Red Riding Hood A3 colour printouts.*

Second drama workshop 5-4-15

#### **6.5.4.3 Changing timetable**

The teaching hours, which are usually decided by the Syrian administration ideally in collaboration with the Turkish administration, used to keep being changed by either side. Teachers are notified of the changes with little or no say on any modifications. Mona, for instance, reported how she was told of the changes in the timetable when another English teacher quit. Mona was allocated to teach the other teacher's classes. Moreover, she was not asked to teach other subjects.

*The Turkish principal changed the schedule after one English teacher left. He gave me fourteen classes instead of eight. I don't have to teach music and drawing now.*

chat with Mona 27-4-15

The frequent changes in the timetable created a sense of confusion for teachers on planning their other commitments including participation in the research such as interviews or attending other teachers' classes. For example, I went to observe one of Laila's classes only to realise that her timetable changed and that she no longer had a class then. On another occasion, I arranged with a teacher to meet in the teacher's lounge before her class. The principal walked in and request a teacher to go and teach a class.

#### **6.5.4.4 Poor communication**

Without effective channels for communication, engaging teachers is a continuous struggle. To communicate with teachers, I started a WhatsApp group called 'Speak English Group' as it included teachers of English and NGO workers who were keen to improve their spoken English. I also set up a Facebook page where I shared the materials which I used in the workshops. Teachers had the opportunity to double check any likely changes in workshops or meetings through the WhatsApp group. Some of them also shared pictures they took from their lessons where they used drama. Moreover, some used group to share news related to teachers such as the exam all teachers including English teachers had to sit. So WhatsApp proved effective since it was affordable and accessible for most teachers to communicate with me and other teachers and to share relevant news and materials. Karim shared pictures from his lesson on the WhatsApp group. In that lesson, he used drama to teach a story from his course book.

#### **6.5.5 Evaluating practice of engaging with drama**

Although teachers showed varying levels of engagement, almost all teachers seemed keen to evaluate how the drama intervention helped them develop their practice. Very few teachers produced written accounts about using drama which tended to take the form of a summary of what happened in the class rather than their own reflection on their practice. The following notes were recorded by Laila after she used drama with her year 11 class:

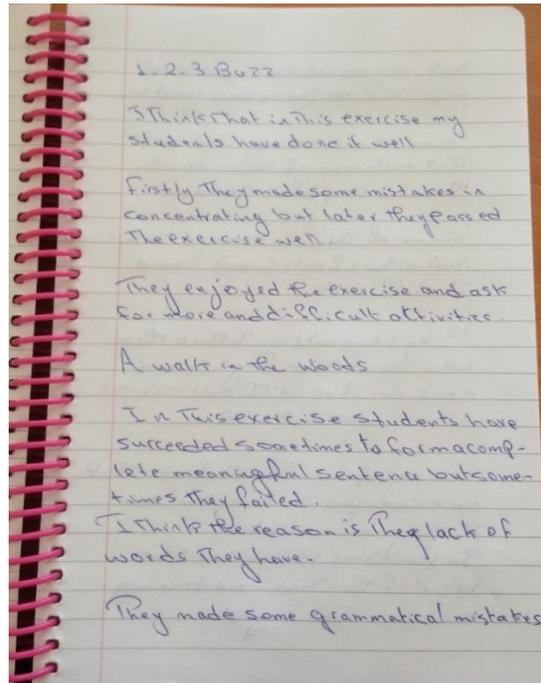


Figure 25: Laila's reflective notes 2 after implementing drama

On the other hand, most teachers preferred to discuss relevant issues in informal chats before or after they implemented these ideas. Basem admitted at the end of the training that he did not produce written evaluation of his teaching practice yet he was keen to implement these ideas and to report orally how they worked for him *'We had feedback all the time. I didn't write much (laughed) just speaking'* (Eighth drama workshop 24-5-15). It was therefore crucial to engage in informal chats with teachers so that they could reflect on how things worked and how they could improve them. Evaluation actually started at an early stage, right when new ideas were introduced to these teachers. Some of the teachers seemed to critically view these techniques and to initially assess their relevance to their students. Mona, during '1,2,3' activity within the training, wondered what the purpose of this exercise was so she can assess if it will be useful for her students. Having learnt that it is about concentration, the teacher agreed that it would be helpful to her students and so implemented the activity after reflecting on students' needs and the purpose of the activity. In this way, she and other teachers were in the position not just to endorse new ideas but also to challenge their usefulness and relevance to their own context. Ahlam reflected on how drama exercises worked with her students, as she responded to my question on negative and positive aspects of implementing drama:

*No it was only 5 minutes or 10 minutes exercises. But in the case of stories and longer activities, class discipline can be an issue. Concentration activities, that I*

*listen to my classmate and they listen to me, worked very very very well. Students forgot that they have to speak. I want to emphasise that the teacher has to control the class, otherwise it will be chaotic. The positive points are much more. For instance, because I was aware that my students had a problem with concentration, I implemented a concentration exercise. I can say that %90 of the students interacted. I felt the majority of class showed a positive response.*

Chat with Ahlam 8-5-15

Having used drama activities in their classes, some teachers wanted me to observe their lessons instead of giving an account of how it went. For instance, Laila invited me to her class to see how she implemented the new ideas:

*I want you to attend my class. I have tried the exercises you mentioned and I want you to see how they work, the English teacher of the 11th scientific section came into the teachers' lounge and grabbed me. The teacher who wanted to prepare coffee for me saw that and I apologized later for leaving immediately. The teacher invited me to the class. This is miss Reem, she introduced me to the students.*

Diary 31-3-15

Working closely with teachers obviously had the advantage to reveal issues which I may not be able to access had I just stopped at passing the drama activities to teachers. Ismail, for instance, predicted that students may still be influenced by war impact and may not respond as they are expected to:

*You need to keep in mind that our students may undergo depressing times. Most of the time there are news coming of families or acquaintances who die in the war. Those might not want to participate, he warned.*

Chat with Ismail 20-3-15

Such conversation allowed the teacher and me to choose activities, such as concentration, which take into account students psychological and mental situation. Another teacher noticed the difference in students' response when she started drawing on her vocal skills and facial expressions '*They saw another part of me.. especially with changing my voice and doing some expressions... That was something I touched on when I was in class*' (Chat with Mona 27-4-15). Revisiting the implementation of drama and questioning its relevance to students proved useful for both teachers and for me as a researcher in developing a sustainable approach to drama.

## 6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has showcased the main findings from the current study. Findings captured the educational situation in Kilis camp and urban area and reported potential responses to a drama intervention. According to teachers and students, they are stuck in between a war situation and uncertain refugee conditions. Their liminal experience makes it difficult for them to carry on their pursuit for education. How can they focus on education when they are concerned their future is at stake whether to keep their teaching jobs as teachers or to be able to have their degrees acknowledged as students? The slow and unpredictable integration process places them at a precarious position. The study shows that liminality can be conducive to positive change as teachers and students were aware there needs to be some change to improve their situation, but they were not sure how. Evidence from ethnographic and classroom data called for using drama as a tool to support the teaching and learning practices in the current context. By building on students' and teachers' artistic skills, it was evident that they welcomed and found it useful to improve language learning and develop cognitive, affective and social skills amongst others. The response of teachers was of particular interest due to their central role in introducing change to their classrooms. The study demonstrated the varying level of responses by teachers ranging from negotiating access with the gatekeeper to attending training and engaging with feedback about how the drama implementation went. The varying responses of teachers, the study showed, were shaped generally by economic and political circumstances including teachers' financial situation and the local elections and more specifically with teachers' previous experience with training and interest in professional development. Having explored the main themes which emerged from the data, I want to emphasise the role ethnographic description in illustrating the context and how access was negotiated. I also found ethnography data useful to capture the complexity of implementing the intervention. Interviews and chats, on the other hand were influential in giving voice to teachers in the analysis process. I will move now to discuss the findings in terms of their contribution to the literature reviewed earlier.

## **Chapter Seven: Discussion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The discussion chapter examines the main conceptual and practical issues underlying the current study in correspondence with the research questions and their relevance to existing literature. The chapter highlights what I learnt from the current research experience in the light of findings and from understanding their relationship with the general context where the study is situated. I will start by reflecting on teachers and students' challenging experiences and development needs in a liminal context. Having set the context, I will then move to explore the introduction of drama to the English language classroom and the role it served in improving the teaching and learning practices of Syrian refugees. To discuss the response of participants to the current research, I will look at the patterns and degrees of their engagement particularly with regard to teachers as they form the basis of classroom interventions. I will then draw on the wider implications of teacher development and conducting research with refugees in general.

### **7.2 Educational needs and experiences of teachers and students**

The current study has identified some of the pressing educational needs of Syrian refugee teachers and students and their learning and teaching experiences in refugee camps and urban settings. To discuss refugees' needs and experiences, it is essential to remember the big picture where they are based, i.e. context. I want to emphasise the purpose of the current research to contribute to informing policymakers and potential intervention designers including myself of the current educational needs so prospective interventions can be planned accordingly. Having said that, the discussion aims to integrate the voices of students and teachers being equal actors in finding out about their needs and not just having their needs 'measured' for them. According to the analysed data, I want to classify them into three dimensions:

- Temporary education system: a failing venture
- Liminal nature of the current context: a force for change?
- Prospects for developing teaching and learning practices

The way how these themes developed correspond with the way in which the current research evolved: starting from visiting schools, to unpacking the transitional experiences of teachers and students all the way to designing an educational response based on existing resources and

interests. The themes reflect the voices of teachers and students about their current educational practices. Despite the difficult circumstances under which the refugee participants live, they are acknowledged as key resources to introduce and develop viable educational practices in their context.

## **7.2.1 Temporary education system: a failing venture**

### **7.2.1.1 Summary of the scene**

When Syrians first crossed to Turkey, the study shows, most of them concentrated in border areas with Syria, with the hope that the war will finish so they will be able to go back home. Others went to urban settings by the borders such as Kilis and further into other Turkish cities. The Turkish government set up temporary accommodation centres and in these they built different facilities such as schools, mosques, supermarkets and community centres. The current study gives insights into the temporary education system in which Syrian refugees in Turkey found themselves. These insights show how these education centres have been set up randomly by Turkish authorities (e.g. AFAD), NGOs (e.g. UNICEF), Islamic committees from Gulf states (e.g. Al-Ansari school) and individual business people (see list of TECs in Appendix 5). Different sponsors meant different agendas such as imposing political and religious ideologies. I will draw on the common issues they implicate. In Öncüpınar camp, the schools were set up by AFAD shortly after the camp was built. Syrian refugees made up most of the school staff to the extent that one may think they are Syrian schools. Gradually afterwards, these ‘schools’ came to illustrate a hybrid education system which combined both Turkish and Syrian aspects. As the context chapter explained, this hybrid system entailed that the schools carried Turkish names and hired Turkish staff such as headteachers, art teachers, Turkish language teachers, and cleaners. At the same time, the Syrian modified curriculum was adopted and exams set by Syrian interim government were used. Outside the camp, the scene was not very different although refugees have access to less services such as accommodation. I will examine next the reasons why such system was not effective.

### **7.2.1.2 Why is the temporary education system failing?**

After TECs were set up, the Turkish authorities started to implement an integration policy to include Syrian students in the Turkish education system. TECs are now standing ‘on the verge

of a catastrophe' as a teacher warned. Such a thought is based on his experience with students and other teachers who both seemed to be dropping out of schools. I will explain how that the integration policy was not effective for the following reasons:

- Giving autonomy to refugees at first to manage their education then gradually withdrawing it;
- Focusing on appearance of education centres rather than on quality and access to education;
- Little or no incentives for refugee teachers / Difficulty of retaining teachers;
- Lack of communication with the refugee population;
- Lack of trust by Turkish authorities towards foreign education supporters.

#### **7.2.1.2.1 False autonomy**

Having allowed Syrian refugees and the political representative authority of Syrians SIG to run schools and lead on exams allowed many Syrian children and teachers to go back to school. Teachers and administrative staff from refugees had to liaise with a Turkish principal. The latter acted as a link with the MoNE but gradually started to intervene in every detail such as changing the school schedule and deciding who can be sent for training as teachers in this study reported. This seemed to disturb the dynamics of the Syrian school staff as I will explain later in the section on lack of communication with the refugee population. The question that arises here is: was it useful to allow such sense of autonomy for Syrian refugees then withdraw it? The current study shows that it had negative implications on both teachers and students. The Syrian curriculum degree was not first accredited but through the negotiations between the SIG and MoNE, the high school certificates became recognised in Turkey, i.e. it allowed Syrian graduates to join one of seven Turkish universities after sitting university access exams (e.g. SAT). The other element which showed that the Turkish authorities was experimenting with ways to educate the Syrian population was that it allowed the Libyan curriculum to be taught and for its exams to be accredited to access Turkish universities. For Syrian refugees, they feel they are *guinea pigs* who other people try experimenting with, as a Syrian teacher exclaimed. In fact, his remark made me think of my own intervention and whether I was engaging with Syrian refugees to bring about change rather than imposing this change on them. I will discuss this further in the engagement section.

As far as the decision of refugee integration is concerned, it meant a threat to Syrian teachers and other school members of being laid off if TECs get closed and Syrian students join Turkish schools. Syrian teachers fear this policy will come to effect and they think that they will be the first to be laid off as Kilis seems to be the first target of implementing new regulations as it includes a high population of Syrians which outnumbers the local population (The Irish Times, May 2016). Some Turkish analysts believe that Turkey allowed Syrian refugees to start schools in their own language with the assumption that they will return home (Kirişci 2014). On the other hand, there does not seem to be any solution on the political and security levels especially northern Syria where most of the refugees in Turkey come from. So, giving some sense of autonomy to Syrian refugee teachers and staff in TECs then withdrawing it demonstrated the lack of long term policy to address the educational needs of refugees. Besides, integrating Syrian children into Turkish schools poses a risk for Syrian teachers and staff who were recruited in the first place.

#### **7.2.1.2.2 Appearance versus quality**

Since the beginning of the Syrian war, Turkey has adopted an ‘open-door policy’ to Syrians fleeing for their lives. Hospitality, however, has its limits (Kirişci 2014) particularly with the escalating conflict across the borders and the mounting pressure on the Turkish government resources. Turkey’s response focused exceptionally on the appearance of some resettlement centres, including Öncüpınar, to show their commitment to providing humanitarian aid (Güçer et al. 2013). This seems to contradict the Turkish authorities’ rhetoric that demands European governments to assist Syrian refugees in Turkey (DeWind 2007). Öncüpınar camp has been described as the perfect camp (New York Times 2014) taken its “orderly” view and clean tiled paths. Just like other parts of the camp, the schools looked “meticulously” clean. Although hygiene environment is important to make a healthy learning environment, other key issues like access and quality of education seem to be overlooked. The overall situation of the TECs demonstrates an interim response and lack of longer-term policies for integrating Syrian refugee children into the Turkish educational system.

The major gap which the education policy seems unable to bridge is the high proportion of Syrian children outside school. This is concentrated in urban areas compared to camps, around

74%, as estimated by UNICEF (2014) who warned that these children are Syria's lost generation. According to AFAD report (2013), the percentage of children who attended school is higher in camps (reached 82.7%). Such high rates did not seem to last long, according to the current study, as most of the students started dropping out of school going to fight in Syria or finding their way to work in the city for boys and getting married for girls. Giving little attention to access education has left hundreds of thousands out of schools. In terms of regulations to access TECs, Syrian refugees must have a temporary protection ID. Those who do not have it, they cannot join TECs or any other Turkish school. When we consider the age requirement for children in Turkey, a Turkish official reported the imperative to access education for Turkish children under eighteen. However, there is no such policy in place to integrate refugee children in Turkey into schools, he added. In terms of quality of education in TECs, two key elements have been emphasised by many international organisations in their approach to measure the quality of education: cognitive development and emotional learning (EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005). Although the current study did not measure the quality of education as such, it examined the challenges encountered by teachers and students before and through the drama intervention. Findings of this study further demonstrated lack of resources such as textbooks and crowded classrooms which correspond to common issues of teaching in difficult circumstances (Smith 2011).

#### **7.2.1.2.3 Little or no incentives to refugee teachers**

When TECs were opened, Syrian teachers and administrative staff were hired as volunteers with no salaries, except for incentives every few months by UNICEF and SIG. In the schools which I visited, I learnt from the teachers that there are rumours about 'upcoming' salaries for Syrian teachers which many teachers in this study were suspicious if it will ever happen. On the other hand, the Turkish language teachers were paid regular salaries by the Turkish government and UNICEF (The Atlantic 2015). This dichotomy was seen 'unfair' by Syrian teachers. This uncertain fate made it a must for teachers to look for alternative jobs outside TECs. Teachers of English were particularly looking at jobs with NGOs as their English competency was likely to help them connect with NGO staff. As a result, TECs have witnessed a difficulty in retaining teachers particularly qualified teachers who developed experience in teaching refugee children.

#### **7.2.1.2.4 Lack of communication**

Language barrier was another indicator of an ineffective TEC system. The study showed the need for communicating between refugees and their Turkish host. In order to communicate, Syrians need to use Turkish. Taken the diverse cities and ethnic backgrounds refugees come from Syria, some were originally from a Turkmenistan origin and thus speak Turkish. Others who used to live in proximity to the borders also speak Turkish. Turkish speaking refugees seem to be in a better position to communicate with the Turkish host. This also meant the need for other Syrians to use a mediator from the afore-mentioned group or an interpreter. In the current study, teachers complained that they received unequal treatment compared to their colleagues who could speak Turkish.

Within such environment, it is easy for rumours about new regulations to spread. Teachers and students, according to the current study, were influenced by the rumours which spread around ahead of new regulations. The current study showed how high school students were reluctant to study for the end-of-year exams when they heard that the baccalaureate certificate which they were likely to obtain from TECs would not be recognised. Similarly, the news about incentives rise for Syrian teachers was received by '*we have heard this before*' frustration and many teachers were considering quitting school partly due to lack of communication. Having no clear channel of communication within schools added up to the uncertainty which refugee teachers and students experienced in the TECs. In order to ensure effective communication with refugees, UNHCR recommends 'creating an environment where they feel safe and protected' (2016). Feeling insecure about their jobs, teachers received different regulations by Turkish authorities as something they may not agree with but have no say about. In addition, many Syrian refugees seemed to have little trust in the Turkish government and considered forcing new regulations on their daily lives another form of 'oppression' which they fled from. At school, students responded with writing on desks and walls to the strict cleaning regulations at school. According to teachers, students misinterpreted the concept of 'order' to 'nizam' which means regime, referring to the Syrian regime. On occasions where teachers stood to express the needs of camp refugees, they faced the risk of being deported to other camps, not to mention that the Turkish principal who was supporting them was also discharged from the camp. Whether inside or outside school, having no space to express themselves obviously caused the communication to break down between refugees and their host.

From a Turkish perspective, they also faced the barrier of language to communicate with refugees. For the government, through AFAD and other ministries, it is responsible for managing the mass displacement of their neighbouring people (World Bank 2015). In terms of communication, Turkish officials expressed the challenge of communicating with Syrian refugees as the latter are mobile which makes it difficult to support them with relevant services. That is why they appointed Syrian representatives in schools and other institutions. Thus, it boils down to how effective those representatives and mediators were in maintaining communication between the guest and host sides. As a researcher, I experienced refugees' frustration in negotiating their needs with their host. Throughout the access negotiation process, I had been through mediated communications with the Turkish authority which involved interpreters. At the same time, I acted as a link between the two sides such as when I was asked by school to take part in a conference which brought together government and non-government organisations. The conference shed light on Syrian women as humanitarian actors and beneficiaries (Istanbul Summit 2015). In a nutshell, communication is a two-way process and needs to be facilitated between a top-down host trying to support and on-the-ground refugees who feel insecure to express their needs. Lack of communication also proved a challenge for a researcher who comes to investigate and contribute with educational interventions.

#### **7.2.1.2.5 Lack of trust towards foreign education supporters**

Despite the calls by Turkish government for European and other countries to shoulder the responsibility of supporting Syrian refugees (Brussels II Conference 2018), the current study demonstrates that the government is yet reluctant to engage fully with foreign supporters including academics or charities as Siham pointed out (Chat 10-4-15). As a researcher, I must admit that accessing TECs was an endless story of negotiation due to the strict Turkish policy of engaging external support. Current educational interventions are arranged almost solely through UNICEF which is a partner of the Turkish government in supporting some of these schools. Although Turkey has urged the EU to support refugees through the EU-Turkey deal, Turkey remains suspicious of foreign interventions. The debate got especially heated with President Erdogan's threat to open the borders in front of migrants to cross to Europe. Apparently, the political debate has its implications on the ground. As a researcher coming from a European country, I was confronted with denial of access and suspected of being a spy

for a UK secret intelligence service. It is worth mentioning that having built connections on grassroots level contributed to negotiate the access which was possible in this study.

If the Turkish government wants to engage external support for refugee education, it will need to re-consider its policy to provide access to refugee communities (Brussels II Conference 2018) and facilitate the procedures involved. By the same token, why does the Turkish government want to limit access to refugees' voices? There is no reason to suppose that representing a refugee camp as a five-star welcome centre will yield much benefit to the host nor to the refugee communities. At the end of the day, challenges are worth exploring and being shared in order to learn from. I want to reiterate here that I did not go to the camp to disclose shortcomings of Turkish services as much as to understand the situation of refugees to potentially provide necessary support. Finally, I want to point out that having obtained permission to conduct my intervention in some of the TECs was not the end of the story. I had to make decisions in the field on whether I had to visit all ten schools in Kilis or just focus on specific schools. The decision was so much based on snowball effect led by the teachers who were engaged in facilitating access and disseminating the current research (see Access Chapter).

### **7.2.2 Liminal nature of the current context: a force for change?**

In this section, I will discuss how the concept of liminality shapes the status and roles of refugee teachers and students in the current study. I will draw on the meaning of liminality from the findings in relation to what other studies have contributed to the discussion of liminality in the literature. I will argue that liminality is a positive force for change. In terms of status, Syrian teachers and students have acquired a 'guest' status (Güçer 2013) once they crossed the borders to Turkey. Their status, as the study showed, gives them little access to education and other services such as work in their new communities. According to Malkki (1995), they exist outside the 'national order of state': their temporary protection status makes them neither refugees nor citizens; they are 'betwixt and between'. Being close to the borders, those teachers and students have had the experience of crossing back and forth to Syria, between the camp and Kilis city, between different camps and so on. Their liminal experience is not just associated with their geographical location, but also with their transnational cultural experience which may vary between local and global forms (Appadurai and Breckenridge 1988:1 cited in Malkki 1995:5).

I am going to interpret liminal roles in terms of the educational and contextual experiences of teachers and students. In a context of a high uncertainty, it is not uncommon that individuals tend to fill in gaps that emerge due to the changing situation. Syrian teachers of English, being typical examples of English proficient speakers, were potential to be attracted to work in NGOs. Such a situation highlights the transient nature of the current context where teachers stand out as 'liminal personae' who are neither here nor there; they are 'without position' (Turner 1969:102). They are physically at school, but they are looking for a job in an NGO, going back to Syria to check on their homes or thinking of crossing the borders to Europe (see Adam's quote describing Ismail in the Context Chapter). Their transitory status creates a sense of community 'a *communitas*' (Turner 1969) which emerges when individuals experience liminality together and where their 'utopian ideals and hopes can be articulated'. Taken the social connections between people in the camp, in the city, in other camps and cities and across the borders, refugees come to develop social solidarity within the space they roam. In this space, they share hopes of returning home and ideals of revolution and freedom. In fact, their ethics form a framework to understand what is happening in Syria from displaced Syrians' perspectives and the impact it has had on them.

Likewise, students cross borders, shuttle between camp and city and their experience of uncertainty is also influenced by the transient nature of the context. Take the girls at the religious school in Kilis for instance. They live in the camp and they were in the girls' school camp during my first field visit. They started coming to Kilis to receive religious education which is not available in the camp. After school, they go back to the camp through arranged transport by the school. They are 'betwixt and between' (Douglas 1960) which makes them 'polluting' to their camp mates as they are exposed to social, cultural, economic and political life beyond the camp. At the same time, these female students are 'revitalizing [their] community' in the camp (Henitiuk 2004:3) by making connections with people who live in the city. For instance, some teachers and students leave the camp to join training programmes, including the drama programme in the current study, then they go back to the camp and spread news of what is happening outside. On top of that, these children and teachers have to make their living, especially if they live outside the camp and they have to pay the rent. Most of the time, they do work hours outside school time. For instance, children often work in local shops; teachers normally do private tutoring, interpretation or any other kind of work to get by. Other times, teachers and students quit school and take up jobs to survive. The interplay between the

camp and city dynamics invites us to rethink the spatial relationship between the camp and the city. They both live in ‘contingency, multiplicity, and complexity of refugee events and experiences’ (Soguk 1999:8). Their movement between the camp and city enables them to secure a living, to see the doctor, to meet family members

In moving between the city and the camp, these refugees act as some form of ‘human infrastructure’ that remakes both the city and the camp through collaborations and innovations that give ‘rise to a markedly heterogeneous domain of people’.

(Simone 2004: 410)

I will now shed light on liminal roles and how they relate to understanding refugee teachers and students’ experiences. The current study exemplified how liminality could be interpreted as a ‘fertile chaos’ for implementing change. In Turner terms, the nature of the context is fertile to allow for embracing new roles and implementing new ideas. I will now discuss the liminal roles enacted by teachers and students and how that paved the way for innovative ideas to develop. It is worth mentioning that the current study developed from an ethnographic stage where teaching and learning practices were observed all the way into a practical intervention which developed some of the insights which emerged during the ethnographic process. Being in a liminal context blurred the norms of traditional teacher and student roles. Both started to develop new roles inside and outside the classroom such as interpreter, journalist, audience, actor, singer, social media administrator, among others. Teachers and learners appeared keen to learn new skills and to build on their existing potentials. Being open to new roles, teachers and students still needed someone to facilitate embracing the new role. According to Somekh and Ziekhner (2009:8), the resulting chaos that is likely to accompany change can become fruitful only when liminality is ‘channeled’. The facilitating support came through engaging in a ‘community of practice’ which included teachers, students and other community members. The research process can be considered a channelling force which connected all through grassroots discussion of teaching and learning issues. The teacher who wanted to do a play, the teacher who thought about using innovative methods but never had the chance to implement them and the teacher who was eager to learn new ideas in order to help herself in the challenging context, all those teachers found refuge in joining the drama training programme where they came to develop their skills of using art in the classroom.

Having considered the liminal status and roles which teachers and students embraced in the current context, it is worth noting that they form a force for change. According to Turner, during the fertile chaos process, new ideas and structures emerge which are likely to predict ‘postliminal experience’ (Turner cited in St John 2008: 59-60).

### **7.2.3 Prospects for developing teaching and learning practices**

Although the current study focuses on finding out about the needs of teachers and students and help bridge those needs, I want to acknowledge that researchers need to be mindful that the educational scene is not all faulty; there are good practices out there. Although I do not have the intention of exploring these practices in their own right, I want to acknowledge examples of those as they emerge in the process of the current research. This resonates with the discourse approach I adopt which refugees should not be viewed as passive recipients of services but rather active partners in the process of providing services. I want to argue that investing in these prospects can potentially open the door for teacher development and better learning experiences for students. Here are some existing prospects for developing teaching and learning practices:

- Interest on behalf teachers in developing their teaching practice
- Use of arts by some teachers in the classroom
- Building rapport with the students beyond lessons
- Curiosity on the part of students to learn strategies to improve their English

It is worth noting that when I introduced drama as a teaching method, I encouraged teachers to use it as another option to the good practices that they already have. Such an approach corresponds to the recent debate on the importance of drawing on existing good practices when researching teaching and learning practices in difficult circumstances (Kuchah and Smith 2011). When we build on teachers’ expertise and students’ skills, it becomes possible to develop a resourceful classroom no matter how difficult their circumstances can be (Smith et al. 2017). I will now discuss some of the existing good practices in the current study.

#### **7.2.3.1 Interest by teachers in learning new teaching methods**

Teachers who took part in this study both in the ethnographic or interventionist stages showed that they were keen to learn from good teaching practices. Moreover, they were eager to improve their English skills too, particularly speaking. Such a positive attitude was significant

in terms of engaging teachers with the training programme for introducing drama and for then implementing drama ideas in their classrooms. Many teacher participants indicated the importance of progressing from traditional teacher-fronted classes towards student-centred learning although they were not quite sure how to implement these methods. In a recent study on Syrian teachers' perceptions under conflict Alyasin (2015), teachers seem to emphasise the importance of responding to the current situation. It is very clear in the current study that in addition to the need for providing learning opportunities for students, teachers of English were also in need of improving their English skills. The mode of the intervention which took the shape of training workshops in addition to in-class and beyond-class support gave teachers the opportunity to improve their speaking and other language skills. According to the report by the British Council (2016:5) on the role of language for resilience, 'building the capacity of language teachers can strengthen the resilience of the formal and non-formal education systems in host communities'. By the end of drama workshops, teachers expressed their interest in longer-term training. Feedback echoed by teachers who take part in short-term interventions indicate that longer and in-depth training will be more useful (Ettijahat quoted in BC, 2016: 23). Obviously, the needs of teachers go beyond improving how they teach into developing their own language skills and learning how to address 'initial language development needs of the refugee learners from diverse backgrounds' (BC, 2016: 30). So, there is a lack of training opportunities that teachers can access and some teachers show interest in professional development to meet the demanding educational context.

### **7.2.3.2 Use of arts by some teachers in the classroom**

Some of the teachers in the current study have already been using arts such as drawing and singing in their classrooms. These teachers, whether exposed to arts training before or acquired these skills through self-learning, were welcoming towards the drama intervention. Ranging from singing songs to narrating fairy tales such as *Beauty and the Beast*, teachers seemed to draw on using art in their classroom though more emphasising on GTM so no dramatizing was involved. At the same time, it was evident that students were keen to sing songs and play games though they did not necessarily link these to language learning. Art has been reported as transformative to the lives of refugees according to UNHCR. Across the seven initiatives reported through photography, painting, film and other creative media, art has proved 'a platform to raise awareness and encourage refugees to realize their own potential' (Parater

2015). No matter what the art form teachers brought into the classroom strengthened the chance for introducing another art form; i.e. drama to the English classrooms. Besides, it gave teachers the confidence to be creative with using the teaching materials. Cock and Dix (2012:89) suggest that drawing on ‘young people’s creativity and imaginations’ through arts, is likely to increase their engagement in the learning process’. Several studies which involved using some art form as a teaching method indicated a positive impact on the learning experience of students (McArdle & Tan 2012, Tegge 2018). Integrating art into classroom activities make them meaningful (Philippe 2013:11). I want to admit that such elements of using art by teachers was helpful to implement the current intervention. I also want to add that teachers who used art in the classroom seemed interested in participating in rehearsing for a play outside school to further develop their skills.

### **7.2.3.3 Building rapport with students**

According to Tsui (1996: 164) ‘establishing a good relationship with students is extremely important in creating a conducive learning atmosphere in the classroom’. Some teachers in the current study tended to have a good rapport with their students, while others were facing difficulties. In fact, teachers’ chats with students were helpful in finding out how the intervention worked for their students throughout the implementation process. According to Buskist and Saville (2001) teachers who show little or no rapport with their students might not encourage a positive emotional context for enhancing a better learning experience. In addition, building rapport with students was useful to identify students’ needs of resources and interests (Smith et al. 2017). This echoes the role of active learning in ‘transforming the lives of students’ through ‘a genuine dialogue between teacher and students’ (Freire 1970). Dialogue is essential in pedagogy of the oppressed as it enables the oppressed to build communities through cooperation and respect. The ‘development of values of respect and social justice’ are at heart of education (Crosbie 2018:202). Such dialogue featured in conversations between the teacher and students during open sessions. Doukmak (2014) highlighted the role of the teacher in creating a space of dialogic learning when teachers informally engage in discussions with their students. According to Brown, (1994: 421) there are many ways which teachers can use to establish ‘trust and respect’ with their students. These include: ‘giving feedback on individual student’s progress’ and ‘sharing humour with students’ both of which some teachers in the current study were already using in their classrooms. Other ways such as ‘inviting students to

express their thoughts and feelings’ and ‘valuing and respecting students’ ideas’ (1994: 421) were noticed to develop by teachers throughout the drama training. As a researcher, I found it significant to maintain this rapport and to benefit from it in evaluating and developing the current intervention.

#### **7.2.3.4 Curiosity on the part of students to improve their English**

On different occasions throughout the study particularly focus groups, students expressed their interest in learning new strategies to learn vocabulary, speaking and other skills. They believe that the current methods they use haven't been effective and it is time to develop their English so they can communicate with English speaking people who they come in touch with through NGOs which support refugees. Such awareness of their current needs and curiosity to improve their learning (Stephens 2007) was found positive to introduce drama as an innovative teaching method to the current context. For them, learning English is crucial for giving refugees a voice to share their experiences and opinions with the rest of the world (British Council 2016: 10). The sense of curiosity according to Freire is essential to ‘apprehend and comprehend the object of knowledge’ (Freire 1970:19). How can curiosity be promoted and maintained to assist learning? An example from second language learning is role-playing a telephone conversation (Pluck and Johnson 2011:28). Willis (1990:1) explains that in order to ‘catch [students’] interest ... [we need to] present them with a challenge they feel motivated to meet’. Having identified some of the good practices by both teachers and students which were observed before the intervention, it is time now to elaborate on the role of drama introduction to the English classroom.

### **7.3 Introducing drama to the English classroom**

In the process of examining the educational practices of Syrian refugee teachers and students I realised the need for an innovative teaching method compared with the traditional teacher centred approach. By drawing on classroom observation and chats with teachers and students in TECs, I want to argue for the potential role of drama in enhancing the teaching and learning experiences of teachers and students. As I mentioned in my rationale, the intervention came as a response to a critical educational situation rather than an intension from the start to introduce drama. Identifying the gap and a potential response was not sufficient; I had to hone my skills

in other disciplines such as education, theatre and refugee studies. Thanks to Applied Linguistics which allows the linguist to explore the complexity of real-life situations. I will now examine the innovative role of drama as a teaching method.

### **7.3.1 Drama as an innovative teaching method**

Drama was introduced as a teaching the method in the current context. To what extent it was effective depended largely on the contextual factors where these teachers lived and taught. I want to focus in this section on the role of drama allowing creativity and voice and on the role of the teacher in being the key to introduce change to the curriculum and to refugee classroom practices.

#### **7.3.1.1 Drama as a creative tool**

Drama is a new concept in the Syrian curriculum. There have been calls for innovative methods to be used in the curriculum (Abdul Wahed 2003) and for the importance of engaging teachers in the process of this change (AlYasin 2015, Mawed 2016). In the context of the Syrian crisis, drama and theatre have been used by local NGOs through informal initiatives in collaboration with artists, including Syrian artists, to address child development and healing from trauma and war impacts (Cherri 2019). According to INEE standards for education in emergencies, psychosocial well-being and protection needs of learners need to be addressed to ensure access to education and retention. There arises the need for innovative methods such as drama which teachers can use to respond to teachers' needs and development. As the findings in this study showed, teachers and students found it a novel idea. Teachers were keen to learn something new. Moreover, they seemed aware that they needed to work on their professional development and to find solutions to their problems. Such a positive attitude was a good start for introducing drama. It is worth noting that the introduction of drama into the classroom was not meant as a rejection of the traditional (and other) methods that the teachers were using but rather a tool which teachers can integrate into the curriculum to bring about a positive yet gradual change.

Drama is creative as it draws on the imagination of participants in creating the 'make-believe' world as a student reflected on her learning of the word 'hug': *'After I saw the gesture, I will never forget the meaning of the word'* (Chat with a student after Mona's class 27-4-15). Dewey referred to imagination as the 'gateway through which meanings are derived from past

experiences that are carried into the present' (Iannone 307 cited in Moore 2004:15). The main purpose of creative drama is to 'foster personality growth and to facilitate learning of the participants rather than to train actors for the stage' (Wagner 1998:6). So how did drama provide a space for teachers and students to be creative? Starting with teachers, they were likely to use gestures and tone of voice while narrating the stories. Some of these techniques they came across by getting involved in the drama workshops; others were established by the teachers themselves. In either case, the teachers used such creative gestures for the first time in their classrooms. As for students, drama offered them the opportunity to invest in their 'natural abilities to imitate and express themselves ... and arouse interest and imagination' (1990: 97). Students in this study were curious to use their imagination to make props. For instance, in a restaurant scene, pens can be forks and knives; notebooks menus, etc. Creative dramatics, i.e. educational drama offers 'a wide range of experiences on which they can judge the appropriateness of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies for specific situations' (Heinig 1977 cited in Wagner 1998:30). In this sense, learners become 'active constructors of knowledge' (Chukwu-Okoronkwo 2011:50). By interacting with their peers and their teacher, they are enabled to 'understand the world'. At the same time, they give their teacher 'the opportunity of understanding their thoughts and feelings' (p.51). Koste (1995) highlights the process of imagination enacted by students:

Every child at play behaves like an imaginative writer, in that he creates a world of his own or, more truly he rearranges the things of his world and orders it in a new way that pleases him better.

(cited in Moore 2004:9)

This corresponds with what one of the teachers explained about the impact of using drama on his students:

*Students live in the context of language. They develop the ability to better express themselves and to interact and communicate. It created a lot of interaction.*

Ismail 21-5-2015

Drama allows students to create 'a possible world' (Bruner 1986 cited in Wagner 1998:19) where they use simple gestures, objects and words to create meaning, to put language into context. By doing so, students explore situations from real life in a safe environment. The emotional involvement helps them to better understand the experience and assists their learning (Moore 2004:3) by drawing links with their schematic knowledge. 'It is taking the information and creating something new with it, which makes it relevant to the student' (Moore 2004: 25-

26). Boal (1992) highlights our ability as humans to imagine and be creative; to be ‘spect-actors’ where we can take the roles of an audience and a performer:

Humans are capable of seeing themselves in the act of seeing, of thinking their emotions, of being moved by their thoughts. They can see themselves here and imagine themselves there; they can see themselves today and imagine themselves tomorrow.

Boal 1992: 26

So drama has the power to set free the creativity of teachers and students through ‘dramatic playing’ (Moore 2004: 6) which is ‘characterized by a high degree of spontaneity as teachers and students work to create a fictional world in which they assume roles to explore issues that are of concern to them’ (Verriour cited in Moore 2004: 6).

### **7.3.1.2 Drama creates a space for agency**

Through drama, the findings showed that it is possible to build a world where participants feel empowered. Through literature, drama has been used to empower marginalised groups (Thompson et al. 2013, Hanrahan and Banerjee 2017, Vettraino et al. 2017). Refugee children are likely to be change agents when they are actively engaged in their own development (Makhoul et al. 2012). I will discuss the role of drama by focusing on its capacity to foster critical thinking, build confidence, engage in reflexive performance and articulate one’s aspirations. I will then discuss how the functions of drama can be conducive to improve learning and development. Drama can foster critical thinking skills (Bailin 1998) where students are encouraged not to take things for granted until they assess and reach a conclusion based on existing evidence. Democratic societies require individuals to think for themselves; to be critical thinkers. Freire (1975) invites students to think critically about their education situation rather than embrace a banking concept of education. Through drama, it became possible for students to build critical thinking through raising questions and making decisions on activities and content. Such new patterns give ‘agency’ to students to take the lead of their learning.

According to teachers’ insights in the current study, having little or no English made it difficult for students to participate in class as they lacked confidence in speaking out. Drama increases participants’ self-confidence as their engagement in drama empowers them to ‘explore aspects of the self through the mask of the other’ (Nicholson 2006 cited in Eadon-Sinkinson 2017:

183). By working in groups, ‘the ensemble’ spirit arises ‘where everyone supports everyone else [which leads to] trust and co-operation and will, when achieved, encourage students to find their own voices, lose their inhibitions, contribute and speak out in class’ (Winston 2012:5). Interestingly after taking part in warmer drama activities, students in this study asked their teacher to keep using drama, to put them in pairs and to give them more challenging activities. More importantly, drama ‘puts language into context, and by giving learners experience of success in real-life situations it should arm them with confidence for tackling the world outside the classroom’ (Davies 1990:97).

### **7.3.1.3 Drama raises aspirations and resilience**

Not only does drama give insights into students’ critical thinking and confidence skills, it also highlights their future aspirations and resilience. When it comes to examining students’ aspirations, it is worth clarifying that beyond these there are important dimensions to consider: basic needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualization (Maslow 1943, 1954). Drama has the power to create a safe space where students feel free ‘to make their own choices about what to say and, in doing so, to find the language needed to express those choices’ (Di Pietro 1987:2). In the current study, students felt safe to make suggestions on how they want to work such as when they asked the teacher to work in pairs (see Section 6.4.1.2). In this safe space, students were able to take risks with language and with expressing their aspirations about learning and about their future. Despite their limited English, students in this study were motivated to explore ideas in English such as making up daily life scenarios of their own choice. Aspirations tended to be local (Appadurai 2004:68) such as recognising school certificate or learning to speak in English. Yet, it also meant going beyond borders and overseas such as reuniting with families or crossing to Europe for a better life. A study (Karyotis et al. 2018) which I helped with in terms of data collection, revealed aspirations of Syrian refugees in the UK, Lebanon and Greece towards education and employment. Evidence from the data in the current study shows that drama activities promoted a ‘capacity to aspire’ (Appadurai 2004) by Syrian teachers and students to express their dreams of the future. Be it going back to Syria to rebuild their country, settling in Turkey or crossing to Europe, it is important to capture these aspirations for us researchers and for policy makers to understand the experience of refugees and more importantly for refugees themselves to improve their prospects of a stable post-

migration experience. Drama realities are ‘co-created by the young people ‘from their own desires, delights or inspirations’ (Thompson 2009:159 cited in Vettrano et al. 2017: 83).

In terms of resilience, drama and language education have proved as effective coping mechanisms under uncertain and low-resourced circumstances. Resilience describes ‘a child's ability to persist in the face of challenges and to recover after difficult situations’ (Folostina et al. 2015:2363). The British Council report (2016) emphasised the role of language learning in giving voice to vulnerable refugees, fostering social cohesion and building refugees’ capacities. In the current context, refugee children faced the risk of dropping out of school, losing family members in war, having limited or low-quality education, PTSD among other conditions. How did drama help them in these situations? Drama generated ‘a healing space for the participants to reflect on their experiences, to articulate their memories, negotiate many of their unresolved feelings, and consequently to arrive at a deeper insight in the trauma in their lives’ (Kurahashi 2013:250). In such space, students reflected on home memories, on how they missed their country and how they feel empathy with those in pain from war (e.g. *Syria in Pain* song, see Section 6.3.6). When students were asked to write a one-word story, some students chose to visit home cities such as Latakia and Damascus and imagined eating their favourite food with their family and friends. In doing so, students were emotionally and socially enabled to engage as ‘spect-actors’ (Boal 1970) rather than as passive recipients of knowledge transmitted by the teacher. Students, therefore, were empowered to ‘experience’ the situation through language be it verbal or non-verbal. Obviously, drama played a key role in ‘temporarily suspend[ing] the classroom context in favour of new contexts, new roles, and new relationships’ (Kao and O’Neil 1998:4) which were conducive to a better learning experience. According to conversations with teachers and students who used drama through workshops and classes respectively, drama was useful for creating a positive atmosphere for learning and teaching. For instance, fairy tales provided a framework where students were encouraged to play roles that were familiar to them, yet they were able to be creative in how they chose to represent it. In *Little Red Riding Hood*, students co-constructed scenes which the teacher was narrating by drawing on their imagination and familiarity with *Laila and the Wolf* (Arabic version) and by using props and body language. In this co-constructed ‘possible world’ (Bruner 1986), students learn by putting language into context. In a scene where a student played *Little Red Riding Hood*, other students gave instructions to that student to pick fruit for her grandmother. An exaggerated suggestion to blow an imaginary tree to get more fruit made the whole class burst

in laughter. Story dramatisation demonstrated how drama can be efficient in fostering a positive atmosphere where students explored a new language through familiar narratives.

Having explored some of the key roles of drama in improving learning skills such as critical thinking, confidence and social qualities like aspirations and resilience, I will now discuss the role of drama in promoting reflexivity. Colombo (2003) relates reflexivity to “the concept of ‘inter-subjectivity’ where all participants in the research process interact to produce ‘certain versions of knowledge’ [which are] inherently constructed and sustained by social processes, or ... by communal practices’ ” (p.2). In order ‘to be reflexive’ in drama ‘is to be at once one's own subject and direct object’ (Turner 1979:93); a characteristic which brings audience and performers together in the ‘ensemble’ mode (Winston 2012:5). Bolton reiterates that ‘it is possible for someone to be both a creator and an audience of their own reflexive process’. This echoes Boal’s metaxis i.e. ‘the experience of belonging to two worlds simultaneously; the real, physical world and an alternative and fictive reality created by being able to see oneself as both character and actor’ (Boal 1995; Linds and Vettraino 2015). A dialogic space is created in this situation where ‘we learn something about ourselves from taking the role of others’ (Turner 1979:82). In the between and betwixt space, reflexive narratives emerge (Vettraino et al. 2017: 82-83). Collier explains this further saying ‘it is the creative quality of reflection that is crucial to the learning that can emerge from reflective practice because it encourages learners to deal creatively with ambiguity and with change’ (2010:2). Boal (1992) advocates that theatre is ‘a way of implementing social change ... as it is a form of knowledge which can be used as a means of transforming society’ (cited in Eadon-Sinkinson 2017:183). Through taking part in drama, such creative and reflexive practices are promoted as drama allows to ‘make sense of [the] experience’ (Nicholson 2014:57) when ‘it trains us for social interaction that we aren’t yet prepared for in real life’ (Kester 2011:42). Evidence from using drama in the current study emphasises how teachers, through participation in drama workshops and learners through English classes where their teachers used drama, both enacted the roles of audience and performers. In both cases, teachers and students had the chance to engage in constructing knowledge about their refugee experience by working together and with the researcher. Researchers need to embrace an ecological perspective (van Lier 2000:11) into research in order to recognise the reflexive relationship between interaction, language, learning and knowledge (cited in Mann and Walsh 2013:299). In a refugee context, researchers need to understand ‘the contingency, multiplicity and complexity of refugee events and experiences’

so that they can ‘take seriously the muffled but persistent voices of refugees themselves’ (Soguk 1999:8).

### **7.3.2 Role of the teacher**

Having considered the role of drama in developing learning skills, it is worth now considering the role of teachers in introducing and facilitating drama.

#### **7.3.2.1 Need for teacher education**

Guliyeva (2011) calls for integrating drama into teacher education programmes:

As drama methods have not often been included in teacher training so far, it is of great importance that in-service training institutions offer workshops or even a real training course on the use of drama techniques in language teaching. (p. 521)

The current study findings showed that teachers found drama a novel idea and therefore it was significant to train them in developing drama skills so they feel confident when introducing it to their students. Drama is unknown in the Syrian school curriculum. Taken the teacher-centred nature of the classroom under study, it was necessary to negotiate power in the drama space which requires active participation of students. Cooperation was key in this process. According to O’Neil and Lambert (1982) the teacher, in drama, does not act as a facilitator whose role is restricted to giving instructions or commenting on the performance. Rather, the teacher ‘enact’ the knowledge and experience it along with students:

By becoming part of the drama process, the teacher can share in the experience, give it significance, and influence and control the work from within.

O’Neil and Lambert 1982:22

When the drama is over, there should be room for reflection and here arises the role of the teacher to assist students with reflecting on their learning.

#### **7.3.2.2 Teacher’s responsibilities**

From teachers’ experiences of using drama throughout the current study, the teacher holds the following responsibilities:

1. Trying the drama activities themselves in groups with other teachers before bringing them to their class;
2. Providing a safe space for taking risks in the target language;
3. Committing to using drama;
4. Adapting the drama activities to meet their students' competence and interests;
5. Scaffolding creative responses from students, especially shy students;
6. Providing constructive feedback on students' performance;
7. Encouraging students to be reflective and to give feedback on their own and other students' performance;
8. Keeping a journal of the successes and challenges and share those with other teachers;
9. Engaging with other teachers using drama through peer observations and discussions.
10. Reporting to the management how drama activities went to influence sustainable drama integration.

Some of these recommendations correspond with O'Neil and Lambert (1982) framework for integrating drama in the language classroom (2, 4, 5 & 6):

- Selecting themes and topics which will interest and motivate the group; (4)
- Choosing activities which are within the competence of the group but which will stretch their developing capacities; (4)
- Eliciting creative responses from the group; (5)
- Identifying and supporting contributions which have potential for learning; (6)
- Encouraging the group to explore what they don't know rather than re-enact what they do know. (2)

O'Neil and Lambert 1982:21

To assist teachers to monitor the introduction and progress of drama, I collaborated with them through follow up chats and workshop discussions where we discussed challenges and possible solutions. In terms of teachers' perspectives about their responsibility, recent studies (Alyasin 2015, Mawed 2016), have shown that teachers believe that they are not usually involved in making decisions about the curriculum or deciding the teaching methods in their classrooms. Therefore, they may not engage with assuming their responsibilities as such. On how teachers engaged with the drama intervention, I will highlight some of the key issues which influenced their engagement.

## 7.4 Engagement with research

In this section, I address teachers' engagement with the current research and I discuss relevance to the wider literature. When teachers engage with and in research and make pedagogical decisions based on, or informed by, sound research evidence, this will have a beneficial effect on both teaching and learning (Davies 1999). Borg (2010: 391) suggests that the term 'research engagement' can be understood as both 'engagement IN teacher research (i.e. by doing it) as well as engagement WITH research (i.e. by reading and using it)'. I want to clarify that I was trying to encourage teachers to engage with the research process so that they are active partners and not just implementing a research agenda which a researcher brought to them. In other words, the current intervention was not meant to teach teachers how to do research as this would require planning the intervention accordingly such as in terms of ethics, training and methods. I will focus rather on how teachers engaged with me as a researcher and how they adapted the research plan to suit their classrooms. Before I move to the 'how', I want to highlight some of the reasons which motivated teachers to engage with research in the first place. This brings up the divide between teachers and researchers and whether teachers really want to engage with research.

### 7.4.1 Reasons for teachers to participate or not to participate in research

One of the main reasons for teachers to participate in research, according to Barker (2005), is their willingness to improve their learning and teaching experiences. Another factor which motivates teachers to get involved in research is the qualifications they seek to obtain so it helps them to apply for jobs at NGOs and English related jobs. In addition, teachers were keen to take part in the research in order to develop 'transferrable' skills such as improving their spoken and communication skills. Throughout the research process, teachers demonstrated these reasons when conversing with the researcher such as Karim when he explained that:

*'I need the certificate from the IBC for my new job with the MSF', the English teacher requested after he gave a lesson on the dove and the dog following the Sunday session.*

Chat with Karim 18-5-15

Having reasons which motivated teachers did not mean that some of them were not sceptical of the research at the start. As one teacher put it '*we are guinea pigs everyone wants to try new ideas with us*' (Chat with Waleed 30-4-15). Such concerns are legitimate especially when teachers have not joined English teaching training programmes yet and their perceptions are

based on previous experience which they may not have found useful. Another concern is that teachers do not have time to participate in research. Finding time to join the drama training, to meet with me and to arrange class observation was a challenge. Teachers had other commitments including other jobs and childcare. According to Barnett (2007, 2011), active participation in research requires ‘a will’ on the part of teachers ‘to learn; will to encounter strangeness; a will to engage; preparedness to listen; a willingness to be changed as a result of one’s learning; and a determination to keep going’ (cited in Evans et al. 2017: 408-409). Overall, for teachers to be motivated to participate in a piece of research, they need to know if the research will be relevant to their teaching. In addition, teachers are ‘long-life learners, and the biggest incentive to participate in any initiative is the promise of valuable and relevant learning’ (Grantmakers for Education, 2014:10).

#### **7.4.2 Refugee discourse impact on refugees’ engagement**

From my early discussion (see Literature Review Chapter) about refugees being labelled as passive and unwanted others on the margin of national state (Malkki 1995), it is important to consider now how the terminology was understood in doing research with refugees in the current study. At the outset, I found it difficult to find out where the refugee camp was due to a misnomer by the Turkish authorities. Just like the word ‘refugee’, the term ‘refugee camp’ proved a controversial term in the current context. In the Turkish discourse, I realised these were defined as ‘guest’ and ‘accommodation centres’.

The passive connotations of refugees are reinforced in different aspects. Camp residents used to refer to themselves as ‘refugees’ whenever they referred to the humanitarian aid distributed to them through the Turkish authorities as one Syrian highlighted:

*The thing is we are all here as refugees. We left our houses and we left everything behind and we had to look for somewhere safe for our children and for us.*

Chat with Mouaz 31-5-15

Mouaz’s reasons to leave home fall under the definition of the UN Refugee Convention (1951) to seek safety from persecution and violence yet legally he does not hold the status of a refugee. Such connection between the political discourse and the local use of the terminology emphasises that the term ‘refugee’ is a political construct that refugees came to embrace to survive in a camp situation.

When drawing on the picture of refugees in urban places, the term is not very different. Although Syrians living in Kilis city were not living in camps, they likewise depended largely on humanitarian aids to survive, particularly that they needed to pay for rent which camp residents could do without. The ‘interplay between the domestic and international’ (Appadurai 1988 cited in Soguk 1999:3) in a refugee context indicates the power role in imposing terminologies from the top authorities and the need of refugees at the bottom to embrace those in order to survive. Now how does this rhetoric connect with teachers and students at schools? Let me first reiterate that schools are called ‘temporary education centres’ by the Turkish authorities. However, teachers and students refer to them as schools. Furthermore, these schools are called Arabic names by Syrians such as ‘Al-Iqlemeyeh’ (the regional) while the banner of school reads as ‘Il Ozel Idaresi Gecici Egitim Merkezi’ with an Arabic translation below as the following picture illustrates.



*Photograph 22: A TEC banner showing Turkish and Arabic names (photo: Doukmak)*

The Arabic term, however, made by teachers and students generally refers to the funders of schools such as ‘the UNICEF School’, ‘the Religious School’, ‘the Blue Crescent School’. The making of such terminologies reflects how teachers and students view their connection with NGOs. It also shows a normalising attempt on the part of Syrians to cope with the new environment they came to live in. Teachers and students carry a Kilmlek ID card (see Context Chapter). In fact, a student cannot enrol in a school if she/he does not have it. So do teachers who work in these temporary education centres. The Kimlek, as Syrians call it, is another example of how Syrians deal with a top-down political discourse and give it an easier term rather than the official terminology. Refugee camps have been commonly depicted as negative places in the literature. They are habitat for exploitation, crime, abuse and reproduction of inequality. In these camps, ‘people become numbers without names’ (Harell-Bond 2000:1). For

Gilroy, refugee camps stand out as a ‘confirmation of the fact that cruelty has been modernized’ (Gilroy, 2013:87 cited in Opondo and Rinelli 2015:929). Along with this contingent view of refugee camps comes the image of ‘spaces of hospitality’ (Bulley 2014) which are offered by host governments or international aid organisations. Within this hospitable discourse, refugees are guests and the services provided are ‘five-star’ (New York Times 2014). Between the two views, the discursive discussion of refugee camps remains controversial. Having a look at the refugee camps in the current study, it is worth noticing that there has been an enormous effort to beautify the image of these camps. Officials worry about how the camps look from the plane, as camp residents commented. Anti-refugee sentiments by host population can also shape the experiences of refugees and is likely to have impact on their engagement with local interventions including education. The current study, for example, showed how during elections refugee teachers and students were reluctant to go out for fear of anti-social behaviours by refugee-opposing groups. The concerns of host population tend to be fuelled by social media and political discourse (Sanderson 2019, Zaviršek & Rajgelj 2019) to which refugees had to cope with amongst other uncertainties. The Turkish two-faced policy towards Syrian refugees as ‘guests’ versus ‘Illegal migrants who need to be deported’ reinforced the ‘good versus bad migrants’ dichotomy (Taylor 2018) and made the scene more like a tightrope for refugees to walk while minding not to fall on the wrong end. As a researcher, it was important to come to grips with how refugee participants responded to public discourse in order to understand their experiences in exile and what is actually happening in Syria through the eyes of the people who fled the war.

### **7.4.3 Sustainable approach to engagement with research**

Having shown interest in participating in research is not enough; it is essential that teachers pursue their participation and show a commitment to integrate the change into their practice. This could be achieved through effective communication strategies and evaluating and learning from good practice.

#### **7.4.3.1 Communication strategies**

Communication can be verbal, written or non-verbal/ behavioural. For teachers in the current study, verbal communication was the most popular way of communicating with other teachers

and with the researcher. Early communication with teachers in the field started through social media such as Facebook and Skype. Once in the field, the most effective strategy was Face-to-Face communications. Teachers who I was able to meet at school, during training and over a coffee were more responsive than others who communicated by phone or online. When communicating with a group of teachers, WhatsApp proved valuable in keeping teachers updated about any changes to the agreed plan. Evidence from the data reveals that teachers were keen to improve their English language as one of the reasons for taking part in the drama training. In terms of teacher-teacher communication, this seemed to be lacking. Teachers only had the chance to meet other teachers when joining training programmes or school-related activities. I will discuss the role of professional networking in the teacher development section. For now, I want to emphasise that no professional groups that brought teachers together were identified and therefore teachers were enthusiastic to meet and learn from other teachers through training and peer observation which the current intervention allowed. According to some teachers, because the researcher shared a common war and cultural backgrounds it made communication easier to start with and potentially to continue. Also a female researcher was compelling for participant teachers to collaborate with out of their protective role to women from their culture.

#### **7.4.3.2 Raising awareness of research and building capacities**

In order for research to be meaningful for teachers, they need to understand the significance of research and its relevance to their teaching practice. Dewan (2018:93) calls for the need for educational programmes ‘that have participation of teachers with a sense for their need, choice and purpose’. Teachers need to know about the resources which they can seek for help such as peer support and specialised expertise from researchers, trainers, etc. (Cordingley 2013:5). Taken the constraints in the work environment, teachers had to be convinced why this piece of research will be useful for them. According to Bell et al. (2010) engagement in and with research corresponds to ‘teachers’ readiness to and confidence about identifying the underpinning rationale for the new approaches being explored, that is, developing a practical theory about different approaches to teaching and learning and specific pupils, or in their own context’ (cited in Cordingley 2013:3). By becoming aware of the relevance of research into improving their teaching practice, most teachers were still not certain if they want to engage taken the transitory nature of the context and their plans to travel, find a job in an NGO or go

back to Syria. Essentially what they needed is ‘transferrable skills’, such as language and communication skills, which they can use to cope wherever they need or choose to be. In addition, teachers needed to embrace uncertainty as a possibility for new opportunities. This is what Turner (1990) coined as ‘fruitful chaos’ where new ideas emerge. In doing so, they behave proactively by ‘taking responsibility for creating and taking opportunities for professional learning within day-to-day school life’ (Cordingley 2013:5).

#### **7.4.3.3 Evaluating practice and degree of engagement**

As I mentioned in Section 7.4.3.1, teachers preferred verbal communication. In terms of evaluation, teachers were invited to engage in written journal entries or verbal informal chats and most of them opted for the latter. It is worth mentioning that evaluating how the teachers did with using drama ideas depended on their engagement level; i.e. those who engaged more throughout the drama intervention were more likely to engage in evaluating their practice. Mann and Walsh (2017:33) suggest that viewing evaluation from a socio-cultural perspective to teacher education needs to focus on teacher interaction with other teachers and change stakeholders and that these are key opportunities for learning (Bruner 1990). One of the challenges, which I faced as a researcher, was whether to go horizontally or vertically in terms of disseminating the intervention to include more teachers and schools. The decision was largely guided by teachers who displayed maximum engagement and who offered to share the impact of drama training on students with teachers from other schools. Through dialogue with other teachers and the researchers, teachers had the opportunity to:

- 1) be more thoughtful in general about their teaching;
- 2) become more aware of their own practices and the gaps between their beliefs and their practices; and
- 3) become more aware of their pupils’ thinking and learning.

(Noffke and Stevenson 1995:25)

The framework I used to distinguish the different levels of engagement by teachers, from maximum to minimum, illustrates the varying responses of teachers towards the current intervention. According to Cardwell (2011), ‘high levels of teacher engagement’ have ‘a positive effect on student engagement levels’ (p.76). Cardwell went on to distinguish between

different dimensions to engagement which echo the functions of drama which I highlighted earlier. These attributes describe the engagement practices of teachers, particularly those who were highly engaged as follows:

<b>Behaviourally engaged</b>	<b>Cognitively engaged</b>	<b>Emotionally engaged</b>
Attend regularly	Use instruction that meet the needs of students	Promote a positive relationship with students
Punctual	Implement various teaching techniques	Try to know students and understand their needs
Move around the classroom to engage students	Use data to inform instruction	

Table 19: Engagement patterns of teachers according to Cardwell 2011

Maximally engaged teachers in the current study clarified that working together with other teachers in a workshop space, which allowed them to ‘*experience the feeling of the student inside me*’, was quite effective to make them learn and engage with drama before they used it in class with their students. The most important thing here is that teachers ‘suddenly realize they’re learners again ... whether they are experienced or new teachers’ (Lowe 1987:95). Building confidence has the potential for life-long learning (Norman and Hyland 2003) among in-service teachers. When it comes to refugee teachers who crossed the borders with little or no experience, they are searching for new ideas and skills to improve their situations and to help them cope with their uncertain circumstances. The engaged teachers aspire to implement best teaching practices (Marzano, 2003 cited in Cardwell 2011:17) but this is not enough; it needs to be combined with access to expert support and resources as many engaged teachers in the current study said they had ideas but they did not know how to implement them. When teachers are highly engaged, they also tend to be innovative by modifying their teaching instructions to meet students’ needs (Cotton et al. 2002 cited in Cardwell 2011:17) such as teachers who still taught grammar through drama. Their behaviour illustrates an example that innovative methods of teaching have gone beyond the training as it become a skill they were able to implement in different situations. Drama became a tool up their sleeves to use when it was required.

If we look at lower levels of engagement by teachers, it becomes compelling to consider a personalised approach to teacher training where no ‘training fits all’ as teachers, like students, come with different needs and experiences. The current study has demonstrated that with teachers who showed lower level of engagement in the drama training due to external factors

such as families commitments and internal factors such as depression, the individual support before, during and after class proved essential for them to feel confident in implementing the new ideas. Teachers (and students) are resources themselves which stand out in difficult circumstances (Smith et al. 2017:4-7). By creating ‘an environment which fosters enthusiasm and commitment’ (Cardwell 2011: 78), through drama activities on collaboration and engagement, seemed influential in building engagement of the teacher. Teachers with minimal or no engagement were those who only joined in the conversation stage about the current research project and who missed the training and school implementation stages.

## **7.5 Implications for interventions with refugees and refugee teacher development**

In this section, I draw on general implications for designing and implementing interventions with refugees including research interventions and teacher development issues. This includes the significance of addressing basic needs of teachers and students, embracing the messiness: understanding the liminal nature of the refugee context and how that relates to participants’ experiences, ethical considerations in terms of access negotiation and risk management through interaction with research participants and other stakeholders. I will then move to discuss implications for teacher development with regard to the role of language learning pedagogy in a refugee context.

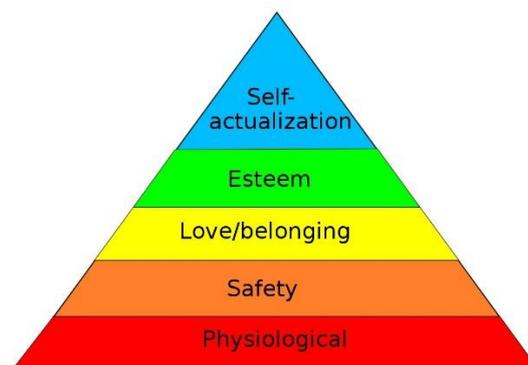
### **7.5.1 Designing interventions with refugees**

When doing interventions in a refugee context, it is worth considering whether we are doing these for or with refugees. According to UNHCR (2009:3), designing appropriate interventions requires emphasis on protection space in camp and urban settings. Doukmak (2019:42) warns that the term agency which describes refugee NGOs, including UNHCR, implies that refugees are ‘victims worth of assistance and empathy’ and that refugees seem to embrace this rhetoric to access these services. Malkki similarly, and in the context of humanitarian interventions, describes refugees as ‘speechless emissaries’ whose humanity has undergone ‘dehistoricizing ... within the international order of things’ and therefore such an approach ‘tends to silence refugees’ (Malkki 1996:378). Rasco and Miller (2004) clarify that despite the variety of methodologies and theoretical drives of interventions, they all seem to be influenced by an ‘ecological model’ which draws on elements such as ‘community strengths and resources and

involving community members as stakeholders and active collaborators in [intervention] development and implementation' (p. 375). I will discuss these elements further in the next sections.

### 7.5.1.1 Meeting basic needs

Basic needs have to be addressed first for students to be able to engage in learning and voice their aspirations and for teachers to stay at school and improve their teaching practice. Findings showed that when people lack basic rights such as food and protection, it is hard to consider how to get them to implement new ideas; i.e. to think higher up Maslow's needs hierarchy (1943:1954). For Maslow, physiological (e.g. food, shelter), safety (health and stability) needs come first (in the bottom of the pyramid) followed by social (family) and psychological (respect) needs, while creativity and self-fulfilment come at the top, as the following figure illustrates:



*Figure 26: Maslow's hierarchy of needs*

How can we encourage refugee teachers and students to be creative and to implement new ideas when they are struggling with basic livelihoods? I want to expand this question to include the researcher: how can the researcher follow up their research from the start till publishing it through the form of a PhD thesis or a publication when they are struggling with basic needs? Obviously, both the research participants and the researcher need to satisfy lower levels so they can proceed to develop higher-level needs. They will need assistance to do so.

According to UNHCR, refugees need to 'meet their basic human needs and achieve long-term well-being' (2017). In doing so, refugees become able to survive, access services, feel protected, sustain livelihoods and make dignified choices.



*Figure 27: Basic Needs Approach (UNHCR 2017)*

Educational programmes such as Paper Airplanes and Jusoor help Syrian youth who were affected by the crisis to achieve their potentials through mentoring support in language and other academic fields. When we consider the survival needs for teachers and students to find a paid job which can support them and their families, teachers and students will be less likely to drop out of school and look for job opportunities somewhere else. Only then will intervention providers be able to understand local needs and to take these into account when planning resources and needed skills.

#### **7.5.1.2 Understanding liminal context: embracing the messiness**

Instead of taking a passive approach to the dire situations in refugee contexts, it could be worthwhile, the current study argues, to be actively involved in co-constructing refugee realities by stepping in with support where required. A researcher after all is a walking resource; they can bring their academic expertise and connections to the field and help address some of the key basic needs. Such a call urges us to think about the ethics of conducting research with refugees which I will discuss in the next section. Despite the varying experience between ‘camp refugees’ and ‘town refugees’ (Malkki 1996:379) they occupy different parts of the same trajectory: separating from home and navigating different spaces between home and exile. Their temporary ‘status’ reinforces their uncertain political and socio-economic circumstances. The weight of uncertainty features in the educational scene making it challenging for teachers and students to proceed with teaching and learning. For an outsider who comes with an NGO or media perspective, they will take time to see the wood from the trees: that refugees endeavour to live a normal life despite the contingencies they experience. By realising that refugees co-

construct their refugee livelihoods through resilience and interaction with stakeholders such as NGOs on the ground, refugees can take an active role in leading the change they need most.

In terms of methodology, ethnography and ongoing conversations with participants seemed to capture some of the key aspects of liminality. Having said that, it becomes possible to examine the role of liminality in assisting or hindering the livelihoods of refugees. One way to understand the liminal context is to try to change it (Lewin cited in Tolman 1996:31). By doing so, it becomes possible to notice the change patterns involved. Data mirror the context under research. In order to represent the messiness in data, it is important for readers to take into account that it requires a non-linear representation. Structural representation can give insights, but it will not truly convey what it was like in the field. Kitchin (2014) declared ‘the end of theory’ and he called for a data-driven rather than a knowledge-driven approach to social science. The ecological model emphasises the significance of observation and observation-in-action to explore the ‘complex processes of interaction’ (van Lier 1997: 784) in the classroom and beyond.

### **7.5.1.3 Ethics of access and risk**

Conducting interventions and programmes with refugees involves addressing challenges which may not be part of common ethical assumptions in traditional research practice (Habib 2019). This includes the risk of access negotiation up to research risk management. Once a researcher considers doing research in a refugee context, they will need to explore means to gain access as there will be different gatekeepers and connections to make. Access is less discussed in the literature; more attention is given to the findings, i.e. what the research was about rather than how the research was conducted. As I mentioned in the Access Chapter, access to camps and to refugees’ schools was a challenge. This was due to the Turkish government’s attitude to western countries regarding their response to the refugee crisis (Kirişci 2014: 34). On the other hand, I was viewed as a potential terrorist threat by UKBA simply because I was planning to visit a border area. Between the two gatekeepers lies another security threat of the border location. The camp which I visited was overlooking the Turkish-Syrian border crossing where clashes were reported every now and then. Moreover, Kilis city was under random shelling by Daesh from the other side of the border. As a researcher, I used to follow national and local news to stay safe. On top of this, I had another responsibility: to care for the safety of the participants. This continued after field work. Habib (2019) calls researchers to ‘reflect on the

dynamics that govern refugee politics in the research context' (p.1) which I believe are likely to affect the research process as well as the researcher and the participants.

Most importantly, when it comes to designing interventions with refugees, it is important to avoid a 'one-fits-all' approach where participants are dealt with as a collective mass where they 'stop being specific persons and become pure victims in general: universal man, universal woman, universal child, and, taken together, universal family' (Barthes 1980 cited in Malkki 1996:378). Smith (2009) argues that amongst the refugee population 'some groups may be more vulnerable than others' (p.69). To do so, I advocate attending to refugees' individual capacities and aspirations by observing emerging patterns and engaging participants in dialogue to reflect on their practice. By drawing on refugee resilience, it becomes possible to combat potential risks (Betancourt et al. 2015:114) as participants are being involved in the design and implementation of research and they are not as a participant said '*guinea pigs*' for outside interventions. Doing no harm to participants is not enough, a researcher needs to consider 'the alleviation of suffering an explicit objective of one's research' (Turton 1996:96). Finally, the current study involved other kinds of managing risks such as working with participants from different political backgrounds and the researcher was warned of the danger of being kidnapped by extremist groups who may oppose the research agenda: introducing drama to the classroom. Another risk is what I call the cruelty of research which results from the severity of relationships built over the course of being in the field. The repercussions on the researcher as well as to the researched could be frustration and loss especially for the researcher who leaves the field physically though not mentally. Such a risk was encountered by transforming the lived experience of the researcher onto paper. Emotions tend to be lost in objectifying and sometimes remote academic discourse. However, the narrative account in ethnographic diaries lays open these emotions amongst other complexities of the current context.

### **7.5.2 Professional development and learning**

Having discussed the implications for designing interventions with refugees in general, I will now examine the dimensions of teacher development in a refugee context. These dimensions include pedagogy for refugee education and designing professional development programmes for English language teachers.

### **7.5.2.1 Refugee pedagogy**

Recent literature have been uncovering some of the educational practices in different refugee contexts (Crip et al. 2001, Mallows 2012 and British Council 2016). Yet the question remains, what brings this literature together to form an emerging field of refugee pedagogy? First of all, I want to draw on the central position of refugee pedagogy among other pedagogies, which I discussed in the literature, including: Pedagogy of the Oppressed (Freire 1970), Theatre of the Oppressed (Boal 1979) and Pedagogy of Difficult Circumstances (Kuchah and Shamim 2018). Such a focal perspective enables us as researchers to draw on a wealth of literature which derive from different disciplines yet share a common ground: vulnerable position of the subject under research. In Refugee Pedagogy, refugees are agents with liminal experiences who can be active partners in leading the change needed to improve their circumstances. When refugees are provided with the skills, resources and community network, they will be empowered to bring about change to their immediate context. Having been empowered with the means to change, there is also the need to create ‘a space’ where they can give voice to their aspirations and become creative with the resources which they have access to. For researchers who wish to actively engage refugees in improving pedagogical practices, they will need to build a reflexive relationship between the local context (including the field and the participants), the global context (refugee politics) and their own research practice (ethics and risks). Only then will refugee pedagogy be meaningful and conducive to positive change.

### **7.5.2.2 Designing professional development interventions**

When researchers design professional development interventions, they aim ‘to upskill teachers and equip them with information literacy and research methods skills, such as the capacity to conduct their own inquiries, apply research evidence, and implement evidence-based practices and programmes’ (Tripney et al. 2018:8). When teachers develop this set of knowledge and skills, they become likely to ‘increase their ability to provide improved opportunities to learn for all their pupils’ (Hargreaves and Fullan 1992: 2). By joining teacher education programmes, teachers also engage in ‘life-time CPD’ (Mann and Walsh 2017:7) skills which can be transferrable across to improve other areas of their life. Although the needs of teachers vary from one to another, by drawing on their collective experience, it becomes possible to build sustainable ‘communities of practice’ where a teacher feel encouraged to learn from their peers

and to share reflective practice. As the current study demonstrated, before we talk about teacher development, we need to think of meaningful ways to engage teachers in the first place through understanding their contextual needs and experiences and then helping them to ‘embed new practices’ and ensuring that this is provided along with ‘practical and emotional support’ where risk-taking is a shared practice (Tripney et al. 2018:8 cited in Cordingley 2013:3). Research engagement, according to (Borg 2010) is important for language teachers being ‘a potentially productive form of professional development and a source of improved professional practice’ (p.391). From teachers’ perspectives, they want to engage in research interventions because they want to learn how to improve their current situations.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

This chapter addressed the main issues arising from answering the research questions in this study. This included evaluating teachers and students’ experiences and needs in a changing context and understanding liminality as a space for refugees to embrace the change, develop aspirations and build agency. In such a space, refugee teachers were seen shuttling between different ends to fill in gaps so they can survive within the limited resources they have access to. Pushed by the call to meet urgent basic needs of their families, teachers and students have been found to be dropping out of school or considering dropping which leaves the already temporary system even more fragile. The short-term and unpredictable integration policy by the Turkish government seemed to have added up to their uncertainty. Despite the difficult circumstances which are driving the TECs into a verge of catastrophe, the same space can be conducive to positive transformation. Findings displayed how teachers and students were willing to develop their educational and professional prospects such as training and using innovative educational methods. The use of drama as an innovation proved revolutionary in creating transferrable individual skills for both teachers and students by providing a safe space to develop language and communication skills. For instance, the ‘ensemble spirit’ was noticed to emerge when students come together in a supportive space where the teacher becomes the facilitator rather than the main conductor of classroom interaction. Implications for teacher development through training and engaging in research interventions were also key threads in the discussion. Through acknowledging the central role of teachers in improving the educational practices, the study proposed, research interventions can be possible and potentially sustainable. Teachers themselves are valuable resources which can be tapped into when coming

to developing viable educational solutions. Overall, the chapter summarised the main issues of doing research with Syrian refugee teachers and students and contributed to discussion from other literature.

## Chapter Eight: Conclusion

### 8.1 Summary and reflection

This chapter summarises how the research questions were answered in this thesis. It also highlights the impact of the current research on the lives and future prospects of participant teachers. Additionally, it reiterates the reflexive relationship between me as a researcher and the research as a reciprocal process with relevant stakeholders. Finally, the chapter states the research limitations and predicts some futures directions which the current research might take. The research questions aimed at providing insights into the educational situation of Syrian teachers and students in camp and urban refugee settings. The questions together illustrate Dearborn's quote: 'if you want to understand something, try to change it' (cited in Bronfenbrenner 1979:37). For the first question, findings highlighted urgent educational needs such as enabling access to education, preventing school dropouts of teachers and students, a clearer integration policy and acknowledging the key role of English language to develop transferrable skills and to build future prospects. Findings also shed light on teachers and students' lived experiences under a failing education system which is more concerned with appearance rather than with quality and which is dominated by different agendas whereby the voices of students and teachers are never consulted.

The complex and critical situation revealed in the first question calls for urgent responses which incorporate a grassroots engagement of teachers and students on the ground. Here comes the contribution of drama in the second question to address some of the educational needs which were identified in collaboration with teachers and students. Through creating a safe space for learners to learn language in a playful mode, to voice their aspirations and to build their confidence to 'think in English', drama has proved *revolutionary* in engaging students to take ownership of their learning without even realising it. For teachers, drama can reveal students' personalities and so teachers can address students' linguistic weaknesses and build on their strengths. The introduction of drama, through teachers, proved successful as it empowered teachers to learn techniques which they can use innovatively to meet the curriculum needs. Drama, as an intervention, was captured in the third question in which I explored the process of engagement with the intervention by teachers in particular due to their central role. Starting from negotiating access with the gatekeeper to building professional network with teachers

from other schools across the city and camps, teachers revealed realities of how interventions can take shape in that particular context. In other words, intervention designers are invited to look at teachers not as receivers of support but also as equal contributors to bring about educational change and to promote resourceful and resilient communities. After I re-visited the research questions, I will now move to examine the impact of the current study.

## 8.2 Impact of the study

When exploring the impact of this research study, I can see that refugee teachers, who shaped and took part in this research, have now relocated either into Syria, other parts of Turkey or Europe. Some of them still apply the skills which they learnt through the training. For instance, one of the English teachers who moved back to Idleb in Syria after getting a job with some NGOs to teach English to their staff reported:

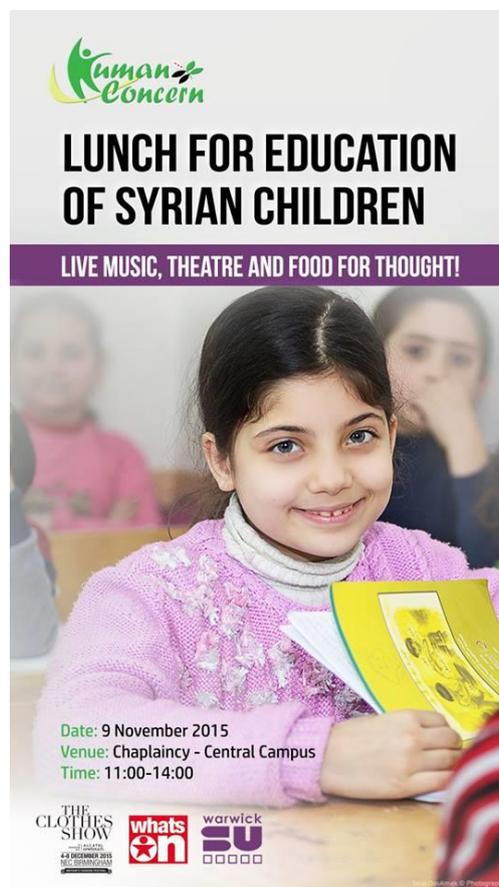
*Of course I shall use them again and I am now using them as I told you to teach the staff of two international organisations which are MSF Doctors Without Borders and The Goal of Ireland organisation. I teach the staff of these two organisations using the same method of teaching. I characterise the information. For example if I want to give them a grammar lesson.. I give them for example the subject as a character the verb as a character.*

WhatsApp chat with Karim 30-7-15

The above example features the trajectory of how far an intervention can reach; in this case drama practice was transmitted by a teacher from a refugee context back to one's country and is likely to influence post-war educational practices. The study also contributed to showcasing the link between the camp and the city through participants' experiences. Moreover, this connection has been consolidated by bringing together teachers from the camp and the city to engage in learning about drama as a method for teaching. The network built is expected to grow further particularly after teachers formed a performance group with a community artist. On the classroom level, the teacher participants expressed their intention to do more drama in their classes. As for students, they also enjoyed drama and they would like their teacher to continue using it, as one student expressed her mind: *'I wish all the lessons were like this'* (Chat after Laila's class with year 12 female student 22-5-15). On the level of school administration, some teachers succeeded in influencing the Syrian principals' decision to add drama their summer school programme. The study further contributed to improving English skills of English language teachers and other community members such as NGO workers who joined the drama

workshops and who needed English in their communication with foreign staff. In addition to those, teachers of other languages such as Turkish and Arabic joined the drama workshops and they said they implemented those ideas in their classrooms.

Impact of the intervention goes beyond the immediate context meeting the needs of English language to raising awareness about Syrian children situation and raising funds to cover educational materials such as stationery and teaching aids. The below poster illustrates a fundraiser I arranged at Warwick University (November 2015) in collaboration with Centre for Applied Linguistics, Student Union and a UK-based charity: Human Concern.



*Figure 28: Lunch for Education of Syrian Children event*

The event exemplified the impact of the current research and the different ways it can reach out to support vulnerable participant population throughout the research process. When doing research with refugees, it important to remember that as researchers we need to take into account ‘the alleviation of suffering [as] an explicit objective of one’s research’ (Turton 1996:96).

### **8.3 Limitations of the study**

Having presented an account of what was possible to be done in this research, it is worth considering some of the constraints which limited carrying out the current research in its full capacities. After I outline those constraints, I will reflect on how the researcher dealt with them at the time and will suggest potential ways out which I came to realise at this stage of writing up this thesis.

#### **8.3.1 Political limitations**

When I was in the field, I could identify with the participants having come from a similar background and having been through displacement experience. However, I did have certain views at the time, which could have impacted trust relationships or imposed views which participants may disagree with. For instance, I did not reveal that I came from a Kurdish background as the majority of the participant population were sympathetic with the FSA which was fighting with Kurdish forces across the borders. Although I did not necessarily agree with Kurdish armed groups fighting on the other side of the borders, I chose to avoid revealing my identity. For me, I was not afraid, but I wanted to probe into participants views as openly and fully as possible. At the same time, I was advised (by a Kurdish-Turkish official) not to reveal my identity when I negotiated access with Turkish authorities as some Kurdish groups were considered ‘terrorists’ by the government. Moreover, I was already dealt with suspicion by Turkish authorities, simply because I was coming from a Western country. I was thought of as a ‘spy’ affiliated to MI6. At the time of writing this thesis, I wonder what would happen if I revealed my identity then. I still believe that I may not agree with how participants thought but my aim was purely educational; I wanted to help my fellow displaced Syrians regardless of their political views. Similarly, I was viewed with suspicion by UKBA staff as a woman travelling from the UK to Turkey at the time when three young women from the UK went to Turkey to join ISIS. My immigration status also imposed limits on how long my field visits lasted. Having been holding a Syrian passport at the time meant I could not stay in Turkey for more than three months at a time. I resolved this issue by applying for temporary protection status, just like participants in this study, to extend my visit time, with the risk I could be prevented from leaving Turkey. That luckily did not happen. I also want to mention that I have been mindful and rather worried of voicing my views or the participants’ views against the

Turkish authorities. As the study shows, Syrians staying in camps encountered the threat of being deported back to less privileged camps. As for academics who sensed their opposing views, these were likely to be sent to prison by the authorities. Hence, I felt like walking a tightrope.

### **8.3.2 Educational limitations**

Taken the Syrian crisis level, the current study seems to scratch the surface of a much wider educational crisis. It was challenging, at the time of conducting field visits, to encounter countless examples of children out of school and not being able to do much about it. I felt helpless the more I tried to take some actions to address these situations. For instance, I took the opportunities of joining different conferences in Istanbul, Gaziantep and Warwick to shed light on issues beyond the current research study such as child labour and women exploitation. These were informed by interviews and observations done during the current research visits. It is worth mentioning that young participants including teachers were desperate to access educational opportunities such as IELTS preparation, spoken English and pursuing their university education. I referred them at the time to educational opportunities I knew about or I provided support with language through resources and group teaching. Expectations by participants were at times higher than my capacity. At this point of writing up, I believe a network with other researchers and humanitarian actors could provide sustainable resources. It was not possible to attend all the classes where teachers used drama due to limitations in time and presence with different teachers at the same time. Being denied access to the camp also meant that I had to depend on reports from teachers.

### **8.3.3 Socio-economic limitations**

In terms of funding, the current PhD was funded by different channels as I mentioned in the Acknowledgement section but there was no specific budget for conducting field work. I had to depend on the stipend provided for living costs to fund my two field visits. Having said that, at the time of the field visits, I made the best of the free offers I received in terms of accommodation in containers and tents, not to mention participants' hospitality which covered most of food and drinks costs. In the process of conducting workshops to teachers, I learnt that it would have been useful if teachers received some incentives to cover travel costs and other

living expenses, especially that they had to work during the weekend to earn extra money. My budget at the time was barely enough to cover my research and living expenses. I could though used some of these to provide some refreshments and to print out resources.

#### **8.3.4 Psychological limitations**

Psychologically speaking, I want to clarify the high levels of anxiety I experienced for several reasons throughout the field trips and in the process of writing up. Sources of anxiety mainly featured in financial insecurity, difficulty in finding a safe accommodation and worrying about family living under war back home. For instance, at the time of writing this section, I am following up on finding a job and accommodation within a month time. This means I have had less time to be anxious about writing up but such anxiety seems to function in the background. The way I usually handled anxiety was to do some action regarding the source of anxiety such as viewing places to rent, trying to contact family and applying for jobs. I believe I have been myself experiencing the uncertainty the participants in this research encountered. Probably I should learn from participants on how to embrace uncertainty about socio-economic situation and how to build resilience to survive.

#### **8.3.5 Evaluation limitations**

One key aspect of research, which I believe was limited in the current study, was evaluation of the intervention during field work. Although no formal evaluation has been conducted of the stages of the intervention, informal evaluation through reflective engagement with students and teachers were possible to record. These could be further enhanced by more explicit evaluation framework in future research. At the time I was in the field, the overwhelming nature of communication and the uncertainty participants lived through made it particularly challenging to evaluate how teachers and students were doing every time they were implementing drama ideas. Ideally, I could stay longer in the field and help teachers evaluate their teaching practice through focus groups and reflective journals. It is also worth mentioning that the current study was limited in terms of evaluating the impact of drama on the students. It rather captured an initial response of students as illustrated through classroom interaction and the views of their teachers. Have I chosen to focus on implementing drama ideas with students directly, I could

have run the risk of creating a discrepancy between the way teachers chose to teach their students and a temporary model I introduced through the limited time I was in the field.

### **8.3.6 Gender limitations**

Being a woman was itself a limitation. Women in camps were expected to be escorted at night. They also had to take permission from the house 'man' for any unexpected time out such as going to football pitch and permission was not always guaranteed nor was it negotiable. I had to abide by these rules and so my movement was limited. Female participants in the current study also brought up gender as an issue to access attending training programmes. Had I realised this challenge earlier, I could have arranged female-only provisions.

### **8.3.7 Language limitations**

One of the key obstacles I faced while negotiating access was language barrier. I had to depend on interpreters to deal with gate keepers. Therefore, it was difficult to maintain my requests went across as I meant; these were usually shaped by how the interpreters chose to report. I joined some Turkish courses in the field in order to help me with navigating my way around and with dealing with Turkish personnel. The study shows the low status of English in a country where Turkish is used in all communications. Promoting English as a language for education was therefore a challenge since participants were exposed to Turkish and had little or no need for English in their everyday life.

### **8.3.8 Generalization limitations**

The current study illustrates a case of refugee education in camp and urban settings. Having been denied access to the camp during the second field visit was obviously a limitation to continue the plan from first visit. The nature of uncertainty and mobility of participants, however, made it possible for participants to take part in the second stage of research when they came out of the camp to engage in training and interviews on how drama implementation went in their classrooms. It could be hard to predict what it would be like if access was obtained to the same schools which were visited in the first study. Again, as participants seem to be continuously on the move, the research could have lost touch with participants who left the camp and moved across the borders or settled in an urban location. I believe limitation to first visit setting was an opportunity to understand how the context dynamics worked. In terms of

relevance to other refugee contexts, I admit the context I studied is difficult to generalise. However, there are many common issues faced by migrants and refugees in their settlement locations such as language, occupying a limen space and implications for agency.

## **8.4 Directions for future research**

To advance the research I started, I suggest considering the following research directions which potentially address key issues beyond the scope of the current study. These include a multi-disciplinary approach to research in refugee context, creative solutions to follow up interventions such as using technology and online platforms, empowering refugee teachers to use research as a professional developmental tool and providing specialised support to alleviate trauma and war psychological legacy. These could be followed up by other researchers too.

### **8.4.1 Holistic approach to refugee interventions**

As the crisis in Syria escalates, neighbouring countries will continue to suffer the most since they are the first stop for the displaced population. Turkey has been shouldering the burden of the Syrian crisis on different levels, including more recently at the security level. The results are stricter rules to access and new regulations imposed on the guest population. Foreign supporters continue to be viewed with suspicion which makes it difficult to investigate the situation and to provide urgent support. In order to respond to a refugee crisis such as the Syrian crisis, a researcher will come to realise that response needs to be more concentrated mobilising a cross-disciplinary approach in terms of design and drawing on resources to develop the proposed initiative. Disciplines such as arts, psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, politics, computer science, economics, business, philosophy and more could be explored depending on the needs of the context studied.

### **8.4.2 Virtual support to teachers and students**

There is a growing emphasis on developing alternative platforms to facilitate access to education, particularly taken the logistics and security complexities of obtaining permission to research refugee context as the current study has shown. One alternative could be virtual platforms such as *Paper Airplanes* where students get one-to-one or group support. This is not

to rule out the face-to-face interaction but rather to complement it and to ensure it is sustainable when researchers leave the field.

#### **8.4.3 Developing research skills for teachers**

Teachers in the current study displayed different levels of engagement with me as a researcher. They obviously would like to gain English and employability skills. For teachers who are considering pursuing teaching as a career, they will need to build research skills.

#### **8.4.4 Addressing trauma and war impact on education**

Most of the participants, particularly children, showed signs of trauma such as PTSD. These could be further explored and addressed through mental health interventions to assist children and carers including teachers and parents. These need to be child friendly as children may not understand what happened to them and may find it daunting to take part in specialised treatment. Through drama, the current study illustrated a creative educational approach to create a positive ‘playful’ and ‘safe’ space for children to learn and move on.

#### **8.4.4 Reflexivity and well-being**

One key area which emerged in this study was the positive impact of drama research on participants and myself. Having the chance to create reflexive relationships with participants are likely to help clear my own vision and to voice participants’ aspirations and challenges. Such dialogues could be explored further in future studies. Gomm (2008) identified the danger of sympathetic bias and the need for researchers to free themselves to see the truth by ‘not getting too emotionally involved with research subjects’ (p.369). Lather (1986) explains the tendency for researchers examining vulnerable population (e.g. feminist, anti-racist and disability researchers) to assume the position that ‘they should make themselves accountable first to the oppressed group among whom they do research, and only secondarily to the research community’. To be objective and treat your research neutrally remains a challenge and in order to break the cuffs of subjectivity, in my view, the researcher has to dramatise the participants, to think of them as heroes in their own world. It is still possible to connect with them and not just watch their stories. The researcher needs to activate their imagination to do so.

*It is that sympathetic bias which catches you as you are looking at the data. You look at people in the data and you recall these are the people you lived with, you experienced sad and happy moments. And now you need to distance yourself from them to achieve research objectivity and to avoid bias, but how will you do that? What's more is when you see yourself there. You might be able to distance yourself from others, but how do you distance yourself from yourself? I am just realising that I need to dramatise myself too. I was one of those actors in the end. I did exist and took part in the action I was proposing.*

Post-field note 21-1-16

## **8.4 Conclusion**

The chapter reviewed the main research questions which this research aimed to answer, highlighted the impact of the current study and articulated limitations and directions for future research. By doing so, I want to close the thesis by reflecting on the production of this thesis and the overall process which it involved. It has been tough yet very rewarding experience. It has changed my life and hopefully made a difference to the lives of many refugees I worked with. In the end, it was a drop in the ocean.

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## List of appendices

### Appendix 1

#### Winston's drama framework

##### **Get physical**

Start with a physical warm-up activity which is linked to Little Red Riding Hood (e.g. ask students to imagine themselves as tree in a magic forest and they can move their branches in different directions as the teacher advises. After practising, the class is told that these trees have movable branches which try to grab people walking in the forest. The class is to sing 'La la la la la! You can't catch me!' If a student gets caught by a tree, it shouts 'I got you!'.

##### **Read the props**

Before telling the story, the teacher displays props such as a basket, a mask of a wolf and a red cloak with a hood. The teacher asks them to describe the props in English. The children can try the props. The props are meant to invite students to *enter into the world* of Little Red Riding Hood.

##### **Meet the roles**

The teacher demonstrates a drawing of the wolf and Little Red Riding Hood and asks children to describe the characters' appearance, age and temperament:

What colour is Little Red Riding Hood's hair?

How old is she?

Does the wolf look friendly/mean?

What does he like to eat?

Children are meanwhile to write a short description of the characters as homework.

##### **Tell the Story**

The teacher narrates the story:

In our story, there is a girl. Her name is Little Red Riding Hood. She lives with her Mama by the forest. Little Red Riding Hood is a good girl. She listens to her Mam, most of the time. When Mama says, 'Go,' she goes. When mama says, 'Come,' she comes. When Mama says 'Sit,' she sits. When Mama says, 'Sleep,' she sleeps. She is a good girl. She listens to her Mama, most of the time.

##### **Act it out**

The narrator of the story introduces, links and conclude action. Students take on the roles of the narrator and characters such as a bossy mother, a rebellious girl (who sticks her tongue out) when she is described as 'listens to her mother'. Students watch others acting and act out in their groups.

Adapted from Winston 2012:17-20

**Appendix 2**  
Data set of 1<sup>st</sup> field visit

	Type	Number	Date	Source	Other Details
1	Field notes	231	31/3/2014-7/5/2014	Soft copy (mobile phone)	In and outside school
2	Diary entries	38	31/3/2014-7/5/2014	Paper copy (3 notebooks)	In addition to diaries before and after these dates
3	Classroom Observation sheets	numerous	31/3/2014-7/5/2014	Paper copy	Notes and completed descriptions
4	Audio Recordings	24	3/4/2014-30/4/2014	Soft copy (mp3 recorder)	
5	Video Recordings	43	3/4/2014-30/4/2014	Soft copy (camera or mobile phone)	A lesson could be more than one video
6	Interviews	2	28/4/2014-12/5/2014	soft copy	
7	Guided chats	numerous	31/3/2014-7/5/2014	Notes in the diary	
8	Narratives	7	19/5/2014-1/7/2014	Paper copy	
9	Pictures	numerous	31/3/2014-7/5/2014	Mobile phone and sometimes camera	Camp, schools, containers, events, me, nursery, social facilities, theatre, fun fairs, supermarkets, etc.
10	Other videos	numerous	31/3/2014-7/5/2014		Child's day, UNICEF, nursery class, Rap in the theatre, camp market, etc.
11	Documents	numerous	31/3/2014-7/5/2014		Announcements by Ministry of Education (interim government) teaching handouts, schedule of classes, guest ID, poems by teacher, posters and drawings by students, exam papers, <i>Enthusiastic Youth</i> poster, records of students, psychology survey, teacher letter to AFAD, <i>Luju</i> camp Newspaper, consent letters, lice pamphlet, mid-term certificate, course books, etc.

**Appendix 3**  
Data set of 2<sup>nd</sup> field visit

	Type	Number	Date	Source	Other Details
1	Field notes	40  129	3/3/2015- 14/3/2014  4/3/2015- 21/6/2015	Soft copy on Evernote (mobile phone)	In and outside school
2	Diary entries	38	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014	Paper copy (3 notebooks)	In addition to diaries before and after these dates
3	Classroom Observation sheets	numerous	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014	Paper copy	Notes and completed descriptions
4	Audio Re- cordings	24	3/4/2014- 30/4/2014	Soft copy (mp3 recorder)	
5	Video Re- cordings	43	3/4/2014- 30/4/2014	Soft copy (camera or mobile phone)	A lesson could be more than one video
6	Interviews	2	28/4/2014 12/5/2014	soft copy	
7	Guided chats	numerous	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014	Notes in the diary	
8	Narratives	7	19/5/2014- 1/7/2014	Paper copy	
9	Pictures	numerous	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014	Mobile phone and sometimes camera	Camp, schools, containers, events, me, nursery, social facilities, theatre, fun fairs, supermarkets, etc.
10	Videos	numerous	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014		Child's day, UNICEF, nursery class, Rap in the theatre, camp market, etc.
11	Documents	numerous	31/3/2014- 7/5/2014		Announcements by Ministry of Education (interim govern- ment) teaching handouts, schedule of classes, guest ID, poems by teacher, posters and drawings by students, exam papers, <i>Enthusiastic Youth</i> poster, records of students, psychology survey, teacher letter to AFAD, <i>Luju</i> camp Newspaper, consent letters, lice pamphlet, mid-term cer- tificate, course books, etc.

# Appendix 4

## Screenshot showing an example of data coding

The screenshot displays the NVivo Pro interface with a list of nodes and their associated references. The interface includes a menu bar (FILE, HOME, CREATE, DATA, ANALYZE, QUERY, EXPLORE, LAYOUT, VIEW) and a toolbar with various editing and analysis tools. The main window shows a list of nodes with columns for Name, Sources, References, Created On, Created By, Modified On, and Modified By.

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Border restrictions		7	8 18/10/2015 21:28	RD	27/11/2015 01:59	RD
Call to give up		1	1 19/11/2015 20:08	RD	19/11/2015 20:08	RD
camp life		9	13 06/10/2015 11:13	RD	19/11/2015 19:08	RD
Camp school		1	1 27/11/2015 01:23	RD	27/11/2015 01:24	RD
Celebrations		1	1 06/10/2015 23:31	RD	06/10/2015 23:31	RD
Change		6	6 18/10/2015 21:31	RD	19/03/2016 19:28	RD
Child fighters		2	2 06/10/2015 09:25	RD	30/10/2015 21:45	RD
Child labour		4	6 03/10/2015 22:55	RD	30/10/2015 21:45	RD
City Life		12	25 23/10/2015 17:17	RD	27/11/2015 19:49	RD
City vs Camp		5	8 23/10/2015 17:56	RD	27/11/2015 19:51	RD
Communication		3	3 19/11/2015 17:22	RD	27/11/2015 19:59	RD
Connecting people		1	1 05/10/2015 23:24	RD	05/10/2015 23:24	RD
Course books		1	1 27/11/2015 00:57	RD	27/11/2015 00:57	RD
Decisions about communication		2	3 20/10/2015 18:07	RD	30/10/2015 21:47	RD
Double negotiations		1	1 19/11/2015 20:16	RD	19/11/2015 20:16	RD
drama dissemination		6	8 18/10/2015 12:10	RD	19/11/2015 19:04	RD
Education stakeholders		2	2 06/10/2015 08:12	RD	19/11/2015 18:37	RD
Elections		1	1 06/10/2015 23:05	RD	06/10/2015 23:07	RD
Emotion suppression		1	1 21/10/2015 22:53	RD	21/10/2015 22:53	RD
English teachers in NGOs		1	2 19/11/2015 19:32	RD	19/11/2015 19:33	RD
Expansion policy		1	1 06/10/2015 08:11	RD	06/10/2015 08:12	RD

## Appendix 5

List of TECs in Kilis (WHH and Golden Hilal Movement 2015)

رقم التسلسل	اسم المدرسة	معلومات العنوان
١	المركز المؤقت لبلدية كيليس للتربية والتعليم	حي : دوغان كورش باشا, شارع : ابن سينا, مقابل جامع اكرم جتئين, رقم: 21, كيليس
٢	مركز محمد نوري اق دمير المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : بلال الحبشي, شارع : ارجيس صالة المقطعة
٣	مركز اوموت المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : نجيلار, موقع مصلا مقابل مرسة نازلي عمر جتئين الابتدائية كيليس
٤	مركز فاتح للعلوم الانسانية المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : الشيخ ممد, شارع : المحامي محمد يشيل جيمن, رقم: 2, كيليس
٥	مركز مشاعل الخد المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : اكرم جتئين, شارع : هدايت, رقم: 4, كيليس
٦	مركز الإدارة الخاصة المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : محمد جاويش سراج اوغلو, شارع : جامع المصلح, رقم: 1, كيليس
٧	مركز انصار المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : محمد جاويش سراج اوغلو, شارع : اوزويرته, كيليس
٨	مركز الهلال الأزرق المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : دوغان كورش باشا, شارع : قومرو, بناء اوغور, رقم: 7, كيليس
٩	مركز الشيخ منصور المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	حي : شهيد صانقب, 798 المساحة العقارية, رقم المحضر: 81 على طريق المحلق / كيليس
١٠	مركز عائشة كوللو جتئين المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	
١١	مركز قوس قزح المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٢	مركز الأخوة المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٣	مركز مرج دابق المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٤	مركز الاستقلال المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٥	مركز محمد عاكف ارسوي المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٦	مركز يابوز سلطان سليم المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في البيلي
١٧	مركز الزينون المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في اونجو بنار
١٨	مركز السلام المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في اونجو بنار
١٩	مركز الحرية المؤقت للتربية والتعليم	مرافق الإقامة (المخيم) في اونجو بنار

المراكز المؤقتة المتاحة للتربية والتعليم

WHH

حركة الهلال الذهبي

## Appendix 6

### Drama workshops details

<b>Drama workshop</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Data type</b>	<b>Duration</b>	<b>Teacher attendees</b>	<b>Content</b>
1	29/3/15	audio	01:51	6	Introduction, needs assessment and activities (1,2,3 Buzz, Fortunately)
2	5/4/15	audio	03:33	4	Little Red Riding Hood and activities (Moods, King's game)
3	12/4/15	video	01:47	4	Beauty and the Beast and activities (Amazing A, Passing the object, Mirror)
4	26/4/15	video	01:48	3	Voices in the Park and activities (Magical mystery box, Energy ball, No not me)
5	3/5/15	video	02:48	5	Cinderella and activities (One-line character, The Telephone, The borrowed dress)
6	10/5/15	video	02:46	2	Situation drama and activities (Sculpture and statue, characters and emotion, friendly follower)
7	17/5/15	video	02:33	3	Hamlet and activities (Sneeze, cough..., Super-sized stories, Tug war, Eye contact)
8	24/5/15	video	02:51	3	Slapstick and activities (Freeze frame, Voices in the head, Timeline, Walls have ears)

## Appendix 7

### Drama activities bank

<b>ACTIVITY</b>	<b>TEACHING</b>	<b>TIMING</b>	<b>PURPOSE</b>	<b>NOTES</b>
1-2-3 Buzz	Participants work in pairs. Facilitator demonstrates the activity with a volunteer. Facilitator says 1, volunteer says 2, facilitator says 3. Both take turns to continue the 1,2,3 practice.	3-5 minutes	Concentration and teamwork	At some point the counting will break down but the facilitator will encourage the volunteer to keep going. Now pairs practice the activity.
Go, Freeze	Participants spread in the space. Facilitator says 'Go' and they walk. Facilitator says 'Freeze' and they stop.	2-3 minutes	Energy and attention	Other variations include walk backwards, drag foot on the floor, run slowly,
Murderer	Participants form a circle. Volunteer is sent out and is given the role of a detector. Facilitator chooses two murderers and those two have the power to kill any member of the group by winking at them. Winked at participant die and consequently fall on the ground. Detector has to guess who the murderers are.	3-5 minutes	Spot cues and encourage melodrama through fun.	The detective has to stand in the middle of the circle. S/he has three guesses to find the murderer.
A Walk in the Woods	Participants sit in a circle. Facilitator starts by saying the first word of the sentence 'I went to the woods', in this case 'I'. One participant says 'went', next participant 'to' and so on. Each one	6-8 minutes	Imagination and quick response	The story continues till the facilitator thinks the story has developed some line of events.

	would give a word to make up a story.			
Two Truths and a Lie	Participants form a circle. Facilitator explains that each participant has to tell three 'facts'; two of them must be true and one must be a lie.	6-8 minutes	Creativity and getting to know other people in the group	Each Participant tells his/her facts and other participants have to guess
The Alphabet	Participants sit in a circle. Facilitator explains that each participant should make a sentence starting with a letter of the alphabet. First one makes a sentence starting with letter A, second makes a sentence starting with letter B and so on.	8-10 minutes	Practice the alphabet and develop verbal improvisation skills.	Facilitator takes part in the game. If one participant go blank, others can throw in words.
The King Game	Facilitator calls for a king or a queen. S/he sits on a chair at one side of the room. The other participants sit in line at the other end. The king needs people to be members of the court. Participants take turn in pleasing the king by any means.	5-7 minutes	Teamwork, empowerment	If the king is pleased, the king allows the person into the court. If the king is displeased, the king may kill them (by a click of fingers). Facilitator plays the king and s/he acts like an audience who may or may not be entertained depending on the performance of the participants.
Moods	The group sits in a circle. One person gets up and moves to the centre. S/he acts they are in one particular mood	5-7 minutes	Teamwork, empowerment	Participants do not speak. They just act. Facilitator asks the audience whether the

	(nervous, angry, happy, etc). A second player gets up and share the same mood of the first participant. A third participant joins in and s/he brings in a different mood (preferably opposite) and all the first two join the new mood. The first participants sits and a fourth one joins. The cycle begins again.			scene suggests a familiar encounter. Then that scene could be run. For example, two angry people joined by an excited person may suggest three people in the waiting room after they were all interviewed for the same job.
Mirror Mirror..	Ask players to stand in a circle. You begin by doing a simple movement (e.g. jump and point) towards the person on the right. Let's call her Claire. Claire must then do exactly the same movement back at you before turning right and repeating it to the person on her right.	5-7 mins	Physical alertness and concentration and improves observation skills	
The Amazing 'A's Game	Participants sit in a circle. They must all think of an activity that begins with some letters as their name. When everyone has thought of an activity, the game can start. One at a time, the players must stand up and introduce themselves. E.g. My name is Stan and I like... at which point he mimes doing underwater movements, swimming around the circle. The	8-10 mins	Sally puts her hand up and guesses swimming, but Stan shkes his head. Jean guesses snorkeling but Stan shakes his head. Nikki then guesses scuba-diving, which was right, so now it is Nikki's turn.	Confidence and acting something simple out in front of others

	others must guess what Stan's activity is.			
The bears are coming	Facilitator divides the group into bears and lumberjacks with the majority being lumberjacks.			

## Appendix 8

### Lesson class transcription – Basem's class 16-4-15

Class Transcription

Date: 16/4/15  
T: Basem  
Year: Year 6  
Time: 02:00:15

R = Basem  
M = ME

(class + Chat)

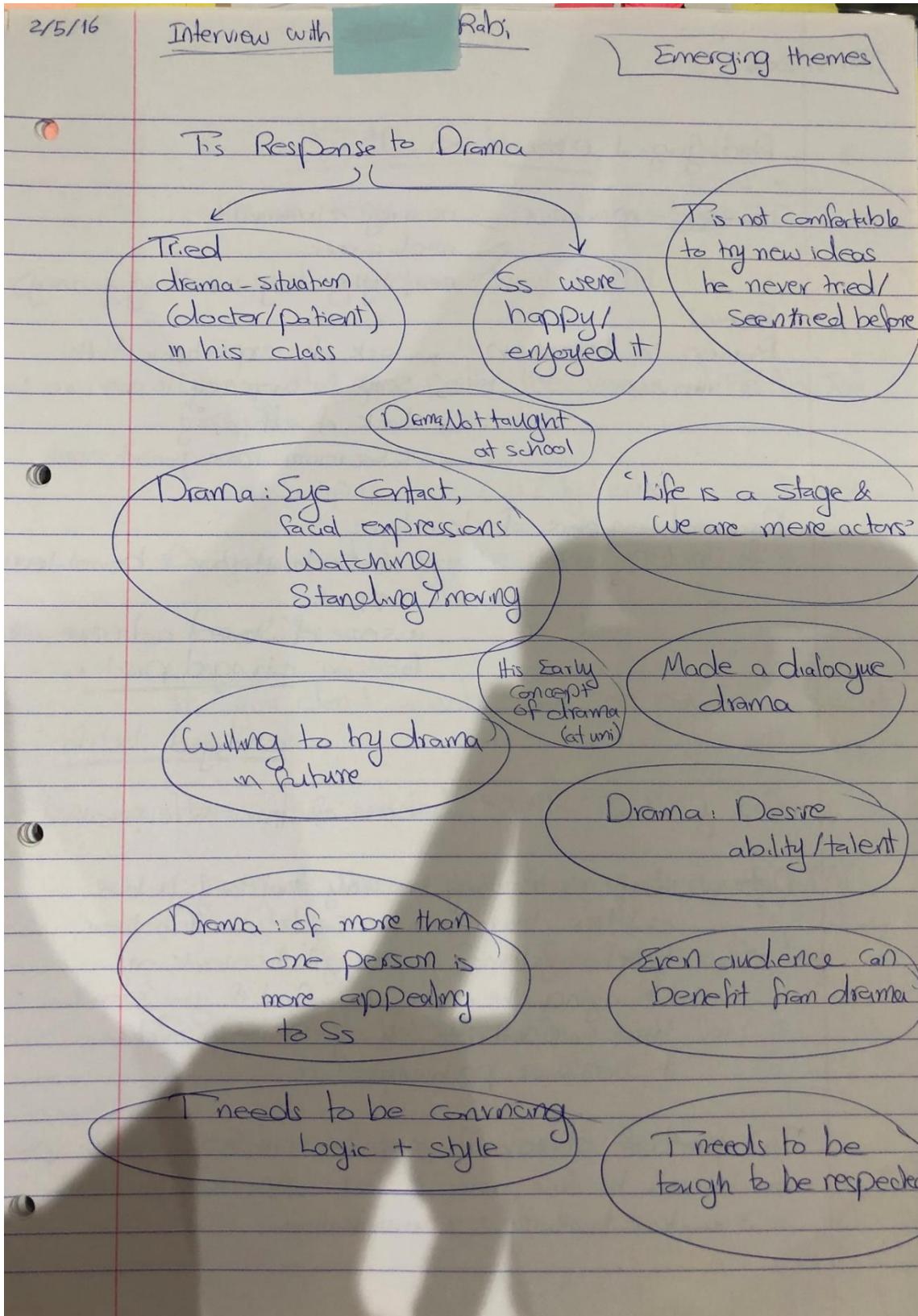
Ry: Four unit revisions. You know four units revision. So the unit has song  
Me: Four units ok → R: Now the revision not got a song  
M: Songs ok  
R: Yes here  
M: What is it  
R: walk across the road.  
I prepared them all of them. five songs.  
Me: ok  
R: So  
Me: Do you play the song?  
R: Yes of course.  
M: where do you get them? Do you have the CD for this book.  
R: No computer, I have 25 files, audio files.  
In unit, tracks I have the lesson and song.  
So I have 2 parts. So I cut the  
Me: & then  
R: & then I have 5 separate songs.  
yes I just prepared them.  
Me: ok  
R: So & I have written this  
M: It's good to have them together  
R: Because  
M: You can still come back  
R: Because you know we started in the middle of the year so I can't cover the whole book. I can

Songs As Part of the Curriculum

Interrupted schooling

## Appendix 9

### Themes from an interview with Rabi



## Appendix 10

### Diaries/journals details – 2<sup>nd</sup> field visit

Number	Title	Date
1	All the people in Kilis will speak English	29/3/15
2	As if there are many things to do	2/4/15
3	Auntie buy a biscuit from me	15/3/15
4	Cok as ingilizce biliyorum	30/3/15
5	I couldn't go into the camp but I met a teacher from the camp	4/3/15
6	I don't know what to do	6/3/15
7	I don't want least I get used to	13/4/15
8	I need your advice on this	9/3/15
9	I told them it's real but they didn't give attention	5/3/15
10	I went to look for this house but couldn't find it	7/3/15
11	I will let you know when we come to Kilis	8/4/15
12	Ingilizce cok az biliyor	30/3/15
13	Is this in Kilis?	16/3/15
14	It's a lazy day	10/4/15
15	Let me try again	5/4/15
16	Let us prepare Sinbad	9/4/15
17	Let us meet and talk about it	18/3/15
18	My life finished long time ago	20/3/15
19	Nothing is certain	14/4/15
20	On the threshold of the camp	10/3/15
21	Once you know the right person	13/3/15
22	Our teacher used the same technique in the IBC	31/3/15
23	She made us act	3/4/15
24	That must be an explosion in Syria	7/4/15
25	That fax was came	23/3/15
26	The people in Kilis don't show their feelings	24/3/15
27	The Wali said so I told them	12/3/15
28	They changed the programme	16/4/15
29	They said yes but after three days they said no	26/3/15
30	This is easy theoretically speaking	19/3/15
31	Time is very slow here	17/3/15
32	Too many negotiators make me just as worried	8/3/15
33	Too much bureaucracy hinders and wastes time and energy	11/3/15
34	Turkey is bureaucracy	27/3/15
35	We need to write down our plan	21/3/15
36	What is your decision if you get no permission	16/3/15
37	When in Kilis, do as the Kilisians do	25/3/15
38	Why one plus one equals two	22/3/15
39	Will they accept my English certificate when I apply for a job	1/4/15
40	Yedi gun the secretary of education director said	6/4/15
41	You might be a spy	4/4/15

42	And when you try to squeeze your mind to report what happened during the day	15/5/15
43	Do it the Syrian way	16/5/15
44	Don't get sad. This is the Syrians	3/5/15
45	Every Monday is boring	4/5/15
46	For whom are you collecting information	22/4/15
47	He is Baathiest and he is opposed to the revolution	24/5/15
48	How can I do it?	15/4/15
49	I am sorry miss Reem	26/5/15
50	I have a test	5/5/15
51	I need your advice on this	9/3/15
52	I wish I can go back to school	11/5/15
53	If you can't meet the basic needs	20/4/15
54	Isn't there anybody	29/4/15
55	It is a closed community	24/4/15
56	It is like a monkey cage and one comes to take a picture	22/5/15
57	It is possible/legitimate to kill her according to Shariamy mind is full of new ideas	18/5/15
58	My mind is full of new ideas	28/4/15
59	Nice to meet you	27/5/5
60	Once he tears his T	15/5/15
61	Sunday sunny day reflections	27/3/15
62	Syrians can't rent in this building	3/4/15
63	Tell them they are not good	17/4/15
64	The first performance on the plane	3/3/15
65	There are two issues to mention in the conference	2/5/15
66	There is none of us who is a failure	28/3/15
67	They don't know the letters	11/4/15
68	This school is bad	21/4/15
69	When I respond to any ill behaviour	1/5/15
70	Where is Miss Reem	17/4/15
71	Will you stay longer	19/5/15
72	Writing is easy until you need to make decisions	20/5/15
73	Ya mestajel wa'ef la elak	6/5/15
74	You are serving the eastern part of Kilis while Iqraa is in the west	17/5/15
75	You Syrians don't like each other	21/5/15

## Appendix 11

### Interviews record

#### 1<sup>st</sup> Phase interviews

No	Pseudonym	Duration	Date	Language	Place	Job
1	Kenan	00:30	10/5/14	Arabic	By phone	Education Deputy Minister
2	Ruba	00:36	16/4/14	Turkish	In her office	School coordinator

#### 2<sup>nd</sup> Phase interviews

No	Pseudonym	Duration	Date	Language	Place	Job
1	Sarah	00:31	13/2/15	English	Social Science café	English teacher
2	George	00:30	13/2/15	English	His office	Associate Professor
3	Dareen	00:16	2/2/15	English	Librarian office	Drama teacher
4	Nadia	00:35	16/2/15	English	Skype	Lecturer and community artist
5	James	00:26	05/02/15	English	His office	Professor of drama

#### 3<sup>rd</sup> Phase interviews

No	Pseudonym	Duration	Date	Language	Place	Job
1	Adam	34:37	28 May	English	Bec Evelar mini park	NGO worker / teacher
2	Mona	40:56	26 May	Arabic	Muzzo café	Teacher
3	Ahlam	20:54	6 June	Arabic	Syrian Café + walking chat	Teacher
4	Ismail	01:08	21 May	Arabic	Doner shop-Dahab roundabout	Teacher
5	Basem	00:25	2 June	English	Teachers' lounge	Teacher
6	Rabi'	30:00	8 May	Arabic	Teachers' lounge	Teacher
7	Karim	01:10	28 July	Arabic	WhatsApp	Teacher
8	Sara	05:58	22 June	Arabic	Skype	NGO worker
9	Muaz	02:02	31 May	Arabic	Toronjo	NGO worker

10	Hadi	29:12 13:40	5 June	Arabic	IBC headquarters	NGO education officer
11	Farah	41:18	20 May	Arabic	Her house salon	Teacher
12	Laila	28:12	27 May	Arabic	Teachers' lounge	Teacher
13	Khalil	05:48 13:27	26 May	Turkish and English	Toronjo cafe	Iskur Manager
14	Siham	01:14	10 April	English	Caesar Patisserie	Teacher Trainer
15	Anas	01:20 00:58	28 July	Arabic	Facebook messenger	UNICEF trainer
16	Omar	01:59	5 June	Arabic	His home, kitchen	Director
17	Samer	01:15	27 June	Arabic	WhatsApp (voice record)	Teacher, IBC Community Centre
18	Suhaib	02:07	4 June	Arabic	Cave restaurant (by the school)	Teacher, Fatih school (Human Sciences school)
19	Noureddin	02:11	22 May	Arabic	Syrian Cafe	Painter and Sculptor
20	Farid	01:20	4 May	Arabic	Muzzo Café	x-camp teacher and education supporter in liberated Syria
21	Kenan	02:19	26 March	Arabic	Ministry of Education – Syrian Interim Government	Education Advisor
22	Labib	00:14	5 June	Arabic	His office	Syrian Principal of school
23	Zaki	00:22	5 June	Turkish (via interpreter )	His offices	Turkish principal

## Appendix 12

### Interview questions to teachers – 3<sup>rd</sup> Phase

1. Introduce yourself. Tell me about your teaching career.
2. Have you used drama in your class? If yes, what are the pros and cons of using drama?
3. Have you been to any of the workshops of teaching English through drama (Kilis)? If not would you like to take part in any follow up?
4. What type of drama activities do you use? What happens during the activities in terms of teaching and reception by students?
5. Will you continue to use these activities?
6. Is learning English important in the current circumstances? If yes, in what ways? If no, why?
7. What is the role of drama in learning a language according to your experience?

## Appendix 13

### Lessons audio recordings details – 2<sup>nd</sup> field visit

No	Teacher	School	Date	Duration	Notes
1	Laila	Il ozel idari	22/5/15	00:31:36	
2	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	22/5/15	00:43:21	
3	Laila	Il ozel idari	21/5/15	00:47:31	
4	Basem	Bec eveler	20/5/15	00:41:03	
5	Basem	Bec eveler	18/5/15	00:50:46	
6	Karim	Bec eveler	18/5/15	00:40:28	
7	Karim	Bec eveler	18/5/15	00:26:16	
8	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	15/5/15	00:34:04	
9	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	15/5/15	00:23:12	
10	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	15/5/15	00:35:56	
11	Munir	Akram chatin	14/5/15	00:27:58	
12	Rabi	Bec eveler	8/5/15	00:11:56	
13	Rabi	Bec eveler	8/5/15	00:08:03	
14	Karim	Bec eveler	6/5/15	01:34:48	
15	Basem	Bec eveler	5/5/15	02:01:20	+ chat
16	Basem	Bec eveler	5/5/15	00:39:11	
17	Farah	Il ozel idari	4/5/15	01:23:05	2 classes
18	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	29/4/15	01:56:34	2 classes (Cinderella)
19	Mona	Alansari	27/4/15	01:24:56	+ chat
20	Mona	Alansari	27/4/15	00:40:11	
21	Mona	Alansari	27/4/15	00:44:34	Little Red Riding Hood
22	Mona	Alansari	21/4/15	01:26:36	
23	Basem	Il ozel idari	21/4/15	00:44:59	
24	Karim	Bec eveler	21/4/15	00:43:21	
25	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	21/4/15	00:25:04	
26	Basem	Bec eveler	20/4/15	00:32:44	
27	Reem	Bec eveler	20/4/15	02:20:57	Teacher sick
28	Samer	Community Centre IBC	16/4/15	01:42:02	+ chat
29	Basem	Bec eveler	16/4/15	02:00:14	+ principal chat
30	Farah	Il ozel idari	14/4/15	02:54:16	+ chat
31	Ahlam	Il ozel idari	14/4/15	00:43:04	
32	Farah	Il ozel idari	9/4/15	01:20:34	+ chat
33	Mona	Alansari	7/4/15	00:58:51	+ chat
34	Laila	Il ozel idari	7/4/15	00:37:35	
35	Laila	Il ozel idari	31/3/15	00:59:32	

## Appendix 14

### One-line-character activity

**Description**

Ask participants to be a mum or a dad. Participants prepare a phrase or a sentence illustrating what that person would say and do. Ask participants to show when that person is angry, happy or sad. Characters can include a teacher, a doctor, a lorry driver, a market stall-holder, a businessman, a manager, a professional sportsman, a politician, a scientist, a pop singer, a conductor, etc.

Choose two characters. Ask them to prepare a five-minute dialogue using the characters (home setting, on a park bench, school, office, etc.). Participants practice the dialogue before they perform it. Other participants comment on whether the scene was convincing and give suggestions to improve the performance.

**Purpose**

Character building and making conversation.

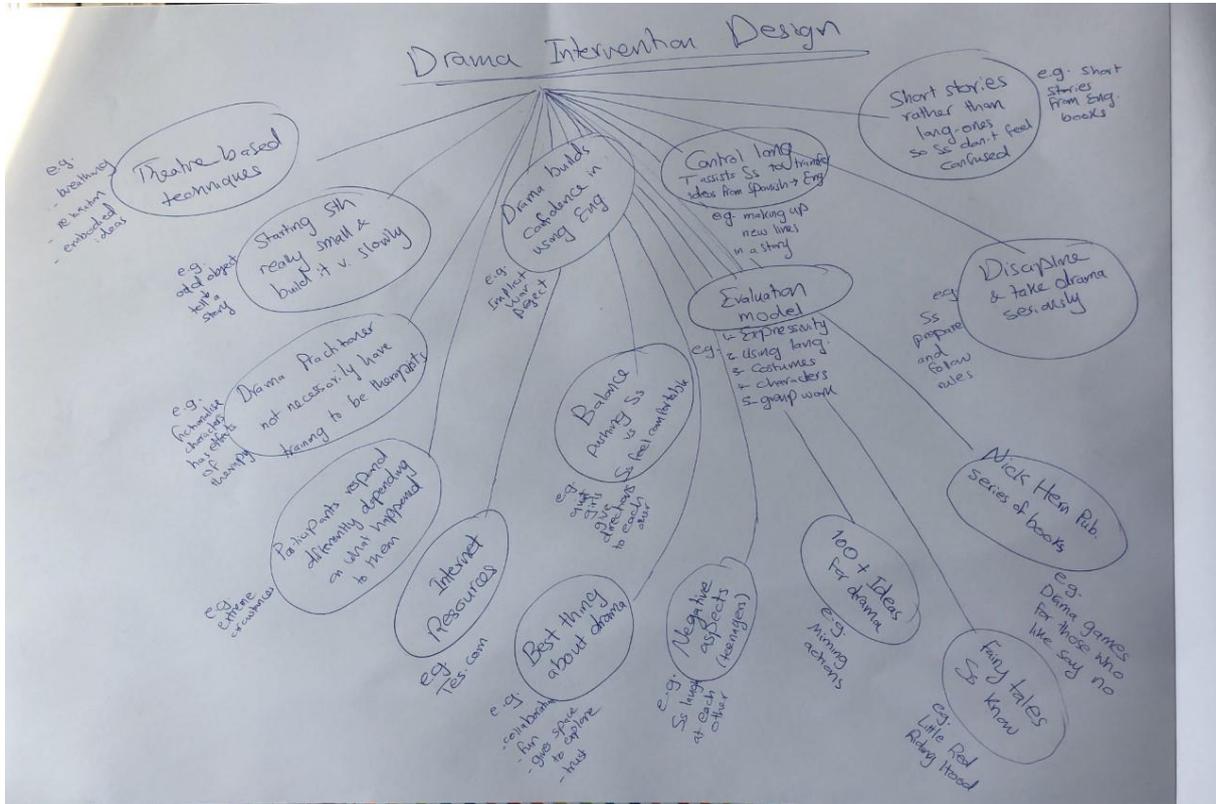
**Duration**

10-12 minutes

**What went well?****What needs attention?**

# Appendix 15

## Drama intervention design: a practitioner guide



## Appendix 16

### Consent letter for parents

THE UNIVERSITY OF  
WARWICK



27 آذار 2014

ولي الطالب المترم .

يهدف البحث الذي نقوم به لتجسير ارسالة الدكتور اذني جامعة وريك إلى تطوير مستوى تعليم اللاجئين السوريين من خلال التركيز على أهمية التفاعل الصافي واداره في خلق فرص للتعليم داخل صف اللغة الانكليزية حيث أظهرت الدراسات أنه من الممكن جود دراسة اللغة أثناء التفاعلات التفاعلية تحقيق الفائدة العلمية من خلال اكتساب معارف جديدة وتطوير مهارات التواصل بالإضافة إلى تحديد المشكلات والتوصل إلى طرق فعالة لمواجهتها ونظراً لتجربتي الشخصية في تعليم اللغة الانكليزية في المدارس في سورية ولتكوني كنت مفعمة في سورية حتى فترة قريبة ، لدي فهم جيد لاحتياجات الطلاب وأهم القضايا المتعلقة بهم في اجراء هذه الدراسة أرجو مساعدتكم في هذا المشروع من خلال منح الإذن لتسجيل دروس اللغة الانكليزية التي يحضرها ابنتكم/ابنكم لتسجيل صوتي وفيديو بالإضافة إلى التحدث إليهم للتعرف على المشكلات التي يواجهونها خلال التفاعل الصافي والمساهمة في تقديم الحلول المناسبة

سيتم التعامل مع المعلومات التي يشارك بها ابنتكم/ابنكم كما يلي

- ستملى حرية الطالب المشارك مجهرلة بما يحفظ حقوقه كاملة ،
- سيتم استخدام المعلومات الواردة في المطبوعات مع الطلاب بهدف البحث العلمي فقط ،
- سيكون للطالب حرية التعبير عن رأيه دون أية ضغوطات وبما لا يسيب أي تراجع له راجعاً ،
- يحق لولي أمر الطالب أن يعطى المسحاب ابنته/بنه من الدراسة إذا رأى أنه يؤثر عليه سلباً

قد تم استطلاع مدير المدرسة على مشروع البحث وقد أبدى اهتمامه وشعرته لتقديم أي مساعدة تتساعف في تطوير أداء الطلاب والمستوى التعليمي للمدرسة كما تم الحصول على موافقة لجنة اجراء الأبحاث من جامعة وريك

يشمل العمل مع الطلاب خلال الدراسة التحدث إليهم بعد موافقتهم على المشاركة في مشروع البحث في حال كان لديهم أي تساؤل أو ارتت معرفة المزيد عن البحث يسرني الإجابة على استفسار لك وذلك بالاتصال على الأرقام والعنوان في نهاية الرسالة إذا كنت توافق على مشاركة ابنتك/ابنك في هذه الدراسة ، أرجو التوقيع في المكان المخصص وشكراً لحسن تعاونكم



أترك ما يتعديه هذا المشروع وأوافق على مشاركة ابني/ابنتي فيه

التاريخ 2014/14/14  
التاريخ 2014/14/14

توقيع ولي أمر  
توقيع الباحثة

ريم تكملي  
طالبة بكالوريوس  
جامعة وريك

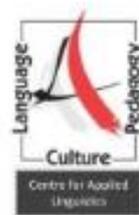
العنوان البريدي: كوفنتري CV4 7AL

البريد الإلكتروني: r.doukma@warwick.ac.uk

هاتف: 07838935525 -44

## Appendix 17

### Consent letter for students



17 March 2014

Dear Student,

I would like to invite you to participate in my PhD research project. As you read, you will learn more about the project and you will have the chance to decide whether or not to take part. The purpose of this research is to outline the challenges and issues learners encounter in their learning of English language and how they can be addressed through interaction with the teacher and class mates. The research will be carried out over two stages: the first will be set to explore the challenges you encounter in learning and interaction and the second one will focus on implementing strategies that will help you improve your interaction behaviour to maximize learning opportunities.

The data collection process will involve the following procedures:

- Observing your class as a whole and not you as an individual.
- Audio and video recording of your classes after you give your consent.
- Interviewing you for more information about classroom behaviour.

If you require further information or have any question about the project, please feel free to contact the researcher and your views will be taken into account. You may decide not to take part in any part of the study if you wish to do so by advising the researcher. You may also decline to answer any questions during the study without any penalty or effect on your evaluation. All information you provide will be considered completely confidential. The project will help you improve your interaction and learning skills of English language.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Signature of participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Yours Sincerely,

ReemDoukma  
PhD Student  
University of Warwick  
Coventry  
CV4 7AL  
Email: [REDACTED]  
Tel: [REDACTED]

## Appendix 18

### Poem for 'Refuge Newspaper: Pain and Hope'

طفل باحت عن الحرية  
وقف الطفل على بوابة الموت عند الحدود الشمالية  
وصرخ بأعلى ما تملك حنجرته من جبال صوتيه  
أنا الناشر عن الحرية  
أنا من صوت بأعلى صوتي حرية حرية، فأجابه في صوت الهجيرة  
بذلك حرية ذلك حرية وصوت في وجهي لها صر البندقية  
و دعس على جسدي العنق لخرقة عسكرية  
أنا من كتبت على حيطان مدرستي لأزوم ترحد يا بشر البرية  
أنا كتبت الحرية لأكثر لم تعطين الشرعية  
لأحيا حياة أدمية طفولتي  
فشرعية العاق تكلم كمدنية بل كدولة وكدمرسة  
بد كدمية تزل في بلاد المسية  
أنا في الحرية من المنام طائرًا يطير في فقهه الخفية  
هاولت الطيران ملكه فأمكنني وأو نفسي وعذقتي عصاة  
هجيرة  
عصاة تنتمى إلى زمانه إن مكلمين لهم وهوش البشرية  
زهت إلى مدرستي هبت تعلت وقرأت أن سنا اسمه الدرع الحية  
فألقينا قذائف من تحت الأسوار من أماكن الطبيعة  
كده هذا هذت لاني تذوقت طعم الحرية  
أنا طفل من رعا الأبية أنا تشرفت بأوكار بناء البرية  
أنا همة أنا طاجر أنا لافر لا فرقة عن الحرية سيدك في ودك  
فالحرية مطلب كد أي صكنا قالت الرابع الأبية والسماوية