Language for learning
How language use affects Rohingya children’s educational experience in Cox’s Bazar
August 2020
Acknowledgments

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## Glossary

<table>
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<th>Definition</th>
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<td>Bangla</td>
<td>The official language of Bangladesh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chittagonian</td>
<td>The mother tongue of the Chittagonian community of the Chattogram division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCFA</td>
<td>Learning Competency Framework and Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Facilities</td>
<td>Physical learning centers or alternative learning arrangements including space sharing, home-based education, tutors, and technology-based solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother tongue</td>
<td>An individual’s first and/or most familiar language or languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>The official language of Myanmar, previously known as Burmese</td>
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Overview of this report

This report examines how language use affects Rohingya children’s educational experience in the camps around Cox’s Bazar in Bangladesh.

We identified four key factors that influence how Rohingya refugee children receive an education:

**Government requirements:** The Government of Bangladesh imposes certain requirements on education service providers.

**The complex linguistic environment:** The multilingual nature of the response imposes constraints.

**Mother-tongue-based multilingual education:** Current educational theory highlights the importance of using learners’ mother tongue.

**The changing expectations of the Rohingya community:** Historically, Rohingya people had limited access to education but they understand its value.

We identified ten important issues linked to language that affect how children’s education is delivered in Bangladesh:

- Community respondents have limited confidence in learning facilities, which don’t match their expectations.
- The LCFA provides limited guidance on using the Rohingya language to teach Rohingya children.
- Teachers don’t use Rohingya sufficiently to explain new concepts. Nor do they encourage students to explore and articulate ideas using Rohingya.
- A teacher-centered approach prevents learners being more actively involved.
- Teachers underutilize teaching and learning materials.
- Assessments of learners’ language and numeracy competencies are potentially misleading.
- The opportunity presented by having two teachers in the classroom is underutilized.
- Rohingya teachers often do not have the right language skills.
- Assessments of teachers competence are potentially misleading on language.
- Language barriers limit Rohingya teacher assessment and development.

Based on our experience of assessing and responding to language barriers, we developed recommended actions to overcome the issues identified. We present short-, mid- and long-term recommendations in seven categories:

- Strengthen implementation of mother-tongue-based multilingual education to improve outcomes in all content areas.
- Expand the use of Rohingya language in lessons.
- Create Rohingya language
teaching and learning materials for bridging with Myanmar and English.

- Promote teachers’ English and Myanmar language competence.
- Improve teacher understanding of modern teaching theory and practice.
- Increase community understanding of modern education practice.
- Strengthen the teacher recruitment, training and development framework to improve teacher competences.

1. Four key factors influence how Rohingya refugee children receive an education

To understand how language use affects access to education for Rohingya children in Bangladesh, it’s essential to consider four interrelated factors. In combination, these factors have an important influence on education service design and delivery:

- Government requirements.
- Current educational theory.
- The multilingual environment.
- The expectations of the Rohingya themselves.

1.1. The Government of Bangladesh imposes certain requirements

The Government of Bangladesh prohibits Rohingya people accessing the Bangladesh education system. However, through the National Task Force, it establishes and oversees an alternative system for refugee children. That system imposes certain requirements on education service providers. They must:

- Use English and Myanmar as languages of instruction.
- Provide informal education in temporary structure.

This report examines how language barriers affect access to education

Article 26 of the UN Declaration of Human Rights states that everyone has the right to education. The same article states that parents have a right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Organisations delivering education services to Rohingya refugee children in Cox’s Bazar operate in a complex context. Their activities are particularly constrained by political, linguistic, and historical factors. This report provides an overview of those factors and outlines various communication challenges that result from them. It makes a number of recommendations to reduce language barriers and improve the effectiveness of education services.

This report is relevant to anyone involved in delivering education services to refugee children.
They must not:

- Use the Bangladesh national curriculum.
- Use Bangla as a language of instruction.
- Provide any written material in Bangla.

In May 2019, the education options available to Rohingya children in Bangladesh were:

- Unaccredited education services offered by non-government and private organizations.
- Informal community-based education

The efforts of education providers are coordinated through the Cox’s Bazar Education Sector, which supports the planning and delivery of education services in the camps. The Education Sector liaises and coordinates with the government of Bangladesh, which provides leadership and an authorized framework for education activities for the Rohingya population in Bangladesh.

1.2. The multilingual nature of the response imposes constraints

Like many communities around the world, the Rohingya community uses multiple languages. In addition to Rohingya, of which there are several distinct dialects, many Rohingya people use terms from provincial languages like Rakhine. Some also speak Myanmar, the national language of Myanmar. Some also use Arabic and Urdu in religious settings. Finally, since their forced migration to Bangladesh, some Bangla and English terms are becoming more familiar and more widely used by the Rohingya community in Cox’s Bazar. However, familiarity with Bangla and English terms does not imply fluency in those languages.

People with limited education or low socio-economic status, women, and people with disabilities have less opportunity to learn additional languages. They are therefore further disadvantaged when access to learning depends on their competence in additional languages (Pinnock, 2009).

**Rohingya is not a standardized language and it has no agreed script**

Rohingya is the main language used and preferred for communication by an estimated 93% of Rohingya people in camps (TWB, 2019). It represents an important resource for teaching and learning, especially for enabling disadvantaged groups to participate and learn.

However, Rohingya is not a standardized language. It has no formally agreed vocabulary or grammar, and no commonly adopted writing system.
There is longstanding interest among some educated Rohingya to develop a standard and written form of the language (Pandey, 2016). Various scripts developed in past decades, including Rohingyalish and Hanifi, are used by different subgroups in camps and among the diaspora. However, sustained and widespread use of a written form of an oral language will only occur when social and cultural conditions enable it. Attempts to do so in limited contexts, such as for children’s education in camps, are unlikely to succeed. Unless they are familiar with a written form of their mother tongue, it will be difficult for Rohingya children to learn basic literacy skills in other languages such as English and Myanmar.

Depending on the agency and activity, the humanitarian response in Cox’s Bazar uses Rohingya, Bangla (for host community teachers), Chittagonian, English and Myanmar.

**Chittagonian is a local dialect of Bangla, the national language of Bangladesh, and used in the greater Chattogram area**

Most host community teachers are Bangladesh nationals educated in the Bangladesh national education system. As a result, they become literate in the Bangla language. Their mother tongue is Chittagonian, considered a local dialect of Bangla. As a consequence of the various migrations to Bangladesh, Rohingya people are gradually receiving increased exposure to Bangla through advertising, media and entertainment, and humanitarian and government administration. In the refugee camps the use of Bangla for teaching and learning is prohibited by the Bangladesh government.

Chittagonian is the main dialect spoken in Cox’s Bazar District, where the camps are situated. It has a number of local variations, and uses Bangla script. There is considerable crossover between some dialects of Rohingya and Chittagonian, particularly the variation spoken in the Teknaf area of Cox’s Bazar. Between the Teknaf variation of Chittagonian and some of the Rohingya dialects there are many similar tones and terms. Host community teachers who are proficient in Chittagonian can communicate with Rohingya learners and families to some extent. However, there are also considerable differences between the two languages. TWB’s language testing showed that 36% of Rohingya in Cox’s Bazar struggled to understand a spoken sentence in simple Chittagonian (TWB, 2018).

These comprehension issues are particularly apparent with technical terms or more complex topics. The differences arise because, like other dialects, Chittagonian tends to borrow technical terms from Bangla, while Rohingya is more likely to borrow them from Urdu, Arabic, or Myanmar.
The humanitarian response has exposed refugees to more English

Rohingya learners and teachers have had increased exposure to English since living in the camps but it doesn’t follow that English usage and comprehension is high among Rohingya people. However English is popular among young people and those hoping for resettlement in third countries (TWB, 2019).

1.3. Current educational theory highlights the importance of using learners’ mother tongue

Language is central to education, and there is a growing interest in multilingual education (UNESCO, 2018). In a sense, all education is multilingual as teachers constantly guide learners between known and unfamiliar terminology, concepts, and ways of communicating. The importance of using learners’ mother tongue in multilingual education is increasingly recognized.

Oral language is a crucial tool for teaching and learning. New ideas and ways of thinking and communicating are first encountered through talk in social interaction. Teachers and learners use two kinds of talk in education: educated and exploratory (Mercer, 1995). Educated talk is the accurate and effective use of subject-specific vocabulary and ways of talking as a result of education. In contrast, exploratory talk (also called educational talk) is used in the process of teaching and learning. It builds on learners’ current understandings and ways of communicating, and elicits new ones. By definition, exploratory talk requires teachers and learners to communicate in both known vocabulary and unfamiliar academic language. Initially, learners often engage in incomplete and incorrect exploratory talk as they use it to reformulate ideas, to answer teachers’ requests for explanations, and to articulate statements collaboratively (Mercer, 1995). This complex shift between educated and exploratory talk relies strongly on oral language.

In multilingual settings this complexity increases. Learners must expand their understanding of concepts and ways of communicating in their first language while simultaneously learning additional languages. Teachers and learners move between educated and exploratory forms in first and additional languages, and between spoken and written language (Setati and Adler, 2002).

There is a robust body of evidence to support three key concepts in education in multilingual settings:

- Children should learn their mother tongue throughout formal education.
- Teachers should present new concepts and ways of communicating in familiar language/s first, and then in
additional languages.
• Children need to learn an additional language for a minimum of six years before it becomes their sole medium of instruction (UNESCO, 2018).

Language learners need opportunities to talk in both their mother tongue and the new language

Learners need opportunities for exploratory talk so they can develop cognitively and linguistically. Increasing private/safe spaces in class, for example through pair work and small group work, is a way to do this. One well-known activity is “think, pair, share.” It involves the teacher posing an open question then giving individuals a short time to think and perhaps make notes. Learners then exchange ideas with a partner before sharing with the class. Another is “buzz groups,” where the teacher gives learners a limited time to discuss points in groups before sharing. Both methods provide a reason and opportunity to communicate in a safe space. Ideally teachers and learners would use Rohingya for these activities. Teachers should suggest useful Rohingya phrases for learners to use when exchanging ideas or presenting opinions. Once learners are familiar with this way of working, the same activities could be used to discuss familiar topics using English and Myanmar. Teachers and learners would need to learn Myanmar and

English phrases to complete that exercise.

Teachers need support to develop language for teaching. Language for teaching includes ways of asking learners questions, telling anecdotes, giving examples, setting up and monitoring activities, and giving feedback. It includes language for learners to use to ask questions, give opinions, and share ideas. Providing guidance on language for teaching shows teachers how they are expected to communicate in class, and how learners can communicate.

1.4. Historically, Rohingya people had limited access to education but they understand its value

Before 1990, the Rohingya community had the same access to education in Rakhine State as other Rakhine residents. That education was limited in quality and resources. In 1990 the Myanmar government restricted educational access for Rohingya at primary and secondary school levels. The government introduced further restrictions in 2012 after intercommunal violence, banning Rohingya from university. Non-Rohingya teachers left posts in government primary schools in Rohingya areas as a result of the changes. Many Rohingya learners were therefore not able to continue their primary education (Olney et al., 2019).
Most teachers in Rakhine State spoke a mixture of Rakhine and Myanmar in class. Those two distinct languages are from the same language family (Lolo-Burmese) but Myanmar speakers often find it difficult to understand Rakhine. And although Rohingya borrows from both of those languages, it is also different from both (TWB, 2019). To address these language barriers, some schools employed a Rohingya community educator to assist in class. Those community educators were often funded by the local Rohingya population.

So far the education sector has provided services for almost 296,000 Rohingya children, established almost 5,000 learning facilities and used the services of more than 9,000 educators (Education Sector Monthly Update, July 2019). Despite these numbers, space and staffing shortages require learning facilities to operate on a shift system. Learners in the lower grades study for around two hours per day, and those in higher grades for longer.

*Figure 1* shows that learning facilities are well attended by children up to the age of 14 years, but attendance in alternative facilities is very low for children older than that, especially girls.

2. The education sector provides informal education services

The education sector operating in Cox’s Bazar is a network of international, national, and local agencies that provide education services for Rohingya children and youth. The sector operates as part of the humanitarian response under the guidance of a National Task Force led by the Foreign Ministry of the Bangladesh Government. The agencies in the education sector provide informal education to newly arrived Rohingya refugees aged from 4 to 18 years.

*Figure 1: Variation in regular attendance by gender and age group. “Regular” attendance is at least four days per week in the month prior to the survey. (Source: REACH, 2019)*
2.1. The Learning Competency Framework and Approach

The education sector developed the Learning Competency Framework and Approach (LCFA) so that sector partners could provide consistent, coordinated education services. The LCFA educational content is a result of consultation with UN, nongovernment, and government actors. It aligns with the Bangladesh and Myanmar national curricula and the Global Learning Competency Framework developed as a reference for primary education outcomes.\(^1\)

All sector partners operate on the basis of the LCFA.

The LCFA defines four education levels, covering the equivalent of pre-primary through to grade 8 education competences, as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
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<tr>
<td>Grade equivalent</td>
<td>Pre-primary</td>
<td>Grades 1-2</td>
<td>Grades 3-5</td>
<td>Grades 6-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content areas</td>
<td>– Physical and motor development</td>
<td>– English</td>
<td>– English</td>
<td>– English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Psychosocial</td>
<td>– Myanmar</td>
<td>– Myanmar</td>
<td>– Mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– English</td>
<td>– Mathematics</td>
<td>– Mathematics</td>
<td>– Life skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Myanmar</td>
<td>– Life skills</td>
<td>– Life skills</td>
<td>– Science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{1}\) Also termed Guideline for Informal Education Program for Forcibly Displaced Myanmar National Children.

The LCFA proposes a blended approach to teaching and learning. It combines direct instruction, active learning, and self-learning, with special emphasis on active learning (LCFA, 2019). It can be used in various settings, including those where children have limited access to education, and restricted space and time for study.

The Education Sector has developed resources such as lesson plans and teacher and student books to complement the LCFA. Given the challenges of the context, a phased approach to introducing the materials was adopted, resulting in some LCFA levels accessing the materials before others. Some learning centers didn’t have access to them at the time of data collection for this report (interviews with senior education sector partners). UNICEF and Education Sector partners have since taken steps to expand access.

Table 1: THE LCFA includes content across four different levels (source: LCFA Information Note, May 2019).
2.2. Implementing the LCFA requires multiple languages

The LCFA reflects the language policy agreed with the Bangladesh Government for the Rohingya community. It states that English and Myanmar are the languages of instruction. However in practice, Rohingya is commonly used as the language of interaction, which allows learners to communicate in their mother tongue in the classroom.

The learning objectives of each level inform lesson plans and other teaching and learning materials. However, the use of oral Rohingya to enable children to express and develop their communicative competence is only evident in Level 1 learning objectives. Our document review confirmed that there is no guidance on the use of oral Rohingya beyond Level 1.

The LCFA content is communicated to teachers, learners, and families in various languages, reflecting the multilingual context of the response, as outlined in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content/Activity</th>
<th>Users</th>
<th>Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LCFA course content and supporting material</td>
<td>Agencies, teachers</td>
<td>English Bangla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training for master trainers</td>
<td>Host community trainers</td>
<td>Bangla Chittagonian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(oral course content and written training</td>
<td>Host community teachers</td>
<td>Chittagonian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>material)</td>
<td>Learners</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with parents and families</td>
<td>Rohingya parents and families, Teachers</td>
<td>Rohingya (limited)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The response uses different languages for different content

Chittagonian is the predominant language of communication with Rohingya families, even though they typically have a low level of comprehension in that language.
2.3. A network of community-based learning facilities also exists in Cox’s Bazar

The community’s desire for formal education is evident in the number of community-based education activities in the Cox’s Bazar camps. These include community schools, madrassa schools, and private tuition and self-study groups in camps. A recent study identified 27 community education networks providing education for almost 10,000 children (Olney et al., 2019). Approximately half the teachers implementing those education activities reportedly work for no pay. Others receive some payments from caregivers (Olney et al., 2019). Some schools receive financial and material support from Rohingya in camps, the Rohingya diaspora, and humanitarian agencies (focus groups and interviews with community educators).

These community-based learning facilities commonly use Myanmar coursebooks sent to the camps by Rohingya remaining in Myanmar. These are copied in local print shops and bought by learners’ families (focus groups and interviews with community educators). Most of these learning facilities teach English, Myanmar, and math. A small number of networks teach additional subjects including geometry, chemistry, world history, social science, economics, and art. The madrassa networks also teach religious subjects and languages, including some Arabic and Urdu. Seventy-seven percent of networks surveyed run a full-time class schedule five or six days a week. Other schools operate part-time, allowing teachers to work elsewhere, and learners to attend learning facilities operated by the education sector partners (Olney et al., 2019).

The majority of teachers working in community-based schools and madrassas report having completed a secondary education. A minority have a university degree (Olney et al., 2019). A third of those teachers report that they were government school teachers in Myanmar. Around half worked as community teachers in government schools or as private tutors, and just under a fifth taught academic subjects in a maktab or madrassa (Olney et al., 2019).

3. Methodology

Ethnography of language policy, a subdomain of language policy and planning (Ricento, 2009, Johnson, 2009 and 2013), was selected as the methodology for this study. Language policy and planning research aims to describe language policy and its impact, and make recommendations for improving education programming. Studies in education include the exploration of how people interpret, adapt, or resist language policies and the impact this has on learning and participation (Johnson, 2009 and 2013). A key focus is on identifying the conditions that promote or constrain the agency of teachers and other key people in education systems (Hornberger and Johnson, 2007).
“Language policy” refers to written policies, but also includes:

- **Use of different languages** as part of education (for example for classroom teaching and learning, teacher training, communication with communities, and for teaching and learning materials)

- **Attitudes towards language/s and education** (for example, which languages do people want to use and for what? Which languages do they want to learn? Is language a tool to transmit knowledge and/or a means to negotiate and build understanding? Which languages should be used in education, by who, when, how and why?)

- **Statements about language in education** (for example, official language policies, written statements in curriculums, what people say about how they use language and/or how languages should be used) (Johnson, 2009).

These different aspects of language policy are closely related. For example, teachers’ attitudes to education and to particular languages inform how they use language/s in the classroom and the kinds of opportunity they provide to learners to use language/s. On the other hand, written statements about classroom language use, if effectively communicated, can shape attitudes and practices. For instance, short videos can demonstrate good practice and discuss the ways in which that supports learning.

Language policy studies explore these different aspects in order to validate claims, understand the influences and impacts of practices, and identify efficient and effective levers for change.

This study examined language policy as part of education provision for Rohingya refugees living in camps in Cox’s Bazar District. Focus areas included policy, education content, assessment, teaching and learning materials, teaching and learning, teacher training, and teacher recruitment and management.

The objectives of the study were to:

- Describe the language and education context in the Rohingya refugee camps.
- Outline the main language-related resources.
- Identify the main language-related challenges.
- Recommend practical measures to improve the situation.

The first phase of the research included reviewing policies, learning facilities, course books, research reports, and meeting minutes. It also involved interviews with senior education sector partners and researchers.

In the second phase, a multilingual research team observed participants in a range of teaching and learning settings, and conducted interviews and focus groups with education stakeholders. Sites were selected in May 2019 in conjunction with the education sector, sector implementing partners, and community-based contacts. Sampling was purposive to cover a range of activities and
providers, and different grade levels and age groups. The research team attended complete shifts to observe different lessons in different subjects and the interactions between learners and teachers between lessons.

3.1. We observed teaching and learning at 11 learning facilities

We attended the following types of learning facility during our field visits:

- LCFA Level 1: early childhood and development and plus (age range 4–6 years)
- LCFA Level 2 (age range 7-14 years)
- Multipurpose center serving adolescents (vocational education and literacy and numeracy) (age range 15-18 years)
- Community school (grades 4 and 5, age range 7-14 years)
- Madrassa school (age range 6-18 years).

The team used a semi-structured observation form to record what learners and teachers did during the lesson and the language they used. In addition, the team made field notes and took photos and audio recordings of lessons and interviews. Researchers met after observations to compare notes and to formulate initial conclusions on:

- The languages used by teachers and learners.
- Movement between languages.
- The proportion of language used by teachers and learners.
- The pedagogical functions of language used (classroom management, teaching and learning, or social).
- The communicative or cognitive function of language (for example to repeat/memorize, to explain/describe, or to give an opinion/judgement).

3.2. We conducted interviews and focus groups

We conducted semi-structured interviews or meetings and 12 focus group discussions with key stakeholders. Discussion centered on peoples' experience of and attitudes towards language and education, the ways they experienced language as a barrier, the resources they found useful to overcome challenges, and their recommendations for improvement.

We sought input from representatives of the following groups:

- Teachers (Rohingya community).
- Teachers (Chittagonian-speaking host community).
- Learners (divided by age 8-14 years and 15-18 years, and gender).
- Education sector partners, senior advisors, and technical and program officers.
- Community-based educators.

Data was analyzed thematically, in order to draw connections between
attitudes and practices across different educational activities and at different layers of the education system (Yin, 2009). Preliminary findings were presented to research participants and stakeholders from the education system for validation and as the basis for making practical recommendations. Due to the complexity of this fast-changing situation findings are time-sensitive and indicate trends rather than uniform generalizations.

3.3. Limitations of the research

This qualitative research reflects stakeholders’ opinions, researcher’s observations, and document review findings. We extracted the major findings of this research from the document review, observation, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. Although it uses related quantitative data collected or analyzed by TWB, this study mostly relies on qualitative findings. Because of this, the findings can’t be reliably extrapolated beyond the study participants. However, they provide a useful indication of the current situation, which could be verified with additional quantitative research.

4. We identified several language issues that affect how Rohingya children’s education is delivered in Bangladesh

In this section we describe ten key findings:

- Community respondents have limited confidence in learning facilities, which don’t match their expectations.
- The LCFA provides limited guidance on using the Rohingya language to teach Rohingya children.
- Teachers don’t use Rohingya to engage learners.
- A teacher-centered approach prevents learners being more actively involved.
- Teachers underutilize teaching and learning materials.
- Assessments of learners’ language and numeracy competencies are potentially misleading.
- The opportunity presented by having two teachers in the classroom is underutilized.
- Rohingya teachers often do not have the right language skills.
- Assessments of teachers’ competence are potentially misleading on language.
- Language barriers limit Rohingya teacher assessment and development.
4.1. Community respondents have limited confidence in learning facilities, which don’t match their expectations

Education is an urgent priority for the Rohingya community in Cox’s Bazar. Yet their only option is informal unaccredited education, offering limited content at restricted times. Rohingya respondents expressed a fear that there will be a missing generation of educated professionals as a result of their forced migration. They voiced a strong desire for their children to have access to accredited, formal education (focus groups and interviews with community educators).

“One (good) thing is that people value education. In Myanmar many said it is not for us. Here everyone wants their children to get an education.” (Interview, Rohingya adults)

A recent household survey by TWB in the camps of Cox’s Bazar identified Myanmar and English as preferred languages to learn, followed by Arabic, Bangla, Rohingya, and Rakhine.

“Enumerators reported people were not sure how to answer. If they are going back to Myanmar, [Myanmar] is the most important. If they are to stay here, Bangla becomes much more important.” (TWB, 2019)

Focus group discussions and interviews with madrassa teachers revealed that the majority of young children in camps attend maktab or madrassa in addition to their general education. They learn Arabic and Urdu as part of basic religious instruction. Some madrassa schools in camps use Myanmar coursebooks to teach Myanmar, English, mathematics, and science. Oral Rohingya is used as a language of instruction, along with oral and written Myanmar (interviews, focus groups, and Madrassa lesson observation).

**Rohingya understand the importance of learning Myanmar**

Learning Myanmar is a priority for Rohingya who hope to return to Myanmar because it is essential to their children’s future. Competence in Myanmar is associated with being educated, and confers status on speakers (focus groups, Rohingya teachers, and community educators). Learning Myanmar in the current context is difficult. People living in camps in Bangladesh lack exposure to the Myanmar language. They also lack the resources to learn the language, which is complex and distant from Rohingya.

A recent cross-border study by TWB found that people educated in Rakhine State were more likely to have learned Rakhine terminology and pronunciation, rather than standard Myanmar (TWB, 2019). Teachers also regularly struggled
with Myanmar standardized spelling. This points to the fact that teachers and learners require considerable additional support and resources to learn standard Myanmar. Overall, Rohingya co-teacher volunteers don’t have sufficient proficiency in standard Myanmar to teach it properly.

**Poor understanding and a lack of familiarity leads to mistrust of education services**

Our research confirmed the findings of Olney et al. (2019), who found that many within the community express limited trust in the education provided in learning facilities (focus groups with Rohingya teachers, learners, and community educators). In a recent education needs assessment 71% of men and 63% of women said they would like to see changes to the subjects and the information that children learn (REACH 2019). Within this subgroup, 41% feel that “improvements to language of instruction” is the main change required.

There are several possible reasons for this mistrust. First, early in the response, learning facilities provided play-based psychosocial support to encourage basic learning. This is compatible with the LCFA’s learner-centered approach to teaching and learning. This approach encourages teachers to use games, songs and sensory support materials such as pictures and flashcards to engage learners. Rohingya people are more familiar with a traditional teacher-centered approach, so they perceive that learning facilities focus more on playing, singing, and fun than on learning (focus groups with learners and community educators). This perception might reflect a low level of understanding of learning processes and modern education practice. However, it can’t be ignored as a strong influence on current perceptions.

The following statement is an example of the limited understanding of the LCFA encountered:

“In learning facilities we are only playing. We come [to the community school] to learn.” (Learner, community school)

Second, the unfamiliar four-level system in the LCFA has further undermined confidence in education services. A technical officer we interviewed explained that Rohingya people wrongly assume the LCFA system is similar to the Myanmar system. Their lack of understanding of the differences sometimes leads them to believe their children are now learning at an inappropriately low level.

Thirdly, community members, especially the educated Rohingya community, have concerns about the Myanmar language proficiency of Rohingya teachers. This undermines confidence in the teachers’ professional capacity and their ability to teach Myanmar (focus groups, community educators). Our lesson observations confirm that Rohingya
teachers use limited Myanmar overall, and tend to mix Myanmar and Rakhine.

Learning facility staff hold regular meetings to communicate with parents about the LCFA approach and outcomes. These meetings are led by Chittagonian-speaking program officers (host community teachers focus group, technical and program officers focus group). The use of Chittagonian to communicate may limit Rohingya caregivers’ understanding of the LCFA. It may also explain their limited engagement in meetings.

**It’s difficult to understand unfamiliar approaches explained in a language you don’t understand**

Bangladeshi technical officers, in the Education Sector as in other sectors, often fail to recognize language as a barrier. They tend to underestimate the role of language in communication, inclusion, and engagement. They acknowledge that some communication challenges were evident early in the response but claim that they overcame language barriers by using Chittagonian. This view was reflected in one technical officer’s statement:

“We hold parents’ meetings every month. We use local language at the meeting [Chittagonian]. This is no problem; after one or two years everyone understands.” (Learning facilities technical officer)

Discussions about educational theory and practice require an understanding of sector-specific concepts and specialized terminology. Like many Bangladeshis, the Rohingya community has not been exposed to many of those before. Consequently, they sometimes find it difficult to engage in a constructive discussion about them. To further complicate the situation, many of the specialized terms have no equivalent in Chittagonian or Rohingya, making translation difficult. All of these factors contribute to widespread misunderstanding and suspicion of the LCFA’s pedagogical approach.

4.2. The LCFA provides limited guidance on using the Rohingya language to teach Rohingya children

The LCFA (Education Sector, 2019) acknowledges that multilingual education for Rohingya children in Bangladesh requires the use of English and Myanmar. However it gives the Rohingya language a less specific role in language and content learning outcomes (document review).

Unless Rohingya has an explicit role in the LCFA, teacher and learner interaction may be limited by their English and Myanmar language abilities. Currently, the LCFA only defines a role for oral Rohingya in Level 1. While use of Rohingya is encouraged at other levels, the absence of explicit guidance will
potentially affect whether learning outcomes are achieved. For instance, a learning outcome of the Level 2 life skills content is that learners should be able to “discuss and list ways in which family and friends can help and care for each other” (Education Sector, 2019). Learners will struggle to do this in languages they are learning, especially before they can do it confidently in their mother tongue.

Organizations use the LCFA as a guiding document (interviews with materials and assessment designers). Without a specified role for Rohingya, materials developers are unlikely to develop support materials and tools in Rohingya. That makes teacher and learner materials, assessments, and teacher training documents less usable to Rohingya speakers.

The LCFA proposes a gradual transition to English as the language of instruction for mathematics and science by Level 3. Myanmar is taught from Level 1 through to Level 4. The dominance of English and Myanmar leaves little scope for Rohingya, especially at Levels 3 and 4. Teachers believe that Rohingya should be phased out as a language of instruction, as the following quote demonstrates:

“Rohingya language is important at the beginning but after two to three years, when students know English and [Myanmar], this will not be needed.” (Rohingya teacher focus group)

This view contradicts current theories of multilingual education, which recommend that mother tongue should have a central role for at least the first six years of schooling (UNESCO, 2016). Research suggests that mathematics, English, and Myanmar language learning will be undermined unless learners have the opportunity to acquire conceptual and communicative competences in oral Rohingya. Once acquired, learners can transfer these competences to concepts and communication in additional languages. Conceptual and communicative learning goals will be best achieved by using oral Rohingya for teaching and learning across all four levels of the LCFA.

4.3. Teachers don’t use Rohingya to engage learners

The complex multilingual environment creates difficulties in the classroom, as reflected in a teacher’s comment:

“Say I give a lesson and ask them to memorize. But they do not understand the word [memorize] because they use a different word in their language... We cannot teach [the lesson] in the time. We have to repeat the same thing a minimum of five times.” (Host community teacher, interview)

All the lessons we observed were multilingual. Teachers frequently moved between the target language (Myanmar or English) for different
subjects and Rohingya or Chittagonian. However, we observed that teachers’ use of Rohingya did not often lead learning. Teachers typically used Rohingya to translate words and phrases from Myanmar or English, not to build learners’ conceptual and communicative competence separately from the additional languages. As a result, the development of concepts was limited (lesson observations).

There were a few notable exceptions. In the Level 1 class, we observed the teacher use Rohingya during circle time each day. She explained:

“In the very beginning they stand in line and recite the Myanmar national anthem. Then I ask them some warm-up questions, like what they have eaten, how they started their day.” (Level 1 teacher, interview)

During free play we also observed learners talking with each other in Rohingya as they did activities in different parts of the room.

We saw another exception in a Level 2 learning facility. The teacher led a storytelling session almost entirely in Rohingya. Learners were clearly engaged as they listened to the story. We also observed that teachers sometimes used Rohingya to ask social questions at the start of lessons. This happened for example in one Level 2 Myanmar lesson.

“I am from the same country and community. That’s why there are no language barriers.” (Early childhood teacher)

4.4. A teacher-centered approach prevents learners being more actively involved

We observed very little active participation by learners, except in Level 1. Teachers dominated most classes. We estimate the average ratio of teacher talk to learner talk to be around nine to one.

Interaction between the teacher and learners was frequent. However, learners’ contributions were mainly limited to single words or phrases. Teachers often asked closed or rhetorical questions, requiring little cognitive or communicative engagement by learners. This may reflect teachers’ lack of training in modern education practice. For example, in the extract below the teacher asks learners to translate the English “father” into Rohingya:
In this typical exchange the teacher only calls on students to contribute three words. Their answers require recall rather than reflection or discussion. Learners’ use of Rohingya was mainly limited to giving short answers to show they understood or were paying attention. Learners’ longer turns tended to be memorized English or Myanmar, such as songs, rhymes, monologues, or dialogues. We did not observe learners engaging in exploratory talk in Rohingya, Myanmar or English (lesson observations). It may be that without clear guidance on when, how, and why to use Rohingya in lessons, learners lack the confidence and opportunity to do so.

Typically, teachers modeled an activity before assessing the learners on that activity. Assessments require learners to stand and recite, or come to the board and write. In learning facility classes a correct response was followed by clapping from other students. If learners struggled to complete the task the teacher either whispered the answer, or completed the task for them (lesson observations). In the example below, a boy volunteers to present. He stands and comes to the board. He moves his finger along the text to indicate he is reading, although as the class has been repeating this sequence for the past 20 minutes he is more likely to be reciting from memory.

Teacher: **Honnat diyum de ze?** (“Where will I put it?”)
Learners (most): **Hali zahat** (“In the gap”)
Teacher: **Father hode kiore?** (“What is father called?”)
Learners (most): **Bafone** (“Dad”)
Teacher: **Bafone father maare mother nofori yar age?** (“Didn’t we learn before that mom is called mother, pa is called father?”)
(Lesson observation, Level 2)
4.5. Teachers underutilize teaching and learning materials

LCFA teaching and learning support materials include lesson plans, student books, flashcards, and storybooks. Such support materials can trigger learner talk and discussion, and are therefore important resources for developing vocabulary and fluency in different languages. That exploratory talk by learners in turn supports understanding and consolidation of concepts.

According to materials writers, LCFA materials complement each other, so teachers need access to all of them. Teachers and learners might struggle to understand these elements in isolation. Yet the materials are not uniformly available in all learning facilities, although plans are in place to improve that situation (technical and program officers focus group, focus groups with host community and Rohingya teachers). During school observations we found that Level 1 and 2 lesson plans and reading materials are available to teachers in Myanmar and English, but that other materials were not available to them at the time. As a result it appears that teachers struggled to apply lesson plans as educational content writers intended (lesson observations).

Learning facilities that we observed contain a blackboard and other basic materials. They also contain some teaching and learning materials. Some of those materials are linked to the LCFA, but many are from sector partners. Materials that are available are either on display, stored in sealed boxes in the classroom, or kept in storerooms (lesson observations, interviews and focus groups with program officers and teachers).

In the learning facility lessons we observed, the teachers primarily used their own voice and the blackboard, rather than the other available materials. This is consistent with sector partner staff comments that teaching and learning materials are underutilized. When students had books, they used these to follow the teachers’ reading. During observations, we saw little or no use of individual reading, pair, or group work using available materials. The teachers didn’t refer to pictures in books or on the walls. We did not find Rohingya language teaching and learning materials in classrooms (lesson observations).

The only exception was in the Level 1 learning facility, where a range of Rohingya materials were used. The daily schedule in that learning facility is posted on the wall. It includes time for free play, when learners choose between building, drawing, and other materials designed to stimulate their imagination. There were also recorded audio materials. One teacher recorded and used audio songs and rhymes in Rohingya, as the following field note details:
The teacher has a small and robust-looking audio player which she uses to play songs and rhymes for the children. She demonstrates and the children join in enthusiastically to sing a song in the Myanmar language. We ask if she has recorded songs, rhymes, or stories in Rohingya. “Not yet,” she says. “I think they are coming.” (Field notes, lesson observation and teacher interview)

4.6. Assessments of learners’ language and numeracy competencies are potentially misleading

In Cox’s Bazar, the education sector used ASER-Plus tests to assign almost 180,000 learners to the appropriate LCFA level (ISCG, 2019). ASER-Plus measures English and Myanmar literacy and numeracy competencies. It does not measure learners’ communicative competence in Rohingya, which would differ substantially between learners of different ages.

The ACER-Plus results placed 70% of learners in Level 1, equivalent to pre-primary. The results are surprising, given that the learners tested were between four and 14 years old. The assessment and subsequent grade levels led many caregivers and children to express frustration at what they see as a demotion (Rohingya teachers focus group, community educators focus group).

The test result shows that learners’ English and Myanmar language ability is very poor. Around 70% of all students were assessed as LCFA Level 1 in both Myanmar and English literacy. Some teachers used Rohingya to explain the test requirements to learners, but the tests themselves were conducted in English or Myanmar. Given the poor results in both English and Myanmar literacy assessments, it is likely that learners did not understand the assessment tasks in those languages. This is most apparent for mathematics, where learners’ ability to access questions and provide answers depended on their ability to read and speak Myanmar and English. The assessments are therefore unlikely to reflect learners’ actual communicative or cognitive competences, which they could best express using oral Rohingya.

As it stands the LCFA focuses on developing learners’ communicative competence in English and Myanmar. It has not sufficiently defined the role for Rohingya in helping students develop their cognitive development nor subject skills. It also does not currently include Rohingya as a subject in its own right.

1 ASER (Annual Status Education Report) is a global education assessment methodology for assessing reading and arithmetic skills. ASER was adapted in relation to the LCFA to assess the Rohingya children in camps. The adapted version is called ASER-Plus.
4.7. The opportunity presented by having two teachers in the classroom is underutilized

In the Level 3 learning facility lessons we observed with host community teachers and Rohingya co-teachers (volunteers), teachers led the lesson and then offered assistance. The Rohingya co-teacher had a classroom management role, moving around the room to direct learners’ attention to the teacher and occasionally assisting to translate or explain. Following is an observation note related to a co-teacher’s role:

The teachers were standing in different parts of the class, one as a lead teacher busy giving a lecture and writing on the board, and the other as a support teacher managing the classroom. (Field notes, Level 2 lesson observation)

Having two teachers in the classroom presents a resource that can be used in a number of ways. For example, the co-teacher could assist to manage, monitor, and assess learners in pair or group activities. Co-teachers could conduct developmental observations of teaching and learning, as the basis for developing their own practice. However, currently co-teachers limit learner opportunity for private and/or exploratory talk in lessons (lesson observations).
4.8. **Rohingya teachers often do not have the right language skills**

Partner agencies hire learning facility teachers, but recruitment processes differ between organizations (technical and program officers focus group). The lack of a consistent recruitment system contributed to some confusion in the community and did not help to build trust in the education services provided. According to Education Sector guidelines, each learning facility should hire one Rohingya teacher and one host community teacher (document review). Currently there is no standard language test of teachers’ Rohingya or Myanmar language skills to support teacher recruitment. Perceived low pay also appears to be reducing the number of qualified applicants. Recent research highlights that a significant number of educated Rohingya, including many teachers, have not been recruited (Olney et al., 2019). During focus group discussions, program staff said that educated Rohingya preferred to work in better-paid roles than teaching. This has been constrained by government guidelines, which don’t allow Rohingya to receive a salary for work in the camps, only a volunteer stipend at a lower rate. Unfortunately, as Myanmar language skills will generally be higher among educated individuals, this limits the pool of Myanmar-speaking teachers. Rohingya respondents who claimed their applications were refused said that people were awarded jobs based on their personal connections rather than qualifications or experience (community educator focus group). Several community members expressed strong mistrust of or misunderstandings about the recruitment processes for hiring teachers (community educator focus group). So, a unified and better communicated recruitment system and process could help resolve communication gaps and minimize these concerns.

4.9. **Assessments of teachers’ competence are potentially misleading on language**

The education sector has recently developed a method to assess teachers’ professional competences in relation to the LCFA. The results inform centralized professional development planning. The assessment includes a multiple-choice question paper, covering general pedagogical knowledge, and a lesson observation rubric. It does not assess the teachers’ own language competences, only which languages they use. It is neither specific nor detailed about how successfully they use each language or get learners to use it (document review). Our research suggests that developing detailed language competence would be beneficial.

The multiple-choice paper contains 30 questions, with four possible answers for each. It is not clear
if teachers can give more than one answer to each question. The paper contains many unexplained technical terms (document review). Currently the assessment tool is in Bangla, and at the time of research was not yet available in English and Myanmar. Teachers would be unlikely to completely understand it even in those languages.

The lesson observation rubric assesses teachers’ practice in four categories:

- Lesson preparation.
- Classroom management.

- Learning and teaching processes.
- Language use.

Each category includes a number of statements which the assessor uses to indicate the teachers’ competence in that area (document review). For example, under the language use category, assessors would indicate their view of the teacher’s competence by ticking the appropriate box for each of the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language use assessment statements</th>
<th>Assessor opinion on teacher competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The teacher uses mainly Bangla language</td>
<td>□ Strongly agree □ Agree □ Disagree □ Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher uses the mother tongue of the Rohingya students</td>
<td>□ Strongly agree □ Agree □ Disagree □ Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher uses educational material in Rohingya language in the classroom</td>
<td>□ Strongly agree □ Agree □ Disagree □ Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This gives no scope to assess the teacher’s language skills, how they use each language in their teaching, or to what extent they encourage learners to use it. The inclusion of a statement about Rohingya language is encouraging, but it would be more useful if it included examples of how teachers and learners can use Rohingya in practice.
The rubric does not include examples of good practice which would enable more objective, consistent assessments by different assessors.

It can be difficult to create a valid, reliable, and practical lesson observation rubric. Indicators and examples of practice, taken from actual classrooms, should be linked to each statement. Video materials, taken from actual classrooms, can build an understanding of what different statements look like in practice and for standardization exercises.

4.10. Language barriers limit Rohingya teacher assessment and development

Technical officers and program officers supervise and assess host community teachers and Rohingya co-teachers on a regular basis (focus groups with technical and program officers, host community, and Rohingya teachers). They observe teaching techniques and provide feedback to teachers. One technical officer describes the approach:

“I find out their weakness, why they are not perfect, why they are not joyful. After the class I discuss. I say this is good, and this is good, then I give some suggestions.” (Interview, technical officer)

Technical officers often only speak Bangla; most are from outside Chittagong District. Program officers are often from the host community and therefore speak Bangla and Chittagonian. Rohingya (volunteer) co-teachers must therefore receive feedback and guidance in a language they may not understand. Language barriers prevent them from receiving any feedback from the Bangla-speaking technical officers.

Teachers report having attended multiple training courses. The majority are provided by specific sector partners, although the education sector as a whole also provides some training. In a focus group discussion Rohingya teachers said:

“We have attended many training courses, maybe 30 or 40 courses. Course length is between one and four days. Some training is from the organization, some is from the education sector.” (Rohingya teacher focus group)

Teachers and program staff said they do not receive training on using Rohingya for teaching and learning. Teachers and program staff also stated that teachers need more English language training, and that Rohingya teachers need more Myanmar language training.

“If we get training in English and [Myanmar] language, which we don’t know very well, our language skills will be more developed ... Actually, we need a field worker who knows [Myanmar] to support [Myanmar] language... If we want to advance the students in English, we have to...
Teachers and other education sector staff did not report a need or desire for additional pedagogical training, although observations suggest that current practice diverges from the LCFA approach (technical and program officers focus group, host community focus group and Rohingya teachers focus group). For the majority of teachers and supervisors, current teacher-dominated practices appear to be acceptable.

LCFA training follows a cascade model. Master trainers lead a course for teacher trainers, who then train other trainers or teachers (interviews with senior education sector partner staff, document review). Cascade training is effective to communicate simple messages but it is of limited use in building professional competence, including in languages. Its effectiveness in the Bangladesh context is questionable. Firstly, the pedagogical approach of the LCFA, the content, the lesson plans, and student books are unfamiliar to teachers. In addition, at each level of the cascade training content had to be translated (interviews with senior implementing education partner staff). Respondents reported that training materials were produced in English, and training for master trainers was conducted in Bangla and English. Those master trainers then trained technical officers using Bangla and English with some Chittagonian. Those technical officers then trained program officers, who tend to be from the host community, using Bangla, English, and some Chittagonian. Finally, program officers trained school teachers using Chittagonian (interviews with senior implementing partner staff, technical and program officers focus group).

Translation takes time, and the more languages involved, the longer the time needed and the more potential for unintended misinterpretation. Nevertheless, there are reports of training sessions being condensed due to time constraints in the early stages of the response (interviews with senior implementing partner staff, technical and program officers focus group). This was improved later on in the response.

Language barriers may go unnoticed because teachers are often reluctant to admit when something is unclear (technical and program officers focus group, observation teacher learning circle). This may be partly due to the public setting of the training room, where teachers don’t want to lose face or cause offence by suggesting that something is unclear. Some may fear that commenting on the training material may affect their position.

Teacher learning circles are in place to help teachers jointly access the LCFA materials. These are currently only available in written English and Myanmar (interview senior education sector partners staff). During teacher learning circles, teachers review and plan lessons together. Teachers meet weekly or bi-weekly in learning centers. Groups contain at least one
teacher who can translate the written English. Teachers use Chittagonian and Rohingya to discuss the previous week’s lessons and make plans for the coming week (document review, interview program officer, observation teacher learning circle).

Teacher learning circles give teachers the chance to talk about their practice and develop their understanding of it. It lets them share ideas with peers. They represent an interesting opportunity for future professional development for teachers. The power balance is more equal than informal teacher training, and there are fewer language barriers. Importantly, they build on teachers’ actual experiences, which helps to make them more engaging.

5. Recommendations

In this section we recommend actions to address the language-related issues described in the previous section.

• Community respondents have limited confidence in learning facilities, which don’t match their expectations.
• The LCFA provides limited guidance on using the Rohingya language to teach Rohingya children.
• Teachers don’t use Rohingya to engage learners.
• A teacher-centered approach prevents learners being more actively involved.
• Teachers underutilize teaching and learning materials.
• Assessments of learners’ language and numeracy competencies are potentially misleading.
• The opportunity presented by having two teachers in the classroom is underutilized.
• Rohingya teachers often do not have the right language skills.
• Assessments of teachers’ competence are potentially misleading on language.
• Language barriers limit Rohingya teacher assessment and development.

5.1. Strengthen implementation of mother-tongue-based multilingual education to improve outcomes in all content areas

Short term

• Build agencies’ understanding of and support for mother-tongue-based multilingual education in this context. For example, develop a workshop, video, or online training module.
• Create guidelines for strengthening mother-tongue-based multilingual education in the LCFA learning objectives, using oral Rohingya for new learning in all subject lessons, across all levels.
• Develop guidelines for the use of Rohingya in teaching and learning, including the use of teacher and learning materials.
• Develop language guidelines for teacher training and supervision and for learner and teacher assessments (items assessed and test administration).
• Develop guidelines for communicating on education with parents and children, community teachers and other community members in Rohingya. These guidelines should be based on basic plain language principles. They should include information on which formats and channels are preferred and effective.
• Communicate language guidelines to agencies, including materials writers working remotely.

Mid term

• Produce audiovisual guides such as short videos or radio programs (in Rohingya, Chittagonian, and English) that explain the LCFA multilingual approach using practical demonstrations.
• Use audiovisual guides to build teacher and community understanding of and support for mother-tongue-based multilingual education.
• Monitor and support the implementation of mother-tongue-based multilingual education guidelines.

5.2. Expand the use of Rohingya in lessons

Short term

• Define time in class timetables and routines for Rohingya language activities at all levels. These should be cognitively challenging and communicatively engaging, such as problem-based learning and project work.
• Define additional roles for co-teachers. These could include facilitating group activities, assessing individual learners, and providing meaningful support and feedback for learning. Communicate this to education sector partners and monitor implementation.
• Ensure classroom assessments focus on assessing competence and the expression of concepts in oral Rohingya as well as competences in additional languages.
• Provide guidance to teachers on bridging oral Rohingya and additional languages.
Mid term

• Capture audiovisual examples of teachers’ and learners’ positive practices and use them to spread innovation and understanding of mother-tongue-based multilingual education among teachers.

5.3. Create Rohingya language teaching and learning materials for bridging with Myanmar and English

Mid term

• Work with Rohingya teachers and community groups to record songs, stories, and rhymes in the Rohingya language. Create short videos to demonstrate to teachers how they can be used in class and to explain how they support learning.
• Develop additional Rohingya language audio materials to support the LCFA content areas. Examples might include news reports, topic-related discussions, and debates.
• Consult with the community to identify acceptable options for using Latin or other scripts to create basic literacy materials.
• Develop teaching and learning materials for adolescent education programs and train teachers to use them.

5.4. Promote teachers’ English and Myanmar language competence

Short term

• Give teachers access to a three-way dictionary in Rohingya, English, and Myanmar. The Rohingya should be audio recorded and/or transliterated.
• Create a glossary of key pedagogical terms and descriptions in Rohingya, Bangla (for host community only), Chittagonian (for host community only), English, and Myanmar. This can build on TWB’s existing education glossary. Give teachers access to this glossary and train them to use it.
• Identify other language-learning resources for teachers, prioritizing self-access resources and those relevant to teaching additional languages. That is, focus on language for teaching, and subject-specific terminology.
• Provide teachers with access to additional resources, opportunities, and support for learning English and Myanmar. For example, community members and staff who can provide language support.
**Long term**

- Provide teachers with access to accredited language and teaching courses.

**5.5. Improve teacher understanding of modern teaching theory and practice**

**Short term**

- Communicate with Rohingya teachers, including during training and supervision, in a language they understand. Allow additional time for translation and discussion of meaning.
- Make LCFA materials available to teachers in Myanmar, Bangla (for host community only), and English, with audio guides in Rohingya and Chittagonian.
- Communicate guidelines on mother-tongue-based multilingual education to materials writers so that they can incorporate those guidelines into future LCFA materials.
- Adapt existing LCFA teacher-training materials for use in teacher learning circles and self-access by teachers.

**Mid term**

- Create audiovisual guides in Rohingya and Chittagonian for lesson plans, including demonstration lessons.
- Produce audiovisual guides that explain the LCFA approach and learning objectives for each level.

**5.6. Increase community understanding of modern education practice**

**Short term**

- Communicate with the Rohingya community in a language they understand. Allow time for translation and discussion of meaning.
- Support the formation of a Rohingya education committee, as Olney et al. (2019) recommend. This would represent learners, teachers, educated community members, and leaders of community-based and madrassa schools. A key objective of this group should be to improve the capacity of teachers and to raise parents’ awareness of the educational needs of their children.
- Translate key educational documents into Myanmar and English and provide an audio version in Rohingya.
**Mid term**

- Create additional Rohingya language audiovisual material to communicate key messages and issues in education.
- Provide learners and their families with a checklist of learning objectives for their level of study. Use the document to track and demonstrate learning achievements.

**5.7. Strengthen the teacher recruitment, training and development framework to improve teacher competences**

**Short and mid term**

- Use assessments to drive improvements.
- Develop practical and valid tools to assess LCFA learning outcomes, and train teachers to use them.
- Use the assessments to demonstrate learning to children and families.
- Create a teacher competency framework.
- Develop a teacher competency framework in Myanmar, English, Bangla, and audio Rohingya.
- Use the competencies to source, plan, and evaluate teacher development activities.
- Use the competencies to recruit and appraise teachers.
- Create video materials to demonstrate what different competencies look like in practice and the ways in which they support learning.
- Build more community trust in the quality of education in learning facilities.
- Use the teacher competencies to communicate with communities about teaching and learning quality.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Recommendations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase use of mother-tongue-based multilingual education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expand the use of Rohingya in lessons</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create Rohingya learning materials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promote teachers’ English and Myanmar competence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improve teacher understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increase community understanding</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengthen recruitment, training and development</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- Limited community confidence, expectations not met                  -
- LCFA gives little guidance on using Rohingya                       -
- Teachers don’t use Rohingya                                        -
- Teacher-centered approach                                            -
- Teachers underutilize support materials                              -
- Student assessments potentially misleading                           -
- Opportunity of having two teachers underutilized                    -
- Rohingya teachers often lack the right language skills              -
- Teacher assessment potentially misleading                            -
- Language barriers limit teacher assessment and development           -

Table 3 summarizes the relationship between the language-related issues we identified, and our recommendations.
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