

Doctoral (Ph. D) dissertation

**Parental role in child learning process among displaced and non-displaced people in Iraqi
Kurdistan**

Peshawa Jalal Mohammed

Doctoral School of Humanities, Educational Sciences

University of Debrecen

Co-supervisors

Prof. Dr. Ágnes Engler

Dr. Gábor Erdei

Debrecen, 2024

List of acronyms

IDP.....	Internally Displaced Person
IOM.....	The International Organization for Migration
IS.....	Islamic State
KR-I.....	Kurdistan Region of Iraq
KRG.....	Kurdistan Regional Government
MoE.....	Ministry of Education
MoHE.....	Ministry of Higher Education
NGO.....	Non-governmental organization
OPEC.....	The Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
P.I.....	Parental Involvement
SES.....	Socioeconomic Status
UN.....	United Nations
UNDP.....	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR.....	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF.....	The United Nations Children's Fund
US.....	United States

Approval page

The insert sheet of the doctoral dissertation

Parental role in child learning process among displaced and non-displaced people in Iraqi Kurdistan

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the doctoral (PhD) degree
in Educational Sciences

Written by Peshawa Jalal Mohammed certified

Prepared in the framework of of the Humanities doctoral school of the University of Debrecen
(Educational Sciences programme)

Dissertation advisors: Prof. Dr. Ágnes Engler & Dr. Gábor Erdei

The official opponents of the dissertation:

Dr.
Dr.
Dr.

The evaluation committee:

Chairperson: Dr.
members: Dr.
Dr.
Dr.
Dr.

The date of the dissertation defence: 20...

Verification of original academic work

The undersigned Peshawa Jalal Mohammed, in full awareness of my liability, I declare that the dissertation submitted is my original academic work, which was prepared with attention to the international norms of copyright, and the references included in it are clear and complete. I further declare that I am not currently subject to a procedure aimed at the revocation of a doctoral degree, and that a doctoral degree already awarded has not been revoked from me in the past 5 years. I have not submitted the present dissertation at another institute before, and it has not been rejected.

Peshawa Jalal Mohammed

Ph.D candidate

Doctoral School of Human Sciences

Educational Sciences program

Acknowledgments

I dedicate this dissertation to my ever-supportive family. The completion of this work would never have been possible without their endless time, love, and support. I am grateful for their unwavering encouragement and understanding throughout the entire process. Their belief in my abilities and constant motivation have been the driving force behind my perseverance.

I would like to thank the Stipendium Hungaricum programme for honouring me with a scholarship to pursue my doctorate. I am grateful for the opportunities this scholarship has provided me and the doors it has opened for my future career.

I would like to express my gratitude and sincere appreciation to my supervisors, Prof. Ágnes Engler and Dr. Erdei Gábor. They were with me through all the steps of the journey and the challenges. Their guidance and expertise have been invaluable in shaping my research and helping me navigate the complexities. Prof. Engler's supervision went beyond the role of a mere supervisor. Through her professionalism, she expanded my understanding of the field, and my growth as an educator went beyond the scope of my research.

My thanks also go to my friends Sami N. Saeed, Twana Juma and Barham Khalid who were friends in need. They provided invaluable support and encouragement throughout the process.

This work is also dedicated to all those people who are passionate about improving education and making a difference in the lives of future generations. Especially those stateless Kurds, who have been struggling for a century to have a democratic education.

Abstract

The role of parental involvement in children's education has been widely studied and recognised as crucial to academic success. However, the ways in which parents can be involved and the impact of their involvement can depend on various factors, such as cultural background and socioeconomic status. Parental involvement takes a different form and is more complex when it comes to displaced people, as they often face additional challenges and barriers to accessing education and parental involvement. This quantitative study examined the role of parents in their children's education, with a particular focus on the influence of socioeconomic status. The data was collected from displaced parents, host community parents, and teachers in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq. Data was collected through surveys of parents and teachers of eighth and ninth graders in public schools in three provinces in the region, including their camps. A total of 569 parents and 130 teachers were involved in the study. The data was collected in the 2021–2022 academic year. The study aimed to examine parental involvement characteristics within two groups of parents by understanding the perspectives of both parents and teachers. The exploration of these characteristics and perspectives was conducted to gain insights and facilitate a thorough comparison. Descriptive statistics and multinomial logistic regression were applied to analyse the collected data and determine any significant factors influencing parents involvement and their role in shaping involvement. The results showed that socioeconomic factors, such as time, income, and the number of children, had a significant impact on the level of parents' involvement and their role in shaping it. It was also found that parents take more responsibility when it comes to values and moral development than academic knowledge. It also showed that parents need more knowledge and understanding of their role to be more effective in supporting their children's overall development. Teacher-parent communication channels were not varied or effective enough to address the concerns. The significance of the availability of various ways for engagement and gender roles in influencing parental involvement in their children's education was also revealed.

Keywords: Education, parental involvement, displacement, Iraqi Kurdistan, learning process.

Table of contents

Chapter I. Introduction	1
I.1 Background of the study	1
I.2 Aim of the study	4
I.3 Significance of the study	6
I.4 Limitations	7
I.5 The organisation of the dissertation	7
I.6 Summary	9
Chapter II. The role of social capital in informal and formal education.....	10
II.1 Concept of social capital.....	10
II.2 The role of social capital theory in informal education	12
II.3 The role of social capital theory in relation to school and family	15
II.4 Social capital in a vulnerable situation	18
II.5 Summary	19
Chapter III. Features of the researched region	21
III.1 Socioeconomic characteristics of Iraq.....	21
III.2 Iraqi Kurdistan region	26
III.3 Syrian refugees and IDPs in the Kurdistan region	27
III.4 An overview of Iraqi education	30
III.5 Iraqi Kurdish education system	32
III.6 Summary	41
Chapter IV. Displaced education	42
IV.1 Conflict nature and education	42
IV.2 Displaced schools and education	46
IV.3 Family and displaced education.....	59
Chapter V. Research methodology	67
V.1 The process of research.....	67
V.1.1 Research population and sampling	67
V.1.2 Measuring instrument	69
V.1.3 Pilot study	71
V.1.4 Procedures.....	72
V.1.5 Ethical Considerations	73
V.2 Data collection and analysis.....	73

V.2.1 Data collection challenges	73
V.2.2 Data analysis	75
V.3 Summary	77
Chapter VI. Education in perspective of parents	78
VI.1 Characteristics of the sample	78
VI.2 Parental involvement.....	81
VI.2.1 Dilemma of children’s education or children’s labour.....	81
VI.2.2 Dilemma of school choice	88
VI.4 Parent involvement in the learning path of children	93
VI.4.1 Parents' roles in children's learning.....	93
VI.4.2 Factors influencing parental involvement.....	100
VI.5 Parent-teacher communication.....	120
VI.5.1 Parents' perspectives on family-school communication	120
VI.5.2 The impact of the pandemic on parent-school related activities.....	130
VI.6 Summary	135
Chapter VII. Education in perspective of teachers.....	136
VII.1 Characteristics of the sample	136
VII.2 Teachers' perspective on parents' involvement	138
VII.2.1 Parents' response to engagement	138
VII.2.2 The practical possibilities of involving parents	141
VII.2.3 Gender aspect of parental involvement	153
VII.2.4 Communication channels between teachers and parents.....	159
VII. 3 Comparison of parents' and teachers' perspectives	162
VII.3.3 A dual perspective on determinants of parental engagement	164
VII.4 Summary.....	167
Chapter VIII. Conclusion	168
VIII. 1 The theoretical and emprical results of the dissertation	168
VIII. 2 Limitations.....	177
VIII. 3 Implications and suggestions.....	178
VIII.4 Possible directions for continuation of the research	179
VIII. 5 Summary	181
References.....	182

Appendices 219

Chapter I. Introduction

This chapter covers the background of the study about the importance of parental involvement in different socioeconomic situations. It sets out the purpose of the study, its significance, limitations, the structure of the dissertation as well as the research questions that guided the study.

I.1 Background of the study

Parents' participation is seen as an essential strategy for their children's educational success. It can also play an essential role in improving educational careers, particularly those with underprivileged community members (Dearing et al., 2006). The rationale behind this is that the social-cultural atmosphere that children enjoy is in agreement with the characteristics of the educational atmosphere. Higher-educated parents contribute to their children's readiness for school and afterwards help them succeed in their careers. They can provide educational facilities for their children and improve their performance at school. Conversely, such advantages are absent in families the parents have little or no education.

Bourdieu (French sociologist and principal developer of the concept of social capital) and Coleman (American sociologist who was also known for his development of the concept of social capital) contend that differences in the norms and values of parents, their social networks, and their language use lead to the emergence of considerable discrepancies between various social backgrounds on the one hand and the educational system requirements on another (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). One way to overcome the existing gaps between children education is to encourage parental involvement regardless the family backgrounds.

According to Brito and Waller (1994), parental involvement is a broad notion that covers a variety of activities. It can vary from a personal school visit to regular meetings of parents and teachers for a better-governing school. For Jeynes (2011), the activities may take different forms, such as exchanging information (letters, reports, and visits), school activities, homework or engaging parents in administrative duties informally. Harris & Goodall (2007) stated that parental involvement includes parental expectations for their child's academic progress and parental rules at home, including education-related parenting practices.

For children's success in school and their lives after, Joyce Epstein developed a paradigm categorising parental involvement into six levels. The framework was to help build partnerships between family, school, and community. According to her, the six types are parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community. The details of Epstein's work will be explained in chapter two.

There are two primary forms of parental involvement: that which takes place at home and that which takes place at school. The term "home-based parental involvement" pertains to the active involvement and participation of guardians in the educational and developmental pursuits of their children while they are at home. It includes a range of activities and behaviors that parents engage in to assist their children's learning, mental health, and overall development outside of school. Typical instances of parental involvement in a home setting include: aiding with homework, engaging in shared reading, participating in educational games and activities, discussing learning topics, monitoring academic progress, fostering curiosity and exploration, establishing expectations and goals, and providing emotional support and nurturing (Li et al., 2020).

Parents' active participation in their children's education in the school setting is called "school-based parental involvement". The actions and initiatives that receive attention in this type of parental participation are those that occur immediately within the school environment. It additionally entails cooperation among parents, educators, administrators, and other school personnel. Parental engagement in their children's education can manifest in several ways and encompass the following: Parents and teachers engage in activities such as volunteering, attending parent workshops and seminars, collaborating on school governance and decision-making, utilizing communication channels, and participating in parent-teacher conferences (Park et al., 2017).

While many parents may think that their children's education is solely in the teacher's hands, parental involvement is strongly supported by research. The research shows that students with committed parents are more likely to achieve high grades, have social skills, attend school consistently, adapt to the school environment more efficiently, and demonstrate better behaviour (Simon, 2001). In their systematic review on this subject, Kovács et al. (2022) noted that that parental involvement in education and athletics positively correlates with their children's academic and athletic achievements.

Even some research revealed that parental involvement was a more important predictor than socioeconomic status in providing children's educational success (Bardsley, 2002).

There are different factors that affect the level of parental involvement in their children's education, such as parents' motivation, school invitations and family context. Parents should first believe that participating in school activities is critical and required for their position as parents so that they can contribute positively to their children's achievement. The views a parent has regarding his or her role may be impacted by the social groups he or she belongs to and societal expectations. These views and beliefs may differ by gender and socioeconomic level. This was the case in Lee's (2016) research. Some of the Hmong parents believed that only home-based work was considered parental involvement. Thus, school-based activities were the teacher's responsibility only. Parents who have less formal education or are financially disadvantaged may be uncertain if they are capable of helping their children with their tasks.

Schools' role towards better involvement can play a vital role. Parents should think that schools and children welcome and seek parental involvement in the learning process. Therefore, receiving invitations from a particular teacher or school, encourages parents to be positively engaged. Moreover, such invitations could be a mediating factor associated with status variables such as economic status. The potential for collaboration between parents and teachers can be analysed from various perspectives. Nevertheless, it remains pertinent and advantageous for both family and school to engage in concerted efforts for the holistic development of children (Pusztai et al., 2024; Kovács et al., 2022; Pusztai & Csók, 2023).

Life situation is also an influential factor in parental participation. A parent's skills, time, culture, and knowledge usually shape the level and manner of involvement. Parents devote both their financial resources and their time to the development of their children. A significant part of social capital development occurs through time invested in children. Economic status is also passed from one generation to the next in this way. It is difficult for parents to address their children's needs if they face serious challenges such as unemployment, homelessness, or a lack of assistance from other adults (Epstein, 1987). The various needs of parents may take precedence over the requirements of the children. Recognising hard situations allows educators to begin focusing on the needs of parents and their children. They should attempt to create a supportive environment

and cooperation. In order to create a pleasant school atmosphere, effective parent participation initiatives must match the requirements of the school and the community.

In the displaced case, research shows that their life issues have a considerable influence on their involvement. Despite their difficulties with the host countries education system and linguistic problems, they usually confront psychological and financial problems. Experiencing displacement, trauma, unemployment, early marriage, and illiteracy can harm the academic success of displaced children and parental involvement (Narli, 2018).

This research focuses on two main groups of people: local and displaced ones. The phrase displaced people includes refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). The term displaced people is referring to individuals who have been forced to flee their homes due to various factors such as conflict, persecution, or natural disasters. Whether they remain within their own country's borders (IDPs) or cross international boundaries seeking safety (refugees), they share the experience of displacement and require assistance and protection to rebuild their lives. In humanitarian contexts, addressing the needs of displaced populations involves providing shelter, food, medical care, education and support for their long-term resettlement and integration.

Overall, parental involvement is multifaceted in nature as it includes different practices and behaviours. Different factors also influence it, and the factors can be different according to cultures, socioeconomic levels, and settings.

I.2 Aim of the study

This academic study aims to shed light on parental involvement and viewpoints from the perspective of a specific demography. The local Kurdish population (host community), displaced people (IDP and Syrian parents) in the Iraqi Kurdistan region are the primary subjects of the research. Kurds are considered an ethnic minority in Iraq. They predominantly inhabit the northern regions of Iraq, including areas such as Erbil, Dohuk, Sulaymaniyah, Kirkuk and Mousel. However, despite being a minority, Kurds have a significant presence in Iraq, both historically and culturally. The displaced population in the study consists of those who fled from the conflict within Iraq and from the north and east of Syria (Rojava) to the Kurdistan region. The fundamental goal is to shed light on the nuances of the perspectives and involvement of these

various groups in their children's educational processes. The study also investigates teachers' views on the importance of parental involvement in their students' education. This multifaceted investigation includes an analysis of the parents' and guardians' perceptions about their roles in their children's learning process and development. The researcher's working hypothesis is predicated on the idea that local parents, Syrian refugees and internally displaced parents have fundamentally different degrees of understanding and awareness of parent participation. Different points of view are likely to show up in how students learn and how involved their parents are in their schooling. It's important to note that this study puts a lot of focus on the socioeconomic factors that shape the different educational realities of these groups and the different ways they navigate the educational landscape. The study tries to understand how socioeconomic factors affect views and actions towards parental engagement by diving into these contextual dimensions. Additionally, the study seeks to reveal the complex processes that characterise the interface between families and schools. This is the most important part because it shows how family-school relationships are built, kept, and nourished, which helps children's overall educational growth. Therefore, the following research questions guided the current study:

Parents section

1. What and how socioeconomic factors influence parental involvement?

a. How do parents perceive their own roles compared to the roles of teachers in their children's education?

b. What criteria guide the parent groups for their decisions regarding school choice and dropout possibilities?

2. How can we characterise teacher-parent communications?

a. What different outcomes can be attributed to these communication efforts among the parent groups?

Teachers section

1. To what extent are parents aware of parental involvement?

2. How does the level of facilitations of parent involvement vary among participants?

3. *What is the role of gender in parental involvement?*

4. *What characterises parent-teacher communications?*

The research hypotheses:

H1: The socioeconomic status and cultural and social capital of parents can influence their children's likelihood of dropping out.

H2: There are differences between the parenting roles of host community members and those of displaced people

H3: Parents do not see their roles as important as a teacher in their children's education.

H4: Parents are not prepared for high level of involvement.

H5: There are less frequent meetings for displaced parents.

H6: Face-to-face meeting is the main mode of communication.

H7: Teachers have low expectations from parents regarding parent-teacher communication.

H8: Parents are dissatisfied with online education.

H9: There are associations between parents' socio-demographic background and the level of parental involvement.

I.3 Significance of the study

Many research studies have examined several factors that impact students' academic achievements, such as schedules, involvement in extracurricular activities, class sizes, educational resources, assignments, environment, incorporation of technology, and assessment systems. This study shed light on some unnoticed corners of schooling in the Iraqi Kurdistan region. Parental involvement is a crucial factor that has often been overlooked in studies focusing on students' performance. In the context of the Iraqi Kurdistan region, where education may face unique challenges, understanding the level of parental involvement can provide valuable insights. By examining the extent to which parents are engaged in their children's education, researchers can identify potential areas of improvement and develop strategies to enhance student outcomes in the region. The study would be helpful for education experts and parents of the students. It

might help authorities design and implement policies to enhance these students' performance and the quality of education by finding ways to raise parents' awareness and rehabilitate students' approaches to learning and developing educational procedures. Furthermore, the teachers who teach similar students or in similar situations can gain a better insight in responding into the students' and parents' problems through the study results. When the survey results are revealed, schools can start to improve the school-parent relationship and initiate dialogues with parents about how to improve these ties. This study goes beyond traditional research boundaries, providing guidance for education stakeholders in understanding the complex educational environment of the Iraqi Kurdistan area. This research makes a valuable contribution to the field of education by shedding light on overlooked aspects and offering nuanced viewpoints. In doing so, it not only advances educational practices but also aligns with the broader goal of empowering students and cultivating a more comprehensive and inclusive learning environment.

I.4 Limitations

The current research study is limited in terms of location, residential status of the participants, the number of participants, and the educational level of the participants. It is restricted to a number of public basic schools in three provinces of the Kurdistan region in northern Iraq and displaced camps, including Iraqi displaced and Syrian refugee camps in the region. In terms of the number of participants, this study included 569 parents and 130 teachers. The data was collected solely from those parents and teachers whose students were in grades eight and nine in the region's public schools. As a result, the data is also restricted to participants who were enrolled at those schools during the study period.

I.5 The organisation of the dissertation

The remainder of this study will be structured as follows:

This research is an initial investigation of local Kurdish and displaced parents' involvement in their role in their children's schooling. Chapter two explains the role of social capital theory in formal and informal education. It highlights the concept of social capital and the importance of networks and relationships in fostering academic success. It emphasises the role of social connections in accessing resources, such as knowledge, information, and support, that can

enhance learning outcomes. On the other hand, there are explanations for learning outside traditional educational settings, such as through community involvement, mentorship, and apprenticeships. In relation to school and family, the importance of strong partnerships between educators, parents, and the community in creating a supportive and conducive learning environment for students is explained. Chapter three begins by providing a comprehensive overview of the socioeconomic characteristics of Iraq. It delves into various aspects, such as the country's economy and population. Furthermore, the chapter sheds light on the education system in Kurdistan, emphasising its unique features and the efforts made to improve access and quality. It also explores the curriculum and administrative characteristics of the system. Chapter four delves into the various dimensions of displacement, highlighting the economic, social, and psychological consequences experienced by individuals and communities. It explores the intricate relationship between conflict and education, shedding light on the challenges faced by displaced individuals in accessing quality education. Additionally, the chapter examines the shifting dynamics of family roles in displacement, emphasising the resilience and adaptability exhibited by families in navigating through uncertain circumstances. Lastly, the chapter analyses the role of schools in displacement, emphasising their potential as safe spaces for displaced individuals to rebuild their lives and foster a sense of belonging and stability. Discussion of research design, procedures, population, sampling, measuring tools, pilot study, ethical issues, data collection, and analysis are all covered in Chapter five. Chapter six is one of the two chapters dedicated to presenting and analysing the results and discussions. This chapter focuses on the characteristics of the parent population and examines their perspectives on education and parental engagement. The elements that influence their views, engagement, and communication with teachers will all be examined. Chapter seven is also devoted to the study and discussion of the results, specifically from the viewpoint of teachers. The discussion will focus on the characteristics of the sample, their perspectives on parental engagement, and the feasibility of parental involvement according to the teachers' viewpoints. Furthermore, the role of gender in parental participation and communication with parents will also be examined. The final section of this chapter will explore the viewpoints of parents and teachers regarding parental involvement, as well as the various elements that influence such involvement. The dissertation concludes in chapter eight. This chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the research findings and addresses the research questions and hypotheses. Then the limitations and

implications of the research will be presented. Finally, it presents possible directions for the continuation of the research.

I.6 Summary

In this chapter, the background of the study was presented to shed light on the concept of parental involvement and the factors that may play a role in the formation of parental involvement. Following that, displacement definition, the questions that the research posed and research limitations in brief were addressed. The dissertation's organization was introduced as a roadmap for the readers. The next chapter will go into the concept of social capital theory and its significance in relation to parental involvement in different contexts.

Chapter II. The role of social capital in informal and formal education

Social capital plays a crucial role in shaping a student's overall development. Students who are part of a supportive community, both within their schools and families, are more likely to excel academically and socially. Moreover, the positive influence of social capital extends beyond the individual level and contributes to the overall well-being of society by fostering a sense of trust, cooperation, and shared values among its members. Therefore, nurturing and strengthening social capital at all levels is essential for creating a thriving educational environment and a harmonious society.

II.1 Concept of social capital

In recent years, there has been significant and growing interest in social capital theory, as demonstrated by its application to various disciplines and multiple subject areas. This interest derives from the concept's popularity, as it incorporates socioeconomics and blends a variety of concepts, including civic tradition, civic participation and social cohesion. Existing studies have suggested that social capital has significant advantages for different economic and sociological outcomes. These supposed benefits and the idea behind social capital are not recent but are embedded in earlier work of economic and sociological thinkers. The contemporary writers responsible for taking social capital discourse to its present prominence are Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman, and Robert Putnam. Many scholars have since contributed to the theory's rudimentary conceptualisation.

There is no generally accepted definition of social capital, and the outcome is a collection of conceptualisation methods, each seeking to simplify the dynamic social world while preserving validity.

Classically, Bourdieu (1986) defines social capital as

the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectivity-owned capital, a 'credential' which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word (p. 248).

Coleman (1988) notes that

social capital is one of those forms of capital which depreciate over time. Like human capital and physical capital, social capital depreciates if it is not renewed. Social relationships die out if not maintained; expectations and obligations wither over time; and norms depend on regular communication (p. 321).

Moreover, social capital is not only the private property of benefiting individuals, it occurs whenever shared. Portes (1998) argued that social capital actors can acquire economic resources, enhance their cultural capital through interactions with specialists or persons, and join institutions that provide recognised certifications. According to him, social capital consists of resources such as information, ideas, and support that individuals can acquire through their social connections.

It was Hanifan in 1916 who first wrote about the effect of belonging to a community on school achievement. He used the umbrella term social capital to mean all the goodwill, friendship and shared sympathy in a school's society and all the social intercourse between a group of people and families living in the same place. From then to now, many scholars have investigated the role of social capital in educational areas.

While it is necessary to improve schools, increasing evidence shows that schools are not merely accountable for fostering our young people's school achievement (Lerner, 1994). Instead, families and communities have to work with young people to improve their knowledge and skills so they can do their jobs successfully in future workplaces. For instance, Schorr (1989) argues that meaningful effort is based on the idea that children belong to families and families belong to communities. For this reason, the whole community must also develop a support structure to collaborate with families so as to help children achieve their full potential (Little, 1993). Trust, mutuality, shared norms, and a dedication to becoming an active member of the community are the cornerstones of a common cognitive system. These principles are instilled in people throughout their formative years (Pusztai, 2015). Social capital theory is often associated with education, and scholars commonly use educational examples to analyse this theory. Thus, they concur that manifestations and contributions of social capital can be discerned in the realm of education.

Social capital and how it helps individuals achieve objectives depend a lot on the outcome of interest. One of Coleman's particular concerns was how social capital influenced children and young adults' educational achievements. He identified some specific aspects of social capital that he argued were important for educating young people raised in those families. Coleman presented social capital as inherent in relations between actors, such as in parent-child relations. In recent years, a number of studies have produced considerable evidence showing the effects of social capital on education and other outcomes (see, for example, Furstenberg and Hughes, 1995; Teachman et al., 1996).

II.2 The role of social capital theory in informal education

Coleman (1988) explores social capital from two separate viewpoints, arguing that the two primary sources of social capital are family and the environment. He claims that social capital has a crucial role in developing human capital in the younger generations of society, in both family and society. Coleman also stresses the importance of family and the contribution of family life to social capital development. For him, a family is important for creating a healthy generation and maintaining a healthy society. Engler et al. (2020) underscore the significance of family life education in two key dimensions: firstly, in equipping young individuals for future parental responsibilities, and secondly, in providing support to working families in nurturing and attending to the needs of children. Erkan (2011) stated that both family and school utilise the same potential for parental control and supervision. The school uses the children's peers, books and proper associations/frequented settings and family at home by respecting other siblings and toys, etc. Coleman (1988) considers families to be the first providers of social resources, and the environment is second. People have social capital in the wider society, including all associational and connection networks, not just in the family but also outside their families. Schools, communities, and other groups offer social resources to individuals at various levels.

Smith et al. (1995) address the concept of social capital by implying that its characteristics are both structure and method, which complement the climate for educational achievement. The framework describes the possibility of interpersonal interactions and their frequency and duration. On the other hand, the mechanism reflects the consistency of parents' involvement in

their children's lives. The process should include the parents' breastfeeding habits and efforts to restrict their children's inappropriate behaviour.

The level of social capital can be influenced by many systemic features in a family, such as the presence of one or both parents at home and family members. These elements help determine when parents and children will interact and influence the frequency and length of those interactions (Smith et al., 1995). Parental support activities include assisting children with homework, talking about essential school activities, and holding strong educational expectations for them. It also includes restrictions on activities such as TV viewing, and the provision of adult supervision when children come back from school, and the checking of homework. The structural features form the nature and quantity of interaction between children and their parents and of children's academic achievements and ambitions (Haller & Portes, 1973; Lichter et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1995).

In a variety of ways, social capital will increase the success of society. Coleman (1988) described three ways in which social capital can provide advantages to its shareholders. First, social relations aid in setting and implementing community norms. The interaction may also track compliance and discourage non-compliance with these standards through social interactions such as reciprocity and voluntary action. Second, social capital strengthens group trust. The enhanced networking sanctions those who violate standards, guarantees reliable interventions across the network, and generates trust among group members to be reimbursed for any unpaid obligations. Third, social capital offers information platforms to help resident and community organisations identify priorities and issues and define action plans. Information networks are essential to keep people informed, thereby promoting the collaboration and cooperation required for concerted action towards community objectives, projects, or concerns.

Bourdieu (1986) introduced cultural and social reproduction theories as alternative reasons for the unequal accomplishment of academics, which had already been researched using ability deficits and human capital theories. Coleman (1988) showed that higher amounts of social capital – two parents' home presence, fewer siblings, higher parent education aspirations and intergenerational closure, have resulted in fewer school dropouts. In this research, the same factors are hypothesised to play a significant role in determining the level of parental involvement in a child's education. The researcher tries to explore the relationship between the number of

siblings a child has and the level of parental involvement, as well as how parents' education level can influence their engagement in their child's schooling. Dika and Singh (2002) noted that social capital and acquisition and school success are well connected. The development of social capital in an educational context involves building relationships between educators, parents, and the community. In this context, social capital is generated by parental expectations and responsibilities and social networks through the family, school and community. What school serves and family relationships produce can be attributed to different social capital levels and influence students' academic achievements. Social capital facilitates achievement and education in the university's disciplinary, academic, and cultural standards and values that inspire students to achieve higher goals. According to Putnam (2000), school and university student development is highly affected by a school's social capital. Networks which lead to social capital in family, school, peer group and community have a positive impact on education and thus on the behaviour and development of students. This in turn has been positive as a result of low dropouts and higher degree rates (Israel et al., 2001). In education, social capital significantly impacts school students academically and in various ways, including family structures and discussions, parental monitoring, the student-parent-relationship, families and responsibilities, and contact between parents with schoolchildren and friends (Dika and Singh, 2002).

Pastoriza & Ariño (2013) also state that by leveraging social capital, teachers can tap into the collective knowledge and connections of the community, creating a collaborative environment that enhances student behaviour and success. This collaborative approach not only benefits individual students but also contributes to the overall growth and development of the entire educational ecosystem. This would create a culture of ethical behavior and integrity within the educational community. Additionally, when students witness their teachers and peers exemplifying these positive qualities, they are more likely to internalise and adopt them as well. As a result, the need for explicit instruction in common rules and values diminishes, allowing for a more focused and efficient learning environment. Ultimately, this holistic approach to education not only prepares students academically but also equips them with the necessary skills and values to thrive in the real world. Sil (2007) considers social networking within parent groups and between parents and teachers to be a shared favourable outcome for all in school. She goes beyond a functionalist approach to social capital theory by focusing on social capital in the form of parental involvement. Therefore, Sil concluded that family and school relationships are more

important for students' success than family structures, including marital status, education and income levels of parents, their ethnic group or family. However, this should not be interpreted as not attaching any importance to parents' histories and influences alluded to above. This point is also connected with one of the research questions about parent-school communication modes and frequencies, as well as the differences between the two groups of parents (displaced and non-displaced) in terms of communication.

In shaping educational policies, policymakers should take these factors into account and respond to higher social capital needs to increase the level of educational performance, as academic studies have shown earlier that social capital serves a crucial role in overall education performance. Social capital can provide benefits in various forms for students in particular and society in general.

II.3 The role of social capital theory in relation to school and family

Social capital theory, which originates from sociology and economics, provides useful insights into the dynamics of relationships and networks in both educational and familial contexts. Within the realm of educational institutions, social capital is evident in the form of favorable teacher-student relationships, encouraging networks of peers, and engaged parental participation.

Research has demonstrated that family connections exert a significant and enduring influence on individuals' engagement in the learning process, spanning across generations (Field, 2005). People's relationships are intricately linked to their acquisition of knowledge, in manners that could have substantial practical implications. Regarding initial education, research indicates that individuals actively utilise their social capital resources to enhance the formal academic success of young individuals (Mishra, 2020). As Coleman proposed, social capital and human capital are mutually reinforcing, at least in this regard. People acquire more skills and information, and they also develop fresh insights, by engaging with familiar individuals in stable environments such as family, workplace, and neighbourhood. Despite the evolving composition and dynamics of families across cultures, they continue to serve as valuable reservoirs of support and resources (Engler, 2013, 2022).

Coleman (1988) argued that when parents are part of a network characterized by intergenerational social closure, the network becomes a valuable reservoir of social capital. Students derive advantages when parents communicate information regarding educational matters. If a single parent within the group possesses the ability to recognize exceptional educators within a child's educational institution, another parent comprehends the process of assigning children to classes, and a third parent is knowledgeable of exceptional tutors - and if they collectively exchange this information - then all pupils within the group have the potential to experience enhanced educational chances.

He asserted that norms undergo development within networks where parents possess elevated academic standards and aspirations for their children. These parents strengthen each other's dedication to their children's education through social connections. Additionally, they assist in upholding behavioral standards that encourage their children's educational development. An interconnected group of parents who are dedicated to their children's education might facilitate the process of motivating children to study, as their peers are also likely to be engaged in learning. If parents share a mutual understanding of the significance of finishing homework, studying, enrolling in courses, and refraining from habits that could hinder academic performance, they are likely to demand these behaviours from their children and promote their children's peers to adopt similar behaviours.

If parents are primarily focused on enhancing their children's academic achievements, it would be wise for them to participate in a social network that facilitates discussions on educational topics and encourages adherence to pro-academic standards. Trust serves as a form of social capital. People within networks characterized by social closure cultivate trusting relationships by engaging in interactions and sharing common interests (Bartkus & Davis, 2010). They have mutual expectations and responsibilities. These standards may regulate the academic, social, political, religious, moral, or ethical behaviour of youngsters. The network members depend on other network members to assist them in striving towards the defined norms.

Parents utilize social connections to obtain resources, such as assistance with child care or a spontaneous transportation arrangement for their child (Small, 2009). These connections also provide access to information about their child's school and guidance on parenting. Schools have a crucial role in facilitating the formation of connections between parents. Random meetings

during morning drop-off or afternoon pick-up, in the auditorium during school performances, or at sporting events offer parents chances to form connections that, even if informal, can be quite advantageous. Social ties and the social capital they offer are not uniformly dispersed, similar to other resources. The value of certain persons' social capital may exceed that of others, or it may serve distinct objectives.

A parent who possesses a wide network of acquaintances among other parents at their child's school may have greater access to resources from this school-based network compared to a parent with limited connections. In addition to the size of their network, the quality of a parent's relationship with other parents might also impact their ability to access resources. Acquaintances can provide useful insights and even emotional assistance, but the trust and responsibilities that come with being a close friend can result in the exchange of favours and other valuable resources.

According to Li and Fischer (2017) parental networks are linked to activities that involve parents, teachers, and school staff working together in organised groups. These activities include joining parent-teacher groups and volunteering at school. Moreover, the beneficial impacts of parental networks on involvement with schools are particularly pronounced for families whose children are enrolled in schools located in underprivileged communities. This implies that having strong connections with other parents can help minimise the negative effects of living in a disadvantaged school area by motivating parents to actively participate in school activities.

Wasserman and Faust (1994) asserts that social networks can be categorised into three levels: individual, department/group, and school organizational. Within each level, numerous parallel interactions exist, such as student-student and teacher-teacher partnerships. Furthermore, the three levels of social networks can establish connections with each other through non-equivalent interactions, such as student-teacher and teacher-principal links. Consequently, different levels of internal school social networks can cultivate their own unique type of social capital. The social capital at the individual level can then have an impact on the social capital at the organizational level of the school.

Social capital theory emphasizes the significance of connections, trust, and reciprocity in both educational and familial settings. Schools and families can improve educational achievements, increase well-being, and strengthen communities by encouraging strong social interactions and utilizing social resources.

II.4 Social capital in a vulnerable situation

Social capital encompasses the tangible and intangible assets that are intricately woven within social networks. This capital accumulation can still occur even under precarious circumstances, such as displacement. For these purposes, two forms of social capital bonding and bridging capitals are particularly significant among displaced people. Bonding social capital refers to associations among individuals who share common characteristics, such as sociodemographic and socioeconomic attributes. However, bridging social capital is established by associating individuals who have different backgrounds, communities, or social strata (Putnam, 2002). Bonding capital, which is built among members of the displaced groups, and bridging capital, which relates to relations between displaced and external players such as host community members and aid organisations.

Access to information sharing and mutual assistance networks can greatly benefit displaced people. It can improve their chances of being matched with paid labour, help them take advantage of possibilities to save money on products and services, and even receive support from others. Improving livelihoods on all sides may be the most effective use of bridging capital and is a resource more widely shared than one may anticipate.

Uzelac et al. (2018) found in their research among Syrian refugees in Lebanon that in all cases, the trends of disintegration seemed similar—efforts to meet basic needs led to social ties deteriorating steadily and, hence, the disappearance of social security. As one refugee in Beka'a, a location where many refugees fought for the same low-paid agricultural work, explained, "We don't have time to take care of each other ... we don't even have time to talk to each other any longer." The lack of such resources significantly threatens the ability of refugees to recover from traumatic events. The risk of refugees using adverse coping strategies such as begging, prostitution or returning under unhealthy conditions may also increase. For this reason, the level of importance of income and time relating to parental involvement among displaced and non-displaced parents will be explored, and the differences between the two groups will be analysed in this research.

Social capital is also viewed as a replacement for poor people's lack of other forms of capital. Due to the accepted applicability of the social capital definition and its connection with the

various dimensions of poverty, it was used to determine the adaptation and integration of displaced people in their new social environments. Findings on involuntary displacement or forced migration demonstrated the social uprootedness from their homes, such as refugees, asylum seekers and internally displaced persons (Navarra et al., 2013).

Newcomers can use the preexisting networks in conflict-related relocation societies. Wahlbeck (1998) reveals strong ethnic formal organisations and informal networks in the community of Kurdish refugees in London. The Vietnamese refugees in the UK also have access to healthcare and social services through ethnic associations (Bertrand, 2000). Likewise, Bosnian ethnic communities in New Zealand provided help to newly arriving Bosnian refugees (Madjar et al., 2000).

In a study by Lamba and Krahn (2003), following the resettlement of 525 refugees in Canada, a study revealed how the traumas and confusion of migration were pervading their already-settled relatives, both immediate and extended family members. They have relied on their family ties and networks for financial and personal problems. However, they used their extra-family networks or services in their community for safety and health problems. This trend demonstrates how social capital functions for such migrants.

Iraqi and former Yugoslav resettlers who forged friendships with the Norwegians argued that their connections gave them a positive image in their own and other eyes. It inspired the host community's positive feelings of social integration and acceptance as a mainstream community member. However, feelings of social isolation and minority were strengthened among those who tried to bridge but failed (Valenta, 2008). Likewise, in Australia, Somali parents had to create bridging capitals with their teachers so they could achieve better student outcomes (Ramsden & Taket, 2013).

II.5 summary

This chapter provided an overview of the early stages of social capital theory and its subsequent development. Then, the function social capital plays in connection to the family and the school was explained. It was also clarified that the theory is highly relevant to informal education because it goes deep into the ways in which community ties, social networks, and relationships

impact learning and information exchange outside of traditional classrooms. There was also an explanation of how the theory of social capital may be applied in different fields, including education, and how the theory can be comprehended in the context of displacement.

Chapter III. Features of the researched region

To provide an overview of the research's context, this chapter provides a detailed description of the features of the researched region. It offers a comprehensive account of the historical events that the region has experienced and the subsequent changes they have created. Research site-specific political, social, cultural, and economic aspects can be better understood with this information. This contextualisation is essential for interpreting the findings and conclusions drawn from the study later.

III.1 Socioeconomic characteristics of Iraq

The land between the two rivers Tigris and Euphrates (occupies the area of present-day Iraq) was known as Mesopotamia. Mesopotamia was regarded as the birthplace of agriculture, mathematics, architecture, and law. It was also referred to as the cradle of civilisation. This region has been under various empires and governments in history, including the Assyrian, Greek, Persian, Arab, and Ottoman.

In Mesopotamia, archaeologists have discovered human traces from the Stone Age (25,000-5000 BCE). Another example is a prehistoric cemetery in Shanidar cave which dates back to the Ice Age. In the 1940s, a team from Chicago University led by Robert Braidwood, an archaeologist, discovered a small village called Charho in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq (KR-I) that appeared to have been settled and had agrarian life around 7000 BCE. The most ancient city-state, Ur and the most ancient city to be considered the longest continuously inhabited site in the world, Erbil, are located in this region (Polk, 2006).

The civilisations that emerged in the history of Mesopotamia were Sumerian, Akkadian, Babylonian, Assyrian, and later it was ruled by Persian and Greek. In the third century, Iraq was again under Persian and with Islamic conquest, Arabs came, and Iraq's name dates back to that time. In the time of the Abbasid caliphate, Baghdad became the centre of the Golden Age of Islam until the Mongol invasion (Polk, 2006; Hunt, 2005).

The Ottomans, who were the descendants of Turkish nomad tribes from central Asia close to the Mongolian-Chinese border, settled in Anatolia (modern Turkey) and adopted Islam. Their

religious conversion helped them to change their lifestyle, be united and start their conquests. The Ottomans invaded Baghdad in 1534 till their collapse in World War I (Fattah & Caso, 2009; Hunt, 2005).

After the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, the region was controlled by war victors, namely Britain and France. Britain sought control of Iraqi oil and trade routes during the World War I. The chances for success did not present themselves until the war began. The mandate for all of Iraq was handed over to the British in 1920. In the early 1920s, The British designated Faisal as the king of Iraq and manipulated him as a figurehead to govern the newly established country. Because of British imperialist involvement in Iraq, problems have continued to the present time. Since handing over control of Iraq to the Sunnis, the British have worsened existing sectarian violence between the Shias and the Sunnis in the country.

Iraq became a state after the World War I, under the British government's leadership. It was divided into three regions, each formerly an Ottoman province including Indo-European (Kurdish)-speaking provinces in the north, Semitic-speaking (Arabic) Sunni Muslims in the middle, and a mix of Sunni Muslim and Shia Muslim Arabs in the south. The Kurds soon rose against that and the British found that the northern Kurdish provinces were not easily governed (Eskander, 2000).

The British faced challenges in coping with the Kurds in the north. To gain the support of Kurds, the British promised them that they would gain Mosul vilayet as a part of an independent Kurdish state. Surprisingly, the British gave the same promise to their Arab allies. When the conflicting promises were revealed, the British gave the land to the Arabs and left the Kurds without a homeland. Later, the Kurdish territories were divided between four countries (Turkey, Iran, Iraq, and Syria). The unfulfilled British promise to them has remained the source of conflict in the region until now (Dawisha, 2013).

In 1932, the League of Nations recognised Iraq and the British Mandate was formally terminated, but British influence remained. As a result of growing Arab nationalism and anti-imperialism ideology, a coup took place in 1958. The monarchy was abolished and military men formed the republic of Iraq. From 1968 to 2003, Iraq was ruled by the Arab nationalist-socialist party of Ba'ath. Former dictator Saddam Hussein came to power in 1979 and ruled the country from then on. The country was characterised by one ruling party, and the Revolutionary Command Council

was the highest decision-making body. During his rule, he used every violent means to apply the party's ideology in all sectors. Ba'ath carried out the "Arabization" process in the north, forcefully displacing ethnic minorities such as Kurds and Christian Assyrians and destroying or transforming the villages into Arab villages. Hussein also carried out genocide against the Kurds and attacked them with chemical weapons. He also confronted Shia oppositions in the south with an iron fist (Dahlman, 2002; Kirmanj & Rafaat, 2021).

According to the Baath Doctrine, the Kurds and Assyrian Christians, who are the earliest known inhabitants of Iraq, were deemed to be Arab, and education in their native languages was prohibited. As a result, some other ethnic groups' national identities were altered as part of the Arabisation programme.

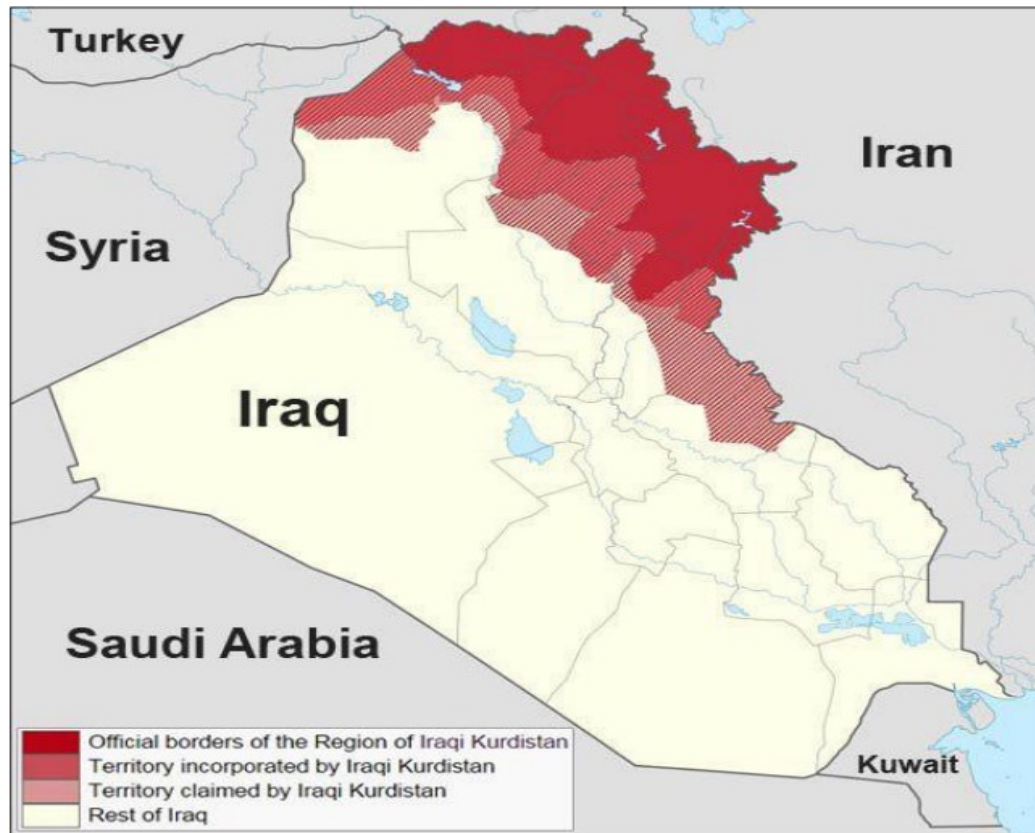
In 2003, the coalition forces led by the US invaded Iraq. The invasion was under the pretext of having mass destruction weapons and providing them to Al-Qaeda. A new government was formed, and parliamentary elections were held in 2005. Iraq is a representative federal republic now. The constitution is supposed to guarantee the rights of minorities and provides quota seats in the Council of Representatives, such as 25% for women and seats for Christians, Yazidis and Sabians (Franck, 2003; Hughes et al., 2019).

In the efforts to create a new identity for the political structure, different parties were allowed to express their own identities and the interests of their communities in Iraq's new political system. The division of the country is still in effect today. Shia, Sunni, and Kurdish political parties constitute Iraq's three major political parties. The composition of the country's political system is highly fragmented into groups with little in common.

In sum, the post-conflict situation in the country is always fragile. Most of its issues remain unsolved from the first days of forming this artificial nation-state. The most recent incident was the emergence and assault by the Islamic State, which resulted in thousands of people being displaced in Iraq and Syria, seeking refuge in neighbouring countries or around the world.

Iraq is a southwest Asian country, and its size is around 437,065 km². The Saudi, Jordanian, and Syrian borders lie to the west of Iraq. Turkey is situated to the north, Iran to the east, and Kuwait to the south of Iraq, on the southwest shore of the Persian Gulf. The Middle East's existing borders were drawn based on the Sykes-Picot agreement between Britain and France after World

War I. The country is divided into 18 governorates. In the north, three of them (Erbil, Sulaymaniyah, and Dohuk) are gathered in an autonomous region (Kurdistan region), and the other fifteen governorates are in central and southern Iraq (Jassim, 2006; Dahlman, 2002).



Iraq and Iraqi Kurdistan map (Rasul, 2021, p.10)

Until the 1950s, Iraq's economy was dependent on agriculture, and in the early 1960s, the country experienced significant economic growth. By the 1980s, it developed a centrally planned economy and became the third-largest economy in the Middle East. Decreasing the amount of imported manufactured products, developing agriculture, and substantially growing non-oil exports were among the significant development targets set by the government. Infrastructure investment was large, particularly in irrigation and drainage projects, transport systems, and rural development. Moreover, health-care facilities had vastly improved (Hunt, 2005).

Iraq's economy declined during the constant wars of the Iraqi Ba'ath regime leading by Saddam Hussein, such as the Iran-Iraq war (1980-88), invasion of Kuwait (1990) and attacking Kurdish citizens (1991) inside the country. As a result of the regime's threats, the United Nations imposed

a financial and trade embargo against Iraq, led to almost the collapse of its economy. The embargo continued till the invasion of Iraq by the United States-led coalition in 2003. The core business of Iraq is the petroleum industry. It contributes to more than 95% of Iraq's income. Iraq has about 10 percent of the world's known remaining oil, and it is a member of the Oil Exporting Countries Organisation (OPEC) (Seymour, 1992).

According to a report by Cordesman (2020) for The Centre for Strategic and International Studies on Iraq's economy, Iraq needs to figure out a way to develop other sectors of its economy overall apart from oil, at least to the point of self-sustainability. Now, Iraq imports many of its products from neighbouring states, particularly agricultural goods. The development programmes of education and health must be financed while they are severely underfunded and understaffed. These elements of recovery are critical for meeting the Iraqi people's needs and avoiding sectarian conflict.

Iraq has a population of about 40 million inhabitants and is growing at a rate of 2.84 per cent. The overwhelming percentage of Iraqis are Arabs 75-80%. Kurds comprise 15-20% of the population. Turkomans, Assyrians, and other ethnic groups make up approximately 5% of the population. Iraqi community is divided by nationality, tribes, language, and faith. Loyalty to one's family and tribe is a key factor in Middle Eastern culture. Traditional tribal power was gradually weakened by urbanisation, a centralised government, and education, but many Iraqis still hold traditional tribal beliefs, especially in rural areas (Hunt, 2005).

When it comes to language, the majority of Iraqis speak Arabic, whereas Kurds speak Kurdish, resulting in communication barriers. It is difficult to talk about Iraqi identity without mentioning the various religious groups that make up the country: Arab Shia Muslims, Arab Sunni Muslims, Kurds, and Christians. Religion is one of the most important divisions in Iraqi culture. Most Muslims worldwide are Sunni, whereas the majority of Iraqis are Shias. On the other hand, Sunni Muslims have exercised political influence in Iraq since the Ottoman era until the invasion of Iraq in 2003. Kurds in Iraq are primarily Sunni, but they are more secular and share their cultural, linguistic, and religious identity with Kurds in their neighbouring countries, particularly Turkey and Iran and Syria. Their identity is based on a desired Kurdish nation-state rather than Iraq (Stansfield, 2016; Haig, 2018).

Jews were also living in different parts of Iraq, but after establishing Israel, they returned to Israel in 1951. Christians make up 3% of the population, but after the Islamic State/Daesh began to target northern Iraq's ethnoreligious minorities, many Yazidi Kurds and Christians fled the country, and their number decreased (Rejwan, 2019; Oehring, 2017).

III.2 Iraqi Kurdistan region

After the fall of the Ottoman empire and remapping the Middle East by the victorious Western allies, Kurds considered establishing their homeland "Kurdistan". In 1920, according to the Treaty of Sever, the Kurds were given the right to have their own state, but three years later, the treaty was replaced by the Treaty of Lausanne (1923). The treaty recognised the boundaries of modern Turkey. The allied powers led by Britain and France overlooked the Kurds and the majority of Kurd's homeland was granted to Turkey. The Kurd's region was divided between Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Syria. A smaller minority of Kurds also remained in the Caucasian region. The result of the treaty made the Kurds the biggest nation without a state in the world (Stansfield & Shareef, 2017)

In Iraq, the Kurd's struggle to get independent has a long road. They revolted against Britain's Mandatory Iraq in 1923 before the independence of Iraq. This movement was crushed by the British army. When Iraq gained independence in 1932, the country inherited the Kurdish issues regarding the national, educational and social demands of Kurdish nationalists.

In 1958, the famous military coup took place in Iraq, and a republic replaced Iraq's monarchy. Iraqi government agreed to Kurdish demands, and normalisation was jeopardised, but it did not take so long. Uprisings continued until the regime of Ba'ath Party-Iraq took power in 1963. The Baath party viewed Kurdish and Communist party members as enemies and waged war against them. The war resulted in killing hundreds of thousand civilians (Ghareeb & Dougherty, 2004; Gunter, 2011).

The Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG) arose from the ashes of the Gulf War of 1991 when the Iraqi army invaded Kuwait under the pretext that it belonged to Iraq. Iraq's invasion of Kuwait was regarded as an aggressive attack on a neighbouring nation by the United Nations.

Saddam Hussein, the Iraqi president, could not be persuaded to withdraw his troops peacefully in 1991. The Iraqi army was forcibly withdrawn from Kuwait by the Western Allies. At the same time, Iraqi Kurds and Shias then rose against Saddam's government, mistakenly thinking they would be guarded against the Iraqi army by Western allies.

After retreating in Kuwait, the Iraqi army launched aerial and ground assaults against Kurds and Shias, murdering hundreds of thousands and displacing many more. In Kurdistan, the Iraqi army began military operations. They harshly punished the Kurds for disobeying the central government. In a display of solidarity with the malnourished, impoverished, and afflicted Kurds who had fled, Western allies collaborated to successfully advocate for the adoption of UN Resolution 688. This resolution led to the establishment of a no-fly zone and the provision of refuge for displaced Kurds where they could be treated properly (Rafaat, 2018).

The Kurdish problem was brought to the attention of the world by a United Nations resolution. For the first time since 1923, it addressed the Kurdish question, and it permitted interference in a member state's internal affairs for the first time. The Kurdish Peshmarga (fighters) were motivated to push out the regime army from Kurdish provinces and parts of the Arabized areas (disputed areas). The Kurdish fighters were forced to withdraw from the Arabized Kurdish territories located above the 36th parallel, which the UN designated as a haven region. Since then, the region has become a de facto semiautonomous state.

After the Iraqi invasion by US and coalition forces in 2003, the new Iraqi Constitution recognised the region. The Iraqi Constitution of 2005 recognised an autonomous Kurdistan region in the country's north, administered by the Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG). The region has its own parliament elected by the region's people (Kirmanj & Rafaat, 2021).

III.3 Syrian refugees and IDPs in the Kurdistan region

Over half of the Syrian population had to flee their homes since the Syrian civil war started in March 2011, and about five million of them left their country. In 2017, a massive number of displaced Syrian people were registered in the neighbouring countries of Turkey, Jordan and Iraq. By the end of the year, their number reached 5.4 million. Many of the Syrian Kurds, who are a minority in Syria, fled to the Iraqi Kurdistan region. According to United Nations High

Commissioner (UNHCR), in 2018, the number of Syrian refugees in Iraq reached approximately 250.000 and almost all of them residing in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq refugees' camps or other areas in KR-I.

However, there is the absence of a legal framework to protect refugees, which prohibits refugees from obtaining citizenship, local government and host communities are welcoming to the refugee community. Once the Syrian refugee crisis began, Iraq, especially the KRG, enjoyed relatively sustainable economic growth. Thus, those seeking haven entered a hospitable atmosphere in which both the government (KRG) and the host community were available to help the refugees. However, as the Islamic State (IS) advanced, the scenario shifted. The KR-I faced political and economic challenges due to the IS war. Therefore, the limited financial and living resources and the demands for basic services have put another pressure on the host community (MERI report, 2015).

According to Eaton (2019), due to relying on oil exports, the downturn in the economy has adversely impacted both Iraqis and Syrian refugees' quality of life and government services. Access to work has remained a constant problem for Syrian refugees. Many problems in child safety and education can be traced to a lack of options for making a living. The new COVID-19 outbreak has made it worse for refugees because it has increased the problems of freedom of movement and limited access to food supplies.

Even though the Syrian crisis deprived millions of children from their childhood, it also had a negative effect on their mental and physical health. Many children were forced to drop out of school. Disease and malnutrition, child labour, child marriage, and a lack of educational opportunities are all aspects in which those children are harmed (Rizkalla et al., 2020; Bartels et al., 2021). In response to the refugee crisis, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and some other NGOs recommended a resilience-oriented programme. This programme was not to replace humanitarian aid but to support the refugee community in becoming self-dependent and self-standing. It had three-pronged strategies, which were coping: it was to strengthen the refugee community in dealing with stresses and shocks. Recovery: it was to help families and individuals rebound from their losses and reclaim their previous growth and prosperity. Transforming: it was to improve their capacity to avoid or cope with future crises (MERI report, 2015).

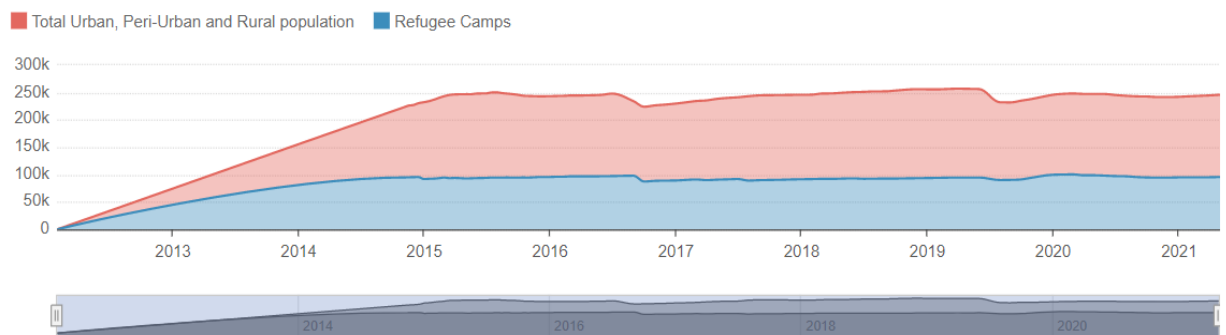
The chaos did not give the opportunity to terrorist groups only in Syria, but the wave of IS threats reached Iraq as well. At the beginning of August 2014, after the advancing of IS jihadists in Iraq, Arabs, Christians and Yazidi who lived in the western part of Iraq fled their cities. The number of people who fled and sought shelter within KR-I was estimated at 200,000 people. This recent case also seemed to be a turning point in the refugee policy of the KRG. A more cautious approach was beginning to replace the 'open frontiers' agenda. Groups of Internally Displaced People (IDPs) from other parts of northern Iraq had more and more been recorded not to be permitted into urban areas of KR-I. This reflects the Kurdish government and society's fears that the effects of the arrival of refugees and IDPs are safely absorbed. In practice, the KR-I population actually grew by more than 15 percent in just one year.

However, along with coalition forces, the KRG being involved in the war on its borders, the region relatively remained a safe haven for displaced people and NGOs. The Kurdistan Region Government reported hosting more than 1 million Internally Displaced People and refugees; 787,869 IDPs and 262,022 Syrian refugees (KRG website, 2020), while the update of UNHCR reports refer to 242,163 refugees. (UNHCR, 2021).

Total Persons of Concern

Location name	Source	Data date	Population	
Erbil	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	50.8%	125,067
Dahuk	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	34.4%	84,502
Sulaymaniyah	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	13.1%	32,180
Other	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	0.6%	1,408
Anbar	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	0.6%	1,407
Kirkuk	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	0.3%	752
Ninewa	UNHCR	30 Apr 2021	0.3%	637

Refugees from Syria by date



¹*A visual exploration of total persons of concern and refugees in KR-I (UNHCR, 2021, p. 2)*

III.4 An overview of Iraqi education

In 1920, Iraq gained independence from the British Mandate. Iraq developed its educational system following independence in 1921, providing both public and private options. Due to Iraq's nearly 400-year under the rule of the Ottoman Empire, 90% of the Iraqi population was illiterate in 1920. The establishment of several colleges, including medicine, engineering, law, and arts, were the most significant achievement in higher education during that era. Later, those colleges became part of the University of Baghdad (Isaa & Jamil, 2010).

After founding the Republic of Iraq in 1958, the era was characterised by emerging of a new source of economy, oil. Iraq obtained approximately 45% of its oil from foreign oil companies that controlled Iraqi oil. Having this share was supportive of significant economic and social improvements, including the growth of the country's education system. Ever since, a new era of education expansion and programmes began. Many students were sent to European and American countries for the purpose of establishing modern Iraq. The aim was transmitting the country from an agricultural to an industrialised country. This later had a great influence on Iraq's sociopolitical situation. Thus, the Iraqi society drew attention to the importance of education regardless of their socioeconomic status, which resulted in increasing literacy rates among adults by 30% (Playfoot et al., 2015).

The University of Baghdad in 1957 was the start of modern universities in Iraq. At about the same time, different universities in the capital and other cities were established, in the south, middle and north of the country in the 1960s. By establishing higher-education institutions, which reflected even more growth of education in Iraq, the country saw a significant increase in demand for skilled technicians due to a boom in the oil industry.

The period between the British Mandate and forming the republic witnessed some significant improvements in educational and social aspects. It was at that time that primary schools replaced the Ottoman form of school (Katatib). Although the educational expansion started, it did not match the growth of the population. According to Ranjan and Jain (2009), the illiteracy rate in 1957 was 81%, and the majority of them were in rural areas and women.

¹ <https://data.unhcr.org/en/situations/syria/location/14201>

After the revolution of 1958, i.e., the formation of the republic, government policy put a greater emphasis on education. A large number of primary school pupil's admissions rose from 43,000 to 84,900 during the five years. After some years of mandatory education, during the 1970s, free education was established throughout the country from primary school to high school. A few years later, enrolment was very widespread and reached 99% by the end of the 1970s. The reason for that steadily rise in enrolment rate was compulsory for the first six years education of children and a plan to extend three more years of compulsory education.

The main characteristics of the education system during the 1970s to early 1980s were spending 6% of gross national products (GNP) on education, which led to a decline in the illiteracy rate among 14-45 age groups to 10%, and the dropout rate was the lowest in the Middle East. By 1984, the number of students was about 6 million, and there were 300,000 teachers and management personnels in the Iraqi education system (UNESCO, 2000).

In the 1960s, government expenditures on education and health were high because they were regarded as essential to long-term human capital growth, in line with a developmental four-year plan from 1965- to 1969, to develop the two sectors, and the process continued up to 1980 (Issa & Jamil, 2010).

As the Iraq-Iran war continued in the 1980s, most public resources for military spending were shifted. Between 1984 and 1989, Iraq faced a budget deficit, and education suffered another setback caused by the Iraq-Iran war and the Gulf War following the entry of Iraqi forces into Kuwait.

Between 1990 and 2003, there was a major setback in education, with the share of education falling to 3.3 percent of the budget. The proportion of those who dropped out of primary school was 10%, and the subsequent dropout rose to 20 percent. After the U.S. invasion in 2003, scientific talents were subjected to assassination campaigns that displaced many academics and students inside the country. Universities and private schools were harmed, some of which were characterised by idleness and poor performance (Chatelard, 2009).

By 2014, IS had taken control of some areas of Iraq that had displaced hundreds of students inside Iraq and other countries, demolished hundreds of schools and decommissioned them for technical reasons. As a result, many children were left without access to education, exacerbating

the already dire situation. Families were forced to flee their homes, seeking safety in refugee camps or neighboring countries, further disrupting the education system (Shanks, 2018). The loss of schools and educational infrastructure not only deprived children of their right to learn but also had long-term consequences for the development and stability of the region.

III.5 Iraqi Kurdish education system

After the Kingdom of Iraq was removed and replaced with a republic, the Kurdish people faced political instability and were engaged in conflict with the central authority. They advocated for increased decentralisation in the school sector. Education and educational investment in Kurdistan were under Kurdish administration. In 1966, they were given limited power to control educational matters. This element had a significant role in the establishment of the 1970 agreement between the two entities about Kurdish self-governance.

Following the agreement, a directorate dedicated to the study of Kurdish was established in the region. This form of decentralisation was considered beneficial for the Kurdish population in Iraq (Stansfield, 2003). According to Rubaiy (1972), education in Iraq has always been exclusive since it has not shown consideration for non-Arab populations. A novel educational curriculum was introduced, resulting in the adoption of Kurdish as the primary language of instruction.

The process of decentralisation persisted over several years. Due to the disagreement between the opposing factions, the Iraqi government reinstated the prior curriculum. It defied the educational requirements of the Kurdish region by excluding any mention of Kurdish language or culture. This was also a component of the ethnic cleansing initiative devised during that period.

From the establishment of the Iraqi kingdom until the early 1980s, the Iraqi education system adhered to and was based on the British system. The majority of the textbooks and assessments used were identical to those utilised in Britain. Simultaneously, students were sent to Europe and America with the purpose of contributing in the country's reconstruction (Stanfield, 2003; Entessar, 1992). Kurdish education was suspended until 1991.

Prior to its establishment as a semi-autonomous de facto in 1991, the region's education system was closely integrated with the education system of Iraq. Following the establishment of their Kurdish regional administration and parliament, a new education system was constructed. The educational institutions exhibited a high degree of autonomy. At that time, the main focus was

on rebuilding the educational infrastructure following extensive damage caused by a prolonged war and strife in the area. The efforts to revolutionise education and implement reforms were slow and gradual due to a shortage or insufficient resources. The primary reforms entailed the transition to Kurdish as the language of instruction, as well as modifications to certain topics such as history and religious education. The primary emphasis was placed on the historical background of Kurdistan and the harmonious coexistence of various religious beliefs within the region. Significant reform initiatives were undertaken in the region following 2003. Following the collapse of the dictatorship, the region was formally acknowledged by the Iraqi constitution, leading to the initiation of economic expansion. Consequently, there was an increase in efforts to enhance educational standards and fulfil both internal and external demands and progressions.

In 2007, a significant conference was convened with the aim of implementing an ambitious and all-encompassing educational reform. A multitude of experts from abroad, as well as local professionals, were extended invitations. The conference presented a comprehensive plan aimed at serving as the foundation for the restructuring of the educational system in Kurdistan. This inclination towards change was intended to cultivate loyalty and develop the intellectual capacity of the younger generation, ensuring they are well-prepared and educated. The initiative highlights the importance of institutions creating an educational setting that fosters student engagement and independence. This is crucial for students to actively participate in their community and make a meaningful impact on improving human conditions (MoE, 2008). The reform programme aimed to precisely update the existing curriculum, strengthen schools' capabilities, and improve educational standards. Saeed (2008) viewed this reform initiative as a crucial measure towards establishing a robust and enduring education system that has the potential to have a positive impact on the process of education.

Based on the aforementioned reform endeavours and activities, it can be inferred that there were scattered individuals who support the need for reform in the education system. However, numerous individuals assert that adopting a western educational paradigm will help resolve educational challenges. As an illustration, the Swedish educational system was introduced to support the educational progress in Kurdistan, taking into account the distinctiveness of each circumstance and context. While the inadequacies of the reform plan have had an impact, it is important to highlight that the reform process has made a substantial quantitative contribution to

considerable advances and advancements. During the initial ten years of the 2000s, the rate of illiteracy declined from 37% to 16% (Morgan-Jones 2012, as reported by Hamad, 2018). Furthermore, it advocated for the imperative of implementing compulsory primary education and increasing both the enrolment of students and the establishment of educational institutions in the area.

The changes also proposed pedagogical enhancements, including the implementation of modern teaching techniques, facilitating students' development of creative and analytical skills, and creating lessons that focus on techniques to enhance these abilities, as indicated by Constant et al. (2014).

Although there have been some improvements in the education system at various levels, the prevalence of reform ideas is still widespread. According to Wahab (2014), there are still significant obstacles that need to be resolved. He asserted that the Kurdish education system has not yet managed to circumvent the features of past centralised systems in Iraq. The improvements that have been made are limited to advancements in technology, administration, and policy, and they do not address basic issues. Saeed (2008) argued that the lack of a functional reform mechanism in the education sector, along with the persistent and harmful interference by political parties, is associated with a range of issues, including a deficiency in educational expertise, particularly in policymaking. These variables have a substantial impact on diminishing the motivation to reform the educational system, or at the very least, undermining it. The curriculum adheres to a conventional approach, wherein the instructor-centered method continues to be prevalent, thereby reinforcing student passivity instead of fostering the development of independent and critical thinkers who may contribute to the expansion of social knowledge (Heshmati et al., 2014).

There are two governmental departments accountable for education in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq (KR-I). The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. The first category includes basic and elementary education, while the latter is responsible for tertiary and post-graduate education.

The Ministry of Education implemented several significant K-12 education reforms after 2008. One of the measures entailed extending compulsory education from the sixth grade to the ninth grade. Another proposed reform involves restructuring the existing three-tiered K-12 education

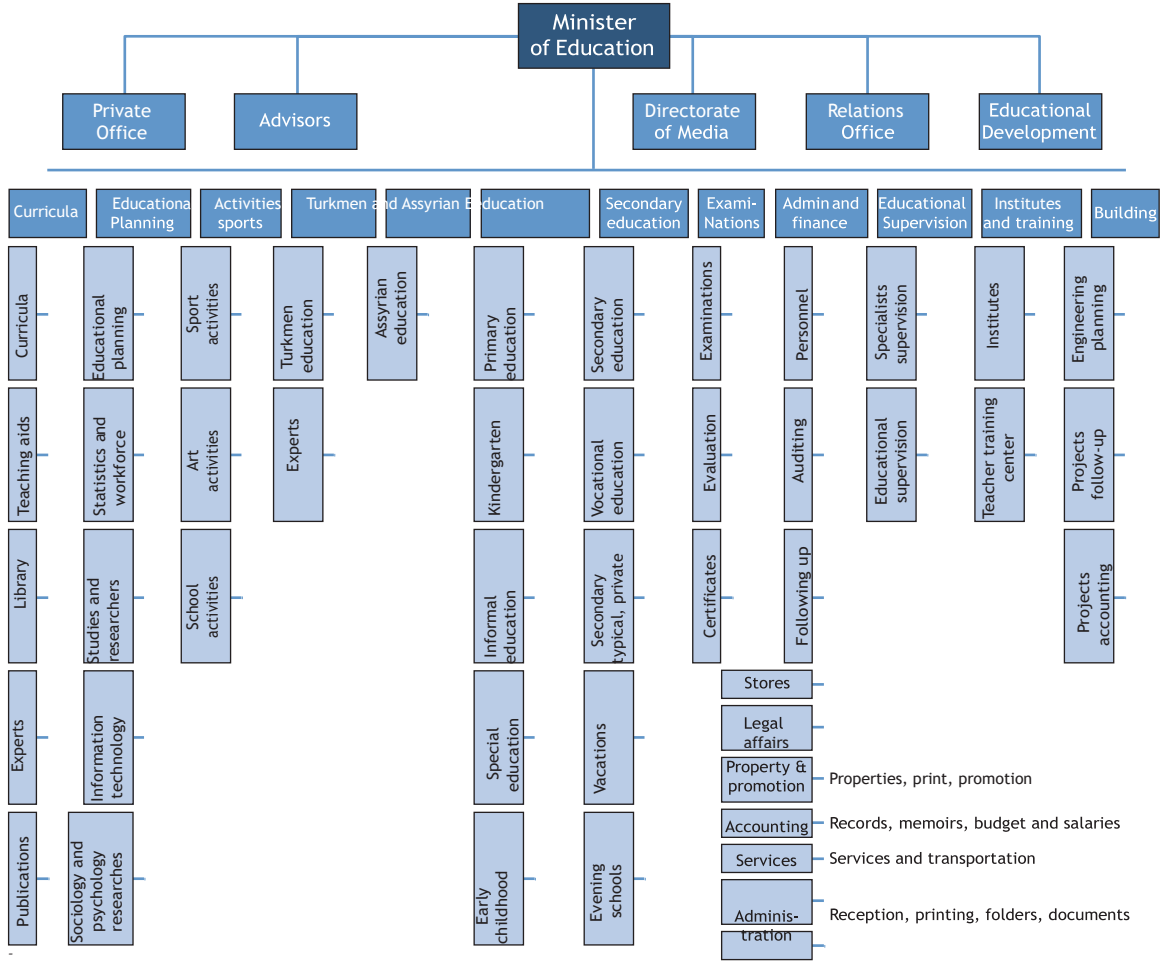
system into a two-tiered system. In the past, the Iraqi education system had three levels: primary (grades 1-6), secondary (grades 7-9), and high school (grades 9-12). However, the present system has two levels: basic (grades 1-9) and secondary (grades 10-12). Secondary school students have the option to choose between a vocational or preparatory education, with the latter being the more widely chosen. Secondary education can be categorised as either "general" or "vocational." Most general high schools offer both a Literary/Humanities and a Scientific pathway. Vocational education might specialise in agriculture, industry, or commerce.

Teachers were required to acquire degrees that exceeded the previous qualifications prior to the 2008 modifications. Prospective educators are required to get a bachelor's degree. In the past, instructors were able to enrol in teaching institutions and work towards a degree after completing grade 9. This degree programme typically ran for a duration of five years. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education has enforced restrictions to restrict the retention of students in the lower grades, along with the introduction of two supplementary national examinations.

As per findings from a UNESCO report in 2019², the limited availability of teachers results in the creation of sizable classes. These classes experience student-teacher ratios that surpass the standard levels in host communities, and the disparity is even more significant within camp settings. The educational facilities have not kept pace with the rapid increase. The educational infrastructure has failed to keep up with the exponential growth. Public schools across different educational levels have significant overcrowding and are in a dilapidated condition. In response to the increasing need for services, extra hours are being allocated, resulting in a scarcity of choices and training prospects for teachers (Vernez et al., 2016).

² <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000371514.locale=en>

Figure 1: Current organizational structure of the KRG’s Ministry of Education



(Vernez et al., 2016, p.15)

The Education Ministry of the KRG is structured with three hierarchical management levels. The Education Minister exercises extensive authority, overseeing a wide range of responsibilities. Minister is responsible for managing 16 managers, including 12 different organisational divisions, report to him. The organisation of the Ministry of Education of the KR-I is essentially based on functions. There are two programming groupings, namely basic and secondary education, which are both limited to the organisation of human resources functions.

The minister bears the responsibility for nearly all significant decisions, encompassing the adoption of new policies and procedures. The minister's consent is required for decisions such as establishing a new private school or hiring a new instructor.

Any attempt to access internal organisational data or undertake an initiative by the directorate general without prior authorization from the minister can not be carried out. Similarly, directors are unable to make decisions without the approval of their director-general. The presence of centralised decision-making in the educational system, which is characterised by bureaucratic behaviour, significantly impedes creativity and improvement. This issue extends to the governorates and schools. In addition, it diminishes the pace at which decisions are made, complicating the task of holding management responsible for their actions. The Ministry of Education must assess and approve instructors before they may be hired by governorates (Vernez et al., 2016).

The minister is responsible for a wide range of functions, including formulating a strategic vision, managing foreign relations, overseeing daily operations, and implementing various reforms and specific initiatives. Moreover, it hinders the speed of decision-making and leads to a lack of clarity on managerial decisions.

The presence of essential roles and initiatives, such as curriculum development, examination development, arts and sports activities, and teacher training, being distributed throughout numerous directorates leads to a lack of effective coordination. Delays might occur due to challenges in coordinating tasks or when each general directorate prioritises its own agenda. This issue particularly highlights. When modifications to the curricula require instructors to undergo retraining.

Despite being present in all levels of the Ministry of Education, the task of locating and assigning personnel with the appropriate qualifications was a challenge. This was especially widespread in the execution of programmes, development of new curricular material, and assurance of the quality of educational services.

The current organisational structure is deficient in certain essential activities. There should be a human resource department responsible for recruiting and managing the Ministry of Education workforce. In addition, international organisations are collaborating on initiatives with the

directorates of the Ministry of Education. Despite offering the same services, such as teacher training or school quality assurance materials, most of these services operate independently and without collaboration between different departments (Vernez et al., 2016).

The curriculum is supposed to provide high-quality human rights education for everyone. It strengthens the skills and attitudes that help to promote human rights, gender equality, global awareness, and environmental sustainability. The curriculum addresses students' needs and the needs of national growth programs, including existing and potential labour market conditions. It is also supposed to forge responsible citizenship based on democracy, equality and social justice values. It also should develop rational and innovative thinking, problem-solving, proactive behaviours and lifelong learning skills. The curriculum's academic and learning goals include lifelong learning, the ability to succeed, and an active and engaged approach to life.

Young people must improve their thought and analytical skills so that they can think, research, interpret knowledge, overcome challenges and make decisions objectively, creatively and independently. They must be able to communicate with a number of people effectively across a variety of media and must be knowledgeable enough to handle their learning. These are the skills that allow them to continue learning and adapting as they live. They must be tolerant of others, constructive and ready to positively engage in society and be flexible and capable of improving. They must be able to work independently and as part of a team both at work and in life. Young people must also cultivate citizenship to be active and responsible in society and take on solid environmental responsibility. They have to be deeply embedded in their nation and culture and have a broader understanding and awareness of the world to become global citizens and work successfully in the field of science (UNESCO Iraq Office, 2012).

Table 1: *Plan of study (General education): Kurdistan Region- Basic education (Grades 1-9).*

Learning areas and subjects	Grades								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1. Religious and Islamic education									
	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2. Languages, literature and communication									
Kurdish (mother tongue)	10	10	9	5	5	5	4	4	4
Arabic	0	0	0	4	4	4	4	4	4
English	3	3	3	4	5	5	5	5	5
Other languages (i.e. French, German for gifted students)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Minority languages (i.e. Turkmen, Assyrian, Armenian)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3. Mathematics									
	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
4. Sciences									
Sciences (integrated)	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6
5. Social sciences									
Social sciences (integrated)	0	0	0	2	3	3	3	4	4
Civic education	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Human Rights	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
6. Arts									
Music and drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
7. Technology and ICT									
Computer science							2	2	

Vocational education (for schools that have workshops)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
8. Sports, physical education and health									
Sports and fitness	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

UNESCO Iraq Office (2012)

Table 2: *Plan of study (General education): Kurdistan Region - Upper secondary/Preparatory Education (Grades 10-12)*

Learning areas and Subjects	Grade 10		Grade 11		Grade 12	
	Science Branch	Literary Branch	S	L	S	L
1. Religious and Islamic education						
	2	2	2	2	2	2
2. Language, literature and communication						
Kurdish	4	4	4	4	4	4
Arabic	4	4	4	4	4	4
English	5	5	5	5	5	5
3. Mathematics						
	6	3	6	3	6	3
4. Sciences						
Physics	4	0	4	0	4	0
Chemistry	4	0	4	0	4	0
Life Sciences	4	0	4	0	4	0
5. Social sciences						
History	0	3	0	3	0	3
Geography	0	3	0	3	0	3
Economics	0	2	0	3	0	3

Sociology	0	2	0	0	0	0
Philosophy	0	0	0	1	0	0
Civic education	0	0	0	1	0	0
6. Arts						
	1	1	1	1	1	1
7. Technology and ICT						
Technology	1	1	1	1	1	
Computer Science	2	2	2	2		
8. Sports, physical education and health						
Sports and Fitness	1	2	1	2	1	2

(UNESCO Iraq Office, 2012, p. 31)

III.6 Summary

The region's socioeconomic characteristics were presented. The chapter encompassed the historical, geographical, economic, political, and social aspects of the region. It addressed the conflicts experienced by the region and provided an introduction to and comparison of the educational systems in Iraq and the Kurdistan region of Iraq. Then the differences in schooling between the Iraqi and Kurdish systems were described. Following that, information regarding displacement in the region was presented, which included both refugees, who were living with host communities, and those who were displaced within the country.

Chapter IV. Displaced education

The issue of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) is a prevalent challenge in all conflict zones across the globe. They do not represent a homogeneous social group but instead are divided into a few regional differences, which are tightly linked to their social, cultural, political, and environment. Refugees and internally displaced persons are entitled to receive education, although not all educational opportunities provided are suitable for their specific needs. This chapter will explain the nature of conflict, the impact of displacement on education, and the effects of displacement on family and lifestyle.

IV.1 Conflict nature and education

Agerback's concept of conflict, as cited by Davies (2004), is perhaps the most accurate.

In the sense of dispute, conflict is, of course, universal in the politics of family, community and nation. In that sense, any dynamic human system is by nature a conflictive one, encompassing the play of opposing interests. The crux lies in how such conflict is managed. So long as the social and political processes provide channels for dialogue, participation and negotiation, conflict plays a constructive role. Where such channels are blocked, and yet basic needs go unmet, then resentment and desperation build up. The outcome is protest, repression and violence (p. 9).

Davies (2004) states that no evidence shows that the world is going to be a less confusing place. Peace agreements are made, while disputes rage elsewhere. The extension of the international conventions on human rights cannot stop the emergence of various conflict sources. Rewriting boundaries could mean new conflicts. Forms of violence do not disappear; however, they may be forbidden by law in many countries. Conflict is an essential element of our existence, making it difficult to anticipate the exclusion of conflict in the pursuit or consolidation of power.

Nevertheless, the nature of conflict is shifting. Eade (1996) points out that the recent wars are not taking place on the battlefields anymore but in villages, towns, cities and homes of ordinary people. Many of the casualties, the displaced and refugees of today's wars are women and children. The end of the Cold War and the fall of the Soviet bloc are thought to have stepped up these developments and contributed to the New World Disorder.

The relationship between systems and education poses a problem for policymakers. When institutions are involved in a conflict, they replicate the skills, beliefs, behaviours, and social relations of dominant groups in society; thus, they typically lead to more conflict. Conflict, conceptualized as "growth in reverse," should be examined in the sense of its developmental effects. Ethnic or religious supremacy is also a powerful contributing factor to civil strife; education plays a crucial role in mediating or worsening racial, religious and other identity-based disputes. Civil war itself increases the likelihood of further outbreaks. Therefore, education that helps build stronger conflict resilience is a critical post-conflict recovery strategy (Buckland, 2005).

There are multiple, complicated conceptual connections between conflicts and education arising from restrictions on the supply and/or request for education. These comprise declines in funding, enlistment of armed groups, security risks to and from schools and the effects of deprivation and food insecurity (Justino, 2016). For instance, disputes can hinder access to and quality of education through the loss of resources caused by the demolition or occupation of schools. It can also decrease education funding or a decrease in staff attendance because of some specific threats. Students turn out to be fighters or stay away from schools which have been regarded unsafe, mainly when schools are subject to violent assaults, rebel recruitment places or school/ class field trips, which leave children vulnerable to abductions or sexual abuse. Engagement and education can also be affected indirectly when conflict leads to increased deprivation or lack of food. In such contexts, families can find it difficult to deal with the cost of sending children into school (or the cost of opportunities) and they may even experience malnutrition that limits short and long-term cognitive skills, particularly after they suffered trauma in young adulthood (Zembylas, 2015).

A research analysed the consequences of the Rwandan genocide of 1994 and found that the lower participation and achievement of non-poor boys was because of the conflict; since it was primarily the conflict itself, rather than the poor condition, that affected educational achievements. Similarly, based on his investigation of the impacts of the civil war in Nepal, which lasted from 1996 to 2006, Valente (2013) concludes that the conflict increased migration among the wealthiest and most educated populations, whereas the poorest are less likely to migrate. Consequently, overall educational achievement declines, and the gaps between the most

and least educated narrow. Therefore, conflict tends to worsen disparities across subnational education groups, exacerbate gaps between males and females and ethnic backgrounds (Østby & Urdal, 2014; Kibris, 2015).

Conflict's effects on education will continue to the post-conflict stage. The problem in most post-conflict recovery countries is not only to recruit new teachers but to improve the quality of the educational staff in terms of training, experience and skills. In most of the countries surveyed, student-to-teacher ratios were lower in the year following the conflict than in the year before it.

Although the number of teachers may even increase, the ratios between pupils and teachers may decrease during and in the immediate aftermath of conflicts. For example, The student-teacher ratio in Ukraine has undergone shifts due to the impact of war, leading to changes in educational dynamics. Similarly, the influx of refugees has also influenced the student-teacher ratio in Hungary (UNESCO, 2023). The performance of the teaching workforce also suffers. According to Alimba (2017) the productivity of teachers is an early victim of conflict and has a long-term effect. Consequently, even if teacher numbers remain high or are even increased, the often low level of teacher credentials continues to decrease dramatically.

Another negative consequence of conflict which presents a lot of problems to education is displacement. Displacement, both within or across the country's borders, puts huge strains on education systems and leads to a loss of millions of days of training. After 2010, there was a significant surge in the number of individuals who were compelled to leave their homes, regions, and countries. Subsequently, this number has consistently increased, reaching a total of 108.4 million individuals forcibly displaced worldwide by the end of 2022 (World Bank, 2023). Conflict-driven population shifts often do not easily reverse themselves after conflict. It also can lead to rapid urbanization with urban school congestion and rural depopulation. Teacher training, leadership and training, as well as policy development fail, learners vanish, and funds are channelled into the military in education expenses. Schools are left without textbooks or learning materials, teachers are unpaid, and schools are not monitored (Utsumi, 2021; Assefa et al., 2023).

The post-conflict reconstruction environment is both an opportunity and a barrier to the change and transition of education. It is possible because the post-conflict recovery climate provides significant opportunities for democratic reform and policy change. Consequently, more political

space is opened up as old political systems are being challenged and replaced. Families and the general public have high expectations of education reform and renewal, though resistance to reform is often undermined by existing bureaucracies.

Nevertheless, the same reform opportunities pose their own constraints. Among these constraints, the disputed or weak political authorities are not in the position to provide the necessary political direction and leadership. As a consequence of conflict, civil society is often displaced or, if coordinated, engaged in an opposing policy rather than policy development. Lack of effective governance makes it extremely difficult to introduce changes. In company with all those points, the unpredictable nature of financial flows makes long-term policy preparation particularly tricky (Buckland, 2005).

Creating formal education systems following violent conflicts is also a challenge fraught with severe restrictions on supply and demand. States during and out of catastrophic conflict may not be able to reconstruct schools and at the same time, compensate for many other critical needs. At the same time, family opportunities to send children to school during and immediately after the dispute may be reduced. At the same time, families may have limited incentives during and after the conflict to send children to school. Nevertheless, schooling is crucial to the economic growth of conflict-affected households and countries.

Education is also crucial to gain stability in conflict-affected countries. Poor education and employment opportunities can lead to long-term cycles of poverty, especially for those who are very badly affected. Sometimes, low educational achievement and lack of employment opportunities are the results of types of inequalities, including economic. This may be a cause to trigger violence in the future.

Therefore, a dual approach is necessary. It is formal education task to tackle the inequalities that emerged due to conflict to reduce the potential risks related to conflict restarting. Moreover, formal education programmes must provide opportunities for the return of children to school who are impacted by violence and poverty shocks. This approach raises an important question: How can education systems be developed to promote stability and economic resilience in countries affected by the conflict?

There are two specific strategies below. The first is about developing the education of children and youths who are the basic dynamic of positive social change. The second is to create a good environment for a better education system in the affected countries. This can be done by addressing the misery that affected people experienced and by giving them hope and ambition to achieve more (Justino, 2014).

During periods of limited competence and resources, education planning should prioritise the unique needs of refugees, internally displaced persons, and returnees. Conflicts exacerbate urbanisation and overcrowding in urban schools, as many are unwilling to relocate to rural areas due to security issues such as landmines and ongoing violence, as well as economic constraints. Significant, quick, and unpredictable population migration extends beyond conventional planning and school mapping, necessitating more intelligent planning strategies and greater regional initiative.

Students should be provided with psycho-social support to help them heal from conflict-related stress and trauma in educational programmes. One of the strongest arguments for the rapid resumption of education is that access to the school itself helps to develop a normal atmosphere that builds on the resilience of children and helps them deal with psychological trauma. However, evidence from several countries suggests that teachers themselves often require psychosocial assistance before assisting children. Teacher training can help them provide the necessary support and skills for children affected by conflict.

IV.2 Displaced schools and education

Although the terms "refugee", "internally displaced person (IDP)", and "migrant" have different meanings and legal connotations, they are often misused or misunderstood. It is critical to conceptualize the terms here and clarify their definitions in order to minimize confusion and ensure adequate comprehension. Refugees are people who have been forced to leave their home country because of war, persecution, or a natural disaster (UNHCR, 2016). Internally displaced people, on the other hand, are people who have been forced to leave their homes or regular places of residence but have not crossed an international line. They remain within their own country. IDPs face the same risks and dangers as refugees, but the rules and protection systems of their

home country apply to them (Deng, 1999). Migrants are those who voluntarily move to another location, not because they face immediate danger or death, but rather to enhance their quality of life by pursuing a job, and in certain instances, for educational purposes, family reunification, or other motives. Unlike refugees, who face the inability to safely return to their country, migrants do not meet such hindrances. If they decide to go back home, their government will continue to support them (UNHCR, 2016). In summary, "displaced people" is a larger term that includes both refugees and IDPs. These definitions are derived from international agreements and principles, such as the 1951 Refugee Convention and the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. In this study, the term "displace people" is also used for refugees and IDPs.

Organisations such as Save the Children established schools for children who were forced to leave their homes before the World War II. However, the accessibility of education was significantly expanded during and after the war. The concept of refugee education originated in that era. The geopolitical upheavals of the Cold War led to a surge in the global refugee population. The atrocities witnessed during World War I and World War II led to the strong belief that education possesses significant power and responsibility. This sentiment was explicitly stated in the UNESCO Constitution of 1945. Subsequently, the education of refugees has been primarily associated with international agreements, institutional connections, and evolving conceptions of educational objectives (Dryden-Peterson, 2011).

Article 22 of the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees establishes the principles for providing education to refugees. It states that refugees should receive the same treatment as nationals in terms of elementary education, and should be given as favourable treatment as possible for education beyond the elementary level. The implementation of the right to education has depended, even among the countries that have signed the Convention, on the regulations, policies, and customs that were in place at different points in history and in different nations.

Refugees are individuals who flee across international borders due to justified fears of persecution (UNHCR, 2010). The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) is the official entity that provides legal, administrative, and societal assistance to refugees. The organisation offers humanitarian assistance to refugees, including provisions for sustenance, accommodation, clean water, and education.

The UNHCR is collaborating with host countries to address education and other pertinent matters concerning refugees.

As to the UNHCR report from 2014, 86% of the global refugee population resides in neighbouring countries that are affected by conflicts in their country of origin. Therefore, the majority of Afghan refugees, reaching over 1.5 million, resided in Pakistan and over 1 million in Iran. Similarly, Syrian refugees were mainly located in Turkey, with around 2.7 million, and in Lebanon, with 1 million. This pattern also applies to Somali refugees in Kenya (UNHCR, 2015). These countries primarily had education systems that were already ineffective and political and economic structures that were weak. In contrast, fewer than 1% of refugees globally reside in nations with a high per capita gross national income. Some countries that fit this description include the United States, Canada, and Germany. The United States received the highest number of resettled individuals, with 267,000 refugees and 149,000 refugees from Canada. Similarly, some European countries were also included in this group during the same year. Germany, for example, accommodated 217,000 migrants, while Greece provided shelter for 7,300 individuals, according to the United Nations Human Rights Commission in 2015.

The difference in refugee education between countries with remote resettlement and neighbouring host countries can be attributed to two factors: firstly, the relatively low number of refugees, and secondly, the expectation of both the government and refugees for settlement and permanent citizenship. Therefore, when individual refugees in the United States or Canada are relocated or awarded asylum status, they are provided with a citizenship pathway that is not available to the majority of refugees globally (Dryden-Peterson, 2016).

As a result of the recent increase in the number of refugees in certain European countries, these countries are not well-suited for both the classifications of hosting neighbouring countries and resettling refugees in remote locations. Germany and Greece exemplify countries that fit this description. In 2015, Germany reported 467,649 official asylum applications, with a significant number of unregistered cases as well. During that year, almost 1 million refugees arrived in Greece solely by sea (Germany Federal Ministry of the Interior, 2016; UNHCR, 2015). This ongoing scenario consistently necessitates additional assistance initiatives, particularly in the realm of education.

The role schools in displacement is very important. The factors affecting conflict risk are institutional factors along with economic factors, identity-based factors, and civil war factors. Schools and education systems can produce or worsen the conditions that contribute to violence.

There is a growing recognition of the significant role that schools and education systems play in contributing to the various elements that lead to conflict. Evidence supports the notion that educational systems and institutions that imitate the abilities, values, attitudes, and relationships of social and dominating groups frequently contribute to conflict. Inadequate education, discrimination based on race, ethnicity, or other factors, biased curriculum, and unfulfilled expectations worsen existing social tensions and might give rise to new forms of social friction. For instance, the majority of schools in Kosovo possessed small shrines that housed images of those who had perished in the struggle against Serb governance, including employees, students, and community members.

In a world characterised by fragmented families and communities due to conflicts, schools are viewed as crucial institutions that have a significant impact on restoring fundamental principles, promoting new democratic ideals, and aiding children in recovering from a disrupted childhood (Buckland, 2005). Schools can provide substantial protection for children both prior to and following stressful incidents through regular intervention. Many schools prioritise enhancing children's interpersonal skills by focusing on developing their reading, verbal skills, and numeracy. These qualities are crucial for developing personal resilience. Schools facilitate the acquisition of problem-solving skills and the enhancement of social interactions in students.

Schools can assist parents and intimate acquaintances in addressing the requirements of children. Therefore, school teachers and staff have a crucial role in preserving children's optimism and motivating them to navigate through various situations, challenges, and interpersonal connections, develop self-assurance, acquire the skills to support others, and establish emotional bonds (Cook & Wall, 2011).

Researchers in political socialisation may explore the significant impact of textbooks and the instruction of history or social sciences on shaping the policies and governance of governments, nations, and states. Textbooks can exhibit a strongly nationalistic bias and depict the adversary as wicked, but they can as readily neglect to accurately depict reality. Bokovoy et al. (1997) about former Yugoslavia's Marxist curriculum point out that during that time the ruling party failed to create a way of dealing with ethnic differences and the problem with social science textbooks. There needs to be more efforts to support a political culture that is adequately equipped to handle

the perils of ethnocentrism. Arguably in former Yugoslavia, the education system was helping to establish collective identity, nationalistic historical myths and antagonism (Davies, 2004).

The content of Sri Lankan textbooks was believed to have had a substantial role in fueling civil violence (Heyneman & Todoric-Bebic, 2000). The Centre for Peace Impact Monitoring examined the Palestinian and Jewish Orthodox textbooks, observing that both portray derogatory perceptions of each other (Adwan et al., 2016). Educational studies have generally concentrated on the representation of in-group and out-group identity in textbooks, as well as its implicit connection to conflicts and community issues (Tawil, 2001).

By examining the Bosnian case following the 1992-95 conflict and the subsequent separation of educational curricula, the history textbooks began to incorporate explanations and definitions of ethnic groupings, elucidating the reasons and methods by which the war was portrayed. It was widely characterised as a 'civil war' by many individuals, while others referred to it as an 'act of aggression.' Many analysts consider this to be a significant impediment to the process of aligning and reforming the education system. Education authorities primarily prioritise the preservation and enhancement of unique national identities, languages, and cultures, perpetuating the practice of war. The primary objective is to confer legitimacy upon the political elites, rather than to educate individuals with a focus on fostering reconciliation. Both sides are aware of the influential impact of hate education.

Textbooks may convey both implicit and explicit lessons. These messages regarding violence, whether used to address issues or glorify symbols of violence and power, are crucial components of the educational process (Rodríguez-Gómez et al., 2016).

Another role of education in the context of displacement is creating a peaceful environment. Peace education is a broad term that encompasses several types of formal and informal educational initiatives. Their objective was to encourage peace within schools and communities by imparting skills, attitudes, and values that promote non-violent conflict resolution procedures and cultivate tolerance and respect for variety (Buckland, 2005).

Davies (2004) proposes three functions for peace educators. Initially, the development of educational methods that encourage recognition of how knowledge and comprehension are constructed and influenced by society, typically employed to justify unfair and conflict-ridden

situations. Furthermore, it is imperative that education directs greater emphasis, particularly in areas affected by armed conflict, towards the interactive resolution of issues. Also, it is essential to establish educational systems that facilitate collaborative definition and in-depth discussion of intricate issues by individuals and groups. These systems should also enable the collective generation of solutions, the ability to influence unintended consequences, and the creation of favourable political contexts where problem-solving is considered a central objective of education.

This appears to be an enormous undertaking. However, we may start to witness its development. It involves advocating for cultures that promote peace instead of cultures that promote war. This may seem counterintuitive, as we will explore more as a bold action.

Peace education is most effective and productive when aligned with economic, cultural, and national requirements. It must be strengthened by its cultural and spiritual principles and overarching values. Teachers must be equipped to instruct on topics that frequently include social difficulties and discomfort to combat the stigma, tension, and unfairness that peace education aims to diminish (Mishra, 2011).

Peace education enables pupils to cultivate consciousness, competencies, and dispositions. Thus, it advocates for the principles necessary to avoid conflicts from growing into physical aggression and to settle them peacefully through cooperation and unity. Peace education emphasises the need for learners to develop self-awareness, understand their interpersonal connections, and recognise their social engagements. There are prominent educators who have contributed to the promotion of peace education including Maria Montessori, John Dewey and Paulo Freire.

Montessori believed that education is the key to achieving long-term peace. She thought that teaching children about peace at a young age would enable them to actively contribute to the construction of a more harmonious world. Montessori highlighted the significance of establishing a prepared atmosphere that fosters exploration, autonomy, and self-exploration. Within this particular setting, children are afforded the autonomy to participate in significant educational encounters and cultivate fundamental life proficiencies, such as dispute resolution and harmonious communication. Creating an environment that prioritizes peace education does not imply the complete absence of conflict. Conflicts are perceived as occasions to cultivate

compassion, foster relationships, and gain a more profound comprehension of someone else's perspective (Duckworth, 2006; Baligadoo, 2014).

Dewey also worked for a school system that teaches students to be democratic. In his perspective, schools should encourage students to think critically, become informed citizens, and take an active role in society so that they can fully participate in a democratic society. He emphasized the need for a curriculum that would foster an attitude promoting world patriotism, utilize social sciences such as geography and history to foster understanding of other cultures, and address the negative aspects of patriotism and nationalism that have historically led to war between nations. His peace education theories also questioned the role of teachers and encouraged them to include the principles of peace and international collaboration among countries in their curricula. The article of faith served as his educational plan and tool for developing a long-lasting peace (Sant, 2019; Feinberg & Torres, 2001).

Freire argues that education should not involve the passive acquisition of knowledge, but instead should serve as a liberating power that empowers marginalized and oppressed populations. He asserted that education should be a transformative process that strengthens these specific populations. To enable individuals to liberate themselves from recurring patterns of oppression and injustice, he advocated for an educational approach that promotes the development of awareness, open discussion, and collaborative efforts (Feinberg & Torres, 2001; Cabezudo & Haavelsrud, 2007).

Currently, we are living in diverse and intricate, interwoven and interdependent communities. Daily, we encounter dilemmas regarding ethics, acts of injustice, and violence that pose challenges to our moral compass and behaviour.

Ethics pertains to interpersonal connections, promoting analytical reasoning that cultivates moral principles and engenders a feeling of oneness among individuals. It involves the capacity to proactively address and counteract threats, injustices, and abuse, while simultaneously helping in the restoration and enhancement of damaged relationships.

Education for peace places ethics as its core focus. Peace education should enable students to respond unconditionally to the innate urge to care for one another, empowering them to make ethical decisions and take action, regardless of religious or cultural views or legal obligations.

Peace education facilitates students' recognition and appreciation of variety via ethical contemplation, hence fostering the cultivation of harmonious relationships (UNICEF, 2014).

Challenges of refugee education. In the sense of refugees, the selection of curriculum is among the most divisive and challenging problems to be addressed for refugee students. A central issue revolves around crucial decisions with long-term consequences for children and communities is the design and expense of programs: Should the refugee children study the curriculum of the host or the origin country?

Curriculum decisions are important both in emergencies as well as in extended settings. For a variety of factors, the selection of curriculum is difficult. For governmental bodies and refugee populations, it can be a highly politicised and sensitive problem and can contribute to sensitivities regarding nationality, culture and relationships with the country of origin. On the other hand, curriculum decisions could significantly impact and protect refugee children, including potential education and livelihood prospects. Governing bodies should work with organisations assisting refugees in finding common ground regarding logistical and planning issues. UNHCR, as an influential body, has its policy in such context. UNHCR promotes collaboration with national education authorities to ensure that the country of asylum curriculum to be used and adopted in refugee settings (UNHCR, 2015a).

Displacement statistics indicate that almost two-thirds of refugees have been displaced for more than five years, with an average displacement period of 20 years. The data show that education programmes need to be offered for at least a medium-term period in many refugee contexts. The use of asylum curriculum in countries offers access to approved, controlled, and accountable education facilities. It can be seen as the most affordable and safe choice for long and medium terms, ensuring reliable access to certifications and tests, access to educational resources, quality assurance and increased access to education facilities, with opportunities for further education at higher levels.

There are some benefits of using the curriculum of the country of origin, as seen in the table below. In addition, a transition to asylum countries requires considerable expenditure of time and money to ensure the success of refugee children in the system of the host country. Moreover, changing curricula often involves system change in certain countries, along with the way schools are operated and staffed. On the other hand, asylum curricula also present the advantages of

sustainable, reliable access to accredited certification and national systems resources, which have more benefits than the country of origin curriculum (UNHCR 2015a).

Table 3

Differences between origin and asylum country curricula

Country of Origin Curriculum	Country of Asylum Curriculum
✓ Familiar language with links to home culture/identity	✓ Opens pathway for refugees to access national schools
✓ Politically acceptable to both refugees and some host governments	✓ Access to examinations and accredited certification
✓ Option when country of asylum policy bars access to national system	✓ Facilitates repatriation Quality – access to curricular materials, deployment of qualified teachers, teacher training, quality assurance
✗ No long-term access to examinations and certification	✓ Monitoring and supervision by MoE for improved accountability
✗ No access to higher levels of education or employment due to lack of certification	✓ Access to higher levels of education
✗ No access to curricular materials or professional teacher training	✓ Opportunities for social cohesion with host community
✗ No access to supervision	✓ Sustainable investment in enhancement of national capacity
	✓ Increased accountability of states

and quality assurance	to support refugee education
×No access to supervision and quality assurance	√Possibility to access development funding
×Isolation from host community	×Perceived loss of country of origin language, cultural, religious identity
×Long term funding and capacity challenges in sustaining parallel education system	×Loss of formal literacy in country of origin language can affect education/ employment upon repatriation
	×Language can be a barrier to successfully transition to new medium of instruction
	× Discrimination and bullying in host community schools
	× Substantial investment and planning needed to ensure successful transition to new curriculum

Curriculum choices in refugee settings (UNHCR, 2015a, p.3).

Teacher training. Educators play a vital role in encouraging students to adapt in their classes and community. Having provided a protected and welcoming atmosphere to refugee students is crucial for the effectiveness of school but relies heavily on the awareness, beliefs, activities, and attitudes of the teachers (Kovinthan, 2016). The teachers in the refugee context should be provided with more resources and preparation in coping with culturally diverse classrooms, bullying and contact with refugee students' parents (OECD, 2018). Teachers need resources in order to make them more diverse and make schools more responsive to refugee students' needs (Magos & Margaroni, 2018).

Moreover, suppose teachers fail to properly comprehend refugee children's obstacles and experiences. In that case, they may underestimate the student and parent tentatives to adjust to their new environment. The consequences of cultural misunderstanding may lead to preconception and discrimination (Cerna, 2019; Kovinthan, 2016). As a result, students who already seek to solve cultural and linguistic problems must also strive to solve particular dim views. Research results indicate that prejudice is the greatest barrier to refugee and immigrant adaptation for students, with long-term implications for their self-esteem, motivation, engagement and school achievement (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). Teachers often do not have the experience, expertise or knowledge to recognise and address the needs of students from refugee communities (Maher, 2020). In a study in Prince Edward Island on intermediate and high school students, MacNevin (2012) noted that refugee students need educators who have a range of teaching skills, who resolve emotional difficulties in helping their children, involve refugee students in all aspects of schools socially and academically. Those who draw on their prior experience. Additionally, the findings indicated that the majority of teachers lack the necessary experience and resources to implement these activities. Consequently, in diverse classes made up of children from different countries, pre-service and in-service teachers should be qualified.

Education access. Rising forced displacement across the world – namely refugees, asylum seekers, displaced people within their borders and stateless people – means large gaps in access to education between refugees and non-refugee peers. Moreover, due to the nature of displacement, it interrupts education. Displacement brings difficulties and dangers to reach essential basic services, acquiring new identification documents, and provide support in vulnerable circumstances for their families.

Forced displacement interrupts education cycles, so refugees' young people will need help upgrading their skills before accessing high school education opportunities, which can also prevent them from failing or leaving school. Refresher courses and accelerated programmes during the holiday are alternatives that could provide refugees with access to post-primary education. However, complementary and well-designed education programmes to address the unique needs of refugee young people in countries with economic capital under significant strain cannot be carried out without funding from stakeholders in the host countries, from the international donor community, and from educational organisations willing to recommend such

initiatives. Otherwise, most refugee children who disrupted their schooling would have to learn only basic skills in the best-case scenario (UNHCR, 2019).

Access to education is not always accessible. It usually requires qualified teachers, school infrastructure, facilities and learning resources, which are considerably expensive. Conflict-affected families often do not meet such costs because of economic inequalities or cultural patterns. Girls are frequently at a greater disadvantage than boys. Because scholarship programmes are not always available, only those whom their families assist would be able to complete their studies. This indicates that equal opportunity is almost an unattainable goal for refugee child populations, regardless of their socioeconomic status, sex, culture, and ethnicity. In that regard, it is critical to widen the definition of learners to help in investigating feasible avenues for refugee children to access secondary school. This has a positive effect on accessibility and engagement in education, and the growing involvement of girls in post-secondary education. (Anselme & Hands, 2010).

It is important to consider why many refugee young people would not attend school even when provided, particularly when examining why refugees who fled from violence are less likely to be in school. For example, some social traditions or economic and family commitments may be required to be followed, such as early marriage and caring for young children. Also, young women may be forced by their families to do housework if they must take care of children. The issue of child labour is the biggest obstacle to accessing to the education of refugee children. This problem is getting more serious for high school students. (Farhad,2018).

Credential issues. The educational background documentation of the refugee students and professionals could be proven when they arrive in a new host country. While certain individuals have the opportunity of being able to take all of their educational and professional records with them when they flee, a significant number of refugees are forced to leave abruptly, leaving behind a substantial portion of their belongings (ECRE, 2006).

Some may arrive with only a limited number of documents in refugee camps or new host nations. Others may only obtain copies or even digital images of them using a cell phone. A small number of individuals arrive empty-handed. Refugees may be willing to provide certain or all documentation, however institutional regulations typically prioritise applicants' ability to have official documents sent directly from their home institutions. In order to obtain recognition, such

as transcripts, diplomas, or certificates, it is typically required by most institutions in North America, Europe, or other regions to submit official documents directly from the issuing institution or to send verified official copies. These criteria are the most reliable methods for verifying the authenticity of certificates (WES Canada, 2012). Issuing provisional documentation to internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have lost their identification papers, allowing them to register for school without having to return to their original places of residence; The tasks involve tracking and documentation of the accessibility to cost-free elementary education in some countries, as carried out by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child and the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Moony & French, 2005).

Nevertheless, educational institutions that grant degrees or certificates may be destroyed, closed, or continue to function as usual in regions affected by conflict or disputes (WES Canada, 2012). Under such circumstances, it can be challenging or even unattainable to obtain transcripts and other authorised documents. It may also be impossible to verify the authenticity or obtain original copies of records from these organisations. Despite their operation, certain institutions may be reluctant to readily provide copies to institutions located outside their own nations or fail to reply to verification queries, thereby increasing the difficulty for both the applicant and the institution in question. Occasionally, groups or governmental entities may refuse to send or examine the documents of refugees, considering them betrayers due to their departure.

Moreover, some refugees may avoid seeking official documents from their institution of origin because they fear receiving negative treatment (WES Canada, 2012). Perhaps it is because they worry about getting into trouble with the government. This could be the case when the home institution is contacted for verification. Therefore, it is necessary for applicant institutions, before addressing the home institution seeking registration or verification of documentation if they would like to do so, to request the applicant's permission.

To sum up, refugee parents should understand expectations concerning parental involvement in the host country's educational system, along with a description of how this involvement will be delivered.

Efforts should be dedicated to bridging the gap between refugees and local educational districts. This can lead to connecting the school administration with refugee families, and creating a genuine connection gives their children opportunities to learn better and be more successful.

Conducting a welcome session with refugees and their families could be fruitful to better understand their issues and needs and follow-up to provide assistance.

IV.3 Family and displaced education

Those directly and indirectly involved in a war, violent incidents, and disasters are stressed-or emotionally disturbed. Even though they are not physically harmed, they usually suffer devastating losses and welfare issues. In contemporary forms of war and conflict, children and their families are engaged in various ways, directly or indirectly, and the effects of violence, injury, displacement and destruction can be devastating for them.

Over the past two centuries, the size and complexity of the conflict and its effects on the displaced populations have changed considerably. In the 19th century, we witnessed many wars, civil wars and the concurrent intervention of many countries. Nevertheless, after World War II, a paradigm change has occurred from an industrial war to more localised frequent confrontation and conflict (Smith, 2005).

One distinguishing feature of today's violence, conflict, and terrorism tendencies is that they are fought among native population rather than on isolated battlefields. Non-combatants' engagement in conflict is common, with escalating consequences for children and families. Children are disproportionately targets of military conflict and terrorism.

Throughout the decade and up to 2003, two million children had been killed, six million injured or permanently incapacitated in war zones, one million had been orphaned and 20 million displaced by military conflict, meaning 80 to 90 percent of all civilians, mainly children and mothers, were wounded and injured in conflict (Barenbaum et al., 2004; Williams, 2007). In addition, youth and children are in danger of being impacted by war in different ways. These youths were in war zones or were child soldiers directly, on other hand: they were affected by adult abuse and parenting issues, social dislocation, loss of education and other developments, or aid deprivation; and displacement (Cook & Wall, 2011).

When families are displaced and spend months or years in refugee camps, there is no doubt that their parenting will be changed due to the impacts of the displacement. Parents and guardians play a crucial role in maintaining the health and well-being of children. Developing an innovative

strategy to support parents and caregivers appropriately within that new environment will minimise the hardship of refugee families whilst moving to their resettlement and should become a key concern (UNICEF, 2013; Williams, 2012). Research into the impacts of war and violence on children's mental well-being has risen significantly in recent years (Betancourt & Williams, 2008; Panter-Brick, et al., 2011).

In the period between fight and being resettled in a host country, refugee parents undergo multiple stages. Williams (2010) has classified the stages into four: family in the origin country, pre-fight, fight, and eventually resettlement. Parents are influenced at each point by various environmental factors that change previously existing values, ideas and cultural traditions and create a new perspective (Lustig et al., 2004). Based on this model, the parenthood experience exists in those four phases while at the same time being affected by many layers of 'being' as a refugee parent. Being a refugee family can be characterised as a multi-layered process that impacts both the child's development and the parent before relocation.

Evidently, during the war and pre-resettlement periods, aid agencies that work with refugee families primarily focus on humanitarian assistance such as food and shelter because of resource constraints. Although changes to family structures start during the first stage and because the role of the parent is so critical for the child's refugee life experience, early-context parenting programs can be tremendously helpful (Williams, 2012). Early identification and treatment of mental health issues in post-war conditions could be called parental education (Panter-Brick et al., 2014; Williams, 2010). Parenting education provides parents with the knowledge and competencies to foster healthy and supportive interactions with their children. Meta-analyses document the efficacy of parental behaviour through a wide spectrum of non-resident contexts (Furlong et al., 2012).

The secret to the effective involvement of refugee children in schools is to recognise better the significance of refugee parents in their children's education. Parent involvement is a significant factor in children school success (Schechter & Sherri 2009). However, refugee parents may be at a disadvantage in this respect, as they are not familiar with the norms and requirements of their host nation. When refugee parents contrast school expectations to their own values and expectations, the issue may be further compounded. For example, some families of refugees have no assistance in helping them understand or become familiar with various contexts of parental engagement (Flaitz, 2006; McBrien, 2011). Moreover, it can be disrespectful in some cultures to

doubt the views of teachers about the education of their children (McBrien, 2011). Consequently, sometimes they are not interested in their children's school engagement for the sake of teachers and administrators whom they think, have the best interests of their children at deepest level (Adult Learning Resource Centre, 2003).

Research suggests that parents' psychological, economic, and physical well-being must be met before they are inclined to have a beneficial impact on their children's education. Hence, to promote parental involvement in their children's education, it is necessary to consider their cultural and educational aptitudes, as well as the socio-economic and structural limitations they may face (Lopez et al., 2001).

Parents of refugees will encounter numerous obstacles to their children's engagement in academic activities. Initially, they are often discouraged from engaging in their child's educational institution due to a multitude of factors. Furthermore, there are instances where this disengagement is misunderstood by both educators and school administrators as a perceived indifference towards their children's education (Walker-Dalhouse & Dalhousie, 2009). It is important to explore the elements that influence the extent to which parents are involved in their children's learning. Here are some instances of the factors:

Language/poor communication. Lack of language proficiency among parents is identified as one of the major obstacles to the interaction between refugee families and the host countries' school systems in which they reside. The research findings have revealed that inadequate communication and language hurdles between parents and teachers have a significant impact on parental engagement in schools. Parents typically prefer to communicate in their native languages, while educational institutions employ the language of the host country. This may engender an adversarial relationship as it poses a challenge for many parents. Such communication issues might have a negative impact on the academic performance of children, so demotivating the teacher's inquiries. For example, the limited English language of refugee parents in the US hindered their ability to provide support to their children. Studies conducted in Britain have also indicated that a significant number of parents who are non-native English speakers do not participate in school meetings for parents (Andrade., 2015). In his study Baeza (2012) found that language barriers hinder Latino parents' involvement in their children's schooling within the American environment. Latino parents utilise the Spanish language for communication, whereas teachers at the schools predominantly employ English for their

communication. Consequently, students primarily engage in communication with their parents and teachers using only one language. At home, both parents and children converse exclusively in Spanish. The majority of people are unable to communicate with school officials due to the language barrier, so they avoid discussing issues that might be advantageous for their children. Nevertheless, research indicates that children have significantly contributed to facilitating communication, particularly by assisting their parents with translations. Similarly, the findings of Ibrahim et al. (2009) reflected the same outcomes, with Somali parents expressing that their insufficient English proficiency posed a barrier, limiting their access to educational possibilities in New Zealand. An inherent issue with this is that it fosters youngsters to behave as mediators between their family and school. The children serve as reliable interpreters for translating school paperwork and notices. This creates multiple concerns, one of which is the potential lack of precision in children's interpretation of their parents' words. Inadequate language proficiency significantly impacts parental involvement in schools. It can hinder their ability to express their concerns, and participate in school-related activities and their children's education. Conversely, parents who possess strong verbal skills are capable of effectively expressing their emotions and effortlessly engaging in discussions pertaining to their children's education and personal experiences.

Cultural anticipations. Refugee parents could come from backgrounds that do not require parents to play a large role in the education of their children or where their position varies significantly from the role anticipated by the host country's school system. In certain societies, parents have absolute rely on the school. They do not question the decisions and the authority of school staff. For some refugee parents, school is a challenge to preserving their native language and culture, and this follows unwillingness to participate completely in their school experience (Nderu, 2005). In his research, Klein (2008) focused on the views of Chinese fathers on parental participation in US education for their children. The immigrant fathers provided a description of parent engagement through the interviews, on the basis of their cultural views and beliefs. This was not generally consistent with the views found in schools of the host country. While they felt they were strongly committed to educating their children by supporting them to keep a regular routine to promote autonomy awareness, their participation in the schoolwork derived from their embedded cultures and values that were not perceived as American standard parent participation.

Ndero (2005) stated that refugee parents would find it difficult to discipline their children in their new context.

In their analysis of Somali refugee parents, Ibrahim and his colleagues (2009) identified numerous disparities in the disciplinary systems used with their children. The parents argued that their children's bad social conduct resulted from being undisciplined and disorderly in educational environments. The parents encouraged different kinds of discipline in addition to what the school had adopted as the norm, such as time-outs and suspensions. For people around the world, definitions of time principles are different. Many refugee families are not used to scheduling appointments weeks ahead of time, maintaining their schedules or being timely (Ariza, 2000).

Moreover, in a culture in which elders are highly respected, parents will become unhappy when they hear their children voice their thoughts in the classroom or learn that their children have shared their opinions with others. Ariza (2000) also describes that misunderstandings can happen between teachers and students as well. He stated that our cultural perceptions define how we see and judge the behaviour we see. For instance, a child races down the hall and unintentionally bumped into a teacher. The teacher criticises the child for not saying 'excuse me'. The pupil looks down at the floor, unresponsive to the teacher's speech. The teacher chastises the child as he does not answer the teacher's speech. The child appears not to answer the teacher and keeps looking down. This Latino child's culture taught the child to avert his eyes when an adult criticises him. At the same time, American children are taught to have eye contact speaking to an adult.

Refugee lifestyle. Many factors contribute to refugee families spending lonely lives in the community and being isolated from the school community. For example, limited language skills can be a reason to be isolated. In addition, several of the parents live in areas with limited access to reliable public transportation. As a result, it is often hard or impossible to go to school. Some parents also might not have access to child care and cannot attend school events because of their small children (Adult Learners Resource Center, 2003).

Rah et al. (2009) stated that families with low socioeconomic levels have lower standards of living. Refugee parents tended to be overrepresented in low-wage jobs. Often, both parents contributed to family finances in order to meet everyday necessities. A Laotian girl who was interviewed for the Townsend and Fu (2001) study, it was revealed the family had very little

opportunity to share their concerns. Parental involvement in school and their children's learning is negatively impacted by the quantity of time available to parents as well as the amount of effort required. The old conceptions of parent engagement are going to have to change to better address the specific demands of new refugee populations. This leads to the non-attendance of parents at school events and activities. Teachers feel that their parents do not care about their children's education and have negative opinions about them.

Trust with refugee families could also be a big problem. Many refugees struggle to trust the authorities because they have fled their homelands mostly to escape persecution and torture. They may also have encountered authoritarian regimes and administrative processes during their journey, which generates a mistrust that could continue to affect any ties with school staff in their new country (Behnia, 1996).

Trauma to the family. Many refugee families flee their homelands because of trauma and abuse. However, they will spend a substantial amount of time in refugee camps before settling in their new country, waiting for a country to embrace them. Additional pressures, including hardships such as poor supplies, housing, and education, occur during this waiting period. (UNHCR, 2004). This could lead to serious psychological and physical difficulties that could be an obstacle to their participation in their child's schools (Spencer & Le, 2006). In a report by Moon and Lee (2009), the researchers looked at factors influencing academic achievement directly and indirectly. The researchers stated that factors closely linked to the students' academic performance are also intertwined. The research, for example, establishes a clear correlation between parent education, family income, and academic achievement. They also found that family income was related to their psychological well-being and participation in the school for their children. The psychological well-being of a parent, however, greatly affects the degree of the parent's home operation. In fact, their well-being affected the academic success of their children.

School environment. A welcoming environment for refugee parents contributes to better involvement in their children's education. Cureton's study (2020) discovered that Syrian and Iraqi parents in the US were more inclined to engage with their children's school when they felt welcomed and accepted by administrators and teachers. For example, a Syrian mother reported

how kind and friendly the principal was to their family's arrival. Additionally, an Iraqi mother expressed her happiness for the school because of the staff's attention to her family. She was also hired as an assistant by a school counsellor who was aware of her educational background and fluency in Arabic. She discussed how the principle openly embraced different communities and fostered a culture of acceptance and diversity. Similarly, according to Wanjiru's (2018) research in a post-conflict context in Kenya, teachers could promote IDP children to unlearn violence, victimisation, and societal divisions. This could be done by promoting discourse and providing opportunities for the creation of group-based rules of interaction. Through performing so, teachers can foster inclusive mindsets among the children.

In contrast, some schools do not consider a warm and friendly atmosphere for some refugee parents. This can be due to school staff who have no cultural awareness or do not speak the specific mother tongue of parents. Mapp (2003) explains that parents' participation in schools is directly affected by a school culture that maintains a solid, supportive and trustworthy relationship with their parents. Parents viewed the school staff as an important part of establishing an atmosphere conducive to active parent participation.

In addition, the parents believe that school staff are more likely to engage in the care of parents and consider them equal partners. The study shows that loving and trustworthy relationships between parents and school employees have a significant influence on the increased engagement of parents in the school of their children. Similarly, Saurez-Orozco et al. (2009) noticed that school-based connections between peers, teachers and school staff in the community made a significant contribution to student participation and the success of the schools. In the research, students also articulated the important role of parents in their development and success in academics and behaviour.

IV.4 Summary

Chapter Four provided an overview of the origins of displacement education and explored how conflict and displacement can impact educational experiences and overall quality of life. It discussed the potential difficulties that displaced individuals and the school system would encounter, and it also explored the strategies that could be employed to address these issues. The

chapter also highlighted the evolving role of families and schools during conflict and relocation. The research methodology will be described in the following chapter.

Chapter V. Research methodology

In this chapter, the methodological procedures of the study will be described. Information will be given on the research plan, participants, setting, instruments used in data collection, the procedures followed in data collection and data analysis, the role of the researcher in the research and research etiquettes will also be presented.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to compare the perceptions of the group of parents (host community and displaced parents) and presenting the viewpoint of basic school teachers regarding parents' role in the learning process of their children. This chapter is organised into the following sections: research questions and hypotheses, researcher's role, population, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability, ethical consideration and summary.

V.1 The process of research

V.1.1 Research population and sampling

The purpose of this survey study was to disclose and compare the role of parents in their children's learning and their involvement factors among two different groups: host community and displaced parents, and teachers of their children/students. Based on the purpose of the study, the study was designed as a descriptive survey study with quantitative approach questions.

When big amounts of data are required for a study, surveys are designed to process them statistically. Thus, this study relies heavily on quantitative data collection techniques. The collected data were analysed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS version 22). The current study's participants were parents and teachers of 8th and 9th graders at basic school level, studying at public schools and their teachers. Grades 8 and 9 are considered transitional phases for children as they progress from basic school to high school upon completing their education. It is necessary for parents to provide assistance to their children in confronting academic, social, and emotional difficulties. Gaining insight into parental involvement during this crucial period can assist in identifying successful approaches for assisting adolescents in adapting to the challenges of their future academic endeavours (Tilleczek & Ferguson, 2007). During this period, families engage in crucial decisions on future educational and career trajectories, including the selection of high school courses, evaluation of post-secondary opportunities, and setting up future goals. During adolescence, a person's sense of self, their

relationships, and their level of independence all undergo fast transformations (Finkenauer et al.,2002). Parental involvement in that period can have a significant impact on the holistic development, interpersonal connections, and general welfare of adolescents. To comprehend the various facets of parental roles in learning, multiple parties might participate in the data collection process, including parents, teachers, children, community leaders, and organizations. This study examines the perspectives of parents and teachers, taking into account the research objectives and the age of the children. By considering these two key groups, we can gain valuable insights that contribute to a comprehensive understanding of parental involvement and its influence on children's learning process.

Stratified random sampling was used to guarantee that the sample was representative of the population. By categorizing the participants into those who are local and those who are displaced, I could ensure each group was adequately represented. This approach enabled the researcher to capture the unique characteristics and experiences of both local and displaced populations, facilitating meaningful comparisons between the two groups. Furthermore, the adoption of stratified random sampling effectively reduced potential biases by guaranteeing that each group is represented in the sample in proportion to their size. Therefore, the relationship between the sample and population is one of representation, where the sample serves as a microcosm of the broader population, allowing for meaningful insights.

The distribution and collection of the questionnaire took place from October 2021 to February 2022. The setting is three provinces of Iraqi Kurdistan (Erbil, Sulaymaniyah and Dohuk), including the displaced people in the camps of the three provinces. There were three main reasons for choosing this research site. First, almost all the displaced people, Syrian refugees and internally displaced people (IDP) in Iraq have resided in the Kurdistan region, which shows the logic of comparing the two groups (host community and displaced). Second, the researcher is from the region and has experienced life as a local and displaced, making it feasible for him to be provided with facilities to conduct the research, such as access to both the teachers and student parents for consent purposes. Finally, no prior research had been conducted on the site on parental involvement and roles in the learning process.

The sampling design was the selection of local and camp schools and schools in the region's three provinces. For the purposes of comparison with the camp schools, several local schools in the same region were selected based on random sampling. The number of parent participants was

567 parents (displaced=219, host community=348). The number of teachers was 130 participants (teachers of displaced students=49, teachers of host community students=80). The parent population included parents with children in basic schools who lived in the region. The population of teachers consisted of those who were currently teaching in the public schools. A questionnaire was used as the instrument to obtain the parents' and teachers' views and understand parents' roles in their children's learning process. As Kothari (2004) pointed out, several positive considerations lend credence to the choice to employ a questionnaire for the data collection. First, surveys remove the need for in-person meetings, making them a cost-effective option, especially when surveying a large and geographically distributed population. Furthermore, they remove interviewer bias to guarantee objectivity, which in turn increases the reliability of the data obtained by letting respondents use their own words. Thirdly, questionnaires give people plenty of time to think about it, which makes them more likely to give detailed and meaningful answers. Furthermore, they make data collecting more inclusive by making information available to people who might not be easily reached in traditional ways. In addition, surveys allow for the use of big samples, which increases the trustworthiness and validity of the data collected, making them an excellent instrument for all-encompassing research projects.

Moreover, the instruments' focus was on getting information regarding the participants' views and roles in the parental involvement practices and differences that may occur in the different socioeconomic statuses and environments.

V.1.2 Measuring instrument

Questionnaires are a collection of statements or questions on a subject intended to be completed by participants. According to Nunan (1992, p.231), "A questionnaire is an instrument for the collection of data, usually in written form, consisting of open and/or closed questions and other probes requiring a response from subjects."

The questionnaires consisted of three blocks (Block I: Demography of parents, Block II: The role of parents in children's education and Block III: Teachers' perception about parental roles). Demographic information can influence human activities, including educational, economic, and social trends. Thus, it can provide essential explanations in the analysis step. Parents' role in children's education block contained five Likert Scale questions (from always to never) that allowed the participants to answer precisely. Also, the teachers' perception block provided a

similar scale for teachers that helped the researcher to follow the parental roles in the view of teachers and factors that may affect the parent's involvement process.

"written questionnaires enable the researcher to collect data in field settings and the data obtained are more amenable to quantification than those collected through freeform field notes, participant observing journals or the transcripts of oral language" (Nunan, 1992, p.149).

The questionnaires were designed to translate the aims of the study into precise questions and the answers to which provide the data to test hypotheses—each question related to the aims to allow for proper analysis and interpretation of the responses. Furthermore, the questionnaire was also designed to encourage responders to provide the requested information. A courteous letter to explain the study's aim and significance was added, and it reassured the respondents that the data would be treated as confidential.

To help the respondents answer the questionnaire, the language of the questionnaire was revised by experts in the target languages (Kurdish and Arabic). This could help to make the terminologies understandable and straightforward by avoiding ambiguous language. Furthermore, questions arrangement and length of the questions were also taken into consideration to avoid boring the respondents.

The researcher followed several procedures prior to the start of the investigation. He gained authorisation from the University of Debrecen. Following approval from the university's doctoral school, the researcher addressed a letter to the international students' office requesting permission to conduct the study outside Hungary. Following system approval, the researcher flew home to deliver a permission letter from the Ministry of Education in Kurdistan region for access to schools in displaced camps and local ones. Following that, he personally spoke with the school principals, explaining the study's purpose and seeking participation in the study. The researcher began distributing parent and teacher surveys after the administrators verified their participation readiness. Parent questionnaires were delivered to the school and sent home with the children. A cover letter addressing the purpose of the study and the importance of survey completion was included with the survey. Each survey was sealed in its own envelope. Parents were advised to complete the survey, seal it in the return envelope, and send it to the school within one week. The parents' completed and returned survey served as evidence of informed permission (Fink, 2003). After collecting the surveys, the researcher inputted the data into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

When it comes to managing quality surveys, the researcher's responsibility is absolutely essential (Fink, 2003). With the assistance of his supervisors and a few professors from the University of Debrecen, the researcher packaged the survey. It included a cover letter, a self-addressed envelope, and instructions to return the survey to the schools by the due date. The researcher then handed out the survey to the student's parents and teachers in camps and local schools. After doing so, the researcher was responsible for collecting the questionnaires from the collection boxes, entering the data into SPSS for data analysis, and reporting the study findings.

V.1.3 Pilot study

Following the development of the instruments, a pilot study was carried out with 51 participants, student parents from each groups, local and displaced ones. The participants were volunteers and participated in the pilot study during the spring semester of the 2020- 2021 academic year.

The pilot test was a preliminary action before collecting data for grade 8th and 9th student parents. The process helped clarify the procedures the researcher needed to follow in data collection later on and point to any necessary changes in the instrument or the procedures for validity and reliability reasons. The data were distributed and collected by a researcher colleague with a master's in teaching English. Due to the pandemic restrictions, the researcher requested that colleagues carry out the pilot study with the guidance of supervisors. The participants were given free time to answer the questionnaire. Thus, despite the refining research method, identifying and addressing problems, the researcher could find the necessarily limited time for the participants later.

In March 2021, pilot research was conducted with local and displaced parents. After the questionnaires were gathered via questionnaires, they were computed using SPSS 22. As a result, the currently written questionnaire could be more reliable and be used in the main study. For reliability, the common themes, making codes, and common themes from the participants in the pilot study were analysed. Then they were confirmed by the supervisors. These steps helped fine-tune the procedures and assisted the researcher in revising the process.

Supervisors also evaluated the questions and confirmed that they were suitable considering the aim of the study. Two Debrecen university professors also tested the face validity of the questionnaire in the field of education as they could check it. They offered some

recommendations. These recommendations resulted in a few revisions to the questionnaire; consequently, it was determined to be a valid instrument.

V.1.4 Procedures

Since the study was designed to be a survey, questionnaires were previously developed by the researcher, the research supervisors, and experts in the field. In the second semester of his studies, in the 2020 academic year, the researcher planned to travel to the research site, but the Covid-19 pandemic prevented and the travel plan was cancelled. The spread of the virus later closed all schools worldwide, including the Kurdistan region. This led to add some specific questions to the questionnaire about the impact of the pandemic on education and parental involvement in such situation among the two mentioned groups.

The questionnaire questions were written in English. Then they were translated into Kurdish (for locals/host community) and Arabic (for displaced people). Translating into two languages ensured the participants could fully understand the statements in the language they preferred. The questionnaires were given to the students to choose among five options ("always, often, sometimes, rarely and never") to respond to the given statements.

In this research study, the written questionnaire was used as the data gathering instrument. The data were collected between November 2021 to January 2022. The questionnaires were distributed among target groups in the Kurdistan region provinces.

Before beginning data collection, the researcher requested permission from his university (University of Debrecen) to travel to the research site for data gathering purposes. After obtaining permission (see Appendix A), written permission was also obtained from the Ministry of Education in the Kurdistan region (see Appendix B). The researcher travelled to give printed questionnaires to each group of participants from parents and teachers during the allotted time. Before beginning data collection, the researcher explained the study's goal, and they were asked to answer correctly. Furthermore, students were advised before completing the questionnaire by their parents, that their responses would not influence their studies.

In order to know about the parental role in the learning process, the questionnaire was distributed to the student's parents and teachers from both the host community and displaced groups. The questionnaires provided the researcher with sufficient information for this study.

V.1.5 Ethical Considerations

Before beginning the study, the researcher addressed a number of ethical concerns. Permissions were granted from the doctorate school of education and the international office of the University of Debrecen. The students and their parents ensured that the results and their personal information were kept confidential, and everything was used for academic purposes only. The students, parents and teachers were informed to have the right to refuse or withdraw from participating in the study whenever they thought it was not easy to continue due to personal considerations or the duration of the data collection. To minimise disruption and respect the research sites, permission was gained from officials and individuals responsible for ensuring that the rights of participants protected—for example, Letter from governorates, educational directorates, security of camps and school board. These efforts were made to minimise possible researcher bias.

V.2 Data collection and analysis

V.2.1 Data collection challenges

When people are suffering to meet their most basic needs, data collecting becomes more complex, and education becomes a lower priority in their lives. While touring refugee schools in the camps, the researcher noticed that school management and teaching quality need improvement. There were insufficient teachers in the schools, and they were not furnished with suitable buildings to teach the students. Refugee camps and IDP camps had various situations. One of the most severe issues the researcher encountered was a teacher strike in the refugee camps, which resulted in the closure of schools for a month. According to the Kurdistan Region's head of the Union of Syrian Kurdistan Teachers, the reason for this was that Syrian refugee teachers in Iraq's Kurdistan Region (KR) had not received their salary on a regular basis. Over a thousand Syrian teachers in Iraq's Kurdistan Region are going hungry because they have not gotten their salaries in nearly a year.

The European Union, the Gulf Fund for Support, and other non-governmental organisations have been notified of the financial concerns. UNICEF stopped providing financial assistance because its objective is that refugees should integrate into the host community, which means refugee students should be educated in local schools. The displaced students in the region attend segregated schools due to different reasons including language differences and curriculum variances and lack of schools. After pausing data collection for almost month, the researcher waited for the KRG's Ministry of Education to negotiate a solution and compensate the teachers.

According to North Press Agency (2021), the Kurdistan Region has 1,200 Syrian refugee teachers, some of whom have worked without salary for nine months and others for a year. The Syrian Kurdistan Teachers Union, founded in 2015 to lobby for Syrian refugee teachers' rights, recently reported that they met with the Minister of Education and received consent from the Council of Ministers to fund Syrian refugees' educational process, but no optimistic results were seen.

There are checkpoints at each camp's gate, and they control people's traffic. People living outside the camps should explain why they would enter the camps and show documents. Although the researcher had the permission paper from the ministry of education, it was not enough. The security forces had already checked all survey questions to ensure they were not used for any other purpose besides academic. So the work would have been more challenging if there had not been social connections to help ease work in the camps. There were similarities in many ways between internally displaced people and Syrian refugees. For example, most of them lived in camps, and a small portion lived in cities and towns. The condition of school buildings and services is primarily the same.

Nevertheless, economically, the camp's situations were different. Although both sides rely on the help of NGOs and the KRG to provide services, internally displaced people are paid by the Iraqi central government as well. Anyone who is an internally displaced person and a former government employee will receive a regular salary. School teachers' salaries and services are also provided. The Iraqi government supervises the schools in the Iraqi IDP camps with the help of the Kurdistan Regional Government.

Furthermore, the camp's economic situation made collecting data difficult. When the researcher gathered data among students' parents, they often predicted that he would work for a refugee assistance organisation, so he had to repeat that his work was only for academic purposes. This is despite being explained to them in a letter earlier. Most of those who did not return surveys were among displaced parents.

In addition to these, geographically, the three cities in the Kurdistan Region are far from each other, and this is not easy for an area where traffic reasons are not advanced. The region's area is 40,643 km²; therefore, the researcher stayed in each province for more than a week to do the work despite arrangements that started a few months before. Table 4 shows the location of camps.

Table 4

Location and type of the camps

Camp name	Province	Distance from the city	Camp type
Arbat	Sulaymaneyah	32 km	IDP
Arbat	Sulaymaneyah	25 km	Refugee
Ashti	Sulaymaneyah	26 km	IDP
Hasan Sham	Erbil	20 km	IDP
Bahrka	Erbil	11 km	IDP
Dibaga	Erbil	51 km	IDP
Qushtapa	Erbil	26 km	Refugee
Sharya	Dohuk	17 km	IDP
Kabarto	Dohuk	15 km	Refugee

Adapted from Joint Crisis Coordination Center website

V.2.2 Data analysis

Following the collection of the questionnaires, the data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22.0, in accordance with the study questions outlined in Chapter One. The means, percentages, and frequencies of the variables were calculated using the participants' responses in each group. Descriptive statistics were used to find out the percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations of the variables. ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests were used to identify the relationships among the means of more than two variables. In this study, ANOVA/Kruskal Wallis were used to identify whether there are differences among parents regarding their demographics and roles in their children's learning process. When significant differences were found, the researcher used post hoc analyses to determine the exact differences. The Independent Sample T-test and Mann-Whitney U tests were used to compare two variables, such as gender, as well as two groups of participants (host community and displaced parents). A *t*-test/Mann-Whitney U was used to determine whether the difference is statistically significant or not in order to find an answer to the research questions on parents' attitudes about parental roles. To determine whether or not there is a relationship between

some demographic variables and parental engagement, Spearman correlation tests were performed. The tests provided information about the association, or correlation, as well as the direction of the relationships of variables. Then Regression analysis was employed as a suitable method for examining the factors related to parental engagement, provided that the research aims are consistent with its underlying assumptions and prerequisites. The researchers thoroughly evaluated the characteristics of their data, the underlying assumptions, and the specific research inquiries in order to ascertain the appropriateness of utilising regression analysis as the preferred statistical methodology.

Research questions and hypotheses

In this chapter, the research questions were reiterated and hypothesised.

1. What and how socioeconomic factors influence parental involvement?

a. How do parents perceive their own roles compared to the roles of teachers in their children's education?

b. What criteria guide the parent groups for their decisions regarding school choice and dropout possibilities?

2. How can we characterise teacher-parent communications?

a. What different outcomes can be attributed to these communication efforts among the parent groups?

In the context of the teachers research, the research questions were as follows:

1. To what extent are parents aware of parental involvement?

2. How does the level of facilitations of parent involvement vary among participants?

3. What is the role of gender in parental involvement?

4. What characterises parent-teacher communications?

The research hypotheses were formulated as follows:

H1: The socioeconomic status and cultural and social capital of parents can influence their children's likelihood of dropping out.

H2: There are differences between the parenting roles of host community members and those of displaced people

H3: Parents do not see their roles as important as teachers in their children's education.

H4: Parents are not prepared for high level of involvement.

H5: There are less frequent meetings for displaced parents.

H6: Face-to-face meeting is the main mode of communication.

H7: Teachers have low expectations from parents regarding parent-teacher communication.

H8: Parents are dissatisfied with online education.

H9: There are associations between parents' sociodemographic background and the level of parental involvement.

V.3 Summary

This chapter provided the research design and the procedure for gathering data and explained how the data are going to be analysed. Then, information about the participants and the setting of the study was provided. Subsequently, the data collection tools, the processes followed for data collection, and statistical tests used for data analysis were presented. The chapter aimed to lead readers through the research process, offering transparency and clarity about how the study was conducted. This chapter ended with the methods of data analysis used. The following chapter will address the utilization of the qualitative research approach in acquiring the survey results.

Chapter VI. Education in perspective of parents

This chapter presents the results of the parents' data analysis. The descriptive information for the sample is presented. Research questions were tested using procedures described in the methodology chapter: chi-square and Spearman's correlation, the Mann-Whitney U test, and Kruskal-Wallis. A multinomial regression analysis was performed in the final stages of this chapter. There were four main research questions presented in this chapter. In this chapter, the statistical details of the demographic characteristics of parents are also presented. This study aimed to examine specific parents' roles in their children's learning process and their relationship with teachers among two groups: displaced and host community parents in the Kurdistan region of Iraq. The investigation included variables such as parents' educational background, marital status, number of children, family structure, financial situation, and place of residence.

VI.1 Characteristics of the sample

Eight and nine graders' parents in the public schools from the three provinces of the Kurdistan region of Iraq yielded a population of 567 parents. Simple random sampling was used to collect data from public schools in each of the provinces and their camps to provide a representative sample of parents. There were 698 surveys distributed to students parents, and 87 surveys were not returned. Of these returned surveys, usable data were analysed, while 44 surveys were unusable because of incomplete answers. Descriptive data are presented (in Table 5) to show the characteristics of the sample and provide a better understanding of the population of interest in the research. The research sample comprised 567 parents from two groups: the host community and internally displaced people (IDP).

The inclusion of descriptive data in research is of crucial significance as it facilitates the provision of a comprehensive and precise overview of the characteristics associated with a specific population under investigation. This study involved the collection of descriptive data from a sample of parents in order to get insight into their involvement in their children's learning process. The descriptive data encompassed various characteristics, namely gender, marital status, family type, educational background, and financial circumstances of the parents. The selection of these factors was based on their relevance to the study inquiries and their potential for clarifying the differences and similarities in parental engagement and attitudes towards their children's education.

Gender: The gender of parents was considered an important component in order to assess the degree to which the mother's and father's duties differ in the educational process.

Marital status: Given the impact of parents' marital status on the well-being of families, it was deemed a significant variable in relation to the research inquiries and subsequent data analysis.

Family types: The collection of data pertaining to family types was undertaken in order to gain insights into the structure and dynamics of families, as well as the interrelationships among family members. The classification of families was also based on the sociological categorization of families.

Educational backgrounds: A comprehensive understanding of parental participation and its impact on children's learning can be facilitated by considering parents' educational backgrounds. The participant's educational history was gathered to better understand their context and inform the analysis.

The financial status: The financial status of families can influence their decision-making processes concerning their children's future prospects and the provision of essential resources for their growth and education. To achieve this objective, parents were presented with a subjective question regarding their self-perceived financial situation.

Descriptive data plays a crucial role in providing a comprehensive description and facilitating comparisons across many features and dimensions of the study issue. Additionally, it can be beneficial to ascertain probable elements and variables that may exert impact or provide explanations for the research findings. Descriptive data serves as a foundational element for subsequent analysis and interpretation through the application of inferential statistics.

Table 5: Descriptive Data of Parents

Variables		N	Percent
Parent groups	Displaced	219	36.8
	Host community	348	61.4
	Total	567	100.0
Gender	Male	337	59.4
	Female	230	40.6
	Total	567	100.0
Marital status	Single	15	2.6

	Married	517	91.2
	Divorced	22	3.9
	Widow/Widowed	10	1.8
	Other	1	.2
	Missing data	2	.4
	Total	567	100.0
Family types	Nuclear family	453	79.9
	Single-parent family	47	7.9
	Extended family	48	8.5
	Grandparent family	8	1.4
	Stepfamily	7	1.2
	Missing data	5	.9
	Total	567	100.0
Educational level of parents	Primary school	197	34.7
	Secondary school	133	23.5
	High school	93	16.4
	Institute	70	12.3
	University	61	10.8
	Other (postgraduates)	13	2.3
	Total	567	100.0
Financial status of families	Very bad	49	8.6
	Bad	74	13.1
	Average	320	56.4
	Good	107	18.9
	Very good	16	2.8
	Total	567	100.0

For the inferential analysis concerning parents, we thoroughly examine and discuss the responses to the research questions outlined below:

1. What and how socioeconomic factors influence parental involvement?

a. How do parents perceive their own roles compared to the roles of teachers in their children's education?

b. What criteria guide the parent groups for their decisions regarding school choice and dropout possibilities?

2. How can we characterise teacher-parent communications?

a. What different outcomes can be attributed to these communication efforts among the parent groups?

VI.2 Parental involvement

VI.2.1 Dilemma of children's education or children's labour

Iraq has experienced multiple crises in recent years, resulting in a complex array of consequences. Disruption of children's education because of child labour was one of them. The presence of child labour in Iraq has been documented by International Rescue Committee and the United States Department of Labour, as evidenced by their respective reports (IRC, 2022; US Department of Labour, 2021). The Kurdistan region was not exempted from that phenomenon. According to a televised statement made by the KRG Minister of Labour and Social Affairs in 2021, it was reported that there is a presence of 1400 children engaged in active labour just in Sulaimani province (Rudaw, 2023). In addition to the legal implications associated with this phenomenon, there are several dimensions requiring investigation, including the involvement of parents.

Two questionnaire items related to how parents think about their children's quitting and working. "Do you think about letting your child quit his or her study at the present time?", "Do you want your child to work at the current time and resume studying later?". The items were constructed with frequency Likert-type scales. Items were asked the parents to respond on a 5-point scale ranging from "always" to "never". Following each of the questions, an open question "why" was addressed to the respondents to explain their opinions about each question. Then their answers

to the open questions were organised, read and coded to quantify them, i.e., turning the data from words into numbers.

The table shows parents' perspectives concerning their children quitting school. The table classifies the replies into five distinct degrees of frequency, namely "always," "often," "sometimes," "rarely," and "never". It represents the distribution of the responses. The prevailing response within the sample is "never," accounting for a substantial 85.0% of all replies. This finding suggests that a majority of parents have the belief that they support their children to continue their education. This can be translated as parents demonstrating confidence in the educational system and holding the belief that their children possess a strong dedication to the pursuit of knowledge. We can observe that not all parents share the same sentiments. Certain parents may have a degree of concern. As is shown, a total of 7.6% of respondents indicated a frequency of "rarely," while 3.9% reported a frequency of "sometimes." These parents demonstrate less confidence compared to the prevailing consensus regarding the long-term commitment of their children to their educational pursuits. This is a kind of acknowledgement that, on certain occasions, students and parents may encounter difficulties. Despite the low percentages, it demonstrates that a few parents are concerned about their children dropping out of school. It may be inferred that parents generally exhibit trust in the education system and possess confidence in their children's commitment to acquiring knowledge. Trust has a pivotal role as a fundamental element in fostering an educational partnership among parents, students, and schools.

The result raised the question of whether the type of parent group (displaced and non-displaced) is associated with considering quitting children by parents. A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the differences between the group of parents and parents thinking about letting their children quit. There was a significant difference between the two variables, $\chi^2(4, N = 567) = 48.886, p = .001$. Host community parents were less likely to think about quitting their children compared to displaced ones.

More questions emerged, such as: Why may parents think about quitting children? Do socio-economic gaps or personal experiences serve as underlying factors for their perceptions? An

open-ended question "why" was asked to find out why parents do or do not consider letting their children quit school. The parents' responses were as follows:

Table 6

Parents' reasons to consider let their children quit (Support) /not quit (Not support) their studies

Parents answers

Support	<p>Financial issue: "We're struggling financially, and it's making us consider whether we can continue to support our child's education."</p> <p>Child's choice: "Our child has expressed a strong desire to leave school, and we're considering his wishes if he will not be good at school."</p> <p>To start working: The child can start working so he can contribute to the household income.</p>
Not support	<p>Securing the child's future: "We believe that education is crucial for securing our child's future, so quitting school is not an option."</p> <p>Priority of education: "Education is our top priority; it's the key to our child's success."</p> <p>Life success through education: "We firmly believe that our child's success in life is closely tied to their education."</p> <p>Educational and personal development: "Education isn't just about academics; it's also about personal growth and development."</p> <p>Serving the community: "We understand that an educated child can make a positive impact on our community."</p> <p>Child's right: "We know that education is a basic right for our child, and we're committed to upholding that right."</p>

There were 149 respondents who answered the question. 27 participants considered letting their children quit school for three reasons: "financial problems, the child's own choice, work." Of these three reasons, financial problems played the lion's share. 116 participants expressed support for their children's continuing education for several reasons, as shown in Table 6. Children's future security, personality and educational development are among the most decisive factors for parents to support their children to continue studying.

Then the parents were then asked if they intended for their children to work and resume their studies later, and why. Additionally, it was important to find out whether there are associations between the two parental groups with respect to this issue.

Table 7

Parents' intention on their children's working and resume studying later, frequency and percentage, N=567, p=0.001

	always		often		sometimes		rarely		never	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Displaced	9	4.1%	9	4.1%	16	7.3%	18	8.2%	166	75.8%
Non-displaced	6	1.7%	3	0.9%	12	3.4%	15	4.3%	310	89.1%
Total	15	2.6%	12	2.1%	28	4.9%	33	5.8%	476	84.0%

A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the association between parent groups and parents' intention for their children to resume studying after working.. Displaced parents seem more likely to want their children to work and resume their studies later.

Parents were also posed an open-ended question "why" about their reasons for wanting/opposing their children working and then returning to school. When participants answered the question, their answers for supporting the idea of their children working now and returning to school later were classified. Family financial problems were again the main reason; other reasons included helping the family, health problems, and understanding the world of work to be ready for work in the future. The answers of those participants were against the idea of their children working now were also classified. They believed that their children's success in life depended on their commitment to their studies, many of whom saw education as a priority. Other reasons included the harmfulness of child labour and the harm of not completing school on time.

Table 8

Parents' reasons for supporting/against working and resume studying later

Parents' answers

Support Financial issue: "Due to financial challenges, we're pondering the feasibility of our child's continued education."

To help family: "Our family needs additional help, and we're considering the possibility of our child contributing to family responsibilities."

Health issue: "Considering our child's health concerns, we're thinking about adjustments to their schooling."

To understand the world of work: "We believe that gaining real-world work experience is important for our child's development, and we're considering options."

Not

Support Future success: "We believe that staying in school is essential for our child's future success."

To complete study in time: "We want our child to complete their studies on time and have a bright educational future."

Education is priority: "Education is a priority for us, and we're committed to ensuring our child receives a good education."

Suspense in study will have bad affect: "We're concerned that interruptions in our children's education could have negative consequences."

Working is not appropriate for a child: "We believe that work is not suitable for a child's development and education."

Parents' responsibility to support: "As parents, it's our responsibility to support our child's schooling."

Then, to understand whether financial status and the number of children is related to the intention of parents to think about quitting their children, a correlation test was performed.

As the variables were ordinal, Spearman's rho correlation coefficient was conducted to assess the correlation between intention to work, financial status, and the number of children. A relatively moderate and positive correlation was found between the two variables of intention to work and

financial status $r_s = .142$, $r_s = .142$, $p = .001$, $N = 566$, while there was a significant negative correlation between intention to work and the number of children, $r_s = -.111$, $p = .008$, $N = 567$. This implies that parents with little financial resources are more inclined to consider withdrawing their children from school, whereas parents with larger families are more likely to provide assistance for their children to stay in school.

Table 9

Correlation between the three variables: child work intention by parents, number of children and financial status.

			Intention to work	Number of children	Financial status
Spearman's rho	Intention to work	Correlation	1.000	-.111**	.142**
		Coefficient			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.008	.001
		N	567	567	566

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Research indicates that there are multiple reasons that contribute to early school leaving. These factors encompass several different variables, such as gender, religion, household responsibilities, engagement in wage labor, geographical location, age, familial factors, and environmental factors (Momo et al., 2019). The perspectives of parents on this subject may vary depending on their socioeconomic circumstances. For instance, the condition of being a displaced parent might exert a substantial influence on a family's consideration of their children's educational pursuits, potentially resulting in thinking of discontinuing their schooling. The phenomenon of displacement presents a multitude of issues that have the potential to impact parental involvement and the educational outcomes of children in diverse manners. A study conducted by Ellen and Kudzaiaalso (2013) in Zimbabwe found that internally displaced children frequently experience school absences due to their domestic responsibilities or the need to contribute to household finances. The researchers found that girls who are internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have domestic, childcare, and agricultural obligations have especially high rates of dropping out of post-primary education.

Financial difficulties in developing countries can put significant strain on parents, potentially forcing them to withdraw their children from school. Families in these areas frequently struggle with low economic means, which can be expressed in a variety of ways. For example, basic educational expenses such as uniforms, textbooks, and transportation fees can be a substantial barrier to education. Additionally, due to urgent economic pressures, parents may contemplate having their children engage in income-generating activities rather than formal education. This conflict between education and income is more apparent in circumstances where survival requirements come first (Chugh, 2011). Another crucial issue is resource allocation within the family unit. Due to limited financial resources, immediate needs such as food, shelter, and healthcare are frequently prioritized, potentially diverting resources away from education.

The pressure of financial issues on families and unawareness of child developing process and child rights may lead to child labour. Families may view informal labor as a more immediate benefit than formal education. In many developing countries, the informal labor market can give chances for youngsters to earn money, albeit under difficult conditions (Gibbs & Heaton, 2014). When parents attach their children's quitting to their choices, it can be regarded as a multifaceted issue. This could be due to external causes such as the financial condition, as well as internal factors such as a lack of awareness. Parents may be unaware of the long-term benefits of education or have limited access to information about the value of education. Because of this lack of information, they may underestimate the value of education and be readier to enable their child to drop out.

On another hand, cultural norms and societal expectations can have a considerable impact on parental decisions. In areas where access to high-quality education is limited, parents may be less inclined to keep their children in school. They may believe that the education provided is of poor quality or is not preparing their child for future prospects. In displaced cases, relocation or insecure living conditions might interrupt a child's educational continuity if they are moved.

The results also show majority of parents encourage their children to pursue education because they perceive it as a path to financial security, which will help put their children up for future success. They recognize its significance in their children's personal growth. Parents see it as a key to life success, not only academically, but also in character and overall well-being. Parents recognize that their children's education will benefit both them and their society. They value

education because it prepares young people to solve problems and make a difference. Some parents believe that providing their children with outstanding educational opportunities is a moral necessity because they believe their children have a right to do so. Parents who invest in their children's education strive to provide their children with the resources they require to achieve.

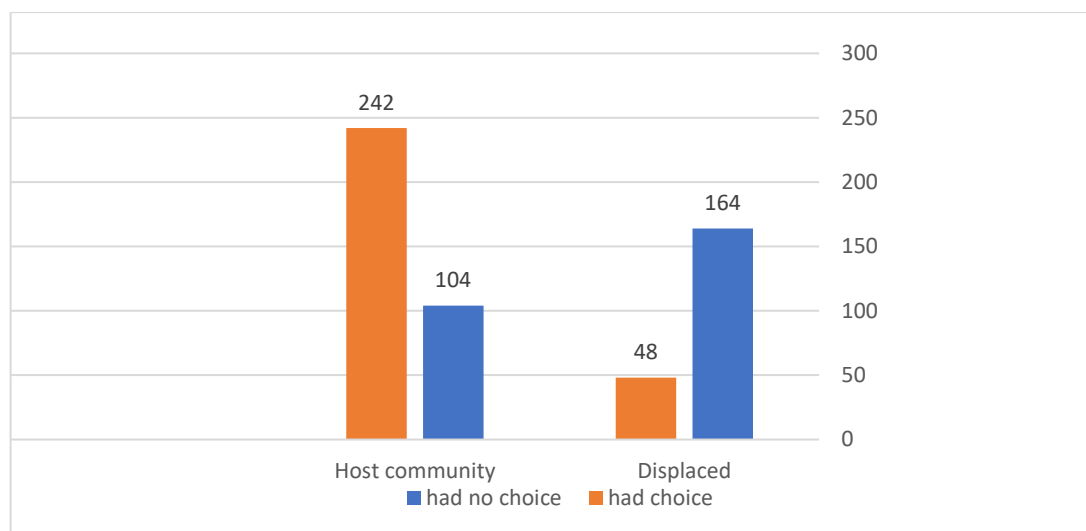
VI.2.2 Dilemma of school choice

Having the freedom to choose which school their child attends has several advantages for both parents and children. It facilitates individualised education by recognising that each child has distinct learning styles, interests, and requirements. Because of this flexibility, parents can find schools that cater to their child's individual needs, be they a focus on the arts, STEM topics, or a particular pedagogical approach. Moreover, the concept of school choice fosters an enhancement in the quality of education by encouraging competitiveness among schools.

The selection of schools can have a favourable impact on both the rate of students dropping out and their inclination to leave school. The parents were queried regarding the feasibility of exercising the option of school choice. In order to find out the parents' answers, the survey encompassed inquiries pertaining to the availability of such options and the factors that parents regard as significant in their decision-making process when selecting a school for their children.

Figure 2

Having school choice between displaced and non-displaced parents, *frequency*, $N=558$



The findings shown in Figure 2 a significant difference in the availability of school options for parents from the host community and those who have been displaced. This study involved surveying a sample of 558 participants to assess their capacity to select educational institutions for their children. Among the respondents, 212 were identified as displaced parents, while the remaining 346 belonged to the host community. Out of the group of displaced parents, a total of 164 participants responded negatively when queried about their ability to choose a school, whereas 46 individuals provided an affirmative response. These findings reveal that a considerable number of parents who were displaced, specifically 78% (164 out of 210), reported a lack of autonomy in selecting schools for their children. In contrast, a mere 22% (46 out of 210) claimed that they possessed the ability to exercise this decision. In contrast, within the host community, a total of 104 respondents indicated a negative response when queried about their access to school choice, but a significant majority of 242 respondents expressed an affirmative response. These findings suggest that a smaller proportion of parents from the host community, specifically around 30% (104 out of 346), reported a lack of access to school choice, whereas a considerably larger proportion, approximately 70% (242 out of 346), expressed the belief that they had the ability to select schools for their children. The data indicates that host community parents possess more autonomy in selecting schools for their children in comparison to displaced parents.

Table 10 presents Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance for parents' school choices. Levene's test revealed that group variances were significantly different. Also, a Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011), an inspection of the skewness and kurtosis measures the standard errors (Doane & Seward, 2011), and a visual inspection of their histogram, normal Q-Q plots and box plots showed that the sample data were not approximately normally distributed; therefore, non-parametric analyses for the variables were conducted.

Table 10

Test of Homogeneity of Variances for criteria of parents' choices of school for their children

Parents' choices	Levene's Statistic	P
environment	3.398	.066
equipment	.309	.579
Method	9.428	.002
student types	1.561	.213
Location	9.744	.002
Teachers	19.315	.000

p<0.5

The next table shows the Mann-Whitney U test, which is used to compare the differences between two independent samples when the sample distributions are not normally distributed.

Mann-Whitney U tests were used to identify specific differences between the two groups regarding the criteria of parents' choice of school for their children. Every single item (environment, equipment, method of teaching, student type, location, and teacher) with the choices "not important, important, very important" was used to measure each criterion. The test revealed significant differences between the two groups in the method of teaching. Displaced parents (Mdn = 4) and host community parents (Mdn = 4) $U(53 = 243) = 5384.50, z = -2.313, p < .02$. For student type, significant differences were also found between the two groups. Displaced parents (Mdn = 3) were lower than those of host community parents (Mdn = 4). $U(53 = 243) = 4474.50, z = -3.923, p < .001$. When teachers were taken into account, the two groups also differed significantly. Displaced parents (Mdn = 3) were lower than those of host community parents (Mdn = 4). $U(53 = 241) = 4659.50, z = -3.861, p < .001$. The variables of environment, equipment, and location were not determined to be statistically significant.

Table 11

Mann-Whitney U test: Parents' preferences are used to select schools for their children

Parent groups	Preferences	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	Mann-Whitney U	P
Displaced	Environment	53	135.44	7178.50	5747.50	.20
Host community		241	150.15	36186.50		
Total		294				
Displaced	Equipment	53	132.88	7042.50	5611.50	.12
Host community		241	150.72	36322.50		
Total		294				
Displaced	Method	53	128.59	6815.50	5384.50	.02*
Host community		243	152.84	37140.50		
Total		296				
Displaced	Student type	53	111.42	5905.50	4474.50	.001**
Host community		243	156.59	38050.50		
Total		296				
Displaced	Location	53	162.19	8596.00	5808.000	.14
Host community		241	144.27	34769.00		
Total		294				
Displaced	Teacher	53	114.92	5905.50	4659.50	.001**
Host community		241	154.67	38050.50		
Total		294				

* p<0.5

The findings indicated that parents consider student types, teacher quality, and methods of teaching as significant criteria while selecting a school for their children. In literature, these significant factors are present when parents choose schools for their children. Rosenqvist (2018) claims that parents frequently think about the peer group that their children will study with at school. Positive peer impact improves learning environments. According to the research conducted by (Pusztai et al., 2023), Hungarian parents mostly choose schools based on their goal

of providing a culturally and economically homogeneous atmosphere that is viewed as safer for their children. There is a noticeable increase in parental involvement both at home and in schools, which is linked to a stronger sense of religious devotion among parents, regardless of the type of educational institution. Hence, it is vital for parents to carefully select a school that fosters a constructive and all-encompassing environment. The aim of parents is to find a school that is in accordance with the specific requirements and preferences of their child. For example, displaced parents might prioritize schools that offer specialized support services as displacement education needs special education. According to Echenique and Yenmez (2015), parents place high importance on schools that actively foster diversity and inclusivity. Parents may actively search for schools that possess a diverse student population, as exposure to a wide range of perspectives and backgrounds has the potential to enhance their child's educational experience. Displaced parents may seek schools that embrace diversity and have a multicultural approach to education. Parents are concerned about the safety and well-being of their children. They may encourage parents to choose schools that have a good reputation for being safe and respectful places to learn, as this can improve their general education.

Teachers constituted a significant determinant in the selection of schools. This aligns with the findings of Cannata and Peñaloza (2008) research, which suggests that parents seek out teachers who possess robust qualifications and expertise in their respective fields. Existing research indicates that the quality of teachers plays a crucial role in determining the academic achievement of students. Furthermore, there can be substantial variations in teaching styles among teachers. Certain parents might demonstrate a preference for teachers who employ creative and engaging pedagogical techniques, whereas others may prioritise a more traditional approach to learning. Displaced families may place a higher value on schools that employ teachers with extensive experience and knowledge in effectively addressing the specific requirements of students who have encountered disruptions in their education. The efficacy of teaching methods ultimately depends on the unique learning style and requirements of each learner. The significance of educators is further underscored by the quality of the teacher-student relationship. According to Alsaudi (2016), the establishment of effective communication channels and the cultivation of a loving and supportive relationship between students and teachers have the potential to have an effective impact on students' motivation and academic performance, both inside the school environment and in their future pursuits.

The findings indicate that parents perceive the teaching methodology as a significant factor influencing their selection of schools for their children. Teaching strategies play a crucial role in enabling teachers and students to communicate effectively and develop a positive, mutually supportive relationship. The curriculum is also an essential part of the teaching method. According to Friedman et al. (2007), parents may actively pursue schools that provide curricula and educational philosophies that are in accordance with their own beliefs and objectives for their child's educational development. Curriculum serves as the principal guiding factor for educators in establishing the essential components of teaching and learning. Parents who value a holistic education for their children are more likely to send them to a school that provides several extracurricular opportunities. It is imaginable that parents who are not displaced anticipate a greater inclination towards contemporary methodologies and technological integration from teachers. Conversely, parents who have been through displacement might show a preference for educational institutions that provide adaptable teaching approaches to suit children who may possess educational deficiencies or have gaps in their education as a result of their displacement. The displaced parents might be more inclined towards schools that possess comprehensive crisis response policies and demonstrate flexibility in teaching methods.

VI.4 Parent involvement in the learning path of children

VI.4.1 Parents' roles in children's learning

The roles of parents and teachers are crucial in facilitating children's educational development. Understanding the responsibilities of individuals involved in the process of imparting knowledge and values to children is of paramount importance in exploring this area. The parents in the study were asked to provide their perspectives on the respective roles of teachers and parents in the educational process.

There were two questionnaire items related to the way parents thought about the share of parents and teachers in their children's learning about knowledge acquisition in school subjects and learning about values, morals, and habits. "According to you, who is responsible for a child's education (acquisition of knowledge about subject schools?)", "According to you, who is responsible for a child's education (learning about values, morals, ethics, and habits)?". Items were constructed with these options: "totally the parents' responsibility, mostly the parents' responsibility, equal responsibility between parents and teachers, mostly the teachers' responsibility, totally the teachers' responsibility". The provided table 12 offers the frequency of

parental perspectives on the responsibility for their children's learning. It especially investigates two unique dimensions, namely "knowledge and information" and "values, morals, and habits." Within the domain of "knowledge and information," a substantial majority of parents (75.3%) hold the perception that the duty to impart knowledge is equally distributed between parents and teachers. This observation underscores the prevailing acknowledgement of the collaborative aspect of education, wherein parents and instructors are regarded as essential stakeholders in fostering a child's academic acquisition. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that a smaller yet noteworthy proportion (12.7%) of parents hold the belief that teachers bear a more prominent function or total responsibility for this particular facet of their child's education. On the other hand, within the realm of "values, morals, and habits," parents express a heightened level of accountability. A considerable majority of parents (41.8%) hold the belief that parents exert a greater influence than educators, and a noteworthy proportion (18.5%) even attribute the sole responsibility for imparting values and morals to parents. This discovery highlights the profound cultural significance attributed to the family unit and parental influence in forming a child's moral character and ethical ideals. Although teachers are acknowledged for their role in shaping values and morals, a mere 3.4% of parents regard them as having a greater impact in this particular area. This suggests that these values are deeply embedded in both broader society and the familial structure. From an educational standpoint, these findings provide significant insights. Gaining insight into these beliefs is crucial for developing positive relationships between parents and teachers, as well as for formulating educational approaches that are in harmony with these ingrained cultural principles.

Table 12

Parents' perspectives on learning responsibility, frequency and percentage, N=567, p=0.05

	Knowledge and information		Values, morals and habits	
	N	%	N	%
Parents completely	29	5.1%	105	18.5%
Parents more	35	6.2%	132	23.3%
Both equally	427	75.3%	306	54.0%
Teachers more	33	5.8%	6	1.1%
Teachers completely	39	6.9%	13	2.3%

A Chi-Square Test of Independence was also performed to assess the association between the parent groups and parents' opinions about parent/teacher roles regarding learning about subject schools. There was a significant association between the two variables, $X^2 (5, N = 567) = 10.987, p = .05$. While the same question regarding value or morals was assessed through the Chi-square test, it was not found significant.

Table 13

Parents groups' perspectives on learning responsibility (school subjects, morals, ethics and habits)

Forms of responsibility	Parent groups	parents			teachers			teachers			
		completely		parents more	both equally	more	completely				
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Responsibility for knowledge acquisition	Displaced	6	20.7%	10	28.6%	180	42.2%	8	24.2%	14	35.9%
	Host community	23	79.3%	25	71.4%	247	57.8%	25	75.8%	25	64.1%
	Total	29	100.0%	35	100.0%	427	100.0%	33	100.0%	39	100.0%
Responsibility for values, morals and habits	Displaced	30	28.6%	55	41.7%	126	41.2%	2	33.3%	6	46.2%
	Host community	75	71.4%	77	58.3%	180	58.8%	4	66.7%	7	53.8%
	Total	105	100.0%	132	100.0%	306	100.0%	6	100.0%	13	100.0%

Within the domain of education, the impartation of values and ethics assumes an essential place in shaping the moral disposition and ethical principles of students. Teachers and parents both fulfil crucial roles in this process, each employing distinct ways and exerting impacts. Throughout history, educators have been widely regarded as prominent figures who serve as both influential role models and facilitators in bridging the gap between the curriculum and students. In societies of intermediate development, a central emphasis was placed on transmitting knowledge and culture to children belonging to privileged social classes. The objective was to equip students with the necessary knowledge and abilities to fulfil their societal

responsibilities, with a particular emphasis on preparing them for the demands of industrialised societies and the learning of fundamental workforce competencies. Arrow (2012) indicates that due to the ever-changing nature of society and its underlying values, both the values themselves and the sources from which they originate have the potential to undergo transformation. The successful implementation of this endeavour necessitates a strong partnership and mutual comprehension among all stakeholders, including parents, educators, and students. This transformation usually faces challenges for different reasons, such as a lack of understanding, cultural and religious barriers, and leadership issues. The research conducted by Idema and Phalet (2007) on Turkish families residing in Germany provides more support for the notion that disparities exist between parental socialisation standards and the values held by adolescents. The research indicates that adolescents show a moderate level of acceptance of family values. In another study by (Pusztai & Engler, 2020), parents and teachers were asked about educational values and goals. The results showed that the educational principles of both the families and the school were the same. This suggests that parents may have selected the school based on its educational profile.

However, this acceptance is subject to changes, primarily stemming from conflicts between conventional family beliefs and those prevalent in the host community. These variances were particularly prominent in relation to gender roles. Parents have a crucial role in the transmission of values and ethics, as they are the first educators and moral guides in their children's lives. As a result, they provide the groundwork for their ethical growth. Similarly, due to the continuously changing societal context, it is imperative to acknowledge the substantial impact that educators have in instilling values and ethical principles in students. The teacher's function as a facilitator of knowledge extends beyond the mere transmission of knowledge and facts. The process entails establishing a conducive and all-encompassing educational setting wherein students can cultivate their abilities in critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making. In summary, it can be asserted that both parents and teachers play separate and significant roles in the formation and development of children's values and ethics. Collaboration and communication between educators are crucial in delivering a comprehensive education in values and ethics to students, thereby equipping them with the necessary tools to negotiate the intricate challenges of contemporary society while upholding a robust ethical framework.

While the parent group's association with learning knowledge and information was found, further investigation was required to see how the two groups differed in their home-based involvement to assist their children in the learning process.

There were three questions in the survey that dealt with parental engagement at home to know how frequently they help their children learn at home. "How often do you help your child to do well at school?", "As a parent, to what extent do you try to have an impact on your child's learning process?", "To what extent do you understand the work, projects, and assignments your child brings home from school?". Items were constructed with these options: "always, often, sometimes, rarely, never".

Table 14

Frequency of involving in home-based activities among parents. N= 567

	Helping to do well at school		Impact on learning		Assignment understanding	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
always	269	47.4%	293	51.7%	150	26.5%
often	184	32.5%	193	34.0%	187	33.0%
sometimes	74	13.1%	51	9.0%	145	25.6%
rarely	23	4.1%	15	2.6%	62	10.9%
never	14	2.5%	12	2.1%	16	2.8%

Table 14 shows the home-based involvement of parents. It provides valuable insights into the contributions parents make to their involvement in home-based activities.

Almost 80% of parents indicate a high level of engagement in assisting their children to do well in school. Also, a significant proportion of parents, 86%, actively endeavor to have a positive influence on their children's educational development, so underscoring the significance of parental involvement in fostering academic progress. The considerable degree of involvement observed indicates a notable inclination among parents to actively contribute to their children's educational pursuits.

However, in the context of comprehending their children's assignment, projects and tasks, a dichotomy becomes apparent. Although parents are easily accessible for assistance, a lesser proportion, roughly 59%, report actively participating in and comprehending the assigned tasks.

This implies that although parents are enthusiastic about offering assistance, there can be significant gaps in their understanding of the schoolwork given to their children. Significantly more than one-third of parents report understanding assignments only "Sometimes," "Rarely," or "Never," indicating a potential need for improved communication between schools and parents, as well as initiatives to improve parental understanding of academic content and expectations. A study in Hungary among parents revealed a shared desire among parents, particularly those with a low level of education, to acquire methodological assistance and training for facilitating home-based learning (Engler, 2020).

The parents' education level should be taken into account in order to comprehend the intriguing contrast that emerged. The research indicated that an important percentage of parents did not have a high level of formal education. Approximately 35% of parents have attained a primary school education, and 23.5% have completed their secondary education. Furthermore, 16.4% of parents have accomplished the completion of high school. This pattern indicates that a considerable percentage of parents may lack higher educational qualifications.

Parents who have a limited educational background may face challenges in comprehending the intricacies of complex assignments. This could potentially account for the lower percentage of parents who indicate a complete understanding of the tasks.

These findings highlight the importance of adapting parent support and communication methods to the wide range of parental educational experiences. One way to increase parental involvement and improve students' educational experiences and outcomes is to make it easier for parents of all educational backgrounds to find the information and assistance they need to better understand their children's schoolwork. In order to establish a more inclusive and supportive educational environment, these findings highlight the significance of not just increasing parental involvement but also addressing potential hurdles resulting from different parental educational backgrounds.

Then, a Man-Whitney U test was performed to compare the two groups of parents' involvement efforts at home. After checking the findings of the Test of Homogeneity of Variances (given in table 15) and the Shapiro Wilk test for normality distribution, it was decided to run the Mann-Whitney U test to see if there were any differences in the mean ranks of the variables.

Table 15

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Parents home-based involvement

Home based involvement types	Levene's Statistic	p
Helping to do well at school	3.455	.064
Trying to impact on child's learning	.005	.942
Understanding child's assignments/projects/work	5.041	.025

The Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences between the two groups in helping their children to do well at school. Displaced parents (*Mdn* =2) were greater than host community parents (*Mdn* =1). $U(219 = 348) = 33.482, z = -2.630, p < .009$. In relation to trying to impact on child's learning, significant differences were also found between the two groups. Displaced parents (*Mdn* =2) were greater than those of host community parents (*Mdn* =1) $U(219 = 348) = 33.720, z = -2.547, p < .01$. When understanding of assignments were taken into account, the two groups also differed significantly. Displaced parents (*Mdn* = 2) and host community parents (*Mdn* = 2). $U = (219=348) = 30.872, z = -3.954, p < .001$.

Table 16

Mann Whitney U test for home-based involvement of parents

Parent groups	Home based involvement	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	Mann Whitney U	P
Displaced		219	305.11	66820.00	33.482	.009**
Host community	Helping to do well at school	348	270.71	94208.00		
Total		567				
Displaced		219	304.03	66582.00	33.720	.01**
Host community	Trying to impact on child's learning	348	271.40	94446.00		
Total		567				
Displaced		219	317.03	60257.00	30.872	.001**
Host community	Understanding child's assignments/projects/work	348	263.21	82588.00		
Total		567				

* p < 0.5

VI.4.2 Factors influencing parental involvement

Prior to conducting the appropriate test, normality distribution and homogeneity of variance tests were performed. A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011), an inspection of the skewness and kurtosis measures the standard errors (Doane & Seward, 2011), and a visual inspection of their histogram, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots showed that the sample data were not approximately normally distributed. Levene's test was used to verify the quality of variance in the samples (homogeneity of variance) ($p > 0.05$) (Nordstokke et al., 2010).

Table 17

Levene's test of homogeneity of variance for socioeconomic factors

Socioeconomic factors	Levene's Statistic	P
Time	1.978	.08
Income	2.387	.03
Education level of parents	1.355	.24
Number of children	7.688	.001

The Mann-Whitney U test, shown in Table 18, is used to compare differences between two independent samples when the sample distributions are not normally distributed.

Mann-Whitney U tests were utilised to distinguish particular differences between the two groups in terms of how socioeconomic factors influence parental engagement. Each factor was assessed using a single item with the response options "not important, important, very important". The test found that there are substantial differences between the two groups with regard to time. Here, time is related to the allocation and availability of time and its quality for parental involvement activities. Displaced parents ($Mdn = 3$) were lower than host community parents ($Mdn = 4$) $U(218 = 338) = 31026.500, z = -3.498, p = .001$. On the level of education, there were also significant differences between the two groups. Displaced parents ($Mdn = 3$) and host community parents ($Mdn = 3$). $U(219 = 337) = 32319.000, z = -2.661, p = .007$. It was discovered that neither the income nor the number of children variables were statistically significant.

Table 18

Mann-Whitney U test for Socioeconomic factors influencing the parents' involvement

Parent groups	Socioeconomic factors	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	Mann-Whitney U	P
Displaced		218	251.82	54897.50	31026.500	
Host community	Time	338	295.71	99948.50		.001**
Total		556				
Displaced		218	278.06	60616.00	36067.000	
Host community	Income	334	275.49	92012.00		.84
Total		552				
Displaced		218	257.58	56409.00	32319.000	
Host community	Education level	337	292.10	98437.00		.007**
Total		556				
Displaced		216	266.98	57668.00	34232.000	
Host community	Number of children	335	281.81	94408.00		.26
Total		351				

* p<0.5

Following that, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine the potential impact of education level on socioeconomic factor preferences for enhanced parental participation.

As was mentioned, the results of normal distribution tests and Levene's test for socioeconomic factors were significant; therefore, the assumptions for the Kruskal-Wallis test as an alternative for ANOVA were considered to have been met. A Kruskal-Wallis test provided very strong evidence of a difference ($p < .001$) between the mean ranks of pairs of education levels in relation to income. This statistically significant finding shows that parents of different educational backgrounds have distinct perceptions of the role that financial resources play in shaping their involvement. Dunn's pairwise tests were carried out for the pairs to detect the specific differences

between education levels. Differences were found between "primary school and secondary school", "primary school and high school" and "primary school and university". Additionally, there were significant differences ($p < .04$) between the mean ranks of pairs of education level variables in relation to education level. A difference in parents' perceptions of the effect of their own educational attainment on their involvement in their children's educational experiences is marginally significant. However, the effect is not as big as the income factor. The post hoc test found a distinction between those who reported having "secondary school" degrees and those who reported having "university" degrees. The findings suggested that parents of diverse educational backgrounds do not have significantly different views on how their involvement in their children's schooling is affected by their own family size.

Table 19

Kruskal Wallis test for parental education level in relation to socioeconomic factor preferences for better involvement

Education level	Socioeconomic factors	N	Mean rank	X ²	P
Primary school		194	278.19		
Secondary school		129	266.53		
High school		92	291.23		
Institution	Time	69	274.14	2.273	.81
University		59	291.58		
Other (postgraduates)		13	275.65		
Total		556			
Primary school		194	313.76		
Secondary school		127	254.40		

High school	Income	90	253.82	20.775	.001**
Institution		70	268.72		
University		58	258.22		
Other (postgraduates)		13	216.85		
Total		552			
Primary school		191	278.30		
Secondary school		130	255.63		
High school		93	264.81		
Institution	Education level	70	297.46	10.759	.04*
University		59	326.84		
Other (postgraduates)		13	286.65		
Total		556			
Primary school		194	264.02		
Secondary school		125	276.64		
High school		90	299.96		
Institution	Number of children	69	277.59	3.846	.53
University		60	268.01		
Other (postgraduates)		13	306.65		
Total		551			

* p<0.5

Regression analysis

The regression analysis aimed to find out how the sociodemographic factors may relate to the parents involved in their children's education. There were several necessary steps to be taken to prepare the data for the regression before conducting the type of regression. The dependent variable was parental involvement. For creating the dependent variable, the K-means cluster in SPSS was used to make a variable. K-means clustering is typically employed in situations when there is no specified target variable being predicted. Instead, it is employed when you have a set of features you want to use to find collections of observations that share similar characteristics. Then five questions from the questionnaire related to parental involvement were selected, and the variable with three categories (highly involved parents, moderately involved parents, and not involved parents) was created (see Appendix E). The questions were: 1. How often do you help your child at school? 2. To what extent do you understand the work, assignments, and projects your child brings home from school? 3. Overall, how do you involve your child's education? 4. How often do you contact your child's teacher as a parent? 5. How often do you help your child to do well at school?

Furthermore, the value of the accuracy of the categorization of parental involvement generated by employing a multinomial logistic regression analysis was found to be 67.0%. In table 20 shows that the percentage for guessing parental involvement with highly involved categories correctly was 88.4%, suspecting parental involvement with moderately involved categories correctly at 41.4%, and suspecting parental involvement with not involved categories correctly at 4.9%.

Table 20

Classification accuracy test

Observed	Predicted			Percent correct
	Highly involved	Moderately involved	Not involved	
Highly involved	297	34	5	88.4%
Moderately involved	77	55	1	41.4%
Not involved	41	17	3	4.9%
Overall Percentage	78.3%	20.0%	1.7%	67.0%

Next, it was necessary to choose which form of regression to employ. A mathematical description of the relationship between a group of independent factors and a dependent variable can be obtained through regression analysis. Numerous types of regression models are available for application. This decision is frequently determined by the type of data available for the dependent variable and the model that provides the best fit. My dependent variable was nominal with three distinct options, so a multinomial logistic regression was utilised to analyse the data, with the underlying assumptions considered. Multinomial logistic regression is comparable to binary regression in some respects, but it has a broader range of applications because the dependent variable need not be dichotomous.

In the continuation of data preparation for the regression analysis, the data file was inspected for missing data, anomalies, and other issues that could disqualify a participant or compromise the data's integrity. Each variable's integrity was evaluated and determined to be intact. Similarly, each participant's redundant data points were eliminated.

All categorical variables were coded for use in SPSS. The gender variable was coded as 1 – male, 2 – female. The province variable was coded as 1 – Erbil, 2 – Sulaimani, 3 – Dohuk. Family structure variable, was coded as 1 – non-nuclear family, 2 – nuclear family. The education level

of parents was coded as 1 – basic school, 2 – high school and 3- graduate and post. The financial status variable was coded as 1 – poor, 2 – non-poor . The marital status of parents was coded as 1 – with no partner and 2 – with partner. The job variable was coded as 1 – no job and 2 – having job. Number of wife variable was coded as 1 – one wife, 2 more than one wife. The number of children variable was coded as 1 – one, 2 – two, 3 – three, 4 – four and 5 – more than four. Finally, age variable as a continuous variable was catagorised for two, 1- adults (25-64 years), 2 – seniors (65 years and over). The variable was catagorised based on provisional guidelines on standard international age classification (United Nations, 1982). The categorical form of the age variable was deemed preferable since it allowed for easier comparisons.

Table 21

Distribution of parental involvement and possible associated socio-demographic variables among parents; 2021 (n=567).

Variables	Total N (%)	Parental involvement			χ^2	P
		Highly involved [N (%)]	Moderately involved [N (%)]	Not involved [N (%)]		
Province					20.568	.000
Erbil	132 (24.0)	102 (77.3)	16 (12.1)	14 (10.6)		
Sulaimani	236 (43.0)	140 (59.3)	73 (30.9)	23 (9.7)		
Duhok	181(33.0)	104 (57.5)	50 (27.6)	27 (14.9)		
Gender					2.482	.289
Male	326(59.4)	201(61.7)	90(27.6)	35 (10.7)		
Female	223(40.6)	145 (65.0)	49 (22.0)	29 (13.0)		
Age					6.853	.033
Adult	312 (58.2)	191 (61.2)	76 (24.4)	45 (14.4)		
Senior	224 (41.8)	149 (66.5)	59 (26.3)	16 (7.1)		
Place of residence					36.762	.000
Displaced	218 (39.7)	104 (47.7)	80 (36.7)	34 (15.6)		
Non-displaced	331(60.3)	242 (73.1)	59 (17.8)	30 (9.1)		
Number of children					33.205	.000
One	12(2.2)	5(41.7)	4(33.3)	3 (25.0)		

Two	73 (13.3)	59 (80.8)	8 (11.0)	6 (8.2)		
Three	140 (25.5)	101 (72.1)	27 (19.3)	12 (8.6)		
Four	155 (28.2)	98 (63.2)	38 (24.5)	19 (12.3)		
More than four	169 (30.8)	83 (49.1)	62 (36.7)	24 (14.2)		
Family structure					10.615	.005
Non-nuclear	107 (19.7)	64 (59.8)	21 (19.6)	22 (20.6)		
Nuclear	437(80.3)	279(63.8)	116(26.5)	42(9.6)		
Education level					32.634	.000
Basic school	319 (58.1)	174 (54.5)	101 (31.7)	44 (13.8)		
High school	91 (16.6)	58 (63.7)	24 (26.4)	9 (9.9)		
University	139 (25.3)	114 (82.0)	14 (10.1)	11 (7.9)		
Financial status					6.532	.038
Bad	122 (22.2)	65 (53.3)	38 (31.1)	19 (15.6)		
Average &	427 (77.8)	281 (65.8)	101 (23.7)	45 (10.5)		
Good						
Marital status					6.237	.044
No partner	49 (8.9)	26 (53.1)	12 (24.5)	11 (22.4)		
Married	500 (91.1)	320 (64.0)	127 (25.4)	53 (10.6)		
Job					12.022	.002
No job	239 (43.5)	132 (55.2)	70 (29.3)	37 (15.5)		
Having job	310 (56.5)	214 (69.0)	69 (23.3)	27 (8.7)		
Wife number					3.333	.189
One	511 (93.1)	327 (64.0)	127 (24.9)	57 (11.2)		
More than one	38 (6.9)	19 (50.0)	12 (31.6)	7 (18.4)		

Assumptions of Multinomial Logistic Regression

I assessed whether the research data met the assumptions of the multinomial logistic regression model. The assumptions of multinomial logistic regression include a sample size that is large enough, the independence of irrelevant alternatives, the absence of multinomial linearity, the lack of significant outliers, and the absence of multicollinearity (Tolmie et al., 2011). In the subsequent sections, I show the statistical results obtained from tests conducted to assess each of the assumptions.

Appropriate sample size. Multinomial regression employs the maximum likelihood estimation method; thus, a large sample size is required. It employs numerous equations as well. This means that a large sample size is necessary. The minimum sample size requirements for multinomial logistic regression are 10 cases per independent variable (Bujang et al., 2018). Since it does not make the assumptions of normality and linearity, multinomial logistic regression is frequently regarded as an appealing method of analysis.

Multicollinearity. This assumption assumes that there is no multicollinearity among all predictor variables. This data set also passed this test because all of the variables were categorical, rather than linear or ordinal. Eventually, the maximal likelihood estimation technique is used in logistic regression to estimate model parameters. A minimum of 10 cases per predictor variable is suggested for the maximal likelihood estimation (Warner, 2013). After reviewing the numbers, it was confirmed that at least ten cases existed for each variable. The assumption was therefore fulfilled.

Table 22

Spearman rho correlation test

	Province	Gender	Age	Displaced or not	Child number	Family structure	parent education level	Financial status	Marital status	Job	Wife number
Province	1.000										
Gender	.020	1									
Age	.025	-.202	1								
Displaced or	-.099	.021	.010	1							
Children no.	-.026	-.137	.163	-.309	1						
Family structure	-.018	-.126	.021	.051	.119	1					
Parent education level	.029	-.009	.099	.119	-.109	.107	1				
Financial status	-.074	-.036	-.037	.400	-.179	.034	.185	1			
Marital status	-.003	-.123	.028	.085	.120	.518	.100	.078	1		
Job	-.056	-.218	.053	.357	-.166	.110	.357	.355	.031	1	
Wife number	.065	.074	-.038	-.071	-.009	-.185	-.128	-.144	-.309	-.059	1

correlation coefficient of >0.7

The results of Spearman's rho correlations indicated the absence of any potential multicollinearity among the independent variables. These tests looked the pairwise correlations between pairs of variables which may not necessarily show any group or full model effect. The variance inflation factor, also known as VIF, is an additional method that can be used to analyse the data in order to determine whether or not multicollinearity is present. In regression analysis, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) evaluates the severity of multicollinearity. It is a statistical term indicating the increase in the variance of a regression coefficient due to collinearity. (Miles, 2014). VIF < 3, indicates low correlation among variables under ideal conditions while a VIF above 10 indicates high correlation and is cause for concern. Besides VIF, multicollinearity can

be assessed based on tolerance values. Tolerance values less than 0.1 indicate multicollinearity problems. The results of my study of these multicollinearity measures can be found in Table 23.

Table 23

Multicollinearity test statistics for each independent variable

Variables regressed	VIF	Tolerance value
Province	.969	1.032
Gender	.846	1.183
Age	.891	1.122
Displaced or not	.705	1.419
Children number	.823	1.215
Family structure	.691	1.448
Parent Education level	.822	1.217
Financial status	.738	1.355
Marital status	.650	1.539
Job	.678	1.475
Wives no.	.887	1.128

Significant outliers

Logistic regression assumes that there aren't any highly influential "outlier" data points, which would change the model's outcome and accuracy. It should be noted that not all outliers are influential observations. Rather, outliers have the potential to be impactful. Standardized residuals were used to identify any outlying data points. Absolute standardised residual values above three suggest likely outliers in the data. The test was done and in the scatterplot, there were no outliers to be removed.

Research question analysis

The research question sought to determine whether there existed a predictive association between parental engagement and sociodemographic variables. The multinomial logistic regression model was correctly utilised to examine the prediction impact of each sociodemographic factor as an independent variable. I utilised SPSS v.22 to do a multinomial logistic regression analysis on

the study's data. The model fitting criteria presented in Table 24 display the computed -2 log likelihoods and the likelihood ratio (LR) test comparing the null model to the final model. The Chi-square statistic demonstrates the difference between the null model (no predictors) and the final model (fully fitted for all predictors). i.e. $p = .000$, which means that the full model statistically significantly predicts the dependent variable better than the intercept-only model alone.

Table 24

Model fitting statistics for null versus final regression models

Model	Model fitting Criteria	Likelihood ratio tests		
	-2 Log likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	840.900			
Final	714.231	126.670	34	.000

Table 25 shows the -2 log-likelihood of the reduced model for determining the importance of each independent predictor variable to the complete fitted model. The difference between the reduced model value and the full-fitted model value is the change in the model fit after that predictor was eliminated and was calculated using the Chi-square LR test. The Chi-square tests of (age, province, displaced or not, number of children and education level) had significant results ($p < .05$), while the variables of (gender, family structure, financial status, marital status, job, number of wives) were not significant.

Table 25

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria		Likelihood Ratio Tests	
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square*	df	Sig.
Intercept	714.231a	.000	0	.
Age	722.509	8.279	2	.016
Province	734.806	20.576	4	.000
Gender	714.632	.402	2	.818
Displaced.or.not	723.697	9.466	2	.009
Number of children	737.126	22.895	8	.004
Family structure	716.968	2.737	2	.254
Parent education level	741.509	27.279	4	.000
Financial status	715.171	.940	4	.919
Marital status	716.322	2.092	2	.351
Job	715.649	1.418	2	.492
Wife number	714.397	.166	2	.920

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

A bivariate chi-square test at $p = .05$ was conducted for the final model to determine the variables to be kept. The test showed that variables of (age, province, residence place, number of children, family structure, education level, financial status, marital status, and job) were significant except for gender and number of wives, which indicated that gender factor should be removed from the model. Still, the number of wives variable was kept. Variables showing a value of $p < .20$ (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000) in the bivariate analysis were tested in the multivariate model as confounders and effect modifiers and were kept when $p < .05$. The Chi-

square test indicated that the inclusion of these predictors improved the model fit. Since almost all the factor scores were significant to the fitted prediction model $p < .05$.

In order to demonstrate that the sociodemographic factor scores were significant for the predictive model of parental involvement, the degree of the influence that the adoption of these approaches had on the change in parental involvement was of interest. The R^2 statistic is a measure of how well a model fits the data. It comes from ordinary least squares regression and is based on the total variation of the dependent variable in a full model compared to the null (intercept only). For this study data, the pseudo R^2 statistics were low (Cox-Snell = .211; McFadden = .134; Nagelkerke = .255). Additionally, while each demographic factor score was significant to the improvement of the fitted model in the interpretation of the parameter estimates of the final model, each demographic factor score was not significant in the estimation of the odds ratios for each comparison. The fitted model coefficient B is exponentiated to create the odds ratio, $\text{Exp}(B)$. Since log likelihood statistics are used in logistic regression models, exponentiating this value yields an odds ratio (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 1989). Odds ratios of one meant that the reference outcome and the outcome event (parental participation) were equally likely to occur (highly involved). When the odds ratio was more than 1, it meant that the result event was more likely than the reference event, and when it was lower than 1, it meant that it was less likely. The range where there is 95% confidence ($p .05$) that the odds ratio of the true population resides between the boundaries is referred to as the 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio. If the 95% confidence interval of $\text{Exp}(B_i)$ includes a value of 1, the analysis fails to reject the null hypothesis since the coefficient of the predictor variable, B_i , was assumed to be zero (Kroonenberg, 2021).

Bivariate logistic regression

Bivariate analyses analyze the relationship between one independent variable and one dependent variable analyses to distinguish them from multivariable analyses, in which two or more independent variables are assessed in relation to a dependent outcome. In this analysis, bivariate logistic regression was employed separately for each independent variable with the dependent variable. The bivariate logistic regression results showed that all the selected variables were significant except the wife number variable, while in the multivariable analysis, variables of province, age, displaced or not, children and education level remained significant.

Table 26

Bivariate logistic regression

Variables		Moderately involved			Not involved		
		COR	95% CI		COR	95% CI	
Province	Erbil	.326	.175	.610	.529	.262	1.066
		1.085	.698	1.684	.633	.343	1.166
	Sulaimani						
	Dohuk*						
Age	Adult	1.005	.672	1.502	2.194	1.193	4.036
	Senior*						
Place of residence	Displaced	3.155	2.099	4.742	2.637	1.534	4.535
	Non-displaced*						
Number of children	One	1.071	.276	4.153	2.075	.462	9.315
	Two	.182	.081	.407	.352	.135	.914
	Three	.358	.209	.612	.411	.194	.871
	Four	.519	.315	.855	.670	.343	1.309
	More than four*						
Family structure	Non-nuclear nuclear	.789	.461	1.352	2.283	1.275	4.091
Parent Education level	Basic	4.727	2.576	8.671	2.621	1.299	5.286
	High	3.369	1.622	6.999	1.608	.631	4.100
	University*						
Financial status	bad	1.627	1.026	2.577	1.825	1.001	3.327
	good*						

Marital		1.163	.569	2.375	2.554	1.192	5.476
Status	No partner						
	Married*						
Job	No job	1.645	1.106	2.446	2.222	1.293	3.818
	Having job*						
Wife	One	.615	.290	1.303	.473	.190	1.177
number	More than*						
	one						

*The reference is: Highly involved parents, * reference*

Multivariable logistic regression analysis

My research question focused on determining how the sociodemographic background of the parents affected the level of parental involvement in the sample. The dependent variable of the multinomial logistic regression analysis took three values (highly involved parents, moderately involved parents and not involved parents). In the test, highly involved parents were selected to be the reference.

Compared to Duhok province, Erbil had a lower chance of having parents who were just moderately involved or not involved in their children's education. Parents in the capital province are more likely to be highly involved than those in Dohuk. Compared to the odd of parents from Dohuk, the odd of parents from Erbil having a moderate level of involvement were .300 [OAR = .300, 95% CI (.150, .599)]. Erbil's parents had a 57.4% lower risk of being uninvolved than Duhok parents [AOR=.426, %95 CI (.194, .934)].

Regarding the effect of age on the degrees of parental engagement, the findings indicated that parents who are in the adult age group (45-64 years) have a risk that is doubled and cut in half, respectively, of not being involved, in comparison to parents who are in the senior age group (65 and over years). The odd of not being involved were 2.510 times higher among adult parents compared to the senior group [AOR = 2.510, 95% CI (1.308, 4.818)].

The results for parents among displaced and non-displaced indicated that the chance of moderate involvement was more than double among displaced parents rather than non-displaced parents.

The odd of displaced parents being moderately involved were 2.341 times higher than the odd of non-displaced parents [AOR=2.341, %95 CI (1.357, 4.037)]

Compared to parents with more than four children, those with two or three children have a better chance of being highly involved in their children's education. The odd of moderately involved parents with two children was approximately .2 in comparison to the odd of parents with more than four children [AOR=.194, %95 CI (.077, .488)], and the odd of the same group of parents for not involvement was [AOR=.284, %95 CI (.093, .872)]. Parents with three children had a similar likelihood of being highly involved to parents with two children, but this likelihood was slightly lower than that of parents with two children. The odd for parents with three moderately involved children were [AOR=.464, %95 CI (.240, .897)] while the odd for parents who were not involved were [AOR=.389, %95 CI (.159, .949)].

Parents with basic and high school diplomas had the chance of being more involved moderately than parents with university degrees. The odd of parents with a basic school education being moderately involved were five times greater than those of parents with a university degree [AOR=5.468, %95 CI (2.680, 11.156)] while the odd of parents with a high school education level for moderate involvement were nearly three times as high as those of parents with a university degree [AOR = 2.895, 95% CI (1.273, 6.581)].

Table 27

Multivariable logistic regression

Variables		Moderately involved			Not involved		
		AOR	95% CI		AOR	95% CI	
Province	Erbil	.300	.150	.599	.426	.194	.934
	Sulaimani	1.101	.661	1.835	.683	.350	1.333
	Dohuk*						
Age	Adult	1.147	.720	1.828	2.510	1.308	4.818
	Senior*						
Place of residence	Displaced	2.341	1.357	4.037	1.724	.874	3.400
	Non-displaced*						
Number of children	One	1.563	.357	6.842	1.721	.323	9.161
	Two	.194	.077	.488	.284	.093	.872
	Three	.464	.240	.897	.389	.159	.949
	Four	.657	.366	1.179	.868	.407	1.850
	More than four*						
Family structure	Non-nuclear nuclear*	.685	.338	1.389	1.500	.681	3.303
Parent Education level	Basic	5.468	2.680	11.156	1.987	.894	4.415
	High	2.895	1.273	6.581	1.460	.525	4.065

	University*						
Financial status	bad	.812	.456	1.445	.934	.453	1.925
	good*						
Marital status	No partner	1.378	.499	3.805	2.181	.774	6.148
	Married*						
Job	No job	.793	.474	1.328	1.298	.673	2.504
	Having job*						
Wife number	One	.867	.355	2.115	1.091	.370	3.215
	More than one*						

*The reference is highly involved parents * reference*

Socioeconomic status is the most important predictor of parental involvement in their children's education. Many studies have found that the level of involvement of parents varies greatly depending on characteristics such as their financial situation, level of education, race/ethnicity, and level of linguistic proficiency (Jeynes, 2012; Hill, 2009). The value that parents place on education, as well as their readiness to encourage their children's academic achievement, are influenced by a number of factors, many of which are tied to cultural norms, beliefs, and practices.

Studies have shown, for instance, that parents with more education are more interested in their kids' schooling (Li & Qiu, 2018; Hill, 2009). This could be because parents who have a high level of education themselves are better able to help their children do well in school. Also, families where both parents have gone to college are better able to pay for their children's education.

Another significant indicator of parental involvement in their children's education is their income (Jeynes, 2012). Generally, parents with higher incomes are better able to assist their children pursue educational opportunities such as tutoring, individual classes, and educational trips. In addition to having greater access to learning-friendly materials and instruments, children from higher-income households typically enjoy a more secure and nurturing family life.

Other significant indicators of parental involvement in schooling include ethnicity and language ability. According to studies, minority parents and those whose first language is not English are frequently less likely to be interested in their children's education (Hill, 2009). Language challenges, a lack of experience with the educational system, and cultural norms that place a low priority on education or encourage deference to educators and school officials could all be contributing factors.

How involved parents are with their children can vary widely, depending on factors such as locale and context. Different levels of parental involvement have been found to exist in urban and rural settings, as well as between provinces and regions within a country. Peng (2021) conducted research in China and revealed that parental involvement was greater in cities than in rural areas. According to a Canadian study by Shankar et al. (2021), Ontario has the most involved parents in their children's schooling compared to any other province. Many factors, including culture, socioeconomic level, and educational policy, have been linked to variations in parental involvement. In addition, studies conducted in refugee camps have revealed that refugee parents and local parents can have varying levels of parental involvement. Refugee parents may be less involved in their children's schooling due to language hurdles, cultural differences, and trauma (Githembe, 2009). On the other hand, parents who live in the area may have easier access to resources and services that encourage parental involvement in their children's schools.

According to studies, parents' ages significantly affect their level of involvement. Naite (2021) discovered that parents under the age of 50 are more likely to be engaged in their children's education than parents over the age of 50 in international schools in Bangkok, Thailand. Shields and Hanneke (2008) found similar results, concluding that older parents are more likely to be involved in their children's academic and extracurricular activities. Fand and Chen's (2001) meta-analysis revealed a link between parental age and involvement. However, it is important to note that there may be individual differences that can affect parental involvement regardless of age.

Parental involvement in their children's schooling has been proven to be significantly correlated with parental education level. Parents with more education tend to be more involved in their children's schooling because they value education more highly and are better able to provide for and guide their children's academic development (Chen et al., 2018).

Henderson and Mapp (2002) found that parents who were actively engaged in their children's education and who had open lines of communication with teachers were more likely to have

students succeed in both the classroom and extracurricular activities. Higher-educated parents were shown to be more engaged with their children's schools, including through frequent communication with teachers, attendance at parent-teacher conferences, and involvement in extracurricular activities.

In addition, Shao et al. (2022) discovered that parental involvement with their children's assignments is positively correlated with parental education. Parents with greater degrees of education tend to provide more homework assistance and closely monitor their children's progress than parents with lower levels of education.

The level of parental involvement in their children's schools may vary with the size of the family. It has been revealed that parents who have fewer children are more invested in their children's education because they can better meet the individual needs of each child. For instance, Otto and Karbach's (2020) research shows that single-child families are more likely to participate in school activities than multi-child families in areas such as attending parent-teacher conferences and volunteering. Similar findings were found in a study by Deslandes et al. (1999), which found that family structure and parents' educational levels are associated to school accomplishment, as well as to parenting effectiveness and parental participation levels at the secondary level.

In conclusion, sociodemographic factors such as province, age, residential place, displaced and non-displaced status, parental education level, and number of children are important determinants of parental involvement levels in education. Understanding these factors can inform the development of policies and programs that promote parental involvement and ultimately improve educational outcomes for children. The variations in parental involvement can have significant implications for children's academic achievement and overall well-being. A lack of parental involvement has been associated with poor academic performance, low self-esteem, and behavioral problems in children. Thus, understanding the cultural, economic, and social factors that affect parental involvement in different contexts is essential for policymakers, educators, and parents to create effective strategies and policies to promote parental involvement in education.

VI.5 Parent-teacher communication

VI.5.1 Parents' perspectives on family-school communication

It is important to encourage parental involvement in their child's education by making them feel welcome and providing them with clear channels of communication. Parents who have a positive school experience are more likely to get involved, volunteer in their children's classrooms, and

have open lines of communication with teachers. They are also more likely to feel safe reaching out for assistance or discussing concerns. It can be challenging for parents to provide academic support for their children if they do not feel accepted at the school.

The study's participants received questions regarding this crucial aspect of parental involvement. They were initially questioned if they felt good and welcomed at school. This initial phase is seen as a crucial component in fostering effective communication that might contribute to improved outcomes for children in subsequent stages. The results showed that, despite the fact that both groups of parents feel almost equally welcome at school, the displaced parents had less communication with teachers. Building trust and cooperation, supporting varied families, and overcoming language difficulties are all possible obstacles. If they are recognised, supportive approaches could be found to develop of communications, especially in the case of displaced persons.

Table 28

Frequency of parents' positive feeling and welcomed at schools

	Always		Often		Sometime		Rarely		Never	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Feeling positive	203	35.8%	164	28.9%	99	17.5%	36	6.3%	47	8.3%
Feeling welcome	239	42.2%	167	29.5%	87	15.3%	42	7.4%	20	3.5%

Parents' feelings about their interactions with teachers and schools were sought out in two survey questions. "Do you feel positive when your child's teacher communicates with you about his/her learning?" and "Do you feel welcome at your child's school?" Likert scales based on frequency were used to design the items. On a 5-point scale, the parents were asked to respond to a range of questions with "always, often, usually, rarely, never."

In the column titled "Parents Feel Positive," a significant proportion of parents express a positive sentiment regarding their children's school. This finding suggests that a significant number of parents hold a positive outlook and express contentment with the educational setting. The positive outlook observed in parents can be attributed to their impression of the school's efficacy

in fostering their children's development and educational progress. The data presented in the "Parents Feel Welcome at School" column illustrates a comparable depiction. A considerable proportion of parents express a sense of being embraced and included within the school community. This implies that the school community effectively fosters an open and welcoming environment, ensuring that parents feel appreciated and at ease when interacting with them. In general, the results of this study indicate a cohesive and amicable association between parents and the educational institution, which is marked by optimism and an inclusive environment. Positive attitudes have the potential to play a significant role in fostering a supportive educational milieu, enriching the whole educational encounter for students.

A Chi-Square Test of Independence was used to investigate the association between parent groups and parents' positive feelings when communicating with teachers. The two variables had a significant connection, $X^2(4, N= 549) = 13.283, p = .01$.

Also, the association between parent groups and feeling welcomed at school was investigated using a Chi-Square Test of Independence. The link between the two variables was not statistically significant, $X^2(4, N= 555) = 7.982, p = .09$.

To gain a comprehensive understanding of the content within parent-teacher communications, further analysis was conducted with regards to the information offered to facilitate children's educational development. Two survey items focused on parent-teacher communication. "To what extent does your child's school give you clear information on how your child is getting on?" and "To what extent does your child's teacher give you practical information that you can use at home to help your child learn?" The items were designed using frequency-based Likert scales. The parents were asked to respond to the questions on a 5-point scale with "always, often, usually, rarely, never."

Table 29

Frequency of parent-teacher communications content components

	Giving information on child progress		Giving practical information to help children		Working closely to meet children's needs	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
always	125	22.0%	65	11.5%	52	9.2%
often	205	36.2%	155	27.3%	87	15.3%
sometimes	138	24.3%	142	25.0%	129	22.8%
rarely	61	10.8%	112	19.8%	136	24.0%
never	28	4.9%	81	14.3%	155	27.3%

The proportion and frequency distribution of reported teacher-parent communication about a child's progress are shown in Table 29. The results show that 82.5% of respondents reported that they either "always" or "often" have communications with teachers. Among this group, 36.2% of parents who responded "often" indicate that they keep in regular contact with their children's teachers. Noting that 15.1% of respondents indicate infrequent communication (combining the "rarely" and "never" categories) highlights a portion of parents who may not be actively participating in the educational dialogue. These findings underscore the need to address inequalities in parental engagement to guarantee that all parents are aware of and involved in their children's progress and have access to resources to assist their children at home. Following that, the parents were questioned about whether or not they received practical information to help their children. Three-fourths of parents claimed they are only rarely or never offered concrete tips on how to help their children. This raises concerns since these parents are not getting the knowledge they require to help their children learn. One crucial part of teacher-parent communication is the sharing of useful resources with families. In order to help their child study at home, parents must have this understanding. Practical information can include things like tips on how to help their children with homework, ways to deal with difficult behaviours at home, and resources and support services available in the community. The data also shows that parents

receive different practical information from their children's teachers. For instance, 11.7% of parents reported their child's teacher always gives them practical information, while 14.6% reported they never do. Teaching experience, training, and resources may explain this difference. Schools should guarantee that teachers give parents useful information to support their child's learning. Offering teachers professional development on how to communicate with parents and provide practical information tailored to each child's needs helps achieve this. Teachers require time, technology, and staff support to engage with parents. Practical information for parents can be improved. Conferences, emails, phone calls, notes, and extracurricular activities are all appropriate ways to keep parents updated. Teachers should be given the time and tools they need to build positive relationships with their students' families.

A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between parent groups and providing information about children learning. There was a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(4, N= 557) = 10.539, p = .03$. The same test was also performed to assess the relationship between parent groups and providing practical information to be used by parents to help their children learn at home. There was a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(4, N= 555) = 9.159, p = .05$.

Table 30

Descriptive statistics of connecting learning between home and school

Parent groups		Teachers help for parents about learning needs	Ensuring parent about their children's learning
displaced	Mean	3.2922	3.1982
	N	219	217
	Std. Deviation	1.23648	1.25181
Host community	Mean	3.5618	2.9532
	N	340	342
	Std. Deviation	1.32115	1.35193
Total	Mean	3.4562	3.0483
	N	559	559
	Std. Deviation	1.29424	1.31826

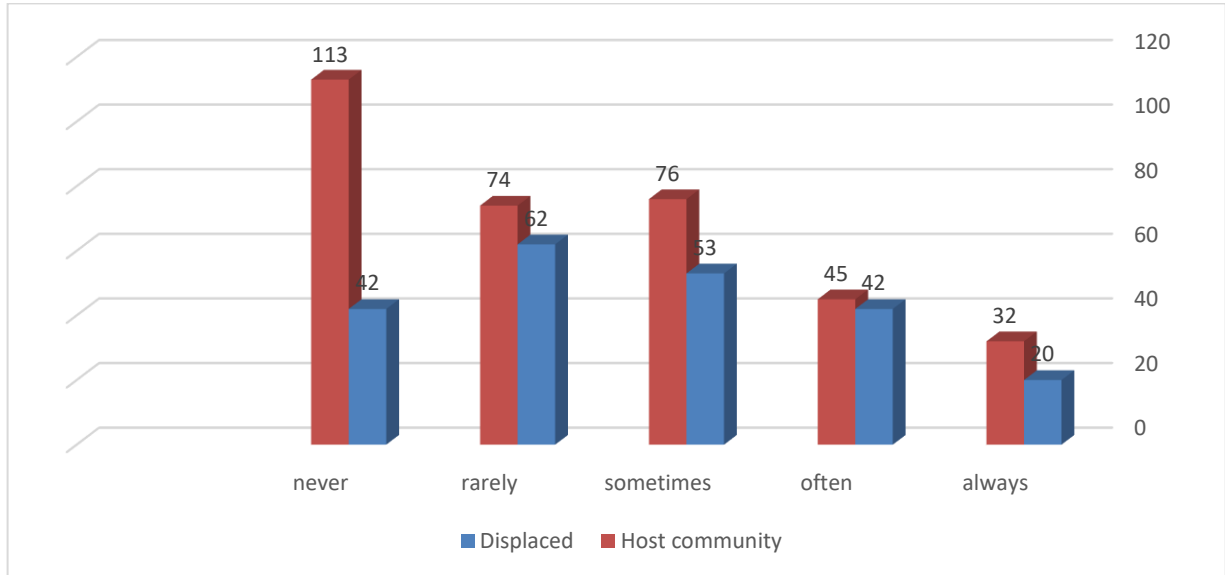
Two survey items focused on connecting learning between home and school. "Do teachers work closely with you to meet your child's learning needs?" and "Do teachers care about helping you understand what your child is learning?" The items were designed using frequency-based Likert scales. The parents were asked to respond to the questions on a 5-point scale with "always, often, usually, rarely, never".

Parent groups gave information about how frequent teachers help parents with their children's learning needs. There were 219 displaced parents and 340 parents from the host community. The mean score for this item among displaced parents was 3.29 (SD = 1.23), while it was 3.56 (SD = 1.33) for parents from the host community.

When asked about making sure parents know about their children's learning, 217 displaced parents and 342 people from the host community answered. According to descriptive data, the mean score for displaced parents was 3.19 (SD = 1.25), whereas the mean score for parents in the host community was 2.95 (SD = 1.33).

Figure 3

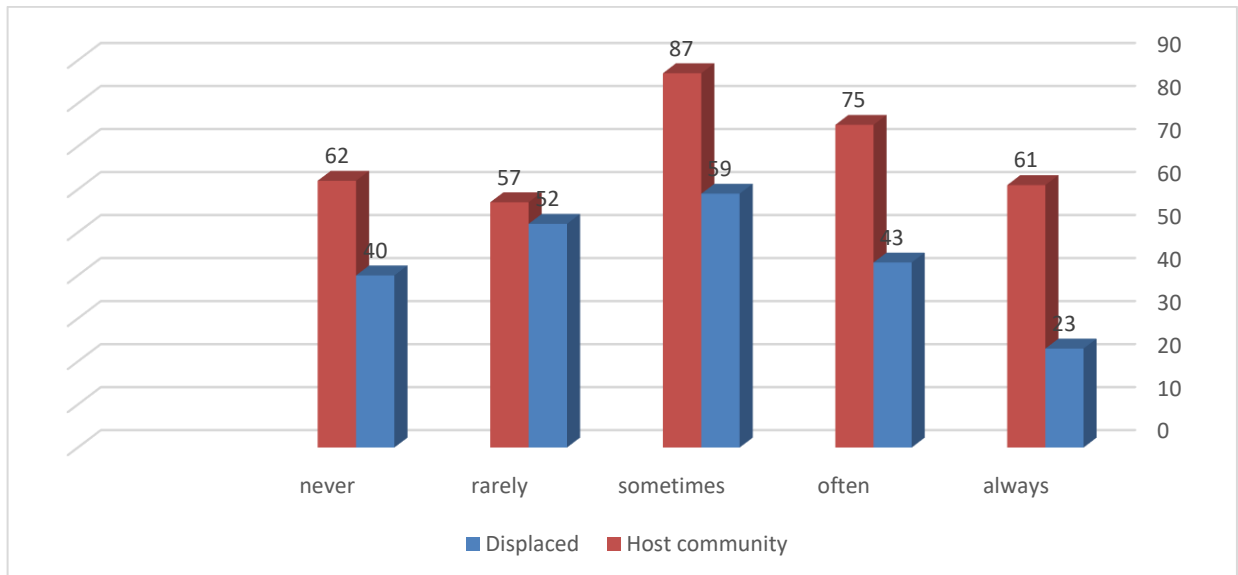
Frequency of teachers help for parents about learning needs



A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between parent groups and teachers' help for parents with learning needs. There was a significant relationship between the two variables, $\chi^2(4, N= 559) = 15.070, p = .005$.

Figure 4

Frequency of Ensuring parent about their children's learning



A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between parent groups and Ensuring parents about their children's learning. There was not a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(4, N= 559) = 8.696, p = .06$.

For more analysis, it was essential to have a good understanding of the frequency of communication between parents and teachers. This may lead to further development in the nature of the collaboration between the school and the parents, as well as the child's performance. It was also necessary to find out how differences between parent groups got shaped; therefore, it was imperative to do further investigation.

Table 31

Frequency of parent-teacher contacts

Parent groups	Daily		Weekly		Monthly		A few times a year		Never		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Displaced	28	71.8%	69	58.0%	78	35.6%	42	28.4%	2	6.1%	219	39.2%
Host community	11	28.2%	50	42.0%	141	64.4%	106	71.6%	31	93.9%	239	60.8%
Total	39	100.0%	119	100.0%	219	100.0%	148	100.0%	33	100.0%	558	100.0%

As shown in Table 31, 558 respondents, including 219 displaced and 239 host community parents, responded to the question. Parents were asked how frequently they communicate with teachers. The options provided were "daily, weekly, monthly, a few times a year, never." Monthly is the option repeated most often for both groups. Additionally, the least frequent option is never. It appears that the rate of contact is greater for displaced parents.

The association between parent groups and contacting teachers was evaluated using the Chi-Square Test of Independence. The association between the two variables was significant. $X^2(4, N = 558) = 58.633, p = .001$. Displaced parents were more likely to contact their children's teachers than those from the host community.

After that, to assess variances in parental group perceptions regarding communication methods (face-to-face, phone, email, social media, and through the child), a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. First, Shapiro-Wilk test for normality distribution and Levene's test for equality of variances were performed. The assumptions for the Mann-Whitney U test as an alternative for *t*-test were met.

Table 32 presents Levene's test for Homogeneity of Variance for means of communication used by parents.

Table 32

Test of Homogeneity of Variances for means of communication

Means of communication	Levene's Statistic	p
face to face	.176	.675
phone	1.278	.259
email	3.874	.050
social media	12.583	.000
child	.037	.849

The Mann-Whitney U test found differences between the two groups regarding face-to-face. Displaced parents (*Mdn* = 2) and host community parents (*Mdn* = 2) $U(121 = 322) = 30.585$, $z = -2.256$, $p = .02$. Concerning communication via children, there were also significant differences between the two groups. Displaced parents (*Mdn* = 3) were higher than host community parents (*Mdn* = 2). $U(208 = 281) = 32.179$, $z = -2.106$, $p = .03$. Phone, email, and social media were all shown to be statistically insignificant.

The Mann-Whitney U test indicates not only whether there is a statistically significant difference but also whether a group frequently has higher or lower scores. This is helpful in understanding the direction of the effect. The results show that displaced parents prefer direct interactions to those mediated by their children. That they prefer direct communication could be because they do not reach other methods of communication or other possible causes that lead to the difficulties parents face, such as language problems and cultural differences. As the Kurdish language is not recognised by the Syrian government as an official language in its territory, the parents of Kurdish

children could not receive lessons in Kurdish, while their children are now taught in Kurdish. This may create difficulties for refugee parents communicating through written or digital forms of communication. In contrast, the teachers working with Arab IDPs are either IDPs themselves or locals fluent in Arabic, so while the language barriers can be neglected, the cultural barrier is there. When this is taken into account, it is also worth noting that in Middle Eastern culture, face-to-face conversation is highly valued, while written or digital communication is considered less intimate or polite, or at least not very common for important issues.

Table 33

Mann-Whitney U test for parents using communication means

Parent groups	Communication types	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	of Mann-Whitney U	P
Displaced		121	284.23	60257.00	30.585	
Host community	Face to face	322	256.48	82588.00		.02*
Total		534				
Displaced		212	261.13	55360.50	29.757	
Host community	Phone	507	248.87	73417.50		.30
Total		558				
Displaced		212	249.48	52640.50	28.805	.
Host community	Email	280	243.38	68145.50		23
Total		491				
Displaced		285	252.43	53010.00	28.995	
Host community	Social medias	343	244.74	69750.00		.44
Total		495				
Displaced		208	230.79	48004.50		
Host community	Child	281	255.52	71800.50	32.179	.03*
Total		489				

* p<0.5

VI.5.2 The impact of the pandemic on parent-school related activities

The COVID-19 pandemic prompted a radical change in teaching methods, which resulted in the first truly global era of distance learning. Due to the difficulties of the time, engaging parents in the schooling of their children was more important than ever. There were five items on the survey designed to assess how involved parents were in their children's learning process during the COVID-19 pandemic. The first question was about the level of interaction between parents and educators. The purpose of this inquiry was to ascertain the regularity with which parents communicated with their children's teachers. In order to ensure that students who are learning remotely are getting the help they need, it is crucial for parents and teachers to have open lines of contact. The second question was whether or not parents supported their children to try novel ideas. Research has shown that parental support can have a major positive impact on children's motivation and academic performance; thus, it was vital to gain insight into how parents supported their children's learning. Thirdly, parents were questioned to find out if they found their children to benefit from online education. The degree to which parents value and embrace the advantages of online education depends on their perceptions of its effectiveness. Fourth, throughout online instruction, parents were surveyed to see if they had obtained all the information they needed. This was done to make sure that parents were well-informed. It was important to find out if they were satisfied with the guidance that the school gave them during online teaching, and lastly, they were also asked if the tools needed for online learning were available. Since not all households had the same level of access to technology and resources, it was a major concern throughout the pandemic that not all children could participate in online learning. This inquiry attempted to ascertain if students had access to the technology necessary for productive online education. On a Likert scale with a range of "always" to "never," respondents were asked to rate their responses.

Table 34

Frequencies of Covid-19 impacts on parental involvement factors

	Parent-Teacher communication		Parental support for child's learning		Effectiveness of online learning		Online learning information satisfaction		Availability of learning tools at home	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Always	41	7.2%	144	25.4%	25	4.4%	49	8.6%	104	18.3%
Often	94	16.6%	172	30.3%	23	4.1%	87	15.3%	89	15.7%
Sometimes	101	17.8%	123	21.7%	58	10.2%	88	15.5%	89	15.7%
Rarely	134	23.6%	68	12.0%	143	25.2%	152	26.8%	152	26.8%
Never	186	32.8%	51	9.0%	309	54.5%	181	31.9%	121	21.3%

This result illustrates how often and to what extent parents reported communicating with their children's teachers. Strikingly, more than half of parents reported not having or rarely engaging in communication with teachers, while a mere 7.2% claimed to do so "always." The research emphasises the value of open lines of communication between teachers and parents. This research highlights the wasted opportunity for many parents during the pandemic since open lines of contact can help with the exchange of vital information, the resolution of learning difficulties, and the provision of much-needed emotional support. The finding coincides with the findings of other studies that documented severe difficulties in communicating between parents and educators in the midst of the pandemic (Sasan & Baritua, 2022; Thorell, et al., 2021; Huck & Zhang, 2021).

Important to the overall picture of parental involvement, the survey also evaluates "Parental Support for Children's Learning." Significantly, a notable proportion of parents, namely 25.4%, indicated that they consistently provided support to their children. Conversely, nearly a quarter of parents reported not engaging in such support. The study conducted by Klootwijk et al. (2021) highlights the significance of parental involvement in promoting their children's educational progress, which in turn has a favourable impact on their motivation levels and academic achievements.

The data indicates that a notable proportion of parents acknowledged the significance of such assistance, but a considerable minority claimed minimal involvement in this aspect. The study examined the perceived effectiveness of online learning, which emerged as a significant consequence of the pandemic. The data indicates that a significant majority of parents, over 80%, expressed dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of online learning, whereas a mere 9% of parents reported finding it effective. This discovery highlights the difficulties presented by the abrupt shift to digital schooling. According to the observations made by the OECD (2020), a variety of factors, including parental engagement, have an impact on the effectiveness of online learning. Parents who actively participate in their child's educational journey can make a substantial contribution to its overall efficacy.

The study examines the key dimension of parental satisfaction with the information offered for online learning. Among the surveyed parents, it was found that 23.9% expressed satisfaction with the information provided, while a significant majority of 58.7% indicated their dissatisfaction with the available information. The findings of Sanders and Sheldon (2009) emphasise the importance of establishing effective channels of communication between schools and parents. Sufficient provision of information guarantees that parents are adequately informed and able to actively facilitate their children's educational development. On the topic of the accessibility of educational resources within domestic settings, this dimension examines the degree to which children possess adequate access to essential resources for engaging in online learning.

A significant proportion of parents, specifically 48.1%, indicated infrequent or nonexistent possession of these instruments, although 24% asserted ownership of them. This finding highlights the existence of the digital gap and its influence on the educational experiences of children. According to Alqahtani and Rajkhan (2020), the availability of learning resources plays a vital role in facilitating successful online learning. The findings underscore the necessity of implementing policy measures aimed at guaranteeing fair and equal access to educational resources for every student.

The findings of this research provide insight into the complex connection between parental engagement and children's educational experiences during the COVID-19 crisis. The linked characteristics of parent-teacher communication, parental support, information satisfaction, and access to learning resources have a significant impact on the success of online learning. The

aforementioned findings highlight the crucial significance of parental involvement in facilitating their children's educational pursuits. Consequently, there is a need for particular strategies aimed at bridging the disparities in communication, support, and access to resources. These interventions are vital to guaranteeing the optimal development and success of all children within the context of an ever-evolving digital learning landscape.

In the meantime, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed once more to determine whether the Covid-19 pandemic had different impacts on the parent groups.

Levene's test for equality of variances and the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality distribution were used. The Mann-Whitney U test's assumptions were met. Levene's test for Homogeneity of Variance is presented in Table 35 for variables affected by Covid-19 pandemic.

Table 35

Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Covid-19 affected variables

Covid-19 affected variables	Levene's Statistic	p
contacting	2.803	.095
support	5.934	.015
online study	.901	.343
Information sharing	7.825	.005
Tools for online studies	9.977	.002

Mann-Whitney U test, which is used to compare the differences between two independent samples when the sample distributions are not normally distributed.

Mann-Whitney U tests were used to determine how the covid-19 pandemic affected parental involvement of the two groups in their children's learning process. The variables "contact, child support, online learning, information sharing, and provision of necessary online-learning tools" were evaluated. The test revealed significant differences between the two groups in Child support. Displaced parents ($Mdn=3$) were higher than those of host community parents ($Mdn=2$). $U(215=343) = 31.615, z = -2.925, p < .003$. Regarding information sharing, significant differences were also found between the two groups. Displaced parents ($Mdn=4$) and community parents ($Mdn=4$) $U(214=343) = 4474.50, z = -3.923, p < .001$. In addition, significant differences were found between the parent groups in the provision of online-learning tools. Displaced parents

(*Mdn*=4) were lower than those of host community parents (*Mdn*=3). $U = (215=340) = 26.147$, $z = -5.787$, $p < .001$. The variables of Contacting and Online-learning were proven to be statistically insignificant.

Table 36

Mann-Whitney U test for Covid-19 affected variables

Parent groups	Variables	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	of Mann-Whitney U	P
Displaced	Contacting	215	270.07	58065	38.470	.31
Host		341	283.82	96781		
community Total		556				
Displaced	Child support	215	303.95	65349.50	31.615	.003**
Host		343	264.17	90611.50		
community Total		558				
Displaced	Online learning	215	269.81	58009.00	38.956	.21
Host		343	285.57	97952.00		
community Total		558				
Displaced	Information sharing	214	311.78	66720.50	29.686	.001**
Host		343	258.55	88682.50		
community Total		558				
Displaced	Provision of online-learning tools	215	326.39	70173.00	26.147	.001**
Host		340	247.40	84117.00		
community Total		555				

* $p < 0.5$

VI.6 Summary

Chapter Six focused on the perspective of parents, where the data pertaining to parents was thoroughly examined and addressed. Initially, the data was provided in a descriptive manner. Then the data was examined in accordance with the research questions, objectives and hypotheses. The study examined the influence of parental involvement and the socioeconomic position of parents on children's learning and schooling. Various statistical tests, including multinomial regression, were employed to obtain the results and conduct the analysis. The findings were analysed and interpreted via the lens of educational perspectives found in the literature. The next chapter will provide a continuation of the analysis, but from the standpoint of teachers.

Chapter VII. Education in perspective of teachers

This chapter shifts the focus to the teachers, whose perspectives allow us to examine the complex landscape of parental engagement in education. As a follow-up to the last chapter's exploration of parents' perspectives, we set out to understand how teachers make sense of parents' responses to being involved in their child's education. We explore the practical chances and challenges when parents involve. Furthermore, we analyze how gender affects and alters parental participation. The analysis begins with a description of the characteristics of the data and proceeds to conduct a comprehensive investigation of the key research questions.

VII.1 Characteristics of the sample

We conducted inquiries with the teachers regarding parental involvement. Specifically, our focus was not on the instructors' demographic characteristics or personal attributes, but rather on their perspectives concerning parental engagement. Nevertheless, we shall present some of their characteristics. The dataset pertaining to teachers encompasses four sociodemographic variables: province, residential status, gender, and degree. The sample consists of 130 teachers, with the province of Erbil contributing the largest proportion of participants (36.9%), followed by Sulaimani (31.5%) and Dohuk (30.8%). Erbil is the capital city of the Kurdistan region of Iraq, Sulaimani is the second largest province and Dohuk is the smallest one. With regard to residential status, the majority of participants are non-displaced individuals (61.5%), while displaced individuals constitute 31.7% of the sample. In terms of gender, the majority of teachers in the study are female (63.8%), with males accounting for 35.4% of the participants. According to the statistics provided by the ministry of education, females make up 61% of the teaching staff in the region, while males make up 49%. In relation to educational degrees, the majority of the sample holds bachelor's degrees (84.6%), followed by Institution diplomas (8.5%). That was a diploma awarded to graduates of Teacher Training Institutes. These institutes welcomed graduates of secondary level secondary schools (Class 12th) where students received specialized study for two years. Graduates from those institutes were teaching in elementary schools. Currently, those institutes do not exist because a bachelor's degree is required to teach.

Postgraduate degree (3.1%), and a high school diploma (0.8%). Due to a lack of qualified teachers and inconsistent salaries, high school graduates sometimes find themselves teaching in elementary schools within refugee camps.

Table 37

Teachers' demographic backgrounds.

Demographic background		N	%	Total
		N (%)		
Province	Erbil	48	36.9	130 (100)
	Sulaimani	41	31.5	
	Dohuk	40	30.8	
Residential status	Displaced	49	31.7	130 (100)
	Non-displaced	80	61.5	
Gender	Male	46	35.4	130 (100)
	Female	83	63.8	
Degree	Post graduate	4	3.1	130 (100)
	Bachelor	110	84.6	
	Institution Diploma	11	8.5	
	High school	1	0.8	

The camps lack a structured approach to teacher recruitment. In the context of IDP camps, the Iraqi Minister of Education undertook the task of re-engaging teachers who had been displaced, while non-governmental organizations (NGOs) also facilitated the recruitment of teachers from the host community. In the context of refugees, educational teachers are typically enlisted by NGOs, UNICEF, and individuals who volunteer their services.

Due to the increasing number of teachers who have temporarily left the field, there is a notable and escalating demand for training. Teachers who have temporarily left the profession have frequently inquired about the availability of training programs to facilitate their reentry into the field. UNICEF and NGOs sometimes train teachers, but this is just a drop in an ocean of need.

VII.2 Teachers' perspective on parents' involvement

VII.2.1 Parents' response to engagement

This chapter aims to address three key questions: First, the extent to which parents are aware of parental involvement. This provides insights into parental recognition of the significance of their role in their child's education and the extent to which parents are aware that certain factors can have an influence on their level of involvement and active participation in their child's education. Secondly, the level of facilitation of parent involvement and whether there are differences based on geographical provinces and residential categorisation. This inquiry evaluates the extent of support and resources accessible to parents in order to enhance their engagement in their child's educational pursuits. It assists in determining the extent to which schools are actively promoting and facilitating parental involvement. Thirdly, the role of gender in parental involvement. The significance of this question lies in its ability to uncover prevailing gender-related assumptions or biases that may influence parental involvement in their children's education. Finally, this chapter will explore the communication channels between teachers and parents. Finding out the communication channels will offer an insight into the characteristics and quality of teacher-parent communication and its improvement.

Three questions were chosen to understand how parents react about being involved in their children's education from the teachers' point of view. Results from the questions indicated responses for invitations which means parent-teacher conferences, school events, parent workshop and seminars, volunteer opportunities. Parents' awareness level about parental involvement which means understanding the importance of P.I and school support and resources,

and a realistic assessment of children's abilities and expectations which means a clear and objective understanding of their child's strengths and weaknesses. This assessment should be based on observations, feedback from teachers, and a recognition of the child's unique characteristics and developmental stage. Each variable is further categorized into different levels of perception, ranging from "Extremely" to "Not at all". The data is presented in the form of frequencies and percentages, which are outlined below:

The majority of parents exhibited a positive response to the invitations, with 7.7% expressing an extremely positive response, 29.2% indicating a very positive response, and 43.1% responding moderately positively. A smaller proportion of parents responded slightly positively (16.2%), while only a few parents (1.5%) reported not responding positively at all.

Parents demonstrated varying degrees of awareness regarding parental involvement. Among the respondents, 6.9% had an extremely high level of awareness, while 30.0% reported a very high level. A majority of parents (40.8%) had a moderate level of awareness, and 20.0% had a slight level of awareness. A small percentage of parents (1.5%) indicated a lack of awareness regarding parental involvement.

Considering parents' realistic assessment of their children's abilities and expectations. Only a small proportion of participants (4.6%) reported an extremely realistic assessment, while 19.2% had a very realistic assessment. The majority of parents (44.6%) indicated a moderate level of being realistic, and 26.9% had a slightly realistic assessment. A small percentage of parents (3.1%) reported not having a realistic assessment at all.

Examining the results of all three questions reveals that the responses are ranked. The ranking demonstrates that the rate of positive response to invitations surpasses parental awareness, while parental awareness surpasses a realistic assessment of children. Teachers express the lowest level of satisfaction regarding the accurate assessment of children by parents. Based on the teacher's opinions, 30% of parents could assess their children's abilities slightly or not at all, and another 46% could do it only moderately. Teachers maintain the perspective that only 25% of parents possess the capacity to accurately assess their child's capabilities and therefore establish their expectations accordingly. A critical part of good parental involvement is parents' ability to make realistic assessments of their children's skills and set reasonable goals. Parents can best assist and encourage their children when they have a realistic understanding of both their strengths and areas for improvement. In contrast, if parents have unreasonable expectations, it could cause their

child stress and anxiety. Yamamoto and Holloway (2010) claim that parents who make an accurate assessment of their children's skills are more likely to foster their children's academic and personal development. Parental awareness is also a key factor in defining the depth and significance of parental involvement. By looking at how parents respond to invitations, how much they know about parental participation, and how well they can judge their children's abilities and expectations, we obtain valuable insights into fostering effective home-school partnerships.

The findings of this study prompt inquiries regarding the quantity and quality of the invitations as well as their role in facilitating parental comprehension of their children's capacity to recognize the significance of their involvement. While other factors can contribute to the outcome, the content of the invites can be identified as one of them. According to my knowledge and experience, parents in public schools are asked to attend school parent conferences twice a year, and all other invitations are optional. In the conferences, there are general guidelines on education and school plans. Parents who want to learn more about their children should pay them visits outside of official invitations. I think this can open the door for insufficient parenting skills. It is possible that parents who do not spend enough time with their children or who do not go to school may not have a big impact on how their children's skills grow, and their assessments may not be correct. Moreover, one potential explanation is that there exists a disparity between the proportion of students and the quantity of teachers especially in the displaced case, which could contribute to teachers needing more support in their ability to thoroughly assess their students and support parents.

Table 38

Frequency of parent's reaction to parental involvement

	Positive response for invitations		Parents awareness about parental involvement		Realistic assessment for children abilities and expectations	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Extremely	10	7.7	6	6.9	6	(4.6)
Very	38	29.2	25	30.0	25	19.2
Moderately	56	43.1	58	40.8	58	44.6
Slightly	21	16.2	35	20.0	35	26.9
Not at all	2	1.5	4	1.5	4	3.1
Total	127	97.7	128	99.2	128	98.5

VII.2.2 The practical possibilities of involving parents

In this chapter we are looking answer for the question, what is the practical possibilities of involving parents and are there difference based geographical provinces and residential categorization. Table 39 presents data on variables related to the question, namely welcoming environment, school-family patternership, parents' roles in school activities and management, teachers' expectations regarding homework, feedback provided to parents, and the existence of a policy or approach to engage with parents. Each variable is further categorized into different levels of perception, ranging from "Extremely" to "Not at all." The "N (%)" column presents the frequency and percentage of participants falling into each perception category for each variable.

In the welcoming environment variable, the participants showed a very high level of satisfaction. Based on what I witnessed, physically, there was a significant distinction between local and camp schools, but the focus here is on the schools' social environments towards parents engagement.

According to teachers, a highly welcoming environment provided to the parents. 46 participants (35.4%) perceived it as "Extremely" welcoming, 49 participants (37.7%) rated it as "Very" welcoming, 30 participants (23.1%) found it "Moderately" welcoming, and only 4 participants (3.1%) perceived it as "Slightly" welcoming. No participant reported perceiving the environment as "Not at all" welcoming. The total number of participants in this variable is 129, representing 99.2% of the sample.

A friendly school climate promotes meaningful parent-teacher communication. When parents feel welcomed, they are readier to discuss their child's accomplishments and problems. Park and Holloway (2018) found that schools with a warm and friendly environment encouraged greater parental involvement and parent involvement. The continual dialogue assists teachers in identifying students' needs and adapting their instruction. Parents' confidence in supporting their child's education increases when they feel respected and welcomed in the school community. Parental participation improves with confidence. Parents are motivated to volunteer, participate in school activities, and collaborate with educators to improve their children's education when they have a sense of belonging (Epstein, 2018).

Furthermore, two-thirds of parents 73% of teachers perceived a good relationship between the school and families and one-twentieth of them are moderately satisfied, highlighting a positive rapport and effective communication channels between the two parties.

Studies in the field of education agree that collaborations between parents and teachers are crucial to a child's development and learning. They show that when parents and teachers work together, students' academic outcomes improve. Selikowitz (2012) emphasizes that together, parents and teachers can better spot and address learning difficulties before they negatively impact a student's education.

Collaborative efforts greatly help children make good decisions and grow up socially and emotionally. Hill and Tyson's (2009) findings indicate that good habits are easier to form when children receive the same reinforcement from their families and teachers. Further, collaborations between parents and educators promote growth in all areas.

The involvement of a child in school is boosted when parents and teachers have a good relationship and work together. Zaccoletti et al. (2020) found that when parents are involved in

their children's education, it has a favorable impact on their academic motivation and engagement. Navarro et al. (2019) stated that early detection of learning difficulties or behavioral disorders and prevention of their escalation are made possible by collaboration between parents and teachers.

Parent-teacher collaborations can go beyond what was mentioned earlier. One of which is the incorporation of cultural awareness into the classroom. Successful teaching requires awareness and appreciation of cultural diversity. In order to foster a more welcoming and accepting classroom, the "American Psychological Association" stresses the need for parents to share information about their child's cultural background.

According to a research published in *Journal of School Psychology* by Keith et al. (1998), parent-teacher collaborations also encourage students to finish their assignments. This, in turn, is associated with better academic outcomes. Moreover, parents are more inclined to be involved in their child's education when they feel welcomed and respected by teachers. Communication skills are another area where a youngster benefits from these collaborations. Bryan and Henry (2012) propose that students can learn from watching their parents and teachers model effective communication. Students benefit from these collaborations because they promote academic achievement, good behavior, holistic growth, early intervention, cultural awareness, active participation, and clearer communication.

In terms of parents' roles in school activities, 43.1% of teachers reported perceiving a slight role for parents, indicating that they are moderately involved in school-related events and initiatives. Additionally, 24.6% of teachers observed a moderate role for parents in school management and policy, suggesting that parents are involved to some extent in decision-making processes.

Involving parents in school activities and administration has proved to be an effective means of increasing their participation. The benefits of parental participation in school administration and policymaking are highlighted in a study by Đurišić and Bunijevac (2017). The data indicates a discouraging trend, a substantial proportion, approximately half of parents, demonstrate limited or minimal levels of engagement in school-related activities. But the interesting part is that we previously revealed that the relationship between teachers and parents seems to work well at the rate of 95% of cases.

The paradox above presents a significant perspective on the complicated nature of parental engagement within the context of schooling. This prompts inquiries on the extent to which schools have effectively utilized the potential of family involvement.

One possible interpretation can be derived from the data, suggesting that the fundamental nature of parental participation may not be centered around schools assigning specific tasks to parents within the schools. Instead, it may be more effective to encourage parents to direct their attention towards their own children's academic progress. From this perspective, it is imperative to understand parental involvement as a dedicated engagement towards the academic performance, extracurricular activities, and overall achievement of the children within the educational setting.

Parental participation, when reframed in this manner, assumes a comprehensive and child-centered perspective. It is recognized that parental involvement in their child's academic pursuits is crucial for cultivating a nurturing and intellectually stimulating educational atmosphere. The change in viewpoint not only enables parents to actively engage in their child's educational process but also emphasizes that the child's academic achievements and accomplishments should serve as the primary gauge of effective parental engagement. Ultimately, it fosters a collaborative relationship between educational institutions and parents, wherein both entities collaborate to guarantee that each child's educational journey is characterized by high standards and success.

The open-ended portion of the Likert question gave respondents the opportunity to elaborate on their responses with specific examples. Here, the educators had the chance to provide more detail about their answers and give concrete examples of parental involvement in school management. This open-ended approach allowed teachers to contribute useful thoughts and experiences about parents' roles in various school management and development.

Teachers reported that parents play roles in running some of the schools. They explained that school councils serve as a collaborative platform where parents and teachers engage in discussions about important school issues. They highlighted that parents have the chance to be a part of the changes through their representatives in school committees. Teachers emphasised the importance of parental feedback and suggestions for the school's overall success. They valued the honest opinions of their parents since it allowed them to make changes that benefited the whole school and its students. Volunteer cleaning days are another way that educators show appreciation for parents' efforts to keep the school in good condition. Even while schools have

personnel specifically assigned to this task, teachers have noticed that parent participation in these initiatives helps instill a feeling of pride and responsibility in maintaining a safe and healthy school environment. The teachers spoke highly of the time and energy parents put into supporting their children's education by planning events, coordinating extracurricular activities, and raising money. Teachers also emphasised the significance of parent-teacher conferences and regular communication channels. According to their statements, these encounters help parents and teachers collaborate, identifying areas where students may need further support or reinforcement.

It seems that in most of the activities, students are not the center. Parents can contribute to the management and activities of schools in a variety of ways. They may join Parent-Teacher Associations in order to influence school policies and initiatives. Parents can also volunteer to assist with school events, classrooms, and extracurricular activities. By keeping parents informed about their child's academic development, Parent-Teacher Conferences can help parents communicate with teachers and build a healthy educational collaboration. Some parents serve on school boards or committees, which influence school policy. These positions encourage transparency, collaboration, and a shared responsibility should be for students well-being and achievement, resulting in a more beneficial and effective educational environment.

Teachers' expectations from parents regarding homework varied, with the highest proportion (41.5%) reporting moderate expectations. This indicates that teachers anticipate parents to be moderately involved in supporting their children's homework activities. However, only 3.8% of teachers expressed extremely high expectations.

Clarity in teacher expectations for homework has been identified as a facilitator that increases family involvement in helping their children's learning, and it complements this involvement. Sawyer (2015) found that when teachers have clear expectations for parental involvement in the form of homework help, students do better. Here, teachers' lower expectations regarding helping their children do their homework in their students education can be traced back to a number of factors, including parental education and family size (both of which were mentioned in the prior chapter). It is important to understand that the rate of parents with low qualifications and large families is very high. Particularly as their children advance into higher grades and the curriculum gets more complicated, many parents may lack the academic understanding or abilities required to properly support their children. Teachers may lessen their requests from parents to help with

schooling as a result of this information gap. Family size also has an important impact. As previously emphasized, it can be difficult for parents to meet the unique learning requirements of each child in a family with more than one or two children. Because of the competing demands on their finances and time, parents in such situations may be less able to take an active role in their children's school

Providing feedback to parents is an essential aspect of parental involvement. The data shows that 40.0% of teachers reported providing feedback to parents, while the majority (54.6%) indicated not providing feedback. This suggests a potential area for improvement in enhancing communication between teachers and parents.

The concept that educators should regard parents as collaborators in a child's educational journey is a fundamental view in cultivating productive collaboration between families and schools. This partnership is largely dependent on bidirectional communication, which is a crucial element of the collaboration between teachers and parents. It is important for educators to prioritize the dissemination of comprehensive information to parents regarding all facets of their child's growth and academic progress. It has been found that providing parents with regular and constructive feedback is an effective way to encourage parental involvement. Timely feedback on students achievement has been shown to increase parental involvement in their children's learning (Bubb and Jones, 2020).

The primary emphasis in an optimal family-school collaboration dynamic should be directed towards the student. The collaboration between teachers and parents should be driven by the student's educational growth, emotional well-being, and general development. The secondary emphasis should be placed on the school's life and administration, encompassing topics of administration and school policies. This hierarchical structure guarantees that the learner stays the focal point of all educational activities.

Nevertheless, the findings of the data appear to indicate a reversal of this idealized situation. In the preceding subsection, we derived valuable insights from educators who voiced apprehensions over certain parents' capacity to effectively evaluate their child's aptitude. The observed disparity in perception underscores the significance of providing constructive comments. Regularly offering feedback to parents can serve as a means for teachers to establish a connection and enhance mutual understanding and expectations between educators and families.

Through the provision of feedback, educators not only ensure that parents are kept well-informed, but also facilitate the development of a more precise comprehension among parents regarding their child's academic advancement, areas of proficiency, and areas requiring further development. The act of exchanging information collaboratively plays a crucial role in ensuring that family-school cooperation is aligned with the optimal needs of the child. This statement underscores the notion that the achievement of students is a collective obligation, emphasizing the collaborative efforts of parents and teachers to enhance the educational experience for every individual student.

Teachers should expect parents to help with homework and give schools feedback to improve education. Parents often reveal a child's strengths and weaknesses, helping teachers adapt their lessons. This collaboration between parents and teachers creates a more comprehensive and effective support system.

Regarding the policy or approach to engage with parents, 42.3% of teachers reported its existence, while an equal percentage (42.3%) reported its absence. This finding highlights the need for more comprehensive and consistent approaches to parental engagement in schools. Teachers' responses to an open question about parent engagement policies emphasised initiatives including parent awareness programmes, parent-involved learning activities, and progress meetings. In addition, they use internet forums and surveys to learn more about what parents anticipate from the school. Some schools hire social researchers to help teachers better communicate with their students' parents; these researchers found that keeping parents updated on their children's academic progress strengthens the relationship between teachers and their students. These methods are meant to foster a cooperative relationship between parents and educators, which will benefit students' personal growth and academic success. Coleman (2018) stresses the significance of systematic approaches to strengthen home-school partnerships.

These findings provide important insight into how teachers view parental participation programs right now. They stress the value of having an open-door policy and good communication between the school and parents. More feedback to parents and higher parental expectations were found to be areas where a student-centered strategy may improve. This will allow parents to play a larger role in their children's education and growth in general.

Table 39

Frequency of practical possibilities of involving parents

	Welcoming environment		Good relationship between School and family		Parents' role in school activities		Parents' role in school management and policy		Teachers' expectations from parents in doing homework		feedback to parents	
Extremely N (%)	46	(35.4)	57	(43.8)	1	(.8)	1	(.8)	5	(3.8)	52	(40.0)
Very N (%)	49	(37.7)	39	(30.0)	22	(16.9)	14	(10.8)	33	(25.4)	48	(36.9)
Moderately N (%)	30	(23.1)	27	(20.8)	32	(24.6)	41	(31.5)	54	(41.5)	15	(11.5)
	4	(3.1)	5	(3.8)	56	(43.1)	43	(33.1)	32	(24.6)	9	(6.9)
Not at all N (%)	0	(0)	0	(0)	18	(13.8)	29	(22.3)	5	(3.8)	4	(3.1)
Total N (%)	129	(99.2)	128	(98.5)	129	(99.2)	128	(98.5)	129	(99.2)	128	(98.5)

A relevant test was selected to answer the question of whether the practical possibilities of involving parents are different based geographical provinces and residential categorization. Conducting a parametric test (ANOVA) or a non-parametric test (Kruskal-Wallis test) was determined by the results of assumption tests. To ensure that the data were not normally distributed, I employed the Shapiro-Wilk test, and also tested for homogeneity of variance. I used the Kruskal-Wallis test because the findings indicated that the data was not normally distributed or did not follow the premise of homogeneity of variances and because the data was ordinal.

Table 40

Levene's test of homogeneity of variances for parental involvement facilities

Parental involvement facility factors	Levene Statistic	P
School environment	1.807	.168
Respect between parents	.570	.567
School activities	3.169	.045*
Management and policy school	1.676	.191
Expectation	1.217	.300
Giving notes	1.403	.250
School policy engagement	3.421	.036*

The Kruskal-Wallis test showed a significant difference in parents' role in school activities among the three provinces, $\chi^2(2) = 9.116$, $p = .01$. Then post hoc test using Dunn's test indicated that there were also significant differences in parents' role in school activities between Sulaimani and Dohuk schools ($p = .008$) indicating that parents' involvement in school activities was significantly different between these two provinces.

The test also revealed that there is a significant difference in policy engagement of parents between provinces. $\chi^2(2) = 12.080$, $p = .002$). Pairwise comparison test demonstrated a significant distinction between Sulaimani (Mdn = 52.90) and Erbil (Mdn = 75.72) provinces in their policy to engage with parents ($p = .002$). However, no significant differences were observed in the policy to engage with parents between Sulaimani and Dohuk or between Erbil and Dohuk. These findings indicate that Sulaimani and Erbil exhibit different engagement policies, with Erbil demonstrating a higher level of engagement with parents compared to Sulaimani.

Table 41

Kruskal Wallis test for parental involvement facilities across provinces

PI facilities	Province	N	Mean rank	X ²	p
Welcoming environment	Erbil	48	65.30	1.094	.57
	Sulaimani	41	68.85		
	Dohuk	40	60.69		
	Total				
Good relationship between school and family	Erbil	48	65.90	3.633	.16
	Sulaimani	40	70.93		
	Dohuk	40	56.40		
	Total				
Parents' role in school activities	Erbil	48	63.36	9.116	.01*
	Sulaimani	41	54.35		
	Dohuk	40	77.88		
	Total				
Parents' role in school management and policy	Erbil	48	72.89	4.635	.099
	Sulaimani	41	57.17		
	Dohuk	39	61.88		
	Total				
Teachers' expectations from parents in doing homework	Erbil	48	70.22	2.261	.323
	Sulaimani	41	64.90		
	Dohuk	40	58.84		
	Total				
feedback to parents	Erbil	48	67.67	.809	.667
	Sulaimani	41	64.17		
	Dohuk	39	60.95		
	Total				
policy to engage with parents	Erbil	46	75.72	12.080	.002**
	Sulaimani	41	52.90		
	Dohuk	39	60.23		
	Total				

p < .05* , p < .01**

Next, to examine the difference in the practical possibilities of involving parents between displaced and non-displaced schools, I utilized the Mann-Whitney U test.. Each possible practical factor was assessed using a single item with response options ranging from "always" to "never." The analysis revealed significant distinctions between the two groups in terms of positive welcoming school environment. Displaced teachers (Mdn = 59.13) reported lower scores compared to non-displaced teachers (Mdn = 74.59), $U(49=80) = 1490.000$, $z = -2.421$, $p = .01$). Additionally, significant differences were observed in the level of giving feedback. Displaced teachers (Mdn = 55.74) scored lower than non-displaced teachers (Mdn = 79.10), $U(49=80) = 1219.000$, $z = -3.682$, $p = .001$). Similarly, differences were found in school engagement policy for parents, where displaced teachers (Mdn = 58.33) reported lower scores than non-displaced teachers (Mdn = 72.19), $U(47=79) = 1448.000$, $z = -3.682$, $p = .01$). However, the analysis revealed no significant differences in the other variables.

Table 42

Mann-Whitney test for the practical possibilities of involving parents between displaced and non-displaced

Teacher groups	Factors	N	Mean rank	Sum of rank	Mann-Whitney U	p
Non-displaced	School environment	49	74.59	3655.00	1490.000	.01*
Displaced		80	59.13	4730.00		
Total		129				
Non-displaced	Respect between	49	71.73	3515.00	1581.000	.06
Displaced		79	60.01	4741.00		
Total		128				
Non-displaced	Activities	49	66.65	3266.00	1879.000	.67
Displaced		80	63.99	5119.00		
Total		129				
Non-displaced	Management policy	49	67.09	3287.50	1808.500	.51
Displaced		79	62.89	4968.50		
Total		128				
Non-displaced	Expectations	49	68.34	3348.50	1796.500	.40
Displaced		80	62.96	5036.50		
Total		129				
Non-displaced	Feedback	48	79.10	3797.00	1219.000	.001**
Displaced		80	55.74	4459.00		
Total		128				
Non-displaced	School engagement policy	47	72.19	3393.00	1448.000	.01*
Displaced		79	58.33	4608.00		
Total		126				

p < .05* p < .01**

The differences between provinces may be the result of a lack of specific guidelines from the ministry of education regarding how parents should be involved. Participation of parents in school activities is largely determined by the policies adopted by the school board and principal.

One possible explanation for the gap in communication and school climate between displaced and non-displaced schools is the role played by language and cultural factors and teacher qualities in creating a more welcoming environment in host community schools. It was previously reported that teachers in the camps are recruited from different channels and that the need for teachers means that the criteria for selecting the best candidates are often overlooked. Teachers may feel less motivated to provide feedback to parents as a result of this. There are additional financial, psychological, and social challenges that must be taken into account while addressing the common problems faced by schools in camps, including as salary fluctuations, class sizes, and parental obligations.

VII.2.3 Gender aspect of parental involvement

In this section, the potential influence of gender on parental involvement was investigated. Also, our aim is to identify the underlying factors contributing to the potential variance in each of their roles. The bar chart below shows the data regarding teacher interactions with student family members based on the variable "who are more in contact with teachers" The variable consisted of four categories: "mothers, fathers, both parents, and siblings." Out of the total 130 cases analyzed, teachers were more in contact with mothers in 40 instances, representing 30.8% of the cases. 38 participants reported their communication is more with fathers, making up 29.2% of the total. Contact with both parents occurred in 43 cases, accounting for 33.1% of the instances. Finally, there were 8 cases (6.2%) where teachers were more in contact with siblings.

Culturally diverse norms and practices regarding parental roles and involvement have been shaped by a combination of historical, social, and economic factors. Cultural values, traditions, and societal norms all play a part in shaping the responsibilities that mothers and fathers play in child care and development.

There has been a notable shift towards a more egalitarian approach to parenting in many nations, with both mothers and fathers sharing in the care of their children. This shift is in contrast to the old order, which saw mothers as primary carers and fathers as breadwinners (Pusztai, 2022). Changing gender roles can be seen in the rise of fathers' participation in childcare and the persistence of mothers' efforts to build professional lives outside the home. The findings of Craig

and Mullan (2010) provide further evidence of this shift, illuminating the history of Western nations' pursuit of more equitable parenting styles.

On the other hand, conventional gender roles are more likely to be upheld in some other cultures, where mothers are seen as primary caregivers and fathers are seen as synonymous with the breadwinner. This cultural norm is where mothers are traditionally expected to take on the primary role of caregiving and housekeeping. But even within these societies, a subtle undercurrent of change is detectable, as younger generations dispute established conventions and push for increased paternal engagement in the parenting of children, as shown by the research undertaken by Ho et al. (2010).

The divide between collectivist and individualist civilizations has deep roots in the polarisation of parental responsibilities. Caregiving in collectivist societies is typically a group effort that includes many members of the immediate and extended family due to the high value placed on close relationships and mutual support. As a result, relatives such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, and siblings pitch in to help out. Contrarily, studies by Santrock (2019) and Hofstede (2002) confirm that individualist cultures primarily preserve nuclear family structures and place a heightened emphasis on maternal and paternal responsibilities in childrearing.

Within the context of traditional Kurdish households in KR-I, gender-based division of work is commonly practiced. In that societal context, men are commonly perceived as the breadwinners who bear the responsibility of financially supporting their families, whereas women tend to assume domestic duties encompassing childcare and home tasks. From that viewpoint, it is customary for the mother to assume the role of overseeing a child's educational matters, encompassing tasks such as guaranteeing regular attendance, facilitating the completion of homework assignments, and assessing overall academic advancement, especially in the early ages and adolescence. Mothers commonly participate in parent-teacher meetings and engage in communication with teachers regarding their children's academic progress.

The chart below provides valuable insights into the distribution of teacher-family interactions, with mothers, fathers, and both parents being the primary points of contact in the majority of cases.

To find out what makes teachers' communication choices what they are, an open-ended question that started with "Why" was asked. Then, the answers from the participants were collected. The results, which are the points brought up by the participants, are shown in the table below.

Table 43

Reasons for those teachers are in contact with the most

Mothers	Fathers	Both parents	Siblings
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fathers are primarily full-time workers. • Some schools are single-gender schools. • Children tend to have better relationships with their moms. • Fathers often have limited time available. • Fathers are frequently occupied with work outside the home. • Mothers spend more time with their children. • Mothers possess greater awareness of their children's activities and well-being. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fathers often have the most significant responsibilities within the family and are considered as breadwinners and leaders. • Many mothers, due to a higher prevalence of illiteracy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both are responsible. • Both they care about their children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They have graduated and currently live together so they can help better.

The data also revealed the teachers' choices on who they feel most at ease contacting. Of the 130 respondents, 33 (25.4%) favoured contacting mothers, while 36 (27.7%) preferred contacting fathers. A substantial majority of teachers, 56 (43.1%), felt comfortable contacting both parents. Only four instructors (3.1%) said they preferred contacting siblings. According to the data, the majority of teachers prefer to interact with their mothers or fathers, while a smaller percentage chooses to communicate with their siblings.

Figure 5 :Frequency of teachers' communication with families

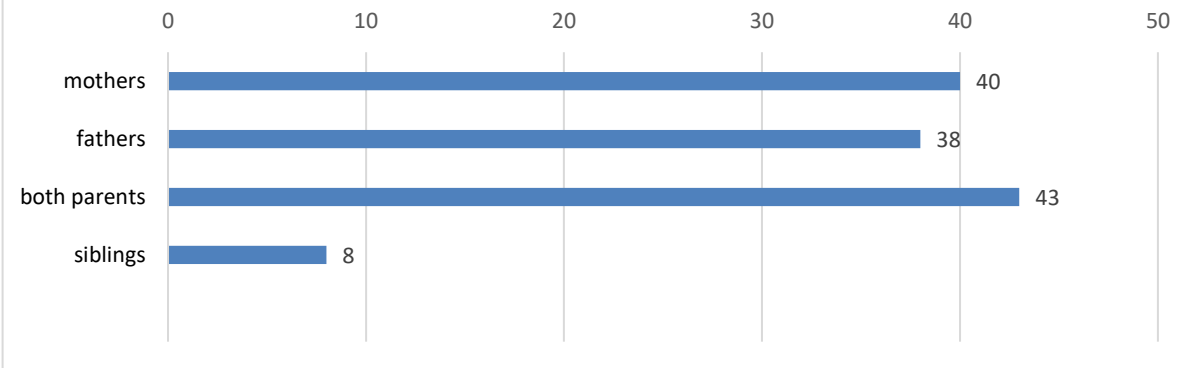
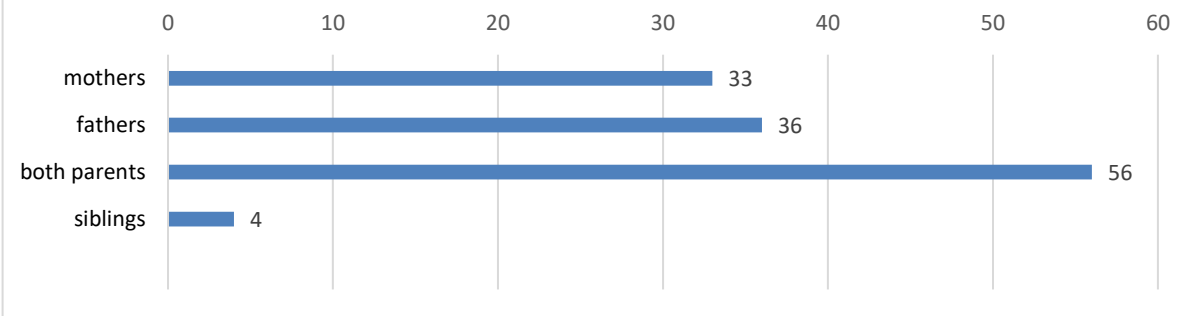


Figure 6: Frequency of teachers preference: whom they feel most at ease contacting



To explore the reasons behind teachers preferring one family member over others, an open-ended question beginning with "Why" was posed. Following the collection of participant responses, the various points raised by participants are displayed in the table below.

Table 44

Factors that contribute to teachers feeling more at ease in their communication.

Mothers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Most female students are closer to their mothers and talk to them about their issues.• Mothers are calmer and more loyal, which makes the bond between mothers and children stronger.• Mothers are better listeners because they pay more attention to and care for their children, which helps them understand their needs better.• Because mothers are nurturing and care about their children, they have a better idea of how they are doing and how they are growing as a whole.• The bond between teachers and mothers is often stronger, which may be because mothers are often more involved in their children's schooling.
Fathers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Compared to mothers, fathers would understand with less effort and need fewer clarifications.• Fathers usually are more knowledgeable about teachers' instructions, which helps their children's academic progress.• Fathers are less emotionally reactive than mothers, which lets them look at situations more objectively and make better choices.
Both parents	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• All problems can be solved properly when both parents are involved because they play essential roles in their children's development.

- Keeping in touch with both parents can have a bigger effect on their children because it gives them more support and makes it easier for everyone.

- Both parents are responsible for raising and directing their children in a way that helps them grow and develop in a healthy way.

- Both mothers and fathers pay close attention to what the teachers say, which shows that they care about their children's schooling.

- It's important for both parents to know what their children are doing and how they're doing. This helps them feel like they share responsibility for their well-being.

- There isn't a big difference between mothers and fathers in how much they want their children to do well in school. Both moms and dads want their kids to do well and do well in life.

Siblings

- Sometimes the unique insights and experiences of siblings can have better parental knowledge, as a result of their close bond and shared upbringing.

It is crucial to acknowledge that teachers demonstrate a heightened interest in engaging in contact with both parents for the aforementioned reasons. This does not necessarily indicate the reinforcement of traditional gender norms or the assumption that the engagement of one parent is more significant than the other. This demonstrates a desire to promote equal involvement of both parents, regardless of their gender, in their children's education, with the aim of providing the students with a comprehensive and beneficial support network. It is important for teachers to demonstrate sensitivity towards varied family structures and modify their communication approaches accordingly in order to foster inclusivity and equity within the context of education.

VII.2.4 Communication channels between teachers and parents

The research question aimed to analyze the type of communication preferred by teachers and the available communication methods. Table 45 provides information on the frequency of each form of parental contact preferred by teachers, along with the corresponding percentage. 80 participants (61.5 %) of the teachers surveyed indicated that "Face to Face" interactions with the parents were their most preferred way of contact. A total of 27 parents (20.8%) report having interacted with parents "Through Children," making it the second most preferred way. In third place, both the "phone" and "social media" each had 13 participants (10.0%). Only two parents (1.5%) reported using "E-mail" as a method of interaction, making it the least popular option. The information in the table provides valuable insight into teachers' used methods of communication and can help schools better engage parents and satisfy their needs.

Table 45

Frequency of the type of communication preferred by teachers

Contact way	Face to face		Phone		E-mail		Social media		Through children	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Often	80	(61.5)	13	(10.0)	2	(1.5)	13	(10.0)	27	(20.8)
Sometime	46	(35.4)	79	(60.8)	21	(16.2)	49	(37.7)	67	(51.5)
Never	2	(1.5)	35	(26.9)	105	(80.8)	32	(24.6)	32	(24.6)
Missing	2	(1.5)	3	(2.3)	2	(1.5)	36	(27.7)	4	(3.1)
Total	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)

To understand the availability of different means of communication, the participants were asked about the methods of communication that were available to them. Table 46 presents the available ways that teachers can use to communicate with parents, along with the corresponding frequencies and percentages for each communication method. The "Often" category shows that 84 teachers (64.6%) indicated the face-to-face communication option as the most available one, while 18 teachers (13.8%) reported phone communication, and 8 teachers (6.2%) utilize e-mail. Additionally, 10 teachers (7.7%) engage parents through social media, and 23 teachers (17.7%)

had communications with parents through children. It seems that there is not a big difference between preferred and available types of communication.

Table 46

The frequency of available ways of communication

Available ways	Face to face		Phone		E-mail		Social media		Through children	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Often	84	(64.6)	18	(13.8)	8	(6.2)	10	(7.7)	23	(17.7)
Sometime	43	(33.1)	90	(69.2)	23	(17.7)	49	(37.7)	73	(56.2)
Never	1	(.8)	21	(16.2)	95	(73.1)	35	(26.9)	29	(22.3)
Missing	2	(1.5)	1	(.8)	4	(3.1)	36	(27.7)	5	(3.8)
Total	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)	130	(100.0)

Parental involvement in their child's education is enhanced when there is open and frequent contact between home and school. This relationship is greatly aided by the availability and preference of forms of communication.

Parents' interest in their children's schooling can be greatly influenced by the methods of communication the school uses to reach them. For its familiarity and personal touch, face-to-face encounters and written correspondence are preferred by some parents. Some people may prefer electronic means of interaction, such as email, messaging applications, or online platforms, because of the speed and ease with which they may be used. Research by Knop and Swick (2007) and Olmstead (2013) shows that parental communication preferences vary widely and are affected by factors like as parents' technology competence, parents' work schedules, and cultural norms. Schools must consider the various preferences of parents in order to create efficient channels of communication.

To help parents feel more connected to their children's education, many schools provide multiple channels of communication. These strategies can be implemented using either traditional or digital means. Direct communication can take place at open homes, parent-teacher conferences,

and other face-to-face meetings. Newsletters, school journals, and home notes are all examples of written forms of communication.

With the development of new technologies, digital forms of communication have emerged as dominant. Schools frequently use electronic means such as emails, texts, and school-specific websites or apps. Such solutions are convenient since they fit into the hectic schedules of today's parents.

Schools should give careful thought to the channels they use to communicate with parents because the best way to reach them and their availability may change depending on location. According to research by Heath et al., (2015), parents are more likely to interact with the school and take an active role in their child's education if they receive information through the channels they choose. This correlation demonstrates the significance of accommodating diverse communication preferences in order to facilitate productive collaboration. To achieve inclusive and meaningful participation, it is important to consider the interests of parents and provide them with multiple ways of contact. Schools that use both old-fashioned and newfangled forms of communication are more likely to foster parental involvement, which is crucial to students' all-around growth and academic achievement.

After asking teachers about their communication with parents in general, it was important to consider how the pandemic outbreak affected their parent-teacher interactions. The participants were asked about the extent to which they maintained contact with students' parents. 23.8% of respondents indicated they communicated "always," and 16.9% indicated they communicated "often," meaning that a substantial proportion maintained regular contact.

In addition, 23.1% of respondents reported "sometimes" as their rate of contact, indicating that the frequency of interactions varied, which may have been influenced by the pandemic's uncertainty conditions. However, there is a pattern in the data that must be considered. In total, 35.4% of responses fell into the "rarely" or "never" categories, indicating a significant disconnect among some participants. It appears that these teachers had difficulty maintaining regular contact with others. Several reasons, including government regulations encouraging people to keep their distance from one another, may have contributed to this drop. The extended closure of physical educational schools resulted in the need to adopt online learning as a substitute for conventional face-to-face teaching methods. The global spread of the pandemic resulted in a significant and

transformative change in the field of education on a global scale. In response to the global pandemic, governmental bodies and health authorities implemented strict regulations aimed at preventing the transmission of the virus. Among these efforts, a prominent directive emphasized the importance of complying with social distancing guidelines. Teachers, like everyone else, were forced to adjust to the changing circumstances. This meant reducing the emphasis on the personal contact between teachers and parents that had been crucial before. The long-term shutdown of schools further accelerated the shift to online education. Because of this, education primarily occurred through online means. This change, while essential for students' protection, could have posed difficulties for teachers and parents in keeping up with the same level of communication they had when their children attended traditional schools.

VII. 3 Comparison of parents' and teachers' perspectives

The results from parent and teacher data revealed that there was a welcoming environment for parents to communicate with teachers. Parents reported feeling comfortable reaching out to teachers with questions or concerns, and they appreciated the appropriate communication climate created by schools. Teachers also expressed their willingness to listen and address any issues brought to their attention by parents. This positive relationship between parents and teachers should foster a collaborative and supportive atmosphere and, most importantly, more communication.

However, the results showed that a high level of parent-teacher communication, it was significantly lower than expected in the time of Covid-19. Based on the parents' responses, around a quarter of parents never or a few times communicated with teachers in the year, mostly among displaced parents. Parents preferred face-to-face and via-child communication methods rather than using technology. The same result was detected when teachers were asked about parents' communication preferences. It seems that using these communication methods is not only because of the preference of parents but also because of the preference of teachers and the unavailability of other methods of communication. When teachers were asked about the availability of methods of communication with parents, the results showed that face-to-face was the most available method of communication with parents. Understanding this issue may help to

solve the lack of communication and the low use of other channels of communication, such as email and phone. This preference for face-to-face communication may stem from the belief that it allows for a more personal and immediate connection between teachers and parents. However, it is important to consider the limitations of relying solely on face-to-face communication. In today's fast-paced society, parents may not always have the time or flexibility to attend in-person meetings. Therefore, finding a balance between face-to-face and other channels of communication could ensure effective and convenient communication between teachers and parents. This lack of communication is concerning, as it hinders the ability to address any issues or concerns that may arise throughout the school year. The study also revealed that many parents did not have access to or never used various channels for communication, such as parent-teacher conferences, email, or school websites. To improve this situation, the school administration should implement a comprehensive communication plan to educate parents about the importance of regular communication with teachers and provide them with the necessary tools to facilitate this process. This could create a more engaged and supportive community that would ultimately benefit the students.

The downside of not using or the unavailability of technological methods of communication appeared more frequently in the COVID-19 pandemic. According to the teachers, almost half of parents stopped communicating with teachers, while more than half of them never communicated with teachers during the entire duration of remote learning. The importance of email and other forms of digital communication became even more evident during this time. Without these technological methods, parents were left without a reliable means of staying connected with their child's education. This lack of communication hindered the progress of remote learning, as teachers were unable to provide necessary updates, assignments, and feedback to parents. The use of email and other digital platforms could allow for seamless communication, ensuring that parents remained informed and involved in their child's education, even during these challenging times.

Here, it is also important to mention the educational background of parents and their financial situation as factors that could influence the regularity of communications. Educational background can significantly impact the level of communication between parents and teachers, as it can define their digital skills. The financial situation can also play a significant role in

determining whether to provide the necessary tools for online learning. The data from parents showed that more than half of parents did not have undergraduate degrees. Also, half of them reported that they could not provide tools such as laptops or other necessary equipment to their children, while three quarters of them have more than two children. This led to dissatisfaction among parents about online learning, and only a quarter of them continued their support for their children. The results about lack of communication and dissatisfaction among parents were consistent with teacher data. Less than a quarter of teachers were satisfied with online learning, and they thought it did not work well for students and keep contacting their parents. The lack of access to necessary tools for online learning created a significant barrier for parents in supporting their children's education. Without laptops or other equipment, many parents felt unable to adequately facilitate their children's learning from home. This dissatisfaction resulted in a decrease in parental support for online learning, with only a quarter of parents continuing to actively support their children's education in this manner. The data highlights the urgent need for educational institutions and policymakers to address the digital divide and ensure that all students have equal access to the tools they need for successful online learning.

VII.3.3 A dual perspective on determinants of parental engagement

In today's complicated educational systems, the socioeconomic factors that play a role in parental involvement need more study in different contexts and perspectives. Understanding the influence of socioeconomic factors on parental involvement can help identify barriers and develop strategies to promote greater engagement. Factors significantly impact the level of involvement parents have in their children's education. By conducting research in diverse contexts and considering various perspectives, we can gain a more comprehensive understanding of how these factors intersect and ultimately shape parental involvement. This study aimed to explore the role of determinant factors in parental involvement, namely time, income, educational level, and number of children, in the eyes of two distinct groups: teachers and parents. By examining the data obtained from a questionnaire that used a 4-point Likert scale to measure factors, insights into how these groups differ and align in their choices were gained. It was necessary to compare the variable means for each group in order to understand how parents and teachers thought about the relative importance of the four factors. Table 47 displays the results of this analysis.

Table 47

Descriptive statistics of mean values for determinants of parental engagement.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Parents	Time	556	3.4712	.72849
	Income	552	2.9185	.83409
	Education level	556	3.2464	.78871
	Children number	551	2.6588	1.00168
Teachers	Time	128	3.2031	.07793
	Income	128	2.8438	.07799
	Education level	127	3.4646	.06204
	Children number	129	2.9535	.08152

The data analysis uncovers intriguing trends within the parent group. According to an average rating of 3.47, time is the main component of parental participation. The high mean value indicates that parents perceive time as being relatively significant for enhancing their level of participation. Furthermore, the observed standard deviation of 0.73 suggests that there exists a certain level of agreement among parents in relation to their perception of the importance of time. The variable of income, although it is not much lower, is slightly less prioritised compared to the variable of time, as indicated by its average value of 2.92. The observed higher standard deviation value of 0.83 indicates a greater degree of variability in income factors among parents. On average, parents rate the importance of education at 3.25, placing it in the middle range among the factors. The obtained moderate standard deviation of 0.79 indicates a moderate degree of consensus among parents on the importance of education level in relation to parental involvement. The number of children was perceived as the least significant factor for parents, as indicated by a mean score of 2.66. The notably higher standard deviation 1.00 indicates a more diverse range of factors among parents for children number in families. A further investigation was carried out to investigate the potential influence of gender on the diversity observed in the standard deviation. According to the mean data broken down by gender, male parents placed a

higher value on having more children than female parents when considering what factors are more important.

Similar tendencies could be observed within the teacher group. With an average rating of 3.20, time is ranked second highest among the factors influencing parental engagement. The observed low standard deviation value of 0.08 indicates a good level of consistency among teachers about time as an influential factor. Income is ranked at an average of 2.84, closely trailing behind. This relatively high mean combined with a low standard deviation (0.08) indicates that teachers also place a high value on income for parents' involvement. An average rating of 3.46 indicates that education level is the preferred option among teachers. This implies that educators place significant importance on the educational level of parents in order to enhance their engagement in their children's education. The observed low standard deviation value of 0.06 suggests a high level of consensus among teachers on their assessment of the factor related to education level. The number of children, which has an average rating of 2.95, is deemed to be of lesser significance for teachers, aligning with the observed pattern among parents. The observed low standard deviation value of 0.08 indicates a notable degree of consensus among teachers regarding the number of children.

There is a distinction in the order of the factors that determine parental participation between the two groups. When it comes to parents, the order of importance is as follows: time, level of education, income, and the number of children. In the case of teachers, educational level, time, number of children, and income. It is interesting to note that the teachers' observations indicate that education has a higher effect than available time. In contrast, parents perceive that their educational level has a lesser impact on their constraints compared to their schedule. People with more education usually have busier schedules, but they may also be the ones who make the most efficient use of their time. In order to get a clearer picture of this, compare means analysis was performed on both variables of education level and time, grouping the respondents according to their level of education. The test showed that highly educated parents consider the educational level of their parents more important to parental involvement than low-educated ones. It was also revealed that the residence status was significant in the sense that parents value their time in involving their children's education. Parents from the host community placed a higher value on time than those who were displaced. This may also be due to the high rate of unemployment that

existed among displaced parents, which was higher than the rate that existed in the host community.

If we look at the standard deviation of the two samples, we can see that the values held by the parents vary from one another, whereas the opinions of the teachers are almost consistent with one another. This indicates that the perspectives of parents are dependent on the background variables. The impact of education has been previously discussed. Regarding income, we were also interested in determining the characteristics of respondents who assessed it as high. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) test indicated that financially vulnerable and female parents assigned higher ratings to income.

VII.4 Summary

Teachers' responses regarding parental involvement were examined to gain a better understanding of parents' roles and the factors that might influence them. This chapter presented the viewpoint of teachers, and it offered the opportunity to compare the perspectives of parents and teachers on various aspects of parental involvement in accordance with the aims and questions of the research. By doing so, it became easier to comprehend the expectations that teachers have of parents and the ways in which parents might contribute to the education of their children.

Chapter VIII. Conclusion

Parental involvement is a crucial element of advanced educational systems. It is seen as a very important factor in the learning and achievement of students. Research has consistently shown that students whose parents are actively involved in their education tend to have higher grades, better attendance, and more positive attitudes towards school. Parental involvement can take many forms, including attending parent-teacher conferences, volunteering in the classroom, communicating, and helping with homework. By working together, parents and educators can create a supportive and nurturing environment that enhances students' educational experiences and sets them up for success in the future. This research studied parental involvement among displaced and non-displaced people in the Kurdistan region of Iraq. The study attempted to draw a picture of parental involvement and differences between the two groups through the lens of parents themselves and teachers. The researcher utilised the quantitative method to gather data using surveys. The surveys were distributed to a sample of parents and teachers in the region. The surveys aimed to collect information on various aspects of the two groups' perspectives and experiences.

Despite the importance of investigating parental involvement in education, the research can be seen as one of the first attempts in the area, especially among the displaced in the region. It also highlights the need for further research and exploration in this field, as it can lay the groundwork providing a starting point for other researchers to build upon. It raised new questions and identified problems that were previously unknown or not well understood.

VIII. 1 The theoretical and empirical results of the dissertation

In the theoretical part of the dissertation, the researcher explores concepts related to displacement and social capital theory as a related theory to the topic. To create a foundation and familiarise the reader with the context, the background of Iraq and the Kurdistan region was introduced extensively. This included a historical overview of Iraq's political and social landscape, as well as the specific dynamics and challenges faced the region. The researcher delved into the historical context of Iraq's formation, the impact of external influences on its development, and the complex relationship between the central government and the Kurdish authorities. Through this

comprehensive background, the reader gained a deep understanding of the unique context in which the research is situated, setting the stage for the subsequent analysis and findings.

Apart from an introduction about displaced people in the region, the term displaced was also conceptualised to better understand the difference between migrants, internally displaced people, and refugees. This conceptualisation was essential to accurately analysing the situation of displaced people in the region and distinguishing between different categories based on their legal status and migration patterns. By defining these terms, the research aimed to provide a clear framework for understanding the specific challenges faced by each group and how they interact with the central government and Kurdish authorities.

The education system in the modern Iraqi state was introduced. The education system in Iraq has since undergone numerous changes and reforms. The difference between Iraqi and Kurdish education systems was also significant, with distinct curricula and languages of instruction to reflect the cultural and linguistic diversity of both regions.

Following that, the implementation of education in contexts of conflict and displacement was discussed. The alterations occur as a result of conflict, and their effects on both family dynamics and student outcomes were also highlighted. The immense challenges and disruptions that education systems often face were discussed. Displaced children and youth are not only uprooted from their homes and communities but also from their schools and familiar learning environments. This sudden disruption can have profound impacts on their educational attainment and well-being. Additionally, the dynamics within families are also significantly affected, as they struggle to adapt to new circumstances and find ways to support their children's education amidst the chaos.

The theoretical part of the dissertation incorporated a theory, social capital theory. The purpose of this was to offer a theoretical basis for appreciating the value of parental contributions to a child's social capital. Considerations such as time spent on schoolwork, income invested, and emotional support were included. This theory's incorporation into a theoretical framework made it easier to investigate how parental involvement, under the direction of social capital principles, affects children's education. Furthermore, the application of a well-established conceptual framework facilitated the analysis and interpretation of many dimensions of parental involvement. This methodology has the potential to enhance the depth and theoretical sophistication of the research, offering a conceptual framework that facilitates the interpretation

of findings and contributes to the wider academic discourse. Along with these, the social capital interpretation in the context of displacement has implications for vulnerable educational contexts. Then the family as the smallest unit of society and its role in the development of children and their education were discussed. The family was emphasised as the foundation of society, playing a crucial role in shaping the values and beliefs of children. It was emphasised that parents have a responsibility to provide a nurturing and supportive environment for their children's growth and development. Furthermore, the importance of parental involvement in education was highlighted, as it was seen as a key factor in determining the academic success of children. Overall, the discussion emphasised the integral role of the family in shaping the future of society through the upbringing and education of children.

The present research study aimed to examine the relationship between sociodemographic factors, parental involvement, and attitudes. The research focuses on two specific groups: local parents and displaced parents from IDPs and Syrian refugees in Iraqi Kurdistan. The study was developed as a descriptive survey study with a focus on quantitative approach questions, in accordance with its intended objectives. The research questions were divided on two sections which were questions for parents and teachers.

The questions for the parents section were the following:

1. *What and how socioeconomic factors influence parental involvement?*
 - a. *How do parents perceive their own roles compared to the roles of teachers in their children's education?*
 - b. *What criteria guide the parent groups for their decisions regarding school choice and dropout possibilities?*
2. *How can we characterise teacher-parent communications?*
 - a. *What different outcomes can be attributed to these communication efforts among the parent groups?*

And the questions for the teachers were the following:

1. *To what extent are parents aware of parental involvement?*

2. What is the level of facilitations of parent involvement and whether there are differences based on geographical provinces and residential categorisation?

3. What is the role of gender in parental involvement?

4. What characterises parent-teacher communications?

The primary objective was to underscore the perspectives and engagement of these groups in their children's educational pursuits. The perspectives of parents and teachers towards parental involvement in the educational process were investigated. This research investigated parental perspectives regarding their involvement in their children's educational experiences and factors that shape the forms of involvement. The study revealed that there were divergent perspectives on parent participation between local parents and displaced parents. There were differences in the level of parental involvement. This study highlighted the influence of socioeconomic and demographic factors on the educational experiences and trajectories of these groups. In this study, contextual variables were analysed in order to investigate the impact of socioeconomic factors on parental involvement views and behaviours. The study additionally discussed the interactions between families and education.

It was hypothesised that the socioeconomic, cultural and social capital of parents can influence the likelihood of children dropping out. The parents' direct and indirect involvement in the students dropout was proven. The data taken from parents showed that factors such as poverty, limited access to educational resources, and understanding parental roles as educational supporters of their children contributed to the antecedents of dropout. This emphasises the importance of early intervention and targeted support for at-risk students to prevent dropout. Despite the low rate of dropping out, it is still concerning as it raises questions about the inclusiveness of education and involving parents in the education of children in the education system. Ultimately, the success of a student is not solely dependent on their own efforts but also on the involvement and support of their parents and the education system as a whole. It was revealed that one of the main reasons for dropping out was providing financial support to families by children, which leads to child labour. Furthermore, it was found that parents who have a higher educational degree are more actively involved in the education of their children. Therefore, it is crucial for schools to create more opportunities for parental involvement, such as regular parent-teacher conferences and workshops that educate parents on how to support their child's learning

at home. By promoting a strong partnership between parents and the education system, we can ensure that all students have the necessary support to thrive academically and avoid the pitfalls of dropping out. The dropping-out intention was found more among displaced parents than in the host community. This provided empirical support for the hypothesised variations between the parenting roles of host community members and those of displaced people. It was shown that parents' life quality is associated with better involvement and role in their children's lives.

Another factor that is considered helpful in overcoming the dropout issue is school choice. It can impact both the rate of students dropping out and their intention to leave school. The analysis of the data revealed that a significant portion of parents in the study did not have school choice; however, its rate in non-displaced parents was lower than displaced. A majority of parents from the host community, specifically over two-thirds, indicated that they have the opportunity to exercise choice in selecting schools for their children. According to the research, there is a notable disparity in the level of autonomy between host community parents and displaced parents when it comes to selecting schools for their children. Specifically, the data revealed that host community parents have a far higher degree of autonomy in this regard, which is two-thirds, while it is nearly a quarter for displaced ones. Additionally, parent groups' priorities for choosing a school varied, but elements like student demographics (peer group) and the teaching approach in schools had a significant impact.

In relation to how parents see their and teachers' roles in the education of their children, the hypothesis was that parents do not see their roles as important as a teacher in their children's education. A considerable majority of parents held the perception that the duty of transferring knowledge is equally distributed between parents and teachers. When it comes to their children's "values, morals, and habits," however, many parents take a more serious stance of responsibility. The vast majority of parents thought they should have more of an impact than teachers do. This finding demonstrates the common cultural belief that a child's moral character and ethical beliefs should be more shaped by their family than by teachers and the education system.

Parents demonstrated a significant degree of interest in supporting their children's education so they could do well in school. Over four-fifths of parents make deliberate efforts to positively impact their children's educational development, highlighting their willingness to engage in promoting the learning of their children. However, when it comes to understanding their

children's assignments, projects, and tasks, a clear contradiction emerges. Only half of them are actively engaged in the comprehension of the tasks assigned to their children. This suggests that while parents expressed enthusiasm for providing assistance, children would not receive a significant level of support from their parents. This data also revealed the role that parents could play in influencing the transition of knowledge and information.

Similar findings were confirmed by teachers when they were asked about parents' efforts, awareness, and children's assessment of active parental involvement. Based on the data collected from teachers, it has been verified that a significant proportion of parents demonstrated a positive response to the invites. The participants demonstrated a high level of responsiveness; however, their awareness about parental participation received a different level of commendation from teachers. This provided support for the hypothesis that parents are not yet prepared for high level involvement. While many parents showed enthusiasm and willingness to participate, some teachers felt that there was still room for improvement in terms of overall awareness about the importance of parental involvement. It is crucial for parents to understand the positive impact their participation can have on their child's education and overall school experience. Efforts should be made to further educate parents about the benefits and encourage them to actively engage in their child's education. Teachers emphasised the diverse levels of awareness among parents pertaining to parental engagement. Teachers also showed the lowest level of satisfaction when it came to parents' ability to accurately assess children in terms of their academic ability and talents. A similar perspective is evident in the parental data, such as parents' capacity to support their children with tasks, projects, and assignments. This lack of satisfaction highlighted the need for parents to be more informed about their child's academic progress and potential. By accurately assessing their child's abilities, parents can better support and encourage their educational growth.

Parents reported that all factors of time, income, education level, and number of children were considered important in home-based engagements. Displaced and host community residents considered time and education level more important than other factors, but they had differing perspectives on the relative importance of time and educational level in parental participation. In addition to considering residential status, the educational level of parents emerged as a significant

determinant in prioritising income and education level as factors influencing parental involvement.

Parent-teacher communication constituted a primary area of emphasis in the study. The hypothesis was that less frequent meetings for displaced parents, face-to-face meetings as the main mode, and low expectations from teachers are the characteristics of parent-teacher communication. The hypothesis was partially confirmed. The findings indicated that a considerable proportion of parents maintain an optimistic perspective and articulate satisfaction with the school environment and invitations. Parents expressed a feeling of being welcomed and accepted into the school community. This suggested that the school community successfully cultivated an inclusive and hospitable atmosphere, guaranteeing that parents feel valued and comfortable when engaging with them. The frequency and extent of communication between parents and teachers were notably high; nonetheless, it is concerning that a significant majority of parents, almost three-fourths, were not provided with specific guidance on how to effectively support their children's educational development, even though sometimes parents are involved in repairing and renovating schools. Contrary to what was hypothesised, the findings indicated that parents who have been displaced were more inclined to engage in communication with teachers compared to parents from the host community. Parents generally tend to favour face-to-face meetings and communication through their children, especially displaced parents who prefer direct interactions to those mediated by their children. It was also found that digital communications, specifically email, are the least utilised form of communication.

It was revealed that teachers had the same preferences as parents for communicating. They preferred in-person interactions and communicating through the intermediary of the child. Digital communications were also found to be the least preferred among the options. The findings indicated that there was minimal disparity observed between the preferred and utilised modes of communication. The significance of digital communication became more evident with the outbreak of the pandemic, particularly in the context of online learning. It has been disclosed that educators encountered challenges in maintaining consistent communication with parents.

It was also shown that the hypothesis that parents would be dissatisfied with online education was correct. During the period of the COVID-19 pandemic, almost half of parents indicated a lack of or infrequent involvement in communication with teachers. Approximately a quarter of

parents indicated a lack of involvement in providing assistance to their children. These statistics highlight the challenges faced by both parents and teachers during the pandemic. With the sudden shift to online learning, parents struggled to adapt to the new role of being their child's primary educator. The lack of communication and assistance from parents hindered the students' learning experience and added to the already existing educational disparities. A majority of parents, namely four-fifths, expressed dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of online learning. It was revealed that a significant proportion of parents did not have access to the digital tools required for engaging in online learning. As a result, many students were unable to fully participate in online classes and complete assignments. This further widened the gap between students from disadvantaged backgrounds and their peers. The finding underscores the presence of the digital gap and its impact on the educational experiences of students. While the displaced parents provided more effective support for their children during the COVID-19 pandemic, their lack of gadgets was worse. The lack of gadgets among displaced parents worsened the situation, as they were unable to provide the necessary technology for their children to access online learning.

According to teachers, while parents play a part in some school activities, they do not participate actively in the managerial and policy decision-making processes of schools. This is despite the fact that schools' social environments are geared towards parents' engagement, with the goal of providing a welcoming environment for parents and maintaining a good relationship between families and teachers. Some schools employ school councils as a means to engage in crucial deliberations pertaining to school affairs with parents' participation. The committees include parents in the process of implementing changes, recognising and appreciating their contributions towards enhancing the overall quality of the school.

Teachers reported that school councils facilitate open communication between home and school on matters of mutual concern. They emphasised that parents can have a voice in shaping their children's schools through elected representatives. Teachers highlighted that feedback and suggestions from students' families were crucial to the development of the school as a whole. They thought the honest thoughts of their parents helped them make improvements that benefited the schools. Schools sometimes organise volunteer activities based on the idea that such initiatives foster a sense of pride and accountability for parents regarding upholding a secure and healthy school environment. Additionally, educators placed considerable importance on parent-

teacher conferences and consistent communication channels. According to their views, these interactions facilitated collaboration between parents and teachers by highlighting areas where students may want further support or reinforcement.

To examine the hypothesis of the association between parents' sociodemographic background and the level of parental involvement within the sample, multinomial regression analysis was employed. The results of the study indicated that there were relationships between the province, age, residential status, number of children, and education level of parents and their level of involvement in the learning process of their children.

Teachers reported a moderate level of parental involvement in facilitating the homework activities of their children. This clearly showed how important it is for teachers to help parents get more involved by using feedback, which is an important part of getting parents involved. According to the data, a minority of teachers reported engaging in the practice of providing feedback to parents, with the majority indicating a lack of engagement in this activity. This suggested a possible avenue for strengthening communication between educators and carers. Regular communication and feedback help parents understand their child's progress, strengths, and areas for improvement, enabling them to provide more targeted support. Moreover, parents would feel involved and informed. Therefore, it is crucial for teachers to prioritise and implement effective feedback strategies to enhance communication and engagement with parents.

Around half of schools possess a policy or strategy aimed at fostering parental involvement, whereas the other half lack such measures. The findings of the study revealed that there were variations in the level of parental involvement in school activities across three provinces, as well as differences in involvement policy across provinces and among parents residing in displaced camps and host communities.

The data verified that gender has an influence on parental involvement. The research has indicated that there is no statistically significant difference between genders in terms of contacting teachers. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge that cultural values, traditions, and societal norms have a significant influence on the roles and responsibilities assumed by mothers and fathers in determining who intends to initiate contact with teachers and who maintains more frequent communication.

VIII. 2 Limitations

By exclusively targeting the parents and teachers of public school pupils in the eighth and ninth grades, they may not be representative of the broader population. This narrow focus may exclude important data from other age groups and types of educational institutions, such as private schools or homeschooling. Consequently, the findings may not accurately reflect the experiences and challenges faced by all students in the education system. To obtain a comprehensive understanding of the entire student population, it is crucial to broaden the scope of the study and include a diverse range of participants.

Despite intentional plans for data collection methods, some unintentional limitations were encountered during the research. Due to the COVID-19 epidemic, international and domestic travel were disrupted. It made it more challenging to get to the research field on time. There was very little information shared with the wider public, and the schools shut down for extended periods of time and reopened at unpredictable intervals.

Moreover, language barriers and cultural differences posed challenges to effectively communicating and understanding the perspectives of diverse participants, more specifically with IDPs. To overcome this challenge, an interpreter was involved. It was also important to establish trust, create a safe space for mutual understanding, and clarify the purpose of the research and expectations from both sides.

The management of bureaucratic processes inside governmental institutions, such as the Ministry of Education and the security of camps, required significant work and careful preparation for data collection. This involved obtaining the necessary permissions and clearances, coordinating with multiple stakeholders, and ensuring the safety and confidentiality of the collected data. Additionally, the research team must be well-versed in the legal and ethical aspects of data collection, particularly when working with vulnerable populations like refugees and IDPs.

Finally, the willingness to answer among people in the time and situation mentioned was an obstacle to limiting the number of participants. Despite these obstacles, the researcher employed various strategies, such as building trust, providing incentives, and ensuring anonymity, to encourage participation.

These limitations highlight the need for future studies to address these obstacles and ensure a more inclusive representation of the population.

VIII. 3 Implications and suggestions

It was found that residence status and provinces associated with having school choice for parents. Ensuring equal opportunities for all parents in selecting schools can contribute to fostering a more inclusive and equitable education system. Limited choice in school selection may hinder children's access to quality education and limit their ability to thrive academically.

The findings of the study indicate a significant association between the financial circumstances and residential status with the likelihood of students dropping out of school or an intention to do so. Providing workshops specifically designed for displaced parents to address their unique challenges and help them better support their children's education. These workshops can cover topics such as language barriers, cultural differences, and the importance of parental involvement and even lifelong learning particularly in knowledge-driven economic sectors (Erdei, 2021). By empowering these parents and giving them the tools they need, we can increase their confidence in their ability to support their child's learning at home, ultimately reducing the likelihood of dropping out. Additionally, these workshops can also foster a sense of community among displaced parents, allowing them to share their experiences and learn from one another.

The findings revealed a vague understanding regarding the respective roles and responsibilities of parents and teachers in the realm of children's education. The parents needed more guidance about their role. A clear definition of the roles of parents and teachers in the child education system, so that we can ensure a cohesive and effective approach to supporting a child's development. This clarity allows parents and teachers to understand their specific responsibilities and work collaboratively towards providing the best possible education for the child.

It was found that the implementation of regular communication and use of all accessible forms of communication remained inadequate. Regular communication between parents and teachers, where parents can gain insights into the curriculum and learning objectives. Additionally, parents can attend parent-teacher conferences and workshops to further enhance their understanding of their children's education.

For a better communication quality, technology workshops or online resources that teach parents how to effectively use digital communication tools. Additionally, teachers can provide regular updates through email or online platforms, allowing parents to stay informed about their children's progress and any upcoming events or assignments. By fostering digital communication between parents and teachers, a stronger partnership can be formed, ultimately benefiting the student's educational experience.

According to the data, there were children who are at risk of child labour. A comprehensive social welfare program that can alleviate the financial burdens faced families, reducing the necessity for children to contribute financially. Additionally, addressing the root causes of child labour, such as poverty and lack of access to quality education, is crucial in preventing dropout rates and ensuring a brighter future for all children

VIII.4 Possible directions for continuation of the research

The current study's participants were restricted to parents and teachers of students in grades 8 and 9. Additionally, the sample was collected from various local and camp schools. Generalising the findings presents a challenge. In order to further strengthen the reliability of the findings given in this study, it is important to conduct more research involving a larger sample size. A potential approach for conducting interviews is devised by using the findings of the present study and thereafter employing it to gather data pertaining to parental involvement. By employing this approach, the outcomes can be generalised to a larger population, and additional variables that may be associated with parental engagement can also be explored.

The present study was carried out within the context of basic schools. The collection of data at high schools is also of significant use to test the hypotheses that student age and parental experience have a role in shaping parental participation patterns. By including high schools in the research, we can gain a better understanding of how parental involvement may vary across different age groups of students. Additionally, examining the role of parental experience in involvement can provide insights into whether parents with more experience in the education system are more likely to be involved. This expanded research scope would allow for a more comprehensive analysis of the factors affecting parental involvement in education.

The assessment of educational standards in public and private schools continuously remains a subject of inquiry within the realm of educational policy and among educators. Examining the

parental participation dynamics and instructional approaches employed by public and private schools is a crucial to have a deeper understanding of the current educational context in the region. This aim is to shed light on the disparities and similarities between both educational settings in terms of engaging parents in their children's education.

The role of parents in academic achievements and the career path children would take can be investigated. One way to investigate the role of parents in academic achievement is by conducting surveys or interviews with both parents and children. These surveys can ask about the level of parental involvement in their child's education, such as helping with homework, attending parent-teacher conferences, or providing educational resources. Moreover, researchers can analyse the academic performance of children whose parents have different levels of education or different career paths to understand how parental background influences their children's career choices.

The research can be continued if we prepare a longitudinal study: in the camps and schools we have already contacted, we will be able to conduct a follow-up study among both subsamples every year. This will allow us to track any changes in participation rates and identify any additional strategies that may be effective in overcoming these obstacles. Additionally, implementing targeted outreach programmes and community engagement initiatives can help to foster a sense of inclusivity and encourage a wider range of individuals to participate in future studies. By addressing these limitations, we can ensure that our research findings are more representative and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the population.

However, for this, a more detailed questionnaire for parents and teachers needs to be developed, and the educational science picture would be most complete if we had more knowledge about the students' achievement and school integration through a survey conducted among students. By including a more detailed questionnaire for parents and teachers, we can gather valuable insights into the home and classroom environment, which can greatly enhance the understanding of students' achievement and school integration. Additionally, conducting a survey among students would provide first-hand information about their experiences and perspectives, giving us a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that influence their academic success and social integration. By addressing these areas, our research findings would be more comprehensive and representative, ultimately leading to more effective interventions and policies in the field of educational science.

VIII. 5 Summary

In the final chapter, the theoretical results and research questions and hypotheses which guided the research was restated. It covered the concise summary of the key findings and from the research. The implications of findings for theory, practice, policy, or future research were discussed. Also, how the research contributes to existing knowledge in education field and what practical implications it may have was explained. Finally, recommendations or suggestions based on the findings were identified.

References

- Adult Learning Resource Center. (2003). Involving immigrant and refugee families in their children's schools: barriers, challenges, and successful strategies.
<http://www.brycs.org/clearinghouse/resource.cfm?ID=4987>
- Adwan, S., Bar-Tal, D., & Wexler, B. E. (2016). Portrayal of the Other in Palestinian and Israeli Schoolbooks: A Comparative Study. *Political Psychology*, 37(2), 201-217. <https://doi.org/10.1111/pops.12227>
- Agüero, J. M., & Majid, M. F. (2014). War and the Destruction of Human Capital. *Households in Conflict Network*.
- Akresh, R., & De Walque, D. (2008). *Armed conflict and schooling: evidence from the 1994 Rwandan genocide*. World Bank Publication.
- Alhussain, K., Shah, D., Thornton, J. D., & Kelly, K. M. (2019). Familial Opioid Misuse and Family Cohesion: Impact on Family Communication and Well-being. *Addictive Disorders & Their Treatment*, 18(4), 194-204. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ADT.0000000000000165>
- Alimba, N. C. (2017). Dysfunctional consequences of conflict on teachers' productivity: a theoretical insight. *AFRREV IJAH: An International Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 6(1), 146-161.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ijah.v6i1.13>
- Alqahtani, A. Y., & Rajkhan, A. A. (2020). E-learning critical success factors during the covid-19 pandemic: A comprehensive analysis of e-learning managerial perspectives. *Education sciences*, 10(9), 216.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci10090216>
- Alsaudi, F. (2016). Reasons Influencing Selection Decision Making of Parental Choice of School. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science*, 2(1), 201-211

- Andrade, B. M. (2015). The parental involvement of non-English speaking Latino parents in secondary education [Master's thesis, California State University]. Digital Commons @ CSUMB.
- Anselme, M. L., & Hands, C. (2010). Access to secondary and tertiary education for all refugees: Steps and challenges to overcome. *Refuge*, 27(2), 89-96.
- Argentieri, B. (2015, October 29). *Syrian refugees adapt to life in Iraqi U.N. camp controlled by Islamic State*. Reuters Foundation. <https://www.reuters.com/article/uk-iraq-displaced-camp-idUKKCN0SN1UI20151029/>
- Ariza, E. N. (2000). Actions speak louder than words--Or do they? Debunking the myth of apathetic immigrant parents in education. *Contemporary Education*, 71(3), 36.
- Arrow, K. J. (2012). *Social choice and individual values*. Yale University Press.
- Assefa, Y., Tilwani, S., & Moge, B. (2023). The impact of armed violence on educational institutions, students' educational attainment and the role of actors in governance of the education process. *Cogent Education*, 10 (1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2023.2189503>
- Baeza, R. (2012). *The educational impact of involvement of immigrant Latino parents on their high-achieving 5th grade children*. University of California.
- Baligadoo, P. D. (2014). Peace profile: Maria Montessori—peace through education. *Peace Review*, 26(3), 427-433. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10402659.2014.938003>
- Bardsley, M. E. (2002). Building Successful Partnerships: a Guide for Developing Parent and Family Involvement Programs. (Professional Books). *Childhood Education*, 78(3), 176-177.
- Barenbaum, J., Ruchkin, V., & Schwab-Stone, M. (2004). The psychosocial aspects of children exposed to war: practice and policy initiatives. *Journal of child psychology and psychiatry*, 45(1), 41-62.

- Bartels, S. A., Michael, S., & Bunting, A. (2021). Child marriage among Syrian refugees in Lebanon: At the gendered intersection of poverty, immigration, and safety. *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, 19(4), 472-487. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15562948.2020.1839619>
- Bartkus, V. O., & Davis, J. H. (Eds.). (2010). *Social capital: Reaching out, reaching in*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Behnia, B. (1996). Distrust and resettlement of survivors of war and torture. *International Journal of Mental Health*, 25(4), 45-58. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00207411.1996.11>
- Bertrand, D. (2000). *Policies for the reception and integration of refugees: A comparative study of the UK and France*. Oxford University.
- Betancourt, T. S., & Williams, T. (2008). Building an evidence base on mental health interventions for children affected by armed conflict. *Intervention*, 6(1), 39. <https://doi.org/10.1097/WTF.0b013e3282f761ff>
- Bogensneider, K., & Johnson, C. (2004). Family involvement in education: How important is it? What can legislators do. *A policymaker's guide to school finance: Approaches to use and questions to ask*, 19-29.
- Bokovoy, M., Irvine, J. A., & Lilly, C.S. (1997). *State-society relations in Yugoslavia, 1945-1992*. Macmillan.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). *The forms of capital. Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*. Greenwood.
- Boyle, M. H. (2002). Home ownership and the emotional and behavioral problems of children and youth. *Child Development*, 73(3), 883-892. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00445>

- Branje, S. J., Hale, W. W., Frijns, T., & Meeus, W. H. (2010). Longitudinal associations between perceived parent-child relationship quality and depressive symptoms in adolescence. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 38(6), 751-763. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-010-9401-6>
- Brito, J., & Waller, H. (1994). Partnership at a price. *Ruling the margins: Problematizing parental involvement*, 157-166.
- Broer, M., Bai, Y., & Fonseca, F. (2019). *Socioeconomic inequality and educational outcomes: Evidence from twenty years of TIMSS*. Springer nature.
- Bryan, J., & Henry, L. (2012). A model for building school–family–community partnerships: Principles and process. *Journal of Counseling & development*, 90(4), 408-420. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2012.00052.x>
- Bubb, S., & Jones, M. A. (2020). Learning from the COVID-19 home-schooling experience: Listening to pupils, parents/carers and teachers. *Improving schools*, 23(3), 209-222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1365480220958797>
- Buckland, P. (2005). *Reshaping the future: Education and postconflict reconstruction*. World Bank Publications.
- Buist, K. L., Deković, M., & Gerris, J. R. (2011). Dyadic family relationships and adolescent internalizing and externalizing problem behavior: Effects of positive and negative affect. *Family Science*, 2(1), 34-42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19424620.2011.601895>
- Bujang, M. A., Sa'at, N., & Bakar, T. M. I. T. A. (2018). Sample size guidelines for logistic regression from observational studies with large population: emphasis on the accuracy between statistics and

- parameters based on real life clinical data. *The Malaysian Journal of Medical Sciences: MJMS*, 25(4), 122. <https://doi.org/10.21315/mjms2018.25.4.12>
- Cabezudo, A. & Haavelsrud (2007). Rethinking peace education. *Handbook of peace and conflict studies* (pp. 279-296). Routledge.
- Cannata, M., & Peñaloza, R. V. (2008). An Analysis of Student Achievement Growth, Teacher Working Conditions and Qualifications, and School Choice. *National Center on School Choice, Vanderbilt University (NJ)*.
- Ceka, A., & Murati, R. (2016). The role of parents in the education of children. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(5), 61-64.
- Cerna, L. (2019). *Refugee education: Integration models and practices in OECD countries*. OECD
- Chatelard, G. (2009). *Migration from Iraq between the Gulf and the Iraq wars (1990-2003): Historical and sociospatial dimensions*. HAL
- Chen, Q., Kong, Y., Gao, W., & Mo, L. (2018). Effects of socioeconomic status, parent–child relationship, and learning motivation on reading ability. *Frontiers in psychology*, 9, 1297. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01297>
- Christenson, S. L., & Reschly, A. L. (Eds.). (2010). *Handbook of school-family partnerships*. Routledge.
- Chugh, S. (2011). *Dropout in secondary education: A study of children living in slums of Delhi*. National University of Educational Planning and Administration
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American journal of sociology*, 94, S95-S120.

- Coleman, J. S. (1994). *Foundations of social theory*. Harvard University Press.
- Coleman, J. S. (2018). *Parents, their children, and schools*. Routledge.
- Constant, L., Culbertson, S., Stasz, C., & Vernez, G. (2014). *Improving technical vocational education and training in the Kurdistan region--Iraq*. RAND Corporation.
- Cook, D. & Wall, J. (2011). *Children and armed conflict*. Palgrave Macmillan
- Cooper, C. E., Crosnoe, R., Suizzo, M. A., & Pituch, K. A. (2010). Poverty, race, and parental involvement during the transition to elementary school. *Journal of Family Issues*, 31(7), 859-883.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X09351515>
- Corder, G. W., & Foreman, D. I. (2011). *Nonparametric statistics for non-statisticians*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118165881>.
- Cordesman, A. & Burke, A., (2010). *Economic challenges in post-conflict iraq*. CSIS.
- Cordesman, A. H. (2020). *Strategic dialogue: Shaping the Iraqi-US relationship*. Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS).
- Craig, L., & Mullan, K. (2010). How Mothers and Fathers Share Childcare: A Cross-National Time-Use Comparison. *American Sociological Review*, 75(5), 729-746.
- Cureton, A. E. (2020). Strangers in the school: Facilitators and barriers regarding refugee parental involvement. *The Urban Review*, 52(5), 924-949. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-020-00580-0>
- Dahlman, C. (2002). The political geography of Kurdistan. *Eurasian Geography and Economics*, 43(4), 271-299. <https://doi.org/10.2747/1538-7216.43.4.271>
- Davies, L. (2004). *Education and conflict: Complexity and chaos*. RoutledgeFalmer.

- Dawisha, A. (2013). *Iraq: A political history*. Princeton University Press.
- Dearing, E., Kreider, H., Simpkins, S., & Weiss, H. B. (2006). Family involvement in school and low-income children's literacy: Longitudinal associations between and within families. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(4), 653. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.98.4.653>
- Deng, F. M. (1999). Guiding principles on internal displacement. *International Migration Review, 33*(2), 484-493.
- Department of labor. (2021, May 12). *Minimal advancement- efforts made but continued practice that delayed advancement*. https://www.dol.gov/sites/dolgov/files/ILAB/child_labor_reports/tda2021/Iraq.pdf
- Deslandes, R., Potvin, P., & Leclerc, D. (1999). Family characteristics as predictors of school achievement: Parental involvement as a mediator. *McGill Journal of Education/Revue des sciences de l'enseignement de McGill, 34* (002).
- Dika, S. L., & Singh, K. (2002). Applications of social capital in educational literature: A critical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(1), 31-60. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543072001031>
- Doane, D. P., & Seward, L. E. (2011). Measuring skewness: a forgotten statistic?. *Journal of Statistics Education, 19*(2). <https://doi.org/10.1080/10691898.2011.11889611>
- Dryden-Peterson, S. (2011). *A Global Review: Refugee Education*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto.
- Dryden-Peterson, S. (2016). Refugee education: the crossroads of globalization. *Educational Researcher, 45*(9), 473–482. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X16683398>
- Duckworth, C. (2006). Teaching peace: a dialogue on the Montessori method. *Journal of peace education, 3*(1), 39-53. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17400200500532128>

- Durišić, M., & Bunijevac, M. (2017). Parental involvement as a important factor for successful education. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal*, 7(3), 137-153.
<https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.291>
- Eade, D., & Commins, S. (1996). Development in states of war. In *Development in States of War* (pp. 8-112). Oxfam Publishing.
- Eaton, T., Cheng, C., Mansour, R., Salisbury, P., Yazigi, J., & Khatib, L. (2019). *Conflict Economies in the Middle East and North Africa*. Royal Institute of International Affairs.
- Echenique, F., & Yenmez, M. B. (2015). How to control controlled school choice. *American Economic Review*, 105(8), 2679-2694. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20130929>
- ECRE. (2006, October 8). Assessment of skills and recognition of qualifications Recommendations for the integration of refugees and migrants in Europe. *European Website on Integration*. https://migrant-integration.ec.europa.eu/library-document/assessment-skills-and-recognition-qualifications-recommendations-integration_en
- Engler, Á. (2013). Students with small children in higher education. *Journal of Social Research & Policy*, 4(1), 109-120.
- Engler, Á. (2020). The effect and demand of family policy measures helping parents and teachers [A szülőket és pedagógusokat segítő családpolitikai intézkedések hatása és igénye] *KAPOCS*, 3(1) 81-91.
- Engler, Á., Kozek, L., & Németh, D. (2020). The Concept and Practice of Family Life Education. *Central European Journal of Educational Research*, 2(3), 55-61.
- Engler, Á. (2022). Family communities. In Pusztai, G. (Ed.) *Sociology of education: Theories, communities, contexts* (pp. 93-105). Debrecen of University Press.

- Entessar, N. (1992) *Kurdish Ethnonationalism*. Boulder and London: Lynne Rienner.
- Epstein, E. M. (1987). The corporate social policy process: Beyond business ethics, corporate social responsibility, and corporate social responsiveness. *California Management Review*, 29(3), 99-114.
- Epstein, J. L. (1986). Parents' reactions to teacher practices of parent involvement. *The elementary school journal*, 86(3), 277-294.
- Epstein, J. L. (2018). *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Routledge.
- Epstein, J. L. (2018). *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Routledge.
- Epstein, J. L., & Connors, L. J. (1992). School and family partnerships. *Practitioner*, 18(4), n4.
- Epstein, J. L., Sanders, M. G., Sheldon, S. B., Simon, B. S., Salinas, K. C., Jansorn, N. R., & Williams, K. J. (2018). *School, family, and community partnerships: Your handbook for action*. Corwin Press.
- Epstein, J., & Sheldon, S. (2002). Present and accounted for: Improving student attendance through family and community involvement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 95(5), 308–317.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00220670209596604>
- Erdei, G. (2021). From Knowledge-Driven to Learning- Driven -The Importance of Workplace Learning. *Studies in Educational Management*, 10, 34-47. <https://doi.org/10.32038/sem.2021.10.03>
- Erkan, A. (2011). Effects of social capital on academic success: A narrative synthesis. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 6(6), 456-461.

- Eskander, S. (2000). Britain's policy in Southern Kurdistan: The formation and the termination of the first Kurdish government, 1918–1919. *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 27(2), 139-163.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13530190020000501>
- European Council on Refugees and Exiles (ECRE).(2007, January, 6). *Policy briefing on the assessment of skills and recognition of qualifications of refugees and migrants in Europe*. https://migrant-integration.ec.europa.eu/library-document/policy-briefing-assessment-skills-and-recognition-qualifications-refugees-and-1_en
- Fan, X., & Chen, M. (2001). Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Educational psychology review*, 13, 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.2307/23358867>
- Farhad, N. B. (2018). Access to education for refugee children in Turkey: Opportunities and challenges. In *Congress Book: Innovation and Global Issues in Social Sciences*.
- Fattah, H. M., & Caso, F. (2009). *A brief history of Iraq*. Infobase Publishing.
- Fernandez-Fein, S., & Baker, L. (1997). Rhyme and alliteration sensitivity and relevant experiences among preschoolers from diverse backgrounds. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 29(3), 433-459.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10862969709547967>
- Field, J. (2005). *Social capital and lifelong learning*. Policy Press. Feinberg, W., & Torres, C. A. (2001). Democracy and education: John Dewey and Paulo Freire. *Education and Society*, 59.
- Fink, A. (2003). *The survey handbook*. Sage.
- Finkenauer, C., Engels, R. C. M. E., Meeus, W., & Oosterwegel, A. (2002). Self and identity in early adolescence. *Understanding early adolescent self and identity: Applications and interventions*, 25-56.

- Flaitz, J. (2006). *Understanding your refugee and immigrant students: An educational, cultural, and linguistic guide*. University of Michigan Press ELT.
- Franck, T. M. (2003). What Happens Now? The United Nations After Iraq. *American Journal of International Law*, 97(3), 607-620. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3109846>
- Friedman, B. A., Bobrowski, P. E., & Markow, D. (2007). Predictors of parents' satisfaction with their children's school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 45(3), 278-288. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230710747811>
- Furlong, M., McGilloway, S., Bywater, T., Hutchings, J., Smith, S. M., & Donnelly, M. (2012). Behavioural and cognitive-behavioural group-based parenting programmes for early-onset conduct problems in children aged 3 to 12 years. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 8(1), 1-239. <https://doi.org/10.4073/csr.2012.12>
- Furstenberg Jr, F. F., & Hughes, M. E. (1995). Social capital and successful development among at-risk youth. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 580-592.
- Germany Federal Ministry of the Interior. (2016). *The number of refugees must be substantially reduced on a permanent basis*. <https://www.bmi.bund.de/SharedDocs/kurzmeldungen/EN/2016/02/meeting-with-morgan-johansson.html>
- Gershoff, E. T., Aber, J. L., Raver, C. C., & Lennon, M. C. (2007). Income is not enough: Incorporating material hardship into models of income associations with parenting and child development. *Child Development*, 78(1), 70-95. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.00986.x>
- Ghareeb, E. A., & Dougherty, B. (2004). *Historical dictionary of Iraq*. Scarecrow Press.

- Gibbs, B. G., & Heaton, T. B. (2014). Drop out from primary to secondary school in Mexico: A life course perspective. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 36, 63-71.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2013.11.005>
- Githembe, P. K. (2009). *African refugee parents' involvement in their children's schools: Barriers and recommendations for improvement*. University of North Texas.
- Gunter, M. M. (2011). *The Kurds ascending: The evolving solution to the Kurdish problem in Iraq and Turkey*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Haig, G. (2018). The Iranian languages of northern Iraq. *the languages and linguistics of western Asia: An Areal Perspective* (pp. 6-267). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Haller, A. O., & Portes, A. (1973). Status attainment processes. *Sociology of education*, 51-91.
- Hamad, K. (2018). *Understanding the situation of learner autonomy within the context of higher education in Kurdistan-Iraq* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter]. University of Exeter Repository
- Hanifan, L. J. (1916). The rural school community center. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 67(1), 130-138. <https://doi.org/10.1177/000271621606700118>
- Harding, T. J. A. (2011). *A study of parents' conceptions of their roles as home educators of their children*. [Doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology]. QUT ePrints.
- Harris, A., & Goodall, J. (2007). *Engaging parents in raising achievement: Do parents know they matter?*. London: Department for Children, Schools and Families.
- Heath, D., Maghrabi, R., & Carr, N. (2015). Implications of information and communication technologies (ICT) for school-home communication. *Journal of Information Technology Education*, 14.

- Henderson, A. T. (1988). Parents are a school's best friends. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 70(2), 148-53.
- Henderson, A. T., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). *A new wave of evidence: The impact of school*. Annual Synthesis 2002. National Center for Family & Community Connections with Schools.
- Heshmati, A., Dilani, A., & Baban, S. M. (Eds.). (2014). *Perspectives on Kurdistan's economy and society in transition*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Heyneman, S. P., & Todoric-Bebic, S. (2000). A renewed sense for the purposes of schooling: the challenges of education and social cohesion in Asia, Africa, Latin America, Europe and Central Asia. *Prospects*, 30(2), 145-166. doi:10.1007/bf02754062
- Hill, N. E. (2001). Parenting and academic socialization as they relate to school readiness: The roles of ethnicity and family income. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(4), 686.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.4.686>
- Hill, N. E., & Tyson, D. F. (2009). Parental involvement in middle school: A meta-analytic assessment of the strategies that promote achievement. *Developmental Psychology*, 45(3), 740.
- Ho, H. Z., Chen, W. W., Tran, C. N., & Ko, C. T. (2010). Parental involvement in Taiwanese families: Father-mother differences. *Childhood Education*, 86(6), 376-381.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00094056.2010.10523173>
- Hofstede, G. J., Pedersen, P. B., & Hofstede, G. (2002). *Exploring culture: Exercises, stories and synthetic cultures*. Nicholas Brealey.
- Hosmer, D., & Lemeshow, S. (1989). *Applied logistic regression*. Wiley
- Hosmer, D., & Lemeshow, S. (2000). *Applied logistic regression* (2nd ed.). John Wiley and Sons.

- Huck, C., & Zhang, J. (2021). Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on K-12 Education: A Systematic Literature Review. *New Waves-Educational Research and Development Journal*, 24(1), 53-84.
- Hughes, M. M., Paxton, P., Clayton, A. B., & Zetterberg, P. (2019). Global gender quota adoption, implementation, and reform. *Comparative Politics*, 51(2), 219-238.
- Hunt, C. (2005). *The history of Iraq*. Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Ibrahim, H. H., Small, D., & Grimley, M. (2009). Parent/school interface: Current communication practices and their implication for Somali parents. *New Zealand Journal of Education Studies*, 44(2), 19-30.
- Idema, H., & Phalet, K. (2007). Transmission of gender-role values in Turkish-German migrant families: The role of gender, intergenerational and intercultural relations. *Zeitschrift für Familienforschung*, 19(1), 71-105.
- Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2007). *Policy Roundtable on Education in Emergencies, Fragile States and Reconstruction: Addressing Challenges and Exploring Alternatives*. UNICEF. https://inee.org/sites/default/files/resources/CIDA-INEE_Policy_Roundtable_Outcome_Report_2006.pdf
- IRC. (2022, November 22). *High child labor rates in Iraq continue to disrupt children's education, childhood and basic rights, the IRC warns. Rescue*. <https://www.rescue.org/press-release/high-child-labor-rates-iraq-continue-disrupt-childrens-education-childhood-and-basic>
- Isaa, J., & Jamil, H. (2010). Overview of the education system in contemporary Iraq. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 14 (3).

- Israel, G. D., Beaulieu, L. J., & Hartless, G. (2001). The influence of family and community social capital on educational achievement. *Rural Sociology*, *66*(1), 43-68. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1549-0831.2001.tb00054.x>
- Jassim, S. Z., & Goff, J. C. (2006). *Geology of Iraq*. DOLIN
- Jeynes, W. (2011). *Parental involvement and academic success*. Routledge.
- Jeynes, W. (2012). A meta-analysis of the efficacy of different types of parental involvement programs for urban students. *Urban Education*, *47*(4), 706-742. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085912445643>
- Justino, P. (2014). Barriers to education in conflict-affected countries and policy opportunities. *Paper commissioned for fixing the broken promise of education for all: findings from the global initiative on out-of-school children (UIS/UNICEF, 2015)*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).
- Justino, P. (2016). Supply and demand restrictions to education in conflict-affected countries: New research and future agendas. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *47*, 76-85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2016.01.002>
- Keith, T. Z., Keith, P. B., Quirk, K. J., Sperduto, J., Santillo, S., & Killings, S. (1998). Longitudinal effects of parent involvement on high school grades: Similarities and differences across gender and ethnic groups. *Journal of School Psychology*, *36*(3), 335-363. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405\(98\)00008-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405(98)00008-9)
- Kibris, A. (2015). The conflict trap revisited: Civil conflict and educational achievement. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, *59*(4), 645-670. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002713516845>
- Kirmanj, S., & Rafaat, A. (2021). The Kurdish genocide in Iraq: the Security-Anfal and the Identity-Anfal. *National Identities*, *23*(2), 163-183. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14608944.2020.1746250>

- Klein, A. (2008). From Mao to Memphis: Chinese immigrant father's involvement with their children's education. *The School Community Journal*, 18(2), 91-117.
- Klootwijk, C. L., Koele, I. J., van Hoorn, J., Güroğlu, B., & van Duijvenvoorde, A. C. (2021). Parental support and positive mood buffer adolescents' academic motivation during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 31(3), 780-795. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12660>
- Knopf, H. T., & Swick, K. J. (2007). How parents feel about their child's teacher/school: Implications for early childhood professionals. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 34(4), 291-296.
- Kottak, C. P. (2015). *Cultural anthropology: Appreciating cultural diversity*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Kovács, K. E., Dan, B., Hrabéczy, A., Bacskai, K., & Pusztai, G. (2022). Is resilience a trait or a result of parental involvement? The results of a systematic literature review. *Education Sciences*, 12(6), 372. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12060372>
- Kovács, K., Oláh, Á. J., & Pusztai, G. (2024). The role of parental involvement in academic and sports achievement. *Heliyon*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e24290>.
- Kovinthan, T. (2016). Learning and teaching with loss: Meeting the needs of refugee children through narrative inquiry. *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, 10(3), 141-155. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15595692.2015.1137282>
- Kroonenberg, P. M. (2021). *Multivariate Humanities*. Springer.
- Lamba, N. K., & Krahn, H. (2003). Social capital and refugee resettlement: The social networks of refugees in Canada. *Journal of International Migration and Integration/Revue de l'integration et de la migration internationale*, 4, 335-360.

- Lander, L., Howsare, J., & Byrne, M. (2013). The impact of substance use disorders on families and children: from theory to practice. *Social Work in Public Health, 28*(3-4), 194-205.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19371918.2013.759005>
- Lee, K. (2016). *Perceptions of hmong parents in a hmong american charter school: a qualitative descriptive case study on hmong parent involvement* (Publishing no.3103) [Doctoral dissertation, Portland State University]. PDXScholar
- Leeder, E. J. (2004). *The family in global perspective: A gendered journey*. Sage.
- Lerner, R. M. (1994). *America's youth in crisis: Challenges and options for programs and policies*. Sage Publications.
- Lewis, J. 2014. *The Islamic State of Iraq returns to Diyala*. Institute for the Study of War.
- Li, A., & Fischer, M. J. (2017). Advantaged/Disadvantaged School Neighborhoods, Parental Networks, and Parental Involvement at Elementary School. *Sociology of Education, 90*(4), 355-377. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0038040717732332>
- Li, X., Yang, H., Wang, H., & Jia, J. (2020). Family socioeconomic status and home-based parental involvement: A mediation analysis of parental attitudes and expectations. *Children and Youth Services Review, 116*, 105111. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105111>
- Li, Z., & Qiu, Z. (2018). How does family background affect children's educational achievement? Evidence from Contemporary China. *The Journal of Chinese Sociology, 5*(1), 1-21.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s40711-018-0083-8>
- Lichter, D. T., Cornwell, G. T., & Eggebeen, D. J. (1993). Harvesting Human Capital: Family Structure and Education Among Rural Youth 1. *Rural Sociology, 58*(1), 53-75. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1549-0831.1993.tb00482.x>

- Little, R. R. (1993, March). What's working for today's youth: The issues, the programs, and the learnings. In *Institute for Children, Youth, and Families Fellows' Colloquium, Michigan State University*.
- Lopez, G. (2001). The value of hard work: Lessons on parent involvement from an (im) migrant household. *Harvard educational review, 71*(3), 416-438.
<https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.71.3.43x7k542x023767u>
- López, G. R., Scribner, J. D., & Mahitivanichcha, K. (2001). Redefining parental involvement: Lessons from high-performing migrant-impacted schools. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*, 253–288.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312038002253>
- Lustig, S. L., Kia-Keating, M., Knight, W. G., Geltman, P., Ellis, H., Kinzie, J. D. & Saxe, G. N. (2004). Review of child and adolescent refugee mental health. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 43*(1), 24-36.
- MacNevin, J. (2012). Learning the way: teaching and learning with and for youth from refugee backgrounds on prince edward island. *Canadian Journal of Education, 35* (3), 48–63.
- Madjar, V., & Humpage, L. (2000). *Refugees in New Zealand: the experiences of Bosnian and Somali refugees*. School of Sociology and Women's Studies, Massey University.
- Magos, K. & Margaroni, M. (2018). The importance of educating refugees. *Global Education Review 5*(4), 1-6.
- Maher, D. (2020). The professional learning of refugee volunteer teachers in Indonesian refugee learning centres. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 93*, 103095. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2020.103095>
- Mapiko, E., & Chinyoka, K. (2013). The plight of internally displaced children: a case of Zimbabwe. *Greener Journal of Educational Research, 3*(9), 432-43. <http://doi.org/10.15580/GJER.2013.9.070913824>

- Mapp, K. L. (2003). Having their say: Parents describe why and how they are engaged in their children's learning. *School Community Journal*, 13(1), 35.
- Marr, P. (2018). *The modern history of Iraq*. Routledge.
- McBrien, J. L. (2011). Including immigrant and refugee students. In J. Fauske, J. Carr, & P. Jones (Eds.), *Leading for inclusion: Meeting the needs of all learners in a diverse society*. Teachers College Press.
- Melendez, M. C., & Melendez, N. B. (2010). The influence of parental attachment on the college adjustment of White, Black, and Latina/Hispanic women: A cross-cultural investigation. *Journal of College Student Development*, 51(4), 419-435. <https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0144>
- MERI. (2015, April, 6). *Impact of Displaced People on Kurdistan Region*. MERI. <http://www.merik.org/impact-of-displaced-people-on-kurdistan-region/>
- Miles, J. (2014). Tolerance and variance inflation factor. *Wiley statsref: statistics reference online*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118445112.stat06593>
- Mills, C., & Gale, T. (2004). Parent participation in disadvantaged schools: Moving beyond attributions of blame. *Australian Journal of Education*, 48, 268–281. doi:10.1177/ 000494410404800305
- Ministry of Planning & Baytal Hikma Iraq. (2014). Human development report 2014: Iraqi youth
- Mishra, L. (2011). Designing a peace education programme for secondary schools. *Journal of Research in Peace, Gender and Development*, 1(1).
- Mishra, S. (2020). Social networks, social capital, social support and academic success in higher education: A systematic review with a special focus on ‘underrepresented’ students. *Educational Research Review*, 29, 100307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2019.100307>

- MoE-KRG. (2008). *The Project of Changing the Educational system [Projey goriny systemy perwerde w ferkrdin]*. Erbil: Ministry of Education-KRG Printhouse.
- Momo, M. S., Cabus, S. J., De Witte, K., & Groot, W. (2019). A systematic review of the literature on the causes of early school leaving in Africa and Asia. *Review of Education*, 7(3), 496-522.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.3134>
- Moon, S. S. & Lee, J. (2009). Multiple predictors of Asian American children's school achievement. *Early Education and Development*, 20(1), 129-147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10409280802206635>
- Mooney, E., & French, C. (2005). *Barriers and bridges: access to education for internally displaced children*. The Brookings Institution-University of Bern.
- Murdock, G. P. (1949). *Social structure*. Macmillan.
- Mustagrudic, A. (2000). *Education for Citizenship: The Case of Bosnia and Herzegovina unpubl MPhil thesis*. University of Cambridge.
- Naite, I. (2021, March). Impact of parental involvement on children's academic performance at Crescent International School, Bangkok, Thailand. In *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* (Vol. 690, No. 1, p. 012064). IOP Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/690/1/012064>
- Narli, N. (2018). Life, connectivity and integration of Syrian refugees in Turkey: Surviving through a smartphone. *Questions de communication*, (33), 269-286.
<https://doi.org/10.4000/questionsdecommunication.12523>
- Navarra, M. Q., Niehof, A., & van der Vaart, W. (2013). Social capital in involuntary displacement and resettlement. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies*, 5(2), 139-154.

- Navarro J-B, Ferna'ndez M, de la Osa N, Penelo E, Ezpeleta L (2019) Warning signs of preschool victimization using the strengths and difficulties questionnaire: Prevalence and individual and family risk factors. *PLoS ONE*, 14(8): e0221580. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0221580>
- Nderu, E. N. (2005). *Parental involvement in education: A qualitative study of Somali immigrants in the Twin Cities area*. University of Minnesota.
- Nordstokke, D. W., & Zumbo, B. D. (2010). A new nonparametric Levene test for equal variances. *Psicológica*, 31(2), 401-430.
- North Press Agency. (2021, March 13). *Syrian refugee teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan: one year with no salary*. Npasyria. <https://npasyria.com/en/55922/>
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- OECD. (2018). *The Resilience of Students with an Immigrant Background: Factors that Shape Well-being*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2020). *Strengthening Online Learning when Schools are Closed: The Role of Families and Teachers in Supporting Students During the COVID-19 Crisis*. OECD Publishing.
- Oehring, O. (2017). *Christians and yazidis in Iraq: Current situation and prospects*. Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung.
- Olmstead, C. (2013). Using technology to increase parent involvement in schools. *TechTrends*, 57(6), 28-37.
- Omoeva, C., & Buckner, E. (2015). Does horizontal education inequality lead to violent conflict. *Education Policy and Data Center Working Paper*.
- Østby, G., & Urdal, H. (2014). *Conflict and educational inequality: Evidence from 30 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Commissioned report for USAID.

- Oswald, A. (2019). Education for IDPs in Iraq. UNESCO.
- Otto, B., & Karbach, J. (2020). Parental involvement. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.946>
- Panter-Brick, C., Goodman, A., Tol, W., & Eggerman, M. (2011). Mental health and childhood adversities: a longitudinal study in Kabul, Afghanistan. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 50*(4), 349-363. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaac.2010.12.001>
- Park, S., & Holloway, S. (2018). Parental Involvement in Adolescents' Education: An Examination of the Interplay among School Factors, Parental Role Construction, and Family Income. *School Community Journal, 28*(1), 9-36.
- Park, S., Stone, S. I., & Holloway, S. D. (2017). School-based parental involvement as a predictor of achievement and school learning environment: An elementary school-level analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review, 82*, 195-206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chilyouth.2017.09.012>
- Pastoriza, D., & Ariño, M. A. (2013). Does the ethical leadership of supervisors generate internal social capital?. *Journal of Business Ethics, 118*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1536-7>
- Peng, B. (2021). Chinese migrant parents' educational involvement: Shadow education for left-behind children. *Hungarian Educational Research Journal, 11*(2), 101-123.
<https://doi.org/10.1556/063.2020.00030>
- Playfoot, J. Andrews, P. Augustus, S. (2015). *Education and training for the oil and gas industry: The evolution of four energy nations: Mexico, Nigeria, Brazil and Iraq*. Elsevier Inc.
- Polk, W. R. (2006). *Understanding Iraq: A whistlestop tour from ancient Babylon to occupied Baghdad*. IB Tauris.

- Ponzetti, J. (2003). *International encyclopedia of marriage and family*. Macmillan reference USA.
- Portes, A. (1998). *Social capital: Its origins and applications in modern sociology*. *Knowledge and social capital*, 43–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-7506-7222-1.50006-4>
- Portes, A., & Rumbaut, R. G. (2001). *Legacies: the story of the immigrant second generation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Pusztai, G. (2015). *Pathways to success in higher education*. Peter Lang GmbH.
- Pusztai, G. (Ed.) (2022). *Sociology of education: Theories, communities, contexts*. University of Debrecen Press.
- Pusztai, G., Demeter-Karászi, Z., Csonka, É., Bencze, Á., Major, E., Szilágyi, E., & Bacskai, K. (2024). Patterns of parental involvement in schools of religious communities. A systematic review. *British Journal of Religious Education*, 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01416200.2024.2315550>
- Pusztai, G., Csók, C. (2023). Views of Teachers and Support Staff at Schools on the Implementation and Development of Family Life Education. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 12(4): 1401-1409. <https://doi.org/10.13187/ejced.2023.4.1401>
- Pusztai, G., Róbert, P., & Fényes, H. (2023). Parental involvement and school choice in Hungarian primary schools. *Journal of School Choice*, 17(1), 118-135. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15582159.2023.2169812>
- Pusztai, G., & Engler, Á. (2020). Értékteremtő gyermeknevelés a családban és az oktatásban. *Kapocs*, 3(2), 3-11.
- Putnam, R. D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. Simon and schuster.
- Putnam, R. D. (Ed.). (2002). *Democracies in flux: The evolution of social capital in contemporary society*. Oxford University Press.

- Rafaat, A. (2018). *Kurdistan in Iraq: The Evolution of a Quasi-state*. Routledge.
- Rah, Y., Choi, S., & Nguyen, T. S. T., (2009). Building bridge between refugee parents and schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 12(4), 347-365.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13603120802609867>
- Ramsden, R., & Taket, A. (2013). Social capital and Somali families in Australia. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 14(1), 99-117. DOI 10.1007/s12134-011-0226-0
- Randolph, K. A., Fraser, M. W., & Orthner, D. K. (2006). A strategy for assessing the impact of time-varying family risk factors on high school dropout. *Journal of Family Issues*, 27(7), 933-950.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X06287168>
- Ranjan, R. K., & Jain, P. C. (2009). The decline of educational system in Iraq. *Journal of peace studies*, 16(1-2).
- Razali, N. M., & Wah, Y. B. (2011). Power comparisons of shapiro-wilk, kolmogorov-smirnov, lilliefors and anderson-darling tests. *Journal of Statistical Modeling and Analytics*, 2(1), 21-33.
- Rejwan, N. (2019). *The Jews of Iraq: 3000 years of history and culture*. Routledge.
- Rizkalla, N., Mallat, N. K., Arafa, R., Adi, S., Soudi, L., & Segal, S. P. (2020). Children are not children anymore; they are a lost generation: Adverse physical and mental health consequences on Syrian refugee children. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(22), 8378.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17228378>
- Rodríguez-Gómez, D., Foulds, K., & Sayed, Y. (2016). Representations of violence in social science textbooks: Rethinking opportunities for peacebuilding in the Colombian and South African post-

conflict scenarios. *Education as Change*, 20(3), 76-97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17159/1947-9417/2016/1532>

Rogošić, S., & Baranović, B. (2016). Social capital and educational achievements: Coleman vs. Bourdieu. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal*, 6(2), 81-100. DOI:10.26529/cepsj.89

Rosenqvist, E. (2018). Two Functions of Peer Influence on Upper-secondary Education Application Behavior. *Sociology of Education*, 91(1), 72–89. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0038040717746113>.

Rubaiy, A. A. (1972). *Nationalism and Education: A Study of Nationalistic Tendencies in Iraqi Education*. [Doctoral dissertation, Kent State University]. Xerox University Microfilms

Rudaw. (2023, June 12). *Over 1,000 children working in Sulaimani, Halabja provinces: KRG Minister*.

Rudaw. Retrieved September 30, 2023 from

<https://www.rudaw.net/english/kurdistan/120620231#:~:text=In%20the%20Kurdistan%20Region%2C%20children,in%20Sulaimani%20and%20Halabja%20provinces>

Saeed, F. (2008). *Qutabkhanekan Rwyane le Qibla Niye [The Schools are not Facing Qibla]*. Aras Publishing.

Sanders, M. G., & Sheldon, S. B. (Eds.). (2009). *Principals matter: A guide to school, family, and community partnerships*. Corwin Press.

Sant, E. (2019). Democratic education: A theoretical review (2006–2017). *Review of Educational Research*, 89(5), 655-696. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654319862493>

Santrok, J.W. (2019). *Life-span development*. McGraw Hill Education.

- Sasan, J. M., & Baritua, J. C. (2022). Distance learning as a learning modality for education during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Science and Education*, 3(8), 35-44.
- Saurez-Orozco, C., Pimentel, A., Martin, M. (2009). *The significance of relationships: Academic Engagement and achievement among newcomer immigrant youth. Teacher College Record*, 111(3), 712-749. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146810911110>
- Sawyer, M. (2015). BRIDGES: Connecting with families to facilitate and enhance involvement. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 47(3), 172-179.
- Schechter, S. R., & Sherri, D. L. (2009). Value added? Teachers' investments in and orientations toward parent involvement in education. *Urban Education*, 44(1), 59–87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085908317676>
- Schorr, L. B. (1989). *Within our reach: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage*. Anchor.
- Selikowitz, M. (2012). *Dyslexia and other learning difficulties*. Oxford University Press.
- Seymour, I. (1992). OPEC in the 1990s. *Energy policy*, 20(10), 909-912. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0301-4215\(92\)90177-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0301-4215(92)90177-4)
- Shankar, V., Runyan, C. W., Harpin, S. B., & Lewko, J. (2021). Perspectives of parents of working adolescents in Ontario, Canada. *BMC public health*, 21, 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-10377-9>
- Shanks, K. (2018). *Education, Conflict, and Globalisation*. Routledge
- Shao, M., He, W., Zhao, L., & Su, Y. S. (2022). The influence of parental involvement on parent satisfaction: The moderating effect of parental educational level and the number of children. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 752802. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.752802>

- Shapiro, S. S., & Wilk, M. B. (1965). An analysis of variance test for normality (complete samples). *Biometrika*, 52(3/4), 591-611.
- Sheldon, S. B. (2007). Improving student attendance with school, family, and community partnerships. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 100(5), 267-275. <https://doi.org/10.3200/JOER.100.5.267-275>
- Shields, N., & Hanneke, C. (2008). The effects of parental age and sibling configurations on family environment and academic achievement of children. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 2(1), 13-35. <https://doi.org/10.1177/193672440800200102>
- Sil, S. (2007). Parent-school partnerships: Forked roads to college access. *School Community Journal*, 17(1), 113-128.
- Simon, B. S. (2001). Family involvement in high school: Predictors and effects. *Nassp Bulletin*, 85(627), 8-19. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019263650108562702>
- Small, M. L. (2009). *Unanticipated gains: Origins of network inequality in everyday life*. Oxford University Press.
- Smith, M. H., Beaulieu, L. J., & Seraphine, A. (1995). Social Capital, Place of Residence, and College Attendance 1. *Rural sociology*, 60(3), 363-380. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1549-0831.1995.tb00578.x>
- Smith, R. (2005) *The Utility of Force*. Allen Lane.
- Smith, T. E. (2019). The impact of training on teachers' family-school engagement practices, attitudes, and knowledge: Exploring conditions of efficacy. *The School Psychologist*, 73(1), 21-32.
- Sood, A., & Seferis, L. (2014). Syrians contributing to Kurdish economic growth. *Forced Migration Review*, (47).

- Spencer, J. H., & Le, T. N. (2006). Parent refugee status, immigration stressors, and Southeast Asian youth violence. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 8*(4), 359-368. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-006-9006-x>
- Stansfield, G. (2003) *Iraqi Kurdistan: Political development and emergent democracy*. Routledge Curzon.
- Stansfield, G. (2016). *Iraq: People, history, politics*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Stansfield, G., & Shareef, M. (2017). *The Kurdish question revisited*. Oxford University Press.
- Tawil, S. (2001). Exploring humanitarian law: armed conflict and education for social cohesion. *Prospects, 31*(3), 293-306. Doi:10.1007/bf03220072
- Teachman, J. D., Paasch, K., & Carver, K. (1996). Social capital and dropping out of school early. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 773-783*. <https://doi.org/10.2307/353735>
- Thorell, L. B., Skoglund, C., de la Peña, A. G., Baeyens, D., Fuermaier, A. B., Groom, M. J., & Christiansen, H. (2021). Parental experiences of homeschooling during the COVID-19 pandemic: Differences between seven European countries and between children with and without mental health conditions. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 1-13*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-020-01706-1>
- Tilleczek, K. & Ferguson, B. (2007). *Transitions and pathways from elementary to secondary school*. Community Health Systems Resource Group.
- Tolmie, A., Muijs, D., & McAteer, E. (2011). *Quantitative methods in educational and social research using SPSS*. McGraw-Hill Education.

- Townsend, J. S., & Fu, D. (2001). Paw's story: A Laotian refugee's lonely entry into American literacy. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 45(2), 104-114.
- Tripp, C. (2002). *A history of Iraq*. Cambridge University Press.
- UNESCO Iraq Office. (2012). *Iraqi Curriculum Framework*. MOE
- UNESCO. (2000). The EFA 2000 Assessment: Country Report Iraq.
- UNESCO. (2017). *Transformative pedagogy for peace-building: A guide for teachers*.
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000261349>
- UNESCO. (2023, November 14). *Hungary's education responses to the influx of Ukrainian refugees*.
<https://www.unesco.org/en/ukraine-war/education/hungary-support>
- UNHCR (2010). *Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees*. Geneva: UNHCR.
- UNHCR. (2004). *Global refugee Trends: Overview of refugee populations, new arrivals, durable solutions, asylum-seekers and other persons of concern to UNHCR*. UNHCR
- UNHCR. (2014, May 21). *Facts and figures about refugees*. <http://www.unhcr.org.uk/about-us/key-facts-and-figures.ht>
- UNHCR. (2015). *Global trends: Forced displacement in 2015*. Auth
- UNHCR. (2015a). The implementation of solutions for residents of Hurriya Temporary Transit Location (TTL). UNHCR.
- UNHCR. (2015a, July 31). Curriculum Choices in Refugee Settings.
<https://reliefweb.int/report/world/education-issue-brief-3-curriculum-choices-refugee-settings>
- UNHCR. (2016, November 7). *UNHCR viewpoint: 'Refugee' or 'migrant' – Which is right?*
WWW.UNHCR.ORG. Retrieved August 20, 2023, from <https://www.unhcr.org/news/stories/unhcr-viewpoint-refugee-or-migrant-which-right>

- UNHCR. (2019). *Access to education for Refugee and Migrant Children in Europe*. Unhcr.
- UNHCR. (2019, March, 28). *Situation Syria Regional Refugee Response*. UNHCR.
<https://data.unhcr.org/en/situations/syria>
- UNHCR. (2021, January, 20). *Iraq fact sheet*. UNHCR.
<https://reporting.unhcr.org/sites/default/files/UNHCR%20Iraq%20fact%20sheet%20January%202021.pdf>
- UNICEF. (2013). *Shattered Lives: Challenges and priorities for Syrian children and women in Jordan*. UNICEF Jordan Country Office.
- UNICEF. (2014). *Child-friendly schooling for peacebuilding*. United Nations Children's Fund
- United Nations publications Utsumi, Y. (2021). Impact of Armed Conflict on Education in Timor-Leste. In: Peddie, F., Liu, J. (eds) *Education and Migration in an Asian Context*. Economics, Law, and Institutions in Asia Pacific. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-33-6288-8_8
- United Nations. (1982). *Provisional guidelines on standard international age classification*.
- Uzelac, A., Meester, J., Goransson, M., & van den Berg, W. (2018). The importance of social capital in protracted displacement. *Forced Migration Review*, (57), 28-30.
- Valenta, M. (2008). *Finding friends after resettlement: A study of the social integration of immigrants and refugees, their personal networks and self-work in everyday life*. Fakultet for samfunnsvitenskap og teknologiledelse.
- Valente, C. (2013). Education and civil conflict in Nepal. *The World Bank Economic Review* 28(2):354-383.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/wber/lht014>

- Vernez, G., Culbertson, S., Constant, L., & Karam, R. (2016). *Initiatives to Improve Quality of Education in the Kurdistan Region-Iraq*. RAND Education
- Wahab, A. (2014). *Meley Dijerewt: Parwerde le Rwangeyeky Rekhnegranewe [Swimming Upstream: Education from a Critical Lens]*. Karo Publishing.
- Wahlbeck, O. (1998). Community work and exile politics: Kurdish refugee associations in London. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 11(3), 215-230. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jrs/11.3.215>
- Walker-Dalhouse, D., & Dalhouse, A. D. (2009). When two elephants fight the grass suffers: Parents and teachers working together to support the literacy development of Sudanese youth. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 328-335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.07.014>
- Wanjiru, J. Inclusive education for Internally Displaced Children in Kenya: children perceptions of their learning and development needs in post-conflict schooling. *ICEP* 12, 7 (2018). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40723-018-0046-1>
- Warner, R. M. (2012). *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques*. Sage Publications.
- Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge University Press.
- WES Canada. (2012). *Best practices: Strategies and processes to obtain authentic international educational credentials*. Toronto: World Education Services. Retrieved from <https://www.wes.org/ca/licensing/BestPacticesStrategiesProcesses.pdf>.
- Williams, N. (2010). Establishing the boundaries and building bridges: a literature review on ecological theory: implications for research into the refugee parenting experience. *Journal of Child Health Care*, 14(1), 35-51. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367493509347116>
- Williams, N. (2012). Child welfare and the UNHCR: a case for pre-resettlement refugee parenting education. *Development in Practice*, 22(1), 110-122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09614524.2012.630980>

- Williams, R. (2007). The psychosocial consequences for children of mass violence, terrorism and disasters. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 19(3), 263–277. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540260701349480>
- World Bank. (2023, July 5). *Forced displacement: Refugees, internally displaced and host communities*. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/forced-displacement>
- Yamamoto, Y., & Holloway, S. D. (2010). Parental expectations and children's academic performance in sociocultural context. *Educational Psychology Review*, 22, 189-214. DOI 10.1007/s10648-010-9121-z
- Zaccoletti, S., Camacho, A., Correia, N., Aguiar, C., Mason, L., Alves, R. A., & Daniel, J. R. (2020). Parents' perceptions of student academic motivation during the COVID-19 lockdown: A cross-country comparison. *Frontiers in psychology*, 11, 592670.
- Zembylas, M. (2015). *Emotion and traumatic conflict: Reclaiming healing in education*. Oxford University Press

List of tables

Table 1: Plan of study (General education): Kurdistan Region- Basic education (Grades 1-9).....	39
Table 2: Plan of study (General education): Kurdistan Region - Upper secondary/Preparatory Education (Grades 10-12).....	40
Table 3: Differences between origin and asylum country curricula.....	54
Table 4: Location and type of the camps.....	75
Table 5: Descriptive Data of Parents.....	79
Table 6: Parents' reasons to consider quit or not quit their studies.....	83
Table 7: Parents' intention on their children's working and resume studying later.....	84
Table 8: Parents' reasons for supporting/against working and resume studying later.....	85
Table 9: Correlation between the three variables: child work intention by parents, number of children and financial status.....	86
Table 10: Test of Homogeneity of Variances for criteria of parents' choices of school for their children.....	90
Table 11: Mann-Whitney U test: Parents preferences are used to select schools for their Children.....	91
Table 12: Parents' perspectives on learning responsibility.....	94
Table 13: Parents groups' perspectives on learning responsibility	95
Table 14: Frequency of involving in home-based activities.....	97
Table 15: Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Parents home-based involvement.....	99
Table 16: Mann-Whitney U test for home-based involvement of parents.....	99

Table 17: Levene's test of homogeneity of variance for socio-economic factors.....	100
Table 18: Mann-Whitney test U for Socio-economic factors influencing the parents' involvement.....	101
Table 19: Kruskal Wallis test for parental education level in relation to socioeconomic factor preferences for better involvement.....	102
Table 20: Classification accuracy test.....	105
Table 21: Distribution of parental involvement and possible associated socio-demographic variables among parents.....	106
Table 22: Spearman rho correlation test.....	109
Table 23: Multicollinearity test statistics for each independent variable.....	110
Table 24: Model fitting statistics for null versus final regression models.....	111
Table 25: Likelihood Ratio Tests.....	125
Table 26: Bivariate logistic regression.....	126
Table 27: Multivariate logistic regression.....	127
Table 28: Frequency of parents' positive feeling and welcomed at schools.....	121
Table 29: Frequency of parent-teacher communications content components.....	123
Table 30: Descriptive statistics of connecting learning between home and school.....	125
Table 31: Frequency of parent-teacher contacts.....	127
Table 32: Test of Homogeneity of Variances for means of communication.....	128
Table 33: Mann Whitney U test for parents using communication means.....	129
Table 34: Frequencies of Covid-19 impacts on parental involvement factors.....	131
Table 35: Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Covid-19 affected variables.....	135
Table 36: Mann-Whitney U test for Covid-19 affected variables.....	134

Table 37: Teachers' demographic backgrounds.....	137
Table 38: Frequency of parents' reaction to parental involvement.....	141
Table 39: Frequency of practical possibilities of involving parents.....	148
Table 40: Levene's test of homogeneity of variances for parental involvement facilities.....	149
Table 41: Kruskal Wallis test for parental involvement facilities across provinces.....	150
Table 42: Mann-Whitney U test for the practical possibilities of involving parents between displaced and non-displaced.....	152
Table 43: Reasons for those teachers are in contact with the most.....	155
Table 44: Factors that contribute to teachers feeling more at ease in their communication.....	157
Table 45: Frequency of the type of communication preferred by teachers.....	159
Table 46: The frequency of available ways of communication.....	160
Table 47: Descriptive statistics of mean values for determinants of parental engagement.....	165

List of figures

Figure 1: Current organizational structure of the KRG's Ministry of Education.....	36
Figure 2: School choice between displaced and non-displaced parents.....	88
Figure 3: Frequency of teachers help for parents about learning needs.....	126
Figure 4: Frequency of Ensuring parent about their children's learning.....	126
Figure 5: Frequency of teachers' communications with families.....	156
Figure 6: Frequency of teachers' preference: whom they feel most at ease contacting.....	156

List of appendices

Appendix A. University of Debrecen support letter	219
Appendix B. Authorisation letter from KRG Ministry of Education for data collection.....	220
Appendix C. Parent/Guardian permission form (in English, Kurdish and Arabic).....	221
Appendix D. Questionnaires (in English, Kurdish and Arabic).....	224
Appendix E. Cluster analysis results of parental involvement levels.....	247
Appendix F. Field snapshot: Capturing the setting and researcher in action.....	249
Appendix G. Local and camp school photos.....	250

Appendices

Appendix A

Supervisor's support letter for data collection



**DEBRECENI
EGYETEM**

DEBRECENI EGYETEM
NEVELÉS- ÉS MŰVELŐDÉSTUDOMÁNYI INTÉZET
H-4032 Debrecen, Egyetem tér 1.
Levelezési cím: 4002 Debrecen, Pf. 400.
Intézeti iroda: +36 (52) 512-922

Certificate

This is to certify that Mr. Peshawa Jalal Mohammed is a bonafide student at University of Debrecen, Doctoral School of Human Sciences, Educational Research. He is conducting a research entitled "The Family role in students' educational success among displaced and non-displaced" under the supervision of Dr Agnes Engler. One of the PhD requirements would be to collect data from schools. They are in need of only general survey related information. After their work is completed you are more than welcome to preview this research anytime you want. We assure you that there will be no misuse of this information and the participants will not have to provide their names since the questionnaire will be anonymous.

Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Respectfully,



Dr Agnes Engler PhD

supervisor

University of Debrecen

DEBRECENI EGYETEM NEVELÉS- ÉS MŰVELŐDÉSTUDOMÁNYI INTÉZET
H-4032 Debrecen, Egyetem tér 1.
Levelezési cím: 4002 Debrecen, Pf. 400.
Intézeti iroda: +36 (52) 512-922

Appendix B

Authorisation letter from KRG Ministry of Education for data collection

<p>حكومة إقليم كردستان - العراق مجلس الوزراء وزارة التربية المديرية العامة للتخطيط التربوي مديرية التخطيط التربوي</p>	 ISO: 9001:2015 	<p>حكومة تەهزیمی کوردستان - عێراق ئەنجومەنی وەزیران وەزارەتی پەرۆردەیی ب.گ. پلاندانانی پەرۆردەیی ب. پلاندانانی پەرۆردەیی</p>
العدد: / التاريخ: ٢٠٢١/ / ٢٠٢١ /		ژماره: / پێکهوت: ١٩٤٦٦ / ٣٧١ / کوردی

بۆ / بەرپۆهه رایه تی گشتی پەرۆردەیی (ههولێر، سلێمانی، دهۆک)

بابەت/ هاوکاری و ئاسانکاری

بەپێژ (پیشهوا جلال محمد) قوتابی دکتۆرا له زانکۆی دیپرسن له ولاتی ههنگاریا بهمه بهستی توێژینهوهیهکی زانستی لهژیر ناوینشانی (رۆلی خیزان له سهرکهوتنی پەرۆردەیی قوتابیان – خوێندکاران له ناو ناوارة و خانهخوێ) بهنیازی کۆکردنهوهی داتا و زانیاریه له پێگهی راپرسیهکهوه له چهند قوتابخانهیهک له سنوری پەرۆردەیی گشتپهتان، تکایه هاوکاری و ئاسانکاری بۆ بکړیت بهمهرجینک کاریگهری نهکهوێته سهر پرۆسهی پەرۆرده و فێرکردن و له پێنماییهکانی وهزارهتی پەرۆرده دهرنهچیت.

لهگهڵ پێژماندا...



جهبار جهمال غهريب

ب.گ. پلاندانانی پەرۆردەیی به وهكالهت

٢٠٢١ / ١٠ / ٢٢

وێنیهیهك بۆ:

- نوسینگی وهزیر، لهگهڵ پێژدا...
- ب.گ. پلاندانانی پەرۆردەیی / ب. پلاندانانی پەرۆردەیی / لهگهڵ بهراییهکان.
- خولاو.

MoEK-DPL 20

Ministry of Education, Kurdistan Street, Erbil, Iraq
Phone: +964(066) 2230250-2232745

info@moe.gov.krd
www.gov.krd

ههزیمی کوردستان- ههولێر- شهقامی کوردستان - وهزارهتی پەرۆرده
تلهفون: ٢٢٣٠٢٥٠ - ٢٢٣٢٧٤٥ (٠٦٦) ٩٦٤

Appendix C

Parental or Guardian Permission Form (in English, Kurdish, Arabic)

Title of Research: Parental role in child learning process among displaced and non-displaced people in Iraqi Kurdistan

Researcher: Peshawa Jalal Mohammed

Your permission is being sought to have your child participate in this study. Please read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not to give your permission.

Purpose of the research: The purpose of this study is to investigate the involvement of parents in the education process of children among displaced and host community.

Procedure to be followed: During testing, you/ your child will read Likert Scale questions about the purpose of the research and answer them. your child's name will remain confidential.

Time duration of participation: Participation in the study will not exceed 30 minutes.

Statement of confidentiality: All records are kept confidential and will be available only to professional researchers and staff. If the results of this study are published, the data will be presented in group form and individual children will not be identified.

Voluntary participation: You/your child's participation is voluntary and inform your child that participation is voluntary. At the time of the study, your child will once again be reminded of this by the researcher.

Please return by Tuesday, February 11th. If you do not sign and return this form, the researchers will understand that you do not wish to allow your child to participate.

I, the parent or guardian of _____, a minor _____ years of age, permit his/her participation in a program of research named above and being conducted by a PhD student Peshawa Jalal Mohammed.

Signature of Parent or Guardian

Date

.....

.....

فۆرمى مۆلھەتى دايباب بۆ بەشداريكردنى مندالھكانيان له تويزينهوه دا

ناونيشانى تويزينهوه: رۆلى دايباب له پرۆسەى فيربوونى مندالان له نيو خەلكى ئاوارە و خانەخویدا له كوردستانى عىراق

تويزەر: پيشهوا جەلال محەمەد

دايك و باوكى ئازيز، بۆ بەشداريكردنى مندالھكەت، ريگەپيدانى جەنابتان بەهەند وەردەگيريت. تكايە ئەم زانيار بيانهى خوارەوە بخوينهوه و پيش ئهوهى بريار لەسەر ريگەپيدان يان ريگەپينهەدانى مندالھكەت بەدەيت.

نامانجى تويزينهوهكە: مەبەست لەم تويزينهوه يە تەنھا بۆ مەبەستى زانستيه و تيگەيشتنە لەوهى كە ئايا جياوازي هەيه لە سەرکەوتووبى قوتابيان له نيوان قوتابيانى ئاوارە ناوخۆ وە هەروەها هۆكارەكان چين.

شيوازى ئەنجامدان: خۆت/مندالھكەت پرسيارەكان و پينج وەلامى هەلبژيردر او دەخوينتەوه كە دەربارەى ئامانجى تويزينهوهكەن بۆ ئهوهى وەلام هەلبژيريت. ناوى خۆت يان مندالھكەت داواكراو نيه.

ماوهى بەشداريكردن: بەشداريكردن له 30 خولەك تتيپر ناكات.

بەشدارى خۆبەخشانه: بەشداريكردنى خۆت/مندالھكەت خۆبەخشانهيه و بە مندالھكەت رابگەيهە كە كە بەشداريكردنى خۆبەخشانهيه. لەكاتى كۆكردنەوهى داتاكان مندالھكەت جاريكى تر ئهوهى بە بيردينريتەوه.

تكايە تاوەكو ۱۱ شوبات نامەكە بگەرينهوه، ئەگەر فۆرمەكە ئيمزا نەكەن ئەوا تويزەرەكان تيدەگەن كە تۆ ناتەوى ريگە بە مندالھكەت بەدەيت بەشدارى بكات.

من، بەخيوكەرى قوتابى..... كە تەمەنى..... هەريگە دەدم بەشدارى بكات لەم تويزينهوهيهى كە لەسەرەوه ناوى هاتووە لەلایەن خویندكارى دكتورا پيشهوا جلال محمد دەكریت.

بەروار

ئيمزای بەخيوكەر

.....

.....

إستمارة موافقة الوالدين لمشاركة أبنائهم في البحث العلمي

عنوان البحث : دور الوالدين في عملية تعلم الاطفال بين النازحين وغير النازحين في كردستان العراق

الباحث : پيشهوا جلال محمد

أيها الوالدين الكريمين لمشاركة طفلك نحن نعتبر إذناك نرجو قراءة المعلومات التالية قبل اتخاذ قرار بشأن إذن طفلك.

الهدف من الدراسة : الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو معرفة (هل هناك اختلاف في نجاح الطلاب بين الطلاب اللاجئين والنازحين والمحليين أم لا ، وكذلك معرفة أسباب ذلك).

طريقة إجراء : سيقراً طفلك/ أنت الأسئلة وخمس إجابات مختارة حول الهدف من البحث لاختيار الإجابة. اسم طفلك غير مطلوب.

فترة المشاركة : لا تتجاوز مدة المشاركة عن 30 دقيقة.

تعليق سري : جميع السجلات محمية ومتاحة فقط للباحثين والموظفين المحترفين عند نشر نتائج هذه الدراسة، وسوف تكون البيانات متاحة على شكل المجموعات وستبقى أسماء طلابهم محمية.

المشاركة التطوعية : مشاركة طفلك /أنت طوعية ويمكنك أن تخبر طفلك بأن تشارك بشكل طوعي. عند جمع البيانات، سيتم تذكير طفلك مرة أخرى

نرجو منك إعادة الرسالة بحلول يوم الثلاثاء 11 شباط. إذا لم توقع على الاستمارة فسيذكر الباحثون أنك لا تريد السماح لطفلك بالمشاركة.

أنا والد (والدة) طالب أو طالبة عمره (عمرها) سنة

أسمح له بالمشاركة في البحث المذكور أعلاه من قبل طالب الدكتوراه پيشهوا جلال محمد.

التاريخ

توقيع الوالد أو الوالدة

.....

.....

Appendix D

Questionnaire (in English, Kurdish and Arabic)

Block I. Demography

Please, tick(✓) the correct option.

1. **What is your gender?** a. male b. female
2. **How old are you?**
3. **Are you displaced?** a. yes b. no
4. **What option shows the place of your residence? Please, write *your place of residence*.**
 a. Local residence (.....) b. displaced camp (.....) c. refugee camp
 (.....) d. other
5. **Where did you live before being displaced?**
 a. Capital city b. a city c. a town d. a village e. I am not displaced
6. **What is your marital status?**
 a. single b. married c. divorced d. widow e. other (specify).....
7. **What is your family structure?**
 a. nuclear family b. single parent family c. extended family d. grandparent
 family f. step family
8. **How many children do you have?**
 a. one b. two c. three d. four e. more than four
9. **How many wives are there in the family?**
 a. One b. two c. three f. four

10. How old are your children? Please tick (✓) any options are correct for you.

1st child	0-3 years old	4-7 years old	8.11 years old	12-15 years old or more
2nd child	0-3 years old	4-7 years old	8.11 years old	12-15 years old or more
3rd child	0-3 years old	4-7 years old	8.11 years old	12-15 years old or more
4th child	0-3 years old	4-7 years old	8.11 years old	12-15 years old or more
5th child	0-3 years old	4-7 years old	8.11 years old	12-15 years old or more

11. What is your highest level of education?

- a. primary school b. secondary school c. high school d. university e. institute f. other (specify).....

12. What is the highest level of education of your husband/wife?

- a. Illiterate b. primary school c. secondary school d. high school e. university f. institute g. other (specify).....

13. Do you have a job?

- a. No b. yes, I am an employee c. yes, I am an employer d. other (specify).....

14. What do you think about your financial situation?

- a. Very bad b. bad c. average d. good e. very good

BLOCK II. The role of parents in children’s education

There are no right or wrong answers. Please, tick(✓) the most correct option for you.

1. Do you think about letting your child quit his/her study in the present time?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

why?.....

2. Do you want your child work in the current time and resume studying later?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

why?.....

3. What educational level do you expect from your child?

- a. basic school b. high school c. vocational school d. university

4. When you choose a school for your child, what do you take into consideration?

- a. I have no option

b. If you have options, please tick (✓) the correct option for you.

School environment	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
School equipments	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Teaching method	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important

Type of students attend in the school	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
School distance	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Teachers	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important

c. other aspects:.....

5. According to you, who is responsible for a child's education (acquisition knowledge about school subjects)?

- a. Totally the Parents' Responsibility b. Mostly the Parents' Responsibility c. Equal Responsibility between Parents and Teachers d. Mostly the Teacher's Responsibility
- e. Totally the Teacher's Responsibility

6. According to you, who is responsible for a child's education (learning about values, morals, beliefs, habits)?

- a. Totally the Parents' Responsibility b. Mostly the Parents' Responsibility c. Equal Responsibility between Parents and Teachers d. Mostly the Teacher's Responsibility
- e. Totally the Teacher's Responsibility

7. How often do you help your child to do well at school?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

8. As a parent, to what extent do you try to have impact on your child's learning process?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

9. To what extent do you understand the work/projects/assignments your child brings home from school?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

10. What do you think plays an important role in involving you to your child's learning?

Time	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Income	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Parent's education level	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important

Number of children	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Other (specify)				

11. Overall, how often do you involve with your child's education?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

12. To what extent your child's school gives you clear information on how your child is getting on?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

13. To what extent your child's teacher gives you practical information that you can use at home to help your child learn?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

14. Do teachers at school work closely with you to meet your child's learning needs?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

15. Do teachers at the school care about helping you understand what your child is learning?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

16. Do you feel positive when your child's teacher communicate with you about his/her learning?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

17. Do you feel welcome at your child's school?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

18. Do your child's teachers expect you to help your child with homework?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

19. How often do you contact your child's teachers as a parent?

- a. daily b. weekly c. monthly d. a few times a year e. never

20. How do you keep contact with teachers?

Face to face	often	sometimes	never
Phone	often	sometimes	never
Email	often	sometimes	never
Social networks	often	sometimes	never
Through the child	often	sometimes	never
Other(specify)	often	sometimes	never

21. During the pandemic, did you keep contacting with the teachers of your child?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

22. Despite pandemic challenges, did you supporting your children’s learning through various means?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

23. Do you think online learning was working for your children?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

24. Did you get all needed information from school during the online teaching?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

25. Did your child(ren) have all tools for learning at home?

- a. always b. often c. sometimes d. rarely e. never

26. Which one do you support more to complete his/her studies?

- a. boys b. girls c. both d. none

why?.....

BLOCK III. Teacher's Perspective

1. What is your gender?

- a. male b. female

2. What is your highest level of education?

- a. Bachelor degree b. Master degree c. Doctoral degree

3. Do you think parents respond positively to school invitations related to children's learning?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

4. Do you think that parents are aware enough about the importance of parental involvement?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

5. Do you believe that parents realistically assess the child's abilities and realize their expectations?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

6. Do you think that in your school, there is a welcoming climate for parents?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

7. Do you think there is a trusting and respectful relationship between school and families?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

8. Do parents have any role in school's activities?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

If yes, please, give example(s).....

9. Do parents have any role in school's management and policy?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

If yes, please, give examples(s).....

10. Do you expect from parents to help their children in their homework?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

11. According to you, who are more in contact with school staff?

- a. mothers b. fathers c. mothers and fathers equally d. siblings

12. Who are you more comfortable to be in contact with?

- b. mothers b. fathers c. mothers and fathers equally d. siblings
why?.....

13. Do you give feedback to parents about their children's learning?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

14. Does your school have any specific policy/approach to engage with parents?

- a. yes b. no

If yes, please give example(s).....

15. During the Covid-19 pandemic, to what extend did you keep contact with the students' families?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

16. Do you think that online studies worked well for your students?

- a. extremely b. very c. moderately d. slightly e. not at all

17. What factors do you think has an importan role in envolving parents in their childrens' learning process?

Time	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Income	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Parent's education level	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Number of children	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Other (specify)			

18. What parents' motivation for involvement in children's learning depends on?

Education level of parents	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Family partterns and traditions	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Family-teacher partnership	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Education system requirements	Not important	Less importan	Important	Very important
Other (specify)			

19. How do you like to keep contact with parents?

Face to face	often	sometimes	never
Phone	often	sometimes	never

Email	often	sometimes	never
Social networks	often	sometimes	never
Through the child/student	often	sometimes	never
Other(specify)	often	sometimes	never

20. What are the available ways to keep contact with parents?

Face to face	often	sometimes	never
Phone	often	sometimes	never
Email	often	sometimes	never
Social networks	often	sometimes	never
Through the child/student	often	sometimes	never
Other(specify)	often	sometimes	never

Questionnaire in Kurdish

بهشی یهكهم: دیمۆگرافی

١. رهگهزت چیه؟ ا. نیر ب. مئ
٢. تههنت چهنده؟
٣. نایا ناوارهی؟ ا. بهائی ب. نهخیر
٤. کام لهمانه شوینی نیشهجی بوونته؟ ا. ناوشار ب. کهمپی ناوارهکانی عیراق
ج. کهمپی ناوارهکانی سوریا د. شوینی تر.....
٥. پیش ناوهرابوون له کوئی نیشهجی بوویت؟ ا. پایتهخت ب. شاریک
ج. شاروچکهیهک د. گوند ه. ناواره نیم
٦. باری خیزانیت چیه؟ ا. سەلت ب. خیزاندار ج. جیابومهتهوه د. بیوهژنم/بیوهپیاوم
و. هی تر.....
٧. بیکهاتهی خیزانهکەت چۆنه؟ ا. ژن و میرد و مندال ب. تهنها خۆم و مندال ج. تهواوی خیزان و
داییره و باپیره بیکهوه د. خۆم باپیره م / داییره م + مندال ه. خۆم زر دایکم/ باوکم + مندال
٨. چهند مندالت ههیه؟ ا. یهک ب. دوو ج. سئ د. چوار ه. زیاتر له چوار
٩. چهند هاوسهری ژن ههن له مالهکهندا؟ ا. یهک ب. دوو ج. سئ د. چوار
١٠. مندالهکانت تهههنیان چهنده؟

زیاتر	١٥-١٢ سال یان	١١-٨ سال	٧-٤ سال	٣-٠ سال	
					مندالی یهكهم
					مندالی دووهم

			مندالی ستيهه
			مندالی چوارهم
			مندالی پينجهه

۱۱. ئاستى خوئندهوارىت چونه؟ ۱. نهخويندهوار ب. بروانامه سهرهتايى ج. بروانامه ناوهندى

د. بروانامه ئامادهيى ه. بروانامه پهيمانگا و. بروانامه زانكو ز. هي تر.....

۱۲. هاوسهرهكهت ههنگرى چى بروانامهيهكه؟ ۱. نهخويندهوار ب. بروانامه سهرهتايى

ج. بروانامه ناوهندى د. بروانامه ئامادهيى ه. بروانامه پهيمانگا و. بروانامه زانكو

ز. هي تر.....

۱۳. كارت ههيه؟ ۱. نهخير ب. بهلى، كار بو خهلك دهكهه ج. بهلى، خوم خاوهن كارم د. هي

تر.....

۱۴. بارى داراييت چونه؟ ۱. زورخراب ب. خراب ج. ناوهند د. باش ه. زورباش

بهشی دووهم: رۆلی دایباب له پهروهردهی مندالدا.

تکایه به دروستی و راشکاوی وهلامی گونجاو ههلبژیره

۱. نایا بیرت لهوه کردوهموه که رنگه به مندالهکمت بهدیت واز له خویندن بهینیت له نیستادا؟
 ا. ههمیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. ههندیک جار د. زۆر بهکمی ه. همرگیز
 بۆچی؟.....
۲. دتهویت مندالهکمت کار بکات له نیستایا و دواتر دهست بکاتهوه به خویندن؟
 ا. ههمیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. ههندیک جار د. زۆر بهکمی ه. همرگیز
 بۆچی؟.....
۳. چاوهروانیت له مندالهکمت ئهوهیه بگاته چی ئاستیکی خویندن؟
 ا. بنهرهتی ب. نامادهی ج. پهیمانگا د. زانکز
 ۴. کاتیک قوتابخانه بۆ مندالهکمت ههلهبژیری، گرنگی به چی ددهیت؟
 ا. هیچ بژاردیهکم نیه

ب. نهگهر بژاردمت ههیه، تکایه نیشانه لهو بژاردانه بده که بۆ تو دروسته.

له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	ژینگهی قوتابخانه
له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهلوپهلی قوتابخانه
له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	شینوازی وانه وتهوه
له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	چۆر و ناستی قوتابیان له قوتابخانهکه
له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	دووری قوتابخانه
له لام زۆر گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	له لام گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	مامۆستاکان

ج. شتی تر (.....)

۵. به رای تو بهرپرسیاریتی (وهگرنتی زانیاری لهسهر بابتهکانی قوتابخانه) له لایهن قوتابیوه دهکویته نهستۆی کی؟

۱. به تهاوی لئیرسراویتی دایک و باوکه زیاتر لئیرسراویتی دایک و باوکه ج. لئیرسراویتی ماموستا و دایک و باوکه به بهکسانی د. زیاتر لئیرسراویتی ماموستایه ه. به تهاوی لئیرسراویتی ماموستایه

۶. به رای تو بهرپرسیاریتی پهروردهی (رہوشت و بههاکان و رهفتارمکان) ی قوتابی دهکهنیته ئهستوی کنی؟
 ۱. به تهاوی لئیرسراویتی دایک و باوکه ج. زیاتر لئیرسراویتی دایک و باوکه د. زیاتر لئیرسراویتی ماموستایه ه. به تهاوی لئیرسراویتی ماموستایه

۷. تا چند یارمتهی مندالهکمت ددهیت بو ئهوی کارمکانی بهباشی بکات له قوتابخانه؟
 ۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۸. وهکو دایکیک یان باوکیک، تا چند همول ددهیت کار یگهریت ههیی له پرۆسهی فیربوونی مندالهکمت؟
 ۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۹. تا چند تئدهگهیت له ئهرکی مالموه (واجب) ی مندالهکمت که له قوتابخانه پیندراوه؟
 ۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۰. به رای تو چی شتیک یارمهتیدهرت دهبیت تاکو پشتیوانی مندالهکمت بیت له پرۆسهی فیربوونی؟

کات	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگ نیه	<input type="checkbox"/> کم گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> زور گرنگه
سهرمایه(پاره)	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگ نیه	<input type="checkbox"/> کم گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> زور گرنگه
ئاستی خوینهواری دایباب	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگ نیه	<input type="checkbox"/> کم گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> زور گرنگه
کم و زوری ژمارهی مندال	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگ نیه	<input type="checkbox"/> کم گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> گرنگه	<input type="checkbox"/> زور گرنگه
هی تر

۱۱. بهگشتی، تا چند بهشداریت له پهروردهی مندالهکمت؟
 ۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۲. تا چند قوتابخانهی مندالهکمت زانیاری روونت پیدهدهن لهسهر پینشکهنن و ئهدهای مندالهکمت؟
 ۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۳. تا چند ماموستاکانی مندالهکمت زانیاری کرداریت پیدهدهن تاکوله مال بهکاری بهینی بو یارمهتیدانی فیربوونی مندالهکمت؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۴. ئایا ماموستاکانی قوتابخانهکمت له نزیکهوه کارت لهگهل دهکن تاکو پینداویستی فیرکردنی مندالهکمت دابین بکهیت؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۵. ئایا ماموستاکانی مندالهکمت یارمهتیت دهنن تئیهگی لهوی که مندالهکمت چی فیردهبیت؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. هندیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۶. ههستی ئهرنیت ههیه کاتیک ماموستای مندالهکمت پهپوهندیت لهگهل دهکات لهبارهی فیربوونی مندالهکمت؟

۱۷. همیشه به پیشوازی دهکەیت له قوتابخانهی منداڵهکەت؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۱۸. نایا مامۆستایانی منداڵهکەت پێشبینی ئەوت لێدەکەن که یارمەتی منداڵهکەت بەدەیت له ئەرکی مالمهوه (واجبی قوتابخانه)؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۱۹. وەکو دایکێک یان باوکێک، تا چەند پەيوهندی به مامۆستای منداڵهکەتەوه دهکەیت ؟
 ا. رۆژانه ب. هەفتانه ج. مانگانه د. سالی چەند جارێک ه. نایکەم

۲۰. به چي شتيازيك پەيوهندی دهکەیت به مامۆستاوه؟

رۆو به رۆو	<input type="checkbox"/> زۆر جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەندیک جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەرگیز
تەلهفون	<input type="checkbox"/> زۆر جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەندیک جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەرگیز
ئیمیل	<input type="checkbox"/> زۆر جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەندیک جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەرگیز
تۆره کۆمه لایهتیهکان	<input type="checkbox"/> زۆر جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەندیک جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەرگیز
له ریگای منداڵهکەوه	<input type="checkbox"/> زۆر جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەندیک جار	<input type="checkbox"/> هەرگیز
ریگای تر		

۲۱. له کاتی کۆرۆنادا (خویندنی ئۆنلاین)، پەيوهندیت بەر دەوام بوو لهگەڵ مامۆستای منداڵهکەت؟

۲۲. سەرەرای ناستهنگهکانی کۆرۆنا، بەر دەوام بوویت له یارمەتیدانی منداڵهکەت بۆ فێر بوون به ریگای جیاوازی؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۲۳. پێت وایه خویندنی ئۆنلاین گونجاو بوو بۆ منداڵهکەت؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۲۴. لهکاتی خویندنی ئۆنلاین، هەموو زانیارییهکی پێویستت له قوتابخانهوه وەر دهگرت؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۲۵. لهکاتی خویندنی ئۆنلاین، منداڵهکەت هەموو نامراز مکانی خویندنی بەر دەست بوو؟
 ا. همیشه ب. زۆر جار ج. هەندیک جار د. زۆر بەکەمی ه. هەرگیز

۲۶. پشنگگیری کامیان زیاتر دهکەیت تا خویندنهکەمی تهواو بکات؟
 ا. هەر دووکیان ب. کچ ج. هەر دووکیان د. هیچیان

..... بۆچی؟

بهشی سنیهم: رۆلی ماموستا

۱. رمگهزت چیه؟ ا. نیر ب. مئ

۲. هملگری کام لهم بروانامانیت؟

۱. بهکارلیوس ب. ماستر ج. دکتورا

۳. پیت وایه دایکان و باوکان بهباشی دین به دم ئه بانگهئیشتانهی قوتابخانهوه که پهیوهندی به فیربوونی مندالهمکانیهوه هیه؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۴. پیت وایه دایکان و باوکان و مکو پیویست ناگاداری گرنگی بهشداریانن له پرۆسهی فیربوونی مندالهمکانیان؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۵. پیت وایه دایکان و باوکان واقعیانه ههئسهنگاندن بۆ تواناکانی مندالهمکانیان دهکمن و لهسر ئه بنهمایه چاوهروانیان لئیان هیه؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۶. پیت وایه له قوتابخانهکمت ژینگهیهکی پیشوازیکرانه هیه بۆ دایکان و باوکان؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۷. پیت وایه پهیوهندی لهسر بنهمای متمانه و ریز له نیوان قوتابخانه و دایکان و باوکان هیه؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۸. ئایا دایکان و باوکان هیچ بهشداریان هیه له چالاکیهکانی قوتابخانه؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

ئهگهر بهئێ، تکایه نمونه(کان) بنوسه:.....

۹. ئایا دایکان و باوکان هیچ بهشداریان هیه له بهرتهوهردن و سیاسهتی قوتابخانه؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

ئهگهر بهئێ، تکایه نمونه(کان) بنوسه:.....

۱۰. چاوهروانی ئهوت هیه له دایکان و باوکان که هاوکاری مندالهمکانیان بکمن له ئهرک(واجب)ی مالمههیان؟

۱. همیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. هرگیز

۱۱. به رای تو، کامیان زیاتر له پهیوهندیدان لهگهل ستافی قوتابخانه؟

۱. دایکان ب. باوکان ج. همدوکیان به یهکسانی د. خوشک و برا

بۆچی؟.....

۱۲. له پمپوهندی له گهڼل کامیان زیاتر ههست به ئاسودهیی دهکویت؟

- ا. دایکان ب. باوکان ج. همدوکیان به یهکسانی د. خوشک و برا

بۆچی؟

۱۳. نایا تیبینی خوت ددهیت به دایکان و باوکان لهبارهی فیروبونی مندالهکانیان؟

- ا. ههمیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. همرگیز

۱۴. نایا قوتابخانهکمت هیچ ریگایهک/سیاسهتیکهی ههیه بو ئهوهی دایکان و باوکان زیاتر بهشدار بکات له فیروبونی مندالهکانیان؟

- ا. بهلی ب. نهخیز
نهگهر بهلی، تکایه نمونه(کان)

بنوسه:

۱۵. لهکاتی کورونا(خویندنی ئونلاین) تا چند پمپوهندیت بهردهوام بوو لهگهڼل خیزانی قوتابیهکان؟

- ا. ههمیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. همرگیز

۱۶. بپیت وایه خویندنی ئونلاین بو قوتابیهکانت سهرکهوتوو بوو؟

- ا. ههمیشه ب. زور جار ج. همدنیک جار د. زور بهکمی ه. همرگیز

۱۷. بهرای تو ئه فاکتهرانه چین که رۆلی گرنگیان ههیه له بهشدارهی دایکان و باوکان له پرۆسهی فیروبونی مندالهکانیان؟

کات	گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهه گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
سهرمایه(پاره)	گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهه گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
ئاستی خویندهواری دایباب	گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهه گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
کهه و زوری ژمارهی مندال	گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهه گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
هی تر			

۱۸. هاندانی دایکان و باوکان بو بهشداریکردنیان له فیروبونی مندالهکانیان دهکووته سهر چی؟

ئاستی خویندهواری دایباب	گرنگ نیه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهه گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------------------	-----------------------------------	------------------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------------------

پهيوهندی خيزانی و نهریت	گرنگ نيه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
پهيوهندی ماموستا وخيزان	گرنگ نيه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
داخواز بيهکان ی سيسته می پهرو مرده	گرنگ نيه <input type="checkbox"/>	کهم گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>	زور گرنگه <input type="checkbox"/>
هی تر			

۱۹. دتهويت چون لهگهڵ دايمان و باوکان له پهيوهنديدا بيت؟

روو بهروو	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
تهلهفون	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
توری کومه لایهتی	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
له ريگه می مندا لهکمه	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
هی تر (.....)	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>

۲۰. ريگاکانی که بهر دهستن بو پهيوهندی کردن لهگهڵ دايمان و باوکان چين؟

روو بهروو	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
تهلهفون	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
توری کومه لایهتی	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
له ريگه می مندا لهکمه	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>
هی تر (.....)	زور جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههندی جار <input type="checkbox"/>	ههريگيز <input type="checkbox"/>

Questionnaire in Arabic

اولا: المعلومات الشخصية

- 1- حدّد (حدّدي) جنسك: أ- ذكر ب- انثى
- 2- كم تبلغ (تبلغين) من العمر؟
- 3- هل انت لاجئ أو نازح : أ- نعم ب- لا
- 4- أين تقيم (تقيمين) حالياً؟ رجاءً اكتب اسم مكانك داخل فراغ التي تختار
- أ- داخل المدينة ب- مخيم النازحين
- ج- مخيم اللاجئين د- امكنة اخرى.....
- 5- أين كنت تعيش (تعيشين) قبل اللاجئ أو النازح؟ أ- العاصمة ب- المدينة ج- القضاء/ الناحية د- القرية هـ. لسث لاجئ/نازح
- 6- ماهي حالتك الاجتماعية؟ أ- اعزب (باكر) ب- متزوج (متزوجة) ج- مطلق (مطلقة) د- اخرى
- 7- تتضمن عائلتك من : أ- الأب والأم و الطفل ب- أحد الوالدين مع الطفل ج- عائلة الممتدة مع الجد والجدة د- أنا جدة أو جد + الطفل هـ- أنا زوجة الأب أو زوج الأم + الطفل
- 8- كم عدد اطفالك؟ أ- واحد ب- اثنان ج- ثلاثة د- اربعة هـ- اكثر من اربعة.....
- 9- كم عدد زوجاتك (الزوجات لدى زوجك)؟ أ- واحدة ب- اثنتان ج- ثلاث د- اربع
- 10- ما هو اعمار اطفالك؟

الطفل الاول	<input type="checkbox"/> ٠ - ٣ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٤ - ٧ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٨ - ١١ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ١٢ - ١٥ سنة أو أكثر
الطفل الثاني	<input type="checkbox"/> ٠ - ٣ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٤ - ٧ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٨ - ١١ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ١٢ - ١٥ سنة أو أكثر
الطفل الثالث	<input type="checkbox"/> ٠ - ٣ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٤ - ٧ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٨ - ١١ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ١٢ - ١٥ سنة أو أكثر
الطفل الرابع	<input type="checkbox"/> ٠ - ٣ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٤ - ٧ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٨ - ١١ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ١٢ - ١٥ سنة أو أكثر
الطفل الخامس	<input type="checkbox"/> ٠ - ٣ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٤ - ٧ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ٨ - ١١ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> ١٢ - ١٥ سنة أو أكثر

- 11- ما هو تحصيلك الدراسي؟ أ- شهادة الابتدائية ب- شهادة المتوسطة ج- شهادة الاعدادية د- شهادة المعهد هـ- شهادة الجامعية و- اخرى.....
- 12- ما هو مستوى الدراسي زوجك أو (زوجتك) ؟ أ- شهادة الابتدائية ب- شهادة المتوسطة

ج- شهادة الاعدادية د- شهادة المعهد ه- شهادة الجامعة و- امية (امي) ز- اخرى
.....

13- هل لديك وظيفة؟

أ- كلا ب- نعم, انا موظف (موظفة) ج- نعم, انا صاحب (صاحبة) العمل د- اخرى.....

14- كيف ترى (ترين) وضعك المالي؟

أ- سيء ب- سيء للغاية ج- متوسط د- جيد ه- جيد جداً

ثانياً: دور الوالدين في تربية الاولاد

رجاءً اختر (اخترى) الاجابة المناسبة بشكل الصحيح والصريح

1- هل فكرت أن تسمح لأولادك أن تترك الدراسة في الوقت الحالي ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

2- هل تود أن أطفالك يعملوا في الوقت الحالي و يلتحقوا بالدراسة لاحقاً ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

لماذا

3- ماذا تتوقع من أطفالك في تحصيلهم من مراحل الدراسة ؟

أ- الاساسية (الابتدائية و المتوسطة) ب- الاعدادية ج- المعهد د- الجامعية

4- عندما تختار المدرسة لأطفالك عادةً ما الذي يهيك ؟

أ. ليس لدي خيار

ب. إذا لديك اختيار رجاءً ضع علامة الصح أمام أختيارات المناسب داخل الجدول :

المناخ المدرسي	لا أهتم بها	أهتم بها قليلاً	أهتم بها	أهتم بها كثيراً
الاعراض و الوسائل المدرسة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
اسلوب التدريس	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
النوعية و مستوى الطالب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

موقع المدرسة	لا أهتم بها <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها كثيراً <input type="checkbox"/>
معلمي المدرسة	لا أهتم بها <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها <input type="checkbox"/>	أهتم بها كثيراً <input type="checkbox"/>

ج . شئى أخرى

5- في رأيك مَنْ مسؤول عن (حصول معلومات الطالب حول الموضوعات المدرسية) ؟

أ- الوالدين فقط ب- الوالدين الى حد كبير ج- الوالدين و المعلمين معا

د- المعلمين فقط ه- المعلمين الى حد كبير

6- في رأيك مَنْ مسؤول عن (الأخلاق و القيم و تصرف الطالب) ؟

أ- الوالدين فقط ب- الوالدين الى حد كبير ج- الوالدين و المعلمين معا

د- المعلمين فقط ه- المعلمين الى حد كبير

7- إلى أي مدى تساعد أطفالك على أداء الجيد في المدرسة ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

8- بصفة كأحد الوالدين إلى أي مدى تحاول أن تكون مؤثراً على تعليم لأطفالك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

9- إلى أي مدى تفهم من واجبات أطفالك في المدرسة ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

10- في رأيك ما الذي يساهم في مساعدة أطفالك على تعليم الدراسي؟

وقت	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
مال (نقود)	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
مستوى التعليم الوالدين	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
عدد الأطفال في العائلة	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
شئى أخرى			

11- بشكل عام إلى أي مدى تشارك في تربية أطفالك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً ه. أبداً

12- إلى أي مدى تعطي مدرسة أولادك معلومات الضرورية حول أداء أولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

13- إلى أي مدى تعطي معلمو أولادك الإرشادات التطبيقية التي بإمكانك استخدامها في البيت لتعليم أولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

14- هل يتعاون معلمو أولادك معك عن كثب للعثور على المستلزمات التعليمية لأولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

15- هل يتعاون معلمو أولادك معك لمعرفة ما يتعلمه أولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

16- هل تشعر بالإيجابية عندما يتواصل معلمو أولادك حول تعليم أولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

17- هل تشعر بأنك مرحب في مدرسة أولادك ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

18- هل تعتقد معلمو أولادك يتوقعون منك في مساعدة أولادك في الواجبات المنزلية ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

19- بصفة أحد الوالدان إلى أي حد تتواصل مع معلمو أولادك ؟

أ. لا أتصل ب. كم مرة في سنة ج. شهرياً د. اسبوعياً هـ. يومياً

20- كيف تتواصل مع المعلمين ؟

وجها لوجه	<input type="checkbox"/> معظم الأوقات	<input type="checkbox"/> أحياناً	<input type="checkbox"/> أبداً
عن طريقة الهاتف	<input type="checkbox"/> معظم الأوقات	<input type="checkbox"/> أحياناً	<input type="checkbox"/> أبداً
من خلال بريد الألكترونية	<input type="checkbox"/> معظم الأوقات	<input type="checkbox"/> أحياناً	<input type="checkbox"/> أبداً
من خلال شبكة الاجتماعية	<input type="checkbox"/> معظم الأوقات	<input type="checkbox"/> أحياناً	<input type="checkbox"/> أبداً
من خلال أولادي	<input type="checkbox"/> معظم الأوقات	<input type="checkbox"/> أحياناً	<input type="checkbox"/> أبداً
عن طريقة أخرى		

21- هل كنت على اتصال دائم مع المعلمين خلال فترة الكورونا ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

22- على الرغم من مشاكل فترة كورونا هل كنت مساعداً لأولادك على التعلم بأدوات مختلفة ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً

23- هل تعتقد أن التعليم عبر الإنترنت (اون لاين) كان مناسباً لأولادك ؟

- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 24- هل حصلت على جميع المعلومات من مدرسة أولادك خلال فترة الدراسة عبر الإنترنت (اون لاين) ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 25- هل كان لدى أولادك جميع الأدوات التعليمية خلال فترة الدراسة عبر الإنترنت (اون لاين) ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 26- أي واحد تدعم لإنهاء المدرسة ؟
- أ. ولد ب. بنت ج. كلاهما د. لا أحد منهم
- لماذا؟.....

ثالثاً: دور المعلمين

- 1- هل انت لاجئ أو نازح : أ- نعم ب- لا
- 2- ما مستوى تحصيلك ؟
- أ. بكالوريوس ب. ماجستير ج. دكتوراه
- 3- هل تعتقد أن الوالدين يستجيبون بشكل جيد لدعوات المدرسة المتعلقة بتعليم أبنائهم ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 4- في رأيك أن الوالدين يعرفون أهمية مشاركتهم في تعليم دراسة أبنائهم ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 5- هل تعتقد أن الوالدين يختبرون قدرة أبنائهم بشكل واقعي و بناءً على ذلك يتوقعون نتائج أبنائهم ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 6- هل تعتقد أن المدرسة وفرت بيئة مرحبة للوالدين ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 7- هل تعتقد أن الرابطة بين المدرسة و الوالدين تقوم على الثقة والأحترام ؟
- أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
- 8- هل يشارك والدان في الأنشطة المدرسية ؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
..... إذا كان إجابتك نعم رجاءً اكتب مثلاً

9- هل للوالدين دور (مشاركة) في الإدارة وبرنامج المدرسة؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
..... إذا كان إجابتك نعم رجاءً اكتب مثلاً

10- هل تتوقع من الوالدين في مساعدة الاطفالهم في واجبات المنزلية؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
11- في رأيك أي واحد منهم أكثر في تواصل مع الادارة المدرسة والمعلمين؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
12- مع أي واحد منهم تشعر بالراحة أثناء التواصل؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
13- هل تعطي ملاحظات للوالدين حول تعليم أبنائهم؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
14- هل لدى مدرستك خطة أو برنامج لزيادة مشاركة الوالدين في تعليم أبنائهم؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
15- خلال فترة الدراسة عبر الإنترنت (اون لاين) هل كنت في تواصل مع عائلة الطلاب (والدين)؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
16- هل تعتقد أن دراسة عبر الانترنت (اون لاين) كان ناجحاً؟

أ. دائماً ب. معظم الاوقات ج. أحياناً د. قليل جداً هـ. أبداً
17- في رأيك ما سبب التي لها دوراً هاماً في مشاركة الوالدين؟

وقت	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
مال (نقود)	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
مستوى التعليم الوالدين	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
عدد الأطفال في العائلة	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>
شيء أخرى			

18- تشجيع الوالدين للمشاركة في تعليم أبنائهم يعتمد أي شيء ؟

مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	مستوى التعليمي الوالدين
مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	علاقة العائلية والعادات
مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	تواصل بين عائلة والمعلمين
مهم جداً <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم <input type="checkbox"/>	مهم قليلاً <input type="checkbox"/>	ليس مهماً <input type="checkbox"/>	متطلبات نظام التربية
.....				شيء آخر
.....				..

19- كيف تود أن تكون في التواصل مع الوالدين ؟

أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	وجها لوجه
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	عن طريقة الهاتف
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال بريد الألكترونية
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال شبكة الاجتماعية
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال أولادي
.....			عن طريقة أخرى

20- ما هي الطرق التي متوفرة للتواصل مع الوالدين ؟

أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	وجها لوجه
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	عن طريقة الهاتف
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال بريد الألكترونية
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال شبكة الاجتماعية
أبداً <input type="checkbox"/>	أحياناً <input type="checkbox"/>	معظم الأوقات <input type="checkbox"/>	من خلال أولادي
.....			عن طريقة أخرى

Appendix E

Cluster analysis results of parental involvement levels

Final Cluster Centers			
	Cluster		
	1	2	3
How often do you help your child to do well at school	2.38	1.06	1.27
As a parent, to what extent do you try to have impact on your child's learning process?	2.16	1.01	1.16
Overall, how often do you involve with your child's education?	1.44	1.03	1.09
How often do you contact your child's teachers as a parent?	2.11	2.19	1.60
Understanding assignments	1.97	1.10	2.43

Number of Cases in each Cluster		
Cluster	1	64.000
	2	346.000
	3	139.000
Valid		549.000
Missing		18.000

Clusters according level of involmment					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	not involved	64	11.3	11.7	11.7
	highly involved	346	61.0	63.0	74.7
	moderately involved	139	24.5	25.3	100.0
	Total	549	96.8	100.0	
Missing	System	18	3.2		
Total		567	100.0		

Appendix F

Field snapshot: Capturing the setting and researcher in action



Appendix G

Local and camp schools photos

