

GUIDEBOOK for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction

SECTION 1 GENERAL OVERVIEW



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

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The first draft of this *Guidebook* was prepared at a writing workshop, led by IIEP, held in Gourdon, France, in April 2003. The following individuals contributed to that draft at Gourdon (the institutions for which they were working at the time are given in parentheses):

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NOTE ON GUIDEBOOK UPDATE

This *Guidebook* was updated in 2010 to reflect some of the recent trends emerging in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction. As noted in the “Introduction”, there have been some positive developments in terms of engagement of the international donor community in this topic. Consequently the *Guidebook* has been updated to reflect some of these changes, along with an updated list of tools and resources for all chapters.

The following chapters have been revised:

- 2.3 Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion
- 2.4 Children with disabilities
- 2.6 Learning spaces and school facilities
- 2.10 Early childhood development
- 4.3 HIV prevention education
- 5.11 Coordination and communication

The following new chapters have been added:

- 1.2 Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster
- 2.8 Technology

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FOREWORD

UNESCO is increasingly requested to provide an educational response in emergency and reconstruction settings. The organization is in the process of developing expertise in this field in order to be able to provide prompt and relevant assistance. It will offer guidance, practical tools and specific training for education policy-makers, officials and planners.

The fifth of the eleven objectives adopted by the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 explicitly focuses on the rights of children in emergencies. It stresses the importance of meeting “... the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct[ing] educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict”. The *Dakar Framework for Action* calls for national Education for All plans to include provision for education in emergency situations. Governments, particularly education ministries, have an important role to play in an area that has often been dominated by the actions of NGOs and United Nations agencies.

Moreover, the field of educational planning in emergencies and reconstruction is still young. It has to be organized into a manageable discipline, through further documentation and analysis, before training programmes can be designed. All the more so since accumulated institutional memories and knowledge in governments, agencies and NGOs working on education in emergencies, are in danger of being lost due both to the dispersion and disappearance of documents, and to high staff turnover in both national and international contexts. Most of the expertise is still in the heads of practitioners and needs to be collected, since memories fade fast. Diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must now be more thoroughly documented and analyzed before they disappear.

The International Institute for Educational Planning’s (UNESCO-IIEP) larger programme on education in emergencies and reconstruction involves not only this *Guidebook*, but also a series of country specific

analyses. They concern the restoration of education systems in countries as diverse as Burundi, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sudan and Timor-Leste. In addition, IIEP is producing global thematic policy-related studies on issues such as coordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide range of studies to build the knowledge needed. The broader task includes the publication and dissemination of the *Guidebook* for education officials and the agencies assisting them, and developing training materials for a similar audience. Details of the objectives of the *Guidebook's* publication may be found in *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction'.

Through this programme, IIEP will make its contribution to the discipline of education in emergencies and reconstruction. Its hope is to enrich the quality of the planning and management applied in this crucial field.

Khalil Mahshi
Director a.i., IIEP

IIEP'S MISSION

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* helps the International Institute for Educational Planning accomplish its mission of *strengthening the national capacities* of UNESCO Member States in the fields of policy-making, educational planning and administration. The Institute pursues this mission by carrying out four complementary functions:

- The *training* of national senior educational personnel and teaching staffs and institutions.
- *Research* and studies pertaining to educational policy-making, planning and administration.
- The *dissemination* of the results of its work (publications, research workshops, policy forums) among policy-makers, civil servants, research workers, administrators and representatives of educational cooperation agencies.
- *Operational support* to specific countries, as well as advisory services to agencies, based on requests.

Above all, the *Guidebook* will contribute to IIEP's endeavours to coordinate existing knowledge and experience gained on this subject, and to promote research into new concepts and methods of educational planning likely to further economic and social development.

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION 1

This section provides an introduction and overview to the *Guidebook* and to the contextual factors that must be considered when planning and providing education in emergencies and reconstruction. *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction', focuses on the *Guidebook* itself, as it describes its targeted audiences, purpose and structure as well as a brief introduction to INEE and the Minimum Standards. *Chapter 1.2*, 'Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster', looks at ways in which education can mitigate the effects of conflict and disasters, both through addressing root causes of conflict and reducing risks of disaster. *Chapter 1.3*, 'Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction', describes a number of issues that are relevant to all the topics in the *Guidebook*. It looks not only at some general challenges, but also at how these will vary, intensify or abate, depending on the type of emergency, the type of population group concerned or the phase of emergency.

Also included in this section is *Chapter 1.4*, 'Capacity building'. Many cross-cutting topics, such as gender or peace education, have been treated in separate chapters in the *Guidebook*. However, the issue of capacity building is cross-cutting in a slightly different sense. It is the main objective of this *Guidebook*, and ultimately a prerequisite for improving the quality of education in any of the areas or topics that are treated in the various chapters.

The final chapter in this section, *Chapter 1.5*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', addresses the fundamental theories and principles of education in emergencies and reconstruction. It outlines the main reasons why children are not

in school, what can be done about it and what other *Guidebook* chapters may be consulted when attempting to do so. *Chapter 1.5* should therefore be used as a reference for all chapters and topics in the *Guidebook* and is recommended reading for all users, regardless of their particular responsibilities.

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INTRODUCTION

EDUCATION AND PROTECTION IN CRISES

Access to education is a fundamental tool for child protection. Education inherently provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. In appropriate security conditions, physical protection may be enhanced by the provision of adult supervision and a safe place to learn and play. Psychosocial protection is offered through opportunities for self-expression, the expansion of social networks and access to structure and regular routines. By placing children in the social role of learners, education gives children a sense of purpose and self-worth. Finally, education contributes to the cognitive protection of

children affected by conflict or crises by addressing specific living conditions that arise from conflict (landmine awareness or health issues), strengthening children's analytical abilities, and giving children the tools they need to develop skills for citizenship and life in peace. Education saves lives; education sustains life. It is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003).

Despite this increasing recognition that education saves lives and is critical for restoring normality and hope to a population in crisis, education still falls behind other sectors when donors and governments respond to an emergency. Over half the world's out-of-school

children live in fragile or conflict-affected states. Yet there is little correlation between need and the actual education aid coming from donors. (For further information, see CfBT and IIEP-UNESCO, 2009.)

Therefore, there is still a need to maintain advocacy to promote support to education in these ‘fragile’ contexts. There have been some positive developments in this regard. For example, in 2006 the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) established an Education Cluster as part of the global cluster approach to emergency. Although some sectors have in the past benefited from having clearly mandated lead agencies within the international response to humanitarian crises, others have not. This has repeatedly led to *ad hoc*, unpredictable humanitarian responses, with inevitable capacity and response gaps in some areas. Recognizing this, in September 2005 the IASC agreed to designate global ‘cluster leads’ – specifically for humanitarian emergencies – in nine sectors or areas of activity (Nutrition; Health; Water/Sanitation; Emergency Shelter; Camp Coordination/Management; Protection; Early Recovery; Logistics; Emergency Telecoms). At this time it did not include education. When the Education Cluster was established in 2006, UNICEF and Save the Children Alliance were designated as the co-leads. (See *Chapter 5.11*, ‘Coordination and communication’.)

The Education Cluster should be considered an essential mechanism for coordinating all activities in an emergency, alongside the Early Recovery and Protection clusters (HPG, 2007, pp. vii–viii).

All of these initiatives have helped to build and sustain the momentum required to ensure that children who have frequently been denied their right to an education because of

conflict or crisis are able to do what they always ask for: to go to school.

This *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* aims to support educational authorities in providing equal access to education of quality for children affected by conflict or disaster.

THE READER

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* (hereafter referred to as the *Guidebook*) is addressed primarily to staff of ministries of education, including national, provincial and district level planners and managers, in countries affected by conflict or natural disasters, or hosting refugees from a neighbouring state. This is the first time that detailed guidance on planning education in emergencies and reconstruction has been prepared specifically from this perspective.

From the inception of its Programme for Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction, IIEP has been working to fill this gap in the support materials available to ministries. In April 2003, 20 international experts on education in emergencies and reconstruction met in Gourdon, France, to produce the first edition of this *Guidebook*. After extensive editorial work, it was published in February 2006, in hard-copy and CD-ROM format, and placed on the IIEP website. Since then, the text has been reviewed, revised and enriched to produce the 40 chapters that now constitute the updated *Guidebook* (see *Note on guidebook update*, on page v). A number of Ministry of Education officials from across the globe, as well as other education practitioners and planners from a range of international organizations, were consulted in the editorial process.

The value of the *Guidebook* has been enriched immeasurably by reference to a wide literature, which is thoroughly and consistently cited in the ‘References and further reading’ section at the end of each chapter. Of particular importance in the drafting were the volumes published in IIEP’s series, ‘Education in emergencies and reconstruction’. The seminal work was the state-of-the art review written by Margaret Sinclair (2002), entitled *Planning education in and after emergencies*. Complementing that work is a thematic study of coordination of education in emergencies and reconstruction (Sommers, 2004). Eight published case studies – on Rwanda (Obura, 2003), education of Rwandan refugees (Bird, 2003), Kosovo (Sommers and Buckland, 2004), Timor Leste (Nicolai, 2004), Southern Sudan (Sommers, 2005), Occupied Palestinian Territory (Nicolai, 2007), Burundi (Obura, 2008) and Pakistan (Kirk, 2008) – have provided valuable material to illustrate the principles and guidance of the *Guidebook*. In addition two research partnerships with the CfBT Education Trust and the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the University of Amsterdam and AMIDst, and the International Rescue Committee (IRC) have further added to the increased body of evidence with six publications and policy briefs on certification (Kirk, 2009), community participation (Sullivan-Owomoyela and Brannelly, 2009), programming responses in emergencies (Penson and Tomlinson, 2009), donors’ engagement (Brannelly, Ndaruhutse, and Rigaud, 2009), opportunities for change (Nicolai, 2009) and alternative educational programming (Baxter and Bethke, 2009).

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of UN organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in support of ministries to promote education for

emergency-affected populations. Staff of those agencies will benefit from a fuller awareness of the ways in which they can strengthen national capacities for planning and management of education in and after periods of emergency.

In many countries, some aspects of education are covered by ministries, educational authorities or organizations other than the Ministry of Education. There may be a separate Ministry of Higher Education, for example. There may also be educational programmes for youth and persons with disabilities, or specific programmes that target gender inequity that are overseen by other ministries. Moreover, ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Agriculture or the Ministry of Labour will be important partners for the Ministry of Education. These partners can help to determine whether the output of the education system actually corresponds with the needs in the labour market. Experts from these sectors may also be important sources of information in the drafting of education plans, curriculum reforms or teachers' conditions of service. In this *Guidebook*, however, for brevity we shall refer to the Ministry of Education as shorthand for all ministries handling education matters.

In many situations of emergency and reconstruction, external agencies assume responsibility for a smaller or larger part of the education system. In some situations, the government simply may not have control on the ground. Here, the *Guidebook* refers to the 'authority' responsible for education in those areas. The reader may make the necessary adjustments to take account of this fact in countries where education is covered by multiple ministries or authorities, or by different non-state actors.

LEVELS AND TYPES OF EDUCATION

The *Guidebook* focuses to a considerable extent on ensuring access to quality schooling at primary and secondary levels during emergencies. However, attention is also paid to early childhood development, vocational education, post-primary and higher education and non-formal education.

The term '*formal education*' is used here to refer to regular schooling that follows a normal pattern – admission of students at about age six or over, promotion from grade to grade on a yearly basis, and use of a curriculum that covers a wide range of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. This term is used even though some elements may be added or temporarily omitted as a consequence of the emergency. A formal education system comprises primary, secondary, tertiary and vocational education.

The term '*non-formal education*' is reserved for educational activities delivered to targeted social groups, where there is a possibility to provide attention to individual learners. Those activities may include courses, workshops and apprenticeships that meet specific needs of society and its members, in fields such as literacy and numeracy, health and childcare, training in informal sector businesses, life skills such as conflict management, peace and human rights education and environmental education, although some of those topics may also be addressed in formal school settings.

The term '*informal education*' refers to learning channels, such as mass media and mass publicity campaigns, where there is little or no possibility for attention to the individual.

EACH SITUATION IS DIFFERENT

The *Guidebook* presents examples of the problems faced in different kinds of emergencies, and suggests policy options and strategies that have been found useful in such situations (see the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.3*, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’, for information on the typology used: different types and phases of emergencies and different population groups). It must be stressed, however that each emergency situation is different: each conflict or disaster takes its own particular trajectory, carries its own history and affects a particular country or countries differently depending on specific traditions in the field of education and culture, and specific economic and social problems and possibilities. The suggestions offered in the *Guidebook* thus constitute a checklist of points to consider. The *Guidebook* should not be considered a universally applicable model of activities to be undertaken, nor is it a static document. Care must always be taken to adjust the strategies and suggestions with regard to the local situation.

STRUCTURE OF THE GUIDEBOOK

This *Guidebook* is organized in five sections – one introductory section and four thematic sections:

- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners
- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

In the ‘General overview’ section, this ‘Introduction’ is followed by a review of the contextual factors that must be considered when planning and providing education in emergencies and

reconstruction. The second chapter, 'Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster', highlights how embedding early warning for both conflict and disaster is a precursor to effective planning and capacity development in education. The third chapter in this section, 'Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction', describes a number of issues that are relevant to all the topics in the *Guidebook*. It not only looks at some general challenges, but also at how these will vary, intensify or abate, depending on the type of emergency, the type of population group concerned or the phase of emergency. The fourth chapter in this section, 'Capacity building', reviews this overarching issue, which is the main objective of this *Guidebook*. Capacity building is ultimately a prerequisite for improving the quality of education in any of the areas or topics that are covered in the other sections of the *Guidebook*.

The final chapter of the 'General overview' focuses on 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'. This chapter addresses the fundamental theories and principles of education in emergencies and reconstruction. It outlines the main reasons why children are not in school, what can be done about it and what other *Guidebook* chapters may be consulted when attempting to do so. *Chapter 1.5* should therefore be used as a reference for all subsequent chapters and topics in the *Guidebook*, and is recommended reading for all users, regardless of their particular responsibilities.

The other four sections in the *Guidebook* cover a comprehensive range of topics relevant to education in emergencies and reconstruction. Each chapter starts with an overview of the context and the factors that influence educational response in relation to that topic: context and challenges. Next, each *Guidebook* chapter provides suggestions regarding possible

strategies – actions that may be taken by the educational authorities to deal with these problems. In some cases, it is the educational authorities themselves that will be the education providers, while in other instances, the main role of the educational authorities will be to coordinate and facilitate the work of other education providers.

Following the suggested strategies, in most chapters there is a list of ‘Tools and resources’ that can be utilized when implementing some of the suggested strategies. ‘Tools and resources’ contain an explanation of important concepts, action check-lists and examples of calculations, models or evaluation tools. In each chapter, there are a number of useful case studies of how different countries have addressed the challenges under discussion.

Each chapter ends with a list of references and suggestions for further reading.

The *Guidebook* is presented in five spiral-bound pocket-sized books, with a separate CD-ROM version that contains the whole guidebook. This permits users to refer to particular thematic sections without needing to carry all five sections on all occasions. Nevertheless, there are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, to allow readers to benefit fully from the linkages between topics.

INEE: THE INTER-AGENCY NETWORK FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

INEE is an open, global network of practitioners and policymakers working together to ensure all persons the right to quality education and a safe learning environment in emergencies and post-crisis recovery.

At a Strategy Session on Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis at the World Education Forum in Dakar, April 2000, a decision was made to develop a process of inter-agency communication and cooperation in order to improve response to education in emergencies. INEE was then founded with the aim of promoting access to safe and quality education for all persons affected by emergencies, crises or chronic instability, within the framework of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the EFA Declaration and the Dakar Framework.

INEE was not defined as a distinct agency with bureaucratic functions, but, rather, as an open network based on the principles of collaboration and information sharing, with specific attention given to avoiding duplication, while at the same time promoting a diversity of approaches and gender sensitivity. INEE brings together and supports agencies, organizations, communities and individuals in their ongoing work by consolidating and disseminating learning materials, resources and experiences, including good practices, tools and research guidelines. INEE also identifies and fills technical resource gaps, encouraging the development of these resources through task teams convened by INEE organizational members. Moreover, INEE is a flexible and responsive network that, through advocacy, urges institutions and governments to work together to ensure the right to quality education of those affected by conflict and natural disasters.

INEE membership is continually growing and expanding. As of July 2009, INEE had well over 3,600 individual members, representing a diverse array of over 300 organizations. At present, a steering group, composed of representatives from CARE International, Christian Children's Fund, the International Rescue Committee, the Norwegian Refugee Council, the

International Save the Children Alliance, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNICEF and the World Bank, provides direction and leadership for the INEE Secretariat.

INEE has several Working Groups, one of which is on education and fragility. This group was formed in early 2008 as an inter-agency mechanism to coordinate diverse initiatives and catalyse collaborative action on education and fragility. The goals of the Working Group on Education and Fragility are to:

- Strengthen consensus on what works to mitigate state fragility through education while ensuring equitable access for all;
- Support the development of effective quality education programmes in fragile states;
- Promote the development of alternative mechanisms to support education in fragile states in the transition from humanitarian to development assistance.

INEE Task Teams allow INEE members to work collectively on specific areas of interest, advocating for these key cross-cutting issues and collaboratively developing tools and resources to help practitioners provide inclusive, quality and safe education for all affected by crisis.

INEE currently has five Task Teams (INEE, 2008):

1. INEE Adolescents and Youth Task Team

This Task Team has identified a number of priority areas of work, including issues around advocacy, research, youth participation, and education and livelihoods. The first activity undertaken by the Team is a review of current literature and practice, drawing on the experiences of the members of the group and other leading actors in this field of work.

2. INEE Inclusive Education and Disability Task Team

This Task Team aims to promote the key principles, behaviours and actions necessary to ensuring that all excluded and marginalised people are included in emergency education opportunities. Specifically, the task team works to

- Produce resources useful to emergency practitioners which give practical advice on making inclusive education a reality.
- Influence emergency education training schemes to promote inclusive education principles and practice more effectively.
- Produce advocacy messages and information which can be used to get greater attention and support for inclusive education in emergencies.
- Work with INEE membership at the INEE Global Consultation in 2009 to identify further action by the INEE network to promote inclusive education in emergencies.

3. Early Childhood Development Task Team

The purpose of the ECD Task Team/ECCD in Emergencies Working Group is to analyse and synthesize information gathered from research, case studies, successful practices and tools from the fields of ECCD and emergencies and to use this information to:

- Develop tools and publications and to disseminate this information for use by global actors and stakeholders in ECCD and Emergencies.
- Advocate for improved investments, policies and commitment to action related to young children in emergency and transition situations.
- Inform the current gap in understanding that ECCD programming in emergency situations needs to include the diverse needs of children in each phase of the emergency, transition and normalcy.

- Inform capacity development of ECCE and Emergencies' stakeholders to effectively act for children in these settings.

4. Gender Task Team

This Task Team, which is also recognized as the Gender Working Group of the IASC Education Cluster, works to support gender mainstreaming and gender equality in and through education in emergencies, post-crisis and contexts of fragility. The Task Team collaboratively develops resources and tools, advocates for gender-aware programming, and facilitates training and capacity building to help practitioners respond to gender and education challenges faced during situations of crisis and recovery. The INEE Gender Task Team has developed tools for promoting gender equality in education that complement the INEE Minimum Standards, including Gender Strategy Sheets focused on the recruitment and support of female teachers, the prevention and response to gender-based violence in and through education, and gender responsive school sanitation. It has also developed an Education Chapter within the IASC Gender Handbook in Humanitarian Action, guiding humanitarian workers to integrate gender issues within education from the outset of a new complex emergency or disaster, so that humanitarian services provided neither exacerbate situations nor inadvertently put people at risk and also so that these reach their target audience and have maximum positive impact.

5. HIV/AIDS Task Team

This Task Team is currently working on a new Education Action Sheet to be included in an updated version of the IASC Guidelines on HIV/AIDS Interventions in Humanitarian Settings.

MINIMUM STANDARDS

One of the most significant developments in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction has been the recent definition and articulation (through a major consultative process by INEE's membership) of the *INEE Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (MSEE handbook). The minimum standards are intended to increase accountability of education providers to affected communities, government, the internal management of individual agencies and donors. Launched in December 2004, the standards are an expression of the commitment that all individuals – children, youth and adults – have a right to quality education during and after emergencies. In reality, however, more than half of the world's out-of-school children live in countries affected by emergencies, or recovering from them. Conflict and disaster are thus among the main barriers to achieving 'Education for All' and the second of the Millennium Development Goals (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*).

This *Guidebook*, like the MSEE handbook, is intended to be an expression of that commitment to ensuring education for all – even in the midst of crises. It is meant to be a capacity building and training tool for governments, donors and international agencies to improve their contribution to this commitment. We hope that you find it a useful tool and look forward to receiving comments and suggestions for improvement.



THE MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES, CHRONIC CRISES AND EARLY RECONSTRUCTION


The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies facilitated a highly consultative and broad-based process in the development of global minimum standards that articulate a minimum level of educational quality and access in emergencies, chronic crises and the early reconstruction phase.

The INEE Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction are both a handbook and an expression of commitment that all individuals – children, youth, and adults – have a right to education during emergencies. The standards echo the core beliefs of the Sphere Project (www.sphereproject.org): that all possible steps should be taken to alleviate human suffering arising out of calamity and conflict, and that people affected by disaster have a right to life with dignity.

INEE's minimum standards are founded on the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Dakar 2000 Education for All goals and the Sphere Project's humanitarian charter. The handbook is meant to be used as a training and capacity-building tool (www.ineesite.org/index.php/post/training_and_capacity_building) for humanitarian agencies, governments and local populations to enhance the effectiveness and quality of their educational assistance, and thus to make a significant difference in the lives of people affected by disaster. They will also help to enhance accountability and predictability among humanitarian actors, and improve coordination among partners, including education authorities.

The minimum standards are presented in five categories. These are:

- **Minimum standards common to all categories:** this section focuses on the essential areas of community





participation and the use of local resources when applying the standards contained in the handbook. It stresses the importance of basing emergency education responses on an initial assessment that is followed by an appropriate response and continued monitoring and evaluation.

- **Access and learning environment:** focuses on partnership to promote access to learning opportunities and inter-sectoral linkages with, for example, health, water and sanitation, food aid/nutrition and shelter, to enhance security and physical, cognitive and psychological well-being.
- **Teaching and learning:** focuses on critical elements that promote effective teaching and learning: (a) curriculum; (b) training; (c) instruction; and (d) assessment.
- **Teachers and other education personnel:** focuses on the administration and management of human resources in the field of education, including recruitment and selection, conditions of service, and supervision and support.
- **Education policy and co-ordination:** focuses on policy formulation and enactment, planning and implementation, and co-ordination.

The INEE Minimum Standards Handbook is available online at: www.ineesite.org/standards and translations into over 15 languages can be accessed at: www.ineesite.org/translations

The **INEE Minimum Standards Toolkit** contains the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook, training and promotional materials (including translations) as well as practical tools and resources to assist government officials and field staff in implementing the standards. The Toolkit will help users of the standards contextualize the indicators to their local setting; tools are linked to specific standards in the categories of:

- Community participation
 - Analysis
 - Access and learning environment
 - Teaching and learning
- 

- 
- Teachers and education personnel
 - Education policy and coordination

The toolkit also contains a set of tools for disaster preparedness and risk reduction as well as for the cross-cutting issues of gender, human and children's rights, HIV/AIDS and inclusive education. The toolkit is available online at: www.ineesite.org/toolkit

Other recent INEE Resources:

The **INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation** provide guidance on policy, coordination, management and financial aspects of teacher compensation in fragile and post-crisis contexts, as well as on teacher motivation, support and supervision: www.ineesite.org/teachercomp

The **INEE Guidance Notes on Safer School Construction** addresses a critical gap to reaching the Hyogo Framework, Education for All and Millennium Development Goals by providing a framework of guiding principles and general steps to develop a context-specific plan for the disaster resilient construction and retrofitting of school buildings:
www.ineesite.org/index.php/post/safer_school_construction_initiative

The **INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education** gives guidance on actions that everyone involved in an emergency education response can take, from the start, to make sure that education in emergencies is accessible and inclusive for everyone, particularly those who have been traditionally excluded from education such as girls and women:
www.ineesite.org/index.php/post/inclusive_ed_pocket_guide

Source: INEE (2004).

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Chapter 1.2

PREVENTION OF CONFLICT AND PREPAREDNESS FOR DISASTER

OVERVIEW

“From a culture of reaction to a culture of prevention”

Kofi Annan

The *Guidebook* deals with many issues relating to good practice regarding the planning and management of education for emergency response. With the increasing global focus on the prevention of both conflict and disaster, it is important that the updated *Guidebook* address these issues.

This chapter is divided into two parts: prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster. While the two are often related (for example, tensions arising from displacement due to disaster can lead to an exacerbation of underlying conflict issues)

there are distinct mechanisms for approaching the two fields.

PREVENTION OF CONFLICT

The nature of conflict is changing: today’s wars are typically *intra-state* rather than *inter-state*, and they are sometimes supported by outside powers with particular political and economic interests. Since the end of the Cold War 95 per cent of the world’s conflicts have been *intra-state*, and tribal or communal differences have also played a role in terms of underlying causal factors in many conflicts. Dissidents or opposition forces may not always be recognized by government, regional or international organizations

in these types of conflicts. Yet engagement of these groups is essential in any mediation process in order to resolve long-standing tensions.

The need for conflict prevention is additionally underscored by current global challenges such as climate change, global economic instability, energy depletion, and scarcity of water and food. Education is impacted by these challenges and can also impact on them. Therefore, planning for prevention is not only morally sound, but also cost-effective in an era of scarce educational resources.¹ As seen in the box below, the cost of military expenditure is over *120 times* more than that estimated for the total aid required to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for education. Much of this military expenditure could be better directed towards supporting conflict prevention strategies, which should include education.



ARMS EXPENDITURES

According to the 2008 report of the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), in 2007 the world military expenditures reached 1,339 billion USD, an increase of 6% from 2006 and 45% since 1998. This equalled 2.5% of the global GDP or 202 dollars per each person in the world. The United States represented 45%, due to the cost of involvement in Afghanistan and Iraq. The five major arms producers were the US, Russia, Germany, France and the United Kingdom. 22 out of 34 countries least likely to achieve MDG were in midst

1. More information on the scarce resources for education can be found in Brannelly, Ndaruhutse, and Rigaud (2009).



of conflict or merging from armed conflict fed by irresponsible arms sales and by 2010 half of the world's population could be living in these states.

UN reports state that 11 billion dollars is needed annually, from 2009–2010 to meet the MDG goal of universal primary education by 2015. Save the Children noted that in 2008 of the 11,494,000 spent on humanitarian aid, only 235 million (2%) was allocated to education and that half of the world's 75 million out of school children are living in post conflict or fragile states with a shortage of funds for education. In addition educational institutions are increasingly the target of armed attacks and aggression threatening the survival of children as well as families who have sought a safe haven.

Sources: Oxfam (2008); SIPRI (2008); Save the Children Alliance (2008).

For prevention of conflict to be successful it is necessary to educate the individual in constructive responses to conflicts, and to build into society the techniques and institutions that can resolve social conflict non-violently and deter or mitigate large-scale aggression. Effective prevention and peacemaking is holistic and involves the entire society, the mobilization of local populations, community structures, civil society, the private sector, media as well as national governments, regional bodies and international institutions. Education planners and managers also have a key role to play in developing education sector plans to mitigate conflict.

The root causes of conflict remain a challenge for preventive action. While conflict prevention strategies are becoming higher priorities on the political agenda there remains a continued reluctance on the part of many international institutions to adopt a 'culture of prevention'. Yet this is the founding mandate of the

UN system, 'to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war', and UNESCO's mandate 'to create peace in the minds of men'. Currently, conflict prevention and mediation is greatly expanding in the UN as well as in other international systems such as the European Commission in order to save millions of lives and conserve billions of dollars that are spent on arms, reconstruction and rehabilitation. It is imperative that educational planning develop strategies to enable students, local communities and governments to develop similar capacities.

Srinivasan (2006) suggests that 'recent efforts to enhance long-term "*structural*" and more immediate '*operational*' conflict prevention are encouraging', but clearly, given the level of ongoing conflicts in the world (despite some recent reductions), there remains a critical need to increase conflict prevention strategies as a global effort. The two dimensions to prevention – *structural* prevention and *operational* prevention – respectively address the underlying causes of long-term instability, and practical interventions or strategies for immediate prevention.

Structural prevention includes addressing the underlying root causes of social, political and economic unrest, instability, fragility 'including socioeconomic development, governance programmes, or targeted interventions such as resource-management and grassroots peacebuilding' (Srinivasan, 2006). *Operational* prevention can work on two levels: first, it might prevent conflicts from starting, through early warning analysis of root causes and the use of various mediation strategies; and second, it may also prevent ongoing conflict from escalating, through economic, political or coercive pressure (among other strategies). What appears to be evident is that 'effective operational prevention requires robust and timely conflict early warning that also pinpoints effective preventive strategies' (Srinivasan, 2006).

In support of such preventive strategies, education can contribute to mitigating conflict along the three primary aspects of conflict: structural, behavioural and attitudinal. Education can alter societal contradictions (structural), improve relations and interactions (behavioural) and encourage changes in attitudes (attitudinal) in ways that can reduce the risk of conflict and help build a sustainable peace. The list below provides examples of how education interacts with conflict along these three aspects.

Structural

- Education is a highly symbolic indicator of equity, linked to income earning potential and the ability to diminish inequalities.
- Education is the single most important policy lever for any government to increase social cohesion.
- The perception of inadequate educational service often becomes a grievance that exacerbates state fragility (Barakat, Karpinska, and Paulson, 2008).
- Education is a highly visible institution affecting most people within a state which has important symbolic value in (re)establishing the legitimacy of the state.
- Education is a highly visible symbol of government commitment to its population and serves as a barometer of a state's commitment to and relationship with its people (Barakat, Karpinska, and Paulson, 2008).

Behavioural

- Schools teach the interpersonal, political, social and legal principles that underlie good citizenship.
- Classrooms bring together people of different origins and teach them how to work together peacefully

- School systems combine the interests and objectives of a wide range of groups while trying to establish a common underpinning for citizenship.
- Participatory educational processes can build relationships inside and outside school that are built on trust, cooperation and reciprocity (Save the Children Alliance, 2008).

Attitudinal

- Peace education has positive effects on students' attitudes.
- Teachers can demonstrate positive values, such as acceptance of diversity, kindness and consideration of others' feelings.
- Teaching children the values of cooperation and tolerance of cultural differences helps to overcome prejudicial stereotypes that opportunistic leaders routinely use for their own ends (Barakat, Karpinska, and Paulson, 2008).

Conflict analysis, early warning mechanisms and preventive measures must be in place in order to lessen the outbreak of conflict and save countless lives and reconstruction costs. As part of post-conflict rehabilitation and reconstruction processes leading to a stable and peaceful environment, educators and decision-makers need to analyse the root causes of tensions in such countries and consider how early interventions could prevent conflict. In addition, the potential for conflict to break out in other countries at risk of conflict, whether through 'spillover' effects from regional conflicts or from their own internal tensions, needs to be identified and preventive strategies developed on a long-term basis to avoid future crises.

To achieve this, education for peace and the prevention of conflict should accompany education in emergencies and post-conflict initiatives with development partners, educational planners, ministries, civil society, the media and the private sector. The

substance is often similar, as noted in the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.6*, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’, but the action is one of timing. The first step, *to avoid conflicts and emergencies*, is the role of education, which is to prepare students, citizens and leaders, locally and nationally, for sound decision-making on the complex issue of living in harmony. In today’s world, decision-making is no longer the exclusive role of government, but the entire society.

“From a culture of war to a culture of peace”

Federico Mayor

Following the Cold War, the opportunities for conflict prevention have increased throughout the world. Chapters 6 and 7 of the UN Charter provide guidelines for mediation and conflict prevention. Many initiatives have been introduced including the UN Agenda for Peace Programme, launched in 1992 to strengthen preventive diplomacy, peacemaking and peacekeeping. In the 1990s the Director General of UNESCO called for the ‘culture of peace to replace the culture of war’ and established a multidisciplinary programme, with a special unit. Also the UN General Assembly declared a Decade for the Culture of Peace and Non-violence for the Children of the World, 2001–2010. Numerous special reports from the UN Secretary General have called for the expansion of the conflict prevention capacity of the UN system, and in December 2008 the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) for conflict prevention and preventive diplomacy was expanded. The UN also recommended more active participation of women in mediation.

The Inter-Agency Framework for Coordination of Preventive Action administers the United Nations programme for conflict prevention. All UN agencies, including UNESCO, are represented.

A number of agencies including, the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Save the Children, and USAID have developed analytic tools to better understand fragility in the education sector and thus contribute to conflict prevention (see ‘Tools and resources’ section for these). Other development agencies have created similar tools for other sectors or for the country/state/economy at large, such as the UK Department for International Development’s Conflict Assessment Framework, IMF’s Poverty Reduction Strategy Plans or UNDP’s Millennium Development Goal reports.

The Education and Fragility Assessment Tool (USAID, 2006) is framed around three key questions: How does fragility affect education? How does education contribute to fragility? How can education mitigate the sources of fragility and support resilience? The assessment tool assists in answering these key questions through a series of thematic questions organized around general and specific root causes of fragility and their relationship to education. Questions are organized by four domains – governance; security; social; and economic – and six patterns of fragility – corruption; exclusion and elitism; insufficient capacity; transitional dynamics; organized violence; and public disengagement. Links are examined between the domains and patterns of fragility and the educational categories of access, quality, relevance, equity and management. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section.)

Building on the Education and Fragility Assessment Tool and other resources, the INEE Working Group on Education and Fragility has developed an analytical framework of education and fragility which serves as the basis for understanding the interaction between education and five fragility domains: security, economic, governance, social and environment. Intersections between the components and processes of education including planning, service delivery, resource mobilization and monitoring systems are assessed within each of the fragility domains. The tool aims to examine education's impacts on fragility and identify ways in which education can mitigate fragility and build resilience. (See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for sample research questions from INEE's Analytic Framework.)

The daily functions of an education system have the potential to magnify and capture signs of potential conflict and/or fragility. Education (and other sectors) can provide specific indicators on how a country is 'performing' in terms of fragility and/or conflict. The Education and Fragility Barometer, developed by Save the Children, conceptualizes the education system as an early warning system and provides sample indicators for identifying risks of increasing fragility or conflict more broadly via shifts in the education system. These indicators can be adapted to the context and help to determine whether countries/communities are in danger of conflict or fragility. The Education and Fragility Barometer focuses on two levels – school and national – across three domains – culture, policy and practice. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for an example of indicators.)

PREPAREDNESS FOR DISASTER

STATISTICS

- 1.2 billion people are living below the poverty line. In sub-Saharan Africa, 50 per cent of the population live on US\$1.2 daily and 75 per cent on US\$2 daily.
- There have been approximately 3.9 million fatalities from hunger, disease or conflict in the 10-year war in the Congo, where 1,200 die daily; 70,000 fatalities in Sri Lanka in the 27-year war, with 250,000 displaced; 300,000 fatalities in Darfur, with 2.7 million displaced; 1.2 million fatalities in Iraq, with 4.7 million displaced of which 2 million are outside the country. A Nobel Prize economist estimated that the total cost of the Iraq war will be about US\$3 trillion. The UN estimated the reconstruction cost of the recent war in Gaza at almost 4 billion.
- Natural disasters, mainly weather related, affect more than 300 million people yearly; over 90 per cent of the fatalities are in developing countries that cannot cope with the tragedy. Rehabilitation costs after the tsunami in Sri Lanka and South Asia, the flood in Louisiana and the numerous natural catastrophies occurring in the world are estimated in the hundreds of billions.
- The incidence of natural disasters increased threefold from the 1970s to the 1990s. Some UN predictions estimate that by 2050 there will be 250 million climate-induced refugees. As of January 2007, the number of people (refugees) of concern to UNHCR was 32.9 million, not including all the displaced from Iraq, 4 million Palestinians, and other refugees since then (UN data).
- **In contrast:** 61 peacekeeping operations have been launched since 1945 (total cost of US\$54 billion), many in the Middle East and Africa, often following the absence or failure of mediation. In 2008 there were 16 peace-keeping operations, with about 111,000 personnel, at a cost from June 2007 to June 2008 of US\$7.1 billion. The cost of prevention, early resolution and mediation would have been a fraction of the sum.

Natural disasters may be unavoidable, but preparedness can minimize the consequences. Numerous governments have already established emergency preparedness policies with special units and trained personnel; however, there is a need for greater global cooperation and local networking. The Hyogo Framework for Action has attempted to bridge that gap.

THE HYOGO FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION

In January 2005, more than 4,000 representatives of governments, NGOs, academic institutes and the private sector met at the second World Conference on Disaster Reduction (WCDR) in Kobe, Japan. It was at this groundbreaking meeting that a 10-year plan – the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005–2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters (HFA) – was adopted by 168 states to substantially reduce disaster losses in lives as well as in the social, economic and environmental assets of communities and countries by 2015.

As emphasized in HFA, disaster risk reduction is a central issue for development policies and is of interest to various science, humanitarian and environmental fields. Disasters undermine development achievements, impoverishing people and nations; without serious efforts to address disaster losses, disasters will increasingly become a serious obstacle to achieving the MDGs.

Five specific Priorities for Action were identified by HFA to attain the expected outcome:

1. Making disaster risk reduction a priority.
2. Improving risk information and early warning.
3. Building a culture of safety and resilience.
4. Reducing the risks in key sectors.
5. Strengthening preparedness for response.



In order to foster conditions where political commitment, community support, allocation of human and financial resources, and commitment and engagement of relevant educational authorities facilitate the inclusion of disaster risk reduction in the education system and in the research community, entire communities must be engaged: Children and youth, educators and professionals from the educational sector, Ministry of Education representatives and higher education policymakers, disaster and risk management experts, academics and research community representatives, parent and teacher associations, private sector, public sector, NGOs and community-based organizations.

Source: INEE (2005).

The UN has given priority to establishing early warning systems to alert the international community and governments to impending disasters, and in June 2009 it held a Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) attended by 1,800 delegates from nations, local and international NGOs, UN agencies and civil society. Bilateral assistance is also usually available in times of disasters, as well as that provided by specialized international NGOs. However, many countries already made fragile by basic development problems are in need of training and support for infrastructure to ensure long-term preparedness. It is paramount that governments or authorities support structures for local early warning systems and preparedness planning strategies in cooperation with educational institutions. This can be facilitated by coordinated preparedness activities which also involve the planning and design of safer education structures (see the ‘Tools and resources’ section for some of the key UN early warning sites).

In addition, during a panel on DRR in Education, INEE launched its new Guidance Notes on Safer School Construction (INEE, 2009). The guidance highlights planning and design, evaluation of school construction, and strengthening national action plans. These include the key considerations for planning and designing safe school construction or when retro-fitting an old building, as well as basic safety requirements for minimum protection of children and education staff. These guidance notes are critical at a period in history when the frequency and magnitude of extreme climatic events is rising. Children can often spend 50 per cent of their lives in buildings that are poorly constructed and offer no protection from disaster. For example:

- In the earthquake in China (2008) more than 7,000 children were killed in their schools, and an estimated 7,000 classrooms were destroyed.
- The cyclone in Bangladesh (2007) destroyed 496 school buildings and damaged 2,110 more.
- The Super Typhoon Durian in the Philippines caused US\$20 million damage to schools, including 90–100% of school buildings in three cities and 50–60% of school buildings in two other cities.
- The earthquake in Pakistan (2005) killed at least 17,000 students in schools and seriously injured another 50,000, leaving many disabled and over 300,000 children affected. Moreover 10,000-school buildings were destroyed; in some districts 80%-of schools were destroyed.
- Hurricane Katrina in the United States (2005) destroyed 56 schools and damaged 1,162 more. 700 schools were closed and 372,000 children displaced. US\$2.8 billion was spent to educate displaced students for a year.

Source: INEE (2008b).

It is evident that education can play a critical role in the prevention of disasters and conflicts. The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Education Cluster (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.11, 'Coordination and communication'*) has made significant progress in raising the profile of the role of education in preparing for disaster. They are developing a range of strategies at all levels to improve the capacity of national governments, agencies and communities to be able to respond effectively to different emergencies. They recognize and promote the positive contribution of education both in preparedness for and during or after a response. Education provides “physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection to children, adolescents, youth and adults; disseminating life-saving messages about environmental and health risks; and facilitating a return to normalcy and overall stability for children ...” (IASC Education Cluster, 2007).

In order for this critical role of education to be fully recognized, it is essential that the capacity development of those actors engaged in disaster preparedness is fully developed. This includes Ministries of Education, who have a particular role to play in terms of developing appropriate preparedness policies and understanding international frameworks to design planning strategies for disaster risk reduction. For an effective national preparation and response to disaster, ministries need to be fully prepared within their national education systems, “specifically through education budgeting, policy making and EMIS and ensuring that education is addressed in national disaster management plans” (IASC Education Cluster and IIEP-UNESCO, 2009).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Prevention of conflict

- 1. Undertake capacity development to raise awareness on strategies for conflict prevention and peacemaking within educational institutions, governmental bodies and civil society.**
- 2. Establish an inter-ministerial task force to integrate appropriate sustainable development programmes and conflict prevention awareness in national planning.**
- 3. Work with civil society in preparing these initiatives and strengthen their role as specialists and partners in community, national and international programmes.**
- 4. Integrate and strengthen the role of youth in the educational system and community as active partners for conflict prevention.**
- 5. Address root causes through conflict analysis tools and conflict sensitivity programming that support early**



warning systems for conflict prevention in cooperation with regional and international networks.

6. **Work with the local and national media as a partner in the conflict prevention initiatives to disseminate information on the positive results of peacebuilding strategies.**



Preparedness for disaster

1. **Undertake capacity development to raise awareness and develop infrastructure and plans for emergency preparedness with educational institutions, governmental bodies and civil society.**
2. **Establish an inter-sectoral platform to integrate appropriate disaster risk reduction awareness in national planning.**
3. **Integrate and strengthen the role of youth in the educational system and community as active partners for ‘early warning’ and preparedness systems.**
4. **Work with the local and national media as a partner in disaster preparedness initiatives to disseminate information on the positive results of emergency planning as well as to educate the population on survival techniques.**

Guidance notes

Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster must be a permanent aspect of immediate, and long-term national educational planning and decision-making. Specific initiatives for such action are suggested below.

Prevention of conflict

- 1. Undertake capacity development to raise awareness on strategies for conflict prevention and peacemaking within educational institutions, governmental bodies and civil society.**
 - Develop appropriate context-specific curricula for educational institutions and workshops for educational planners, education authorities and other target groups. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.6, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'*.)
 - Develop comprehensive teacher training courses, in-service courses, and also training of administrators and educational planners on disaster preparedness, conflict prevention and citizenship to prepare students and the community for future challenges. (For more information on these subjects see the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.9, 'Non-formal education'*; *Chapter 4.4, 'Environmental Education'*; and *Chapter 4.6, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'*.)
 - Consider ways to include curricula for primary, secondary and tertiary education institutions that reflect principles of peacebuilding, tolerance and human rights.
 - Select and train mediators in all educational institutions. Mediators should be selected on their ability to act as agents

of change within the educational institution and community in general. Training should be based on qualities of tolerance of diversity, integrity, motivation, ethics, objectivity, leadership skills and justice skills. (See 'Tools and resources', in *Guidebook, Chapter 4.6*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'.)

- Engage institutes of higher education that have a key role in developing responsible leadership for nations. Courses should include substantive material on conflict prevention, transformation, mediation and negotiating skills, evolution of international law and organizations, and humanitarian law, among others.

2. Establish an *inter-ministerial task force* to integrate appropriate conflict prevention awareness in national planning.

- A core team of specialists with expertise in sustainable development, disaster preparedness, and prevention and resolution of conflict should be established from relevant ministries (e.g. education, health, agriculture, interior), universities, civil society and the private sector to prepare curricula, training courses and workshops. UN and regional specialists should also be included.
- The inter-ministerial task force should establish a focal point or, where possible, a unit in each ministry to deal with conflict prevention, if these do not already exist. These might include the ministries of education, environment, energy, social development, agriculture, health, labour, culture, communications, finance, youth and women, foreign affairs, defence, interior, justice, economic development and assistance. Ministries that already have natural disaster preparedness units could consider establishing a separate

office on conflict prevention or establish links with the existing preparedness unit. Conflict prevention focal points or units should coordinate closely and develop plans and tools jointly as needed.

- Workshops and discussions should be organized by ministries dealing with education, environmental issues, agricultural development, and health on specific issues related to conflict prevention within their departments (e.g. mediation over land rights issues in the Ministry of Agriculture).
- Workshops with parliamentarians could be established to encourage legislation on these subjects.
- The inter-ministerial task force could utilise experienced elders or traditional leaders in the integration of conflict prevention in national planning strategies. These leaders often have skills in resolving problems by dialogue, consensus and informal mediation between disputing parties, especially in Africa, the Arab world, Asia and Latin America. Examples can be integrated into school curricula, and students can be encouraged to form *inter-generational partnerships* with the elderly to solve local problems in contentious situations and in developing preparedness activities for emergencies. Traditional legal decisions and justice mechanisms based on custom and culture can be recorded by youth and analysed for solutions to today's conflicts.
- Similarly, the role of religious leaders is equally important in influencing the hearts and minds of communities and sometimes state actors. Therefore, the inter-ministerial task force should investigate how to engage such leaders, as well as leaders of political parties and the private sector. As key opinion-makers they should be involved in decisions regarding conflict prevention.

3. Work with civil society in preparing conflict prevention initiatives and strengthen the role of civil society as specialists and partners.

- In the last fifty years, civil society's impact on the shaping of national and international policies has greatly increased. Numerous and timely initiatives have been launched by civil society *before* national or governmental action, including the control of nuclear arms, conventional arms control, civil rights and protection of the environment. Their expertise should be utilized.
- Educational planning should encourage partnerships/networks with organizations dealing with education for peace and conflict prevention and disaster preparedness who have trained educators, influential citizens, and institutions worldwide. Their expertise and educational materials can be utilized in local training or regional courses, and they can also serve as mediators.
- Educational and community planning should involve civil society organizations which deeply understand the dynamics and traditions of local communities, indigenous populations, and movements and ethnic and religious groups. Their expertise and presence on the ground is a vital factor in their ability to function in an early warning capacity to resolve problems.
- Educational planning should involve civil society organizations engaged more broadly in conflict prevention, conflict resolution and peacebuilding activities to incorporate knowledge, strategies and activities as appropriate.
- Parents should be involved in school-related training to raise awareness on problems confronting the child, community and world. Values such as critical thinking, how to channel anger into constructive behaviour, cultural traditions and tolerance of religious or cultural differences could be taught to parents

and communities to ensure coherence with what children are taught in schools.

4. Integrate and strengthen the role of youth in the educational system and community as active partners for conflict prevention.

- Youth should be a priority for educational planners, and opportunities should be available in educational institutions and community development projects. Out-of-school youth should have access to re-insertion in the society and vocational training to provide income-generating skills and to ensure stability.

Short-term training courses in construction skills, such as those UNESCO-UNRWA sponsored in Lebanon for Lebanese and Palestinian youth during the civil war, have provided a means of offering a *constructive* alternative to joining a militia as well as for acquiring skills for community *reconstruction* and employment.

- Youth can be mobilized in school and community activities. They may contribute by providing assistance to teachers in conflict prevention activities with different groups of schoolchildren, acting as mentors and mediators to younger children, participating in intra-community projects, especially in sensitive areas, and humanitarian and emergency aid, assuming electoral responsibilities, and managing cultural centres.
- Planning should re-integrate youth who have been increasingly alienated by unemployment, family upheavals, migration, displacement and violence. The need for alternate constructive options is paramount. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.7, ‘Vocational education and training’.)

- Youth teams should be formed and receive training as mediators in the early identification and resolution of problems. This would include supporting them to develop universal values and leadership skills and in resolving inter-group disputes. They should then be utilized in schools, higher educational institutions and within the community.
- Ensure engagement by female youth in these various initiatives as they can be effective leaders in their communities. Their role in decision-making, as well as in development planning and mediation, should be enhanced.

5. Address root causes through conflict analysis tools and conflict sensitivity programming which support early warning systems for conflict prevention in cooperation with regional and international networks.

- Develop capacities to analyse and address root causes of structural instability as the first step for conflict prevention. All relevant sectors of the government, in cooperation with civil society, media and the private sector, should cooperate in formulating relevant analysis tools based on the local context (there are many existing conflict analysis tools available – see ‘Tools and resources’ section). From the analysis conducted, strategies and action plans can be developed to address the root causes of the conflict. Regional and international organizations should be considered as partners.
- Existing national and international mechanisms to assist in early warning and resolution of impending conflict can be integrated into the planning process. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for sites that use early warning mechanisms.)
- Practical experiences for students should include early identification and resolution of root causes of problems in educational institutions, the community and the nation.

A CHECKLIST FOR EARLY WARNING AND ROOT CAUSES

- What are the major problems in your educational institution, community, nation?
- What are the underlying reasons for this situation?
- Are they social, economic, cultural, political? What indications in the society reveal discontent and legitimate dissatisfaction? (e.g. school competition, unemployment, poverty, health hazards, inter-group prejudice, violations of human rights, poor governance)
- How could early interventions solve the problems, and what type of solutions are possible?
- Can you or your peers resolve the problems peacefully before they breakout? Are there some trained mediators or sensitive individuals in the family, school or community who understand the basic causes and could discuss a solution with the people involved?
- Are there any local laws or precedents to guide the solution?
- Discuss the qualities of a successful mediator: integrity, judgement, tolerance, openness, understanding of cultural diversity, language capacity, global vision and universal values, experience, wisdom and critical analysis, etc. What other traits are desirable?
- Do you need outside help, or can you resolve the issue locally?

6. Work with the local and national media as a partner in the conflict prevention initiatives to disseminate information on the positive results of peacebuilding strategies.

- The technological media revolution should be harnessed for conflict prevention – for social networking opportunities between peacebuilding groups nationally and internationally. In addition, more positive images of resilience and reconstruction should be promoted in the media worldwide, by documenting the successful use of early warning initiatives, effective human rights programmes, model reconstruction and reconciliation efforts, and teams working in emergency situations, etc. An advisory committee of educators, artists, media specialists, producers and leaders could be formed to develop guidelines and new programmes for all forms of the media. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.8, 'Technology'*, for more information.)
- Educators and specialists should develop specific goals to advocate for conflict prevention and peacemaking to the general public. If effectively presented, media can play a significant role in providing *information* about political, social and cultural issues, and imminent problems; serve as a *watchdog* to alert the public about human rights abuses and early signs of disputes; and can influence *policy-making* by raising awareness of conflicts, genocide, famine and humanitarian disasters and thereby motivating the public to press their policymakers to intervene.
- Children and young people can become involved in the making of peacebuilding radio programmes and adapt them to their needs. Education authorities can use such programmes for teacher training purposes. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.7, 'Open and distance learning'*, for more information.)
- Education authorities and agencies could work with the media to provide courses on mediation/conflict prevention

techniques. These could be presented by different media such as television or radio or through social networking sites etc. for schoolchildren in education institutions as well as for media personnel. Interviews with mediators and 'live' coverage of peacemaking and humanitarian interventions would enhance the impact.

A workshop was co-sponsored in April 2009, by the European Union and two European NGOs, on the 'Role of the Media and Conflict Prevention'. These and other events have injected new energy into the debate on the role of media in conflict prevention and peacebuilding.

Source: www.iss.europa.eu/uploads/media/Media_in_conflict_prevention_and_peacebuilding.pdf

Additionally, UNESCO's project on Peace Power is establishing innovative communication mechanisms to promote mutual understanding and sustainable living. This multi-media network supports local production, shared globally, through radio, television, Internet, cell phone and other new media.

Source: http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php-URL_ID=23503&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

Disaster preparedness

- 1. Undertake capacity development to raise awareness and develop infrastructure and plans for emergency preparedness with educational institutions, governmental bodies and civil society.**
 - All educational and community institutions should have emergency contingency planning, especially in countries 'at risk'. Curricula should include first aid, contingency planning

and practical steps in emergencies, for family and community. Regular drills to areas of safe haven should be included.

- Integrate DRR strategies into the education sector plan, and ensure all departments include relevant data. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for further information on DRR.)
- Establish within the Ministry of Education an emergency education unit (if one does not already exist) that can liaise directly with any government emergency response bodies.
- Infrastructure of educational buildings should utilize new building materials developed for energy conservation, with standards favouring sustainable development. Future schools and educational institutions should reflect this trend.
- Buildings should be located far from earthquake faults and volcanoes, and well distanced from low coastal areas. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.6, ‘Learning spaces and school facilities’*, for more information on planning for school construction.)

2. Establish an inter-sectoral platform to integrate appropriate disaster risk reduction awareness in national planning.

- The starting point for this could be through the Hyogo Framework for Action (ISDR, 2005) which is the key instrument for implementing DRR into any sector, and has been adopted by the Member States of the United Nations. By using this leverage the education authority can create a multi-sectoral platform to ensure that DRR is coordinated more systematically on a national basis.
- Provide policy guidance and coordinate activities across key sectors such as education, health, water and sanitation, etc. This should include integration of DRR into development policies such as the Poverty Reduction Strategies and sector plans.

A CHECKLIST FOR EARLY WARNING AND PREPAREDNESS

- Has your school or education institution undertaken a vulnerability mapping exercise to determine whether your schools and institutions are located in safe areas? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.6, 'Learning spaces and school facilities'*, for more information on vulnerability mapping.)
- Do you have the structures in your educational institution, community and nation to support preparedness for emergencies?
- Do pre- and in-service courses for teachers and education personnel include disaster preparedness? If not – how can it best be integrated?
- What can your educational institution and the community do to prepare for disasters related to climate changes and other emergencies?
- Youth teams can be established for emergency assistance in natural disasters and trained in first aid, group skills, problem solving and democratic practices, as well as to organize and participate in inter-group community development.

3. Integrate and strengthen the role of *youth* in the educational system and community as active partners for 'early warning' and preparedness systems.

- Youth teams can be established for emergency assistance in natural disasters and trained in first aid, group skills, problem solving and democratic practices, as well as to organize and participate in inter-group community development.

- Support youth to create an e-network for emergency preparedness as part of an overall DRR strategy.
- Establish media clubs to initiate productions that could be launched in educational institutions and community centres that would include radio, television and film making. Explore possibilities on the Internet and the potential for the development of preparedness text messages through mobile phones.

4. Work with the local and national media as a partner in disaster preparedness initiatives to disseminate information on the positive results of emergency planning as well as to educate the population on survival techniques.

- Form direct links and cooperation with the regional and international early warning systems for natural disasters.
- Ensure that remote areas are alerted to impending disasters.
- Train media personnel to develop and broadcast education programmes relating to emergency preparedness.
- Liaise with mobile phone networks to provide simple SMS alerts and instructions in case of an emergency and for preparedness actions. Liaise similarly with Internet providers.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. UN resources for emergencies and humanitarian interventions

The UN's humanitarian early warning system (HEWS: www.hewsweb.org) and the UN International Strategy for

Disaster Reduction (ISDR: www.unisdr.org) cooperate to prevent and mitigate the effects of disasters and climate change. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO: www.fao.org) monitors impending famines and other agricultural problems. The World Meteorological Organization (WMO: www.wmo.org) forecasts tropical cyclones and drought. The UN Environment Programme (www.unep.org) has an overall responsibility in the field of ecology and climate change, and educational materials at all levels are available; the UNEP also cooperates with industries to develop alternative sources of energy.

2. The United Nations Peacebuilding Commission

The UN Peacebuilding Commission (PBC: www.un.org/peace/peacebuilding) is an intergovernmental advisory body of the United Nations that supports peace efforts in countries emerging from conflict, and is a key addition to the capacity of the international community in the broad peace agenda. The PBC plays a unique role in (1) bringing together all of the relevant actors, including international donors, the international financial institutions, national governments and troop-contributing countries; (2) marshalling resources; and (3) advising on and proposing integrated strategies for post-conflict peacebuilding and recovery and, where appropriate, highlighting any gaps that threaten to undermine peace.

3. The Fragility Barometer

The Fragility Barometer (Save the Children, 2007), which can act as an ‘early warning system’, identifies indicators that are

context-specific and helps to determine whether countries/communities are in danger of conflict or fragility. The Fragility Barometer focuses on two levels – school and national – across three domains – culture, policy and practice. Examples of possible indicators for the policy domain are presented in the following table.

	SCHOOL LEVEL /COMMUNITY	RANKING	NATIONAL/SYSTEM LEVEL	RANKING
Policy	0=Not at all 1=Limited 2=Fair 3=Strong	0,1,2 or 3	0=Not at all 1=Limited 2=Fair 3=Strong	0, 1, 2 or 3
Teacher deployment	% teachers from local community		Equitable teacher distribution policy for urban/rural, and demographic spread in terms of ethnicity, religion, gender and language	
	% teachers in relation to demographic patterns of ethnicity, religion, gender, language			
Inclusion	School policy and training on inclusion		Teacher training institutions using inclusive approaches and training teachers on inclusive education policy and practice	
Planning	School committees address root causes of protection issues, potential for conflict in schools and communities		Education sector plans articulate and address root causes of conflict	
Resource mobilization	Teachers supported by local authorities/school management committees to receive a living wage		National teacher pay scale sufficient to guarantee a living wage for teachers	

4. INEE Analytic Framework²

Below is a summary version of a list of research questions about education and drivers of fragility from the INEE Working Group on Education and Fragility, 2009: Analytic framework common research questions.



Summary version of **EDUCATION AND FRAGILITY: COMMON RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR SITUATIONAL ANALYSES**

1. In general, what has been the pattern of fragility/conflict in the country over the past 10–15 years?
2. What country assessments have been undertaken and what do they identify as the main drivers of fragility/conflict?
3. How do the drivers of fragility/conflict relate to the following domains:
(a) Security; (b) Governance; (c) Economy; (d) Social; and (e) Environmental?
4. How has education been affected by and had an impact on each of these domains?
5. To what extent (and how) has a fragility/conflict analysis been incorporated into education sector development over the past 10–15 years at the following three levels:
(a) national education sector plans; (b) programming in-country by international donors; and (c) community-level projects by civil society and local NGOs?

2. Adapted from the INEE Working Group on Education and Fragility, 2009: Analytic framework common research questions.

5. Other conflict prevention and peacebuilding organizations

In addition to the resources listed above, there are also many organizations which support conflict prevention and peacebuilding activities which are not specifically related to education. The ones listed below are only a small selection of organizations large and small dedicated to conflict prevention and peacebuilding. The strategies adopted by many of the organizations listed below can be adapted for use in the education sector.

The Conflict Prevention and Post Conflict Reconstruction Network (CPR: <http://cpr.web.cern.ch/cpr/>) is an informal network of donor countries and partner UN Agencies dealing with the complex issues of conflict management. It arose out of an interest by Development Assistance Committee (DAC) members of the Conflict, Peace and Development Cooperation Task Force to continue the process of sharing knowledge and experience in field operations that could serve as a guide to those working in conflict prevention and post-conflict reconstruction.

International Alert (www.international-alert.org) is an independent peacebuilding organization that works to lay the foundations for lasting peace and security in communities affected by violent conflict.

Saferworld (www.saferworld.org.uk) is an independent non-governmental organization that works to prevent and reduce violent conflict and promote cooperative approaches to security. They work with governments, international organizations and civil society to encourage and support effective policies and practices through advocacy, research and policy development and through supporting the actions of others.

Conflictsensitivity.org (www.conflictsensitivity.org) aims to inform on issues of conflict sensitivity and encourage further thinking and discussion on how humanitarian, development and business operations – on the project, national and international level – interact with conflict.

CIDA Peacebuilding Unit explores in its operational framework (CIDA, 2000) education and peacebuilding themes with the emphasis on education as a possible contributor to conflict. It presents an outline of a conflict analysis tool for more specific probing of the potential role and impact of the education system, broadly speaking, on sparking conflict. The sample issues and questions used to formulate the tool are quite broad and are limited to the formal education system. They focus on issues of educational policy, quality and delivery. The model can, however, also be adapted to develop issues or questions for non-formal and informal educational training systems.

6. Education and Fragility Assessment Tool, USAID

Below is a small section from a number of tables from USAID's Education and Fragility Assessment Tool (USAID, 2006), which explores how fragility in the economic domain might affect education. It also examines how education might contribute to and mitigate economic fragility.

ACCESS	QUALITY	RELEVANCE	EQUITY	MANAGEMENT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the economic situation affect parents? How? • Does the economic situation affect students or specific socio-economic groups? How? • Does the economic situation affect teachers? • Is the private education sector growing? • Does the business sector (including the extractive industry) support formal and non-formal education? • Are there policies on school fees that affect access? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does education content and quality meet the country's economic growth and development needs? • Do primary school graduates acquire livelihood skills? • Do parents and students see a link between education and employment? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does education provide the skills, knowledge, and attitudes students need for employment? • Does the economic sector (private/public) impact on education and training services? • Are economic opportunities linked to training and education? • Are salaries and opportunities in the private sector more attractive than in teaching? • Do economic policies and decisions contribute to widening social disparities? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do the inequities in the education system impact on job availability, level of income and status? • Does the private business sector play an active role in education delivery? Please specify. • Does the availability of training and economic opportunities impact education? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is education planning linked to economic growth or economic recovery plans? • Does the government's budget reflect a collective will to provide education services? • What proportion of the national/local budget is allocated to the education sector? How much is externally financed? • Does decentralized financing impact equity or inequities in education? • Is student enrollment and performance linked to the allocation of education resources?

7. The Hyogo Framework for Action

As indicated in the Guidance, the Hyogo Framework for Action is one of the most significant tools for guiding planning, preparedness and response to disaster. The three strategic goals that the Framework aims to address are:

- The more effective integration of disaster risk considerations into sustainable development policies, planning and programming at all levels, with a special emphasis on disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness and vulnerability reduction.
- The development and strengthening of institutions, mechanisms and capacities at all levels, in particular at the community level, that can systematically contribute to building resilience to hazards.
- The systematic incorporation of risk reduction approaches into the design and implementation of emergency preparedness, response and recovery programmes in the reconstruction of affected communities.

See ISDR (2005) for the full text of the Hyogo Framework for Action.

8. Let our children teach us!

Let our children teach us! (ISDR, 2006) is a publication that reviews how children can effectively become involved in the safety of their own schools by working with teachers and community members. They can also act as conduits to spread messages on participatory vulnerability, capacity assessment and hazard mapping within the larger community. This document addresses three issues they consider are most urgent and central to disaster preparedness:

- Teaching about hazards and risk reduction in schools.
- Schools as centres for community-based disaster risk reduction.
- Physical protection of schools from natural hazards.

Education resources can be found through UNICEF's project, *Disaster risk reduction begins at school* (ISDR, 2006–2007), which supports national authorities and the education sector in order to elaborate and implement their policies and strategies regarding prevention, preparation and response to emergencies and disasters.

Additional tools and resources for DRR can be found on the INEE website (INEE, 2008a).

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Chapter 1.3

CHALLENGES IN EMERGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

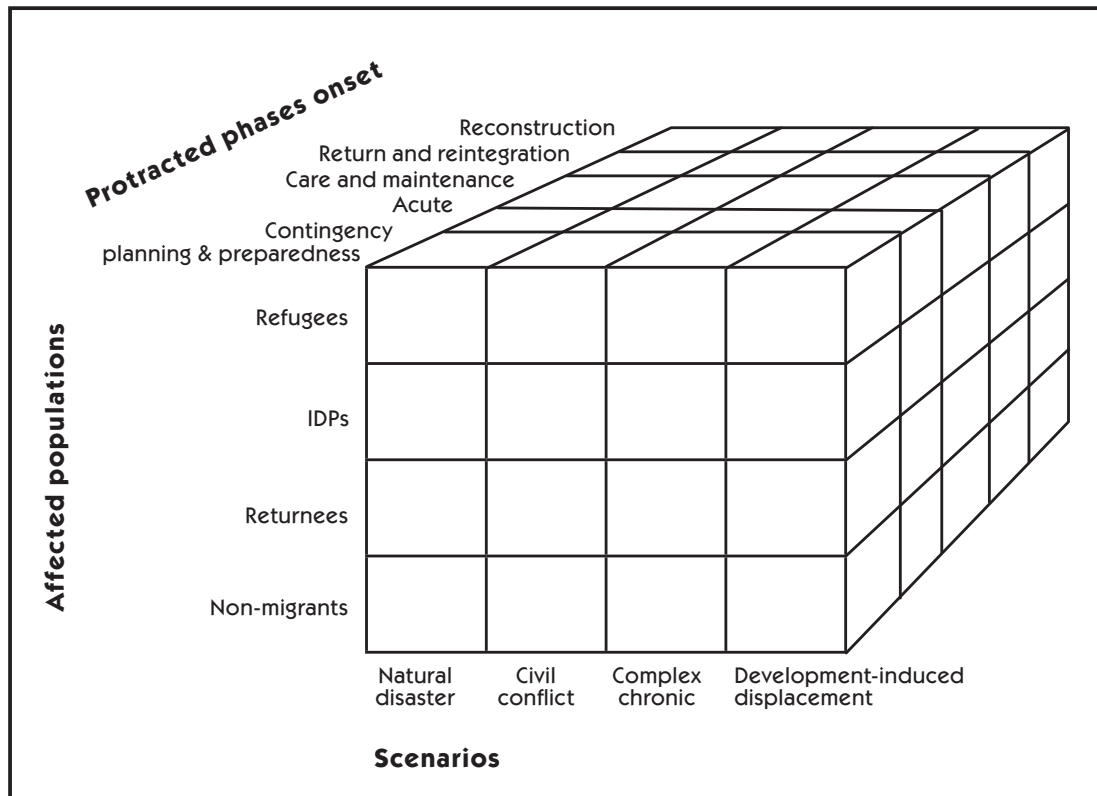
All parts of this *Guidebook* deal with the challenges involved in providing quality education in situations of emergency and reconstruction. The challenges range from physical destruction of school buildings to lack of funding, materials and qualified teachers, to discrimination against minority groups, security issues or problems of coordination. Each *Guidebook* chapter gives detailed explanation of the issues that must be tackled in relation to the topic of that particular chapter, and suggests strategies for how this can be done. For example, providing education for former child soldiers will pose different challenges to dealing with children with disabilities. Education for early childhood development

requires different strategies to tackling post-primary education.

However, certain challenges (such as poverty or problems with security) are generic to all of these issues. Such generic challenges are analyzed here, not in relation to a particular group of children, or a particular task within the management of the education system, but in relation to the type of emergency, the larger population group concerned and the phase of the emergency. The figure below is an illustration of this typology.

This figure shows the interrelationships between types of emergency (scenarios), affected populations and phases. These matters are discussed in detail below.

INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCENARIOS, AFFECTED POPULATIONS AND PROTRACTED PHASES ONSET



Source: IIEP (2005). Adapted from a model developed by Rob Fuderich of UNICEF and Peter Buckland of the World Bank.

Emergency scenarios include civil conflicts, complex chronic emergencies, which involve multiple civil conflicts with international involvement, natural disasters and development-induced displacement, which is not specifically covered in this *Guidebook*.

Population groups affected by emergencies include refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs), returnees and non-migrants, people whose lives and schooling are disrupted by conflict, but who do not flee.

Phases of emergency include contingency planning and preparedness, to which this whole *Guidebook* seeks to make a contribution, the acute onset, protracted emergencies (which

may be referred to by some as ‘care and maintenance’), return and reintegration and early reconstruction.

The different categories used in this typology are neither fully exhaustive nor discrete. The phases of an emergency are very rarely sequential. International conflict may be entangled in civil conflict. A natural disaster may be exacerbated by a conflict rising in its aftermath. IDPs may become refugees as the emergency evolves, or vice versa. Both refugees and IDPs may eventually become returnees. Moreover, one population group that is not specified in this categorization concerns those who are neither migrants nor themselves living in the emergency-affected area, but who are none the less affected by it (e.g. inhabitants of a neighbouring country or province suddenly faced with a large influx of refugees or IDPs).

Similarly, emergency phases overlap and recur. An acute emergency may turn into a so-called protracted emergency, or into what some humanitarian agencies call the ‘care and maintenance’ phase. This phase may then be disrupted by the sudden outbreak of a new, acute crisis. One part of a country may be facilitating the return of its inhabitants and organize efforts at reconstruction whilst another part is faced with a new upsurge in a conflict, or is hit by a new natural disaster.

This three-dimensional categorization is still useful when dealing with the planning and management of education in emergencies and reconstruction. The same challenge – be it poverty or lack of funding – will require different interventions and strategies in different types or phases of an emergency or with different population groups. Moreover, agencies operating in emergencies and reconstruction will generally be using some variation of this categorization in their work.

Some agencies and organizations have a mandate to work only in the early phases of an emergency or with one particular population group, such as refugees. Their so-called entry or exit strategies and their funding and evaluation mechanisms are likely to be built on some form of categorization of emergency type or phase, or population group concerned. The examples given above demonstrate how phases, types and groups overlap, recur and/or blend. This fact points to the obvious complexity of emergencies and reconstruction, but also to the need for holistic approaches to these challenges. Quick fixes, short-term strategies or strategies that address the challenges of one emergency-affected group, or one phase only, will never meet the overall challenge of providing education for all in emergencies and reconstruction.

TYPES OF EMERGENCY

The *Guidebook* focuses on the impact of war and natural disaster on the education of children, youth and adults affected by the crisis. It does not directly cover the so-called ‘silent emergencies’, such as poverty, HIV, AIDS, street children, etc. This is to maintain its focus on responding to conflict and disaster. However, issues of poverty and health among populations affected by conflict or disaster are considered in almost every section of the *Guidebook*.

Civil conflict

Recent years have seen a dramatic rise in the number of armed conflicts within countries, called civil conflicts here. By far the largest portion of the world’s 36 conflicts in 2003 were civil conflicts. These severely disrupt education, and may lead some people to move away from the affected areas. Challenges include the following:

- Because the unequal or biased provision of education is often one of the elements that provoke civil conflict, schools, teachers and students themselves may become targets in such conflicts.
- According to the fourth Geneva Convention (1949), military occupation forces must facilitate institutions devoted to the care and education of children. Its first Protocol (1977) states that schools are guaranteed protection from military attack. Nevertheless, schools may be destroyed, damaged or looted during the conflict – making them unusable for educational activities.
- Some children may have been subjected, or may be vulnerable in the future, to military recruitment, forced labour, rape or prostitution. Some may have contracted HIV and AIDS, which spread more rapidly during armed conflicts. Access to schooling may help protect them.
- Educational authorities may be unable to physically access some parts of the country to determine whether children have access to schooling.
- Teachers may have been killed or have fled.

Complex chronic emergencies

Countries may also suffer chronic insecurity and intermittent civil conflict, with international intervention, which means that the administration of education becomes very difficult, either through fighting in some parts of the country or through the economic impacts, which reduce the funds available for education. Challenges include the following:

- Most challenges listed for civil conflict apply, and are intensified as the conflict is prolonged.
- Children and families may lack sufficient food and be unable to afford clothing suitable for attending school, or other school-related costs.

- Families may not be able to afford the opportunity costs associated with their children attending school rather than earning money by scavenging, etc.
- Schools may be in use or have been used as temporary shelters for displaced people or may be taken over and used by military forces.
- Schools, and the route to and from schools, may be hazardous due to landmines, unexploded ordnance, etc.
- Rapid education response may be impeded by poor roads and by limited capacity for handling freight at airports.

Natural disasters

Natural disasters will also carry serious challenges for the education system. The devastation of floods, droughts, earthquakes, landslides, storms, tsunamis and other natural disasters can cause the destruction of schools and other educational institutions, and may kill or isolate a large number of teachers and students. According to the *World disasters report*, published by the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRCRC, 2004), the number of natural and technological disasters is dramatically increasing. From 1994 to 1998, reported disasters averaged 428 per year. From 1999 to 2003, this figure shot up by two thirds to an average of 707 disasters each year. The biggest rise was in countries of low human development, which suffered an increase of 142 per cent. There is also strong correlation between a country's level of development and that country's vulnerability in natural disasters. In other words, people living in conflict or poverty-ridden countries are likely to suffer the most when a catastrophe strikes. Over the past decade, disasters in countries of high human development (HHD) killed an average of 44 people per event, while disasters in countries of low human development (LHD) killed an average

of 300 people per event (IFRCRC, 2004). Particular challenges for the education system include the following:

- Families may have lost all their assets and be unable to send their children to school due to lack of food, clothing, etc.
- Schools and their contents may be damaged or destroyed, making them permanently or temporarily unavailable for learning activities.
- Schools may be used as shelters for people who have been displaced from their homes due to the natural disaster.

POPULATION GROUPS AFFECTED BY EMERGENCIES

Refugees

A refugee is a person who 'owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country ...'

The 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees

Particular challenges facing refugees seeking education include:

- Refugee families have suffered unforeseen displacement and sometimes traumatic circumstances. Many families are keen to admit their children into school but some are traumatized, and others too preoccupied with subsistence problems to do this.
- The host government may refuse or be unable to admit refugee children to local schools. However, even when

refugee children are admitted into local schools, there may be access problems. For example, local schools may already be overcrowded, especially in urban areas; the refugee population may be too large; teachers may not speak the same language/the languages of instruction may be different, the curriculum will likely be different, etc. In these conditions, separate schools are needed for refugee children, especially at primary level.

- Educational access is generally greatest for refugees when they live in camps or settlements (rather than scattered among the host populations). UNHCR, the United Nations refugee agency, has the mandate to support education for refugees, as a contribution to a durable solution to their problems, and to help the host country government meet its obligations under the Convention on the Rights of the Child and other human rights instruments. UNHCR has issued *Education field guidelines*, specifying its education policy commitments, and giving guidance to its implementing partners and other service providers of education to refugees (UNHCR, 2003).
- Refugees may be unable to pay the fees normally charged to foreigners for admission to university or other courses. As a humanitarian principle, some governments admit refugee students to university for the same fees as nationals.
- Humanitarian agencies often do not allocate large budgets to secondary or tertiary education, and cannot afford expensive scholarships for refugees. For this reason, it is often cheaper to support separate schools for refugees. However, if refugee numbers are small, it is more economical for them to attend local institutions of higher education. The net effect of high fees will be fewer students. Yet, acceptance of a good number of refugee students in national schools will help build good relationships for future cooperation between the host country and the refugee students' home country.

Internally displaced persons (IDPs)

For the purposes of these Principles, internally displaced persons are persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement

Particular challenges for the education of IDPs include the following:

- As with refugees, IDP families have suffered forced displacement and sometimes traumatic circumstances. Many families are keen to admit their children into school but some are traumatized, and others too preoccupied with subsistence problems to do this.
- Security concerns are usually considerable, both for the IDPs and for agencies that would like to support education programmes. IDPs may not be welcomed by the local population or government.
- In countries with multiple languages, IDP children and youth may be unable to integrate into local schools if they do not know the language.
- IDP camps and settlements may not receive attention from national or international authorities or organizations for some time after a crisis has occurred. Therefore, access to schooling may be delayed.

- No United Nations body has the mandate to ensure education for IDPs – in camps or dispersed throughout the country.
- Usually there are fewer resources for IDP education – both from the international community and the government.
- For IDPs in reasonably secure situations, educational authorities generally try to provide education in existing schools. This puts an extra burden on local schools, if enrolment increases substantially. For large IDP camps or settlements, additional schools will be needed.
- In line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, governments should assist NGOs, United Nations agencies or communities in organizing schools for IDPs, if children are out of school.

Non-migrants

It is possible for a whole area to become deserted, but often part of an emergency-affected population may not be able or may not wish to leave their homes during conflict or insecurity. This may include those who are too poor, old or sick to migrate. People may be trapped by warfare. In the *Guidebook*, these are referred to as non-migrants. Particular challenges include the following:

- Non-migrants' access to education may be completely cut off for reasons of security, the flight of local teachers, lack of school materials, or the lack of resources to sustain education in the community.
- Administration of the national school system is extremely difficult in areas of conflict and insecurity.
- Resentment may occur if agencies give particular assistance or preferable treatment to refugees, IDPs or returnees. Those who 'stayed behind' may feel they carried the brunt of the burden of the emergency.

Returnees

Another category referred to in the *Guidebook* are returnees – refugees or IDPs who have made the journey back to their home country or area. Some particular challenges and issues are listed here:

- Some returnees may not want to return to their original home areas for reasons of safety and security. This may concentrate the number of students into fewer areas of return, leading to pressure on facilities in those areas.
- Some returnees find that schools in their home areas have been badly damaged or destroyed during the conflict or after a natural disaster.
- Returnee families may not have the resources to pay for their children's education. In some cases, the international community may be present and providing resources for returnees, which may be resented by local communities. Assistance should be directed to broadly defined returnee-receiving areas.
- Both returnee families and those who never migrated may have lived through years of poverty due to war and insecurity. Consequently, they may find it difficult to support their children in school or provide resources to re-establish or operate schools.

PHASES OF EMERGENCY

Organizations concerned with humanitarian response and development assistance have their own definitions of emergency, from a period of a few weeks during the onset of a crisis, through to the return to normalcy after a period of reconstruction (Sinclair, 2002: 21–23).

For the purposes of this *Guidebook*, 'emergency' is used in a broad sense to mean the entire period of crisis, and the early steps

towards restoring normal functioning of the national education system. Different phases, albeit not discrete and very rarely sequential, will carry different challenges.

Acute onset

The *Guidebook* refers to the acute onset phase of an emergency. Particular challenges include the following:

- Children may be cut off from their existing schools and communities; they will need safe spaces that are designated for educational activities.
- Children and youth may have undergone horrific and stressful conditions as a result of displacement, and may even have become separated from their parents or family members; safe spaces for learning activities are essential for their protection.
- Access for adolescents can also be critical in order to protect them from dangers such as military recruitment, child labour, prostitution, etc.
- Insecurity and logistical problems may make it difficult for education supervisors or non-governmental providers to reach emergency-affected populations, or to ship educational materials to meet their needs.
- In some cases, there may be many organizations acting to support education in acute emergencies; while in other situations, help may be lacking.

Protracted phases

An emergency becomes protracted if it continues for a long period. Particular challenges in such situations include the following:

- Capacity-building events may be interrupted and/or cannot be followed up. Monitoring and assessment may be difficult.
- Due to poverty as well as limited educational quality, it may be difficult to get all children into primary school and to retain them for the whole primary cycle.
- If post-primary educational opportunities are insufficient, young people may be vulnerable to harmful activities. There will also be a disincentive to completing primary school if the ladder of educational opportunity terminates at the primary level.
- Girls may see prostitution as the only way to earn money, including covering school costs.
- For protracted emergencies, IDP and refugee children and adolescents need access to education systems of quality not less than in their home country/region, and suited to their eventual voluntary repatriation. The curriculum and examinations should be recognized by home and host country governments, so that children and youth can move to higher levels of education (as called for in the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child).

Return, reintegration and reconstruction

These phases occur when populations displaced to neighbouring countries (refugees) or to sites in their own country (IDPs) return home, and when the government initiates the process of renewal of the national or local education systems affected by the emergency. Particular challenges include the following:

- There may be a backlog of unmet educational needs; this means that a large number of children and adolescents would be seeking to enter school at the same time.
- At times of post-conflict or during post-disaster reconstruction, families may need the maximum labour for rebuilding homes,

clearing farmland and earning enough to buy food, etc. Many will not be able to pay for school-related expenses. Insecurity may also be a factor limiting school enrolment.

- Often there will be large numbers of children and youth who have missed out on schooling and who wish to enrol at the same time. Large quantities of textbooks and learning material will then be needed (for which international help may be requested).
- Many schools in emergency-affected areas may have been destroyed or badly damaged. Temporary shelter may be needed in order to open schools, while previous structures are rebuilt/rehabilitated/extended to accommodate the increased numbers of students.
- In post-conflict situations, landmines or unexploded ordnance may be present on school grounds and must be removed before education can be re-started in those places.
- It is difficult to establish schools in advance of people's return to deserted areas, which, in turn, may discourage return. Access for advance planning and reconstruction purposes may be hampered by insecurity, damage to roads, etc. Lack of well-functioning district/provincial education offices hampers action and coordination. Displaced teachers may be unwilling to return to rural areas.
- It will be essential to ensure access in all areas and for all groups (e.g. ethnic, religious, etc.) in the country, especially those that were most affected by the conflict. Action will be needed to coordinate external assistance to ensure appropriate coverage for all affected areas, and that tensions are not created by a provision of resources that appears to discriminate between returnees and local populations that did not migrate.
- There may be political pressure to focus national and donor funds on rebuilding large schools in politically favoured locations. In the interests of stability, however, external

assistance should be channelled to all locations to support the ‘back to school’ process.

- During the reconstruction period, children may also face considerable psychological barriers that reduce their cognitive abilities (e.g. if they return to schools that were previously the site of massacres and killings).
- Officials in both host country and country/area of return may not be familiar with issues such as equivalence of education programmes and credentials, recognition of acquired education in the country of return or possibilities of further studies. Joint discussions of certification and validation issues are essential to meet the rights of the child – though often very difficult.

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CAPACITY BUILDING

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To increase the ability of individuals, groups, organizations, institutions and societies to deliver quality education for all.**
- **To enable educational authorities to determine their own educational needs and carry out their own policies.**
- **To further the financial and institutional self-reliance of educational authorities.**

SOME CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS RELATED TO CAPACITY BUILDING

Capacity is defined as the ability of individuals, organizations or systems to perform appropriate functions effectively, efficiently and sustainably.

Capacity building or development is the process by which individuals, groups, organizations, institutions and societies increase their abilities to: (a) perform core functions, solve problems, define and achieve objectives; and (b) understand and deal with their development needs in a broad context and in a sustainable manner.

There is no singular definition of capacity building. Over the years, 'capacity building' has moved from being a focus, to concern individual training, the development of institutions and recently a complex systems philosophy where individual capacities are linked with those of institutions and systems at large. Recent definitions emphasize the continuing process of strengthening of abilities to perform core functions, solve problems, define and achieve objectives, and understand and deal with development needs.

Sources: UNDP (1997); UNDP (1998); UNESCO (2005).

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

What does capacity building involve?

Capacity building in the broad sense is concerned with the following:

- *Human resource development*: the process of equipping individuals with the understanding, skills and access to information, knowledge and training that enables them to perform effectively.
- *Organizational development*: the elaboration of management structures, processes and procedures, not only within organizations but also the management of relationships between the different organizations and sectors (public, private and community).
- *Institutional and legal framework development*: making legal and regulatory changes to enable organizations, institutions and agencies at all levels, and in all sectors, to enhance their capacities.

Why is capacity building important in and following emergencies?

Capacity building is a challenge in all countries. The challenges and problems will be all the greater during and after emergencies and disasters. Existing capacity is likely to have been destroyed or greatly reduced. The diversion, destruction or devaluation of national financial resources, as well as the destruction of buildings and infrastructure, represent serious challenges to the national capacity of the education sector. More serious still is often the destruction of institutional and social capital; the links and relationships that are formed in communities and between people. Institutional and social capital is a prerequisite for fostering other

capacities. Similarly, capacity building in education is important both for the functioning of the education system as well as for capacity building in other sectors. Most sectors or structures in a society rely upon a well functioning national education system in order to further develop and improve upon their own capacity. An essential aspect of capacity building is enhancing the ability of individuals, institutions and systems to cope with change and unforeseen challenges. This constitutes a strong argument for prioritizing capacity building in education in particular, even in the midst of crises and in early reconstruction.

The degree of capacity reduction in and following an emergency differs, of course, according to the type of conflict or nature of the emergency. Natural disasters usually have a greater impact on operational capacity – loss of facilities, equipment and supplies. There may be some loss of human resources, but the effect is often more easily mitigated in a natural disaster. Institutional capacity may be temporarily stretched by extra demands, but generally stays intact. Conflict and especially chronic conflict, on the other hand, is likely to have dire effects on social and institutional capacity.

How to develop capacity after emergencies?

Capacity building requires a significant and sustained commitment of financial and human resources, which should be provided for during educational planning processes.

The starting point for capacity development is the acknowledgement that capacity already exists. Assessment and evaluation are therefore important elements of any capacity building programme. As part of the initial needs assessment, a rapid assessment of human, operational and institutional capacity should be undertaken with a view to identifying the most urgent

challenges facing the education system (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’).

During acute phases of conflict and disaster, the immediate tasks of ensuring survival and well-being tend to dominate, pushing capacity development aside. As a result, the operation of schools tends to get more support than the development of management and supervisory capacity. Even so, capacities can be enhanced by involvement of those affected by emergencies in interventions and service provision. As time passes, perennial issues, such as the need for capacity building, become more obvious, regardless of the continuation of crisis.

There are various ways in which countries can approach capacity building during and in the aftermath of emergencies. However, the approach often taken in an emergency or reconstruction situation is determined at least in part by donors and international agencies (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.10, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms’ and Chapter 5.11, ‘Coordination and communication’). Clearly, *building a ministry’s capacity* is very different from some donors’ attempts to *bypass weak government capacity*, which occurs when donors try to rebuild the country themselves by contracting services directly. More often than not, bypassing national systems builds resentment, costs more than local solutions, and does not bring about the anticipated results.

Donors or governments may also attempt to *buy capacity* by contracting services to the private or non-governmental sector when there is no time to build local capacity. The option of buying capacity should be viewed as a last resort when the need to restore the educational services speedily outweighs the need to develop longer-term sustainable capacity. As McKechnie (2003) states, when contracting outside services to help build capacity,

it is better to employ several medium-sized firms in their field of expertise, than to surrender the whole sector to one large firm or institution.

However, time constraints and the need to resume educational services quickly may make the prospect of *building temporary capacity* advisable. One strategy for building temporary capacity is to bring back the diaspora of education workers (particularly teachers) who may now be living abroad. This reversal of the brain-drain effect (if it can be sustained) will, over time, help to re-establish longer-term capacity. These nationals may be supported by foreign advisers, but if capacity is to be built, the educational authority should have the responsibility for making such decisions. Care must be taken in the re-integration of returned nationals to avoid resentment and disparity.

A long-term view of the reconstruction process post-emergencies is that countries should *build their own capacity*. It will be a timely and costly process, but is likely to be more effective and sustainable long term. ‘Real’ capacity building allows for self-dependence and a sense of ownership, which are very important factors in the development process (McKechnie, 2003).



HOW TO READ THIS *GUIDEBOOK*: SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF CAPACITY BUILDING

This entire *Guidebook* is concerned with ‘capacity building’. Each chapter is aimed at providing information and suggestions for strategies that enhance the capacity of the Ministry of Education or other educational authority in that particular field. Therefore, both when reading this and other chapters, some key principles of capacity building should be kept in mind:

Capacity building is a *continual process* of improvement within an individual, organization or institution, not a one-time event.

It is essentially an *internal process*, which only may be enhanced or accelerated by outside assistance, for instance by donors.

Capacity building emphasizes the need to *build on what exists*, to utilize and strengthen existing capacities, rather than arbitrarily starting from scratch. However, in some situations radical and extensive changes may be needed.

Human-centred development strategies emphasize that besides being a means to an end (i.e. improvement of performance), capacity building has an intrinsic *value on its own* in fostering job satisfaction and self-esteem.

An essential aspect of capacity building should be to build capacity *to cope with change* and to inculcate more an integrated and holistic approach rather than traditional, narrowly sectoral ways of thinking in addressing problems at hand.

Capacity building *takes a long time* and requires a long-term commitment from all involved. Success of capacity building efforts should not be measured in terms of disbursements or outputs with little attention to sustainability. Long-term change takes into account not only short-term but also intermediate- and long-term results.

These results *can be measured*, but they require a broader selection of measurements and indicators than only quantitative ones.

Source: World Health Organization (2001).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Capacity building

- 1. As part of the initial needs assessment, undertake rapid assessment of human, operational and institutional capacity to identify the most urgent challenges.**
- 2. Restore interim operational capacity as rapidly as possible.**
- 3. Establish or enhance basic institutional capacity.**
- 4. Support existing human resource capacity and fill key gaps.**
- 5. In early reconstruction, assess human resource capacity and address key capacity limitations.**
- 6. In early reconstruction, expand and consolidate operational capacity and work to ensure sustained support.**
- 7. Progressively develop institutional capacity to meet the changing needs of the developing system.**

Guidance notes

1. **As part of the initial needs assessment, undertake rapid assessment of human, operational and institutional capacity to identify the most urgent challenges.**

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)

- Conduct a review of the condition and capacity of local offices, especially at district and local levels.
- Encourage public service authorities to assess educational, human and institutional capacity whenever possible.
- Attempt to build upon available records or memories of institutional networks and capacities in existence before the emergency and assess the extent to which these are still operational.
- Identify development partners and other organizations that have direct access to schools in the course of the work, and assess whether these can serve as temporary communication channels with schools. For example, assessment teams, infrastructure teams, NGOs and community-based organizations (CBOs) and even the military (when appropriate) could be mobilized so that initial assessment and actions are as comprehensive as possible.
- Existing legislation, regulations and procedures manuals, records of organizational structures and networks that may be relevant to the emergency situation should be sought.
- Create an initial register of development partners working in education stating a description of their areas of focus. This may include donors, agencies, NGOs and CBOs.

2. Restore interim operational capacity as rapidly as possible.

- Have steps been taken to get education offices up and running as quickly as possible? For example, work with humanitarian/development partners to obtain basic equipment, physical rehabilitation and communication infrastructure for ministry/education authority and regional and district offices?
- Do development partners have transport to schools and district offices? That is, either share or obtain own transport vehicles, motorcycles, bicycles etc.?
- Have district and local officials been appointed, even on a temporary basis?
- Have emergency communications arrangements been established? That is, cell phones/telephones, radios, etc?
- Have simple guidelines been adapted and disseminated on minimum requirements for learning spaces?

3. Establish or enhance basic institutional capacity.

- Have steps been taken to identify records of any remaining management information systems? Are these systems assessed to see whether they can be used, or adapted and updated with available information? (Records to include EMIS, salary records, financial management systems, human resource records, capital development programmes, etc.?)
- Have humanitarian and development partners and all agencies active in the field been asked to help identify studies, reports or other data that may be used to reconstruct and supplement data available from surviving systems?
- Have key issues for policy change or adaptation been identified based on existing legislation, policies, regulations and procedures?
- Have directives been issued giving clear guidelines on new procedures?

- Where district and local capacity is weak or non-existent, are communications with school directors carried out directly, using simple one-page directives with clear messages on key policy decisions?
- Is a simple format provided for schools and district offices to make ad hoc reports of problems and urgent needs to authorities?

4. Support existing human resource capacity and fill key gaps.

- Are appointments of key officials confirmed as quickly as possible, even if temporary, at central, district and school levels?
- Are important personnel gaps quickly filled with temporary appointments or secondments?
- Are qualified local or returnee nationals used to fill key positions and functions in the education authority? Are negotiations held with humanitarian and development partners to support such appointments when necessary?
- Are salary agreements negotiated quickly among development partners to reduce the loss of qualified personnel to agencies and NGOs?
- Is temporary secondment of international specialists to supplement existing capacity in key areas negotiated with development partners with consideration to the need to develop local capacity?
- Are workshops organized quickly to establish basic networks among officials and school leaders, and to facilitate rapid agreement on strategies for dealing with important problems?

5. In early reconstruction, assess human resource capacity and address key capacity limitations.

- Is a system-wide analysis of existing human resources undertaken, building on the initial survey of human resources and including an inventory of skills?
- Are steps taken with development partners to identify exiles and potential returnees in the diaspora and facilitate their return?
- Is a review undertaken of existing capacity for human resource development within the public service, in universities and training institutions in both public and private sectors, and in civil society?
- Is a rolling training plan developed, whereby capacity gaps and training needs are identified and met on an ongoing prioritized basis? Is the plan flexible enough that it can be reviewed and adjusted as the system develops and is restructured?
- Are sustained training programmes developed for officials in key posts? Are training programmes supplemented with ongoing on-the-job support?

6. In early reconstruction, expand and consolidate operational capacity and work to ensure sustained support.

- Is a list of operational capacity requirements drafted? Is the list compiled based on emerging system design? Does it reflect planning for likely future restructuring (centralization or decentralization)? Does the requirements list consider:
 - construction, rehabilitation, and equipping of regional and district offices?
 - communications infrastructure (telephones, radios, fax, email, etc.)?

- transport infrastructure (including operating costs)?
- printing, copying publishing capacity (in-house, out-sourced or mix)?
- Does the plan phase in development of operational capacity over the next two to three years? Does it reflect system development design? Does it indicate priorities?
- Does the plan review operational capacity priorities with other sectors and ministries to identify opportunities for sharing infrastructure (office space, communications, transport etc.)?
- Does the plan ensure that interim budgets include some provision for priority operational capacity?
- Are negotiations planned with development partners for assistance for operational capacity requirements not met from the interim budget?

7. Progressively develop institutional capacity to meet the changing needs of the developing system.

- Do activities build on systems put in place during the acute phase of emergency?
- Is an EMIS system developed to reflect the needs and priorities of the emerging system, building on emergency systems put in place during early phases, and drawing on international and local expertise? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).'*)
- Are steps taken to develop, adapt, and modernize key management functions –personnel and salary payment, financial management, procurement, etc.? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8, 'Budget and financial management'*.)

- Are steps taken to prioritize establishment of a human resource development component in every employing authority within the system, and to ensure rapid training and support? (See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3.1*, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers', *Chapter 3.4*, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods' and *Chapter 5.9*, 'Human resources: ministry officials'.)
- Are communications functions or units being established at central, regional, and district levels to facilitate communication within the education authority, with other government ministries and services, and with communities and civil society?
- Are those units being developed in line with an overall communication strategy? (See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 5.11*, 'Coordination and communication'.) Are the units being supported with training? With national or international technical assistance when needed?

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Chapter **1.5**

EDUCATION FOR ALL IN EMERGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

DAKAR 'EDUCATION FOR ALL' (EFA) GOALS RELATED TO ACCESS

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free compulsory primary education of good quality.
- ...
5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
6. Improving all aspects of quality education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Source: World Education Forum (2000: 8).

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The issue of access to education for all children has become a priority for the international community. In 2000, this global commitment was reaffirmed at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in the form of specific goals.

In addition, the United Nations Millennium Declaration also calls on the international community “to ensure that, by [2015], children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling” and that “girls and boys will have equal access to all levels of education” (United Nations, 2000: 5). The Dakar World Education Forum explicitly acknowledges that armed conflicts and disasters constitute a major impediment to the achievement of Education for All. The *Dakar Framework for Action* included a pledge by the international community to “meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability ...” (World Education Forum, 2000: § 8(v)).

In meeting EFA and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as governments’ other obligations under international treaties (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.4, ‘Legal frameworks’*), educational authorities are faced with the major challenge of ensuring access for *all* children, regardless of their location, political or ethnic affiliation, gender or citizenship. Access must be ensured for the following:

- Those who recognize their government and those who do not;
- Those who are ‘on the authorities’ side’ and those who are not;
- Those who are the easiest to get into school, and those who need school the most; and
- Those who are seeking asylum.

Crucially, the issue of access and inclusion is intricately linked with that of quality of education, as reflected in the sixth goal of the *Dakar Framework for Action* listed above. (See also the point, ‘Linking access and quality’, under ‘Tools and resources’ later in this chapter). Providing inclusive access to education, especially in emergencies and during reconstruction, involves getting children into schools, but it is also concerned with the following:

- *Non-discrimination*: all children having access to education, regardless of ethnicity, religion, political persuasion, citizenship, gender, disability or social class.
- *School ambience*: the environment children encounter when they get to school – whether children feel safe and supported.
- *Curriculum*: what children learn when they are in school – whether it is relevant to their current situation and provides them with relevant skills for their future, whether it is taught in their mother tongue, at least in the lower grades of schooling, and free of divisive messages, etc.
- *Teaching and learning processes*: whether teaching methods are effective and pupil-centred.
- *Attendance*: whether children attend school on a regular basis.
- *Retention*: whether children progress through various grades once enrolled in school.
- *Alternatives*: whether non-formal education opportunities exist for children and young people who cannot (for whatever reason) enrol in a formal school, or for whom many years of education have been missed as a result of conflict or displacement.

EFA and Millennium Development Goals should be applicable *during* and *immediately* after emergencies. Civil wars and complex chronic conflicts can last for decades. Therefore a commitment to providing inclusive access to education is just as important in

emergencies as during peacetime, if not more so. The *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (INEE, 2004), launched in December 2004, in the form of a *Minimum standards handbook*, is an expression of this commitment. Through a highly collaborative process, facilitated by the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies, and involving more than 2,250 individuals from over 50 countries, global standards have been developed for the minimum level of educational quality and access that should be provided in emergencies, chronic crises and the early reconstruction phase. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 1.1, 'Introduction', for more information on the standards.)

The underlying objective of this *Guidebook* is to provide practical guidance to educational authorities on how to ensure that all children have access to education in line with these standards, and how to enhance the effectiveness and quality of their educational assistance, in emergencies and during reconstruction. All of the chapters in this *Guidebook* relate to the issue of access in one way or another. For example, well-trained, highly motivated teachers are more engaging. Because of better teaching, children will be more likely to attend school regularly and learn more, in order to continue their education. Similarly, a curriculum that is not divisive and that contains relevant messages for children's current situation, and their development, will also increase the likelihood that students engage with their education, and attend regularly. Furthermore, access to education is a tool that can both protect children (e.g. from forced labour, military recruitment and prostitution) and serve to pass on life-protecting and life-saving messages (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003). Finally, issues of management and administration also have an effect on the ability of schools and school systems to function effectively and

to reach out to all children and youth to provide them with the opportunity to develop to their fullest potential.

Below is a summary of the different ways education can protect children in emergencies.

Standard 1 on access and learning environment in the *Minimum standards handbook* deals with equal access: “All individuals have equal access to quality and relevant education opportunities” (INEE, 2004: 41). The table below lays out three primary reasons (safety-related, economic and institutional) why children

THE POTENTIAL PROTECTIVE ELEMENTS OF EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

PHYSICAL PROTECTION

- Provides safe, structured places for learn and play;
- Reaches out to all children, without discrimination;
- Offers means to identify children with special needs, such as experience of trauma or family separation;
- Engages children in positive alternatives to military recruitment, gangs and drugs;
- Care and supervision can be provided by teachers, in consultation with the parent or guardian;
- Offers children basic knowledge of health and hygiene;
- Can improve children’s nutrition by the provision of nutritious daily meals as part of school feeding;
- Prepares children for appropriate work which is not harmful or threatening their health or security.

PSYCHOSOCIAL PROTECTION

- Gives children an identity as students, averts inadequacy felt by children out of school;



- Provides a venue for expression through play and cultural activities such as sports, music, drama, and art;
- Facilitates social integration of vulnerable children such as separated children and former combatants;
- Supports social networks and community interaction for children and their families;
- Provides a daily routine and offers a sense of the future beyond the immediacy of war or conflict.

COGNITIVE PROTECTION

- Helps children to develop and retain the academic skills of basic education, i.e. literacy and numeracy;
- Offers means for children to access urgent life-saving health and security information;
- Furnishes children with knowledge of human rights and skills for citizenship and living in times of peace;
- Strengthens children's evaluative skills in responding to propaganda and disparate sources of information;
- Encourages young people to analyze information, express opinions, and take action on chosen issues.

Source: Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003: 10).

might not be in school, and offers a few examples of what can be done to provide them with access to learning. The third column of the table provides cross-references to other chapters in this *Guidebook* that deal with these issues. For a more comprehensive outline of the challenges facing educational authorities working with different population groups in different types and phases of emergencies and reconstruction, please see the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.3, 'Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction'*.

SAFETY-RELATED REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Concerns related to safety en route</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents are afraid to send their children to school due to ongoing conflict • The route to school is unsafe • Children are afraid to leave their parents • Children's movement is restricted due to roadblocks or closures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide child friendly spaces for schools • Facilitate home schools • Give psychosocial training for teachers • Arrange escorts, school buses • Arrange community education or advocacy • Give distance education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.2:</i> Gender • <i>Chapter 2.6:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 2.7:</i> Open and distance learning • <i>Chapter 3.5:</i> Psychosocial support to learners
<i>Concerns related to attending school</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents are concerned that conditions in the school are insecure, especially for girls • Girls risk sexual harassment and abuse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lobbying of government by local educational authorities to render schools safe • Provide child friendly spaces for schools • Mobilize community volunteers in schools • Set up school management committees • Exercise enforced code of conduct for teachers • Keep separate toilets for girls • Provide sanitary materials for older girls 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.2:</i> Gender • <i>Chapter 2.6:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 5.5:</i> Community participation
<i>Concerns related to distance to school</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children have to walk too far to get to school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop community schools for early primary grades • Early primary schools can be 'feeder schools' for larger schools with higher primary grades as older children can walk farther to a bigger school • Use 'satellite' schools or classes for early years of schooling, administered as part of larger schools • Set up school buses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.1:</i> Rural populations • <i>Chapter 2.2:</i> Gender • <i>Chapter 2.4:</i> Children with disabilities • <i>Chapter 2.6:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 2.7:</i> Open and distance learning • <i>Chapter 2.8:</i> Technology • <i>Chapter 5.8:</i> Budget and financial management

ECONOMIC REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children must work for their families – doing planting/harvesting, water and/or firewood collection, rations collection, etc. • Child/sibling-minding responsibilities • Parents cannot afford the direct cost of schooling, including registration, school fees, tuition and examination fees, unofficial fees charged by schools and informal payments of teachers, community contributions for school construction and maintenance, uniforms/decent clothes, transport, learning materials, etc. • Parents do not prioritize education for their children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrange for alternative school times • Arrange for alternative times for food/water distribution in camps • Engage primary schools or satellite premises that have free crèche and pre-school facilities • Provide school feeding/food items based on attendance as incentive for family • Abolish compulsory school uniforms, provide second-hand clothing to poor children • Facilitate study groups • Arrange catch-up classes, classes for working children • Arrange peer teaching • Provide learning programmes for adults, persuading them of the value of education for themselves and their children • Put stress on governments' obligation to provide access to free primary education, (which includes paying teachers regularly) and to facilitate access to secondary and higher education, e.g. through non-discriminative scholarships, refugee/IDP schools, distance education • International organizations can provide materials, scholarships, teacher incentives (especially in the acute phase and for displaced populations) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.1:</i> Rural populations • <i>Chapter 2.6:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 4.8:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 5.10:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Bureaucratic hurdles and problems of access</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambiguous legal frameworks • Authorities and schools require records of previous schooling, identity papers, birth certificates etc. • Lack of opportunity to proceed from primary to secondary education • Lack of school leaving certificates accepted in the concerned country/ies reduces future economic opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Waive procedures to get children into school • Provide counsellors to help urban refugee/IDP children enter existing national schools • Support testing for older children to enter appropriate grades in the national schools • Provide bridging tuition/ classes to prepare refugee children to enter local schools/colleges • Put stress on governments' obligation to provide access to free primary education, (which includes paying teachers regularly) and to facilitate access to secondary and higher education, e.g. through non-discriminative scholarships, refugee/IDP schools, distance education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 1.5:</i> Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction • <i>Chapter 4.8:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 5.4:</i> Legal frameworks • <i>Chapter 5.10:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms
<i>Curriculum issues</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The curriculum is divisive • The curriculum is not considered interesting or relevant, or is not valued, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lighten curriculum during and immediately after emergency, thereby 'making space' for subsequent revisions, creating less pressure on students and teachers, especially if school hours are short due to the use of multiple shifts • Conduct curriculum review; engage and consult with community • Use children's mother tongue as language of instruction, at least in early primary • Use country/area of origin curriculum for refugees when possible • Facilitate recreational/ cultural activities liked by boys, girls, parents • Teach positive moral values, peace, citizenship, adolescent health, in a way that is culturally acceptable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 1.2:</i> Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster • <i>Chapter 4.1:</i> Curriculum content and review processes • <i>Chapter 4.8:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 5.5:</i> Community participation • <i>Chapter 5.10:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Inadequate school facilities</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Over-crowding; not enough schools, classrooms, school tents, plastic sheeting, etc. • Fighting parties using schools for their own purposes or schools having been destroyed by fighting or natural disasters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consider multiple shifts • Repair damaged schools • Build temporary schools • Build new schools (seek outside assistance) • Consider use of other structures (religious buildings, privately owned buildings, etc.) • Consider open-air semi-sheltered spaces that can be made secure and available 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.1:</i> Rural populations • <i>Chapter 2.6:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 5.5:</i> Community participation • <i>Chapter 5.8:</i> Budget and financial management
<i>Problems of marginalization</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children and youth at risk are often marginalized and not included in education¹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pro-active measures to identify and draw in children and youth at risk • Educational authorities and international organizations set goals, develop and implement strategies to achieve universal primary education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 2.4:</i> Children with disabilities • <i>Chapter 2.5:</i> Former child soldiers • <i>Chapter 5.5:</i> Community participation
<i>Staff issues</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not enough or poor-quality teachers • Not enough women teachers to encourage families/girls to continue with schooling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruit and hire more teachers, including new teachers if necessary, and including a substantial proportion of women • Provide substantive in-service teacher training • Solicit outside help, if necessary initially, in developing teacher-training modalities • Provide teacher incentives (at a sustainable level) to reduce turnover • Develop programmes for attracting teachers to rural areas (and retaining them) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 1.2:</i> Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disasters • <i>Chapter 2.1:</i> Rural populations • <i>Chapter 3.1:</i> Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers • <i>Chapter 3.2:</i> Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions • <i>Chapter 3.4:</i> Teacher training: teaching and learning methods • <i>Chapter 5.8:</i> Budget and financial management • <i>Chapter 5.10:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms

1. Categories may include: orphans, child victims of abuse, violence and rape; ex-child soldiers, child perpetrators of violence; children in child-headed families, child heads of families, children with HIV, children of HIV-positive parents; children providing for parents in prison; displaced children; girls; girls after puberty; children from

RELEVANCE / MOTIVATIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Concerns related to vulnerable groups</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers not qualified or have no training in dealing with children with special needs (e.g. traumatized children, children with hearing or sight problems, children with physical disabilities, children with learning disabilities, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bring in outside experts and teachers if necessary, especially initially Give teacher training Introduce psychosocial programmes Provide recreation, 'expressive' activities and community services for traumatized child and adolescent populations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 2.4:</i> Children with disabilities <i>Chapter 3.4:</i> Teacher training: teaching and learning methods <i>Chapter 5.8:</i> Budget and financial management <i>Chapter 5.10:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms
<i>Concerns related to age disparities</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Older children and youth who have missed years of schooling may not want to attend early primary grades with young children or may have lost interest in school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special primary classes for older children/boys Accelerated learning or bridging programmes Literacy/numeracy programmes Non-formal education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 2.9:</i> Non-formal education
<i>Lack of perspective</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Youth who have completed primary school have no other educational options 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide post-primary learning opportunities, such as secondary school, vocational training, skills training, etc. Provide scholarships for secondary and higher education Consider distance learning options for post-primary students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 1.2:</i> Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disasters <i>Chapter 2.7:</i> Open and distance learning <i>Chapter 2.9:</i> Non-formal education <i>Chapter 2.11:</i> Post-primary education <i>Chapter 4.7:</i> Vocational education and training

disadvantaged minority communities; returning exiles; children separated from their families; children with special needs; child victims of war, war wounded children, traumatized children; lost, demoralized and disoriented children.

KEY PRINCIPLES

In her seminal work entitled *Planning education in and after emergencies*, Sinclair (2002: 29–30) outlined a series of key principles that apply to all such operations.

SINCLAIR'S PRINCIPLES OF EMERGENCY EDUCATION

ACCESS

- The right of access to education, recreation and related activities must be ensured, even in crisis situations.
- Rapid access to education, recreation and related activities should be followed by steady improvement in quality and coverage, including access to all levels of education and recognition of studies.
- Education programmes should be gender-sensitive, accessible to, and inclusive of all groups.
- Education should serve as a tool for child protection and harm prevention.

RESOURCES

- Education programmes should use a community-based participatory approach, with emphasis on capacity building.
- Education programmes should include a major component of training for teachers and youth/adult educators and provide incentives to avoid teacher turnover.
- Crisis and recovery programmes should develop and document locally appropriate targets for resource standards, adequate to meet their educational and psychosocial objectives.





ACTIVITIES/CURRICULUM

- All crisis-affected children and young people should have access to education, recreation and related activities, helping meet their psychosocial needs in the short and longer term.
- Curriculum policy should support the long-term development of individual students and of society and, for refugee populations, should be supportive of a durable solution, normally repatriation.
- Education programmes should be enriched to include skills for education for health, safety, and environmental awareness.
- Education programmes should be enriched to include life skills for education for peace/conflict resolution, tolerance, human rights, and citizenship.
- Vocational training programmes should be linked to opportunities for workplace practices of the skills being learned.

COORDINATION AND CAPACITY BUILDING

- Governments and assistance agencies should promote coordination among all agencies and stakeholders.
- External assistance programmes should include capacity building to promote transparent, accountable and inclusive system management by local actors.

Writing for the World Bank (2005: 30–32), Buckland complemented Sinclair’s insights with four additional principles:

- Education is a development activity. While education and schooling may be an important ‘fourth pillar’ of humanitarian assistance and critical for child and social protection, it is also, from the beginning, a development activity, and should be oriented toward social, economic and political development, and the longer-term interests of the learners and the society.
- Education reconstruction begins at the earliest stages of a crisis. It is undertaken concurrently with humanitarian relief, assuming an increasing share of activities as the polity, civil society, administrative capacity, and access to resources develop. Education reconstruction has no sharp distinction between a humanitarian phase and a reconstruction phase.
- Post-conflict education reconstruction is centrally concerned with conflict prevention to ensure that education does not contribute to the likelihood of relapse into violence and actively builds social cohesion to help prevent it. The lessons from post-conflict education reconstruction should be applied in countries at risk of conflict and countries currently affected by conflict. One of the most significant contributions education can make is to help to reduce the risk of violence in ‘at-risk’ countries.
- Post-conflict reconstruction in education calls for a prioritized approach within a broad sector-wide framework. The focus on basic education that is strongly reflected in this study and in the literature is based on the recognition that primary education is the basis of the entire system and therefore warrants high priority. However, the clear evidence from this study is that without systematic focus on all sub-sectors (pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary) and delivery modes (such as formal, non-formal and distance), there is

a danger that post-conflict reconstruction will introduce or exacerbate imbalances in the system. Apart from the system and development logic underlying this argument is the simple fact that the recovery of the basic education system requires teachers, who are produced in the secondary and tertiary sub-sectors.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

All chapters of this *Guidebook* offer suggestions for strategies that will enhance access to quality education. Some of the key strategies and issues specifically related to access are noted below. A checklist of points and ideas for developing and implementing each strategy is provided under the 'Guidance notes' that follow.



Summary of suggested strategies Access and inclusion

- 1. Be active in education for emergency-affected communities, and provide leadership in needs assessment activities.**
- 2. Assess the educational needs of children who are out of school as well as those attending school.**
- 3. Collect data on school enrolment, retention and completion for different groups and areas.**



4. **Ensure participation of emergency-affected populations in educational planning and decision-making.**
5. **Work to make schools and access to schools safe.**
6. **Advocate for equitable access to international assistance for all emergency-affected sections of the population.**
7. **Consider absorbing limited numbers of IDP or refugee students in local schools.**
8. **Plan or facilitate the establishment of separate schools for large refugee or IDP populations.**
9. **Plan education in refugee or IDP schools to support repatriation/return home, including the use of a curriculum (especially language of study) that is similar to that of the area of origin.**

Guidance notes

1. **Be active in education for emergency-affected communities, and provide leadership in needs-assessment activities.**
 - Whenever possible, educational authorities must be active and present in war-affected communities for which they have responsibility. Indeed, bold and visionary leadership is essential

to the continuance, reconstruction and transformation of education services.

- Standard 2 on policy and coordination in the Minimum standards handbook deals with planning and implementation: “Emergency education activities take into account national and international educational policies and standards and the learning needs of affected populations” (INEE, 2004: 73). Needs-assessment missions by international agencies and organizations should be coordinated to the greatest extent possible by the education ministry, which should be represented on all the specialist sub-groups dealing with different levels and types of education and overall educational planning.
- Determine whether certain areas of the country are inaccessible due to landmines or destroyed infrastructure (such as bridges or roads), ongoing civil conflict or issues of control over contested areas.
 - If so, is anything known about how many children are in the inaccessible areas? How many are in their home areas, and how many belong to internally displaced or refugee populations?
 - Are local schools or other schools operating? If so, how many? At what level?
 - Is anything known about how many children (boys, girls) are attending school? Especially in areas of ongoing conflict, parents may be reluctant to send their children to school, especially girls.
- When certain areas are inaccessible, educational authorities may not be able to fulfil their responsibilities. If educational authorities are not functioning in the area, access by the relevant United Nations agencies should be facilitated.

- Can civil-society organizations or non-governmental organizations reach the affected populations, with the consent or support of the educational authorities?
 - Do they have the mandate, funding and adequately trained and experienced staff to undertake this responsibility?
 - What information do they have regarding how many children have access to schooling and the quality of education the children are receiving?
 - How can they support education for these inaccessible communities, for example provision of teacher training, materials, etc.?
 - How can the government support or work with these organizations?
- Are local or regional education officials able to travel from the affected area in order to report on the educational situation?
- Is use being made of available channels of communication, e.g. radio?
- Are needs assessments being organized by international organizations, in the country concerned or elsewhere? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)
 - Are the national educational authorities and their specialist staff involved in all the needs-assessment activities?
 - If this is not possible, are reputed national education specialists involved in all these activities?

2. Assess the educational needs of children who are out of school as well as those attending school.

Assessing children's access to education and learning is an essential part of both the planning and implementation of educational programmes, as the assessment will affect the quality and relevance of the education provided. Anyone involved with this task should also consult the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*. Below is a summary of some of the questions educational authorities must consider when assessing children's access to education and learning:

- Which children are not enrolled in school? Why?
- Which children are not attending school? Why?
- Which children do not complete primary and/or secondary school? Why?
- What are the educational needs of the community, e.g. health and hygiene, HIV and AIDS, literacy, livelihood skills?
- How do the educational status and needs differ by age, gender, ethnicity, language group, etc.? (Which groups are particularly vulnerable; e.g. girls, youth, children with disabilities, households without an adult breadwinner, etc.? Have older children been deprived of primary education? Are they willing to attend classes with young children, or do they need separate primary classes for adolescents?)

3. Collect data on school enrolment, retention and completion for different groups and areas.

If available, review gross and net enrolment ratios for emergency-affected provinces or districts, and/or refugee or IDP camps or settlements, within the country. (See the 'Tools

and resources' section of this chapter for an explanation of calculation of gross and net enrolment ratios.)

- Are there differences in enrolment ratios in certain areas of the country?
- If enrolment statistics are not available, consult with provincial/district educational authorities. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*, and *Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)'*, for guidance on collecting educational statistics.)
 - Do local authorities have enrolment statistics for their area? What is the date of the statistics? Have they been validated by recent visits to schools?
 - If local authorities do not have current enrolment statistics, is it possible to obtain them, at least for some of the schools in their area?
- If population statistics are not available, how was the population of school-age children in each province/district estimated?
 - Consult with the national statistical office or institute to determine whether they have developed provincial/district population estimates.
 - If gross population estimates are available, consider estimating the school-age population. (See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for basic principles on estimating the school-age population.)
 - Consult with key informants to estimate the ratio of children in school to the total numbers in the relevant age group.
 - Have provincial/district authorities talked to local community members/leaders to ask how many children in the relevant age group are or are not in school?

- Have representatives from all segments of the community been consulted (e.g. men, women, children, community leaders, members of different ethnic groups, etc.)?

4. Ensure participation of emergency-affected populations in educational planning and decision-making.

Standard 1 on community participation in the *Minimum standards handbook* states that “Emergency-affected community members actively participate in assessing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the education programme” (INEE, 2004:14). Educational authorities and other educational providers must design education programmes that are relevant to the community based on assessment or survey results.

- What are the best or most feasible education options?
 - Formal education – primary as well as secondary.
 - Integration into local classrooms.
 - Schools or education programmes run by external agencies.
 - Non-formal options with an emphasis on psychosocial support and recreation to facilitate healing.
 - Vocational and/or skills training.
 - Early childhood development programmes.
 - Literacy programmes.
 - Accelerated learning programmes for youth who have missed several years of education.
- What is needed to implement these options?
 - Learning spaces.

- Teachers – teachers already in service, where applicable; volunteer teachers, if required – who will need some kind of regular incentives, in cash or kind.
- In-service teacher training.
- Learning materials (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.8*, ‘Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids’, for more information).
- Building materials – or some components, such as plastic sheeting, poles, cement, gravel, etc.
- International assistance.
- What is needed to attract students?
 - Interesting, high-quality learning environments and pedagogical approaches.
 - Curricula that are relevant to all students and free of divisive messages.
 - Compassionate teachers, with sound interpersonal skills.
 - Safety.
 - School feeding (see the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for arguments for and against school feeding).
 - Non-formal approaches for special groups such as adolescents who cannot attend regular school or need help with (re-)entry to schooling.
 - Elimination of bureaucratic hurdles to enrolment, e.g. the requirement for birth certificates, previous diplomas, etc.
- What is needed to attract teachers?
 - Training and other forms of support.
 - Salaries/incentives.
 - Other compensation such as housing, food, etc.


- Some incentive to teachers who are not on the government payroll, to compensate for income lost due to time spent teaching.
- What is needed to gain the support of parents and communities?
 - No school fees – explicit or hidden such as uniforms, materials, payments to teachers.
 - Safety.
 - School feeding or food items in return for regular attendance (see Point 4 on school feeding under ‘Tools and resources’, below).
 - ‘Quality’ education (see Point 1 on quality under ‘Tools and resources’, below).
 - Involvement – school management committee, etc.



INTRODUCTION OF ACCELERATED LEARNING IN RWANDA

“In September 2002, at a time when an estimated 94 percent of adolescents were out of school, the Rwandan Ministry of Education began an accelerated learning programme to cover the six year primary education in three years for out of school students. Catch-up classes are free, children are not asked to buy writing materials, and no uniform is required. To the surprise of the Ministry the demand was overwhelming.

Unfortunately, the first reaction of the Catch-Up field managers was to ignore the carefully designed programme they had drawn up for themselves. They could not resist accepting every applicant. All-comers were accepted; classes were allowed to grow beyond the well set limits; the ages of children were not monitored; nor were the children allocated to classes or streamed according to their previous schooling experience. Classes opened before the teachers had been oriented and before the teaching and learning materials



reached the centres. It has been pointed out to [the Ministry of Education] that unless the basic design of the programme is respected, it will not achieve its goal ... Without such a framework the programmes will be in immediate danger of failure and of disappointing the children, the Ministry and education planners with this first and well-publicized attempt in Rwanda of providing much needed alternative education programmes. A planning process has to result in respect for the plan drawn up. Rwanda needs a success with this first official alternative education programme.”

Source: Obura (2003: 137–138).

5. Work to make schools and access to schools safe.

Standard 2 on access and learning environment in the *Minimum standards handbook* deals with protection and well-being: “Learning environments are secure, and promote the protection and mental well-being of learners.” (INEE, 2004: 41).

- What efforts have been made to encourage community involvement?
 - As guards.
 - As monitors of teacher and student attendance and behaviour.
 - As guides on gender issues for teachers and students.
 - As escorts for children travelling to and from school.
 - As negotiators with warring parties in areas of conflict.
 - As partners in helping to keep the school premises (including latrines) in good repair.
- Have all staff received gender training?

- Have efforts been made to recruit more female teachers?
- Are schools located close to children's homes, especially for the early primary grades, so children do not have to travel far to attend school?
- Are school latrines sex-segregated and visible from the classrooms?

6. Advocate for equitable access to international assistance for all emergency-affected sections of the population.

When international organizations are providing assistance, ensure that such assistance benefits local populations as well as those who have been displaced, or those who are returning.

- When displaced children are integrated into local schools, for example, international organizations could target material assistance (such as teaching and learning materials) to whole schools so all children benefit.
- Newly constructed or rehabilitated schools should be for the local community, either immediately or, in the case of refugee schools, once the refugees have returned to their home country.
- Out-of-school activities can be offered to both host and displaced children.
- Some external teacher-training initiatives for conflict-affected populations can also be offered to local teachers to improve their teaching skills or to train them in particular subjects such as peace education and conflict resolution, HIV and AIDS prevention, etc.

7. Consider absorbing limited numbers of IDP or refugee students in local schools.

It may be possible to absorb a limited number of refugee or IDP students into local schools early in an emergency, if they use the same language of instruction and similar curricula.

- Do refugees or IDPs and local students share a common language and curriculum?
- How many displaced children need access? Do the schools have the capacity to absorb all of these additional students?
- Are donor support and technical assistance available?
- Can refugee/IDP educators also be absorbed into the host education school system?



THE PROBLEM OF PROVIDING EDUCATION FOR A RAPID REFUGEE INFLUX

As the state education authority, the [Government of Indonesia] Gol played a part in provision of education for refugee children [in West Timor]; however, schools found it very difficult to cope with the overwhelming numbers. UNICEF, working with the Gol at the central level, came up with an alternative. ... In an effort to immediately reach the high numbers of refugee children who could not access local schools, the UNICEF programme focused on setting up schools within the refugee camps. The main objective of the programme was to “provide temporary basic education to primary school age children in order to maintain their basic competencies attained in the former schooling and to be ready to learn in normal schooling in their future resettlement areas”. The tent schools were meant to be a “short term, gap filling measure”, with the ultimate aim to “integrate refugee children who remain in West Timor into the regular school system” (UNICEF, 2000a: 3).

Source: Nicolai (2004).

8. Plan or facilitate the establishment of separate schools for large refugee or IDP populations.

When refugee or displaced children are integrated into local schools, consider providing, or seeking assistance for the following:

- Teacher training on managing large classes and/or multi-age classrooms.
- Additional school supplies.
- Support for repair work, new furniture or classrooms.
- Tuition waivers and uniforms/clothing given directly to marginalized children.
- Hiring additional refugee/IDP teachers or classroom assistants.
- Scholarships for displaced students to attend secondary and higher education in local institutions or elsewhere in the country.

9. Plan education in refugee and IDP schools to support repatriation/return home.

When separate primary schools are established for refugee or IDP children, use the curriculum from their place of origin and their mother tongue as language of instruction when possible. This will facilitate their access to the school system in their home area/country after repatriation or return from internal displacement. Standard 1 on teachers and other educational personnel in the *Minimum standards handbook* deals with recruitment and selection: “A sufficient number of appropriately qualified teachers and other education personnel is recruited through a participatory and transparent process

based on selection criteria that reflect diversity and equity.” (INEE, 2004: 65).

- Hire teachers from among the refugee or displaced population.
- Hire former teachers who are familiar with the curriculum from the place of origin.
- Recruit and train teachers who speak the children’s mother tongue.
- When insufficient experienced teachers are available, select and train educated community members as teachers.
- Offer teacher training on managing large class sizes and psychosocial support.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Linking access and quality

Access is intricately linked to the quality of education, a fact that is also reflected in the goals of the *Dakar Framework for Action* (World Education Forum, 2000). Without quality, children will drop out of school. Children who feel they are not learning, or that what they are learning is largely irrelevant, will leave even if their fees are paid for and there are places available. Likewise, parents will weigh the benefits of sending their children to school against the opportunity cost. If there are no teaching and learning materials, if the teachers are mostly absent or only have limited teaching skills, or there are no post-primary education or employment opportunities available, parents are likely to regard the opportunity costs as too high for education to be worthwhile.

Defining quality of education

There is no universal definition of the term ‘quality’. One common misperception is that access to education must precede attention to quality. Surely, one cannot have quality without access, but access without quality is also meaningless (Pigozzi, 2004). It is therefore crucial that educators, leaders and national planners seek to define the elements of quality, and the standards and indicators that can be utilized for assessing and improving it. Only by doing so are they able to address the fundamental purpose of education, as a human right on its own, and as a right that facilitates the fulfilment of other rights. In reference to emergencies, attention devoted to quality may also help to reveal those elements of education that are in fact part of the conflict itself: If not given careful attention, education may reinforce discrimination and work as a channel for the hatred and divisive messages that spurred conflict in the first place.

Amongst the myriad of definitions of quality, education planners and providers together must identify the specific elements and implications relevant for their context. The following table summarizes some of the meanings of quality, and ways to measure and conceptualize them:

MEANING OF QUALITY	MEASUREMENT AND CONCEPTUALIZATION
REPUTATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measured informally, socially • Difficult to quantify, despite general agreement
INPUTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures include: number of teachers; education levels of teachers; class size; number and class of school buildings; background characteristics of students; numbers of textbooks; instructional materials; extent of laboratories; libraries and other facilities • Easy to conceptualize and quantify
PROCESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures include: interactions of students and teachers; teaching and learning processes; 'quality of life' of the programme, school, or system • Difficult to conceptualize and quantify
CONTENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures include: skills, attitudes, behaviours and values to be transmitted through the intended curriculum • Easy to conceptualize and quantify formally espoused values; difficult to identify implicit values
OUTPUTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures typically include: cognitive achievement; completion ratios; entrance ratios to next/higher level of education; acquisition of desired skills; attitudes, values, skills and behaviours, values • Easy to conceptualize, while others are more difficult, more difficult to measure
OUTCOMES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Typical measures include: income; employment; health; civic engagement; social cohesion; social levels of desirable attitudes, values, skills and behaviours • Some concepts easy to conceptualize, while others are more difficult, all are difficult to measure
VALUE-ADDED	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures extent of improvement • Relatively easy to conceptualize, depending on specifics, change is difficult to measure and requires baseline
SELECTIVITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures include: percentages of children excluded, or failed • Easy to conceptualize, easy to measure

Source: Adams (1997), in Williams (2001: 89).

The need to define and promote quality of education, especially in situations of emergencies, is increasingly recognized by a number of actors. One recent, concrete effort to address the implications of this need has been the development of global minimum standards for education in emergencies (MSEE).



DEVELOPING MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES, CHRONIC CRISES AND EARLY RECONSTRUCTION (MSEE)

The MSEE initiative was hosted within the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), an open network of United Nations agencies, NGOs, donors, practitioner and researchers and individuals from affected populations working together to ensure the right to education in emergencies and post-crisis reconstruction. Starting in 2003, the INEE working group facilitated a broad base of stakeholders to develop standards, indicators and guidance notes that articulate the minimum level of educational access and provision to be attained in emergencies through to early reconstruction. Over 2,250 individuals from more than 50 countries contributed to the development of the minimum standards, which were presented in the form of a handbook at the second Global Inter-Agency Consultation on Education in Emergencies and Early Recovery, in Cape Town, in December 2004. The minimum standards are built on the foundation of the Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC), the Dakar 2000 'Education for All' (EFA) goals and the Sphere Project's Humanitarian Charter. According to the INEE Minimum Standards, quality of education includes, but is not limited to: (a) adequate materials for teaching and learning; (b) competent and well-trained teachers who are knowledgeable in the subject matter; (c) participatory methods of instruction; (d) reasonable class sizes; and (e) a safe learning environment.

Quality education in complex emergencies considers strategies to provide the basic conditions for a sustainable process of support to a 'healing climate' in the educational environment. There is an emphasis on recreation, play and the development of related creative activities as well as the provision of reading, writing, numeracy and life skills based education activities. Education should help learners to improve not only cognitive skills, but also prevent a cycle of anger and human destructiveness at social and generational level.

Source: INEE (2004).

Improving quality of education

As there are multiple meanings of quality, there exists no one single way to improve it. Moreover, a definition, or even a description of the characteristics of high-quality education is not the same as a strategy for moving from low to higher quality. Overall, focus needs to be broadened from planning at ministry level to consideration of what is actually taking place in the school and the classroom. The characteristics and capacities of the individual child, supporting inputs, enabling conditions and teaching and learning processes are factors that will significantly affect school quality (Williams, 2001: 90). More important than the quality of inputs, is the way inputs are used. Strategies will vary depending on the context, yet the following table may indicate some ‘dos’ and ‘don’ts’ regarding the improvement of school quality.

When attempting to improve the quality of education therefore, two principles should be kept in mind, independent of contextual factors (Williams, 2001: 106):

“Improvements in educational quality do not necessarily require large investments of resources. A number of the elements of educational quality identified in the preceding discussion do not rely primarily on large outlays of resources. Instead, many of these elements depend on the organization and management of inputs, and the participation of critical actors such as parents, teachers and principals, and so forth. Thus, the primary constraint to quality improvement is not necessarily cost.”

“School improvement strategies are most effective when developed on site and in collaboration with stakeholders and implementers ... To improve quality, the role of central authorities is less one of providing quality than of fostering environments

STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT	
PROMISING AVENUES	BLIND ALLEYS
Curriculum <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improving the implemented curriculum 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjusting the intended curriculum
Learning materials <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Good textbooks and teacher guides 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Computers in the classroom
Teaching quality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In service training Interactive radio instruction (with pupils) Programmed materials 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lengthening pre-service pedagogical training
Teaching time <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting and maintaining standards for instructional time: 25 hours of instruction per week for core subjects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lowering class size
Teachability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preschools (targeted at disadvantaged) Nutritional interventions-school snacks/breakfasts, micronutrients, treat parasites Vision and auditory screening 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> School lunches

Source: Lockheed and Verspoor (1991), in Williams (2001: 102).

that support site-based improvement. Innovations are less effectively ‘replicated’ than promoted.”

The remaining chapters of the *Guidebook* are all concerned with the practical implications of these principles.

2. Calculating gross and net enrolment ratios

- The gross enrolment ratio is equal to the total number of children enrolled in a certain level of schooling (e.g. primary or secondary) divided by the population of children that corresponds to the official age group for that particular level. For example, in a country where the official ages for primary school are 6–11, the primary gross enrolment ratio is:

Total number of children enrolled in primary school

Total number of children aged 6–11

- The net enrolment ratio is the number of children of official school age (as defined by the national education system) who are enrolled in a particular level divided by the total number of children of that age group in the population. For example, the net primary school enrolment ratio in a country where the official ages for primary school are 6–11 is:

Total number of 6–11 year old children enrolled in primary school

Total number of children aged 6-11

When children who are older than the official age for a particular level of schooling (such as primary), are enrolled in that level, the effect will be to increase the gross enrolment ratio. This can disguise the non-participation of children from poor families in schooling.



GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS IN REFUGEE CAMPS AND SETTLEMENTS

Gross enrolment ratios (GER) can exceed 100 per cent if there is a large backlog of unmet educational need. Of the about 100,000 Bhutanese refugees living in camps in Nepal, over 40,000 are enrolled in primary and secondary school, giving an estimated gross enrolment ratio for these levels of schooling combined of 120 per cent (although an accurate calculation would require survey data on the population structure by age). This reflects the high value placed on education in this culture, as well as disruption of schooling before the population became refugees. Likewise, in the refugee camps of Guinea, a ratio of 107 per cent was recorded for male refugees and 84 per cent for females, while in Kakuma camp in Kenya, rates of 129 per cent for males and 91 per cent for females were recorded, again for primary and secondary education combined (age group 5–17 years). Despite these figures, it is likely that children from poor families with illiterate parents are missing out on schooling. Only by surveying a sample of households and talking with community groups can data be obtained on out-of-school children and adolescents. Poverty and illiteracy as well as cultural factors contribute to the lower ratios found in most situations (as in the gross enrolment ratio of 26 per cent computed for Afghan refugee children aged 5–17 in the refugee camps in Pakistan).

Sources: Brown (2001), Bethke and Braunschweig (2004).

3. Estimating the school-age population

The following methods for estimating school-age populations should be used with caution. They will only provide educational planners with approximations. Rough estimates should be replaced with more precise figures, as more detailed assessments or statistically valid samples are conducted by specialist educational statisticians.

For a quick estimate of the number of school-age children in an emergency-affected population, consider one of the following:

- Sinclair (2001: 6) states that, “In many displaced populations, about one in three persons are in the age group for schooling and other child and adolescent activities”. This is based on one sixth being in the primary school age group and one sixth being in the secondary school age group. (The calculation assumes that half the population is under 18 and that primary and secondary schooling are for six years each; it overestimates the number of children of secondary school age if there has been rapid population growth).
- The Sphere Project minimum standards in disaster response (2000) provides the following table to estimate the age breakdown of many emergency-affected populations.

GROUP	PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION
0–4 years	12.37
5–9 years	11.69
10–14 years	10.53
15–19 years	9.54
20–59 years	48.63
60+ years	7.24

Source: WFP/UNHCR (December 1997) and WHO (1997), cited in Sphere Project (2000: 83).

4. School feeding

Arguments for and against school feeding

The combination of education and food assistance enjoys a long history in the field of international development, and is widely promoted by United Nations agencies such as the World Food Programme, the World Health Organization and the Food and Agricultural Organization. It is still an area of much controversy, as is illustrated in the table below. Some agencies prefer to use the term ‘food-assisted education’, which refers to a broad range of programming options, including school meals/wet feeding and dry feeding/take-home rations.

Below is a summary of the main arguments for school feeding, and their corresponding critiques and problems.

SCHOOL FEEDING FOR ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding can increase the awareness and attitudes of communities regarding education, and thereby boost enrolment. • Provision of school meals (wet feeding) or take-home rations (dry feeding) provides an incentive or a reward for both enrolment and regular attendance. School feeding can therefore contribute to decreasing dropout and improving retention. • Food aid provides an income transfer to families who face high opportunity costs for sending their children to school. • School feeding can counter inequality through positive discrimination in favour of disadvantaged groups, such as girls. • In communities where education, especially for girls, is considered to be of little importance or even detrimental, school feeding can increase the reputation of schooling. • Performance-based contracts with schools, municipalities or districts may act as a lever for school quality improvement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food alone will not bring children to school. • Children enrol in school, but frequently drop out once the programme stops. With take-home rations/dry feeding, children tend to come to school only on the day the rations are distributed. • School feeding is costly and rarely sustainable. One risks creating dependency for something that cannot be provided long term. • School feeding alone does not address the issue of quality of education (see the part on defining quality above). Promoting education by extrinsic benefits where the educational structure in itself does not provide sufficient intrinsic motivation may be considered a self-contradiction. • Like any other incentive programme (e.g. cash transfer), the risk is to create a generation that expects to be rewarded for something that should essentially be a benefit to them. People should not expect to be paid to go to school. • It is not sound psychology to make beneficiary of the programme one section of the population over another, for example refugees, IDPs or returnees, girls, child soldiers, etc. This may sow the seeds of continued or new conflict.

SCHOOL FEEDING AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF CHILDREN'S HEALTH

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In areas of crisis, school feeding programmes are an effective strategy to improve children's health, especially when combined with specific health interventions. • School feeding (especially wet feeding) stabilizes the individual child's food supply. • A school feeding programme with an established mechanism for storing and delivering food can be used to increase distributions to a broader target population without having to establish an entirely new infrastructure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding may alter the children's access to food in their homes, if parents give children less food because they have eaten at school. • Take-home rations have no guaranteed nutritional effects on the students, as food rations may be sold, shared by the whole family, etc. • As food given at school is often the same as provided in regular distribution, it may lack the micronutrients and vitamins required.

SCHOOL FEEDING AND LEARNING CAPACITY

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As many children arrive at school without breakfast and/or after a long walk to school, a breakfast or mid-morning snack will decrease their short-term hunger. • Providing students with a nutritious meal may improve their learning capacity and performance. • School feeding can help to provide stability and regularity in the time schedule. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased learning capacity is difficult to document, especially with take-home rations, as there is no guarantee that the learners actually get the food. • Children wait in long queues for food, which is not effective use of limited school time. • School personnel (teachers and administrators) are expected to oversee the programmes, to the detriment to their other educational responsibilities.

SCHOOL FEEDING AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding can encourage community participation in education, especially through its participation in the implementation of the programme. • The logistics of a school feeding programme or the running of a school garden may create employment opportunities in the local community. • A school feeding programme can be a good platform for other, complementary types of interventions, at and around the schools. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding, especially wet feeding, requires support structures, such as water, fuel, additional food items such as salts and spices, and cooking. These are often scarce commodities, and the opportunity cost of providing these to a large group rather than with the family can be very high. • The local offices of the Ministry of Education and local communities are often not in a position to respond effectively by contributing time and labour.

Conditions for successful school feeding

Nobody would dispute that children have a right to be fed properly, and that this will increase their ability to learn. The issue is therefore not whether children need food, but how children's nutritional and educational needs may best be met. Part of that decision depends on how many resources and how much time is spent by education administrators and teachers administering an adjunct to an education programme. When considering school feeding, planners and implementers should therefore ensure that:

1. Its direct and indirect benefits cannot be met more cost effectively by other non-food-assisted means.

- Establish as precisely as possible what problems the school feeding programme is intending to solve (low enrolment, attendance, high drop-out, gender gaps), and what causes these problems.
- If school feeding is meant to be a motivational incentive, consider whether this can be provided in other forms than food (cash stipends, fee waivers, free school uniforms or textbooks, etc.)
- Review carefully the funding sources for school feeding compared to those for other educational programmes, whether the sources are stable, and for how long they are expected to last.
- Select programme modality (wet or dry feeding) in line with objectives, and keeping in mind practical and logistical considerations.

2. Food resources are readily available to programme implementers.

- Wet feeding: Choose locally acceptable and easy-to-prepare commodities. Consider the fortification of commodities with micronutrients where necessary.
- Take-home rations: Choose commodities of high nutritional value (e.g. vegetable oil, local staple cereal), but low cash value and easy to transport.

3. Beneficiaries are well targeted, and relatively large in number.

- Clearly define the target group, whether by geographical location, educational level, or school selection.
- Make sure schools have the necessary infrastructure for school feeding.
- Do not select students within schools for wet feeding.

4. Complementary activities can address the underlying causes of short-term hunger and poor educational access, and fill the void when food aid ceases.

- Combine with other school health programmes interventions (de-worming, drinkable water supply at schools, provision of school latrines, etc.).
- Combine school feeding programmes with complementary interventions targeting other obstacles to enrolment and retention. Make school quality a first priority.
- Ensure programmes are targeted only to those areas/ population groups where they are most needed. Re-target as necessary as the situation develops.
- Develop exit strategies already at the onset of the programme, as well as strategies in the case of unexpected termination of funds, resources or need.

5. There is host government and popular support for food assistance.

- The Ministry of Education must have overall ownership of the programme, even if capacity is weak. External agencies should build their capacity if necessary.
- Involve communities from the start, without overloading them, in the implementation and the monitoring of the programme. Consult with communities on the choice of commodities, and select foods for which the need for additional commodities is minimal. Provide fuel-efficient stoves to reduce the need for fuel wood.
- If take-home rations are targeted to specific schools in an area, for example, or to groups such as girls only, discuss with communities, families and school staff beforehand to ensure they understand the reasons for this positive discrimination. Monitor that the positive discrimination has no negative effects on girls.

If, in a cost-benefit analysis, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, and school feeding is available, implement it. Do not expect school feeding to solve problems of teacher training or curriculum, however. If the disadvantages are not outweighed by the advantages, leave school feeding and concentrate on the real educational issues.

Sources: Baxter (2004); Janke (2001); INEE (2003); Meir (2004); Nazaire (2000); World Food Programme (2003).

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GUIDEBOOK for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction

SECTION 2 ACCESS AND INCLUSION



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this review do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or the IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

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NOTE ON *GUIDEBOOK* UPDATE

This *Guidebook* was updated in 2010 to reflect some of the recent trends emerging in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction. As noted in the “Introduction”, there have been some positive developments in terms of engagement of the international donor community in this topic. Consequently the *Guidebook* has been updated to reflect some of these changes, along with an updated list of tools and resources for all chapters.

The following chapters have been revised:

- 2.3 Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion
- 2.4 Children with disabilities
- 2.6 Learning spaces and school facilities
- 2.10 Early childhood development
- 4.3 HIV prevention education
- 5.11 Coordination and communication

The following new chapters have been added:

- 1.2 Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster
- 2.8 Technology

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FOREWORD

UNESCO is increasingly requested to provide an educational response in emergency and reconstruction settings. The organization is in the process of developing expertise in this field in order to be able to provide prompt and relevant assistance. It will offer guidance, practical tools and specific training for education policy-makers, officials and planners.

The fifth of the eleven objectives adopted by the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 explicitly focuses on the rights of children in emergencies. It stresses the importance of meeting “... the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct[ing] educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict”. The *Dakar Framework for Action* calls for national Education for All plans to include provision for education in emergency situations. Governments, particularly education ministries, have an important role to play in an area that has often been dominated by the actions of NGOs and United Nations agencies.

Moreover, the field of educational planning in emergencies and reconstruction is still young. It has to be organized into a manageable discipline, through further documentation and analysis, before training programmes can be designed. All the more so since accumulated institutional memories and knowledge in governments, agencies and NGOs working on education in emergencies, are in danger of being lost due both to the dispersion and disappearance of documents, and to high staff turnover in both national and international contexts. Most of the expertise is still in the heads of practitioners and needs to be collected, since memories fade fast. Diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must now be more thoroughly documented and analyzed before they disappear.

The International Institute for Educational Planning’s (UNESCO-IIEP) larger programme on education in emergencies and reconstruction involves not only this *Guidebook*, but also a series of country specific

analyses. They concern the restoration of education systems in countries as diverse as Burundi, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sudan and Timor-Leste. In addition, IIEP is producing global thematic policy-related studies on issues such as coordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide range of studies to build the knowledge needed. The broader task includes the publication and dissemination of the *Guidebook* for education officials and the agencies assisting them, and developing training materials for a similar audience. Details of the objectives of the *Guidebook's* publication may be found in *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction'.

Through this programme, IIEP will make its contribution to the discipline of education in emergencies and reconstruction. Its hope is to enrich the quality of the planning and management applied in this crucial field.

Khalil Mahshi
Director a.i., IIEP

IIEP'S MISSION

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* helps the International Institute for Educational Planning accomplish its mission of *strengthening the national capacities* of UNESCO Member States in the fields of policy-making, educational planning and administration. The Institute pursues this mission by carrying out four complementary functions:

- The *training* of national senior educational personnel and teaching staffs and institutions.
- *Research* and studies pertaining to educational policy-making, planning and administration.
- The *dissemination* of the results of its work (publications, research workshops, policy forums) among policy-makers, civil servants, research workers, administrators and representatives of educational cooperation agencies.
- *Operational support* to specific countries, as well as advisory services to agencies, based on requests.

Above all, the *Guidebook* will contribute to IIEP's endeavours to coordinate existing knowledge and experience gained on this subject, and to promote research into new concepts and methods of educational planning likely to further economic and social development.

INTRODUCTION TO THE **GUIDEBOOK**

Access to education is a fundamental tool for child protection. Education inherently provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. In appropriate security conditions, physical protection may be enhanced by the provision of adult supervision and a safe place to learn and play. Psychosocial protection is offered through opportunities for self-expression, the expansion of social networks and access to structure and regular routines. By placing children in the social role of learners, education gives children a sense of purpose and self-worth. Finally, education contributes to the cognitive protection of children affected by conflict or crises by addressing specific living conditions that arise from conflict (landmine awareness, health issues), strengthening children’s analytical abilities, and giving children the tools they need to develop skills for citizenship and life in peace. Education saves lives; education sustains life. It is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises.

This Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction aims to support educational authorities in providing equal access to education of quality for children affected by conflict or disaster.

THE READER

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* (hereafter referred to as the *Guidebook*) is addressed primarily to staff of ministries of education, including national, provincial and district level planners and managers, in countries affected by conflict or natural disasters, or hosting

refugees from a neighbouring state. This is the first time that detailed guidance on planning education in emergencies and reconstruction has been prepared specifically from this perspective.

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of UN organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in support of ministries to promote education for emergency-affected populations. Staff of those agencies will benefit from a fuller awareness of the ways in which they can strengthen national capacities for planning and management of education in and after periods of emergency.

In many countries, some aspects of education are covered by ministries, educational authorities or organizations other than the Ministry of Education. There may be a separate Ministry of Higher Education, for example. There may also be educational programmes for youth and persons with disabilities, or specific programmes that target gender inequity that are overseen by other ministries. Moreover, ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Agriculture or the Ministry of Labour will be important partners for the Ministry of Education. These partners can help to determine whether the output of the education system actually corresponds with the needs in the labour market. Experts from these sectors may also be important sources of information in the drafting of education plans, curriculum reforms or teachers' conditions of service. In this *Guidebook*, however, for brevity we shall refer to the Ministry of Education as shorthand for all ministries handling education matters.

In many situations of emergency and reconstruction, external agencies assume responsibility for a smaller or larger part of the

education system. In some situations, the government simply may not have control on the ground. Here, the *Guidebook* refers to the ‘authority’ responsible for education in those areas. The reader may make the necessary adjustments to take account of this fact in countries where education is covered by multiple ministries or authorities, or by different non-state actors.

EACH SITUATION IS DIFFERENT

The *Guidebook* presents examples of the problems faced in different kinds of emergencies, and suggests policy options and strategies that have been found useful in such situations (see the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.3*, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’, for information on the typology used: different types and phases of emergencies and different population groups). It must be stressed, however, that each emergency situation is different: each conflict or disaster takes its own particular trajectory, carries its own history and affects a particular country or countries differently depending on specific traditions in the field of education and culture, and specific economic and social problems and possibilities. The suggestions offered in the *Guidebook* thus constitute a checklist of points to consider. The *Guidebook* should not be considered a universally applicable model of activities to be undertaken, nor is it a static document. Care must always be taken to adjust the strategies and suggestions with regard to the local situation.

STRUCTURE OF THE GUIDEBOOK

This *Guidebook* is organized in five sections – one introductory section and four thematic sections:

- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners
- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

The first section provides an introduction and overview to the *Guidebook* and planning education in emergencies and reconstruction. The last four sections of the *Guidebook* cover a comprehensive range of topics relevant to education in emergencies and reconstruction. Every section consists of several chapters pertaining to the theme of the section. Each chapter starts with an overview of the context and the factors that influence educational response in relation to that topic: context and challenges. Next, each *Guidebook* chapter provides suggestions regarding possible strategies – actions that may be taken by the educational authorities to deal with these problems. In some cases, it is the educational authorities themselves that will be the education providers, while in other instances the main role of the educational authorities will be to coordinate and facilitate the work of other education providers.

Following the suggested strategies, in most chapters there is a list of ‘Tools and resources’ that can be utilized when implementing some of the suggested strategies. ‘Tools and resources’ contain an explanation of important concepts, action check-lists and a wide variety of tools used in planning and managing education. In each chapter, there are a number of useful case studies of how different countries have addressed the challenges under discussion.

Each chapter ends with a list of references and suggestions for further reading.

The *Guidebook* is presented in five spiral-bound booklets, alongside a CD-ROM version that contains all five sections of the *Guidebook*. Each of the booklets covers one of the sections, which permits users to refer to particular themes as they relate to the provision of education in emergencies. There are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, allowing readers to benefit from the linkages between topics.

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION 2

This section addresses the topics of access to and inclusion in education during emergencies and reconstruction. The first half of the section, *Chapters 2.1 to 2.5*, pays specific attention to access and inclusion in reference to rural populations, gender, ethnicity/political affiliation/religion, children with disabilities and child soldiers. *Chapter 2.6*, ‘Learning spaces and school facilities’, discusses the creation of safe learning spaces and providing children with daily basic needs during school hours.

Chapter 2.7 addresses how in emergencies open and distance learning could expand access to education and educational opportunities, which might not otherwise be available, to children, youth and adults. Following the discussion on open and distance learning, *Chapter 2.8*, ‘Technology’, explores the potential of technology to improve not only access to education but also the quality of education, educational data collection and analysis, and the communication, collaboration and information sharing networks among key actors in education during emergencies and reconstruction.

Issues pertaining to non-formal education can be found in *Chapter 2.9*, as it discusses providing out-of-school children, youth and adults with educational activities, including activities and subjects relevant to their protection, well-being and psychosocial needs. *Chapter 2.10*, ‘Early childhood development’, addresses issues pertaining to children’s developmental needs and preparing them socially, emotionally and intellectually for later education. The section concludes with *Chapter 2.11*, which focuses on post-primary education and providing access to educational opportunities after completion of primary schooling.

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RURAL POPULATIONS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that all emergency-affected children and youth, irrespective of whether they are in a rural or urban area, have access to educational opportunities.**
- **To provide children and youth in rural areas with learning opportunities that are relevant to their context and that may lead to further education or employment opportunities.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Even before conflict, rural areas tend to have fewer economic and human resources, and thus a greater prevalence of those household risk factors associated with reduced access to education: poverty and hunger, poor health, greater gender inequities, a high proportion of child labour and often reduced private and public funding for education. There is often a lack of awareness amongst educational planners and officials as well as within the international community about the educational needs of rural people. Schools that do exist will most frequently be primary schools, and with only limited opportunities for both preschool and post-primary education.

Moreover, the curriculum in place may not be relevant to rural economic opportunities. Because rural areas are often populated by minority groups and indigenous peoples who may already perceive themselves to be socially disadvantaged, it is crucial that existing social and economic tensions are not exacerbated by the neglect of education in rural areas.

Emergencies and civil conflict tend to aggravate these difficulties, and quite often educational systems in rural areas are the hardest hit. One reason is that rural-urban migration is frequently intensified during emergencies as cities are generally safer and provide more income-earning opportunities. Because teachers are among the most educated members of rural society and often have either more income or more income-generating options than others, during conflict they tend to migrate, either to urban areas or to a safe place in another country. Teachers that do not migrate may have less teaching experience or fewer educational qualifications. In situations where education has been politicized, teachers may be the targets of attacks and therefore may migrate to save their lives. As a result, education services in rural areas will normally require particular attention during emergencies and reconstruction.


Physical access in rural areas is, by its very nature, often particularly difficult. Rural areas often have a poorer infrastructure in place due to urban biases in the allocation of resources. Rural education, even in times of peace and stability, often suffers from lack of teaching materials and remoteness from information sources, and the fact that children must often travel long distances through difficult terrain to reach schools. These problems will also be compounded by emergencies. Rural areas are more likely to be cut off by fighting, landmines and other manifestations of conflict, or to be under the control of forces in conflict with government. This will make the route, and thus physical access

to school, very dangerous or even impossible for many rural children. Teachers, teacher trainers, school supervisors and even supplies may be cut off from rural areas. Similarly, centralized educational authorities and other education providers will have greater difficulties undertaking needs assessment, supervision and monitoring.

When children have to travel long distances across difficult terrain to get to the nearest school, parents may not send their young children and adolescent girls to school out of fear for their safety with regards to both sexual abuse and unexploded ordnances. In times of conflict, these security concerns are compounded. In rural areas in particular, schools may be targeted, used as places of recruitment, or taken over by military forces. Landmines or ongoing fighting may also block physical access to schools. In areas of intense fighting, schools may also be used as temporary shelter for displaced people. This will result in fewer schools, and thus decrease the supply of available rural education. International organizations and local NGOs that assist with education also tend to be concentrated in more densely populated areas for logistical and/or security reasons.

 **SIERRA LEONE: LESS ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS**

“For adolescents living in rural areas, schools are often too far away to attend, especially secondary schools. Those who wish to go to secondary school must find funding either to attend boarding school or pay for transportation back and forth from home each day. These costs are exorbitant and impossible for most Sierra Leoneans, and rural adolescents and youth are at a particular disadvantage. While reaching secondary schools in busy Freetown is also very difficult for many students, there are more secondary schools there in general.



In York district in the Western Area, adolescents can attend classes one through six, but the nearest secondary school is ten miles away. Although adolescents also believe education to be better in the towns, they do not have enough money for transportation. They ask for more secondary schools to be constructed in rural areas and that free transportation be provided for young people living a prohibitive distance away.”

Source: Lowicki and Pillsbury (2002: 18).

Because poverty is often particularly acute in rural areas, families are generally less able to contribute financially to their children’s education, either through school fees or payments for school materials and uniforms or decent clothing. Poor families may also desperately need their children’s labour for planting and harvesting, caring for younger children, caring for animals, gathering water, collecting firewood or generating income to help support the family. All of these things have a negative effect on rural children’s access to education, as families perceive the opportunity cost of educating their children to be greater than the gains derived from their labour. In emergencies, poverty generally increases as an often already weak infrastructure is destroyed and communities are cut off from basic services. Roads to markets may be blocked, bridges may be destroyed and agricultural fields may be mined, which greatly impedes economic activity. This can force children into becoming economically active to the detriment of their education.

In the reconstruction phase of an emergency, refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) may be reluctant to return to rural areas unless they are secure and present economic opportunities. Also, if difficulties of access or insecurity make it difficult to establish or expand schools in rural areas, refugees

or IDPs may further delay their return home. Moreover, the lack of resources and access to paid employment in rural areas after an emergency will discourage families from sending their children to school. Many families will focus their resources on rebuilding homes, restoring agricultural or other economic activities, and will have limited time and resources to help with school restoration. They may also use their children's labour for economic or domestic purposes.

One further problem relating to refugees and IDPs in rural areas, both during and after an emergency, concerns the difference in the quality of the education provided by assistance agencies and local educational authorities. Well-managed programmes in refugee or IDP camps in remote rural areas may, over the years, develop schools that are in some respects better than those in neighbouring local schools. Development assistance programmes may have neglected the neighbouring 'non-camp' schools due to small population size, a lack of resources or mandate. Humanitarian agencies may not realize the need to help local schools. This may create tensions and/or intensify discontent within the rural population over the educational services provided by the government.

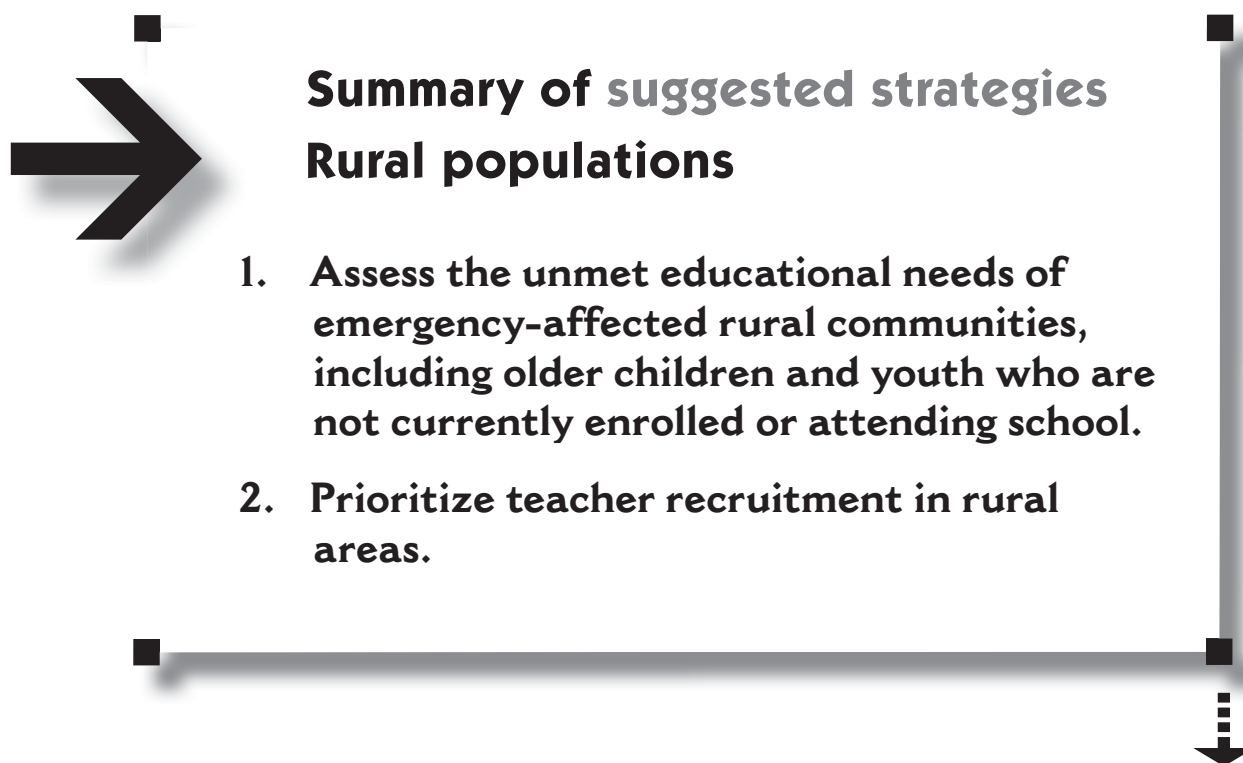
Rural children and youth are not the only ones who miss out on education during emergencies. Displaced children and youth residing in urban areas, either alone or with their families, may also lack the opportunity to attend school due to poverty, lack of personal documentation or other factors, such as schools overcrowding or security fears. Some difficulties are particular for urban areas. The majority of illegal refugees and IDPs, who are in hiding, live in cities.

For organizations seeking to assist urban refugees, IDPs, or nomadic peoples, the task is complicated; these populations are quite often dispersed and difficult to locate. In addition, urban

refugees or IDPs often refuse to be identified for fear of being sent back to their home country or to another refugee camp with fewer income-generating options, or simply out of fear for their security. Refugees and IDPs living in camps, which are frequently located in rural areas, are much more likely to receive an education. Whilst this topic focuses on the relative disadvantages of rural areas, many of the issues discussed will also apply to urban areas.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Educational authorities, planners and providers must keep the rural/urban distinction in mind when developing strategies for education in emergencies. Emergency-affected children can miss out on schooling, whether they live in urban or rural areas, though sometimes for different reasons. In general, ensuring access to education in rural areas requires particular efforts. Some key strategies are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies

Rural populations

- 1. Assess the unmet educational needs of emergency-affected rural communities, including older children and youth who are not currently enrolled or attending school.**
- 2. Prioritize teacher recruitment in rural areas.**



- 3. Ensure that education in emergency-affected rural areas is completely free and does not adversely affect a family's economic situation.**
- 4. Work to make physical access to rural schools safe.**
- 5. Work to ensure that rural populations receive the best quality education possible.**
- 6. Facilitate alternative schooling, such as distance and radio education for inaccessible areas.**
- 7. Align educational strategies with those of other relevant sectors for rural areas, such as strategies for agricultural development.**
- 8. Involve local communities in the education planning process.**
- 9. Establish a policy on education for nomadic peoples.**
- 10. Establish a policy regarding education for urban and self-settled refugees.**

Guidance notes

1. Assess the unmet educational needs of emergency-affected rural communities, including older children and youth who are not currently enrolled or attending school.

- Assessing children's access to education and learning is an essential part of both the planning and implementation of educational programmes, as the assessment will affect the quality of the education provided.

Also, consult the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'. Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', will also provide some general considerations related to needs assessment and access to schooling.



NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN RURAL TIMOR-LESTE

In 2001, Oxfam Great Britain and UNICEF conducted research on the educational needs of rural and remote East Timor in order to map and publicize these needs. Among the rural communities surveyed, there seemed to be no real sense as to how education could directly improve their lives. One of the exercises conducted as part of the research was called 'The Road of Learning'; this involved a small group of men and a small group of women talking separately about different activities they would learn at different stages of their lives. Examples of the results from Maliana township are as follows:

Women's learning

Learn personal hygiene

Go to school

Learn to cook

Learn to make *tais* (traditional weaving)

Men's learning

Help look after animals

Work in the gardens/help in the fields

Learn to ride a bicycle

Work by themselves in the field



Get married and look after children

Learn to use a sewing machine

Teach daughters to make *tais*

Pass on traditional knowledge to children

Build houses

Sell in the market

Get married

Learn traditional laws

Teach children

When asked what education issues they found important, some villagers discussed language difficulties in schools that arise because many teachers do not speak Portuguese. Others highlighted the need for adult literacy classes in Tetum (one of the two official languages). Still others talked about the long distances their children have to travel to attend junior high. Issues of youth leaving rural areas and moving to more urban areas were also mentioned, with those surveyed emphasizing that villages were losing some of their best talent, and that large numbers of young people in urban areas were unable to find work. As Fox (2002) explained, “the educational system rapidly draw[s] youth from the countryside and train[s] them for non-existent positions in urban areas”. While parents see that literacy is important in their changing world, those youth in rural areas who are successful in formal education often leave villages and do not return.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 91–93).



NEWLY ACCESSIBLE AREAS IN ANGOLA

“With the end of the war and the success of de-mining operations, remote areas that were inaccessible during the war are opening up. The U.S. Committee for Refugees (2002) quoted relief officials as estimating that possible 800,000 people living in newly accessible areas had been mostly cut off from government services for many years. USCR (2002) reports that Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) recorded mortality figures ‘nearly four times greater than what is internationally accepted as the threshold for an emergency’ among civilians in these areas. Rapid assessments in newly accessible areas have also revealed that seven out of 10- children did not have access to learning opportunities.”

Source: Bethke and Braunschweig (2003: 12).

- Ensure that national education statistics are disaggregated by region and, if possible, by district. See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).'*
 - Seek differentiation between educational statistics for urban and rural areas.
 - Train educational planners in use of such differentiated statistics in the design of differentiated educational offers.

2. Prioritize teacher recruitment in rural areas.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'*.)

There is generally a shortage of teachers in rural areas. It may be appropriate for governments to intervene regarding the destination of teachers. This may be achieved in a variety of ways.

- Consider offering teachers incentives such as higher pay, a housing or food provision, or subsidies to work in difficult rural areas. Especially in areas of return, teachers may need a guarantee of income and security/job stability to agree to teach there. One solution would be for the Ministry of Education to agree to finance teacher salaries for a minimum period (for example for at least a year).
- Provide teacher-training programmes for those living in rural areas. Recruitment of new teachers locally, especially women, may be necessary.
 - If the newly trained teachers are already from the area, they may be more likely to stay.
 - Training can be offered on the condition that teachers stay in the area after completion of the programme.

- Programmes that train community members to teach will ensure that teachers speak the same language as their students.
- Women should be recruited even if their education level is less than that of some male candidates, provided they have the aptitude for the work. They may stay in the area for family reasons, and will encourage girls' enrolment in school by providing positive role models.
- Explore the possibility of developing distance-learning programmes, countrywide, especially for teachers in inaccessible areas. This may facilitate the training and supervision of a large number of untrained teachers.



ATTRACTING TEACHERS TO REMOTE AREAS IN SRI LANKA

In Sri Lanka, rural education has traditionally been of inferior quality and enrolment and completion rates are still significantly lower in rural than in urban areas. During almost 20 years of civil war, many IDPs have been displaced to remote and/or marginally secure regions of the country, exacerbating the problem of teacher shortage in already overcrowded schools in those regions. In order to encourage teacher recruitment to these areas, the Ministry of Education has made financing available and implemented an incentive and training scheme for those teachers willing to work in 'hardship posts' in rural areas, for a specific period of time. The scheme involves cash stipends, the establishment of teacher quarters, transport subsidies and accelerated promotion, and has greatly helped to expand educational opportunities for displaced children.

Source: IASC (2002: 123); IBE (2004); ADB (2003).

- Review the forms of professional training and other support that will be offered to rural teachers.
 - Train mentors (senior teachers trained to support new teachers in their schools).
 - Mobilize teacher-training teams who periodically observe and provide feedback on teachers' lessons, vacation courses, radio programmes.
 - Particular efforts must be made to provide rural schools with the same material and equipment as in more accessible areas. In those instances where good and regular supplies of learning materials are not available, teachers should be trained to make the most of their surroundings. Guidance on how to use local resources and material available from nature can help protect schools from the negative economic and structural consequences of emergencies.



USING LOCAL RESOURCES IN THE CLASSROOM: PHYSICS LESSONS IN TIMOR-LESTE

Banana leaf spines have a smooth track down the centre, custom made for marbles to roll down. Propping one up on a chair, marbles can be released from different heights and their velocity measured as they race across the floor. Then kinetic and potential energy can be compared to see how much was lost to friction.

A one-wheeled, rubber-band powered car can be made with cardboard, palm-frond spines and an aluminium can. If the force given by the wound-up rubber band and the distance the car rolls are measured, a simple bit of calculus can be used to determine the amount of energy used.

With kebab sticks, a model of the human arm and hand can be made to demonstrate muscles, tendons, ligaments and the different types of joints.

Source: Gabrielson (2002) in Nicolai (2004: 125).

3. Ensure that education in emergency-affected rural areas is completely free and does not adversely affect a family's economic situation.

Children in rural areas often miss out on education due to the direct costs such as fees, the need for clean and undamaged clothing (or even school uniforms), and purchase of materials, as well as indirect costs, such as time spent not helping with family duties and livelihood. This applies also to very poor urban migrants, whose children may be withdrawn from school to undertake scavenging or other activities. Genuinely free education will give poor children a better chance of attending school.

- If necessary, solicit support from the international community for building or rehabilitating schools and classrooms in emergency-affected rural areas as well as for providing teaching and learning materials, uniforms/clothing and other supplies to affected rural and, in some cases, urban populations.
- Consider abolishing documentation and registration requirements, as they may force children and youth to travel long distances for registration, or may prevent access to education for those children without documents.
- Consider abolishing or relaxing rules about school uniforms that are costly for poor families.
- Consider the implementation of school feeding programmes (see also the 'Tools and resources' section in the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*, for more information on school feeding). Look for ways to make these programmes sustainable, for example by establishing school gardens supported by the parent-teacher association.



ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR INTERNALLY DISPLACED CHILDREN

“[In Colombia] children are forced to leave school when they are displaced from their homes. In a study conducted in the capital Bogotá, in 2000 it was found that 77 per cent of children who attended school before displacement did not continue studies afterwards.”

“Where government schools are available, internally displaced children may be prohibited from attending because they lack the identification documents needed to enrol. In Colombia, families driven off their land by paramilitary or guerrilla groups have been forced to keep their identities hidden for fear of being targeted. As a result, their children have no access to health care or state services, including school. In 1997, the Sri Lankan Ministry of Education allowed children without birth certificates to attend school, but refused to allow them to sit for examinations or participate in sports.”

Source: Nicolai (2003: 74); Machel (2001).

- Consider the possibility of compensating families for the loss of their child’s income through school feeding programmes.
- Consider implementing both flexible school hours and a school calendar that do not conflict with children’s family obligations such as chores at home or in the fields, or other tasks which may contribute to the family’s income.

4. Work to make physical access to rural schools safe.

(See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.5*, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’, and *Chapter 2.6*, ‘Learning spaces and school facilities’, for general considerations related to school safety.)

Access can be organized in the open air (in some climatic conditions), with temporary shelter (e.g. tents or plastic sheeting)

or school buildings. Issues to be considered by national and local educational authorities, as well as other education providers, include the following:

- Are the schools in an area of ongoing fighting?
 - Has there been communication with all parties to the conflict regarding the schools' designation as a 'safe area'? The Rome Statute of 1998, which outlines the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court, includes protection for educational institutions under Article 8. Therefore, the targeting of schools and educational institutions can be prosecuted as a war crime.
- Are parents afraid to send their children to school, as they fear for their safety en route? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.2, 'Gender', and Chapter 2.5, 'Former child soldiers', for a discussion of how to make schools safer from recruitment/abduction.)
 - Have landmines been removed from paths leading to schools?
 - Is it possible to enlist adult escorts or older children to escort young children to school?
 - Can a 'buddy system' be implemented so children never walk alone?
 - Can the community organize transportation for children from particular areas?
 - If children must walk in the dark, how are they seen? Do they have reflectors or reflective tape on their clothing or school bags?
- If there is a shortage of classrooms, what alternative, safe learning spaces can be used on a temporary basis?
 - Shelter provided by trees.
 - Roof or frame constructed of wood or bamboo and covered with a plastic sheet or tarpaulin.
 - School tents.

- Non-school property such as gyms, warehouses, unused government buildings, or religious buildings – if such facilities are safe.
- What spaces can be used for recreation and sports, preferably in proximity to schools?
- Who must grant permission for such spaces to be used?

5. Work to ensure that rural populations receive the best quality education possible.

- When possible, recruit teachers that:
 - Know the local language and customs.
 - Are accountable and acceptable to the local community.
- Recruit local volunteer teacher aides, if possible.
- Allow flexibility in curricula and vocational training so that specific rural skills and needs may be addressed in schools, for example local agricultural, environmental, local and health topics.
 - Does the curriculum relate to local content, customs, livelihoods and development activities?
 - Does the curriculum take teachers' qualifications and training into account?
 - Does the curriculum make use of locally available skills, knowledge and other resources?
- Give early attention to material supports for learning.
 - What materials are already available?
 - Chalkboards, writing slates, exercise books, pencils and pens?
 - What materials can learners, particularly older children or adults, develop?
 - Maps, calendars, or diagrams?
 - Core reading materials?
- Ensure the best quality possible for educational facilities.

- Are educational facilities well maintained?
- Do educational facilities have good ventilation and lighting?
- Do they have separate toilet facilities for boys and girls?
- Is safe drinking water available?
- Can local leaders and parents help maintain school facilities?

See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a checklist on attributes of a good-quality school as perceived by pupils, parents and the community, and teachers.

6. Facilitate alternative schooling, such as distance and radio education for inaccessible areas.

(See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.7, ‘Open and distance learning’ and Chapter 4.7, ‘Vocational education and training’.)

- Which teachers do not have access to in-service training and further professional studies? (Review the questions in the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.4, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
- What are the educational needs/preferences of the children and youth that do not have access?
 - Primary or some form of accelerated learning to re-enter the formal system?
 - Post-primary – formal secondary, tertiary?
 - Basic literacy?
 - Vocational/skills training?
 - General knowledge regarding health issues, citizenship, human rights, environment?
 - For which of the above educational needs/preferences is distance education a viable option?

- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?
- How can international experience with open and distance learning – in emergency and in non-emergency situations – be drawn upon?
- Who will adapt/develop the learning materials – existing teachers and administrators or an outside organization in consultation with educational authorities? (*Note: adaptation is much quicker than developing new materials and testing them. It is crucial that content and examples fit the local context, however.*)
 - Consider if existing materials from a country with similar conditions, curricula and language of study could be adapted, with permission from the authorities concerned (this saves time, cost and benefits from the pilot testing, evaluation and improvements already carried out).
 - Train the writing team of educators on the objectives of the programme, and how to prepare the materials. If possible, provide them with examples of existing programmes, guidelines and templates for open and distance learning.
- How will the distance learning materials incorporate the existing curriculum?
- Are the certifications obtained by distance education courses valid in the student's home/host country?
- Who will produce and deliver lessons that will be offered via radio, television, or online?
 - Identify teachers or other educators.
 - Provide them with training relative to the instructional medium to be used.

7. Align educational strategies with those of other relevant sectors for rural areas, such as strategies for agricultural development.

Unfortunately, education sector strategies do not often address the poor or displaced in rural areas. Similarly, agricultural and rural development strategies do not always discuss how to provide education and training for rural people. (White, 2002; Taylor and Mulhall, 2003). Nevertheless, in rural areas, education will necessarily involve a multiplicity of providers, public and private, both internal and external to the 'education system'.

- Create mechanisms that can be used for periodic consultation and planning among different sectors.
 - Consider establishing a common working group within the ministries of education and agriculture (and other ministries where relevant) to deal with rural people's education and training needs.
- Encourage the development of strong links between rural employers and the schools.
- Encourage rural employers to offer apprenticeships and work placements.
- Encourage rural employers to identify and communicate unmet basic learning needs to education administrators.
- Allow for flexibility within rural schools. Given that many children will be involved in labour on the land, the system could allow for seasonal shifts in labour demands or operate on an alternating school/work schedule. This is not to say that child labour should in anyway be encouraged, but rather that the economic realities of conflicts and early reconstruction should be acknowledged if children are to be allowed meaningful access to education.



VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN RURAL BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA

In 2002, a programme was started to enhance the opportunities and quality of secondary education in the rural areas of Bosnia Herzegovina. The programme focuses on collaboration between schools and the labour market at local and regional levels. After conducting a labour market information survey that identified high-priority areas for short courses and new occupations, 25 schools were selected and paired with local employment services in the different municipalities. Together they identified employment and training sectors relevant for their areas. Under the programme, 36 new professions were identified, including some in the food industry and in horticultural production. The challenge proved to be the training of teachers for these new subjects, and extensive in-service training and 'mentor training' has been essential.

Source: White (2002: 28).

- Collect data on rural people's economic activities, education and training needs, and review their relevance in reference to current and future labour market requirements. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.7, 'Vocational education and training', Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources' and Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)').
- Promote a lifelong learning approach by developing and implementing policies that enable schools and educational institutions to offer 'second-chance' education and learning programmes. This may involve a combination of formal and non-formal activities within existing schools and institutions, for both out-of-school youth and adults.

- Establish an overview of all relevant formal and non-formal education and training providers in rural areas. The list may include:
 - Primary and secondary schools.
 - Private companies and individuals.
 - University outreach programmes.
 - Agricultural research institutes and extension services.
 - Commodity based institutes.
 - NGOs.
 - Farmer associations and organizations.
 - Employers.


8. Involve local communities in the education planning process.

See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.6*, ‘Structure of the education system’, for more information.



EDUCO SCHOOLS IN EL SALVADOR – INCREASING RURAL ACCESS THROUGH DECENTRALIZATION AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

El Salvador’s Community-Managed Schools Programme (*EDUCO: Educación con Participación de la Comunidad*) has been remarkably successful in expanding educational opportunities for the poor in rural areas. Decentralization has also been instrumental in getting families and communities more involved in their children’s schooling. In 1990, education indicators in El Salvador were among the worst in Latin America, with high levels of repetition and dropout. The net enrolment rate was 79 per cent, the dropout rate 15.3 per cent, and the average annual promotion rate was 77 per cent. By 1997, education indicators had already shown significant improvement, with the net enrolment rate increasing to 88 per cent, the dropout



rate decreasing to 4.5 per cent, and the annual promotion rate increasing to 87 per cent.

The Ministry of Education in El Salvador initiated the innovative EDUCO Programme in 1991, with support from the World Bank and IDB, as well as parents' and teachers' associations and local NGOs. The programme, which envisages a self-managed, private form of education, was intended to address coverage and quality problems in rural areas. In each of the EDUCO schools, there is autonomous management by an elected Community Education Association, drawn from the parents of students. In these schools, the associations are contracted by the ministry to deliver a given curriculum to an agreed number of students, and are then responsible for contracting (and dismissing) teachers, and for equipping and maintaining the schools.

By March 1996, about 1,700 parents' associations were managing 3,550 classrooms and serving 160,000 students – about 15 per cent of that age group. By the end of 1996, the ministry had expanded the autonomous model to all of its 4,000 elementary and middle schools. The results thus far show that families and communities are much more involved with schooling, which suggests that this decentralized model for education service provision is successful in this context. It may also provide a model for a broader reform of the national basic education system.

Source: World Bank (1998).

- Encourage a high level of community involvement through the promotion of parent-teacher associations and other such groups that demonstrate community support for schools. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'.)
 - What opportunities will community members have to express their ideas on education?

- Encourage community volunteers to ensure schools are safe and to help with school projects such as constructing new classrooms or rehabilitating existing ones.
- Encourage school clustering to facilitate peer exchange of experience, information and resources.

9. Establish a policy on education for nomadic peoples.

- Carefully examine the mobility of nomadic peoples, and use this information for school location planning.
 - Many pastoral groups have semi-permanent ‘base camps’ that can be mapped.
 - School mapping should include the participation of the nomadic children and adults.
- As nomadic encampments are often far from school, consider building boarding schools.
 - Such schools should be located at the crossroad towns or at well-known stopping places of the nomadic groups, to facilitate communication between boarding children and their parents.
- Use ‘feeder schools’ that children attend for the first two or three grades of primary school, and from which children are fed into boarding schools.
- In targeting this population, models of educational provision should include a combination of fixed and mobile schools, as well as traditional schools and non-formal schools.
 - Ensure that non-formal schooling has the same status as formal schooling.
- Strengthen educational radio, specifically targeting the nomadic population.
- Provide correspondence and distance education courses for nomadic peoples who are highly mobile.
- Use sensitization and awareness-raising campaigns to improve nomadic peoples’ attitudes toward schooling.

10. Establish a policy regarding education for urban and self-settled refugees.


Urban and self-settled refugees need formal recognition and a status that grants them access to education. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*.)

- Recognizing and protecting urban and self-settled refugees and IDPs should be an important component of the Ministry of Education's strategy and policy.
- Improve coordination between educational authorities and aid agencies in order to design access strategies that accommodate the urban migrants living in the cities.
- Establish special programmes to help refugee students make the transition to host country schools.
- Consider the implications that incorporating urban refugees or IDPs into existing schools has on local school systems.
- Set up schemes to help children living on the streets.



URBAN CHILDREN LIVING ON THE STREETS

The direct and indirect impacts of conflict can drive rural children out of their homes into urban areas and on to the streets of big cities. Without family or local community support, these children lack the protection, supervision, and direction of responsible adults. Urban street children are often at a higher risk of HIV/AIDS infection due to sexual exploitation and substance abuse. They depend upon the informal sector and often on the sex industry and petty crime to survive. In addition, depending upon the nature of the conflict, street children may be predominantly from particular religious or ethnic backgrounds, making them more vulnerable to abuse and stigmatization. For children living on the streets, education therefore becomes particularly important as a



tool of protection. Carefully designed education programmes for urban street children are needed. These may include apprenticeships that allow children to earn money whilst learning and provide them with practical skills. Links should be formed with local companies and industries so that once these children are trained in useful skills, they will then have a better chance of entering the formal job market.

Source: Limmat Foundation (1999).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES


1. ATTRIBUTES OF A GOOD SCHOOL

AS SEEN BY:

PUPILS

- Good relations with teachers
- Help with learning difficulties
- Good communication with parents.

PARENTS AND COMMUNITY

- Accessible to all children
 - Safety, at school and en route between the home and school
 - Qualified teachers, sensitive to local customs and conditions
 - Good learning environment
 - Good relations and accountability to the community
 - Good performance in examinations.
- 



TEACHERS

- Decent salaries, paid on time
- Realistic curriculum with appropriate learning materials
- Manageable class size, with motivated pupils
- Good performance in examinations
- Support for teaching in the form of materials and advice
- Collegial teaching staff
- Impartial and honest school management
- Recognition of achievement and opportunities to advance professionally.

ADMINISTRATORS AND INSPECTORS

- Good performance in examinations
- Good record of attendance
- Strong working relationships among staff
- Extracurricular activities
- Good relations with the community
- Orderly, safe and well-managed school environment.

Source: World Bank (2000).

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MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To achieve gender parity, equality and equity in education, even and especially during emergencies and early reconstruction.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Exposure to conflict is likely to affect any child's educational opportunities. Its impact on access to schooling, however, will be different for boys and girls, according to their age and maturity. Gender has a significant impact upon a child's life from a very early age. For example, in many societies, discrimination against girls begins when they are young – they are given less nutritious food, work earlier, and do not have the same educational opportunities as their male siblings. In most cultures, discrimination against girls becomes more apparent as children get older – girls are less likely to stay in school after the early years of primary education and, in some places, may

DAKAR 'EDUCATION FOR ALL' (EFA) GOALS RELATED TO GENDER

- Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
- Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women.

Source: World Education Forum (2000).

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

Promote gender equality and empower women. Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.

Source: World Bank (2000).

UN GIRLS' EDUCATION INITIATIVE

The goal of this 10-year programme is to improve the quality and level of girls' education, a fundamental human right and an essential element of sustainable human development.

Source: UNESCO (2002).

be subject to early marriage, which generally results in their dropping out of school.

While some vulnerabilities (such as susceptibility to disease) decrease as children grow older, maturity often brings new threats. At the onset of puberty, and sometimes before, girls are vulnerable to sexual abuse, rape, kidnapping and trafficking. While these situations occur during times of peace, they are compounded during times of conflict, as normal protection systems within the family and community are less effective or cannot be sustained.

Standard 1, on access and learning environment, in the handbook, *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction*, deals with equal access: “All individuals have equal access to quality and relevant education opportunities” (INEE, 2004: 41) (see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 1.1, ‘Introduction’, for more information on the standards). Achieving equal access will require appropriate tackling of gender issues.

Situations of emergency change the dynamics of gender – dynamics that may be reinforced or challenged in the classroom – through role models, curriculum and teaching methods. For example, the diversion of men and boys into armed forces is likely to increase the workload for girls and women, and may also alter their status in the family and in society. This can be both an opportunity and a barrier to enhancing girls’ access to education. Being in an emergency may deprive young men and women of their traditional gendered tasks and from access to traditional rites that cultivate their gender identity (rites and ceremonies of passage to adulthood, initiation rituals, etc.). This may increase alienation and despair. At the same time, emergencies may, by necessity or opportunity, create an environment for more equal gender roles and opportunities. For example, girls residing in

refugee or internally displaced person (IDP) camps may have more opportunities to go to school than in their home country as international organizations often place a priority on girls' education, and some basic needs are potentially met by food rations, etc. In a refugee or IDP setting, it may also be possible to recruit more women as teachers to serve as role models and counsellors for girls, if there are enough educated women in the population. However, this may not always be the case, especially in rural populations. Moreover, inaccessibility may mean that female education supervisors do not visit refugee and IDP camps regularly. Interruptions of secondary education make it difficult to recruit women teachers for the re-opening or expansion of schooling, especially in protracted emergencies.

Emergencies can also exaggerate gender inequalities. Particularly in conflict, there is a danger that masculine and feminine roles and stereotypes will be reinforced. Aggressive and violent behaviour mainly from men and boys is sometimes praised and often considered necessary. The 'masculinity' of war may instruct men and boys to devalue their bodiliness and emotionality. Sexual abuse and harassment thus tend to increase in crisis situations, and are made worse with the breakdown of governmental and community protection structures. Rape is frequently used by soldiers and militia as a weapon of war to harm a particular community or ethnic group, and women and young girls are at particular risk. In crisis situations, for many, commercial sex or the exchange of sex for protection or food may become survival strategies.

Emergencies may exacerbate some of the practical barriers to equal access, especially for girls. There may be an increase in the number of child mothers due to cases of rape. These

young women may be harassed, humiliated and forced to drop out of school. Head-teachers may themselves refuse to allow child mothers to attend school. Because girls can be at risk of rape or sexual assault during daily activities such as fetching water or firewood, attending or travelling to school or going to the latrine, families often severely curtail their daughters' movements. Additionally, with the onset of menarche, girls have special sanitary needs. In areas of crisis, as well as peace, lack of sanitary towels and soap can inhibit girls entering public areas. All of these factors disrupt girls' school attendance, and in some cases result in their dropping out of school completely.

During and after conflict, educational authorities must carefully consider factors that are preventing girls from attending school and take steps to increase their participation. On the other hand, it is wrong to define 'gender' issues solely as the concerns of girls and women. This is a serious and often punitive mistake with regard to many issues, school access among them, as boys and male youth are also vulnerable, and compromised by narrow gender stereotypes. Boys may not be as vulnerable in numbers as large as their female counterparts, but the risks and difficulties facing boys are serious none the less.

In situations where children are recruited or abducted to serve as soldiers, boys and adolescent males are particularly at risk. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.5, 'Former child soldiers'*.) Military work threatens the physical and mental well-being of boys and generally prevents them from continuing their education. While girls are also at risk of military recruitment, the threat is generally more serious for boys. In addition to the risks associated with military recruitment, boys may also be called upon to sneak out of secure areas (such as camps, villages or neighbourhoods in

more-or-less safe areas) to visit their families' land in the areas from which they fled. Boys may also migrate in search of work, often to obtain jobs in extremely dangerous occupations such as mining or in the sex industries.

For both boys and girls, growing older often means that they are increasingly able to work and increasingly susceptible to exploitative labour. During and following wars, economic pressures often overwhelm families, including those headed by youth. Boys and girls must often contribute to securing food and shelter for their families. Parents begin to think about the cost of education and potential long-term benefits compared to the immediate gains of their children's labour. In areas of crisis, where resources are scarce, there are many children (especially girls that do attend school), who drop out as soon as they are able to perform some income-earning task. The necessity to contribute to their families' income, therefore, can prevent both boys and girls from starting, attending, or continuing school.

CONCEPTS RELATED TO GENDER

Gender: Refers to the different characteristics of men and women that are socially determined. In contrast, the term 'sex' refers to the different biological characteristics between males and females. Gender refers to the different roles men and women have in a particular society. It defines culturally acceptable attitudes and behaviours of men and women, including their responsibilities, advantages, disadvantages, opportunities and constraints. Gender roles are learned, vary within society or culture, and are thus changeable.

Parity: Refers merely to numerical proportions. In education, gender parity would involve the same proportion of boys and girls entering the school, or the same proportion represented in





overall enrolment figures, or the same proportion of candidates sitting an examination.

Equality: Refers to a much wider concept than parity, and signifies equality in both number and quality. In education, gender equality means that boys and girls experience the same advantages or disadvantages in terms of access, opportunities, treatment and outcomes.

Equity: Goes beyond parity, equality and the administrations of justice. It embraces the notions of fairness, social justice and the 'level playing ground'. It addresses the need to right the wrongs, and the fact that there are some severely disadvantaged groups in society, and that equal treatment of all social groups will not bring about equal outcomes. Providing equity will imply providing disadvantaged groups, for example girls, with favourable conditions.

Sources: NRC (2004); Obura (2004).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies, most girls are likely to have reduced access to education, while others may have new educational opportunities, for example if they move nearer to a school, or the arrival of humanitarian agencies is accompanied by the construction of new education facilities. Gender issues should be considered in relation to all the topics covered in the *Guidebook*. Readers are also encouraged to review the guidance notes in the general overview of the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.5*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', for a thorough discussion of access and inclusion. Some key strategies are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies

Gender

- 1. Review the gender-related goals found in the Education for All (EFA) declaration, Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), and adopt appropriate targets for emergency-affected populations.**
- 2. Ensure that gender disaggregated data are collected and analysed as a matter of urgency.**
- 3. Assess the threats to safety – real and perceived – in school or travelling to and from school, for boys and girls respectively.**
- 4. Make schooling safer.**
- 5. Design physical facilities to make education more accessible for girls.**
- 6. Consider ways of making the school environment more accessible and inviting to girls.**
- 7. Consider ways of making education available to young mothers.**
- 8. Consider educational activities such as off-site schooling, flexible school hours or distance education, in order to meet specific needs of older girls and boys.**

Guidance notes

1. Review the gender-related goals found in the Education for All (EFA) declaration, Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), and adopt appropriate targets for emergency-affected populations. (See text box on page 32 of this chapter.)

- What are the gender issues in your country, and how do they relate to whether these international goals can be achieved in general, and in emergency-affected areas?
- Determine whether international donors have specific policies on reaching gender equity in education. Do these policies agree with or conflict with your country's strategy for reaching gender equity?
 - Communicate your country's gender goals to the donors.
 - Discuss methods to reach the same aim – education for all – even when there are conflicting policies/approaches.
 - Consider forming partnerships with donors and other organizations in order to increase girls' access to schooling (see point 1 in the 'Tools and resources' section for specific suggestions).

2. Ensure that gender disaggregated data are collected and analysed as a matter of urgency.

It is important throughout the emergency to collect statistical data on school enrolments, retention and teachers, etc., with separate data for female and male teachers, and for female and male students. The data should be improved over time (e.g. grade level (school year) of students, examination results, teacher qualifications

and training, infrastructure, equipment, textbooks, supplies) to constitute an orderly 'education management information system'. Data should also be collected with the help of small household and community group surveys to determine which boys and girls are not in school. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).'*)

- In many countries and emergency situations, girls tend to drop out of primary school after the first three years. Since completion of primary school is a key educational objective, determine through consultations and household sample surveys which girls stay in school, which girls drop out and *why*.
- Consult with teachers, students, parents and community members to determine reasons why girls and boys are not attending school and, if applicable, their daily activities and schedules that prevent them from attending school. (See also the 'Tools and resources' section for examples of barriers to girls' education and possible responses).



RECOMMENDATIONS TO PREVENT FEMALE DROP-OUT IN IRC REFUGEE SCHOOLS IN GUINEA

- 1. To improve young girls' perceptions of their academic capabilities.**
 - Gender training programme for all teachers.
 - Showcase girls' work in early primary grades.
 - 'It's not too late' campaign for girls aged 13 or older to return to school.
- 2. To increase adult involvement in their daughters' education.**
 - '20-minute a Day' campaign for parents to hear their daughters read.



- Parent/daughter school days.
 - Female education campaigns in target areas of low enrolment and high dropout.
3. **To provide academic support for girls who have no adult assistance.**
 - Assist female students living alone to organize study groups.
 - Organize an academic 'buddy system' where each of these girls is paired up with a girl from the next class up.
 - Organize monthly conferences with the education coordinator for the zone.
 4. **To ease the economic burden that school poses for girls.**
 - Provide clothing.
 - Implement scholarship programmes for the very poor who are academically talented.
 - Provide a space in school for income-generating activities.
 5. **To address reproductive health and contraceptive issues.**
 - Start contraceptive education sooner (at grade three).
 - Revise the contraceptive curriculum for upper primary, including negotiation skills.
 - Organize young men's social clubs to discuss responsible sexuality (girls' clubs already exist).
 - Organize reproductive health seminars with parents.
 - Experiment with conducting separate classes for pregnant students.
 - Initiate cooperation with United Nations agencies and other international NGOs regarding sanction for any worker who impregnates a student.

Source: Rhodes, Walker and Martor (1998: 21–23).



GENDER AND ACCESS: THE CASE OF MEDICAL HIGH SCHOOLS IN KOSOVO

Whilst girls constitute 48 per cent of Kosovo's primary school student population, in secondary schools, female dropout is more common. Only 42 per cent of the secondary school student population are girls, and a large proportion of the girls attend so-called medical high schools. Serious questions can be asked about the relevance of the education provided in the high schools, and job opportunities for graduates who are poor. The schools have therefore been threatened with closure.

The popularity and social significance of the medical high schools is important, however. First, it is the only option of secondary schooling available to many girls, especially from rural areas. Second, parents clearly understand that a job may not be waiting for their daughters when they graduate from medical high school. However, the skills and knowledge gained at a medical high school are considered useful, regardless of the employment situation. Unemployed graduates can still apply their medical knowledge and skills to 'help their families' as daughters, wives and mothers. This idea of medical high schools became particularly significant during what some Kosovar Albanians referred to as the 'war years' (1990-1999). As a medical high-school director recalled, "Medical high-school student graduates had a high status during the war because of their ability to aid others". Girls with medical high-school degrees aided the injured during the war, while in flight to refugee camps, and following their return to Kosovo.

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004).

3. Assess the threats to safety – real and perceived – in school, or travelling to and from school, for boys and girls respectively.

In many cases, parents hesitate to send their children, in particular their older daughters, to school when they are worried about insecurity or sexual harassment. If they belong to a minority group, there may be special hazards, and older girls may be held back from attending school. Standard 1, on analysis, in the MSEE handbook, deals with initial assessment: “A timely education assessment of the emergency situation is conducted in a holistic and participatory manner.” One of the key indicators for this standard is the conduction of an initial rapid education assessment, taking into account security and safety. When doing assessments, the participation of the concerned population is crucial. Standard 1 on community participation in the MSEE handbook requests that: “Emergency-affected community members actively participate in assessing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the education programme” (INEE, 2004: 14). To find out the threats perceived by the children and their families or community:

- Ask parents.
- Ask community groups such as women’s groups, community leaders.
- Ask children and youth (boys and girls) about their concerns, and their own and other children’s experiences.
- Ask head-teachers and teachers who live far away from school, especially women teachers.
- Rank the threats in order of severity, and according to what resources may be required to eliminate or reduce the threats.

4. Make schooling safer.

Once the threats have been identified, determine how access to education can be made safer. Standard 2, on access and learning environment, in the MSEE handbook, deals with protection and well-being: “learning environments are secure, and promote the protection and emotional well-being of learners” (INEE, 2004: 41). Standard 3 on access and learning environments regards facilities and request that these are “... conducive to the physical well-being of learners”. Consider the following:

- Children, particularly girls and minorities, are susceptible to abuse when travelling to and from educational activities.
 - In some situations, it may be possible to establish schools (or places of learning) that are closer to the students.
 - In extreme situations, more targeted interventions may be required.
 - Recruit parents or students from the community to escort at-risk children to school.
 - Minimize police or military escorts as their presence will help to militarize the school environment, and will also diminish the community’s responsibility for protection.
- Children are also vulnerable to abuse while at school. Teachers may abuse their authority by offering better grades or money to pressure girls for sexual favours or ‘dating.’ Girls may have sex with teachers for better grades. Students may also abuse or harass other students. Some of the ways student safety can be tackled include:
 - Incorporate a code of conduct into teachers’ and school administrators’ contracts. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3.2*, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’.) In addition to training the teachers

and administrators on this code of conduct, ensure that students are also trained or oriented.

- Students should be made aware of their rights with regard to sexual harassment, corporal punishment and discrimination.
- The code of conduct should specifically forbid sexual relations between teachers and students, stating that the teacher should be automatically dismissed and criminal proceedings initiated should any form of sexual relations occur.
- The code of conduct should define sexual harassment and punishments. These should be developed in collaboration with students to define the kinds of abuses that tend to occur, including sexual advances, fondling, lifting girls' dresses, boys entering girls' toilets or girls' dormitories.
- Administrators and teachers should be instructed to avoid stigmatizing those who are victims of abuse. In the case of sexual harassment of both boys and girls, this kind of stigmatization can permanently interrupt their education, as well as affect their emotional and social well-being.
- Develop multiple channels through which students can report abuses. Possibilities include:
 - Clarification of students' rights during the student orientation.
 - Designation of a female staff person in whom girls can confide.
 - Election of student representatives who can take issues forward to the school administration or the parent teacher association.

- Develop and inform all stakeholders about reporting procedures. Make information widely accessible through the use of posters, handbills, etc. Emphasis must be put on:
 - Confidentiality, meaning that information is kept private between consenting individuals. Information can only be shared with those who need to know in order to provide assistance and intervention, and only with the consent of the offended party.
 - Consent, implying mutual agreement. Informed consent means making an informed choice freely and voluntarily by persons in an equal power relationship.
- Consider alternatives such as all girls' schools if parents refuse to send their girls to school. In some cultures, it will also be necessary to ensure that female teachers teach girls.
- Ensure that women are represented on school management committees and support their input regarding school safety.



THE USE OF FEMALE CLASSROOM ASSISTANTS TO MINIMIZE SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF STUDENTS

In order to prevent male teachers from exploiting female students by trading good grades for sex, the International Rescue Committee (IRC) hired female classroom assistants for its refugee schools in Guinea. These assistants monitor the grading of students, provide confidential referral and counselling services, monitor the progress of students, organize academic extracurricular activities for girls and follow-up with parents who do not send their girls to school. In addition, the IRC provides training on gender-based violence issues for staff, teachers, parents, youth leaders and students.

Source: IRC (2003).

5. Design physical facilities to make education more accessible for girls.

To facilitate girls' participation in schooling, talk with girls, mothers and female teachers from the affected community to identify factors that they consider important. Participatory drawing/mapping of school compounds with girls and boys can assist in this process. Factors to consider are:

- School should not be too far from home; there should be a safe route (perhaps using escorts or buses).
- Facilities for girls and female teachers to pray should be made available.
- Water access and separate toilets for girls and boys and for teachers and students should be close to the classroom and preferably visible from the staffroom.
- If necessary, schools should have a provision of appropriate clothing and sanitary supplies.

6. Consider ways of making the school environment more accessible and inviting to girls.

- Place special emphasis on hiring and training women teachers, classroom assistants, administrators and other education workers.
- Review the curriculum and textbooks for gender bias, and eliminate and adapt content as necessary. Ensure that the text, as well as examples and illustrations, refer to both boys and girls. Make special efforts to include curriculum content that challenge dominant notions of masculinity and femininity, for example by using pictures/drawings of women performing traditional men's tasks and vice versa.
- Make special efforts to include elements in the curriculum and reference material that has special relevance for girls.

- Offer appropriate sports and recreation activities for girls.
- Offer education on reproductive health.
- Provide leadership opportunities for girls in the classroom and in the school.
- Train teachers on the importance of ensuring that girls have equal access to resources, including the teacher’s time and attention. This point is reflected in Standard 2 on teaching and learning in the MSEE handbook, and requires that “teachers and other education personnel receive periodic, relevant and structured training according to need and circumstances”. If teachers are expected to sensitize their students on gender issues, they themselves must first be sensitized.

7. Consider ways of making education available to young mothers.

- Ensure that head teachers do not refuse to allow young mothers to attend school.
- Make it possible for female students and teachers to bring their children to school, perhaps by providing nursery or preschools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.10, ‘Early childhood development’*).
- Consider providing food and other supplies for babies at the school.
- Organize home schools or evening classes, and set up a buddy system that allows girls to walk in groups from their homes.
- Organize non-formal literacy/numeracy programmes that are offered at flexible times and/or provide childcare.
- Organize distance education (for those who have completed primary education).



HOME SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS IN AFGHANISTAN

Afghanistan has one of the lowest literacy rates in the world; less than one third of the population over the age of 15 can read and write. Under the Taliban, it was estimated that only 39 per cent of boys and 3 per cent of girls had access to education. Most schools in Afghanistan were destroyed during the Soviet war after 1979 and about 85 per cent of the country's teachers fled.

Until November 2001, a large number of home-based schools had mushroomed in the major cities, mostly under female teachers who were no longer permitted to work in the formal sector. The Taliban responded to agencies' assistance to support these non-recognized schools by closing all externally supported home schools in 1998, decreeing that schools could no longer teach girls over the age of 8 years, and were required to use curricula based on the Koran. Still, it was estimated that more than 45,000 girls under the age of 10 years were engaged in secret learning at primary level in Afghanistan up to the fall of the Taliban regime in November 2001. Despite the new developments and a massive government-led back-to-school campaign, a large proportion of Afghan children still did not have access to formal schooling three years later. For many of them, especially girls, home-schools continue to play an important role in providing alternative education.

Sources: Campbell (2001); Nicolai (2003); and TDH (2004).

8. Consider educational activities, such as off-site schooling, flexible school hours or distance education, in order to meet specific needs of older girls and boys.

If children must work to support themselves and their families, consider designing flexible educational activities such as off-site schooling, flexible school hours or distance education in order to provide education at times and places where children and youth can attend.

- Find out from children, their family and community members which gender-sensitive conditions and timeframes are needed to ensure that both girls and boys have access to effective education.
- Consider programmes such as vocational education and apprenticeships when youth, especially boys, perceive a lack of relevant educational opportunities.
- Establish what non-formal educational practices already exist, including traditional rites and ceremonies related to gender roles (initiation rituals, traditional ‘training’ for adulthood, etc.). Encourage and facilitate the continuation of these practices where appropriate. Bear in mind that they may be an important part of young people’s learning and maturing process, but may also help sustain gender inequalities and discriminatory practices.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Examples of barriers to girls’ education and possible responses

Note: These barriers may be intensified in times of emergency and early reconstruction.

BARRIERS	POSSIBLE APPROACHES/RESPONSES
HOUSEHOLD BARRIERS AND FAMILY RESOURCE LEVELS	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct costs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - School tuition fees - Clothing and shoes - School books/supplies • Indirect costs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Household girls'/boys' work - Fetching wood, fodder, and water - Market activity - Girls' malnutrition - Disabilities • Poverty • Low status for women • Parental illiteracy/lack of awareness about education • Early marriage • Family values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic incentive programmes (e.g. small scholarships, subsidies, school supplies and clothing/uniforms) • School fee waivers • Vouchers (clothing, shoes, supplies) • Micro-enterprise programmes • Child-care programmes for siblings • Labour-saving technologies • Reallocation of household labour • Mothers'/parent education • Mothers'/parent participation • Social mobilization campaigns
POLICY BARRIERS	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insufficient national budget for primary/secondary education • Absence of policies to address dropout caused by examinations/pregnancy, etc. • Absence of child labour laws • Lack of enforcement of compulsory education policies • Policy favouring boys/males as workers • Fees policy • The policy of free education is weak or not implemented • Formulation of curricula • Support of conventional role for women • Education policy against married students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis, planning, and implementation of policies supporting girls' education • Analysis and implementation of labour laws • National dialogue • National media campaign • Resource reallocation of national budget to education • Variety of approaches to make education available • Laws to ensure girls' safety and prevent harassment by teachers
INFRASTRUCTURE BARRIERS	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distance to school • Absence of roads/transport • Inadequate basic services in communities (e.g. water, electricity, fuel) • Inadequate basic services in schools (e.g. separate, clean latrines) • Absence of/poor facilities • Poor design, not meeting pedagogical and cultural requirements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National budget analysis, reallocation, and implementation • Rural electrification/water programmes • Infrastructure programmes (e.g. road building; rural housing for female teachers) • Improved latrines, especially for adolescent girls • Community support programmes (labour contributions, etc.) • School mapping to further policy goals • Schools close to home • Small school strategies such as multi-grade, cluster schools • Programmes that make schools safe and protective environments

BARRIERS	POSSIBLE APPROACHES/RESPONSES
COMMUNITY BELIEFS AND PRACTICES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of knowledge of the social and private benefits of education • Gender and cultural stereotypes • Perceptions of insecurity • Limited roles for girls and women • Differential treatment of girls (e.g. poor nutrition and health care) • Lack of economic and social opportunities for educated girls • Early marriage • Glorification of ‘motherhood’ • Female seclusion • Sexual abuse/harassment • Domestic violence • Belief that girls should leave school as soon as they have enough education to make money • Men viewed as breadwinners • Inheritance patterns • Male-dominated education system • Gender-differentiated child rearing practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culturally appropriate schools • Endorsement by religious leaders • Practices that ensure girls’ safety • Media programmes/social marketing • Motivational materials • Village committees organized to promote culturally acceptable female education • Female social promoters who tutor girls and provide encouragement • Motivational materials (e.g. posters, story books) • Incentives for female teachers in rural areas • Incentives for female students • Equal access to economic opportunities for educated girls (property laws, etc.; hiring standards) • Family planning, health education: advocacy for men and women • Mobilization, parent-teacher associations, radio, television, literacy: all with gender considerations given priority • Gender-awareness training
EDUCATIONAL BARRIERS	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of gender-sensitive teachers/ curriculum/materials • Lack of role models • School calendar/schedule in conflict with girls’ domestic or market responsibilities • Curriculum and instructional strategies not relevant to girls’ learning needs • Threatening/non-supportive learning environment • Expensive books/school costs/budgets • Teacher quality • Poor management • Lack of confidence in girls as learners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community school programmes • Teacher education • Curricula and educational materials that address girls’ learning needs • Gender-sensitive teachers • Flexible school calendar and schedules • Improved quality of education • Safe and secure learning environment • Female education personnel • Incentives for female teachers in rural areas • Tutoring and girl-to-girl programmes • Increased school places • Programmes to increase enrolment • Better designed, cheaper learning environments

Source: Adapted from UNICEF (2000).

2. Common interventions to assist girls' and women's participation in emergency situations

ISSUE	POSSIBLE INTERVENTION
<p>SECURITY</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insecurity of travelling to or from school or educational activity • Threat of sexual violence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing escort or transport to and from educational activity • Providing training in assertive behaviour and negotiation skills • Creating safe schools through participatory policy development • Forming girls and boys groups to discuss and act against sexual violence • Raising community awareness about how to prevent sexual violence
<p>CULTURAL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural views against female education; often compounded if there is no certification or possibility for employment • Education beyond a certain level is not valued • Early marriage or betrothal • Gender roles requiring girls to undertake home duties during school hours • Gender work roles limiting time for homework • Lack of separate facilities in schools (latrines and in some cultures separate classrooms or schools) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving access to firewood, water and childcare • Building equal numbers of latrines for male and female students and teachers • Distributing food through schools • Providing extracurricular activities • Providing girls with opportunities and spaces for play • Hiring and empowering female teachers and school administrators • Sensitization of community as to benefits of girls' education in terms of employment, childcare, etc. • Empowering Parent Teacher Associations to facilitate and monitor girls access to education • Construction of separate facilities in school • Inclusion of girls' education issues in teacher training, e.g. equal questioning of girls and boys, group work • Scholarships • Facilitating discussion and removal of gender-biased policies and practices • Provision of child care
<p>ECONOMIC</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preference for boys' education if the family is poor • Lack of proper clothing, sanitary materials and soap 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic programmes focusing on low-income households, with the condition that girls in the household attend school • Providing educational materials to all students to decrease burden on parents • Provision of sanitary towels, soap, and clothing to girls attending school • Discourage or make optional the use of school uniforms

Source: INEE (2002).

3. Partnership and social mobilization

The very ambitious Millennium Development Goals (MDG) for education cannot be achieved by ministries of education alone, or by educators, though both are critical to the effort. A broader coalition of partnerships is essential and education must be taken beyond the domain of the technical, turning it into a public movement in each country from the community grassroots level to the political leadership. The following actions should be considered, with appropriate adaptation, where emergency conditions apply:

- Engage the government at national, governorate and district levels. Engage the ministry of education as well as the ministries of information, finance, and religious affairs should they exist. If child labour is an issue, encourage the participation of the ministry of labour. The judiciary department should be involved if laws concerning the right to education are violated.
- Encourage business leaders involved in education to mobilize their possible engagement in local financing of girls' education.
- Support communities to engage fully in mobilizing efforts for girls' education, both in order to understand what they want for the upcoming generation and to mobilize their support to schools and educators in their community, including local financing.
- Facilitate NGOs and civil-society organizations, especially those representing minority and marginalized groups, and professional and workers' associations (e.g. farmers' association, teachers' association, doctors' association) to lobby for girls' education.

- Enlist parliamentarians as partners for girls' education. Remain in touch with their views, to keep them sensitized to education issues, and to ensure that they support the girls' education needs of their constituencies and support national funding and education reform legislation, especially as it relates to access to quality education for girls.
- Engage religious leaders as critical partners and mobilizers of parents and communities so that families enrol their children, especially girls, in school and keep them there. The networks of houses of worship are an indispensable when mobilizing communities for girls' education.
- Enlist the media to raise awareness and public demand for education, and keep girls' education issues constantly on the minds of leaders at national and sub-national levels.
- Consider children's views and recommendations in programme planning and advocacy for girls' education to help understand needs and concerns. Children have the right to be consulted about decisions that affect them.
- Involve donor partners who can provide technical, advocacy and financial support, including the World Bank and regional multi-lateral funding institutions.
- Through a national education policy, ensure that both private and public education efforts complement and support each other and that both demonstrate a commitment to girls' education.

Source: UNESCO (2002).

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Chapter **2.3**

ETHNICITY / POLITICAL AFFILIATION / RELIGION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that all children and youth regardless of ethnicity, political affiliation, identity or religion have equal access to quality education, especially during emergencies and early reconstruction.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Education can promote inclusion, equity and positive social transformation. Equally, it can reinforce and widen social, economic and cultural divisions. Education can worsen fragility and conflict when certain groups are denied schooling or are discriminated against within it. Political, religious and ethnic affiliation, or combinations of these, can directly affect access to and inclusion in education. Throughout history, many states have supported education of varying quality for different members of their populations. In such instances, access to education becomes highly politicized, as less powerful groups demand better-quality education for their children, and more

powerful groups seek to retain their advantage in society. In times of conflict and emergencies, these controversies are likely to intensify.

In any crisis, agencies who respond to emergencies are also in danger of maintaining or even worsening the entrenched exclusion and prejudice experienced by many people before an emergency. This exacerbation of discrimination may happen by default if action is not taken from the beginning to identify pre-existing and new patterns of discrimination and power, which must then be challenged in emergency responses. (Save the Children, 2008a: 8)

Most of the world's conflicts are civil wars. In 2007, all conflicts were based within states rather than between them (Human Security Project, 2008). Political, religious or ethnic differences are almost always components of civil conflict. Education may be part of the conflict – the education system often reflects, conveys or even aggravates conflict along political, religious or ethnic lines.

The denial of education may become a weapon of war in itself, through, for example, forced closure of or attacks on schools. Minorities may be denied access to education altogether, or education may be used to suppress their language, traditions, art forms, religious practices and cultural values. Teachers may use their position in the classroom to assert their ethnic, political or religious position, or teachers and schools may be seen as parties to the conflict and become targets of the warring parties (Bush and Saltarelli, 2000). Further challenges relate to conflicting parties' manipulation of history and textbooks for political purposes.

At the ministry level, instability may lead to frequent changes in senior personnel of the Ministry of Education, and thus, to frequent policy changes.

When children from different religious or ethnic groups speak different languages and have different traditions, the issues of access and inclusion become more complicated. In these situations, educational authorities will need to consult widely with members and representatives of all groups when determining policies and practices related to language and curriculum (see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.1, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’).

In a situation of forced migration, refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) may reside in a country or region with different ethnic, political or religious groups. While the level of hostility is usually lower in the host country/region than in the refugees’ place of origin, these differences may be a source of new tension and conflict. Refugees and IDPs may be denied access to local school systems because of differences in ethnicity, political affiliation or religion (as well as lack of places in the local schools). If refugees or IDPs of different ethnic, political or religious groups reside in the same camp, there may be serious tensions and possibly violence, as well as competition for assistance and jobs. At times, it may be necessary for students with different ethnic, political or religious backgrounds to study separately from one another – especially in a conflict or post-conflict situation where the safety of children and youth may be endangered if they study together.

In a post-crisis situation, returnees are often subject to discrimination if they have a different ethnic background, or belong to a different religious or political group from others in their community. Discrimination may continue until conditions improve and trust-building measures are in place. Sometimes

redressive measures intended to assist a group who have been discriminated against can make this group more visible, leading to increased discrimination from the dominant group.

In crisis or early reconstruction, education therefore needs to be carefully examined to investigate whether there is a risk of certain groups being denied their rights, or of worsening existing tensions.



OVERCOMING ETHNIC SEGREGATION AND DISCRIMINATION: EXPERIENCE FROM THAILAND

Integrating migrant children into schools

Children of illegal Burmese migrants into Thailand did not have access to formal education even before the 2004 tsunami, while some dropped out post-tsunami. Recognising this, Grassroots Human Rights Education (GHRE) initiated a migrant learning centre project. Children who have never been to Thai schools, as well as those who attend school irregularly, receive support to facilitate their integration into Thai schools. Children who participated in these learning centres expressed that they were less intimidated by Thai people because of their participation. However, not all Burmese migrant boys could be pulled out of child labour and brought back into the education system. GHRE is now reaching out to parents of such children to persuade them to enrol them.

Addressing discrimination against children whose parents do not have citizenship

Displaced Thais received limited relief from the government of Thailand following the 2004 tsunami. NGO Foundation for Children realised that while young people took part in children's centres in their own village, they felt excluded in inter-centre sports camps and other events organised by the foundation. They held discussions with both the displaced Thai children and children of parents with citizenship, and the gap between the two groups is slowly being bridged.



Addressing discrimination against religious minorities

Another excluded group is children from the Moken or Muslim community, who are a religious minority in Thailand. One of Save the Children's programme staff noted during a visit that Moken children were very shy when they took part in children's clubs organised in the tsunami affected areas. They did not take part as actively as children from Buddhist communities. Special efforts were made to encourage them to open up and join in. After taking part in several disaster risk reduction activities, they gained more confidence and participated actively.

Source: Save the Children (2008a).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Differences in the quality and content of education received by different ethnic, political and religious groups can give rise to social tensions and armed conflict. These issues should be addressed in a preventive manner.

In renewing the education system after conflict, steps should be taken to reduce tensions between different sections of society, in order to build sustainable peace.

All activities and plans should be thought through so that they can contribute to reducing tensions between cultural, religious or ethnic groups. Plans for managing education should include extra time and effort for establishing everyone's commitment to the idea of equal access to education and learning for all. These problems may take some while to resolve, but if inclusive approaches can be reiterated they will help education contribute to stability and equity, rather than undermining it.

Some suggested strategies are indicated below.



Summary of suggested strategies Ethnicity / political affiliation / religion

- 1. Review government policies related to education and non-discrimination.**
- 2. Review government practices related to education and non-discrimination.**
- 3. Establish how education is resourced and what effect that has on excluded groups.**
- 4. Encourage the use and recognition of multiple languages.**
- 5. Ensure that school management committees and parent-teacher associations/organizations have representatives from the various political/ethnic/religious groups within the school community.**
- 6. Ensure the protection and safety of all children.**

Guidance notes

1. Review government policies related to education and non-discrimination.

- What does the constitution say about the education of all citizens?
- Does the government's national 'Education for All' (EFA) strategy specifically address the education issues of all of the country's various religious/ethnic/political groups?
- Do education policies explicitly state that all children have a right to education in institutions of the same quality? Does this apply to public and private educational institutions?
- What government policies have an effect on access to education for the country's various religious, ethnic, political groups? Consider:
 - Language policies: Is one language of instruction mandated that can lead to the exclusion of some children from schooling?
 - Curriculum policies: Are some groups or religions portrayed negatively in the national curriculum and textbooks? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*, for more information.)
 - Recruiting policies – for both teachers and administrators (including those in the Ministry of Education): Do equal opportunity and non-discrimination policies exist with regard to hiring all education staff?
 - Non-discrimination policies for students: Do education policies explicitly state that all children have a right to education in institutions of the same quality? Does this apply to public and private educational institutions?

- School funding policies: How are funds allocated within the country? Was the distribution formula developed based on a principle of equity so that no groups are disadvantaged or discriminated against? (See the definition of equity in the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.2, 'Gender'*.)
- Does the education system encourage appreciation of diversity, or does it seek to educate all students according to the viewpoint of the majority or the ruling group?



THE TWO FACES OF EDUCATION IN ETHNIC CONFLICT

“Children do not come to the classroom as blank slates. They bring with them the attitudes, values and behaviour of their societies beyond the classroom walls ... Prejudiced children are more likely to be moralistic, to dichotomize the world, they externalize conflict, and have a higher need of definiteness. Under conditions of inter-ethnic tension and conflict, such characteristics unavoidably find their way into the classroom and must be taken into account if the peace-destroying impact of education is to be minimized.”

Source: Bush and Saltarelli (2000: 3–4).

2. Review government practices related to education and non-discrimination.

- Are some groups or religions portrayed negatively in the national curriculum and textbooks? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*, for more information.)
- Are certain subjects or parts of the curriculum sensitive? If so, educational authorities should carefully make decisions related to the timing (during or after emergencies) of when

certain subjects such as language, history, art, culture, etc. are introduced. (For more information, see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'.)

- How does the curriculum present the histories and practices of different groups within the country?
- Include diversity and non-discrimination in teacher training.
 - Encourage teachers to adapt materials and teaching content to become more relevant to the lives and interests of children in their classes.
- Do equal opportunity and non-discrimination policies exist with regard to hiring education staff? Are members of all political, religious and ethnic groups actively recruited for teaching and administrative positions? Promote equitable, mixed recruitment by example.
- Are schools (private, religious or otherwise) aware of and in compliance with state policies on non-discrimination? Make local schools and inspectors aware of standards that exist.
- When government policies and current practices differ, consider how these differences can be addressed. When possible, use non-political means, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Education for All targets or the country's Constitution to resolve differences.
- Are children of different religions, ethnic groups or political affiliation taught in the same classrooms or separately?
 - Include questions such as the following in assessment, consultation and review with different education stakeholders:
 - Who is usually welcomed into school, and who is not?
 - How do access and enrolment rates vary depending on the students' ethnicity, religion, first language and political affiliation?

3. Establish how education is resourced and what effect that has on excluded groups.

- School funding policies: How are funds allocated within the country? Was the distribution formula developed based on a principle of equity so that no groups are disadvantaged or discriminated against? (See the definition of equity in the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.2, 'Gender'*.)
- Is education better in some places than others? For example, do schools in some areas of the country have more resources to pay for teachers, build schools, buy school materials, etc.? Take this information into account in planning and budget preparation.
- Has the government committed resources to cater for the needs of IDPs in education?
- Does the state allocation of funds for education favour certain groups, such as the ruling political party? Where appropriate, develop positive but neutral relationships with local representatives of all political groupings.
- Ensure that donors and funding agencies are aware of resourcing inequities.
- Where there has been a large influx of people to an area, or where education services have received weak funding in the past, support work with local agencies and partners to produce accurate figures of the numbers of children in the local area, and to request increased funding.
- Link with other emergency or crisis response programmes to improve access to services for the most excluded groups. Make other programme teams aware of information you have on children excluded from school, and coordinate the targeting of support to the most vulnerable families, such as cash transfers and health inputs.



GOVERNMENT SUPPORT TO EDUCATION IN CONFLICT-AFFECTED AREAS

In Northern Ireland, segregation along religious lines was almost total until the 1980s. This emphasized differences and encouraged mutual ignorance and perhaps most importantly, mutual suspicion between Catholics and Protestants. Catholic school-leavers were found to have, on average, lower qualifications than their Protestant counterparts, and hence reduced job opportunities. A government-sponsored study in 1973 found that this stemmed largely from unequal funding arrangements. State schools, overwhelmingly attended by Protestants, received full state funding, whereas independent Catholic schools had to rely largely on their own resources. Some specialists called for integrated schools. Several of these have come with the support of parents, but statistics show that the majority of students continue to attend highly segregated schools. More recently therefore, the Government of Northern Ireland equally funds Catholic and Protestant schools and aims to give all children the opportunity to learn about each other.

Source: Bush and Saltarelli (2000: 15); and Nicolai (2003).

4. Encourage the use and recognition of multiple languages.

- Find out what languages children speak at home, and what languages are considered important by different groups. Recognize which languages are considered politically sensitive.
- What are the languages of instruction, both in policy and in reality? Is one language of instruction mandated that can lead to the exclusion of some children from schooling? Why do teachers use certain languages for teaching and learning?



THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE AS PART OF ETHNIC AND CULTURAL IDENTITY

“Through its language, a given group expresses its own societal identity; languages are related to thought processes and to the way members of a certain linguistic group perceive nature, the universe and society” (Stavnhagen, 1996). In many cases, the imposition of a dominant language on ethnic groups (both inside and outside the formal school system) is a repressive act, both in intention and outcome. It can also have a unifying impact, however. In Senegal, for example, where there are 15 different linguistic groups and where Islamic and Christian populations have long coexisted peacefully, no civil wars have occurred since independence from France in the 1960s. One important factor in explaining the relative ‘ethnic peace’ in Senegal is that after independence, French was made the official language in a conscious effort to prevent linguistic conflict, while Diola, Malinke, Pular, Serer, Soninke and Wolof were declared to be national languages. Not only are these languages a critical part of the curriculum, they are also used in radio and television broadcasts and literacy campaigns. While Wolof could have been declared the country’s official language, given its predominance, this was never attempted, as it would have offended different ethnic groups.

Source: Bush and Saltarelli (2000: 11, 17–18).

- Does the use of this language exclude some children from school, or contribute to low achievement? Share this information with all stakeholders.
- Challenge assumptions that only one language should be used in education. Promote the idea that children can learn important languages well, but that in order to do so they need to start learning in the language most familiar to them. Wherever possible, teaching should be in the language most children use at home for at least six years, with other key languages being introduced gradually.

- Make sure that the languages spoken by local stakeholders in education are recognized and respected. Conduct meetings in different languages; arrange for interpretation; and ensure that teacher training predominantly uses the language that teachers themselves are most familiar with.
- If teachers need to build children's skills in other languages, develop training for them both to improve their second-language skills and to teach it as a subject.



LINGUISTIC CHALLENGES IN CRISIS AND RECOVERY: POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Advise teachers to teach in children's mother tongue if they speak the language, and to slowly and carefully introduce less familiar languages that are considered important for children to learn.

Encourage teachers to work in partnership with adults from the community so that classroom activities can be conducted in the children's first language. When there are multiple language groups in a class, one community adult can work with each language group. Alternatively, a multigrade approach can be used, where classes are based on language group rather than age.

Encourage the production of reading and writing materials in children's home languages and in dominant languages. Encourage children to write stories in their own language and to draw activity pictures. Children can tell stories in their language based on the pictures and can use the written stories for reading in class with other children.

In longer-term responses, introduce some teaching of other languages as subjects.

In longer-term responses, support teachers to gradually transition to using other languages that are necessary for exams, for re-entering regular schools and so on.

Source: Adapted from Save the Children (2009).

5. Ensure that school management committees and parent-teacher associations/organizations have representatives from the various political/ethnic/religious groups within the school community.

- Identify which areas of education are sensitive or will need particular focus. Build this awareness into meetings and consultations with representatives from the various political/ethnic/religious groups.
- Conduct participatory training and consultation exercises to promote non-discrimination, especially among teachers, school management committees, parent-teacher associations and headteachers.
- Arrange for those managing education to directly hear children's views on improving education, particularly those of children often excluded from education. Work to get acceptance for the idea that children will learn successfully when their views are responded to.
- Encourage mixing of members of different political/ethnic/religious groups in informal and formal settings related to education at every opportunity. Teacher training is a particular opportunity to bring together people who have been separated by conflict.

6. Ensure the protection and safety of all children.

- Advocate locally and in wider networks for attacks on schools to end.
- Develop distance learning or home schooling options where it is unsafe for children to attend school every day.
- Do integrated schools currently put some children at risk? If so, consider separate schools, shifts or classrooms as a short-term approach.


- Consider extracurricular means of integrating children, such as sports and recreation programmes, even if these are infrequent at first.
- Even when children are separated, work with teachers and education leaders to ensure that all children have access to the same quality education and the same core curriculum.
- Support teachers and school management committees to create awareness among children and adults in post-conflict areas about precautionary measures against land mines.



EDUCATION IN POST-CONFLICT KOSOVO

“Given that ethnic discrimination was seen to be one of the critical factors underlying the conflict, it is not surprising that the issue of ethnically separate schooling was a key policy concern in the eyes of both internationals and Kosovars at the beginning of the post-conflict reconstruction. At the level of rhetoric there appeared to be complete consensus – all parties quickly endorsed the position that all children should be accommodated in a single, inclusive education system that respected the language and cultural rights of all. However, the decade of sometimes brutally enforced segregation and exclusion had taken its toll. In the first three months after the end of the NATO Campaign, a new version of the old parallel system was re-established as the Kosovo Albanian refugees returned to their villages and homes, and many Serb and other ethnic minorities either left Kosovo or moved to areas regarded as safer.”...

“Faced with this conundrum – separate schooling was unacceptable, but separate schooling was a de facto reality and the only way to ensure access for all, UNMIK’s next tactic was to propose an incremental strategy termed ‘unification’”... which “proposed acceptance of the status quo of schools already established, but introduced over time a reversal



of the institutional separation that had developed after 1992”... “Progress towards integration of all schools within a single, unified system, which still remains the explicit goal of the MEST and UNMIK, has been exceptionally slow”... “The issue of unification of schooling provides a particularly graphic example of the challenges that planners confront in a context where official policy commitment to an integrated non-discriminatory system runs directly against the political realities on the ground, and depends on political agreements that are well beyond the reach of education officials.”

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004).

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Chapter **2.4**

CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that children and youth with disabilities have equal access to quality education and learning opportunities in the context of conflict and emergencies.**
- **To include children with disabilities into the mainstream education system.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Conflict and emergencies do not only lead to children becoming disabled, but they also increase the vulnerability of those children who are already disabled. The same prejudices which exist in communities in times of peace also exist in times of conflict. Sometimes conflict and emergency situations provide an opportunity to challenge prejudice and discrimination and to ‘build back better’ by ensuring the inclusion of children with disabilities in families, schools and communities.

“War, crisis and disruption of communities can significantly increase the number of adults and children with disabilities. Gunshot wounds, land mines, or violent acts of chopping off

limbs may cause disabilities. Inadequate health care and lack of access to nutritious food during times of extended conflict may result in the loss of sight or hearing” (INEE, 2003).

Responding to the diverse educational needs of learners with disabilities during emergencies can be challenging, especially during the acute phase. There is often an assumption that greater stability is needed before efforts to reach children with disabilities can be prioritised. Yet it could be argued that it is even more urgent to address the educational needs of children with disabilities during an emergency. Families are under greater stress and need support for those children who have recently become disabled, as well as those who have lived with a disability for some time. Enabling children with disabilities to attend school will relieve the stress on their families.

Principles of non-discrimination (Article 2 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child [CRC], 1989) and the right to education (Articles 28 and 29 of the CRC, and Article 24 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities [CRPD], 2006) provide a strong basis for the education of children with disabilities in conflict and emergency situations. Building on a long history of asserting the basic right of all people to education, Article 24 of the CRPD categorically reaffirms the right of persons with disabilities to access and participate in education. It emphasizes the need for governments to “ensure an inclusive education system at all levels” for the purposes of developing human potential, sense of dignity, mental and physical abilities, and to promote academic and social participation.

The following attitudes and assumptions need to be considered:

- It is not necessarily too difficult to include children with disabilities in education during an emergency or conflict situation.
- If children with disabilities have missed out at the beginning of an emergency response, it should not mean that they remain excluded.
- Planning and delivering an inclusive education emergency response does not need specialist or expert knowledge of special education, inclusion or disability issues – the key factor is the attitude of education practitioners.

It is less expensive to incorporate the education of children with disabilities at the outset of an emergency response than it is to change exclusionary school infrastructure and practices at a later date.

“Inclusive education starts from the belief that the right to education is a basic human right and the foundation for a more just society. In order to realise this right, the Education for All movement has worked to make quality basic education available to all learners. Inclusive education takes the Education for All agenda forward by finding ways of enabling schools to serve *all* children in their communities, as part of an inclusive education system. Inclusive education is concerned with *all* learners, with a focus on those who have traditionally been excluded from educational opportunities – such as learners with special needs and disabilities, children from ethnic and linguistic minorities, and so on.”

Source: UNESCO (2001: 15).



BHUTANESE REFUGEES, JHAPA, NEPAL

“In the Jhapa refugee programme in Nepal, disabled girls and boys were identified as a particularly vulnerable group whose needs were not being met. The manager appointed a full-time, disability coordinator, who piloted some participatory, action-based research to provide a basis for a programme. A disability advisor from Save the Children UK provided technical support, including access to key texts.

During the research, disabled children spoke about how they could help their families, but felt excluded because they were teased if they went outside their homes. Education was the first priority identified by both parents and children. After the first 18 months of the programme, over 700 children had been integrated into schools and sign language training had been carried out in all camps with both deaf and hearing children.

‘There is no reason why we could not have included the needs of disabled children and adults from the start ... It is not necessary to know “scientific names with classification and categorisation” in order to incorporate disabled people’s concerns into food distribution, health and education programmes.’”

Bhutanese Refugee Camp Programme Officer, Jhapa, Nepal.

Source: adapted from Save the Children (2002: 37).

Every sector in an emergency response can play a part in supporting inclusive education. Inclusion in education is about participation and learning as well as about access to the place of education. It is important to be vigilant about children with disabilities who are in education, but who are experiencing difficulties with attending, enjoying or benefiting from learning and participation.

KEY PRINCIPLES

- Every child has the right to quality education, and all children should have equal opportunity to access education.
- All children can learn and benefit from education: no child should be excluded from, or discriminated against within, education on the grounds of race, colour, sex, language, age, class or caste, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, poverty, disability, birth, or any other status.
- Individual differences between children are a resource not a problem.
- Education should be physically, socially, academically and economically accessible to children and adults with disabilities.
- Education stakeholders (parents, communities, teachers, and children with disabilities) have a key role to play in making education accessible.
- Inclusive education is part of a wider strategy to promote an inclusive society. The reform of mainstream education may be necessary to ensure that the needs of all children, including those with disabilities, can be met.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies and during early reconstruction, children with disabilities are even more likely to be excluded from educational opportunities. Some suggested strategies to prevent this are indicated below.



Summary of suggested strategies Children with disabilities

- 1. Review government policy on education and ensure that it is inclusive of children with disabilities.**
- 2. Identify resources to support the education of children with disabilities.**
- 3. Enlist community support to promote schooling for disabled children.**
- 4. Ensure that all teachers receive training on how to include children with disabilities in their classes.**
- 5. Adapt school facilities and other educational settings to promote access for all children and consider strategies to help children and youth with disabilities physically get to school.**
- 6. Provide technical and vocational education/skills training opportunities for youth with disabilities.**

Guidance notes

1. Review government policy on education and ensure that it is inclusive of children with disabilities.

It is important to review policy guidelines on promoting access to education for children with disabilities and on recruiting staff with disabilities, and to disseminate guidance to education providers for the emergency-affected population.

- Do existing policies specifically address the issue of access to education for all children, including those with disabilities? Are the policies based on an explicit notion of the rights of individuals to education?
- Who currently has limited access to education? Why?
- What barriers exist to the inclusion of children with disabilities in educational settings?
- Are there equal employment policies that encourage the hiring of teachers, administrators and other education workers with disabilities?
- Are these policies for students and staff known at provincial, district and school level, in emergency-affected areas? What support is given to education for children with disabilities in refugee and internally displaced persons (IDP) camps?
- Should a policy be developed and disseminated to support the education of children with disabilities and inclusive staff recruitment for emergency-affected populations?



INFLUENCING POLICY DEVELOPMENT, KENYA

In Kenya, after the election violence, Save the Children worked with the Ministry of Education at provincial and district level to develop training manuals on inclusive, quality education for volunteer, early childhood development, head and senior teachers, and school management committees. The team ran two 3-day writing workshops (for each of the manuals), attended by members of the Ministry of Education, from the three areas of operation most affected by the emergency, and Save the Children staff. These participatory workshops enabled Save the Children and the Ministry to have joint input into the development of the manuals, which were relevant to the local context as well as bringing new ideas about child rights, child protection, emergency education and inclusive education. The Ministry's involvement at the writing stage was very important as it was Ministry members who would deliver the training. Their involvement increased the capacity of the Ministry of Education and provided sustainability for passing on the training.

Source: INEE (2009: 31).

2. Identify resources to promote and support the education of children with disabilities.

Human resources are arguably the most valuable resources in supporting the development of inclusive education.

- Designate an individual responsible for monitoring, assessing and recording how well the education operation is meeting the needs of children with disabilities.
- Encourage all members of the emergency response team together (including staff from other sectors, such as logistics, protection and health) to think about exclusion, discrimination and diversity in the context within which they are working,

and how everyone can work towards a more inclusive emergency response.

- Set up a committee of key stakeholders who can adapt the curriculum so that it is relevant and inclusive to all children.

The greatest resources available in any school are the children themselves – yet they tend to be the most under-used.

- Encourage peer support by developing a ‘buddy system’. This involves children with disabilities pairing up with a peer for activities in and outside the classroom.
- Children are often very aware of which children are excluded from education and why. They can be powerful voices and advocates within communities, asking for other children to be included.
- What resources – specially trained teachers, volunteers, classroom aides, building modifications, special equipment – are required to enroll these children in school?



LISTENING TO CHILDREN IN PAKISTAN

After the Pakistan earthquake in 2005, Save the Children Sweden’s team set up community education councils linked to each rehabilitated school. Each council had at least two children on board. Children would report who wasn’t in school and why they thought these children were absent. Often girls and children with disabilities were kept at home because their families thought going to school was not safe, or that they would not benefit from education. Once these children had been identified, the community education council was asked to come up with a plan for making it easier for them to get to school and to have a positive experience once there.

Source: INEE (2009: 14).

- Prepare a budget.
- Advocate with the Ministry of Finance and other government officials for funds to be made available to ensure that children with disabilities have access to education.
- In situations of displacement where the government is requesting international assistance for educational needs, ensure that such requests include assistance for children and youth with disabilities.

3. Enlist community support to promote schooling for disabled children.

(For more information on community involvement in education in emergencies, see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'*.)

- Involve parents willing to support the education of their children with disabilities.
 - Can parents become resource people in the school and in the classroom?
- Stimulate positive recognition of children's skills, display disabled children's works, etc.



POSITIVE PARENT ATTITUDES, SUDAN

"I have now realised all children are the same and need to be appreciated. My encouragement to parents who have disabled children like mine is to appeal to them not to hold them in solitary confinement, but instead embrace reality and strive to give them the best in life."

(Father of a six-year-old who has been attending a World Vision funded school for two years in a camp for IDPs in Sudan.)

Source: INEE (2009: 27).



OPPORTUNITIES FOR COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION, PALESTINE

In the context of Israeli Occupation and ongoing unrest, the disability sector had been alienated from the mainstream community and continued to develop a segregated model of education and rehabilitation. Ironically, the Intifada (Palestinian uprising) brought with it a sudden explosion of interest in disability. ... This explosion of interest in disability brought with it many positive changes that went beyond the institution-based rehabilitation. For example, community-based rehabilitation was introduced and the need to respond to disabled people's education within the community was felt.

Source: Stubbs (2002: 39).

- Challenge discriminatory attitudes towards children with disabilities and organize awareness raising and training sessions, where necessary, for teachers and students as well as community members about disability issues.
 - Identify adults with disabilities who can be employed as teachers and can act as role models for children with disabilities, especially if the children have recently acquired their disabilities as a result of the conflict or emergency.
 - Work with disabled people's organizations to set up links between the education response and any community-based rehabilitation services that are available.
- 4. Ensure that all teachers receive training on how to include children with disabilities in their classes.**
- Evaluate existing teacher training.

- Do teachers have any training in inclusive education?
- What messages have they received through the training?
- How well are they prepared to respond to children with disabilities?
- What opportunities are there to strengthen their training?
- What opportunities are there for teacher-training institutions to strengthen pre-service training and in-service training on the education of children with disabilities, and including them in mainstream settings?



CHALLENGING NEGATIVE TEACHER ATTITUDES, KENYA

In the Rift Valley in Kenya, teachers in the community were reluctant to acknowledge that children were out of school, especially children with disabilities. It was discovered, through conversations with teachers and other community members, that this was because teachers were not aware of children's rights or aware of how to include children with disabilities, and were fearful of disability. As a result, Save the Children incorporated inclusion issues into the teacher training programme to raise awareness and give skills on how to include all children.

Source: INEE (2009: 17).

- Encourage teachers to share information with each other about their own learning about teaching children with disabilities – this will support teacher development through problem solving and support children with disabilities as they progress to the next grade.

- Train teachers to adapt seating arrangements based on students' disabilities (e.g. children with poor vision may be seated near the front of the classroom), limit background noise and ensure good lighting.
- If specially trained teachers are available, encourage them to raise awareness and provide support to the mainstream teachers so that they can teach inclusive classes. Volunteers and/or classroom aides (sometimes called 'teaching assistants') can be used to support children with severe disabilities in class.
- Consider giving introductory courses in sign language, Braille, physiotherapy, as appropriate.

5. Adapt school facilities and other educational settings to promote access for all children and consider strategies to help children and youth with disabilities physically get to school.

(For more information on school facilities, see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.6, 'Learning spaces and school facilities'.)

- Ask field staff to assess whether children with disabilities can physically access existing education facilities.
 - Are schools designed and constructed with wide doorways, ramps, no stairs, lowered blackboards, level floors, etc.).
 - Is there sufficient light in the classroom? Consider carefully the size of building windows.

If modifications are required:

- How can these be funded?
- Can community members be enlisted to make the modifications?
- Evaluate the required modifications by the amount of resources and input required, and by whom.

- Modifications that require simple inputs, such as new seating arrangements.
 - Modifications that require modest material inputs, including inputs that can be provided by the school or the community, such as locally made crutches.
 - Modifications that require substantial external financial inputs, such as accessible toilets or computers.
- What special equipment and materials are needed to support learning for children with disabilities? When provided by outside organizations, ensure that these are technologically appropriate for the local setting and sustainable after the outside organizations have left.
 - Identify situations where education services can provide transport (e.g. buses) to school or where the community can assist with transport.
 - Make sure that play areas are accessible and safe (in terms of minimizing both physical hazards and child protection risks).
 - Work to make sure that toilets are accessible, safe, clean, private and separated by gender; and that there is safe drinking water easily accessible to all students and teachers.



EDUCATIONAL ACCESS FOR DEAF AND BLIND LEARNERS IN THAILAND

In the Karen refugee camps in Thailand, a survey in 1999 by Consortium-Thailand showed that few blind and deaf children were included in education. Therefore, with cooperation from the Institute for the Blind and Deaf in Yangon, Consortium-Thailand prioritised the needs of these learners and developed the use of Karen Braille and Karen Sign Language in the camps. Videos were also made to demonstrate Karen Sign Language.

INEE (2009: 24).

- If separate classes have already been established for particular groups of children with disabilities, ensure that all children share the same school or educational facility and resources. Also organize joint sporting activities and other opportunities for them to socialize together.

6. Provide technical and vocational education/skills training opportunities for youth with disabilities.

Vocational training is especially important to enable access to the labour market and to help young people with disabilities become more self-sufficient.

- Reserve a quota of study places in regular vocational training centres for students with disabilities.
- Organize training programmes and apprenticeships near to the homes of young people with disabilities.

(See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.7, 'Vocational education and training'*, for more information.)



SKILL TRAINING FOR AFGHAN REFUGEES WITH DISABILITIES

Many Afghan refugees in Pakistan had severe injuries from war, landmines and disease or congenital conditions. Unlike other refugees, they were unable to go out for daily labouring work. In the early 1990s, UNHCR's Peshawar office structured its funding of NGO skills training programmes to help them gain employment. Policies adopted included:

1. Instructing vocational training centres to include refugees with disabilities as at least 5 per cent of their enrolment.
2. Restricting sponsored apprenticeships in the fields of tailoring and shoemaking to male students with disabilities, and women with disabilities or heading needy households.



3. Creating mobile training units that provided 4- to 6-month courses for refugees with disabilities in different refugee camps, to overcome problems of access.
4. Providing a special training centre for refugees with disabilities, where students acquired vocational skills and improved their literacy/numeracy abilities, followed by a 3-month apprenticeship in the workplace to gain experience and acceptance, with a monthly stipend to cover expenses.

Working with Save the Children Sweden, the office also sponsored community-based 'child groups' for children with disabilities in the camps, which provided a first step for some towards entering schooling or vocational training.

Source: Margaret Sinclair (personal communication).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Advantages and disadvantages of special schools for children with disabilities

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Special schools can be developed as centres of excellence.	Special schools are usually not available in the child's immediate environment.
Concentration of expertise on specific impairments is possible.	Expertise is only available for a small group of children.
Smaller student–teacher ratio enables each disabled child to have more attention.	System of teaching is very expensive. It is therefore not affordable, or sustainable, for all disabled children.
Children grow up with their peers and develop a common culture.	Children find it hard to re-adapt to life with their families, peers and communities.

Source: Save the Children UK (2002: 11)

2. Inclusion of children with disabilities into the classroom

WARNING SIGNS	THINGS TO DO
VISUAL DIFFICULTY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eyes physically not well – red, swollen, watery eyes, crossed eyes, eyes that do not appear straight. • Student rubbing eyes. • Difficulty reading or doing visual work. Student may bring book or object close to the eyes, shuts or covers one eye when reading or tilts head. • Student may have difficulty with written work. • Student may avoid playground. • Unusual incidence of squinting, blinking, frowning or facial distortions when reading. • Unable to locate small objects. • Sensitivity to light. 	<p>CLASSROOM ADAPTATIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Find out from the student where the best place is for him/her to see the chalkboard i.e. the front of the class. • Light should not reflect on the board. Chalk should appear clearly on the board. • If student is sensitive to light, seat him/her away from the window or provide a cardboard screen to shade reading and writing. • Ensure that the child knows his/her way around the school and classroom. Teachers and sighted pupils can assist by walking slightly in front of visually impaired students or to one side/holding their elbow. <p>TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use large writing on the chalkboard and visual aids. Coloured chalk is recommended. Let students come close to the board or to teaching aids to see more clearly. • Read aloud what is written on the chalkboard. • Prepare teaching aids that students can read easily or provide photocopies with large print. • Encourage students to use a pointer or their finger when reading. • Pair pupils with a seeing classmate to assist in organizing their work. • Use verbal praise or touch. • Use the names of pupils during class discussion so the student knows who is talking. • Depending upon student needs provide: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Paper with thicker lines on it to assist them in writing. – Magnifiers. – Abacus for mathematics lessons.

WARNING SIGNS	THINGS TO DO
INTELLECTUAL DIFFICULTY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student has not reached the same level of development as their age mates with regard to for example oral and understanding abilities, playing/moving, behaviour. • Head injury or serious illness. 	<p>CLASSROOM ADAPTATIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce distractions – keep desk clear. • With children who are inclined to run around, seat them by the wall with bigger children beside them. Tasks can be assigned that allow them to move without being disruptive such as distributing papers, notebooks or materials. • Recruit volunteers to come to class to provide one-on-one attention for the student. <p>TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess whether the child’s reduced learning capacity may in fact relate to other factors. For example, the child may be trying to hide visual or hearing problems, or may be suffering from dyslexia. In addition, responsibilities at home may be hindering the child in committing fully to his or her studies. In some cases, behavioural problems have their source in abuse. • Show the child what you want him or her to do rather than simply telling. • Use simple words when giving instructions and check that the child has understood. • Use real objects that the child can feel and handle rather than doing paper and pencil work. • Do one activity at a time and complete it. Make clear when one is finished and a new one begins. • Break tasks down into small steps or learning objectives. Have child start with what they can do before moving to a harder step. • Give plenty of praise and encouragement to the student. • Give extra time for practice. • Pair the student with a peer who can focus their attention.

WARNING SIGNS	THINGS TO DO
HEARING DIFFICULTY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor attention. • Poor speech development or may talk in a very loud or soft voice. • Difficulty following instructions. • May turn or cock head when listening. • May watch what other students are doing before starting his or her work. • May give inappropriate answers. • May be shy or appear stubborn and disobedient. • Reluctant to participate in oral activities. • May complain of earaches, colds, sore throat . 	<p>CLASSROOM ADAPTATIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seat student as close as possible to teacher. • Instruct teachers to face their students and not to cover their faces or talk when writing on the chalkboard. • Make sure students can see teacher’s face, hands and lips. • Ensure that student can see both the teacher and other pupils at the same time to see how they are responding. • Minimize classroom noise, possibly using a quieter part of the school. <p>TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speak clearly and loudly. • Make sure students’ hearing aids are switched on. • Use visual aids for teaching. • Pair the student with hearing students. • Check with student to ensure they have understood. • Take time to listen to what the student is saying.

Source: Adapted from INEE (2003).

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FORMER CHILD SOLDIERS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To ensure that schools are safe places that do not present opportunities for abduction or recruitment.
- To facilitate psychosocial healing, reintegration and educational opportunities for former child soldiers.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

WHO ARE CHILD SOLDIERS?

“A child soldier is any person under 18 years of age who is part of any kind of regular or irregular armed force or armed group in any capacity, including, but not limited to cooks, porters, messengers, and those accompanying such groups, other than family members; the definition includes girls recruited for sexual purposes and for forced marriage. It does not, therefore, only refer to a child who is carrying or has carried arms.”

Source: UNICEF (1997: 12).

Child soldiers are among the tragic victims of today’s armed conflicts, and the use of them has recently become more common than ever (Lorey,

2001). More than 300,000 children are estimated to be actively participating in more than 30 conflicts in Africa, Europe, Latin America and the former Soviet Union (UNICEF, n.d.). At the same time, more and more legal frameworks devoted to stopping the use of child soldiers and creating awareness about this subject have been written. Under the Geneva Convention and the Convention of the Rights of the Child, it is illegal to recruit soldiers under the age of 15. By international norm, however, a child soldier is any person under the age of 18 who is part of any kind of regular or irregular armed force or armed group in any capacity (UNICEF, 1997).



THE USE OF CHILD SOLDIERS IS A WAR CRIME: THE CASE OF SIERRA LEONE

The civil war in Sierra Leone generated some 2 million refugees, and almost 7,000 child soldiers. Since the cease-fire in 1999, an international Special Court has been set up to rule on charges of war crimes committed in the country after 1996. In June 2004, the Special Court reached a historic decision, confirming the recruitment and use of child soldiers as a crime under international law, even when and where the International Criminal Court's powers do not apply. The ruling by the Appeals Chamber of the Special Court recognized child recruitment under age 15 as a crime under customary international law – even before the adoption of the Rome Statute for the International Criminal Court, in July 1998. As a consequence, those responsible for the recruitment of child soldiers in Sierra Leone from 1996 onwards may be prosecuted and convicted of war crimes. According to the International Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, the ruling was not only a victory for all former child soldiers and their families in Sierra Leone, but also a clear message to recruiters all over the world that international judicial institutions take this issue very seriously.

Source: Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers (2004).

Educational authorities must be familiar with the legal frameworks prohibiting the use of child soldiers (see the ‘Tools and resources’ section: ‘Legal frameworks prohibiting the use of child soldiers’) in the context of their own country and be prepared to advocate with their counterparts in other government offices and with community members with the aim of:

- Preventing children from being recruited or abducted and used as child soldiers.
- Preventing this from happening on school premises or in transit to or from school.
- Ensuring that former child soldiers have access to educational opportunities on leaving or being released from military activities.

Educational authorities are responsible for the safety of all the children and youth who are enrolled in their schools. In times of active conflict, therefore, extra care may be warranted to prevent or minimize the risk that children and youth will be abducted from school, or that military recruiters will use school grounds to enlist vulnerable children and youth. Refugee camps situated close to the border are more likely to become places of recruitment or abduction of both boys and girls. IDP (internally displaced person) children without the structure of a refugee camp are more at risk for recruitment and abduction than those children who live in camps. Recruitment may take place in or outside schools, by force or through the use of incentives. Refugee children and IDP children may even be forced to infiltrate camps and communities.

In protracted conflicts, older students at well-established educational institutions may be ‘groomed’ to take part in the conflict, and education providers may be unaware of these problems, or unable or unwilling to intervene. In situations where

child soldiers are used during conflict, educational authorities must work to understand the situation of these children and youth – who they are, what they have gone through, and the impact of their experiences on them. Child soldiers are deliberately used because children do not understand the consequences of their actions to the same degree as adults. They are thus frequently assigned to carry out the most serious crimes, often under the influence of narcotic drugs.

Child soldiers are not just boys – and sometimes girls – with guns. They are boys and girls who serve many roles, including:

- Porters.
- Cooks.
- Messengers.
- Girls recruited for forced marriages and sexual purposes.
- Human shields.
- Spies.
- Sentries.



DIFFERENT ROLES OF CHILD SOLDIERS IN CAMBODIA

A UNICEF study based on interviews of child soldiers in three provinces of Northwest Cambodia (Battambang, Siem Reap and Oddar Meanchey), presented in 2000, illustrates the large variety of activities in which children were involved. Amongst the interviewees, 35 per cent had functioned as cooks or cleaners, 21 per cent as guards and 6 per cent as porters; 16 per cent considered themselves active combatants, 16 per cent as bodyguards and 5 per cent as spies; 57 per cent of the children reported to have had exposure to frontline situations.

Source: Deng (2001).

It is crucial that all these children and youth are identified, and provided with appropriate rehabilitation programmes. In addition to the trauma of having been a child soldier, former child soldiers often face much suspicion and fear from their communities when they return home. They may be viewed as spies working undercover or as having been active contributors to extreme violence. These views are often warranted, yet former child soldiers are also victimized returnees from war and abuse. There is a great need to sensitize communities and families of former child soldiers on the plights and needs of the children, and to develop appropriate rehabilitation and reintegration programmes that address these needs.


Child soldiers are rarely willing (or ‘voluntary’) members of fighting forces, or in a position to give their informed consent to their recruitment. Many are forcibly abducted and still others join out of desperation; they often have no way to support themselves, have been separated from their families and/or their parents have been killed. In such circumstances, promises of food and shelter may have been life saving. Some child soldiers may wish to give up fighting and enrol in school, but lack the resources to support themselves while studying.



SRI LANKA: CHILD TSUNAMI VICTIMS RECRUITED BY TAMIL TIGERS

Various sources estimate that the rebel (Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE)) lost between 700 and 2,000 soldiers during the tsunami, including nearly 400 women and girls who were washed away from an LTTE training camp in Mullaitivu. Sri Lankan government sources have reported that the LTTE navy suffered major losses.

Human Rights Watch said that the Tamil Tigers, who were already recruiting large numbers of child soldiers, now might



seek to replace forces lost to the tsunami with child recruits. “As the LTTE seeks to rebuild its forces after the tsunami, children are at enormous risk,” said Becker. “Children have always been targeted, but children who have lost their homes or families from the tsunami now are even more susceptible to LTTE recruitment.”

The LTTE is reportedly pressuring many camps for tsunami victims to relocate from government-held areas to LTTE-held territory. Human Rights Watch expressed strong concern that such relocation will put children at greater risk of recruitment.

Source: Human Rights Watch (2005).

Many former child soldiers have also been subjected to horrific experiences – having been intentionally traumatized, brutalized, and sexually assaulted or having been forced to commit dreadful acts themselves. Some became addicted to drugs as a result of those they were given in order to desensitize and encourage them to commit atrocities. Others have been infected with HIV and AIDS or other sexually transmitted infections, and girls may have become pregnant and may have small children of their own. Many girl ‘child soldiers’ have been used as labourers, for sexual purposes or for forced marriages. Returnee children may also have physical disabilities, in addition to their trauma.

Many child soldiers have had limited or no access to formal education because they were recruited at an early age, their education has been disrupted by conflict or their families have not been able to keep them in school. They may thus have learned no skills other than those required for fighting and surviving in an armed group. However, despite the horrors

experienced by many child soldiers, some will also have gained considerable maturity and be quite experienced in survival skills, leadership, negotiation, organization, information sharing and communication. This may complicate their social relations with other children of the same age and can create particular challenges regarding their integration into regular schools and classrooms.

In the immediate aftermath of war, donors may be willing to quickly fund programmes for ex-combatants. Quick decisions on programme structure, however, may be counter-productive if the ex-combatants are not consulted and do not perceive the programmes as relevant and choose not to participate. Should this occur, there is a risk that demobilized child soldiers, lacking better options, will return to a life of violence or criminal behaviour – either re-enlisting with armed forces or militias or becoming members of street gangs that terrorize local communities in order to survive. To help prevent this, educational authorities must work to find ways of giving former child soldiers access to relevant educational opportunities – whether these consist of formal schooling, some type of vocational or skills training programme, or an organized recreation programme to help them re-adjust to community life.

While such efforts are critical, educational authorities must also be aware of the dangers of aiming programmes exclusively at demobilized child soldiers. Such programmes run the risk of further stigmatizing child soldiers and of excluding other children and youth who managed to resist or avoid becoming child soldiers. Children and youth who did not become child soldiers may resent programming efforts targeted specifically at former child soldiers. In extreme cases, they may even take up

arms just to gain access to the programme. Girls who served in some capacity with the fighting forces may be excluded from programmes for former child soldiers and particularly vulnerable as they may be isolated from their community as well. A strategy must be developed for the identification of children eligible for rehabilitation programmes, using the broadest definition of a child soldier. It is crucial not to nourish the serious and dangerous perception that former combatants are being rewarded with a programme, job skills, or other incentives that are not available to others. Therefore, it is essential that programme designers understand child soldiers and their experiences as well as the educational needs of the entire affected community. See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3.5*, ‘Psychosocial support to learners’ and *Chapter 4.6*, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Educational authorities have a central role to play with regard to how former child soldiers are integrated into educational initiatives because initiatives, if handled improperly, can lead to much disruption, or the continued alienation/isolation of the children concerned. Some key strategies for doing so are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies Former child soldiers

- 1. Prevent schools from becoming places of recruitment or abduction.**
- 2. Identify and coordinate education programmes that are currently being conducted for former child soldiers in the country.**
- 3. Conduct or participate in needs assessments regarding the reintegration of child soldiers.**
- 4. Develop plans for the (re)integration of former child soldiers into the national school system.**
- 5. Design or support the educational activities that were identified through the participatory assessment.**
- 6. Ensure monitoring and evaluation of all programmes designed to increase the educational access of demobilized child soldiers.**

Guidance notes

1. Prevent schools from becoming places of recruitment or abduction.

- Has training related to child protection and the prevention of child soldier recruitment or abduction been provided for teachers, administrators and other education workers?
 - Which organizations can provide such training?
 - How can teachers and administrators convey this information to parents and students?
- Are head-teachers empowered to make schools and surrounding compounds physically safe, considering factors such as:
 - Is entry to the school grounds regulated? Who monitors access?
 - In situations of ongoing conflict, has the use of guards been considered?
 - Is the school area fenced? Is it practical to consider a fence to protect the school compound?
- Are teachers trained to monitor attendance? A sudden disappearance from school may be an indicator that a child has been abducted.
- Have community awareness efforts been undertaken to inform parents and the community about the need to prevent military recruitment or abduction of children?
 - Consider involving parent-teacher associations or school-management committees in recruitment-prevention initiatives, such as making the school safer.
 - Ensure that these efforts include information on:
 - The definition of a child soldier.

- The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which prohibits the use of child soldiers, and which almost all countries have ratified.
- National or local laws that prohibit the use of child soldiers.
- How to avoid recruitment and avenues of appeal if a child is recruited.

2. Identify and coordinate education programmes that are currently being conducted for former child soldiers in the country.

See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’ and *Chapter 5.7*, ‘Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)’.

- Do all programmes have an education component?
- Where are education activities occurring?
 - In demobilization or transit camps?
 - In interim care centres?
- Which of the following types of programme are being offered (in addition to access to normal schooling)?
 - Structured recreational activities or youth clubs to increase self-esteem and decrease isolation?
 - Accelerated primary education? (e.g. six years condensed to three years).
 - Basic literacy/numeracy?
 - Skills training?
- Who is conducting the education activities and where?
 - Local NGOs?
 - International NGOs?
 - UNICEF or another United Nations agency?
 - Religious organizations?

- Other government ministries, particularly those responsible for children and youth, health, welfare and development, disarmament and demobilization, and reconstruction and rehabilitation?
- Who is funding the initiatives?
- For programmes that are being offered in demobilization or interim care centres, what are the plans for where the children will go and what they will do after they leave the centres?
 - Can members of the community participate in the programmes offered in these centres?
- When are children expected to be reintegrated into their communities, and which communities will be affected?

3. Conduct or participate in needs assessments regarding the reintegration of child soldiers.

Needs assessment should examine the current circumstances and plans or interests of former child soldiers with regard to education. Assessments that are participatory and involve former child soldiers in their design and implementation will help ensure relevant programming decisions based on the assessments. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’ and Chapter 5.7, ‘Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)’.)

- Have the needs and conditions of all former child soldiers been assessed?
 - Boys and girls?
 - Former combatants and those who served another supporting role?
- What is the educational background of the former child soldiers?

- How many former child soldiers – both boys and girls – would like to enter the formal school system?
- Are special programmes, such as accelerated learning or bridging, needed to (re) integrate former child soldiers into the formal education system? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.9, 'Non-formal education.'*)
 - Where would such programmes be located?
 - Are there teachers who are trained and available to implement these types of programmes?
 - If outside assistance is needed, are there organizations in the area that can support the design and implementation of such programmes?
 - How will these programmes be linked to the formal system to ensure that students can successfully make the transition from the accelerated programme to the national school system?



INFORMAL EDUCATION FOR FORMER CHILD SOLDIERS IN LIBERIA

In Liberia, former child soldiers residing in interim care centres, managed by Save the Children UK, took part in daily activities designed to give structure to their lives. The children helped with the maintenance and repair of their centres. This instilled a pride in their surroundings, and a sense of responsibility for their own environment. Over the course of these activities, they also acquired skills such as carpentry and roofing. They grew their own vegetable plots, which gave children a sense of achievement and pride in their efforts, and encouraged them to work together to help each other achieve a common goal.

Source: Lorey (2001: 29).

- What other types of education programmes are needed/wanted by child soldiers?
 - Literacy/numeracy programmes.
 - Skills training and/or apprenticeships.
 - Health education.
 - Peace education, conflict resolution, etc.
 - Psychosocial programmes consisting of “structured recreation activities that include sports and games, dancing, music, drawing and other art, theatre, story telling, and other forms of group recreation. These activities provide a physical and emotional space for children to relieve tension, express emotion, learn appropriate modes of interacting with others, and come to terms with their past experiences and present situation” (Lorey, 2001).

4. Develop plans for the (re)integration of former child soldiers into the national school system.

- How can plans be developed that take into account the needs of former child soldiers while not neglecting the needs of other children and youth in the area?
- What gaps exist in educational opportunities for demobilized child soldiers?
 - How can these gaps best be addressed?
 - Can local or district educational authorities address the gaps?
 - Are outside resources necessary?
- If all the former child soldiers that want to continue (or start) their formal education were integrated into the national system, how many additional children would enter the system – where and in what grades?
 - What additional resources – teachers, classrooms, supplies, etc. – would be necessary to accommodate these children?



LEARNING PEACE

“Peace education is an important dimension of demobilization and reintegration projects. Intensive involvement in armed struggles tends to force alignment of the combatant’s beliefs with the ideology of the group, as well as the legitimization of violence. Such belief systems do not disappear when child soldiers hand over their guns. To move towards peace, these belief systems must be addressed in school curricula through peace education as well as experimental, non-formal programmes. Part of demobilization is the slow shift of antagonisms and the glorification of violence to constructive ideologies that offer an inclusive, peace-oriented vision of the future.

Child soldiers face the difficult task of coming to terms with moral sensibilities deformed by war ... New child soldiers are often forced to commit acts of violence in ways that are designed to alter their identities and eliminate moral concern for victims. Without appropriate support and assistance, child soldiers may easily revert back into learned patterns of aggression as a means of satisfying their immediate needs. Having broken moral barriers and learned to devalue members of rival groups, child soldiers have advanced far along a progression of destructive behavior, a progression that makes further violence much easier to undertake” (Staub, 1989).

Source: Miller and Affolter (2002: 34).

- Are additional resources available from other organizations?
 - How can resources be made available to former child soldiers without singling them out for special treatment?
 - Can resources be provided to the entire school so all benefit?

- Can certain resources, such as clothing/school uniforms or supplies, be delivered directly to former child soldiers to allow them to attend school?
- What must be done to prepare the schools to receive former child soldiers?
 - What steps must be taken to protect the identities of former child soldiers?
 - Do administrators, teachers and other education workers need training related to child soldiers on the following subjects?
 - How to avoid stigmatizing them.
 - How to handle violent outbursts.
 - How to mediate or resolve conflicts (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.6, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'*).
 - How to refer child soldiers (and others) for special counselling if necessary.



COMMUNITY EDUCATION INVESTMENT PROGRAMME IN SIERRA LEONE

One component of the Community Education Investment Programme in Sierra Leone was the reintegration of former child soldiers back into Sierra Leonean schools. As an incentive for local schools to participate in the programme, schools that enrolled the former child soldiers were given educational supplies and materials so that all children benefited. In addition, former child soldiers were given uniforms and had their enrolment and tuition fees waived to enable them to attend.

Source: Lowicki and Anderson-Pillsbury (2002).

- Are awareness-raising campaigns or community education programmes necessary or desirable?
 - Who will conduct them?
 - What will be the role of parent-teacher associations or school-management committees?
 - Initial meetings should focus on listening to the concerns of community members and identifying how these concerns can be addressed (Lorey, 2001).

5. Design or support the educational activities that were identified through the participatory assessment.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.5, ‘Psychosocial support to learners’ and Chapter 4.6, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’.)

- Involve young people (both former combatants and community youth) in the design and development processes to ensure the activities meet their needs and that they will participate in them.
- Consider the potential negative effects of such programmes and seek input from community members (see also ‘Tools and resources’: ‘Potential negative effects of child soldier reorientation programmes and how to address them’).
- Seek outside assistance/support as necessary.
- Consider whether different types of programmes are needed for former child soldiers of varying ages.
- Consider flexible hours for the education programmes so that working students may also attend.
- Consider including some form of skills training in or linked to formal schools.

- Consider out-of-school activities for informal interaction among children (former child soldiers and community members).

6. Ensure monitoring and evaluation of all programmes designed to increase the educational access of demobilized child soldiers.

- Are former child soldiers attending regularly? Retention and attendance are keys to the success of these programmes.
- If former child soldiers are not attending regularly, determine why not. Is it because:
 - They do not think the programme is relevant? If so, adjust the programme to meet their needs.
 - Programme hours conflict with their need to generate income for survival? If so, consider adjusting programme hours to times they can attend.
 - Young women have small children and therefore cannot attend? If so, consider ways of providing childcare so young mothers can attend.
 - Children are being re-recruited into armed forces? If so, work with other government ministries and all concerned organizations to find ways of keeping children out of armed forces – either through educational or income-generating opportunities.
- Include former child soldiers as active participants in programme monitoring and evaluation activities.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Legal frameworks prohibiting the use of child soldiers

The *Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)* is the most comprehensive and widely ratified human rights treaty in existence. Although it defines a child as anyone under the age of 18 and sets out provisions for the protection and care of children affected by armed conflict, it somewhat incongruously puts the age of legal recruitment and participation in armed conflict at 15.

Formally, the CRC is only legally binding on governments, but it can also be used to advocate with armed opposition groups. The *Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict* addresses the age discrepancy in the CRC by explicitly establishing 18 as the minimum age for direct participation in armed conflict. It also requires all states parties to make it a criminal offence for non-governmental armed groups to recruit anyone under 18. While governments must not conscript children under 18 into the armed forces, they may recruit persons between the age of 16 and 18 with a series of established safeguards ensuring that such recruitment is genuinely voluntary, that it is done with the informed consent of the minor's parents or legal guardians, that recruits are fully informed of the duties involved in military service, that proof of age is established, and that soldiers are not deployed before the age of 18.





The ***African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child*** defines a child as anyone under the age of 18. The Charter precludes the recruitment of children and their participation in armed conflict. It further requires states parties to protect civilians and ensure respect for all rules of international humanitarian law applicable to children in all armed conflict, including internal conflict.

The ***1977 Additional Protocols to the 1949 Geneva Conventions*** set the legal age of recruitment at 15 and require special protection and treatment for children in armed conflict. Importantly, the protocols also apply to all parties to a conflict; Additional Protocol I relates to international armed conflicts and Additional Protocol II relates to non-international or internal conflicts within states.

The ***Statute of the International Criminal Court*** lists the use of child combatants younger than 15 as a war crime. The court has jurisdiction over both international armed conflicts and those internal conflicts that meet certain criteria.

Although not a legal document, the ***Cape Town Principles*** represent an important consensus among major international NGOs and UNICEF, and offer useful guidance in developing policy and programmes that protect and support child soldiers. In addition to defining key terms, the principles provide a comprehensive overview of appropriate action related to the prevention of recruitment, demobilization, and reintegration of child soldiers.

Source: Lorey (2001: 9–10).

These developments in the legal framework are supported and reflected in a growing international consensus against the use of children as soldiers:

The new International Criminal Court will treat the use of child soldiers as a war crime;

The **International Labour Organization** (ILO) has defined child soldiering as one of the worst forms of child labour.

The **United Nations Security Council**, the **United Nations General Assembly**, the **United Nations Commission on Human Rights**, the **Organization for African Unity**, the **Organization of American States** and the **Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe** have all condemned the abuse.

2. Potential negative effects of child soldier reintegration programmes and how to address them

It is critical to consider carefully the potential negative effects of child soldier reintegration programmes and make plans of how to avoid or mitigate these effects. Possible negative consequences of child soldier programmes include the following:

POTENTIAL NEGATIVE EFFECTS	RESPONSE
The solidarity, <i>esprit de corps</i> , and authority structures among child soldiers may be reinforced if they stay together for long periods in an interim care centre or other facility. This can lead to re-recruitment or mass departure of the children.	Develop activities to facilitate a break with military life after demobilization and encourage programming with small groups of children. Emphasize community reintegration when possible to prevent long-term stays in care centres.

POTENTIAL NEGATIVE EFFECTS	RESPONSE
Former child soldiers may become dependent on the services provided at an interim care centre, leading to unwillingness to depart.	Minimize the duration of children's stay and do not provide support that greatly exceeds the support available in the community where the child will be reintegrated.
Assembling a large group of ex-child soldiers in one site may attract recruitment or retaliation.	Locate facilities at a reasonable distance from active conflict zones, ensure that security is strong at the facility, and resettle children in family situations as rapidly as possible.
Children who are reintegrated into a community may face retaliation by community members or by members of the armed group that they left.	Work with community leaders in advance of reintegration to ensure acceptance and protection of children by the community. If children are in danger of retaliation from their former armed group, consider reintegrating the children into other communities and maintaining confidentiality about their locations.
Resentment may emerge toward former child soldiers if they are seen as recipients of more benefits than other children; this perception may also provide another 'incentive' to join an armed group for other children and their families.	Balance assistance to ex-child soldiers with assistance for all war-affected/vulnerable children in an area. Avoid programming that isolates or differentiates ex-child soldiers from other children.

Source: Adapted from Lorey (2001: 56).

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LEARNING SPACES AND SCHOOL FACILITIES

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure access to safe learning spaces and provide for children’s daily basic needs during school hours.**
- **To identify risks and hazards to children’s safety in the school environment and take active steps to prevent those risks and hazards from causing a disaster.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The space to learn is one of the most basic elements necessary to ensure access to education. Although school classrooms are the most common location in which structured learning takes place, education can (and does) take place in a variety of locations – in permanent school facilities; in tents or temporary school structures; under plastic sheeting or trees; in places of worship; in people’s homes, etc. Spaces for learning are essential and should be demarcated even at the earliest stage of the creation of a new settlement or camp. Refugee children, and sometimes IDP (internally displaced person) children, especially those in camps,

cannot generally be accommodated in existing local schools, which may be subject to overcrowding if they are opened to these children. Construction of refugee schools is sometimes undertaken by external agencies without consulting the local and national authorities concerned in the host country. This may cause resentment among the local population unless appropriate measures are taken. For this reason, safe spaces for learning are needed within the camps themselves – a requirement that is more challenging if the camps are overcrowded.

However, in acute emergencies it is more important for children to have swift access to learning opportunities than to buildings and actual facilities. Although shelter of some kind is needed, the initial temptation to begin constructing new buildings as soon as possible should not override the more critical need to hire and train teachers and to begin classes in a temporary structure so that children can quickly engage in educational activities.

National and international education providers may begin uncoordinated construction of inappropriate schools, without proper safety factors, adequately sized classrooms, access for the disabled, or space for future expansion. There may be little or inadequate information available on both the number of students or teachers to expect and their educational levels or needs. While learning spaces are important, what is happening inside them is paramount, especially in emergency settings.

Conventional learning spaces are often destroyed, inaccessible, or occupied for purposes other than schooling – such as housing, storage or medical care. Particularly during civil conflicts, school buildings are often targeted due to their status as gathering points for the community and as training grounds for future

community leadership. This is less common in the context of international conflict, due to international rules of engagement such as the Geneva conventions. However, this may be exploited by the warring parties who often use school premises to conceal weapon stores, etc., rendering the schools intrinsically unsafe. In situations of conflict, school premises can also become places for recruitment of both male and female child soldiers.

In all types of conflict, parents are often afraid to send their children to school during periods of active fighting, since both schools and their access and exit routes may be unsafe. In the case of protracted emergencies, premises may progressively deteriorate – due to deliberate damage, looting and/or lack of repair and maintenance. If natural materials for rapid educational response are not used wisely, environmental damage can occur. However, communities are often left with no choice but to attempt to repair old school buildings with what limited resources they have. The most important factor remains the provision of a safe and secure environment in which a level of quality education may be provided.

In addition, during many conflict or disaster situations, health issues can occur as a result of poor hygiene and sanitation conditions. In these situations or during specific times of rapid onset epidemics (e.g. cholera outbreaks), school premises are often converted into emergency health facilities. Not only is it important to ensure that, if used, these premises are properly disinfected, but it is necessary to have clear agreements between education and health agencies to ensure minimum disruption to schooling.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Developing and providing learning spaces in emergencies and during early reconstruction is a costly and significant investment. Special consideration must be given to the fact that the actual teaching and learning processes are more important than buildings – but the latter may help to facilitate the former. Providing safe and adequate learning spaces should therefore also be a priority and especially during emergencies and early reconstruction. The strategies listed below outline some of the key considerations in the provision of safe learning environments.

In all of these activities, collaboration and discussion with the IASC humanitarian clusters in the country/region are essential (HPG, 2007). These should at the minimum include the WASH (Water, Sanitation and Hygiene) Cluster, the Education Cluster (see the *Guidebook Chapter 5.11*, ‘Coordination and communication’), and the Nutrition and Protection Clusters.



Summary of suggested strategies Learning spaces

Physical safety

- 1. Take steps to strengthen the education ministry’s department to support provision and management of safe school construction and infrastructure.**
- 2. In early emergencies, ensure immediate access to schooling for as many children as**



possible and encourage schools to seek the support of the local community.

3. **Prepare/adapt guidelines regarding permanent and temporary building standards, if needed according to the INEE guidelines on safer school construction.**
4. **Ensure that existing learning spaces are safe and prepare and implement a plan for the rehabilitation, reconstruction or replacement of damaged buildings.**
5. **Determine whether new schools or additional learning spaces are needed and where they should be located.**
6. **Determine and prioritize needs for school furniture, equipment and supplies.**

Environmental and hygiene safety

1. **Consider the establishment of learning spaces that address the needs of the whole child, including food and health.**
2. **Emphasize the need for safe drinking water. Schools and health centres should have priority in emergency water supply programmes.**
3. **Emphasize the need for adequate and well-functioning latrines.**
4. **Communicate the necessity of establishing waste disposal programmes at the school level.**

Guidance notes

Physical safety

1. **Take steps to strengthen the education ministry's or education authority's capacity to support preparedness for, provision of and management of safe learning environments, school construction and infrastructure.**
 - Conduct a vulnerability mapping exercise in the region/country.

WHAT ARE RISK, HAZARD AND VULNERABILITY MAPS?

The map is a common and effective tool for representing the results of risk, hazard, and vulnerability assessments. Maps allow you to establish geographically 1) the frequency/probability of hazards of various magnitudes or durations, 2) the schools which are exposed to these hazards and 3) the estimated vulnerability of these schools. There are several benefits to using maps to represent risk data:

- Hazard, vulnerability (e.g. building types and ages), and school location data can be overlaid on the map to help estimate the risk levels of different areas.
- The clear visual representation of data, if kept simple, facilitates analysis and decision-making.
- Maps are easily adaptable for public awareness and other educational purposes.
- Maps of any scale (e.g. national, regional, local) and level of detail can be created based on intended use.





Steps in creating a vulnerability map include:

1 *Identify hazards and their characteristics at a macro-level.*

- Determine and prepare for those hazards/risks that affect schools in different geographic areas.

In many cases schools may be exposed to more than one hazard. The most recent hazard event may not be the hazard which poses the most immediate or greatest danger. For example, a coastal region prone to cyclones may also experience flooding due to storm surge, and a school built on the slope of a mountain in a seismically active area may be exposed to landslides.

- Identify and assess each of the potential hazards. For each hazard, you will need to determine these five main variables:

1. Magnitude
2. Duration
3. Likelihood of occurrence
4. Affected area
5. Preparedness

2 *Identify the location of schools*

To identify the hazards to which a given school or prospective school is exposed and their potential magnitudes and likelihood of occurrence, you will need to determine the location of schools in question. If you are using hazard maps, school locations can be plotted directly on the hazard maps.

3 *Determine risk of existing schools and prioritize for retrofitting measures*

Where a large number of schools are being considered, conducting detailed assessments of each and every school in order to determine those schools at greatest risk may not be financially feasible. Adopting a transparent and technically based prioritization schema, or risk screening plan, can help to quickly identify the most vulnerable schools.

Source: Adapted from INEE (2009).

- Update hazard assessments on a regular basis.

“Making a school a safer place means working with its community to identify ways to continue monitoring the known hazards, maintaining the protective capacity of the school buildings, and learning new ways to reduce risk.

HOW SAFE ARE YOUR SCHOOLS?

Have all natural hazards posing a threat to schools been identified?

- How often are these risks reassessed?
- Are the school population and the local community aware of the risk?
- Were the school buildings designed to meet building code standards?
- Who designed the schools?
- Did (Does) the building code provide guidance on hazard-resilient design?
- Was the soil tested before the school was built?
- Were builders trained to apply hazard-resilient techniques?
- Was the school construction supervised by a qualified engineer?
- Who is responsible for managing the school maintenance program? Are mechanisms in place to ensure school maintenance is financed and executed?
- Do natural hazard events regularly create disruptions in the school calendar? Is there a backup plan to ensure that school operations continue?





- Are school furnishings and equipment designed and installed to minimize potential harm they might cause to school occupants?
- Do students, teachers, staff, and school administrators know what to do before, during and after a hazard event?
- Has a safe location been identified if the school must be evacuated? Is the passage to that location also safe?
- Does a disaster management committee exist in the school or the local community?
- During a hazard event, does the school serve as a shelter? Has it been designed to do so?
- Are the school population and local community aware of how they can reduce their vulnerability to the damaging impacts of a hazard event? Are they actively taking measures to do so?
- Does the school have a Disaster Risk Reduction manual and trained personnel?
- Does the school have evacuation scenarios, and has a simulation exercise been implemented?
- Are the local authorities aware of the school's routines, action plan and coordination mechanisms?"

Source: INEE (2009: 12).

For more information on how to ensure safe school construction and related disaster risk reduction strategies, see *Guidance notes on safer school construction: global facility for disaster reduction and recovery* (INEE, 2009).

In addition to the latest guidance notes on safer school construction (above), the INEE Minimum Standard 2 on access and learning environment deals with protection and well-being:

“Learning environments are secure, and promote the protection and emotional well-being of learners” (INEE, 2004: 41). The key indicators that may show whether this standard has been met include:

KEY INDICATORS OF PROTECTION AND WELL-BEING

- Schools and other learning environments are located in close proximity to the populations they serve.
- Access routes to the learning environment are safe and secure for all.
- The learning environment is free from dangers that may cause harm to learners.
- Training programmes for teachers, learners and the community are in place to promote safety, security and protection.
- Teachers and other education personnel are provided with the skills to give psychosocial support to promote learners’ emotional well-being.
- The community is involved in decisions concerning the location of the learning environment, and in establishing systems and policies to ensure that learners are safe and secure.
- The nutrition and short-term hunger needs of learners are addressed to allow for effective learning to take place at the learning site.

Source: (INEE, 2004: 45).

See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a full overview of Standard 3, on access and learning, in the *Minimum standards*, which concerns facilities and relate to the above.

- What is the condition of existing school facilities? Have local supervisors and head-teachers reviewed the following:
 - How many schools have been damaged during the conflict? Bombed? Burned?
 - Have the building(s) and grounds been officially cleared of landmines and unexploded ordnance?
 - Have sharp and dangerous objects been removed from both inside and outside the school?
 - Has there been an assessment to determine whether each building is structurally sound? If a building is determined to be a hazard, has it been clearly communicated to all concerned that the building should no longer be used?
- Are the schools in an area of ongoing fighting?
 - Has there been communication with all parties to the conflict regarding the schools' designation as a 'safe area'? The Rome Statute of 1998, which outlines the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court, includes protection for educational institutions under Article 8. Therefore, the targeting of schools and educational institutions can be prosecuted as a war crime.
 - What steps have been taken to prepare the students and schools for safety if fighting occurs?
 - Are there evacuation plans?
 - What plans have been put in place to reunite students with their families if attacks occur?
 - Are bomb shelters needed?
 - Are buildings suitably reinforced for fighting – for example, using sacks filled with dirt or sand – to catch ricocheting bullets and provide additional support for walls and ceilings?
- Are parents afraid to send their children to school, as they fear for their safety en route? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.2,

‘Gender’, and *Chapter 2.5*, ‘Former child soldiers’, for a discussion of how to make schools safer from recruitment/abduction.)

- Is it possible to enlist adult escorts or older children to escort young children to school?
- Can a ‘buddy system’ be implemented so children never walk alone?
- Can the community organize transportation for children from particular areas?
- If the school is near a busy road, what provisions have been made for children to cross the road? Are children trained in road safety?
- If children must walk in the dark, how are they seen? Do they have reflectors or reflective tape on their clothing or school bags?



CHILD FRIENDLY SPACES

“Developing designated safe areas in the aftermath of an acute crisis can be an important mechanism of protection for children. In refugee camps, for example, the simple demarcation of an area with rope, plastic tape or stones can preserve a space for children that can later be developed into a school or a playing area. UNICEF’s ‘Child Friendly Spaces’ provide integrated educational, health and social support services for conflict-affected families. The concept was first used in 1999 in the Kosovar refugee camps in Albania and Macedonia. While school classes and recreation served as core activities, the model offered a structure for ensuring that other children’s services, such as early childhood care, psychosocial counselling, infant feeding, nutritional support, basic health care and hygiene, were available. The concept has subsequently been adapted for use in Afghanistan, Angola, East Timor, El Salvador, Guinea, Kosovo, Liberia and Turkey.”

Source: Siegrist, cited in Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003: 20).

As part of provision of learning spaces, the ministry or education authority in collaboration with other partners should determine and prioritize needs for school furniture, equipment and supplies. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section in this chapter for examples of what can be done ‘immediately, sooner, later’.)

- What type of seating is appropriate for students?
 - Seating and furnishings should be based on student needs and local norms, for example mats with low tables, desk/bench units for two to three students, desks with individual chairs or chair desks.
 - Furniture should be appropriate for the students’ age and height. Care should be taken in multi-age classrooms that both older and younger children in the classroom can be comfortably seated.
 - Consider the use of participatory teaching methods when selecting school furniture. Will children be able to move around the classroom and work together in small groups?
- How many desks, chairs, benches and/or mats are necessary?
- How many and what size blackboards are required?
 - Blackboards should be positioned so that all children can easily see them.
 - Blackboards should be repainted when necessary.
- How many tables and chairs are needed for teachers? In classrooms? In staff rooms?
- What other furniture is needed, for example lockable cupboards for supplies?
- Is school furniture permanently marked with the school’s name?
- Are local carpenters/businesses used to build school desks, benches or chairs? Do other local purchase options exist?

- Can young people assist with furniture production – perhaps through a vocational/skills training or apprenticeship programme?
- What procedures will be put in place to maintain the furniture and equipment?

2. In early emergencies, ensure immediate access to schooling for as many children as possible.

Access can be organized in the open air (in some climatic conditions), with temporary shelter (e.g. tents or plastic sheeting) or school buildings. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for examples of what can be done ‘immediately, sooner, later’.) Issues to be considered by national and local educational authorities, as well as other education providers, include the following:

- Can displaced children be integrated directly into existing schools and classrooms?
 - In the case of refugees, is this option acceptable to government authorities and community members?
 - Is it feasible, for example if refugee numbers are high?
 - For refugee students, how are critical considerations such as curriculum issues and language of instruction to be addressed? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’*.)
 - Is there enough space so that classrooms will not be overcrowded?
 - If classrooms are already overcrowded, can they be used during non-school hours for the education of displaced children?
 - Does the inclusion of displaced populations require amendments to the learning spaces, for example to provide separate classrooms for girls, access for disabled children, etc.?

- If there is a shortage of classrooms, what alternative, safe, learning spaces can be used on a temporary basis?
 - Shelter provided by trees.
 - Roof or frame constructed of wood or bamboo and covered with a plastic sheet or tarpaulin.
 - School tents.
 - Non-school property such as gyms, warehouses, unused government buildings, or religious buildings – if such facilities are safe.
- What spaces can be used for recreation and sports, preferably in proximity to schools?
- Who must grant permission for such spaces to be used?
- Do the plans for temporary structures ensure that children are protected from rain, sun and cold? All construction should be appropriate for the local climate and allow for adequate light, ventilation and heat, if necessary.

3. Prepare and implement a plan for the rehabilitation, reconstruction or replacement of damaged buildings.

Depending on the scale of the emergency, this may be a matter of a few buildings or it may cost millions of dollars. A detailed survey is needed to identify the condition of buildings, prioritize maintenance, repair or reconstruction work, and decide which buildings are unsafe and must be vacated.

- What is the condition of the buildings? The water supply? Latrines? Electricity supply?
- How much work can communities undertake, if certain materials are provided?
 - Consider establishing district or sub-district centres with roofing materials, etc., for reconstruction of schools and on-site examples of how to use the materials.

- How much will it cost to rehabilitate, reconstruct or replace the damaged buildings?
 - Is international assistance required?
 - If so, how will such assistance be coordinated to ensure that schools throughout the country are repaired and replaced?
- Have district education offices been rehabilitated/reconstructed? These offices will be essential for the coordination of school rehabilitation or (re)construction.
- Is a national construction unit required to handle major infrastructure programmes?



SCHOOL REHABILITATION IN EAST TIMOR

A team of East Timorese engineers and school architects, hired in early 2000 to conduct a civil engineering survey, reported that nearly half the schools surveyed needed to be demolished and replaced. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sports, district education committees made the decision on which schools to rehabilitate, based on damage reports and enrolment estimates. A group of supervising engineers then set out to inspect the schools selected to assess whether they were repairable, and if so, to scope the repair work. School principals, in consultation with school councils where they existed, managed the rehabilitation. As deemed appropriate, this could be done through volunteer labour or sub-contracted. Overall, some US\$1.19 million was paid out to communities for work on minor school construction. In addition to local volunteer labour, 52 different local businesses and community cooperatives were contracted to rehabilitate schools. To inform the community of these activities, posters were translated into local languages and posted at school sites. They contained information on the total amount of the sub-grant, its expected outcomes, names of the construction workers and the expected start-up and completion dates.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 106).

- In all of the above, encourage the support of the local community. (For more information about involving the community, see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5*, on ‘Community participation’)
- Have head teachers and supervisors received training on working with the local community and encouraging community participation? Possible areas of participation include:
 - Site selection committees.
 - Construction of schools – helping with construction, carrying sand or water, etc.
 - Maintenance and upkeep of schools – cleaning and maintaining classrooms, grounds and latrines.
 - Provision of funds for school construction or maintenance needs.
 - Assistance with school safety and security – providing escorts to children, acting as school guards, if the situation warrants.
 - Responsibility for school gardens.
- Can parent–teacher associations be established to facilitate cooperation?
- Are school facilities available for community events? This will help integrate the school into the community.

4. Determine whether new schools or additional learning spaces are needed and where they should be located.

(Refer also to the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5*, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’ for a general discussion on access and how many children are not in school.)

- How many children are estimated to be out of school and seeking admission?
- How many additional learning spaces are available?

- What are the local norms or standards for how many children should occupy a classroom at one time?
- Has the possibility of multiple shifts been considered?
 - UNHCR (2003: 73) recommends a minimum of 6 hours per day for students in grade 4 and above, which in many conditions means a full-day session.
- How many additional classrooms/learning spaces are needed? Is this estimate based on the use of shifts for students in lower primary, or for higher grades?
- Have learning resource centres/libraries for students and adults, and teacher resource centres, been considered? These may help to raise education standards, and provide places for study and lesson preparation.
- Have donors been asked to provide support for temporary structures in all locations rather than modern school buildings for a few central locations?
- Have site selection committees been formed? The committees should include:
 - Teachers.
 - Parents and community members.
 - Local government officials.
 - Engineers or site planners.
 - Health and social workers.
- If a site selection committee is not established, are communities consulted regarding the proposed locations of new schools/classrooms?
- Has the distance from students' homes been considered in the site selection process?
 - Ideally, lower grade primary schools should be located within walking distance so that young children will be able to attend. If the schools are too far from home, parents

will be reluctant to send their children. Therefore, the use of multiple, smaller ‘feeder’ primary schools or ‘satellite campuses’ should be considered.

- For upper primary grades, larger schools that take students from multiple ‘feeder’ schools or ‘satellite’ campuses in the area can be constructed. These schools can be further from students’ homes as the children will be able to walk longer distances.
- In times of insecurity, older girls should be allowed to attend classes at sites nearer to their homes. (See box on ‘Home schools for girls in Afghanistan’ in the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.2, ‘Gender’.)
- Do the proposed sites have water access? (See below for more on water access and latrines.)
- Do the proposed sites allow for expansion of the school as more children begin schooling each year?
- Do the proposed sites have spaces for sports and recreation?
- Is government land available for new schools?
- If government land is not available, who owns the land?
 - What procedures must be followed in order to use the land?
 - What procedures must be followed for the government or the local community to obtain ownership of the land?
- If either temporary or permanent schools/classrooms are to be constructed within the boundaries of a refugee or IDP camp, will the local community also be allowed access to the school (if language and curriculum considerations make this appropriate)?
- In refugee or IDP situations, what procedures will be put in place to ensure that the local community benefits from the school after the refugees or IDPs return home?

5. Prepare guidelines regarding permanent and temporary building standards, if needed.

Semi-permanent or permanent school facilities may be constructed in protracted emergencies or during early reconstruction. The decision of what type of facility to construct should be based on the materials available and their adequacy – in terms of both educational quality and students’ and teachers’ health. Consideration must also be given to how long they will last in the climatic conditions of the place concerned. The *UNHCR Environmental guidelines* (UNHCR, 2005) and the *Sphere handbook* (Sphere Project, 2004) should be consulted when setting these standards. Other points to consider regarding new school/classroom construction include the following:

- Have national standards been established for key aspects of classroom size, building design, etc., to ensure good practice in erecting temporary as well as permanent schools?
 - If outside organizations are building permanent schools/classrooms, are they being built to the government’s standards? Are guidelines needed to guide the construction of temporary schools (e.g. classroom size, roof overhang)?
 - If there is not an official school standard, consider establishing one. The standard may reflect the example set by an already existing school, such as a well-run local government school near the capital.
 - Ensure that local building standards or good practice (where standards are not practicable for temporary or semi-permanent structures in rural areas) are followed and that proper permits are obtained when necessary.
 - Encourage local purchase and the use of local materials, such as bamboo or mud.

- If temporary schools are built, what is the plan for replacing them and building semi-permanent or permanent structures?
- Have the needs of students with disabilities been considered?
 - Schools and classrooms should be accessible to children and teachers with disabilities.
 - Latrines should be accessible to children and teachers with disabilities. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.4, 'Children with disabilities'*.)
- In camp situations, is regular monitoring of the condition of school and classroom structures conducted?
 - This will indicate the types of classrooms that work the best (in terms of durability and classroom instruction) and should be replicated in future construction.
 - It will also indicate the need for repairs and maintenance.

Environmental and hygiene safety

It is essential in any emergency or crisis situation to also consider the health and hygiene requirements for rehabilitated, new or temporary learning spaces.

- Has a health manual been developed?
- Have national policies regarding these issues been developed?

1. Consider the establishment of learning spaces that address the needs of the whole child, including food and health.

- Is a school feeding programme desirable? (For more information on school feeding, see 'Tools and resources' in

the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5*, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’.)

- Are health services integrated into the schools? Consider the use of UNICEF’s ‘child friendly space’ concept where routine health procedures, such as immunizations, are also offered on the school grounds.
- Are sanitary supplies for girls made available? This may be important in securing older girls’ access to school and their regular attendance.
- Has a health focal point been appointed to schools?
- What is the condition of schools in preparation for an epidemic?
 - Are the WASH (Water, Sanitation and Hygiene) facilities appropriate?
 - Is the access to safe drinking water guaranteed?
 - Does a school health focal point exist?
 - Did the teachers/education personnel receive any training for epidemics?

2. Promote access to safe drinking water. Schools and health centres should have priority in emergency water-supply programmes.

- Consider the following challenges to providing access to safe drinking water in schools:
 - Have there been any attempts to assess the existing water and sanitation facilities in school?
 - What is the availability and sustainability of a sufficient quantity of water?
 - Is water treatment required? If so, what is the feasibility of water treatment plans?
 - How much time, technology or funding are required to develop a source?

- Is the source within the proximity of the affected population?
- Are there any social, political or legal factors concerning the source?
- Have water points been located in areas that are accessible to all regardless of, for example, gender or ethnicity?
- In urban situations, it may be necessary to supply water into individual buildings to ensure that toilets continue to function.
- In situations where water is rationed or pumped at given times, this should be planned in consultation with the users.
 - Times should be set that are convenient and safe for women and for others who have responsibility for collecting water; all users should be fully informed of when and where water is available.
 - If children are responsible for collecting water, school hours should be flexible and permit them to do so.
- Schools should have appropriate vessels to collect water.
 - Vessels should be clean, hygienic and easy to carry, and be appropriate to local needs and habits, in terms of size, shape and design.
 - Some hand pumps and water-carrying containers may need to be designed or adapted for use by children, people living with HIV and AIDS, and older and disabled people.

3. Emphasize the need for adequate and well-functioning latrines.

Standards for school construction and operation should take account of the following:

- Latrines should be at least 50 metres away from the school, 30 metres away from any ground water sources and at least 1.5 metres above the water table. Care should be taken to

ensure that “drainage or spillage from defecation systems does not run towards any surface water source or shallow ground water source” (Sphere Project, 2004).

- Schools (and health centres) should have priority in emergency sanitation programmes.
- Latrines should be built separately for boys and girls and for teachers and students. Consider the use of the following WFP standards (INEE, 2003; WFP, n.d.):
 - One toilet cubicle for every 25 girls.
 - One toilet cubicle for every 100 boys and one urinal for every 40-60 boys.
- Consider the type of latrine that is most appropriate for the situation.
 - Pit latrines: These require covers and use of wood ash or soil to prevent flies.
 - Ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines: While more expensive, VIP latrines are preferred because they prevent flies from spreading germs.
 - Flush toilets: If flush toilets are installed, it will be essential to have plans for both maintenance and the supply of spare parts.
 - Defecation fields: These are not an acceptable option as the risk of spreading disease among schoolchildren is too great.
- Soap and water are needed so children can wash their hands immediately after using the latrine. Determine who will provide the soap and how often.
- Incorporate sanitation issues into the health curriculum. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.2, ‘Health and hygiene education’.)
- Establish responsibility for inspecting, cleaning and maintaining latrines.

- Develop Health and Hygiene awareness materials for children (posters and brochures for hand washing, safe water, latrine use, etc.)

4. Communicate the necessity of establishing waste disposal programmes at the school level.

- Have head teachers implemented provisions for disposing of waste and keeping the school compound clean?
- Are rubbish bins available or have pits been dug for waste disposal?
- Is there stagnant water close to the school? How will it be drained to prevent mosquitoes?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for access and learning environment¹

Standard 3

Education facilities are conducive to the physical well-being of learners.

Key indicators

- The learning structure and site are accessible to all, regardless of physical ability.
- The learning environment is marked by visible boundaries and clear signs, as appropriate.

1. Source: INEE, 2004: 47–48.

- The physical structure used for the learning site is appropriate for the situation and includes adequate space for classes and administration, recreation and sanitation facilities (see guidance note 1).
- Class space and seating arrangements are in line with an agreed ratio of space per learner and teacher, as well as grade level, in order to promote participatory methodologies and learner-centred approaches (see guidance note 1).
- Communities participate in the construction and maintenance of the learning environment (see guidance note 2).
- Basic health and hygiene are promoted in the learning environment.
- Adequate sanitation facilities are provided, taking account of age, gender and special education needs and considerations, including access for persons with disabilities (see guidance note 3).
- Adequate quantities of safe drinking water and water for personal hygiene are available at the learning site (see guidance note 4).

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

- **Structure:** appropriateness of the physical structure should take into account its long-term use (post-emergency), the available budget, community involvement and whether it can be maintained by local authorities and/or the local community at a reasonable cost. The structure may be temporary, semi-permanent, permanent, an extension or mobile.

The following elements should be kept in mind:

- Locally procured materials and labour, when available, should be used to build the structure. Steps should be

taken to ensure that structures are cost-effective and that physical features (e.g. roofs, floors) are durable.

- Adequate lighting, cross-ventilation and heating (wherever required) should be available to promote a quality teaching and learning environment.
- A locally realistic standard should be set for maximum class size, and every effort should be made to provide enough space for additional classrooms if enrolment increases, to enable progressive reduction in the use of multiple shifts.
- Education programmes need not wait until all of the infrastructure components and adequate space mentioned above are secured. These components, however, should be supplied or adhered to as rapidly as possible.
- **Maintenance of the learning environment:** this should include facilities (e.g. latrines, water pumps, etc.) and furniture (e.g. desks, chairs, blackboards, cabinets, etc.).
- **Sanitation facilities:** these should include solid waste disposal (containers, waste pits), drainage (soak pits, drainage channels) and adequate water for personal hygiene and to clean latrines/toilets. Learning environments should have separate toilets for males and females and adequate privacy. Sanitary materials should be available for females.
- **Water:** this should be available within or in close proximity to the learning environment as per local/international standards (see Linkages to Sphere Standards annex on the MSEE CD-ROM for the relevant Sphere water standards).

2. Excerpt from the ‘immediately, sooner, later’ matrix of response

TOPIC	PROGRAMME EXAMPLES		
	IMMEDIATELY	SOONER	LATER
SITE SELECTION AND SHELTER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Safe areas for child-related activities, within walking distance for children • Plastic sheeting and mats or special school tents • Educational areas should be marked and fenced • Male/female latrines for students/teachers • Potable water supply 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost-effective shelter (taking account of climate), typically good roof and floor, low-tech walls • Access for the disabled • Construction with minimal impact on the environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where applicable, construction of schools • For refugee schools, priority to locations where schools can later be used by nationals
FURNITURE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Blackboards and supports, teachers’ chairs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benches/ desks of the correct size for students preferably made by refugee youth apprentices • Oldest students receive desks before younger 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chairs and tables for teachers for school administration • Locking cabinets for school books and administration

Source: Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003).

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Chapter **2.7**

OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To provide access for children, youth and adults who would not otherwise be engaged in educational activities.**
- **To provide access to educational opportunities, such as post-primary education, that might not otherwise be available.**

WHAT IS DISTANCE EDUCATION?

“Distance education describes a set of teaching and learning strategies (or education methods) that can be used to overcome spatial and temporal separation between educators and learners. These strategies or methods can be integrated into any education programme and – potentially – used in any combination with any other teaching and learning strategies in the provision of education (including those strategies which demand that learners and educators be together at the same time and/or place).”

Source: Butcher (2000).

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Open and distance learning has the potential to dramatically expand access to education in emergencies. Children, youth and adults who are excluded from conventional education because of work or family commitments, geographical distance, insecurity or poor quality or inadequate prior learning experiences may be able to participate through open and distance education. Self-study correspondence courses, radio education, and education with the use of computers and the internet are all possible delivery mechanisms. In addition, in many countries, there is already an educational component to national radio and television programmes, and one or more established (non-open) colleges and universities may have an external/extramural studies department or a correspondence section. There may also be one or more government or private open universities or correspondence schools. Any of these existing open and distance programmes can be expanded upon during emergencies and early reconstruction. In addition, assistance agencies may also have begun activities such as community radio or computer centres used for e-learning. Both in acute and protracted emergencies, as well as in the phases of return and early reconstruction, radio can be a powerful communication and education tool, provided that a sufficient number of the population has functioning radios. However, it should be noted that in a conflict situation, radio may equally be used by conflicting parties for disseminating divisive messages and/or instructions of violence.

In many emergency situations, children and youth may be cut off from formal schooling activities as a result of ongoing conflict and insecurity. It may therefore be useful to consider distance education alternatives to enable them to continue learning – even if they cannot physically attend school.

In emergency and reconstruction situations, open and distance learning may also provide additional educational opportunities at the secondary and tertiary levels to refugee and displaced people, as well as non-migrant nationals. It may allow youth and adults who work to continue learning. Youth and adults who have no opportunity to work may also benefit from open and distance learning initiatives, such as tertiary or professional training courses that may lead to future employment. However, face-to-face contact or study support is still needed. Among both refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), many students will be too emotionally disturbed and lack the study skills and facilities to be able to follow distance-learning courses on their own. In some camps, there may be an insufficient number of refugee teachers with the skills to facilitate distance education in certain subjects. It may also be difficult for refugee and even IDP students to enrol in distance education courses in the host country/area because of language differences or bureaucratic constraints limiting enrolment to national citizens and/or those with documented educational achievements. Establishment of a testing scheme for admission of refugees without school documentation takes time. For secondary education, the establishment of temporary schools is thus likely to be speedier and more effective. However, for returnees, the process of return and reintegration may be facilitated by their participation in a distance education programme prior to their return, provided that it is run by or at least recognized by their home country/area.

While distance education has the potential to reach large numbers of people, there are significant obstacles associated with its implementation. Foremost among these is the lack of resources, particularly funding. For initiatives that rely on technology, there are investments associated with the initial acquisition of equipment such as computer servers, television and

radio transmitters, as well as for ongoing training, maintenance and operating costs; start up times for technically reliant programmes are therefore often considerable. In addition, there are ongoing costs associated with providing educational support to students in the form of personal mentoring and correction of work. Frequently fellow students, older siblings, parents or teachers can provide this support without cost, but sometimes it requires payment of educators or others who do so. Finally, open and distance learning programmes generally require up-front and ongoing investments in the development and revision of course materials, although here, at least, new developments can reduce the costs involved. Since 2002 an increasing number of materials have been made available online, for free, as “Open Educational Resources” (OER). These resources can include course materials, modules, textbooks, audio material, videos, lesson plans, tests – in fact, any material that can be used to support teaching and learning. OER are made available under an open license that means that they can be adapted for use in new educational contexts, for free and without the need to ask for permission. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.8, ‘Technology’.)



WHAT IS THE PHILOSOPHY OF OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES?

“At the heart of the movement toward open educational resources is the simple and powerful idea that the world’s knowledge is a public good and that technology in general and the Worldwide Web in particular provide an extraordinary opportunity for everyone to share, use, and reuse it. OER are the parts of that knowledge that comprise the fundamental components of education: content and tools for teaching, learning, and knowledge development.”

Source: Smith & Casserly (2006: 8).

In general, it is difficult to make distance education programmes self-sustaining as refugee or internally displaced students and their families do not have the resources to pay even modest course fees, such as the cost of returning their materials via post to a distance education provider. Communications may also be cut off due to conflict or the effects of a natural disaster. The use of mail, emails and the internet may or may not be possible. For the same reason, organizers may be unable to inform people about or coordinate such programmes. In an acute emergency, low technology solutions – such as learning worksheets distributed to pupils' homes – may offer an opportunity to continue children's education in situations where formal education has been interrupted, if logistics and security conditions permit.




EXAMPLES OF LOW-COST DISTANCE EDUCATION

Despite the obstacles to distance education, it offers exciting possibilities, some of which can be low cost. Consider the following examples:

In Palestine, the Ministry of Education and teachers developed self-study worksheets for students to use when curfews and insecurity prevented them from leaving their homes to attend school. Teachers delivered the worksheets to their students' homes or students picked up the worksheets at their schools on days when the curfew was lifted and people could travel more freely. (Sultana, 2003)

Burundian refugees in refugee camps in Western Tanzania learn English through the Southern African Extension Unit (SAEU), based in Dar es Salaam. The course consists of eight modules and is made up of printed materials, audio cassettes, and face-to-face support twice weekly by part-time tutors (Butcher, 2000). The organization had earlier facilitated secondary education by correspondence for South African refugees in camps in southern Africa.

In Guinea and Liberia, Sierra Leonean refugee teachers can



take part in a modular distance education project offered by the Freetown Teachers' College. Teachers study the modules with refugees and upon their return to Sierra Leone they can sit for the Teacher Certification Exam to earn a Sierra Leonean teaching certificate (INEE, 2004).

Many young teachers in the Bhutanese refugee camps in Nepal follow degree courses from open universities in India (Brown, 2001).

The Sudan Open Learning Organization has provided various courses for internally displaced people, including a Teacher Assistance Course, using printed self-study booklets and group meetings (Bradley, 2001).

In Burundi, 'Radio Ndragakura' broadcasts for three hours a day throughout the country. In addition to school subjects, the programmes also cover health and interpersonal issues, human rights, reconciliation and HIV/AIDS (UNHCR, 2003–2005).

In 1995, the Jesuit Refugee Service established Radio Kwizera for **Rwandan refugees in Tanzania**, broadcasting programmes on issues such as the peace education initiative, environment, health and culture. Radio Kwizera later became a mechanism for conducting distance teacher-training courses for Burundi refugee teachers in the camps (Bird, 2003: 60).

In Mtabila refugee camp in Tanzania, volunteers constructed a Community Internet Centre, which is used for programmes for secondary school students, women and professionals. Solar power is used to generate electricity and a VSAT terminal is used for internet access (Global Catalyst Foundation, 2000).

The 'New home, new life' radio soap opera was developed by UNESCO and the BBC to encourage and facilitate repatriation of **Afghan refugees from Pakistan**. The soap opera, a story of returning refugees, found its audience with Dari- and Pashto-speaking refugees both in Afghanistan and in refugee camps in Pakistan. A high proportion of the households listened to the programme, which incorporated health and other messages (UNESCO, 1999).

These examples illustrate the wide range of distance learning opportunities that are available, from low technology to high technology.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies, some children and youth have reduced access or are cut off from schooling and other learning opportunities. Distance education may be an option for reaching some of these children and youth. Some possible steps for the development and implementation of distance education programmes are noted below. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.8, 'Technology'*.)



Summary of suggested strategies Open and distance learning

- 1. Conduct a survey of which distance education programmes are already in operation in the country, run by the government ministries as well as by other organizations.**
- 2. Determine whether some form(s) of open and distance learning could help meet the current educational needs of the population.**
- 3. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry in the field of open and distance learning.**
- 4. Based on consultations with community members and teachers, determine primary target groups for distance education.**



5. **Review the options for a cost-effective open and distance learning initiative, including potential partners and donors.**
6. **Review existing materials from various sources and adapt (or if necessary develop) open and distance education materials.**
7. **Pilot test and revise the programme as necessary.**
8. **Implement and monitor the programme.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct a survey of what open and distance learning activities and programmes are already in operation in the country, run by the government ministries as well as by other organizations.**

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'.)

- How can these activities be included in the national reconstruction plan as well as in the national plan for education?
- Which, if any, government ministries or offices have the main responsibility for open and distance learning?
- Has a coordination working group been set up among the concerned government ministries/offices and/or with external partners?

2. Determine whether some form(s) of open and distance learning could help meet the current educational needs of the population.

Open and distance education may be a tool for providing equal access and inclusion, but will never solve all problems related to this task on its own. Other interventions are necessary, and should be undertaken with due consideration of fundamental issues, such as quality of education provided. See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.5*, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’, *Chapter 2.8*, ‘Technology’, and the point on quality under the ‘Tools and resources’ section in this chapter for further information.

- Which young people do not have access to education and might benefit from distance learning? (Review the access questions in the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.5*, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction.’) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
- Which teachers do not have access to in-service training and further professional studies? (Review the questions in the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3.4*, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
 - What are the reasons that young people do not have access to education?
 - Is the distance to school too far or the route too insecure for children to travel?
 - Are children and youth engaged in income-generating activities during school hours?
 - Do young women have children of their own or other domestic responsibilities that prevent them from attending formal schooling?
 - Do post-primary opportunities exist locally?

- What are the educational needs/preferences of the children and youth that do not have access?
 - Primary or some form of accelerated learning to re-enter the formal system?
 - Post-primary – formal secondary, tertiary?
 - Basic literacy?
 - Vocational/skills training?
 - General knowledge regarding health issues, citizenship, human rights, environment?
 - For which of the above educational needs/preferences is distance education a viable option?

3. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the relevant ministry in the field of open and distance learning.

- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?
- How can international experience with open and distance learning – in emergencies and in non-emergency situations – be drawn upon?

4. Based on consultations with community members and teachers, determine primary target groups for distance education.

- Is distance learning a viable way of providing access to schooling or higher education for out-of-school children, youth and adults, non-formal or informal education for children and adults, or in-service training for teachers?
- Would children, youth, adults or teachers participate in a distance-learning programme in sufficient numbers to make it cost-effective?

- What options most interest each group (e.g. self-study materials for use at home, radio, television, computer/internet)?
- What constraints to participation will children, youth and adults face (e.g. no one to provide educational support, lack of time for study, lack of resources, lack of technology, etc.)?



OPEN LEARNING FOR TEACHERS IN SOMALIA

UNESCO's Programme for Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER) used open-learning methods in the 1990s in the form of the Somali Open Learning Unit (SOMOLU). This drew on the experience of the Institute of In-Service Teacher Training, which had previously operated in Somalia for almost ten years, and of the Sudan Open Learning Unit (SOLU). Trainees set their own learning pace and appeared for an examination after completion of 30 course assignments and could then obtain a Certificate of Basic Teacher Training. The SOMULU centres had resident tutors who conducted tutorials for individuals and groups.

Source: Retamal and Devadoss (1998).

5. Review the options for a cost-effective open and distance learning initiative.

- What is the goal of the programme? For example:
 - Is it to maintain children's learning as part of the formal curriculum at a time when they are unable to attend school?
 - Is it a stand-alone programme for which learning will ultimately be certified (e.g. a distance teacher training or nursing programme)?

- What delivery option(s) best match the goals of the programme?
 - Self-study materials for use in the home, preferably with regular support in face-to-face learning groups, led by a teacher/facilitator/specialist trainer?
 - Radio?
 - Television?
 - Computer/internet?
- What are the barriers to the implementation of each of the options identified?
 - Cost?
 - Limited access to technology and infrastructure to support it? (Note that distance-learning courses that utilize computer technology may be very popular with young people, and may result in greater than anticipated demand.)
 - Lack of support (parent, teachers, etc.) for students studying at a distance?
 - Sustainability?
 - Language?
 - Facilities (e.g. a computer centre will likely be necessary for any kind of internet/computer program)?
 - Lack of access to laboratories for science subjects.
- What is needed to begin the programme?
 - Funding? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.10*, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms.’)
 - Development, adaptation, or procurement of materials and equipment? (See below.)
 - Training – for participants, teachers and others who will support the learning process?
 - Construction (e.g. of a learning or internet centre)?
 - Arrangements for the use of local radio or television facilities (e.g. air time, use of equipment, cost, etc.)?


- Have similar programmes been used in other countries that could be adapted to the current situation?
 - Consult with UNICEF, UNESCO, World Bank representatives and NGOs to determine which options have been tried in similar circumstances.
 - Consider submitting a request to the INEE listserv or blog (www.ineesite.org/blog) to obtain information and advice from the Secretariat and wider membership of the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) (email network@ineesite.org).
 - Contact international organizations supporting distance education such as the Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver, Canada and the *Consortium International Francophone de Formation à Distance*, Bordeaux, France; or distance learning institutions, such as open universities and secondary schools.



CONCLUSIONS REGARDING OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

Open and distance learning has to be matched with the technological level in the country or area in question. The overall experience is that distance education can be less costly than traditional education, depending on the model adopted and the number of students enrolled. The opportunity costs for students are high, since the students have to spend their spare time on studies, and cannot have other jobs. Use of printed materials for distance education correspondence is most common. Some key observations include:

The start-up of an open- and distance-learning programme takes time, especially if there is to be a comprehensive teacher-training programme with national outreach. This



approach may be more suited to post-conflict reconstruction or protracted situations than acute emergencies.

Face-to-face interaction is necessary for success. The distance education programme for teacher education in Sri Lanka allows teachers to earn their teaching certificate whilst they continue working, thus ensuring that the teachers can practise their new skills on a daily basis. In addition, trainees have to pick up self-instructional manuals at regional centres and hand in assignments to tutors. Group tutors visit the teachers in their schools to assess their progress.

Steady supervision and follow up is crucial. Lack of interaction between tutors and students lowers motivation and effectiveness.

Source: Johannessen (2001).

6. Review existing materials from various sources and adapt (or if necessary develop) open learning/ distance education materials.

- Who will adapt/develop the learning materials – existing teachers and administrators or an outside organization in consultation with educational authorities? (Note: adaptation is much quicker than developing new materials and testing them. It is crucial that content and examples fit the local context, however.)
 - Consider if existing materials from a country with similar conditions, curricula and language of study could be adapted, with permission from the authorities concerned. Alternatively, look online for Open Educational Resources (OER) that have been made available with an open license – such as a Creative Commons license – that allows them

to be adapted without the need to apply for permission. (This saves time, cost and benefits from the pilot testing, evaluation and improvements already carried out.) Consult resource collections such as OER Commons (<http://oercommons.org>), the OER portal on the Development Gateway (<http://openeducation.zunia.org>), MERLOT (www.merlot.org) or Connexions (<http://cnx.org>).

- Train the writing team of educators on the objectives of the programme and how to prepare the materials. If possible, provide them with examples of existing programmes, guidelines and templates for open and distance learning.
- How will the distance learning materials incorporate the existing curriculum? Are the certifications obtained by distance education courses valid in the student's home/host country?
- Who will produce and deliver lessons that will be offered via radio, television, or online?
 - Identify teachers or other educators.
 - Provide them with training relative to the instructional medium to be used.

7. Pilot test and revise the programme as necessary.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*).

- Did the programme reach the target population in the pilot phase?
- Of the children, youth and adults who enrolled, how many finished the programme?
- What is the impact of the programme?
 - If the distance-learning programme is an effort to maintain students' academic achievement, consider developing a

pre-test and a post-test that can be given to young people who participated in the pilot programme and another similar group who did not. (*Note: for this type of impact assessment to be valid, programme participants must be selected randomly out of a group of applicants, and the pre-test and post-test should be given to both groups, although it may be difficult to locate and deliver the post-test to the non-participants.*)

- Do students who complete the programme obtain a certificate? Will the certificate be recognized by others?
- Will the certificate help programme graduates obtain a job or re-enter the formal system?
- Will it lead to promotions or higher pay for teachers who complete an in-service training course?
- To what extent do the materials need to be revised?
- To what extent do distance learning educators need additional training?
- How can access to the programme be expanded to include more children, youth, adults, and teachers in other areas of the country? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'*.)
 - Consult with community groups and local educators to obtain their support for the programme.
 - Enlist programme participants in the promotion of the programme to other out-of-school children and youth.
 - Consider developing a public awareness campaign to reach eligible children, youth and adults.

8. Implement and monitor the programme.

- Are there any patterns of enrolment and retention that indicate who is attending and who is not, and why?

- How adaptable is the programme to the security and education needs of its students?
- Are there opportunities for students, parents and educators to provide feedback on the programme?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Cost considerations in technology-based distance education

The cost of a technology-based programme depends heavily on its combination of fixed and variable costs.

- The cost of the hardware represents about a quarter of the total cost of introducing technology to the classroom.
- Distance education systems have higher fixed costs and lower variable costs than the conventional alternative. Consequently, they can achieve economies of scale. However, the numbers of students must be high.
- Cost effectiveness is difficult to measure, but applications exist that are more cost-effective than the conventional alternative. This has been the case for many teacher development programmes and some tertiary education programmes.
- Technologies with higher fixed costs and lower variable costs, such as radio, can be inexpensive if they serve large numbers of students and recurrent costs are managed. Studies have shown that interactive radio instruction in primary schools can deliver learning more cost-effectively than textbooks or increased teacher training.

- Technologies with higher variable costs and that work in conjunction with conventional teachers, such as personal computers, may increase quality but are unlikely to bring any cost advantage. Indeed, they may be prohibitive at the primary school level, where teacher supervision is a requirement. In higher-education institutions and for teacher training, the cost of their use may be lower if they do not require faculty supervision.
- Technologies that rearrange the structure of educational costs and reduce large cost items, such as in-service teacher development, while they maintain or improve quality, are likely to be attractive. Distance education for teacher development is attractive for this reason.
- Low cost applications that increase quality may be justifiable if they fit within cost limitations.
- The issue of who bears the costs and how recurrent costs are covered after a programme goes to scale must be addressed early in the programme design.

Source: Murphy et al. (2002: 38–39).

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MAIN OBJECTIVES

This chapter focuses specifically on exploring the potential of technology to:

- Improve the quality of education and help students develop important technological skills.
- Improve access to education and teacher training in the form of distance learning.
- Improve the process and accuracy of educational data collection and analysis.
- Improve communication, collaboration and information sharing networks amongst key actors.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Emergencies are often so devastating to communities and put such high demands on the education sectors that the idea of implementing and investing in technology is often overlooked. Technology, specifically Information Communication Technology (ICT), however, has great potential to improve educational planning and management during emergencies and reconstruction. Technology can be used for providing access to and inclusion in education, motivating and training teachers, improving the quality of education, delivering curriculum in pedagogically effective ways and facilitating the management of human resources in the educational planning process.

Children, youth and adults have the right to quality educational experiences during and after emergencies (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.4*, 'Legal frameworks'). Ministries of education are recognizing that technology has great pedagogical potential for helping to provide these improved learning experiences. Technologies such as computers, radios and television programmes, CD-ROMs, mobile phones, websites and electronic or online books can provide classrooms and teachers with prepared curriculum content and lesson plans in more flexible and at times less expensive ways than traditional textbooks. In emergency contexts, teachers often have very little training or teaching experience. With electronic information, teachers can access and adjust subject content and prepared lesson plans to meet the needs of their students. Moreover, information provided electronically can be easily and inexpensively updated. It is immediately available to teachers and students, and can reduce unnecessary printing and distributing costs.

The Teacher Education in Sub Saharan Africa (TESSA) website, as described in the box below, is one of many online resources where teachers in Africa can find modifiable lesson plans and content to use in their classrooms.



USING TESSA TO ACCESS PREEXISTING CURRICULUM AND CONTENT IN RWANDA

“In Rwanda the Ministry of Education has endorsed the use of TESSA materials in the National Retraining Programme for Primary School Teachers. This is a new retraining programme involving Primary Teacher Colleges and 200 primary schools, the latter will be acting as hubs for clusters of local schools. TESSA sections will be integrated in the new retraining materials for the programme with a particular focus on core classroom teaching skills, subject teaching skills, creativity and innovation. In 2008/9 12,000 teachers will enhance their skills through this programme.”

Source: TESSA (2009).

In addition to providing content and information, technology can also help facilitate improved content delivery. Often, pedagogical approaches in developing countries are top-down and teacher-centered, whereby a teacher stands and lectures to students who furiously copy what has been written on the blackboard (Touré, 2008). However, when used appropriately, technology has great potential for enhancing learning experiences by facilitating bottom-up, student-centered education. Technology can do this by providing opportunities for constructive and collaborative learning activities whereby learners teach themselves and each other.

As students and teachers participate in technology-assisted educational experiences, they will also begin to develop

important skills. ICT, for example, has been proven valuable in teaching literacy and basic cognitive skills (Wagner and Kozma, 2005). Exposure to technology during the education process will also help learners develop ICT skills, which are becoming increasingly important to an individual's ability to gain employment and participate in the global economy. This not only has beneficial implications for the individual, but having an ICT-trained workforce can prove valuable in terms of continued reconstruction, long-term development and the economic growth of an entire country (UNDP, 2001).

Not only can technology improve the quality of learning experiences, but it can also increase access to them. During and after emergencies, accessing education can be very difficult and sometimes even dangerous (see *Guidebook, Section 2: Access and inclusion*). Buildings are often destroyed or damaged, teachers may have been killed or displaced and schools can become targets for continued violence or recruitment (O'Malley, 2007). At times, such as in the case of Birzeit University in the West Bank, military occupation can impose checkpoints or closures making it impossible for students and teachers to get to school. Moreover, many preexisting inequalities pertaining to access to education based on characteristics such as gender, rural location, ethnicity and disability can become exacerbated in an emergency context (see *Guidebook, Chapter 2.1, 'Rural populations'; Chapter 2.2, 'Gender'; Chapter 2.3, 'Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion'; Chapter 2.4, 'Children with disabilities'*). In such circumstances, technology can offer equitable and safe access to education in the form of distance learning. Course management systems (CMS), virtual learning environments (VLE), online courses and radio and television programmes can all help provide access to education and training when learners are faced with these various limitations and restrictions. (For further discussion on


technology's role in providing access to education, see *Guidebook, Chapter 2.7, 'Open and distance learning'*)

Technology is also important to educational planning in emergencies in terms of data collection and analysis. In order to make informed decisions, it is essential that educational planners have accurate data and quick access to that data. In times of emergency, however, accurate educational data and statistics can be extremely difficult to obtain. Education management information systems (see *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)'*) increasingly rely on technology for improving the efficiency and accuracy of collecting educational information and statistical data during and after emergencies. As described in the box below, hand-held electronic devices, such as personal digital assistants and mobile phones, can be used to collect data, often in challenging circumstances. In addition to assisting with data collection, technology can also be used for data management and analysis. Once data is collected, computer software can be used to store, organize, display and analyse complex data. Digitization also facilitates duplication and storage of data in multiple locations, thus decreasing the risk of losing important information during emergencies.



USING MOBILE DEVICES FOR DATA COLLECTION AND EMIS

A personal digital assistant (PDA) is a small, hand-held, electronic device that can be used to store text, connect to the internet, send emails, perform simple data analysis, run a PowerPoint presentation, show short videos, download and display newspapers, and a multitude of other functions. PDAs can be used to collect data and, through infrared wireless technology, can communicate that data and information to other PDAs, laptops or mobile phones.



PDAs and 'smart phones' (mobile phones that act as PDAs as well) are proving to have great potential in educational monitoring and evaluation. These devices can be combined with GPS to help with locating schools and with school mapping. Software can be downloaded which allows data collectors to insert data directly into the PDAs which can then send the data directly to a database located elsewhere, thus replacing the need for paper assessment forms. Additionally, it is now becoming possible for data collectors to communicate directly with head teachers via email or text message, and the head teacher can then simply send the requested data to the data collector's PDA or smart phone.

The Academy for Educational Development (AED) has recognized the great potential of mobile devices for collecting education data in developing countries. AED has created a software package of applications, called GATHER™, that can be downloaded to mobile phones, PDAs, laptops or other electronic devices. GATHER™ helps enable cost-effective and efficient data collection, analysis and reporting. It can create data collection instrumentation and forms (e.g. surveys and questionnaires), immediately transmit data to other devices or databases, perform data analysis, and more. Such technology has the potential to offer educational planners quick and efficient access to important information – which is especially important in times of emergency.

Source: Adapted from AED-SATELLIFE (2009).

In times of emergency and reconstruction, coordinating efforts of key education sector actors can prove to be extremely difficult (Sommers, 2004). As essential aspects of coordination, communication and information sharing can be enabled and improved through the use of technology. Mobile phones, email, radio and satellite technologies can facilitate communication during emergencies between government ministries and personnel, school directors, headteachers, non-governmental organizations

(NGOs) and international agencies. Moreover, professionals can learn from one another by sharing information, including statistical data, through online repositories and databases.

While technology has great potential for assisting with education in emergencies, there are many challenges to consider. One of the greatest obstacles regarding technology in education, especially in emergencies, is cost. Some technologies, like computers, for example, can be very expensive and difficult to fund. During and after emergencies, so many different priorities need funding, such as textbooks, teacher salaries, building repairs and construction, that spending limited resources on computers can be difficult to justify. Because of its high cost, many technologies in education are often considered luxuries rather than necessities.

In addition to being expensive, technology is often fragile, both physically and electronically. Without proper shelter and heating/cooling systems – which are often lacking in emergency contexts – technology will crash and malfunction. Students and teachers, purposefully or accidentally, can damage or destroy technology simply by mishandling or spilling liquids on them; viruses can also be easily introduced to a computer system and are a common cause of computer breakdown. As schools acquire technology, IT technicians – often IT-skilled teachers or students – need to be available for maintenance and repairs. The school may need to conduct training or hire outside expertise in order to provide the technicians with the required training. Finally, valuable technologies are also a prime target for theft, and during emergencies often become particularly vulnerable to looting and vandalism.

Technology can also be quite complex to use, especially for those with little or no technological experience. Educational planners may need to make provisions in the curriculum and develop courses for students to develop ICT skills. Teachers will

also need some sort of ICT training. While using technology to teach a classroom full of students can be pedagogically effective, it can take a considerable amount of time, experience and training before some teachers will feel confident using the technology. SchoolNet Uganda, an NGO that works on building ICT capacities, is one example of how a Ministry of Education can work with an NGO to help provide schools not only with ICT infrastructure, but also with the necessary training.



SCHOOLNET UGANDA – BUILDING ICT CAPACITY AND INFRASTRUCTURE

SchoolNet Uganda was started in 1997 as a joint project between the World Links Organization (World Bank) and Uganda's Ministry of Education and Sports. Since that time it has officially become a private NGO and is based at the ministry. It is a national network comprised of schools and educators that seek to enhance teaching and learning by building up ICT infrastructure within schools and offering technical assistance and training for teachers using the ICT.

SchoolNet Uganda seeks to overcome the challenge of ICT's high cost by acquiring donated, refurbished computers, often through donations from abroad, and redistributing them to schools at a highly subsidized and more affordable price. In addition, the NGO advises schools on different ICT and internet options and helps set up labs within the schools. Once a lab is set up, Schoolnet Uganda offers basic ICT training for students, as well as technical training for IT coordinators and student technical support teams within the school. It also provides pedagogical training and support for teachers in learning how to use ICT to enhance their classroom teaching. To learn more about SchoolNet Uganda visit their website at: <http://schoolnetuganda.sc.ug/about-schoolnet-uganda>


One final challenge when considering technology in educational planning is the varying levels of infrastructure and technical capacity available for implementation. This can make ICT planning, especially at a national level, quite difficult. Not every school and local district, for example, will have the same ICT infrastructure and level of readiness. Some schools may already be equipped with functioning computer labs and trained ICT teachers. They may be ready for and benefit most from having an internet connection installed. In contrast, other schools in the area may not have any computers or teachers with ICT experience and may not even have reliable access to electricity. In such cases, contextual solutions – such as creating an alternative source of electricity, as described below at Kasulu Teacher Training College – may be necessary. Educational planners should therefore take into consideration the wide range of contextual differences they will encounter when planning for technology.



INTERNET AND ICT IN REFUGEE CAMPS

The UNHCR and Global Catalyst Foundation teamed up to create three Community Internet Centers (CICs) in Tanzania – two in refugee camps and one at a teacher college. Training activities and classes are held in order to help refugees and local residents acquire ICT skills in order to get better-paying jobs. Given the contextual difficulties, the project has implemented alternative electrical sources to power the CICs. One center runs its computers off a solar power system. Another, Kasulu Teacher Training College, produces 70% of their electricity via a biogas system that uses cow manure from the local herds.

Source: Adapted from Unluova (2003).



In her article entitled 'Getting education out of the box' Lyndsay Bird explains how technology can be used to meet educational needs on a contextual basis. She describes how the internet was used by local residents of Kasulu, Tanzania and refugees in the nearby Mtabila camp for learning information about the condition of their country and staying in touch with family members.

Source: Adapted from Bird (2005).

While technology certainly is not *the only* answer to all the problems facing education, and although many challenges do exist regarding technology's role in education in emergencies, technology can, if planned and considered carefully and contextually, prove to be extremely valuable to improving the quality, access and management of education in emergencies.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Due to the encompassing nature of technology, it should be considered in many different areas of educational planning. The suggested strategies and guidance notes in this chapter are therefore split into three categories corresponding with three areas of education in which technology can play an important role: learning and training, open and distance learning, and management capacity.



Summary of suggested strategies Technology for learning and training

- 1. Determine whether the education ministry already has policies, programmes or initiatives regarding technology in education.**
- 2. Based on educational needs, consult with relevant ministries, NGOs, international agencies and teachers and conduct a technology needs assessment.**
- 3. Facilitate an infrastructure assessment to determine which technological equipment and capacities are already in place.**
- 4. Determine which technologies should be provided and to whom.**
- 5. Develop plans for the supply, distribution and maintenance of needed technological materials.**
- 6. Adapt or develop curriculum and pedagogical resources for the technologies.**



Technology for open and distance learning (ODL)

(See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.7, 'Open and distance learning.'*)

- 1. Conduct a survey of the distance education programmes already in operation run by the government ministries as well as by other organizations, and identify any technologies that are being used in those programmes.**
- 2. Based on contextual situations and consultations with community members and teachers, determine which, if any, technologies are needed to establish a necessary ODL program or which technologies could help meet the current educational needs of existing programmes.**
- 3. Identify and advocate to potential ICT partners and donors.**



Technology for management capacity

- 1. Determine which technological possibilities are available and feasible.**
- 2. Determine which communication technologies are needed to best share and communicate information at a local, national and international level.**
- 3. Use existing online resources to share research and findings.**

Guidance notes

Technology for learning and training

Technology, under the right circumstances, has great pedagogical potential for improving the quality of and access to education. This section offers some basic guidelines to follow when considering implementing educational technologies. It should be noted that these guidelines do not only apply to education during emergencies or reconstruction but can be equally followed prior to the onset of an emergency.

1. **Determine if there are any preexisting policies, programmes or initiatives concerning technology in education at the national and local levels.**

- Assess these preexisting policies, programmes and initiatives and determine if any changes will be needed to best suit the needs of the current state of emergency and reconstruction.
- Does the ICT policy cover primary, secondary and tertiary levels?
- What does the ICT policy imply for the teacher training institutions? Will ICT courses need to be incorporated into teacher training curriculum?
- Have provisions been made in the policy for equitable distribution of and access to technology?
- Do programmes build on existing technological infrastructure?
- Are there preexisting ICT programmes or projects implemented by NGOs or international agencies that could be incorporated into government initiatives?



NATIONAL INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGY (NICT) STRATEGY FOR EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

Many countries have or are currently developing national ICT policies, programmes and initiatives for the education sector. Pakistan's Ministry of Education, with support from the Ministry of Information Technology, provincial education departments and USAID's Education Sector Reform Assistance (ESRA), published the *National information and communications technology strategy for education in Pakistan* in 2007. This document establishes the national strategy for ICT in education in six key elements:

1. Use of ICTs to extend the reach of educational opportunity
2. Application of ICTs to strengthen the quality of teaching and educational management
3. Employment of ICTs to enhance student learning
4. Development of complementary approaches for the use of ICTs in education
5. Building on current experiences of existing and successful programmes
6. Development of capacity at the federal and provincial department level

As the extent and degree of conflicts and emergencies change, documents such as this national strategy can be used as a framework which educational planners considering ICT can amend and adjust to meet the needs of the country.

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Education/ESRA (2007).

2. Based on educational needs, consult with relevant ministries, NGOs, international agencies and teachers and conduct a technology needs assessment.

The importance and benefit of technology in meeting educational needs will vary from school to school on a contextual basis. For technology to be most cost-effective, it is important to first determine which educational needs can be satisfied by which technologies, why they are necessary and where they are needed most. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources.'*)

- Which technologies are both needed and contextually appropriate for the various sectors of education (primary, secondary, vocational and university, as well as teacher training and non-formal)?
- Which technologies (computers, internet, LCD projectors, educational CD-ROMs, etc.) are currently being used throughout the education sector and by whom?
- How have technologies been used for education in each sector in the past?
- If provided, how will new technologies be used? Who will use, fund, maintain and train on them?

3. Facilitate an infrastructure assessment to determine the technological equipment and capacities that are already in place.

- Coordinate with other ministries and service providers for information regarding overall national, regional and local levels of technology.
- Which technologies are available and currently being used (e.g. do educational institutions have access to electricity? computers? internet?)?

- Which technologies are broken or damaged, and can they be repaired?
- Communicate information from the assessment to agencies providing technology to ensure coherence in provision.

4. Determine which technologies should be provided and to whom.

Certain technologies when used carefully can prove to be excellent pedagogical instruments. Technology should not be seen as a panacea for education, however.

- Conduct a cost-benefit analysis and determine which technological possibilities are feasible, cost-effective and could help meet the current educational needs of students and teachers.
- Who will have access to the technological equipment and will access be equal? Will female, rural and marginalized students have equal access to the technologies?

5. Develop plans for the supply, distribution and maintenance of needed technological materials.

- Identify potential donors – including technology corporations. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.10*, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms.’)
- Once the necessary technological equipment has been purchased, how will it be distributed to the local level and by whom?
- Does the target group already know how to use suggested technology or will training and technical support be necessary? If so, who will do the training and how will it be funded?

- Will the technology be provided to educational institutions free of charge, or at a subsidized rate? Will they be required to collect and transport the technologies from government offices?
- Can NGO and international agency networks be utilized to distribute technologies?
- What are the procedures for maintenance when technological equipment is damaged or broken? Will training be provided to individuals at the local level to help maintain the technologies?

6. Adapt pedagogical content to become deliverable through technology.

- Which form of technology best suits the educational needs of students and teachers? This may take the form of educational CD-ROMs, DVDs, radio dramas, websites, etc.
- In addition to standard curriculum content, planners may consider including content pertaining to psychosocial needs, health and hygiene, HIV and AIDS prevention, environmental considerations, landmine awareness, peace, human rights and citizenship. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapters 3.5 and 4.1 to 4.6 for more information on addressing these topics through education in emergency settings.)
- Look online for Open Educational Resources (OER) that have been made available with an open license – such as a Creative Commons license – that allows them to be adapted without the need to apply for permission. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.7, ‘Open and distance learning.’)



CD-ROM ON HIV AND AIDS EDUCATION

UNESCO's International Bureau of Education (IBE) has produced a CD-ROM containing activities on life skills-based education. It is one example of how preexisting content can be used for teaching and learning.

“These activities have been identified as best practices to be applied in formal and non-formal contexts. The selected activities have been gathered from all over the world. They have been evaluated using the criteria developed by the IBE in the ‘Manual for integrating HIV & AIDS education in school curricula’. This tool aims at providing practical activities that can be used on a daily basis in classrooms and to help teachers, teacher trainers and educators to prepare their lessons. This database is mainly for teachers, teacher trainers and educators. Nevertheless, the activities in the database can also be used by other people interested in HIV & AIDS education: researchers, UN agencies, NGOs, students, parents, etc. You can order copies at: ibeids@unesco.org”

Source: Adapted from UNESCO (2008).

Technology for open and distance learning

Technology can also be used to provide access to educational opportunities to youth and adults who would not otherwise be engaged in educational activities. For further discussion see *Guidebook, Chapter 2.7, ‘Open and distance learning’*.

1. Find out about any preexisting ODL programmes.

- Which schools, higher education institutions or other institutions in the country already use distance education programmes?

- Which, if any, technologies are being used in these programmes?
 - Which practices, technologies and strategies used by these programmes can be incorporated by the ministry?
- 2. Based on contextual situations and consultations with community members and teachers, determine which, if any, technologies are needed to establish a necessary ODL programme or which technologies could help meet the current educational needs of existing programmes.**
 - 3. Identify and advocate to potential ICT partners and donors.**



ACCESSING EDUCATION IN PALESTINE – THE STORY OF RITAJ AT BIRZEIT UNIVERSITY

In 2002, during the second intifada, Israeli Occupation Forces established curfews, closures and checkpoints in Palestine greatly limiting faculty and students' access to schools. Birzeit University, which was closed for over 4 years during the first intifada, came up with a creative solution: they created an on-line educational support tool called Ritaj, or "The Great Portal". Ritaj allowed students and faculty who could not physically get to campus to communicate with each other over the internet, view their courses, post and access grades and course work, and take part in forums, discussion groups and mailing lists. The online portal saved an entire school year for many students.

Source: Adapted from Birzeit University (2002).

Technology for management capacity

The following guidance notes address ways in which technology can play a crucial role in improving ministries' management capacity, especially in such areas as data collection and analysis as well as communication and coordination efforts.

1. Determine which technological possibilities are available and feasible.

- After determining desired data to be collected (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems [EMIS]'*), decide which technologies are needed, appropriate and most cost-effective.
 - Examples include: computers, EMIS software programs, typewriters, hand-held radios, telephone communications, etc.
- Which technologies are currently being used by data collectors? Do provincial authorities, coordination groups, or other relevant agencies currently have any of these technologies?
- Develop and provide training for data collectors on how to use technology for data collection and analysis.
- Seek funding from donors for computer hardware and software for effective EMIS system.

2. Determine which communication technologies are needed to best share and communicate information at local, national and international levels.

- What is the most necessary and cost-effective method of communication?

- Should land-lines, mobile phones, radio, internet or email be used?
- Will existing infrastructure be able to support these communication technologies?

3. Use existing online resources to share research and findings.

- Technology is especially useful in education in emergencies for the sharing of research, statistics and findings. Several online resources exist for such sharing, presenting and disseminating. One such resource for data visualization is StatPlanet.



STATPLANET

StatPlanet is a free application that allows you to create thematic maps and graphs with select data. The main aim of StatPlanet is to facilitate data analysis through visualization, and to enable anyone to explore and create data visualizations – regardless of technical skills, availability of internet connectivity, and computer hardware or software. StatPlanet can be used either online or as a stand-alone desktop application.

With StatPlanet you can produce customized interactive maps and graphs by adding or importing your own data, or you can use StatPlanet's existing data. For its data sources, StatPlanet draws from the following organizations: MF, LLECE, PISA, SACMEQ, UNAIDS, UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNSTATS, WHO. StatPlanet uses the following indicators:

- **Demographic:** age, population, population growth, fertility rates, life expectancy.
- **Education:** gross and net enrolment rates, expenditure on education, reading, math and science achievement, school life expectancy, pupil/teacher ratios, school resources, pupil characteristics.



- **Environment:** CO₂ emissions, electricity and energy use, energy sources, forest area.
- **Health:** expenditure on health, mortality rates, HIV and AIDS prevalence, orphans due to AIDS, AIDS deaths, access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation, causes of death among children under 5 years, children low birthweight and undernutrition, immunization.
- **Socio-economic:** unemployment rates, employment by activity, GDP per capita, GDP growth, Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Empowerment Index (GDI), inflation rates, population living on less than US\$1 a day, inequality in income/expenditure (Gini index), research and development.

To read more about StatPlanet, create a map online or download the offline version for free, see SACMEQ (2009).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. National information and communications technology (NICT): elements and action recommendations

The NICT Strategy (Ministry of Education/ESRA, 2007) contains six elements and corresponding action recommendations:

Element 1. Use ICT to extend the reach of educational opportunity

Utilise ICT creatively to assist teachers and students with a wide range of abilities and from varied socio-economic backgrounds.

Action recommendations

1. Determine the context and needs of the students, educators, and/or citizens whom you seek to serve.
2. Research uses of ICT including, and other than, computers.
3. Invest in needs-based and best-practice ICT models.
4. Develop funding mechanisms to cut the cost of ICT for education.
5. Initiate an awareness campaign.

Element 2. Apply ICT to strengthen the quality of teaching and educational management

Use ICT to maximize opportunities for educators' continuous learning and to help educators understand and effectively use ICT.

Action recommendations

1. View teachers' professional development as a top priority.
2. Match ICT selection to teachers' specific needs.
3. Set guidelines for ICT training for teachers.
4. Select a strategic blend of professional development models based on research of innovative educational practices.
5. Provide training and resources for teachers to produce their own materials.
6. Provide follow-up and support.

7. Ensure that educators know how to teach with ICT.
8. Create a system of incentives and support for teachers to use ICT.
9. Establish a national educational portal.

Element 3. Employ ICT to enhance student learning

Integrate ICT into schools and learning centres to support students' self-paced learning and provide them with chances to explore, investigate, reflect, learn social skills (such as collaboration, logical reasoning, and creative expression), and enhance self-esteem.

Action recommendations

1. Reform curriculum guidelines.
2. Seek and develop content resources.
3. Improve national examination systems.
4. Make learner-centred instruction the focus.

Element 4. Develop complementary approaches to using ICT in education

Support students and teachers in developing key ICT competencies (including sophisticated problem-solving and critical-thinking skills) by treating ICT as a school subject, as well as a critical instructional aid.

Action recommendation

1. Establish competency-based curricula and certification.

Element 5. Build on the current experiences of existing and successful ICT programmes

Gather, organize, provide access to, share, and use for planning purposes national and international data on effective approaches to using ICT in education.

Action recommendations

1. Establish an official clearinghouse system to gather and distribute information on effective ICT programmes.
2. Ensure that information from the clearinghouse system reaches stakeholders.
3. Encourage an international exchange of information about effective ICT programmes and best practices.
4. Monitor and evaluate Pakistan's ICT projects in order to identify and replicate effective models.
5. Facilitate the initiation and growth of ICT projects/ approaches that evaluation results prove to be effective.

Element 6. Develop capacity at the federal and provincial department of education levels

Form a new office of the government to represent the cause of ICT in education and advise the MoE.

Action recommendations

1. Set up an office of ICT integration – a Technical Implementation Unit (TIU) – within the MoE.
2. Authorize the TIU to carry out key functions to advance the mission of the MoE.

Source: Ministry of Education/ESRA (2007).

2. Questionnaire distributed to the Ministers of Education of Pacific Island countries

The following is a questionnaire distributed to the Ministers of Education of Pacific Island countries in an attempt to assess the needs of ICT in Asia and the Pacific.

Questionnaire

Country: _____ Position Title: _____

1. Does your country have an established ICT in Education policy?
 Yes No

If not, why? (Please rank with numbers, if several apply.)

- Not a priority
 Insufficient planning resources
 Limited availability of ICTs in schools
 Limited budget
 Scepticism about benefits of ICTs in education
 Others: Please specify: _____

Is your country developing or revising an ICT in Education policy?
 Yes No

Do you have a clear idea about how to proceed? Yes No

2. If you have developed an ICT in Education policy, what type of resources (material and human) did you find useful? If you are still in the planning process, which resources will you most probably use? (Please rank resources with numbers, if several apply.)

- Thematic publications, books
 Internet, CD-Rom
 Short, concise publication for decision makers
 Experts, consultants
 Training, workshops
 Others: Please specify: _____

3. Are the resources you need for ICT in education policy-making easily accessible? Yes No

4. Are the resources sufficient for your policy-making needs?
 Yes No

5. Are available resources of good quality? Yes No
6. What additional informational resources would be useful? (Please rank with numbers, if several)
- Scientific evidence on the effectiveness of ICT in education, cost benefit analysis
 - Sample ICT Policy of a country with similar characteristics
 - Policies (guide for vision and strategy development)
 - Teacher training policies and strategies (examples, criteria, strategies)
 - Content development principles (when to buy, adapt, develop)
 - Technology (hardware, software)
 - Fundraising, private-public partnership scenarios
 - Examples of good classroom practice (video), quality softwares etc.
 - Others: Please specify: _____
7. Do you have any specific suggestions or requests for expertise in the area of ICT for education, which UNESCO could meet in the future?

Source: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education (2004).

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Chapter **2.9**

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To provide emergency-affected out-of-school children, youth and adults with educational activities that meet their needs and interests.**
- **To supplement formal schooling of emergency-affected children and youth with subjects relevant to their protection, well-being and psychosocial needs.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

DEFINITION OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

“Any organized and sustained educational activities that do not correspond exactly to the definition of formal education. Non-formal education may therefore take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the ‘ladder’ system, and may have differing durations, and may or may not confer certification of the learning achieved.”

Source: UNESCO (1997: 41).

In many countries that are affected by emergencies or facing the task of early reconstruction, the formal school system does not have the capacity to enrol all of the country's children and youth and/or children are not able to take advantage of it. Parents and children as well as teachers and educational authorities tend to seek rapid restoration of formal schooling to avoid losing a year of school studies. The possibilities of non-formal education may be overseen or underestimated, resulting in denied educational opportunities for children and youth who cannot enrol in formal education. Non-formal educational activities give out-of-school children and youth access to structured learning, reinforce their self-esteem and help them find ways to contribute to their communities. In some cases, these activities may serve as a 'bridge' to help out-of-school children and youth improve their academic skills to the point where they can re-enter the formal school system. In emergencies, however, national organizations that already undertake non-formal education may be interrupted by lack of core and stable funding to cope with a greatly expanded scale of operations. Such funding should therefore be sought and also included in project budgets. Non-formal education activities are frequently affected and curtailed during periods of conflict and insecurity and their organization is not necessarily easier than organization of formal schooling.

Non-formal educational activities can take the form of literacy and numeracy classes, cultural activities such as music, dance or drama, sports practices and teams, education regarding child rights or more subject-specific learning. Depending on the provider and the context, non-formal education may also include so-called accelerated learning programmes aimed at getting youth and children who have missed years of schooling back into the formal education system.

ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES

Most accelerated learning programmes (ALP) are ‘catch up’ initiatives to assist older children/youth, who have missed years of schooling, to complete their basic education and to obtain educational qualifications in a relatively short period of time. For example, an ALP can be a three-year programme that condenses six years of primary schooling. Planned in partnership with educational authorities and covering essential elements of the official curriculum, a programme attempts to cover rapidly education content spanning years of missed schooling. In reality, accelerated learning is difficult to achieve, and will only become possible when effective teaching and learning methods are a strong focus. At the end of the ‘catch-up’ period, students are integrated into a regular classroom. Specific target populations can include displaced children, girls, or child soldiers. As these children have missed significant portions of schooling, reintegration into formal school is a strong support to demobilization.

Source: NRC (2005: 56); Nicolai (2003: 40).

(See also ‘Tools and resources’, Section 3, ‘Key considerations for accelerated learning programmes’, this chapter.)

For adolescents in particular, non-formal educational activities may greatly expand their opportunities for learning. Non-formal courses, workshops or vocational training are likely to be in high demand amongst refugees and IDPs who lack other employment opportunities. In situations of conflict, many adolescents will have missed years of formal schooling and may not want or have the time to attend primary classes with younger children. As a consequence, they may drop out of the educational system completely if other options do not exist. Some may want to enter the formal school system but may be prevented from joining

because of space constraints or due to legal age restrictions. Adolescents who do not have readily available and accessible educational options are much more vulnerable to dangerous situations, such as recruitment to armed militias, engagement in illegal activities and involvement in unsafe income-generating activities. Non-formal education therefore serves as a positive alternative, and can often be a vital protection strategy.

Even in acute emergencies, in secure camp situations, non-formal education activities can be organized quickly to provide children with positive ways to spend their time until other, more formal, options are put into place. However, coordination is vital as non-formal education activities are often organized by a variety of education providers, as well as organizations supporting health programmes, income-generation projects, etc.

Non-formal education may also be a critical supplement for students enrolled in formal schools. In emergency situations, formal school curricula often cover core subjects only or certain topics critical to survival in their new environment. The short length of school days in most early emergency situations makes it difficult to add more subjects to the curriculum. An alternative that can reach some of the students is to offer extracurricular non-formal learning activities. In conflict, or after a natural disaster, non-formal education activities may need to be focused on specific subjects, such as environmental education, landmine awareness, peace education and conflict resolution, reproductive health, hygiene, disease prevention (such as cholera), HIV and AIDS awareness and prevention, psychosocial awareness, and human rights. The case study below gives a good example of specific issues caused or exacerbated by a natural disaster which non-formal education programmes could be used to address.

These themes can be explored through non-formal courses to further students' understanding and to provide them with accepting social environments in which to discuss these issues. Many children who attend school will not participate in non-formal courses, however, due to other commitments, parental concerns about security, etc., and will therefore miss out on life-saving messages. When possible, therefore, these topics should also be included in the formal school programmes.

For returnees and non-migrants, the reconstruction of homes, rehabilitation of fields, etc. may mean that people have little time for non-formal education. This is especially the case if people have to travel long distances to attend courses or workshops. Organizations that provide non-formal education and accelerated learning programmes during protracted emergencies and reconstruction may focus their efforts in only a few locations, leaving many areas uncovered; and coordination can be problematic. Although the community may prefer that teacher training and education efforts be directed to re-opening schools, attempts should be made to emphasize the importance of a combination of formal and non-formal educational programmes.

When designing non-formal educational activities, it is important not to overlook or underestimate learner concerns or needs. Some may be unrealistic, but none are unimportant. Learners should know that their concerns have been heard and that their ideas have been incorporated as far as is possible. Quality education is partly a result of gaining buy-in, trust, and participation/ownership from learners.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Whilst school enrolment and the provision of free and compulsory quality education for all will be a priority for educational authorities and providers, non-formal education should be considered a way to complement and strengthen these efforts. Non-formal education is easily organized in refugee and sometimes also in IDP camps since travel distances for government and agency staff are relatively small, and NGOs are often present. Outside camps, the provision and coordination of non-formal education may prove to be more difficult. In early reconstruction, funding and expertise may be sought to rebuild the education ministry's programme for non-formal education. When possible, the use of non-formal educational tools such as radio may be considered for maximum outreach. Some key strategies for exhausting the opportunities of non-formal education are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies Non-formal education

- 1. Prepare a framework for non-formal education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action.**
- 2. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of non-formal education programmes.**



3. In the immediate aftermath of an emergency, education providers should consider establishing organized sports and recreational activities.
4. When setting up non-formal education activities, education providers should consult with children, youth, parents and community groups.
5. Education providers should consider enriching formal schooling with non-formal activities.
6. Education providers should develop a plan for raising interest in, and pilot testing, the proposed non-formal education activities.
7. Education providers should develop a system of monitoring and feedback.

Guidance notes

1. Prepare a framework for non-formal education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action.

Consider the following when designing non-formal education activities:

- According to the educational needs assessment (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'* and *Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*), how many children and young people are not in school? Based on the current situation and past approaches, assess the demand for non-formal education for adults. (See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for possible non-formal education activities.)
 - Consider a range of activities, from radio programmes to short thematic courses, literacy courses and accelerated learning courses.
 - Consider linking non-formal education with sports, recreation and cultural activities.
 - Liaise with other ministries that provide non-formal education and training (youth, sport, culture, health, labour, agriculture, etc.).
 - Develop a programme for the training of trainers and teachers for non-formal education and youth outreach.
 - Address issues of certification for students and teachers.
 - Address issues of payment for teachers working full time, part time or occasionally in non-formal education.
 - Develop a strategy for involving civil society in providing non-formal education, for piloting and evaluating innovative programmes such as community learning centres, for the use of radio and other communication technologies, etc.
- Are there experienced non-governmental organizations that can manage/implement the selected non-formal education activities?

- Consult with United Nations organizations and NGOs (international and national) that are present in the country.
- If the desired experience is not already present, solicit assistance from UNESCO or UNICEF to locate experienced organizations.



ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES: CREPS IN SIERRA LEONE

The Complementary Rapid Education Program for Primary Schools (CREPS) was set up in May 2000 by the Government of Sierra Leone's Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) with support from UNICEF and the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) as an accelerated learning programme. It was designed to target children between the ages of 10–16, who had been unable to complete their education during the conflict either because of involvement with fighting factions or due to school closures or displacement. It was estimated that 500,000 children were eligible. CREPS condenses the regular 6 years of primary schooling into 3 years, after which the children are able to mainstream into the formal school system. Classes are held in primary schools usually in the afternoons when the buildings are not being used or in temporary shelters. Teachers are trained specifically to deliver the CREPS programme and are supported with ongoing training. All learning materials are provided, children do not have to pay fees to attend classes and uniforms are not compulsory. The programme is functioning in 185 centres across the country, and enrolment in March 2004 was 26,646. Demand for the CREPS programme continues to be growing but expansion is being stymied by the government's inability to pay the salaries of the recruited teachers.

Source: UNICEF (2005).

(For additional information on accelerated learning programmes, see the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter.)

- Who will teach or support the activities?
 - If non-governmental implementing partners are used, how will they be selected?
 - How will teachers/facilitators be identified? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1*, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers’.)
 - Are special qualifications needed?
 - How much training will teachers need? Who will conduct the training?
 - Will teachers be compensated? Who will pay them? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2*, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’.) How does this relate to previous or current payment schedules for non-formal education in the country concerned (or country of origin of refugees)?
 - Who will support and/or monitor the teaching or programme activities? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.3*, ‘Measuring and monitoring teachers’ impact’.)
- What materials or supplies will be needed for the programme?
 - Adapt existing in-country or international materials to the local environment.
 - Develop new material only when satisfied that appropriate models do not exist elsewhere.
- Is funding available? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8*, ‘Budget and financial management’ and *Chapter 5.10*, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms’.)
- Will the non-formal activities lead to something else? For example,
 - (Re)entry to the formal system?
 - Some type of certificate?
 - Better employment options?
 - Better health, and peace-promoting activities?



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN TIMOR-LESTE

The International Rescue Committee (IRC) non-formal education project in the Oecussi district of Timor-Leste “ ... explored means of mobilizing local resources within schools, youth organizations, and other community groups to increase available education and recreation opportunities. Through an emphasis on a participatory planning process, the activities were community defined and developed in partnership with local organizations. Each initiative undertaken was led by a local group: a children’s centre was organized and staffed by the young women’s group Grupo Feto FoinSae Enclave Timor; structured sports activities were arranged by the youth group network Juventude Lorico Lifau; and the Oecussi District Education Committee took leadership in district teacher training” .

Source: Nicolai (2004: 81).

2. Provide guidance to civil society organizations on the conduct of non-formal education programmes.

The field of non-formal education attracts many organizations that may lack the pedagogical expertise needed for effective programmes. There may also be a clash between organizational modalities and policies that can cause difficulties, on matters such as payments to teachers, arrangements for in-service training, certification, etc. Some elements of good practice are indicated in points 5–9 below.



COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRES IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION

“In the Asia and Pacific region, Community Learning Centres (CLCs) have emerged as potential grassroots-based institutions for the delivery of literacy, basic and continuing education and other community development activities.

Learning centres are defined in the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All training materials ... as: local institutions outside the formal education system for villagers or urban areas usually set up and managed by local people to provide various learning opportunities for community development and improvement of people’s quality of life. Community Learning Centres are for every citizen and are adapted to the needs of all people in the community through active community participation. The CLC is often located in a simple building. Its programmes and functions are flexible and well adapted to the needs of the community in that they cater to the needs of adults as well as young people, and in particular to disadvantaged groups.”

The programmes are found in Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand, Uzbekistan and Viet Nam. CLC activities may include education and training, such as literacy classes, provision of education and skills training activities, promotion of lifelong learning and training of non-formal education personnel. They may also have a function in community information and dissemination of resources, community development, coordination and networking between government and NGOs, linking traditional village structures with official administrative structures, etc.

Source: UNESCO (n.d.).

(For information on how to set up CLCs, see the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter.)

5. In the immediate aftermath of an emergency, education providers should consider establishing organized sports and recreational activities.

Organized activities will help structure children's time and are a valuable part of their psychosocial healing process and (re-)learning of social and emotional skills. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.5, 'Psychosocial support to learners'*.)

- Who can organize sports and arts activities, so that safety, order and supervision are ensured? Can parents be involved?
- Have activities for both boys and girls been considered?
- What supplies are needed?
 - Are they readily available?
 - What can be contributed from parents or the wider community?
 - Can children and youth be engaged in making or collecting the supplies that are needed?
 - Can they be procured locally or can they be accessed quickly through UNICEF?
- Has a system been developed to encourage regular activities and attendance? Who will be responsible for maintaining the schedule?
 - Has a detailed programme been developed in collaboration with the communities, and has the programme been publicized?
 - Are all potential participants able to access the programme? If not, how are barriers to access being overcome?
 - Has a register been developed of who is responsible for running the different activities, and who may be able to provide backup if someone leaves, falls ill, etc.?
 - Has a system been developed by which both facilitators and participants can report if a programme is not running satisfactory? Who will be responsible for follow-up?

6. When setting up non-formal education activities, education providers should consult with children, youth, parents and community groups.

Consultations should be as inclusive as possible.

- What types of educational activities do people want (see the 'Tools and resources' section for brief descriptions of various non-formal options)? Under which circumstances would they attend?
- What is their educational background?
- What are the reasons that some children and youth are not in school? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*.)
 - Lack of places in formal schooling?
 - Youth are too old to attend primary school or do not wish to attend?
 - Youth are engaged in income generating activities or have domestic responsibilities?
- At which times can out-of-school children and youth or adults (men, women) participate in non-formal education?
- When can the activities be offered? How frequently will they be offered?
 - Will the proposed times conflict with the schedules of working children and youth?
 - Will there be multiple offerings for different groups, e.g. adolescents, teenage mothers, working youth, etc.?



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FOR WAR-AFFECTED YOUNG ADULTS IN SIERRA LEONE

The Youth Reintegration and Education for Peace Program sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development Office of Transition Initiatives in Sierra Leone emerged as a nationwide, community-based, non-formal education initiative for ex-combatant and war-affected young adults. The programme consists of five modules based on issues that community focus groups considered ‘critical components for building peace in Sierra Leone’.

- **Who am I?:** Module 1 is a course for improving self-awareness, designed to facilitate the movement of youth from a world of warfare to an environment promoting values related to peace.
- **Healing mind, body, and spirit:** Module 2 is a life-skills course designed to enable youth to improve their ability to manage their daily lives, improve their ability to take calculated risks, make sound judgements, communicate effectively, manage their emotions, and solve day-to-day problems.
- **Our environment – what it is, preserving it, conserving it, and using it effectively:** Module 3 is a course aimed at raising participant awareness of the need to reclaim the environmental foundation of Sierra Leone, provide knowledge of ways to prevent/ reduce environmental hazards, promote good farming practices, and increase awareness about judicious use of the environment.
- **Health and well-being:** Module 4 provides information on the symptoms and treatment of common local diseases, the medicinal use of local herbs and roots, methods for clean drinking water, prevention, identification and treatment of sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS), and maternal and child health.
- **Democracy, good governance and conflict management:** Module 5 focuses on democracy as a form of government, the basic principles of democracy and how they work in action, the causes, costs, and control of corruption, conflict management, and how citizens can contribute to rebuilding Sierra Leone.

Source: Hansen *et al.* (2002: 22–25).

7. Education providers should consider enriching formal schooling with non-formal activities.

When considering supplementary non-formal activities for children and youth who are attending formal schools, discuss options with educators, the community, parents, children and youth. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 4.2*, ‘Health and hygiene education’, *Chapter 4.3*, ‘HIV preventive education’, *Chapter 4.4*, ‘Environmental education’, *Chapter 4.5*, ‘Landmine awareness’ and *Chapter 4.6*, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship.’) Note that these topics should also be included in formal schooling, since many students may not have time or family permission to participate in non-formal supplementary activities.

- Which subjects are needed?
 - Consult with national organizations of civil society (NGOs, religious groups, labour unions, employer organizations, universities, etc.) to determine needs.
- What resources will be needed to introduce these subjects (teachers, meeting places, materials, etc.)?
 - Consult with UNICEF, UNESCO, UNHCR and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) present in the country to determine what materials already exist.
 - Review existing materials and adapt them to meet the local situation. Obtain input from community members and local educators.
- Work with school directors, education leaders, etc., to make sure that the time for testing the modules, training the teachers, and starting the activities does not interfere with core subject work. Under conditions of severe stress and low salaries, efforts must be made to involve teachers and administrators in new initiatives in a way that minimizes strain and resentment. Resentment is especially likely to occur if programmes are seen

as imposed from the outside and interfering with the work of running a school and teaching students.

8. Education providers should develop a plan for raising interest in and pilot testing the proposed non-formal education activities.

- What type of ‘advertising’ will be used?
 - Announcements in formal schools that children can pass on to their families and friends.
 - Support from members of parent-teacher associations or school management committees who will agree to tell other community members about the programme.
 - Announcements through community or religious leaders.
- Consider a pilot test of the project to increase interest among targeted groups.
 - Share draft plans with targeted learners.
 - Revise the project according to the concerns, needs and ideas of the pilot participants and community members.
 - Enlist young people from the potential participant group to help with the evaluation of the pilot project.
 - Enlist the support of programme participants to encourage others to enrol/attend.

9. Education providers should develop a system of monitoring and feedback.

- Are the non-formal activities reaching the intended target group of children/youth/adults?
- Do the children/youth/adults that enrol attend throughout the programme?
 - If so, why? If not, why not?
 - What adjustments can be made to the programme to encourage attendance/completion?

- Do the activities achieve their intended impact, such as:
 - Behaviour change (e.g. less aggression and anxiety among children, adoption of specific hygiene practices, etc.)
 - Entry into the formal school system: do children/youth that complete bridging/accelerated learning programmes re-enter formal school? For those that enter, do they start at the intended grade level?
 - Literacy: can children/youth/adults read at a functional level after completion of the programme?
 - Employment ability: do employers seek 'graduates' from these programmes? Do 'graduates' succeed in starting their own businesses?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Options for non-formal education activities

Organized recreational and sporting activities. These activities can be started early in the acute phase of an emergency and give children and youth a critical opportunity for play and socialization that will aid in their healing processes. While open access to these activities is critical, social tensions must also be kept in mind. Competitive games, if not organized with peace-building in mind, can support, and not defuse, social rivalries in communities. In addition, organizers of sports and recreational activities must make sure to consider the needs of both boys and girls.

UNICEF has pre-packaged recreational kits that can be made available quickly during an emergency. These kits consist of:

- Balls for several types of games.
- Coloured tunics for different teams.

- Chalk and a measuring tape for marking play areas.
- A whistle and scoring slate.

Organized cultural activities including music, art and drama. These activities can have powerful healing effects on children, youth and adults who have experienced the horror of displacement. In addition, vital messages related to peace, awareness of HIV and AIDS or other health issues could be usefully conveyed via these media. This results in increased knowledge of both programme participants and community members who view their work.

Basic literacy/numeracy training: For children, youth and adults who cannot or will not attend formal school, such training may be the only way they will achieve literacy. These programmes can be offered in people's homes or in community facilities, and programme times can be scheduled around the work schedules of participants.

Foreign-language training: Especially in refugee situations where the refugees and the host community speak different languages, language training may help refugees communicate with their surrounding hosts. Learning or improving competency in an international language increases self-esteem and employability, and may be helpful if formal education is resumed. In some instances, learning the language(s) used in the country of asylum may help refugees acquire jobs and, especially for older students, allow them the opportunity to attend secondary school in the host country.

Bridging programmes: The objective of bridging programmes is to enable older students who have missed years of education to (re)enter the formal school system. In general, these programmes are aimed at adolescents (aged 10–17) who study intensively for one year and then take a national examination to enter the school

system. The goal is often for these students to begin their formal schooling in grade 2 or 3. Bridging programmes may also be required for students in higher grades who are transferring from one system of education to another.

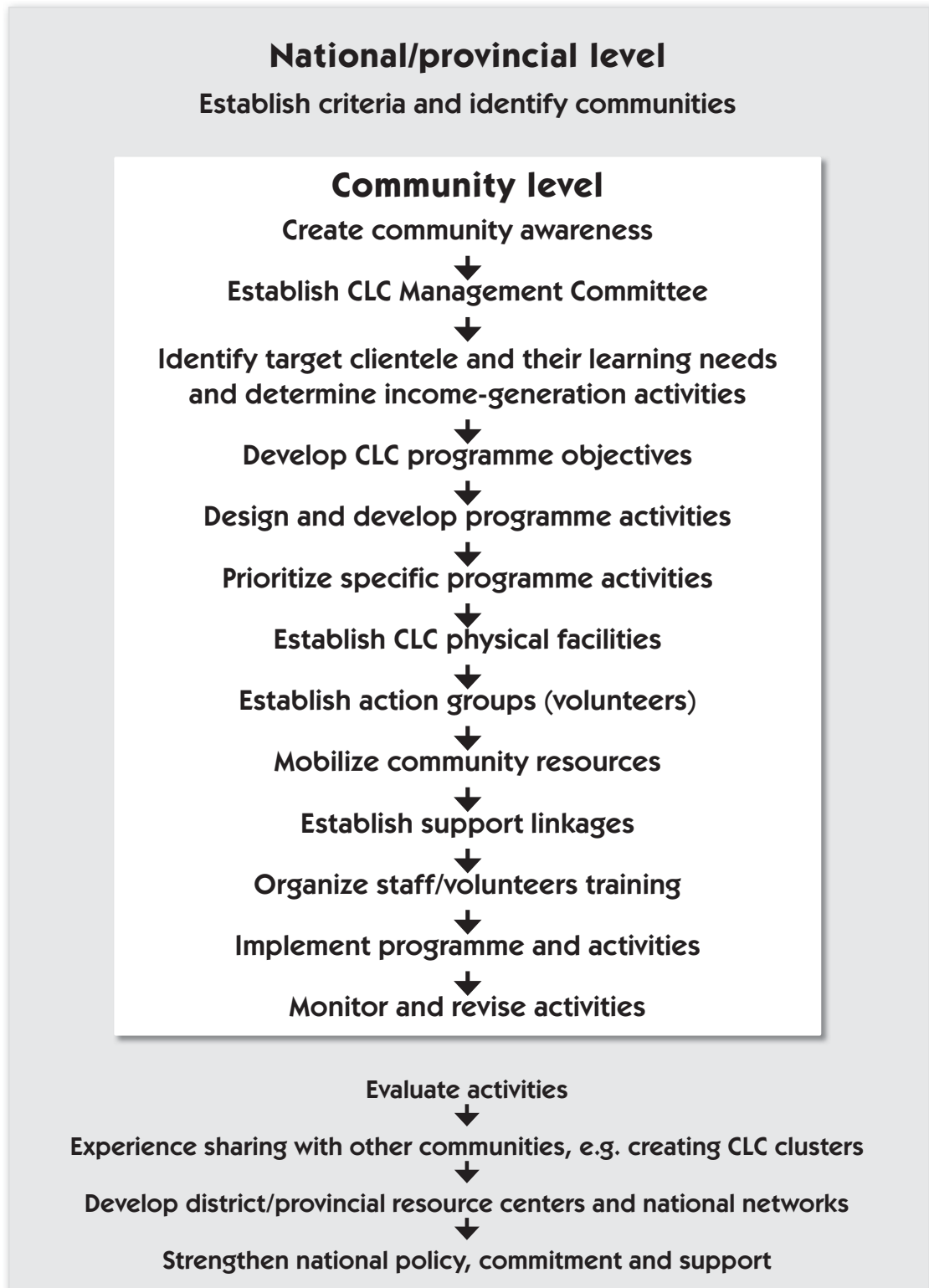
Accelerated learning programmes: The goal of accelerated learning programmes is to provide educational opportunities to adolescents who have not completed (or started) a primary education. In many post-conflict situations, adolescents have often been denied their right to education. In general, these programmes were developed to enable them to study six years of the standard curriculum in three years. Upon completion of the accelerated learning programme, students should have achieved functional literacy and numeracy and can take an examination in order to (re)enter the formal school system.

Vocational programmes: Non-formal training for emergency-affected programmes can be provided through training centres or, often more effective, sponsored apprenticeships with local craftsmen and businesses. These can be combined with literacy/numeracy and life skills courses where desired. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.7, 'Vocational education and training'.)

2. Steps for setting up CLCs and preparing CLC activities

All community learning centres (CLCs) benefit enormously from community involvement. Discussions with the community members precede the establishment of a CLC in order to assess the community's needs. In many cases, local materials and labour are used to build CLCs. In order for a CLC to be self-sustaining, community members are mobilized to establish and manage their centre themselves. Administration of the centre is the

responsibility of a management committee, which consists of schoolteachers, retired professionals, community and religious leaders and other community members.



Source: UNESCO (2001: 5).

3. Key considerations for accelerated learning programmes

	KEY CONSIDERATIONS	COMMON ACTIVITIES
ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With catch-up curriculum, teaching quality is doubly important as there is less time to learn the same amount • Groups targeted are out-of-school for significant periods – this might include child soldiers, girls, or displaced children • Sitting in classrooms with younger children can be a disincentive to attend • To promote integration, where possible, involve other community children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop curriculum based on approved state content • Train teachers in new curriculum and child-centred teaching pedagogy • Coordinate with education ministry so that examinations will be recognized and allow for entry into state system • Monitor children’s progress as they integrate into the state school system

Source: Nicolai (2003: 40).

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Chapter 2.10

EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that the social, emotional and developmental rights of young children are fulfilled during emergency situations.**
- **To ensure that young children have access to safe places where their developmental needs can be met through play and early learning activities.**
- **To enable families and caregivers to participate in integrated activities with young children.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

“Learning begins at birth. Systematic development of basic learning tools and concepts therefore requires that due attention be paid to the care of young children and their initial education, which can be delivered via arrangements that involve parents, the community or institutions, depending on requirements.”

Source: World Conference on Education for All (1990, Art. 5).

Developmental activities in the early childhood years are crucial in preparing children for basic education, helping them acquire skills and increasing performance and retention in school later on. Even in emergency situations, and with limited resources,

education interventions should begin with investment in early childhood development activities to ensure that basic rights of children to survival, protection, care and participation are fully protected from birth to school age and onwards.

Early education activities help prepare children to enter and succeed in school, ensure caregivers are equipped to support their children's learning and transition to school, and make sure schools are ready and more inclusive for all children. Play is the medium of learning in early childhood and has a central importance as an educational strategy that can promote the psychosocial and physical well-being of learners. Creating a stimulating and holistic environment to play and learn increases significantly both cognitive and social-emotional competence of children (INEE/CGECCD, 2009).

Critical brain development depends on adequate protection, stimulation and effective care (IASC, 2007).

Early Childhood Development (ECD: www.ecdgroup.com) programmes yield both short- and long-term benefits. The greatest impact comes from providing intensive, high-quality services for the most vulnerable children and families. To maximize results for children, ECD programmes should begin before pregnancy and continue until children are eight years old. In a life-cycle approach, children and youth are prepared for positive parenting, parents receive continuous parent education and support, and infants and young children are provided with loving, nurturing stimulation, early education, preventive and basic health and nutrition care, and effective protection and sanitation services.

BENEFITS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT (ECD) PROGRAMMES FOR CHILDREN, FAMILIES AND COMMUNITIES

- Establish greater normalcy in children's lives, giving children the routines and care needed for healthy development within and beyond the emergencies.
- Support and enhance parent(caregiver)–child relationship.
- Enable children to express their views and be listened to.
- Create a secure and safe environment where children can flourish right from the beginning.
- Enable children to interact and be together in groups, and to develop conflict resolution, trust building and problem-solving skills.
- Enable children to adapt to a changing environment.
- Enhance their development.
- Enhance school readiness for children and parents' readiness during the transition from home to school.
- Support mothers and fathers as the main caregivers by providing time for work, other responsibilities or a short break from domestic tasks.
- Build on what is already there, by strengthening existing skills and practices evolved over generations, melding with modern knowledge.
- Provide a sense of continuity in times of change, and an opportunity to reflect and transmit community beliefs and values.
- Provide opportunities for volunteers and para-professionals to acquire valuable child-caring experience.





- Address children’s holistic needs. Young children grow holistically, across multiple domains of development that interact and scaffold on one another. Those interacting domains are, among others: Physical Well-Being and Motor Development; Self-help, Social and Emotional Development; Cognition and General Knowledge; and Language Development).
- Can replace, on a temporary basis, familiar routines and child-rearing activities interrupted by conflict, and aid healthy development both within and beyond the emergency.
- Protect children from potential immediate physical dangers
- Provide an entry point or facility for other emergency services and basic health care.
- Act as a catalyst for communities to recover and develop forums of caregivers.
- Equalizing factor for at-risk or disadvantaged children to improve their holistic development.
- Assist in the psychosocial recovery of children and their families.

Source: Adapted from Save the Children UK (2001) and INEE/CGECCD (2009).

Emergencies pose a set of challenges – visible and invisible – for young children in already difficult situations. Early losses (e.g. the death of a parent), witnessing physical or sexual violence, and other distressing events can disrupt bonding and undermine healthy long-term social and emotional development, communication and cognition. However, most children appear to be remarkably resilient and recover to a great extent from such experiences, especially when they are given appropriate care and support. Facilitated play and social activities that build

on the resilience children have and help mitigate the negative psychosocial impact of crisis situations (IASC, 2007).

In emergencies, very young children are often an invisible group since an assumption is frequently made that they are being adequately cared for by their parents or other relatives. Yet, emergencies have a significant impact on the care and development of young children because traditional support structures are disrupted and families are experiencing extraordinary stress. In most emergencies, existing EDC programmes are likely to be disrupted, along with other educational programmes, denying young children a chance to learn and grow in a supportive environment during one of the most critical stages of their development (Sinclair, 2001: 33).

Because Articles 18 and 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulate that States have an obligation to support parents in raising children and in protecting them from abuse and neglect and other potential threats, support for early childhood development activities during emergencies is a policy requirement. However, in any given emergency situation, there may be no agency responsible for the implementation and running of these activities, and the success of such programmes requires the direct involvement of parents. Their ownership and sense of responsibility for children's development is critical.

The success of ECD programmes depends on caregiver involvement and commitment. This includes mothers, fathers, grandparents, older siblings, education staff, health staff, volunteers and the community. It is necessary to organize meetings of parents and caregivers of young children where they can discuss their past, present and future and support each other in caring effectively for their children (IASC, 2007).

As ECD is holistic, establishing integrated, holistic community-based services with links cutting across with health, nutrition, education, water/sanitation and psychosocial support is important during all stages of emergencies.

A holistic approach to policy and programming requires coordination and communication between national authority departments or ministries responsible for water, sanitation, hygiene, nutrition, health, education, social welfare and protection, as well as UN and non-government groups working together with families and communities. This is why the Core Group Polio Project (CGPP: www.care.org/careswork/projects/NPL038.asp) suggests that coordinated action among a range of sectors is vital to effectively care for young children in emergencies.

Humanitarian actors developed a cluster approach (HPG, 2007) intended to increase response capacity and effectiveness by providing predictable leadership, strengthened inter-agency partnerships, greater accountability, and improved field-level coordination and prioritization. This cluster approach provides various entry points into which early childhood principles can and should be mainstreamed. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.11*, 'Coordination and communication'.)

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Educational activities in the early childhood years are crucial in preparing children for basic education, helping them acquire skills and increasing performance and retention in school later on. Even in situations of emergencies, and with limited resources, education interventions should begin with investment in early childhood development activities to ensure that basic rights of

children to survival, protection, care and participation are fully protected from birth to school age and onwards.

Some of the key strategies and issues are noted below. A checklist of points and ideas for developing and implementing each strategy is provided under the 'Guidance notes' that follow.



Summary of suggested strategies Early childhood development

- 1. Integrate ECD dimensions into emergency humanitarian relief efforts.**
- 2. Establish integrated, holistic community-based services with cross-cutting links with health, nutrition, education, water/sanitation and protection, including psychosocial support.**
- 3. Conduct a review of pre-primary education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism.**
- 4. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry's Department for Pre-primary Education when such a department exists.**



- 5. Prepare a framework for pre-primary education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action, if there is sufficient interest. Ensure that pre-primary education is included in plans for educational reconstruction.**
- 6. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of pre-primary education programmes, including elements such as those listed in points 7 to 9 below.**
- 7. Ensure the participation of emergency-affected populations and local communities when assessing, planning, implementing and monitoring/evaluating early childhood development activities.**
- 8. Consider establishing training programmes for parents and community members.**
- 9. Develop strategies that ensure the sustainability of the early childhood activities.**

Guidance notes

1. **Integrate ECD dimensions into emergency humanitarian relief efforts.**

- Conduct a review of existing ECD programmes and determine how young children are looked after in affected communities, starting with the most vulnerable groups.
- Ensure that young children have access to safe spaces.
- Ensure that ECD is included in Rapid Education Assessments as well as in Joint-Needs Assessments tools.
- Ensure that emergency plans which are drawn up with other humanitarian sectors accommodate the youngest.
- Encourage government ministries' participation in the design, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of ECD programmes.
- Have psychosocial components been incorporated into programme areas?
- Has gender-sensitive food distribution been organized for pregnant and lactating mothers?

2. **Establish integrated, holistic community-based services with cross-cutting links with health, nutrition, education, water/sanitation and protection, including psychosocial support.**

- Is the education sector coordinating with other sectors so that all sectors together contribute to meeting the holistic needs of young children?
- Are interventions built on family support systems and community social, cultural and physical infrastructure and resources?

- Is psychosocial assistance to distressed caregivers and children incorporated into interventions? Are they built upon local beliefs and meanings ?

3. Conduct a review of pre-primary education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism.

Organizations with a particular focus on the welfare of young children may have developed high-quality programmes in specific locations. Other governmental and civil-society organizations may benefit from this expertise. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)

- What types of early childhood activities existed in the affected population before the crisis?
 - What activities were offered to each age group? Were there activities for parents and children together?
 - What was the caregiver/child ratio per age group?
 - Were early learning and play materials available?
 - What ages were the children who participated in the activities?
 - Was food provided?
 - Was the service half day or full day?
- In what areas did early childhood education exist? Regions? Communities? Or impacted areas?
- Which children participated?
 - Only children whose parents could pay?
 - Only children whose parents worked for a certain company or the government?

- Were children from minorities or children with disabilities able to access the early childhood education activities?
- Did the government support the early childhood programme?
 - If so, what kind of support did the government provide for the ECD programmes?
- Were there any community-supported ECD programmes?



FLUCTUATIONS IN THE PROVISION OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN TIMOR-LESTE

“During the years of Indonesian rule, there were 64 kindergartens in East Timor, the vast majority operated by the Catholic Church. Some 5,000 pupils attended these pre-schools, approximately 10 per cent of those between age 5 and 6. During the transitional period this rate of enrolment fell, according to UNICEF ... partially due to the fact that early childhood was ignored in national priorities – and thus in budgets. In November 2001, the Joint Donor Education Sector Mission found that 4,500 children were attending a total of 41 kindergartens. However, other types of early childhood education have also developed. All eight of UNICEF’s Child Friendly Spaces include a component of early childhood development and Christian Children’s Fund has worked with a number of communities in providing their own early childhood care. Regardless of type, the government does not pay pre-school teacher salaries, which instead must come out of parent contributions and fees. An Early Childhood Forum was brought together beginning in 2000; through UNICEF and Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sports, it counts a draft national policy on Early Childhood Education as one of its achievements.”

Source: Nicolai (2004: 85–86).

- Who were the early childhood teachers/volunteers?
 - Did they receive special training or any incentives?
 - Were young people or the elderly trained to provide early childhood activities?
- Were parent education and support programmes available?
 - If so, which parents attended the programmes?
 - What topics were covered?
- What formal and non-formal early childhood activities are currently taking place? Conduct a review of those activities to determine whether additional support is needed. For each site:
 - Is the available space sufficient for both indoor and outdoor play?
 - Is it nearby or within a school?
 - Is the space safe?
 - If the space is insufficient, can the activities be held in the morning and afternoon in order to accommodate all children?
 - Are the teachers/facilitators/volunteers trained? Where were they trained? Could young people or the elderly be involved in organizing and helping with the activities for children?
 - Is there a system of referral in place for children that are psychologically challenged or other marginalized children? Where are they referred? What cases have been referred?
- Are the early childhood development activities registered with the government? If so, what is the relationship between the existing activities and the government?

4. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry's Department for Pre-primary Education when such a department exists.

There is a wide range of international experience of education at the pre-primary stage, both in emergencies and in non-emergency situations. External donors may be interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.4, 'Capacity building'*.)

5. Prepare a framework for pre-primary education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action, if there is sufficient interest. Ensure that pre-primary education is included in plans for educational reconstruction.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for possible needs and responses involved in developing early childhood development programmes.)

6. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of pre-primary education programmes, including elements such as those listed in points 7–9 below.

- Is there sufficient information available on learners' needs and appropriate responses?
- Are organizations invited to coordinate their activities within a national/regional action plan?
- Are training events/information campaigns followed by appropriate follow-up and monitoring?
- Are the ministries of health and social welfare involved?



EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN KOSOVO

In 1999, as part of UNICEF's Child Friendly Spaces programme, Save the Children UK assisted in setting up ECD programmes for children of Kosovo refugees in Albania. ECD programmes were considered a priority, and included infant care, pre- and primary school education, recreational activities, psychosocial support for infants and toddlers and counselling for children and their families. The account of the organization's effort to establish an ECD programme in the camp Stankovec 1 provides useful lessons on some of the obstacles to such programmes:

Stankovec 1 had been set up by NATO, and in some respects bore resemblance to an army camp. There was no tent large enough to house a playroom, and no free space to set up a new one. There was an initial attempt to share spaces with other agencies, such as Oxfam, but this fell through with the arrival of new refugees. A tent 5 x 15 metres thus had to serve up to 3,000 young children. As a response, the playroom was run by a shift system, where children could attend an hour at a time, in seven different sessions a day.

Similar ECD tents were later established in five other camps, but requisitioning proved difficult, and the need to fill out request forms and lack of equipment caused much delay.

Among the many problems illustrated in this experience were:

- Difficulty of securing any adequate space.
- Lack of materials and equipment.
- Some agencies providing unsuitable materials and equipment.
- Programme was started where the staff had no contacts and people in the camp did not know the team.
- Lack of prepared, informed training programmes.
- Lack of coordination with other agencies affecting all aspects of the programme.



- Save the Children team had very little preparation time.
- No agency identified beforehand to look after severely traumatized children.
- Lack of policy regarding volunteers/paid workers.
- Lack of forethought about post-conflict situation.

Amongst the solutions and achievements were:

- The creation of a play space with a clean and home-like atmosphere, replacing the usual plastic sheeting on the floor with a cheap wooden one, to protect from camp mud.
- Avoidance of expensive or inappropriate toys.
- Registration of teachers and other educators, and regular meetings with these.
- Registration of small children and preparation of shift schedules.
- The recruitment and training of volunteers.
- The recruitment of unemployed Albanian caretakers outside the camp for paid positions, so as not to create financial expectations within the camp for reward that were not sustainable.

Source: Save the Children UK (2001).

7. Ensure the participation of emergency-affected populations and local communities when assessing, planning, implementing and monitoring/evaluating early childhood development activities.

(See also the 'Tools and resources' section for suggested principles to consider when developing early childhood development programmes and for examples of early childhood activities.)

For each site, consider the following.

- Review existing assessment data to determine which young children are the most vulnerable. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'.)
 - How many young children (aged 0–8) are present?
 - Are there young children who are separated from their parents?
 - How many child-headed households exist? How many of these contain very young children?
- What age groups will be targeted?
- What groups of the community will be targeted? Are minority and other vulnerable children – children with a disability, children of adolescent mothers, children separated from their parents – targeted for inclusion?
- What activities are most needed for these children (e.g. nursery care while parents are working/siblings are studying or attending educational activities or pre-school activities that focus on children's development and/or school readiness)?
- How can local culture and child-care customs be used to enhance the acceptance and effectiveness of early childhood development programmes?
 - Can early childhood development activities be built into indigenous education structures such as religious schools, or traditional songs and story telling by elders?
 - What are the local child-rearing customs? How do these affect the planned programme? For example, in some parts of the world, older siblings take care of their young siblings rather than the parents, grandparents or relatives. With this in mind, early childhood development activities should target not only adults but also older children.
- Where and when will early childhood activities take place?
 - In homes?

- In clearly identified safe spaces?
- Is there a need for multiple shifts?
- Who will implement the activities and what training/materials/supplies are needed?
 - What is the impact of the emergency on caregivers?
 - What is the impact of the emergency on teachers/facilitators?
 - What are the priority needs of local communities?
- How can early childhood programmes be integrated with other humanitarian services such as feeding, health or immunization programmes (INEE, 2003)?
 - Ideally, early childhood activities should be conducted close to maternal child health (MCH) clinics to ensure that children's health concerns and immunization needs are addressed or arrangements are made for those services to come to the ECD site.
 - Early childhood development activities for children and training for parents should also be included in therapeutic feeding programmes, basic health care settings, etc.

8. Consider establishing training programmes for parents and community members.

- Who will conduct the training of trainers, and trainings of parents and community members?
 - Government education officers (training of trainers)?
 - International organizations? (training of trainers)?
 - Non-governmental organizations? (training of trainers)?
- What will the training consist of?
 - The importance of parents and caregivers regularly discussing their experiences and the challenges of raising children in a difficult environment. This can be an effective way for parents to reduce the stress of child-rearing.

- The importance of early childhood development activities.
- Child rights.
- Activities that parents can do with their children at home.
- Peace building, conflict resolution, social skills.
- Hygiene, nutrition, health, mine awareness, etc.
- Who will participate in the training?
 - Parents?
 - Older siblings?
 - Grandparents?
- How has the community been sensitized to the importance of early childhood development?
(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for information on how to link home to pre-school and primary school.)

9. Develop strategies that ensure the sustainability of the early childhood activities.

- Do parents and community members serve as volunteers?
- Do they have sufficient training to conduct the early childhood activities without outside support?
- Have educational authorities at all levels been trained to set up and monitor ongoing early childhood development programmes?
 - Are the local community and the local government mobilized and participating? How are they contributing?
 - Is there a transition plan?
- What type of ongoing monetary and material support will be needed?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Early childhood development programmes: needs and responses

PROGRAMME APPROACH	PARTICIPANTS AND BENEFICIARIES	OBJECTIVES	MODELS/EXAMPLES
DELIVERING SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children aged 0–2, 3–6 and 6–8 years old 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survival • Overall development • Socialization • Caregiver child care? • Care for caregiver 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home day care • Home visiting • Formal and non-formal pre-schools • Safe spaces? • Early childhood centres (may not be preschools)
EDUCATING AND SUPPORTING CAREGIVERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Family • Siblings • Preschool teachers • Community volunteers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create awareness and change attitudes of the importance of ECD • Improve practice • Support primary caregivers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home visiting • Parental education and support • Child-to-child programmes • Training of trainers (TOT) • Training of caregivers
PROMOTING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promoters (local and international NGOs?) • Leaders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase awareness • Mobilize for action • Change conditions • Recovery and healing through participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical mobilization • Social mobilization • Volunteering • Contributing • Participation in governance of services

Source: Adapted from INEE (2003).

2. Creating links between home, preschool and primary school

The first days and months of schooling are traumatic for many young children, and are stressful for most. Upon entering primary school, 6- or 7-year-old children are thrown into situations quite

different from what they are used to, and they are expected to adapt quickly. The following are some of the transitions children must make upon entering school:

- They make a shift from learning informally through observation and practice in the home, or through play in a preschool, to more formal modes of learning.
- They are expected to move quickly from an oral culture, in which they are only beginning to gain comfort and competency, to an oral and written culture.
- Most children are expected to sit still and follow a whole range of new rules when they are used to more activity and freedom of movement.
- Many children have to make an adjustment from the practices and behaviour patterns of a minority or popular culture in their home or early childhood centre, to the practices and expectations of a majority or dominant culture adhered to by the school.
- They are sometimes required to learn and use a new language, with little or no adjustment time or direct language instruction.
- For some, the shift involves a change from being an only child or part of a small group of children in the family, to being part of a larger group. This requires them to develop new social skills quickly, and to take on new roles, including the role of 'student', which requires greater independence of children who may or may not be developmentally ready for it. They are expected to pay attention in a large group.

Even one of these challenges can block a child's healthy growth and success in the new setting. When several of these changes are encountered by a child at the same time, the stress of moving into the new learning environment of the school can be overwhelming. The result is often that the child fails to perform well, ends up

repeating grades, becomes disaffected with learning, develops a sense of failure and low self-esteem, and ultimately drops out. Thus, the way in which the transition from home or preschool to school is handled can have important effects on children's future success and happiness, as well as on their ability to enjoy and take advantage of schooling in the present.

However, concern with transitions goes well beyond concern for individual children and their futures; it encompasses the entire school system and its ability to educate students successfully, for the greater good of society. Because the disjunction among diverse 'worlds' or 'learning environments' is usually greater for children from poor and disadvantaged or minority backgrounds, the failure to anticipate potential difficulties related to differences between home and school can perpetuate and even create inequities among the 'haves' and the 'have nots' and among different cultural groups in school and beyond. A society that aspires to equity cannot afford to ignore problems that arise in the transition from home to school.

Source: Myers (1997: 2–3).

3. Creating links between education, health and child protection interventions

It is vital to recognize that complementary interventions in the areas of sanitation and hygiene, education, health, nutrition and protection are important for the balanced and holistic development of young children. This integrated approach in support of early child development is particularly applicable in emergency situations when children are especially vulnerable.

The implementation of the Integrated Early Childhood Development scheme as part of the Support to War Affected Children and Youth project by UNICEF Liberia provides an excellent example of this approach:

The Support to War-Affected Youth networks (SWAY) is a consortium of six community-based non-governmental agencies that combines education, health and child protection advocacy to children in situations of crisis and instability. In Liberia, the SWAY project facilitates the implementation of youth clubs, focusing on HIV/AIDS prevention, several girls' resource centres, life skills education for teenage mothers, six transit homes for vulnerable youth, early childhood development programmes, vocational skills training and sports and recreation activities. Early childhood development care classes are offered, which contain advice on hygiene, nutrition and the importance of play for the development of the young child. In the IDP camps in which SWAY operates, the integrated approach for early childhood development is applied in the management of the camps, and various services related to health, nutrition, early stimulation and learning, water, hygiene, sanitation and protection of young children are available.

The Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development (CGECCD), a global inter-agency consortium with strong links to regional networks, works actively to identify gaps, critical issues and emerging areas of need and interest related to ECD for its work in awareness-raising, advocacy, and dissemination.

Successful projects such as this that coordinate and integrate various aspects of childcare provide useful lessons for the future implementation of early childhood development schemes.

Source: UNICEF (2004).

4. Theoretical principles of child development and learning

These principles should be viewed in conjunction with the 'Teaching and learning standard 3: Instruction' in the INEE *Minimum standards* (INEE, 2004: 61), which outlines the concept of learner-centred, participatory and inclusive instruction.

PRINCIPLE	PRACTICE
Children learn best when their physical needs are met and they feel psychologically safe and secure.	This approach respects children’s biological needs. For example, children are not made to sit and attend to paperwork or listen to adult lectures for long periods of time. The concept calls for active play and periods of quiet, restful, activity. The environment is safe and secure where everyone is accepted.
Children construct knowledge.	Knowledge is constructed as a result of dynamic interactions between the individual and the physical and social environments. In a sense, the child discovers knowledge through active experimentation. Central to experimentation is making ‘constructive errors’ that are necessary to mental development. Children need to form their own hypotheses and keep trying them out through mental actions and physical manipulations – observing what happens, comparing their findings, asking questions, and discovering answers – and adjust the model or alter the mental structures to account for the new information.
Children learn through social interaction with other adults and other children.	A prime example is the parent-child relationship. The teacher encourages and fosters this relationship as well as relationships with peers and other adults by supporting the child in his or her efforts and later allowing the child to function independently. The teacher’s role is one of supporting, guiding, and facilitating development and learning.
Children learn through play.	Play provides opportunities for exploration, experimentation, and manipulation that are essential for constructing knowledge and contributes to the development of representational thought. During play, children examine and refine their learning in light of the feedback they receive from the environment and other people. It is through play that children develop their imaginations and creativity. During the primary grades, children’s play becomes more rule-oriented and promotes the development of autonomy and cooperation that contributes to social, emotional and intellectual development.
Children’s interests and ‘need to know’ motivate learning.	Children have a need to make sense of their experiences. In a developmentally appropriate classroom, teachers identify what intrigues their children and then allow the students to solve problems together. Activities that are based on children’s interests provide motivation for learning. This fosters a love of learning, curiosity, attention, and self-direction.
Human development and learning are characterized by individual variation.	A wide range of individual variation is normal and to be expected. Each human being has an individual pattern and timing of growth development as well as individual styles of learning. Personal family experiences and cultural backgrounds also vary.

Source: Adapted from Bredekamp et al. (1992).

5. Suggested principles for early childhood development programmes

Early Childhood activities should be designed to strengthen children's resilience and help them begin to work through their emotions and foster positive, healthy interactions with their caregivers and peers following a disaster. Where possible, activities/games promote health, hygiene, safety, environmental education, landmine awareness, social skills, emotional language, and cognitive and motor development. The curriculum is oriented towards non-violent conflict resolution and should incorporate local practices/culture utilizing traditional sources of parenting support in conjunction with state-of-the-art knowledge.

TOPS – An easy way to remember the principles of early childhood development programmes:

- T** - trust, time and talking
- O** - opportunities to play
- P** - partnership with parents (and other caregivers)
- S** - space and structure.

T - trust, time and talking

Points to remember:

- Trust is an early casualty of war.
- Time is needed to re-establish trust.
- Trusting relationships are established through talk, playing and other means of communication.
- Always do what you have said you were going to do, and never make promises you know cannot be kept: this is particularly vital when talking to children.

- Allow time for children to talk – to other children, to staff and to other adults. This is a vitally important element of an ECD programme.

O - opportunities to play

Points to remember:

- Providing opportunity to play is essential to any ECD programme.
- There should be opportunities for children to take part (individually or in groups) in a range of age-adapted activities that enable them to use their imagination, spontaneity and social skills (e.g. role-play) and develop in all areas.
- Play should include organized activities allowing for physical expression (e.g. football, dancing), and also ‘quiet time’, rest and leisure, recreation, early learning, and creativity (e.g. drawing, reading, playing with individual toys).

P - partnership with parents (and other caregivers)

Points to remember:

- Make parents and caregivers feel welcome in the ECD programme, and encourage them to take part as much – or as little – as they want.
- Give families the chance to do everyday/family activities together, such as preparing a snack/meal, going for a walk, singing songs.
- Give opportunities for elder and younger siblings to play and do other things together.
- Give time and space for caregivers and children to re-establish their relationships in a safe place, such as an informal play setting.
- Provide opportunities for parents/caregivers to talk about their hopes, fears and concerns for their children.

S - space and structure

Points to remember:

- Space must be provided, which is safe and secure, with access to sanitary and hygiene facilities and enough room to be used by young children and their families; this could be outdoors or indoors, or both.
- Acceptable caregivers/children ratios and reliability of staff is absolutely essential to build a steady routine, thus helping psychologically to create feelings of safety.

Source: Adapted from INEE (2003).

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Chapter **2.11**

POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To reduce the trauma of emergencies by ensuring that the ladder of educational opportunity remains open, with possibilities for continued education after completion of primary schooling.**
- **To enable refugees and IDPs, whose post-primary education was interrupted by displacement, to resume their studies.**
- **To provide skilled labour for national reconstruction and socio-economic development.**

- **To provide a pool of potential recruits for primary school teaching.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

During times of crises, the number of children (and especially youth) without access to educational opportunities is likely to increase. These children and youth miss out on the vital psychosocial support and protection that education can provide. Whilst donors and agencies, and sometimes ministries, tend to focus on primary education, there are a number of reasons why investment in quality post-primary education should be considered also

in situations of emergency and reconstruction. Adolescents have psychosocial needs in and after conflict, just as much as younger children do. Lack of access to adequate educational opportunities may render them more vulnerable to abuse and to abduction, or may force them to take jobs in dangerous working conditions. No longer children, but not yet able to take on adult roles, adolescents without access to further education can be easy targets for those who do want their skills – recruiters from the military, criminal gangs, and the sex industry. Lack of quality educational programmes may be a cause of youth unrest, anti-social behaviour or depression. It is thus central to engage young people in education, which can enable them to play a responsible and positive role in their families and society.

The division between primary and secondary education is essentially an administrative one, with the duration of primary varying from four or five years in some countries to nine in others. The variation reflects historical and demographic conditions. With a largely rural population, there may be advantages in extending the number of grades included in primary school so that more children can have access near their homes. As the proportion of children proceeding to secondary level increases, this consideration becomes less important, and other matters, such as making the best use of highly qualified teachers in scarcity subjects such as science, mathematics and foreign languages come to the fore.

The different structures of schooling in different countries make it difficult for international agencies to clarify their policies regarding secondary schooling. One approach is to provide priority support to the period of schooling that a country considers all its citizens should complete – which was defined at the Jomtien Conference on Education for All in 1990 as ‘basic education’. In many countries, basic education now includes the first eight to

ten years of schooling. This should be the target for universal coverage in emergencies as well as in normal times, since young people will need more skills and self-esteem to tackle the problems of post-emergency reconstruction.

As a result of conflict or natural disaster, secondary schools, universities and technical or vocational institutions may be damaged, destroyed, looted or taken over for other purposes, such as the provision of military accommodation. Staff may be scattered due to displacement and emigration. Provision of salaries, textbooks and other education materials may be interrupted, as may the holding of national examinations. However, access to adequate primary and post-primary education in these times is crucial. If access to the labour market is limited for young people, as it often is in situations of emergency and reconstruction, they need the stimulus and challenge of education to absorb their energies and lessen their frustrations and anxiety about the future.

There are close relationships between primary and secondary schooling that are often neglected by those who seek to emphasize primary education. One is that children from poorer families may be allowed or encouraged by their families to drop out of primary school without completing it if there is limited or no access to secondary education in the area. A major problem, particularly in periods of emergency, is that secondary and tertiary education is nearly always fee-based. Families affected by conflict and disasters are often unable to meet these costs.

Lack of access to post-primary education often impedes the achievement of goals normally associated with primary education. The conditions of primary schooling in many countries are such that those who drop out of education after primary school often do so without having reached sustainable literacy.

Indeed, where primary schools are under resourced and lack reading materials, sustainable literacy may not be attained except by those who complete post-primary studies. These problems are exacerbated in emergency situations, where the problems of resource shortages and underpaid and untrained teachers become more acute, and students and teachers themselves face additional challenges such as trauma or physical handicaps.

SIX REASONS FOR INVESTING IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. Programmes to universalize primary education have increased demand.

Access to secondary school will become a major political and social preoccupation in those countries with low secondary enrolment rates and successful universal primary education (UPE) programmes. Over the last decade, secondary enrolment rates have not increased substantially in many of the poorest countries. Access remains highly unequally distributed geographically, and in terms of the socio-economic backgrounds of those who participate. Transition rates from primary to secondary appear to have been falling in Sub-Saharan Africa.

2. Achieving the two most cited millennium development goals (MDGs) can only happen if there is expanded post-primary enrolment.

To attain the first goal of universalizing primary access and completion, countries must maintain or increase their transition rates to secondary: if they fall dramatically, retention in upper primary will decrease as it becomes clear that for many there will be no progression to higher education levels. Universalizing primary access and completion also depends on an adequate supply of qualified primary teachers. Quality, achievement and persistence at the primary level will suffer without adequate numbers of





students successfully completing secondary schooling and electing to train as teachers, and pupil/teacher ratios will remain stubbornly high.

To attain the second goal of gender equity at primary and secondary levels also requires greater enrolments at the secondary level. Few countries in Sub-Saharan Africa having gross enrolment rates at secondary (GER2) of less than 50 per cent approach gender parity or have more girls than boys enrolled. On the other hand, most of those countries with GER2 greater than 50 per cent have achieved parity or better.

3. Secondary education has a responsibility in the battle against HIV and AIDS.

The consequences of HIV and AIDS permeate all aspects of educational development: increased morbidity and mortality among teachers, unprecedented numbers of orphans, and impact on the labour force.

Secondary schooling has special roles to play in influencing informed choice related to sexual behaviour, increasing tolerance and support for those infected. A reduced risk of HIV/AIDS is associated with higher levels of education, and children in school are less at risk than those out of school.

4. Poverty reduction has direct links with investment and participation at the secondary level.

As primary schooling becomes universalized, participation at the secondary level will become a major determinant of life chances and a major source of subsequent inequity. Access to and success in secondary will continue to be highly correlated with subsequent employment and income distribution patterns. Many groups are marginalized from attending secondary school. This marginalization will be increased, not reduced, if competition for scarce places in secondary school increases.

5. National competitiveness depends on the knowledge and skills of its citizens; in high value-added sectors these are acquired in secondary school.





There is much evidence to suggest that those with secondary schooling acquire useful skills and increase their chances of formal sector employment and informal sector livelihoods and that export-led growth is associated more with investment at the post-primary than at the primary level.

6. Investment in secondary education is especially critical in post-conflict situations.

Where a generation or more has missed out on secondary schooling, the labour force will be short on members with more than a basic education. Positions in government and productive enterprises, which require analytic skills, will be filled with those lacking formal education and training to an appropriate level. Demobilized militia left with unfulfilled promises of opportunities for employment and livelihoods may well feel excluded and betrayed, with adverse social conditions.

Source: Lewin (2004).

Secondary education prepares the primary teachers of the future. Many secondary school graduates enter teaching. In prolonged emergency situations, the discontinuation of secondary education means that there will be a shortage of primary school teachers in the future. In contrast, a refugee education system, such as that established by and for Bhutanese refugees in Nepal, uses many of its secondary school graduates as teachers for the refugee primary school classes (Brown, 2001).

Other than formal schooling, an option for primary school graduates, and indeed for those who may not have completed primary school, is vocational skills training for work as mechanics, carpenters, tailors, horticulturalists, etc. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.7, 'Vocational education and training'). Formal courses in such skills are expensive to establish, however, and can only

accommodate a very small number of students. These courses also have a poor record of preparing students for waged or self-employment in emergency situations, since they usually have a theoretical bias and often prepare far more graduates than can be absorbed in the local or regional employment market. Sponsored apprenticeship schemes have done better, but again can only take in a limited number of students. If the number of students trained is greater than the number who can obtain work experience under prevailing market conditions, the training is largely lost because the skills are not refined or consolidated.

The importance of post-primary education is acknowledged by national governments. It should be, and often is, acknowledged by international agencies that fund education for emergency-affected persons. Good secondary school programmes for refugees have been established in countries such as Guinea, Uganda, Nepal and Pakistan. However, since it takes longer to establish post-primary institutions in camps than primary schools, primary schooling still tends to get more of the initial attention and is usually more appealing to donors. Other factors such as a severe shortage of experienced, capable teachers and the specialized equipment often required at secondary and tertiary level education, add to the difficulties of creating and sustaining post-primary institutions in situations of emergency and reconstruction. Lack of funding may also force secondary schools to close their doors or reduce the number of students admitted to their institutions (Brown, 2005).

In crises, the best-qualified education personnel tend to be the first ones to leave the area or the country, as they often have the greatest resources and the possibility to do so. In some refugee situations, it has proved more economical to provide scholarships for refugee students to attend national educational programmes

than to create opportunities for post-primary education in the camp. Scholarships have been given for secondary schools, technical education programmes and universities, although refugees are often subject to restrictions in terms of enrolment in local/national schools.

Students who have completed primary school, but some time back and in a different location, may need help refreshing and updating their skills before beginning post-primary opportunities. Accelerated learning to complete the primary school curriculum in a shorter period of time may be an important intervention to give emergency-affected adolescents access to secondary schools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.9, 'Non-formal education'*, for a definition and important considerations). This may involve using condensed materials, an arrangement of flexible class schedules or the provision of childcare for teenage parents. The pressure to earn a living or contribute to the family income can prevent adolescents from accessing education opportunities. Advocates for post-primary education often therefore include non-formal education for adolescents and young people as part of the educational package needed in emergencies and early reconstruction.

Higher education

Higher education institutions play a vital role in restoring national stability – post-conflict or post-disaster. Higher education is also critical to restoring a highly qualified workforce in the country, which is often depleted by emigration during a prolonged conflict. Because higher education institutions serve students who have often completed basic schooling, which has deteriorated over the course of an emergency or crisis, higher education systems are faced with specific challenges during and immediately after an

emergency. Students will have varying academic levels as many students have had their education interrupted while others have been able to continue their schooling, but in different settings. Without a comprehensive national system of primary and secondary education, equitable admission to higher education is difficult, as students are unable to compete on the same level. Academic enrichment programmes may help students whose education has been delayed to catch up to their peers. In crisis settings, many students will have suffered trauma and will need counselling services in universities and other higher education institutions.

Higher education systems are faced with a very diverse population when refugees return home after a crisis. In addition, there may be a significant discrepancy between student demand and availability of places in higher education institutions. As a result, admission may become more selective. Frequently, access is limited or even denied to groups of refugees, ethnic minorities and physically handicapped individuals. Implementation of affirmative action programmes may help to reduce this disparity.

Staffing universities in crisis settings can often be problematic, as professors have often fled, secure working conditions can be difficult to provide, and salaries are often irregular or too low to incite professors to teach. In addition, there may be fewer opportunities for professional development or training. It is important to set up appropriate staff development programmes – academic, managerial and technical – in quantity and quality, through on-campus training but also through provision of a scholarship programme and twinning of universities.

As with secondary schools, the infrastructure and facilities of higher education institutions have often been damaged. Library stocks may have been either partially or completely damaged.

Technical institutes may no longer have the necessary materials, which can reduce the number of professions for which graduates may be trained.

Because higher education becomes even more expensive in crises or reconstruction (and is largely fee-based), some universities or donors may provide scholarships for tertiary education for refugee students.



SCHOLARSHIPS IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA

With the help of a German programme set up to commemorate Albert Einstein, a group of young refugees have just completed their first year as DAFI scholars at a teachers' college in Papua New Guinea (PNG). This brings them one step closer to helping other youths in their refugee settlement.

The worldwide DAFI Scholarships Programme, funded by the German government's Albert Einstein German Academic Refugee Initiative, promotes self-reliance among refugees by helping them access tertiary education in their country of asylum and boost their chances of future employment. Since 1992, the German government has donated, on average, more than \$2 million every year to UNHCR for this programme.

In PNG this year [2004], the programme focuses on helping young refugees become qualified teachers so they can in turn teach the younger children in the remote refugee settlement in East Awin. The scholarships are awarded on academic merit and cover tuition and boarding fees, books, clothing, medical and other living costs, as well as travel between East Awin and Wewak, where four refugee scholars are studying at St Benedict's Teachers' College.

Source: UNHCR (2004).

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for a list of eligibility requirements for the DAFI scholarships.)

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Post-primary education

- 1. Carry out a review of the programmes being conducted on secondary, technical/vocational and higher education, under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.**
- 2. Take steps to strengthen the government ministry/ministries or councils responsible for secondary, technical/vocational and higher education.**
- 3. Consider establishing a programme of in-service training in subject matter and methodology for teachers.**
- 4. Work to allow students from displaced populations to attend local/ national secondary and technical/vocational schools, or set up alternative courses.**
- 5. Take steps to ensure that students in refugee schools can sit examinations recognized by the country/area of origin and/or by the host government.**



- 6. Provide the maximum support possible to national schools in emergency-affected areas and to IDP schools.**
- 7. At the phase of early reconstruction, undertake a school mapping exercise to identify the functioning post-primary institutions and their catchment areas.**
- 8. Undertake a review of labour market conditions, so that the reconstruction of technical/vocational education can be linked to employment opportunities and the need for special skills.**
- 9. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of secondary education, and advocate with donors for funding.**
- 10. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of technical/vocational education, and advocate with donors for funding.**
- 11. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of higher education, and advocate with donors for funding.**
- 12. As part of the reconstruction plan, initiate a feasibility study on the use of open and distance learning to support secondary and tertiary education that would help expand education opportunities in regions that had been affected by conflict.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Carry out a review of the programmes being conducted on secondary, technical/vocational and higher education, under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.**

(See also *Chapter 5.1*, 'Assessment of needs and resources', and *Chapter 5.11*, 'Coordination and communication'.)

- 2. Take steps to strengthen the government ministry/ ministries or councils responsible for secondary, technical/vocational and higher education.**

- Review the current staffing and capacity level. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.4*, 'Capacity building'.)
- When approaching donors and agencies for support to the sector, include proposals for staff recruitment and/or training.
- Invite senior management of universities and other large educational institutions to trainings and briefings for ministry/ ministries or councils.

- 3. Consider establishing a programme of in-service training in subject matter and methodology for teachers.**

Many teachers will be reluctant to teach at higher grades or in secondary school because they feel that they themselves do not know enough about the subject or how to handle older students. Provide any support possible through local education services.

- Can local trainers provide in-service training in subject matter and/or methodology to teachers or older students?
 - Are there distance education courses available that teachers can participate in?
 - Can older students or people who have advanced knowledge of a subject or a craft assist in the in-service training of teachers?
- 4. Work to allow students from displaced populations to attend local / national secondary and technical/ vocational schools on equal terms as local students, or set up alternative courses.**

Where moderate numbers of refugees have the right language skills to study in local / national secondary and technical/vocational schools, they should be permitted to do so. This is in line with Article 22 of the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees (UNHCR, 1951) and UNHCR's *Education field guidelines* (UNHCR, 2003: 27–28).

CONVENTION AND PROTOCOL RELATING TO THE STATUS OF REFUGEES

Article 22: “The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regards access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships.”

- Governments and agencies should negotiate with international donors to provide them with scholarships and/or to provide additional classrooms, furniture, dormitories, equipment and textbooks to expand the schools' absorptive capacity.
- Where admission to local/national schools is impossible, have resources from the local community or from within the displaced population been mobilized to provide alternative secondary and/or technical/vocational education?
- Can a limited number of refugees or IDPs be admitted into local school courses?
 - Is special tuition needed in subjects such as language or mathematics?
 - Can they be offered catch-up classes over a period before entering local schools?
- Where the capacity of local schools are already exhausted, can the refugees or IDPs use a local school on a second shift basis, or can alternative courses be established?
 - Can students from the camp be given occasional access to laboratories or other facilities in a local school, under an arrangement whereby the science teacher is given an allowance for supervising their practical work?
 - If textbooks from the refugees' home country are not available, can the students use host country textbooks?
 - Can specialist teachers from the host country provide help in establishing science and other courses in refugee secondary schools? (It is quite difficult for refugee teachers to get equipment and materials and organize practical work, especially if they are inexperienced.)
 - Where there is a shortage of teachers, can older students or people who have advanced knowledge of a subject or a craft be given training in methodology to act as post-primary teachers themselves?

- Ensure that refugee students at secondary and tertiary levels of education do not have to pay fees higher than those charged to nationals.
 - Can international agencies be persuaded to fund scholarships for refugee or IDP students?
 - Have donors and international agencies been approached to provide equipment, textbooks and other supplies to schools and university departments that accommodate considerable numbers of refugee or IDP students?

5. Take steps to ensure that students in refugee schools can sit examinations recognized by the country/area of origin and /or by the host government.

- Can discussions be held with the country of origin educational authorities on this matter?
- Can organizations such as UNICEF, UNHCR and UNESCO assist?
- Can the students sit the host country examinations or a special version of them?
- Are there internationally recognized school examinations that some students could take?
- Are there distance-learning courses that could be taken through the school?
- Could students take examinations in particular subjects, e.g. international language skills?

6. Provide the maximum support possible to national secondary and technical/vocational schools in emergency-affected areas and to IDP schools.

In an emergency situation, local schools – both with and without the influx of displaced populations – are likely to lack the full cadre

of qualified teachers, and have insecure supplies of textbooks. Make arrangements so that their students are able to sit the national examinations without expensive and insecure travel over long distances.

- Are supervisors able to reach these schools, and to distribute salaries, textbooks, etc.?
- Is there communication through district offices, by telephone or radio, to pass over information about needs?
- Are the teachers in IDP schools still getting their salaries?
- Can textbooks be redirected to the district where the IDPs are now living?
- What arrangements can be made regarding the holding of examinations?

7. At the phase of early reconstruction, undertake a school mapping exercise to identify the functioning and capacity of post-primary institutions and their catchment areas.

The data emerging from the exercise should be used in comparison with the number of students expected to emerge from primary schools, as well as returnees, if any.

- Are provincial/district education offices functioning, and do they have adequate statistics on enrolment in the different years of schooling?
- Can training be arranged for provincial/district offices in educational statistics and school mapping?
- If school census data has been collected for an EMIS, is this data available at local level?

8. Undertake a review of labour market conditions, so that the reconstruction of technical/vocational education can be linked to employment opportunities and the need for special skills.

At the time of early reconstruction, decisions may have to be made about which courses should be resumed, and in which institutions. In some cases, the previous courses did not lead to employment, and should be discontinued. Which courses should take their place? The best approach is not to undertake a massive survey but to talk to key informants. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.7, ‘Open and distance learning’, Chapter 2.9, ‘Non-formal education’ and Chapter 4.7, ‘Vocational education and training’.)

- Have any labour market studies been conducted by government or other agencies in recent years? If so, obtain copies and incorporate the findings in the national reconstruction plan.
- Is data available on the employment of ex-trainees?
- Gather information from key informants – trainers, employers, students and ex-students – to identify which students get employment and which do not. Identify new areas in which employment opportunities are growing. Remember that labour markets are easily saturated, if colleges produce graduates in a particular subject year after year.
- Review possibilities for work experience placements during and after courses of study, to increase employability.
- If possible, budget for at least one full-time staff member per institution to facilitate the placement of ex-trainees in employment.

9. Prepare a plan and project proposal to support the renewal of secondary education, and advocate with donors for funding.

- Are renewal proposals relevant to cultural traditions and local economic demands?
- Do plans work to integrate adolescents into the world of work and adult social roles?
- Are private firms involved in training apprentices?
- Secondary educational opportunities should be allocated without regard to social status.
 - Is access to secondary schooling determined by family background, or has primary schooling erased these advantages and placed all students on an even footing?
- Does achievement in school, rather than social status, influence occupational mobility?
- Will secondary schooling be controlled centrally by the government?
 - Can the government financially supply secondary schools at a pace that responds to the growing popular demand?
 - Can the private market participate in the development of secondary schools?
 - Will a greater diversity of secondary educational opportunities increase or reduce any economic benefits from secondary schooling? (If quality of private schools is low, or local social agendas dominate curriculum, benefits will most likely be reduced.)
 - Will the expansion of private secondary schools diminish meritocratic incentives? (If private schools mainly serve affluent families, social-status inequalities will be reinforced.)
 - How will the expansion of private schooling advance national and local social objectives?

- Who will control the structure and content of secondary curricula?
 - Are there enough highly trained teachers to teach the content of the curriculum?
 - Will university professors provide their input of the latest knowledge to the curriculum?
- Is there too great a focus on renewal of primary curriculum when there is an urgent need also for curriculum renewal at secondary and tertiary level?
- How much room for student or parental choice regarding course selection will be permitted?
 - Consider using a core curriculum.
 - Uniformity of learning is more easily assured.
 - Targeting specific learning objectives is easier.
 - Resource requirements are more easily organized.
- How specialized will secondary school curriculum become?
 - At what stage of schooling will the curriculum become specialized?
 - When will students make choices about course selection?
 - How many specialized tracks will there be?
 - How easy will it be to move from one track to the other?
- Will secondary schooling include learning from the social and physical environment that surrounds the school as an arena for learning?
 - How can the curriculum be written in such a manner as to draw on the social and physical environments efficiently?
- What can be done to introduce effective education for health and HIV and AIDS prevention through life skills, education for

peace, human rights, active citizenship, and environmental responsibility, in secondary and tertiary level institutions?

- Can a working group be set up to look into this?
- Can these themes be integrated into other subjects or disciplines?
- Is it possible to reduce the high costs of secondary schooling by using parent-supported self-help schools?
- Is new equipment needed, related to the curriculum and staff training in practical work?

10. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of technical/vocational education, and advocate with donors for funding.

(See the ‘Tools and reference’ section of this chapter and the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.7, ‘Vocational education and training’*, for more information on planning vocational education programmes.)

11. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of higher education, and advocate with donors for funding.

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for a sample higher education action plan.)

- Use a comprehensive-sector approach for action planning as soon as possible after the crisis.
- Who will be responsible for deciding the basic structure of higher education?
 - Will a new ministry be created specifically for higher education, or will a department within the Ministry of Education be responsible for higher education?



HIGHER EDUCATION: A TOP PRIORITY IN RWANDAN RECONSTRUCTION

“The damage to the higher education sub-sector was indescribable. The National University of Rwanda (NUR) had been specifically targeted by the perpetrators of the genocide. The toll of deaths among the staff was 153 people; 106 disappeared; 800 fled.

One of the major new government policies developed in the wake of the genocide was to replenish and expand the country’s skilled work force at the highest levels, and in increasing numbers, within country and through studies abroad. The aim was to accelerate economic development. Human capacity development was to receive marked attention in terms of funding. High priority was therefore given to tertiary institutions from the start, justifying the large proportion of the national education budget allocated to higher institutions.

The separate Ministry of Higher Education was maintained as such, to emphasize the priority of higher education, and the sub-sector was run by a series of directives from that ministry, as expansion ran ahead of fully developed policy but within the Government’s overall goals. From an allocation of 2 per cent of the government’s total recurrent budget in 1990 during the lean years, as compared with the 22 per cent for primary and secondary education (Cooksey, 1992: 4), higher education was to receive over one third of the budgetary allocation for the education sector in 2000, to the dramatic disadvantage of primary education (MOESTSR, 2002b: 22).

In early 1994, before the crisis, there were thirteen institutions of higher education ... In 1997, eleven institutes of higher learning were operational ... Three of the state institutions were entirely new, started since the war: KHI, KIST (1997), and KIE (January 1999). As early as 1996-97, the National University of Rwanda initiated the first doctoral programme in the university, a four year programme in the Faculty of Medicine.

The development of the tertiary sector was driven by the determination of the Government of Rwanda. External partners offered funding initially, institution by institution, rather than in





accordance with an overall plan. The second observation is that considerable funds were spent on bursaries to all first-year students for full-time residential one-year language courses – instead of devising a less costly option such as vouchers to students in private sector language schools as a prerequisite for a place in the university. In [the] future, external partners should support higher education planning processes from the start, in an attempt to utilize education sector funding effectively across the sector.”

Source: Obura (2003: 114–121).

- How will this authority prioritize among different types of studies so that the system does not become distorted by too many students entering a particular field?
 - The authority responsible for higher education should be required to give their approval to any institution wishing to establish itself as a higher education institution.
 - This approval should be conditional on explicit accounting for financing, qualification requirements for staff, requirements for admission, and systems of examinations leading to diplomas.
- How much autonomy will be given to universities?
- How will officials ensure the equal distribution of resources to all higher education institutions?
- What new opportunities for tertiary education exist within the private sector?
 - How will ministry officials regulate these offers for higher education?
- In what ways will higher education curricula need revising or adapting?
- How will admission to higher education institutions be determined?
 - Based on secondary school results?



PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN EAST TIMOR

“There were several higher education institutions in East Timor before the consultation: the public university Universitas Timor Timur (UNTIM), one national polytechnic, a teachers college for primary school teachers, one state health academy, the Catholic Pastoral Institute and a private School of Economics (Joint Donor Education Sector Mission, 2000: 28). Under the transitional authority the public university UNATIL opened. On re-opening, its biggest problem was over-enrolment as all comers were admitted. A test was given for second year registration, which reduced admissions and solved this issue for the university. It did not, however, solve the problem for the large numbers who wanted tertiary education. Additional private institutions of higher education have since been set up to cope with demand, or according to some cynics, “to make a fast buck”; the latest count lists 14, an excessive number for such a small population. Half the professors at these institutions have only a Bachelors degree (La’o Hamutuk, 2003). The Directorate for Higher Education (2002) is now putting forward a set of draft regulations to govern private institutions.”

Source: Nicolai (2004: 86–87).

- Upon completion of a preparatory year for all first-year students?
- Upon completion of a series of foundation courses taken at the same time as regular university courses?
- After successfully completing a national admissions examination?
- How can female enrolment be enhanced in higher education institutions?
 - Consider implementing a sensitization campaign targeting girls in secondary schools.
 - Make provisions for women’s dormitories in all institutions.

- Give priority to female students for room allocations, or to attend universities close to their homes.
- Use staff recruitment techniques that are gender sensitive.
- Consider using affirmative action programmes to encourage female enrolment.
- Build child-care centres on campus to allow women with children to participate in higher education.
- Consider exchange programmes with foreign universities.
- How can graduates become involved as partners in the development of higher education?
- Will there be provisions for security services on university grounds?
- What types of student services will need to be developed?
 - Counselling services?
 - Monitoring discrimination and harassment?
 - Health care units that deal with HIV and AIDS?
- How will academic staff be recruited?
 - Nationally, or individually by higher education institutions?
- Will staff be employees of the government?
- How will students be evaluated?
 - Continuous assessment?
 - Final examinations?
- How will the academic year be divided?
 - Semesters, trimesters?
- Will evening and weekend courses be available to students?
 - Who are the target students of these courses?
 - University employees?
 - Public and private employees?
 - School leavers?

12. As part of the reconstruction plan, initiate a feasibility study on the use of open and distance learning to support secondary and tertiary education that would help expand education opportunities in regions that had been affected by conflict.

The establishment of open and distance learning programmes is expensive and takes time. Some elements such as radio can be used in emergency and early reconstruction. For the longer term, it is best to undertake a thorough study of the different options, their advantages and disadvantages in the particular context (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.7, 'Open and distance learning'*).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Refugee scholarships

UNHCR sometimes supports scholarships at secondary level under its regular budget or trust fund arrangements. Since the early 1990s, it has benefited from a donation from the Government of Germany for funding scholarships at university level.

Who can apply for DAFI scholarships?

In order to be eligible, candidates should normally meet **all** of the following criteria:

- Be a refugee with recognized refugee status.
- Have successfully completed secondary schooling to a high standard in camp-based refugee schools, or in national schools of the country of origin or asylum.





- Have no other means of support for university studies.
- Select a course of study that is likely to lead to employment.
- Not be older than 28 years at the beginning of studies.
- Choice of study course with maximum four-year duration.

Source: UNHCR (2005).

However, these funds are limited. There are also a small number of scholarships available for refugees and IDPs through NGOs.

2. Checklist for planning vocational education programmes in emergencies

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.7, ‘Vocational education and training’.)

1. Enterprise-based training or apprenticeships are the most recommended method of skills acquisition because trainees are exposed to real constraints faced within a small enterprise, the training is practical and the products will have to be sold.
2. Assess viability of income-generating activities and feed that information into the process of planning vocational training. This will reduce repetition of redundant courses that offer inappropriate skills.
3. Incorporate business skills in vocational training regardless of the skill.

4. In post-conflict recovery and reconstruction, there should be increased linkages between vocational skills training and provision of micro-finance, so that youth with skills will have the capital to apply their trade as self-employed.
5. Community-based training (e.g. taking trainers to the displaced populations in or near their compounds) can attract women into the programmes and allow them to continue with daily life.
6. Cultivate positive attitudes among youths about practical work. Schools should avoid using manual work as a form of punishment.
7. Group-based training enables tools and equipment to be shared, cultivates a spirit of working together and can allow the integration of disabled members.
8. Youth in conflict areas may need life skills training such as landmine awareness, health and conflict resolution to be integrated into vocational skills transfer.

3. Sample higher education action plan in a conflict-affected country

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
1. STRUCTURE AND INSTITUTIONAL ISSUES		
Prepare a national higher education law	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate higher education law • Organize consultation activities • Get law officially ratified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draft law produced • Consultation meetings held • Parliament approves law
Agree on structure for higher education and on the institutions of higher education to be established/developed/merged	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agree on the different types of IHE • Merge geographically close institutions • Affiliate/merge pedagogic institutes with faculties of education at nearest regional universities • Decide on new institutions to be set up. (e.g. regional universities, community colleges) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreement achieved • Number of institutions merged • Number of institutions merged • Decision taken
Develop professional profiles, promote professional cooperation and integration among IHE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decide on specializations of each IHE • Reorganize faculties • Introduce professional training programme for secondary teachers • Set up credit system • Network Ministry of Higher Education and IHE electronically 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document produced by committee of experts • Document produced by committee of experts • Number of teachers trained • Number of institutions using system • Number of institutions linked to internet

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
2. STUDENT RECRUITMENT AND WELFARE SERVICES		
Formulate a student recruitment policy based on merit and equity criteria, social demand, economic need for skills and need for teachers at secondary schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct a study on social demand for higher education • Conduct a work-force needs assessment study including a study on need for secondary school teachers • Conduct a study on disparity • Construct a simulation model for admissions planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies and simulation model produced
Increase access of female students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce affirmative action programmes, including financial incentives to institutions • Organize awareness campaigns • Provide child-care services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage rate of females increases • Campaigns launched • Day-care centres established
Increase access of disadvantaged groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce affirmative action programmes • Organize awareness campaigns • Introduce supplementary instruction for the academically challenged • Make buildings more accessible to physically handicapped 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage of disadvantaged students increases • Campaigns launched • Percentage of disadvantaged students covered • Number of buildings covered
Improve admission procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agree on criteria for selection of students • Increase Ministry of Higher Education's capacity to organize and score entrance examinations • Set up testing, evaluation and measurement centre 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criteria adopted • Number of officials trained, equipment in place • Centre operating

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
Improve student welfare services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce counselling services • Improve health care and preventive measures (HIV/AIDS) • Set up a committee to watch for discrimination and harassment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of students counselled • Number of IHE covered • Structure being set up
3. RECRUITMENT, ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF		
Create a national recruitment system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey the needs of IHE for academic and administrative staff • Decide on qualifications needed • Set up interview boards in IHE 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data secured in EMIS • Decision taken • Boards set up
Improve the working and living conditions of staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide health care for staff and family members • Provide transportation and housing allowance • Provide better work environment (office space, equipment) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage of staff covered
Design a project for staff development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess training and staff development needs • Provide scholarships for further studies and training nationally and internationally • Provide in-country training by regional experts in relevant disciplines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff development needs identified • Number of scholarships provided • Number of staff trained

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
4. PHYSICAL RESOURCES		
Encourage IHE to acquire, manage and use land for income generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquire land for income generation • Manage and use land for income generation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Area of land acquired • Amount of income generated
Develop a national system of space standards, including a database incorporating additional needs for building and physical facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate an architect's brief • Set national system of space standards • Set up and continuously update database on physical facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brief formulated • Space standards set • Database in use
Encourage coordination among departments at IHE for better space management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centralize allocation of space 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mechanism established
Renovate and expand existing IHE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proper sanitation for all IHE • Convert old laboratories into offices and classrooms • Remodel auditoriums and increase their use • Build new laboratories • Refurbish classrooms and libraries • Conduct of needs assessment for computer centres and internet • Improve IT facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of IHEs covered with proper sanitation • Number of laboratories converted • Number of auditoria remodelled • Number of new laboratories built • Number of classrooms and libraries refurbished • Survey completed • Number of institutions with improved IT facilities
Housing for students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-examine policy on student housing • Construct female dormitories in all major institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Housing policy revised • Number of female dormitories constructed

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
Improve management and maintenance of physical resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create planning, procurement and equipment servicing units at each institution • Introduce incentives for innovations and proper maintenance • Organize workshops on maintenance of physical resources including equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Units created • Number of IHE receiving incentives • Number of participants trained

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Higher Education, Afghanistan (2004: 83–94).

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GUIDEBOOK for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction

SECTION 3 TEACHERS AND LEARNERS



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this review do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or the IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

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NOTE ON *GUIDEBOOK* UPDATE

This *Guidebook* was updated in 2010 to reflect some of the recent trends emerging in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction. As noted in the “Introduction”, there have been some positive developments in terms of engagement of the international donor community in this topic. Consequently the *Guidebook* has been updated to reflect some of these changes, along with an updated list of tools and resources for all chapters.

The following chapters have been revised:

- 2.3 Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion
- 2.4 Children with disabilities
- 2.6 Learning spaces and school facilities
- 2.10 Early childhood development
- 4.3 HIV prevention education
- 5.11 Coordination and communication

The following new chapters have been added:

- 1.2 Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster
- 2.8 Technology

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FOREWORD

UNESCO is increasingly requested to provide an educational response in emergency and reconstruction settings. The organization is in the process of developing expertise in this field in order to be able to provide prompt and relevant assistance. It will offer guidance, practical tools and specific training for education policy-makers, officials and planners.

The fifth of the eleven objectives adopted by the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 explicitly focuses on the rights of children in emergencies. It stresses the importance of meeting “... the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct[ing] educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict”. The *Dakar Framework for Action* calls for national Education for All plans to include provision for education in emergency situations. Governments, particularly education ministries, have an important role to play in an area that has often been dominated by the actions of NGOs and United Nations agencies.

Moreover, the field of educational planning in emergencies and reconstruction is still young. It has to be organized into a manageable discipline, through further documentation and analysis, before training programmes can be designed. All the more so since accumulated institutional memories and knowledge in governments, agencies and NGOs working on education in emergencies, are in danger of being lost due both to the dispersion and disappearance of documents, and to high staff turnover in both national and international contexts. Most of the expertise is still in the heads of practitioners and needs to be collected, since memories fade fast. Diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must now be more thoroughly documented and analyzed before they disappear.

The International Institute for Educational Planning’s (UNESCO-IIEP) larger programme on education in emergencies and reconstruction involves not only this *Guidebook*, but also a series of country specific

analyses. They concern the restoration of education systems in countries as diverse as Burundi, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sudan and Timor-Leste. In addition, IIEP is producing global thematic policy-related studies on issues such as coordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide range of studies to build the knowledge needed. The broader task includes the publication and dissemination of the *Guidebook* for education officials and the agencies assisting them, and developing training materials for a similar audience. Details of the objectives of the *Guidebook's* publication may be found in *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction'.

Through this programme, IIEP will make its contribution to the discipline of education in emergencies and reconstruction. Its hope is to enrich the quality of the planning and management applied in this crucial field.

Khalil Mahshi
Director a.i., IIEP

IIEP'S MISSION

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* helps the International Institute for Educational Planning accomplish its mission of *strengthening the national capacities* of UNESCO Member States in the fields of policy-making, educational planning and administration. The Institute pursues this mission by carrying out four complementary functions:

- The *training* of national senior educational personnel and teaching staffs and institutions.
- *Research* and studies pertaining to educational policy-making, planning and administration.
- The *dissemination* of the results of its work (publications, research workshops, policy forums) among policy-makers, civil servants, research workers, administrators and representatives of educational cooperation agencies.
- *Operational support* to specific countries, as well as advisory services to agencies, based on requests.

Above all, the *Guidebook* will contribute to IIEP's endeavours to coordinate existing knowledge and experience gained on this subject, and to promote research into new concepts and methods of educational planning likely to further economic and social development.

INTRODUCTION TO THE **GUIDEBOOK**

Access to education is a fundamental tool for child protection. Education inherently provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. In appropriate security conditions, physical protection may be enhanced by the provision of adult supervision and a safe place to learn and play. Psychosocial protection is offered through opportunities for self-expression, the expansion of social networks and access to structure and regular routines. By placing children in the social role of learners, education gives children a sense of purpose and self-worth. Finally, education contributes to the cognitive protection of children affected by conflict or crises by addressing specific living conditions that arise from conflict (landmine awareness, health issues), strengthening children’s analytical abilities, and giving children the tools they need to develop skills for citizenship and life in peace. Education saves lives; education sustains life. It is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises.

This Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction aims to support educational authorities in providing equal access to education of quality for children affected by conflict or disaster.

THE READER

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* (hereafter referred to as the *Guidebook*) is addressed primarily to staff of ministries of education, including national, provincial and district level planners and managers, in countries affected by conflict or natural disasters, or hosting

refugees from a neighbouring state. This is the first time that detailed guidance on planning education in emergencies and reconstruction has been prepared specifically from this perspective.

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of UN organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in support of ministries to promote education for emergency-affected populations. Staff of those agencies will benefit from a fuller awareness of the ways in which they can strengthen national capacities for planning and management of education in and after periods of emergency.

In many countries, some aspects of education are covered by ministries, educational authorities or organizations other than the Ministry of Education. There may be a separate Ministry of Higher Education, for example. There may also be educational programmes for youth and persons with disabilities, or specific programmes that target gender inequity that are overseen by other ministries. Moreover, ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Agriculture or the Ministry of Labour will be important partners for the Ministry of Education. These partners can help to determine whether the output of the education system actually corresponds with the needs in the labour market. Experts from these sectors may also be important sources of information in the drafting of education plans, curriculum reforms or teachers' conditions of service. In this *Guidebook*, however, for brevity we shall refer to the Ministry of Education as shorthand for all ministries handling education matters.

In many situations of emergency and reconstruction, external agencies assume responsibility for a smaller or larger part of the

education system. In some situations, the government simply may not have control on the ground. Here, the *Guidebook* refers to the ‘authority’ responsible for education in those areas. The reader may make the necessary adjustments to take account of this fact in countries where education is covered by multiple ministries or authorities, or by different non-state actors.

EACH SITUATION IS DIFFERENT

The *Guidebook* presents examples of the problems faced in different kinds of emergencies, and suggests policy options and strategies that have been found useful in such situations (see the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1.3*, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’, for information on the typology used: different types and phases of emergencies and different population groups). It must be stressed, however, that each emergency situation is different: each conflict or disaster takes its own particular trajectory, carries its own history and affects a particular country or countries differently depending on specific traditions in the field of education and culture, and specific economic and social problems and possibilities. The suggestions offered in the *Guidebook* thus constitute a checklist of points to consider. The *Guidebook* should not be considered a universally applicable model of activities to be undertaken, nor is it a static document. Care must always be taken to adjust the strategies and suggestions with regard to the local situation.

STRUCTURE OF THE *GUIDEBOOK*

This *Guidebook* is organized in five sections – one introductory section and four thematic sections:

- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners
- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

The first section provides an introduction and overview to the *Guidebook* and planning education in emergencies and reconstruction. The last four sections of the *Guidebook* cover a comprehensive range of topics relevant to education in emergencies and reconstruction. Every section consists of several chapters pertaining to the theme of the section. Each chapter starts with an overview of the context and the factors that influence educational response in relation to that topic: context and challenges. Next, each *Guidebook* chapter provides suggestions regarding possible strategies – actions that may be taken by the educational authorities to deal with these problems. In some cases, it is the educational authorities themselves that will be the education providers, while in other instances the main role of the educational authorities will be to coordinate and facilitate the work of other education providers.

Following the suggested strategies, in most chapters there is a list of ‘Tools and resources’ that can be utilized when implementing some of the suggested strategies. ‘Tools and resources’ contain an explanation of important concepts, action check-lists and a wide variety of tools used in planning and managing education. In each chapter, there are a number of useful case studies of how different countries have addressed the challenges under discussion.

Each chapter ends with a list of references and suggestions for further reading.

The *Guidebook* is presented in five spiral-bound booklets, alongside a CD-Rom version that contains all five sections of the *Guidebook*. Each of the booklets covers one of the sections, which permits users to refer to particular themes as they relate to the provision of education in emergencies. There are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, allowing readers to benefit from the linkages between topics.

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION 3

This section focuses on teachers and learners within the context of emergencies and reconstruction. *Chapter 3.1*, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers’, discusses retaining existing teachers and education workers and recruiting new ones to meet the educational needs created by emergency situations, and *Chapter 3.2* deals with motivation, compensation and working conditions of these teachers.

Chapter 3.3, ‘Measure and monitoring teachers’ impact’, addresses how to improve the quality of education through support and guidance to teachers in their workplace. Teacher training is addressed in *Chapter 3.4*; this chapter discusses how to offer teacher training based on the need to understand and respond appropriately to educational needs in various phases of an emergency, train teachers on new topics that may be relevant to the emergency situation and people’s corresponding needs (landmine awareness, psychosocial implications of emergencies, peace education, conflict resolution, etc.) and further develop teacher-training capacity. *Section 3* concludes with *Chapter 3.5*, ‘Psychosocial support to learners’, which focuses on providing educational, psychological and social opportunities that support the well-being of children affected by the trauma of conflict or natural disaster.

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Chapter **3.1**

IDENTIFICATION, SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT OF TEACHERS AND EDUCATION WORKERS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To retain existing teachers and education workers.**
- **To recruit new teachers and education workers to meet the new educational needs created by emergency situations.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

EXAMPLES OF EDUCATION WORKERS

- Teachers in formal primary, secondary, vocational/technical institutions, university teachers
- Teacher trainers
- Trained youth workers
- School administrators
- Non-formal educators (e.g. teachers of life skills programmes, teachers of accelerated learning programmes, those offering apprenticeships, etc.)
- Adult literacy teachers

In situations of emergency or post-conflict, there is often a shortage of trained and/or experienced teachers. Teachers may be targeted during conflict: many may be killed and many more may flee the area. They are often accused of having sided with the ‘enemy’ and therefore hide their profession while displaced. At the same time, there is usually an urgent demand for education – many children and youth with no opportunity to go to school, and many who have missed out on years of formal education. Educational authorities must find fast and efficient means of responding to this situation.

Normal processes of teacher training and recruitment may break down in times of emergency, thereby weakening the school system and creating future problems with regard to the country’s supply of teachers and educators. Additional teachers may be needed simultaneously in more than one area of the country as multiple areas may be affected by conflict or migration. Therefore, depending on the type and scale of a disaster, it may be necessary to relocate teachers temporarily. Teachers who are themselves displaced within their own country may not be able to receive their salaries, as governments often register teachers to work in a specific region and their salaries do not necessarily follow them if they move. Some IDP (internally displaced person) teachers living among local populations may be discriminated against in the competition for jobs and conditions such as these lead to teachers seeking alternative sources of income.

There is likely to be a shortage of teachers in areas of return, particularly in rural areas, and some kind of incentive and evidence of security may be necessary to attract teachers to these areas.

Teachers in exile or displaced within their own country may be reluctant to return unless they know there is a school there and a chance for employment. Teachers trained in exile may not be recognized as qualified by their home government and therefore will be unable to obtain employment as teachers if they should return. Those teachers who do return face the same challenges as others: the need to re-establish, build houses, resume agricultural activities, etc., and may therefore need special incentives to be able to work as teachers, such as a food basket or housing. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2, 'Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions'*). Teachers who have received special training as IDPs or refugees may be a good resource when it comes to establishing non-formal education programmes (e.g. bridge programmes to integrate older returnee or IDP children into the formal school system) in the returnee area.

The immediate identification of teachers and education workers is fundamental. It is a process that starts with the most qualified, and selects downwards. In order of desirability, teachers should be identified from the following broad categories:

1. Qualified teachers who have completed formal teacher training and are qualified by their government to teach or instruct at a given level – preschool, primary, secondary, vocational. Teachers available for recruitment may have been displaced by the emergency or their schools destroyed or closed. For reasons of access and security, it may be particularly difficult to identify qualified or potential teachers in areas of conflict. Others may have retired from the profession, or have left for family reasons (especially

women). If governments (or other education providers) are unable (or unwilling) to pay teachers' salaries, some will leave the profession in order to support themselves and their families. Youth workers and social workers, however, may be qualified to organize psychosocial/recreational activities and non-formal education.

2. Teachers who have extensive teaching experience but who do not hold a formally recognized teaching qualification. Some of these teachers may have benefited from in-service training.
3. Those that have teaching potential or some classroom or practical experience but no formal recognition (e.g. classroom assistants or literate adults in the community). Insecure conditions may make it difficult to provide in-service training to enable new teachers to function, to help existing teachers adapt to new and difficult situations, and to help school principals cope with the difficult crisis or the post-conflict situation. New teachers need in-service training and in-school support, but district-level school supervisors may not be in place, or not trained in administration, modern pedagogy and new curriculum developments.
4. In some situations, people with specific expertise related to health, sanitation, food and nutrition, agriculture, commerce, etc., could be utilized for enrichment of education programmes, although this is difficult to organize and teachers often resist it.

Individuals who previously did not have the opportunity to become teachers (e.g. women heading households) may be interested in teaching, though their education level may be less than that of

men. Youth who have finished ninth or tenth grade may have few employment opportunities and, if security conditions permit, may also be interested in receiving training to teach. However, it is important to remember that untrained individuals may want to become teachers, especially if a 'salary' or some kind of remuneration is available. If teachers receive some form of compensation, unqualified individuals may claim that they have the necessary qualifications and it may be difficult to establish which teachers were previously on the government payroll, and to eliminate false claimants and 'ghost' teachers – individuals who do not work but who draw a teacher salary. Testing may be needed.

Selection processes should also be tempered by gender and ethnic considerations to maintain balance as appropriate to the situation. Care is needed to ensure equity in respect of ethnicity/political affiliation/religion, and between migrants and non-migrants. In some circumstances, recruitment tends to be biased towards particular ethnic/political/religious groups, and women may be neglected by male selectors. International organizations may assume sole responsibility for the selection of teachers, without sufficient awareness of such considerations. As women frequently stay longer in the teaching profession than men, the recruitment of more women at the beginning will likely decrease the need for frequent recruitment and training. This may mean separate recruitment criteria for men and women. Where women lack the skills needed, plans must be drawn up for their training. Schools should have at least two women teachers (except boys' schools) and preferably a woman head or deputy head, to encourage the enrolment of girls.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers

- 1. Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher availability and needs in the emergency-affected populations, and develop a plan for hiring required staff.**
- 2. In situations where NGOs are supporting the education system, ensure that the recruitment of new teachers and educational staff for their programmes does not disrupt existing educational structures.**
- 3. Ensure that education ministry staff and/or other education providers establish minimum requirements for the selection of teachers, and conduct recruitment in a transparent manner.**
- 4. Advertise the need for educators as widely as possible. Ideally, the whole community should know of the need for teachers and education workers.**



5. **Clearly document the working relationship with the educators that are selected.**
6. **Ensure recognition of prior teacher training and accreditation.**
7. **Decide the contractual status under which new teachers are to be recruited.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher availability and needs in the emergency-affected populations, and develop a plan for hiring required staff.**

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’). Government and/or other education providers should:

- Assess educational capacities in the affected area.
 - What are the minimum teacher qualifications – in the home country? In the host country (where applicable)?
 - Undertake a sample survey or develop a list of teachers who are at present providing education in the affected area(s): males/females; educational qualifications; teaching experience (number of years), which subjects and grades they have taught; subjects and grades they are qualified to teach; languages spoken, etc.

- Are there other qualified persons within the community who can provide educational services, for example, certified teachers (who are not teaching or who could teach more), educated adults who are interested in becoming teachers, trained youth workers, or skilled trades people? What are their qualifications?
- Are the skills of administrators and trainers being fully utilized? That is, are they employed where they are most needed, and are they working full-time?
- Are there non-formal educators within the community who can and would be willing to provide mentoring and apprenticeships?
- Assess the educational needs in the affected area.
 - Give breakdowns of the total number of children and youth in the affected area by level of education completed, age, gender, ethnicity and religion, as appropriate.
 - How many children/youth are presently attending an education programme?
 - What is the number of over-age youth who are not in school and who have missed out on basic educational opportunities?
 - For out-of-school youth, what type of education programme would they be willing to attend (e.g. formal primary, accelerated learning programme, skills training, etc.)?
- Determine how many teachers and other education workers are necessary to support the educational needs of the affected community.
 - Do the number and type of existing educators meet the community's educational needs? For example, are there additional needs for preschools or for non-formal education programmes for out-of-school youth?

- What are the local standards for pupil/class and pupil/teacher ratios? (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for details on calculating these ratios.)
- How many new teachers are required to meet the local standards? If multiple areas of the country have been affected, how does this vary by location? Consider the following:
 - What are the current pupil/class and pupil/teacher ratios in the schools?
 - If out-of-school children were enrolled, what would the pupil/class and pupil/teacher ratios be? (It may be necessary to make an estimate of the number of children out of school. For more information, review the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’*.)
- Do existing educators reflect the needs of the students with regard to level of education, gender and language?
- What are the budgetary requirements for meeting the identified need for additional teachers and education workers? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8, ‘Budget and financial management’*.)
- Develop a plan for hiring teachers and educational staff. The plan should describe the requirements for each relevant district or administrative unit in the affected area and should include the following components:
 - Number of additional teachers, administrators and other education workers that are required.
 - Budgetary requirements.
 - Plans for identifying/recruiting individuals for the new positions.
 - Criteria for selecting teachers.
 - Identification of who will select/hire the new employees.
 - Minimum training requirements for unqualified teachers.



TEACHER SALARIES FOR IDPS

Salaries for teachers in Colombia are allocated to the teachers' province of origin. Therefore, one of the difficulties faced by internally displaced teachers is that it takes a long time to have their salaries transferred to a temporary area – even if there is a need for teachers in those areas.

In Indonesia, teachers who fled the conflict on the island of Halmahera and took refuge in Sulawesi were able to have their salaries transferred, but indicate that part of their reluctance to return to their home communities is the time it will take to have their salaries transferred back with them.

- In IDP situations, consider the development of a flexible system for redistributing government teachers within the government system to meet the educational needs of the moving population.
 - Are administrative procedures in place to facilitate such transfers?
 - How can teachers' salaries be transferred with them when they move?
- In refugee situations, home-country governments should consider establishing a policy to keep teachers in exile on the human resources list (if their whereabouts are known), and take them off the government payroll. This may facilitate the re-appointment of teachers upon their return.

2. In situations where NGOs are supporting the education system, ensure that the recruitment of new teachers and educational staff for their programmes does not disrupt existing educational structures.

- Teachers should not be recruited away from local schools or existing programmes.
- Government compensation scales should be communicated clearly to UN and NGO representatives so that the scales they develop are commensurate with those of the government. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2, 'Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions'*, for a thorough discussion of teacher compensation and establishing pay scales.)
- Priority should be given to members of the emergency-affected or refugee community before external educators are brought in. For example, if there are not enough existing teachers, are there educated persons who can be trained as teachers?
- Educational authorities should assume responsibility and/or be involved in the training of new teachers.

3. Ensure that education ministry staff and/or other education providers establish minimum requirements for the selection of teachers, and conduct recruitment in a transparent manner.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for more information on teacher recruitment and selection.)

- Identify the appropriate criteria for recruitment and the minimum level of education and training required.
 - Note that in situations of emergency and post-conflict reconstruction, established requirements for teachers' educational qualifications may need to be relaxed in order to hire a sufficient number of new teachers, especially women. In such situations, in-service training and monitoring must be ongoing. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.3, 'Measuring and monitoring teachers' impact'* and *Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*.)



RECRUITING TEACHERS IN POST-GENOCIDE RWANDA

After the genocide in Rwanda, “to overcome the shortage of primary teachers the Ministry called for secondary leavers and even secondary drop-outs to come and fill the vacant posts. ... In late 1994 the Ministry assisted 12th grade students to sit their final examinations. Their strategy was to channel them as soon as possible into primary teaching posts. This was a well thought out yet very quick response on the part of MoE. Less known – and perhaps the most important contribution of all to attracting teachers into schools and to supporting those first days in school – was UNICEF’s one-off contribution to teachers’ salaries, which amounted to US\$800,000, called ‘a one time incentive payment’. Under normal circumstances, international development agencies try to avoid paying the salaries of civil servants. But these were exceptional circumstances. Looking back, many people have lauded that courageous step of breaking with tradition that helped to assist teachers back into school”.

Source: Obura (2003: 64–65).

- How much weight should be given to prior teaching experience?
- What evidence is required to prove that a person has the specified qualifications or experience? (They may have been displaced without having time to collect their personal documents, or they may have been robbed of them.)
- How much of the curriculum content must teachers know in order to be hired?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of the prospective teachers in the following areas: writing learning objectives, developing teaching materials, conveying subject matter, and using participatory methods?
- What is the range of teaching techniques that have been practised by the teacher (lecture, question and answer,

recitation drill, small group work, brainstorming, role-play, drama and music, field trips, individualized learning, student projects)?

- Ensure the recruiting and hiring processes are transparent and meet the needs of the affected population
 - What are the existing recruitment and selection processes for teachers and other education staff?
- Involve all stakeholders in the process of selecting educators. These include:
 - Community leaders.
 - Parents of the displaced.
 - Ministries of education (preferably of both home and host countries in refugee situations, though this is not usually possible).
 - School inspectors and monitors.



WORKING WITH NGOs TO HIRE TEACHERS

In post-conflict Sierra Leone, UNICEF worked with the government Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) to develop an accelerated learning programme for 10–13 year-olds whose education was disrupted by the conflict in order to facilitate their return to the formal school system. The programme was implemented by the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) whose staff worked directly with the ministry to identify and hire teachers and trainers based on an open announcement/invitation to apply.

To avoid disrupting the country's education system, one of the conditions for employment was that teachers could not be employed in a government school. In addition, qualified candidates were selected with an objective of balancing gender, IDP/local background, ethnic, religious and other relevant considerations.

Source: NRC (2005: 5b).

- Maintain a constant awareness of ethnic, gender, religious and language considerations in the selection process.
- Appoint a woman as principal or deputy principal of a mixed school to minimize gender harassment and to provide a good role model. If there is no woman sufficiently qualified, appoint a woman as a senior teacher with responsibility for promoting girls' education.
- Make a special effort to recruit minorities and women to encourage the attendance and retention of minority and female students. (Note: in emergency situations, highly qualified teachers, especially men, are often attracted to jobs outside the teaching profession, which creates a perpetual need for training new teachers. As less educated women are more likely to stay in the educational system longer, there is an additional programmatic justification for hiring them.)
 - In order to recruit more women, it may be necessary to hire women with lower levels of education than men, provided that they meet certain minimum educational standards.
 - Consider providing additional or special in-service training for unqualified female teachers in order to improve their subject knowledge and teaching skills.
- Consider the following strategies to ensure transparency:
 - In stable situations, it may be possible to select educators – that are currently not working or who may have extra capacity – from existing governmental rosters based upon documentation of training and experience.
 - In unstable areas where documents may have been lost:
 - Develop a standardized interview procedure.
 - Consider the use of panel interviews.
 - Develop a written test to gauge literacy, numeracy, language skills and if possible a practical test of teaching proficiency. Agree on a minimum threshold for passing the test.

4. Advertise the need for educators as widely as possible. Ideally, the whole community should know of the need for teachers and education workers.

- Possible methods of informing communities include:
 - Contacting community leaders.
 - Advertising by radio, newspaper, or television.
 - Making announcements at community gathering points such as markets or churches.
 - Creating basic recruitment posters.
 - Developing specific advertising strategies for women and minority groups (for example, advertising in women's hairdressing salons in Africa).
- Advertisements for teachers should include:
 - Necessary qualifications and experience: minimum number of years of education completed or certificate required, etc.
 - The number of teachers expected to be hired.
 - Teaching/professional expectations for those who will be hired.
 - Pay range based on experience, qualifications and hours of teaching per week.
 - Key elements of the job description.
 - Hiring conditions based on balancing gender and background.

5. Clearly document the working relationship with the educators that are selected.

- Develop a standard contract and accompanying job description that clearly defines the working relationship. When possible, these should be based on existing job descriptions used by the educational authorities.

- For job descriptions, consider including items such as:
 - Requirements for lesson planning and preparation.
 - Requirements for assessing student learning.
 - Extent of curriculum content that teachers must know and teach.
 - Desired familiarity with various teaching methods.
 - Accepted rules for discipline.
 - Professional code of conduct. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for an example.)
- Ensure that teachers sign their contract and obtain a copy of their job description.
- Where possible (e.g. in refugee situations where teachers may be hired on a temporary basis), initial contracts should be of two to three months’ duration, with an option for renewal.
- Where possible, ensure that contracts follow local labour practices, specifically with regard to working hours, compensation and standards of behaviour.
- Educators should sign a code of conduct establishing acceptable and unacceptable behaviour and ramifications to avoid ethnic and gender discrimination and abuse. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a sample code of conduct.)
- When new staff positions (e.g. peace, health or landmine education programme staff) are being created, their job descriptions and pay should be harmonized with the pre-existing system.

6. Ensure recognition of prior teacher training and accreditation.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.2, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’ and Chapter 3.4, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.)

- What documentation will be required?
- What teacher training will be accepted?
- What will be the process for recognizing and recruiting teachers from areas of asylum, or teachers returning from exile?
- How can the educational authorities facilitate the redistribution of teachers to cover educational needs in the country (e.g. need for teachers in rural areas)?

7. Decide the contractual status under which new teachers are to be recruited.

- Is it possible to employ newly recruited teachers on fixed-term contracts, instead of indefinite contracts?
- What arrangements will be made for those teachers who stayed in-post during the crisis?
- What arrangements will be made for unqualified volunteers, who filled in for missing teachers during the crisis?

In deciding these questions, it will be necessary to balance the need to fill the deficit of teachers quickly with realistic projections of the government's revenues, and industrial relations and political concerns.

Research in West Africa suggests that the contractual status of teachers has little effect upon the learning attainments of pupils. Pupils whose teachers are fully fledged civil servants on indefinite contracts do not perform significantly better than pupils who are taught by teachers on fixed-term contracts. The factors that make a difference are the quality of administrative and pedagogical support received by teachers, whatever their contractual status may be.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for teachers and other education personnel

Standard 1: Recruitment and selection

A sufficient number of appropriately qualified teachers and other education personnel is recruited through a participatory and transparent process based on selection criteria that reflect diversity and equity.

Key indicators

- Clear and appropriate job descriptions are developed prior to the recruitment process.
- Clear guidelines exist for the recruitment process.
- A selection committee, including community representatives, selects teachers based on a transparent assessment of candidates' competencies and considerations of gender, diversity and acceptance by the community.
- The number of teachers recruited and deployed is sufficient to prevent oversized classes.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

1. Job descriptions: These should include, among other components, roles and responsibilities and clear reporting lines, as well as a code of conduct.
2. Experience and qualifications: In an emergency, the aim should be to recruit qualified teachers with recognized qualifications

but, in some situations, those with little or no experience will need to be considered. Training will therefore be required in these cases.

If qualified teachers no longer have certificates or other documents, it is important to provide alternative means of verification, such as testing of applicants. While the minimum age for teachers should be 18, it may be necessary to appoint younger teachers. In some situations, it is necessary to recruit female teachers proactively, and to adjust the recruitment criteria or process to promote gender parity, where possible and appropriate.

It is necessary to recruit teachers who speak the home language(s) of learners from minorities who are taught in a national language not their own. Where possible and appropriate, intensive courses in the national and/or host country language(s) should be provided (see also ‘Teaching and learning standard 1, guidance note 7’).

3. Criteria may include the following:
 - Professional qualifications: academic, teaching or psychosocial experience; other skills/experience; relevant language ability.
 - Personal qualifications: age; gender (recruiters should aim for gender balance if possible); ethnic and religious background; diversity (to ensure representation of the community).
 - Other qualifications: acceptance by and interaction with the community; belonging to the affected population.
4. Selection: Teachers and other education personnel should primarily be selected from among the affected population, but if necessary can be recruited from outside. If a site is established for refugees or internally displaced populations, applications from eligible local candidates may be accepted

if this will help to foster good relations. Selection should be carried out in consultation with the community, the host community and local authorities.

5. References: In crisis settings, a reference check should be carried out for teachers and education personnel to avoid employing individuals who could have an adverse effect on learners and/or who do not fully respect their rights.
6. A locally realistic standard should be set for maximum class size: Every effort should be made to recruit enough teachers to avoid major deviations from this standard. Monitoring reports should indicate the number of oversized classes at the different levels of schooling.

Source: INEE (2004: 66–67).

2. Pupil/class and pupil/teacher ratios

The *pupil/class ratio* is the average number of students per class. A class is defined as a group of pupils receiving instruction together. In small schools, students from different grades may be present in the same ‘multigrade’ class, as occurs in one-teacher or two-teacher schools. Conversely, a school may have a number of classes for the same grade. The intent behind this ratio is to encourage educators to avoid overcrowding in the classroom based on the assumption that teachers with too many students will not be able to provide a quality education, and that students who cannot keep up with the lessons will drop out.

The *pupil/teacher ratio* is the average number of pupils per teacher in an education system. This ratio is generally used with regard to cost considerations. It can be helpful in identifying areas of the country that have too many teachers (poor deployment) and it can be used for estimating the financial implications of potential policies such as hiring more teachers in a particular area.

Standards for both of these ratios are often specified at the national level. During emergency situations, educational authorities should consider the impact of conflict on children when deciding targeted class sizes. (Note that children’s psychosocial healing will benefit from smaller classes where they can receive more individual attention.) Class sizes are a function of demand and the number of available teachers, but overcrowded classrooms do have an effect on the quality of education, especially when many teachers are untrained or severely affected by the emergency themselves.

3. Sample code of conduct for teachers

All members of the teaching staff are expected to abide by the following general guidelines:

At all times, the teacher:

- Acts in a manner that maintains the honour and dignity of the profession.
- Protects the confidentiality of anything said by a student in confidence.
- Protects students from conditions that interfere with learning or are harmful to the students’ health and safety.
- Does not take advantage of his or her position to profit in any way.
- Does not sexually harass any student or have any manner of sexual relationship with a student.
- Is a good, honest role model.

In the classroom, the teacher:

- Promotes a positive and safe learning environment.
- Teaches in a manner that respects the dignity and rights of all students.

- Promotes students' self-esteem, confidence and self-worth.
- Promotes high expectations of students and helps each student to reach his/her potential.
- Encourages students to develop as active, responsible and effective learners.
- Creates an atmosphere of trust.

In their professional life, the teacher:

- Displays a basic competence in educational methodology and his/her subject.
- Displays an understanding (in his/her teaching) of how children learn.
- Is always on time for class and prepared to teach.
- Does not engage in activities that adversely affect the quality of his/her teaching.
- Takes advantage of all professional development opportunities and uses modern, accepted teaching methods.
- Teaches principles of good citizenship, peace and social responsibility.
- Honestly represents each student's performance and examination results.

With respect to the community, the teacher:

- Encourages parents to support and participate in their children's learning
- Recognizes the importance of family and community involvement in school
- Supports and promotes a positive image of the school.

In addition to the items mentioned here, the teacher is expected to abide by all other rules and policies of the wider environment (camp, school, etc.).

Source: INEE (2004: 70).

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Chapter **3.2**

TEACHER MOTIVATION, COMPENSATION AND WORKING CONDITIONS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To adequately compensate and recognize the efforts of teachers, with regard to prevailing conditions.**
- **To support the re-establishment of a proper and ongoing system of educator payment.**
- **To enable adequately compensated educators to provide a quality educational service.**
- **To provide teachers with the necessary support and physical conditions to enhance their performance and motivation.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Teachers are the most important factor in determining the quality of education that children receive. As such, governments have a responsibility to ensure that teachers perform to the best of their abilities. To do this, governments must pay attention to a number of factors that affect teachers' performance. Teacher compensation is a critical, but not the only factor in teacher motivation; it constitutes both a formal and a social recognition of their work. Educators may be compensated through salaries or other cash payments, food, training, or special assistance such as shelter, transport or agricultural support. If staff are not paid, they will not

teach regularly or will leave the profession; if compensation is irregular, or frequently withheld, teacher motivation may be affected. Therefore, an established teacher compensation system helps to stabilize the education system and decreases teacher absenteeism and turnover. As discussed in the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*, compensation protects the investment made in teacher training programmes, especially those that focus on relevant and meaningful sensitization, methodology and new topic areas where trained teachers are usually difficult to find.

In addition to compensation, teachers are motivated by a range of other factors including:

- Dedication to the profession and teaching children.
- Success in the classroom – professional rewards of seeing children achieve.
- Status in their communities from exercising a respected profession.
- Training and mentoring, particularly recognized and certificated in-service training.
- Appropriate working conditions – including issues such as the number of hours taught each week; the number of students in the classroom, support of the head-teacher, availability of teaching and learning materials, parental involvement and support, clear school policies and guidelines and the physical condition of the learning space/classroom.
- The prospect of promotion and career advancement.

In situations of emergency, the challenges of teacher compensation, motivation and working conditions become more complex. Frequently, government systems break down and education budgets – many of which were limited before the emergency – are

reduced even further. Therefore, although the government is responsible for paying teachers, salaries may be in arrears, and as a result of the economic disruption, there may be a lack of a tax base to pay teachers. Returnee teachers who were employed by the government in a specific region before the conflict may be unable to access their salaries in the areas to which they return (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'*). Teachers often do not receive any form of compensation for months. Initially teachers may work voluntarily, but they will quickly want some form of remuneration for their services. Therefore, there is a need to establish a compensation/incentive system as soon as possible and unless this is prioritized, there will be high levels of turnover as teachers leave the profession in search of other employment. Where necessary (to support their families), teachers may take on other work in addition to teaching, reducing standards and teacher attendance.

At the same time, teachers may work in increasingly difficult conditions with overcrowded classes, no educational materials and in schools where the buildings have been damaged or destroyed. Often they will be forced to teach in temporary or open-air classrooms with a severe lack of resources. They may be targeted by armed groups or there may be insecurity that decreases their motivation. Teachers in insecure areas may experience high levels of stress due to the insecurity – they may have witnessed atrocities; or family members, students or colleagues may have been killed or are missing. They may also have to deal with traumatized and disturbed students.

In such situations, governments will often turn to the international community for support in providing educational assistance to displaced and war-affected populations. Even when such assistance is provided, however, governments must still play

a role in the provision of education to their citizens and to refugees in their country.¹ United Nations agencies and NGOs may support educational initiatives as an interim measure to supplement the government's efforts, but coordination may be difficult, especially where distances are considerable, or when communications are disrupted. Issues such as compensation of refugee or IDP teachers have an impact on local economies and can create tensions among government educators if, for example, displaced teachers receive a higher salary or have better working conditions. Compensation scales of international organizations can also have a long-term impact on national education budgets. Therefore, government educational authorities must be involved in the development of emergency education programmes to avoid later, unintended consequences.

Often, in refugee situations, little financial support will come from the asylum or home government to pay for education programmes. Therefore, these are often partially or completely supported by the international community. Refugee teachers will likely receive 'incentives' rather than 'salaries' as it is recognized that they are not being fully compensated for their services. There will be a need to harmonize teacher compensation with that of other relief workers. Salaries should not exceed those of local teachers in the host country or teacher salary scales in the country of origin (this rule may not be practicable where the education system in the emergency-affected country is not functioning properly). This is to avoid disparities between groups, the provocation of tensions and the creation of unsustainable funding arrangements.

1. Countries that are signatories to the 1951 *Convention relating to the status of refugees* have an obligation to admit refugees to the compulsory stage of education alongside nationals, but in many impoverished countries, schools in the refugee-receiving areas cannot accommodate them. Governments therefore facilitate the provision of refugee education by other providers such as NGOs, often funded by UNHCR and bilateral donors.

As repatriation/return approaches, the government will need to reassume responsibility for teachers' salaries. Educational authorities must consider how the system will absorb new/more teachers and how/whether the education budget can accommodate the increase.

This chapter is specifically focused on issues related to teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions. Readers are encouraged to also review the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.6, 'Learning spaces and school facilities', Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods', Chapter 4.8, 'Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids' and Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation', since each of these issues also has an effect on teacher motivation and working conditions.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions

- 1. Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher remuneration and conditions of work in the emergency-affected populations, prepare a budget for government teacher salaries and develop a policy on remuneration by other education providers.**



- 2. Consider non-monetary forms of support that can be provided to increase teachers' motivation, in addition to salaries/cash payments.**
- 3. Consider initiatives to encourage community support of teachers.**
- 4. Review financial control systems related to teacher payment.**
- 5. In situations where teachers or educated people have fled persecution, ensure that payroll lists cannot be used as a means of identifying and targeting individuals.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher remuneration and conditions of work in the emergency-affected populations, prepare a budget for government teacher salaries and develop a policy on remuneration by other education providers.**

(See also the 'Tools and resources' section: 'INEE minimum standards' for more information on teachers' salaries and working conditions.)

- Review the government pay scale, and current levels of payment, for teachers and other education workers in emergency-affected areas.

- Are teachers leaving the schools? Why? Are they getting more pay elsewhere? If so, how much?
- What are teachers' other sources of income? Can these be enhanced or can the pay scale be adjusted upwards?
- Payment or compensation scales should take into account policies of non-discrimination by gender, ethnic or religious group, or disability, i.e. equal pay for equal work. Make sure that the system of payment is based on:
 - Qualifications.
 - Training.
 - Previous teaching experience (if this can be validated).
- Does the pay scale allow unqualified teachers to qualify for higher salaries once they are trained?
- Determine short-, medium- and long-term impacts of teacher compensation scales (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'* and *Chapter 5.8, 'Budget and financial management'*.)
 - Calculate the overall impact on the education budget of changing the pay scale and/or hiring additional teachers. As the number of qualified teachers increases, the budget will increase accordingly and new funds must be made available.
 - Consider the long-range implications of salary scales. A low salary scale can be adjusted upwards, while a high salary scale can only be lowered with great difficulty.
- Determine whether there are sufficient funds available to pay government teachers affected by emergency or post-conflict conditions.
- If necessary, seek outside support – from the United Nations, World Bank, bilateral donors.

TEACHER SALARIES IN RECONSTRUCTION

The single largest cost item in any education system is the salary bill for teachers, accounting for more than 70 per cent of recurrent spending in most developing countries. Across these countries, there is wide variation in average annual salaries, typically ranging from 0.6 to 9.6 times per capita gross domestic product (GDP). An appropriate target for developing country ministries of education by 2015 is 3.5 times per capita GDP, as this is a sustainable level of expenditure. Because the average level of teacher salaries is a very politically sensitive issue, the pace at which that target figure may be reached will vary from country to country.

For countries below the target, where average salaries need to be raised, the political dynamics are easier. Given the positive impact on system quality such a change could have, it would be desirable to implement such a reform as quickly as possible. Unlike other parameters (such as lowering the pupil-teacher ratio, which requires additional classroom construction), it is also technically possible to implement an upward salary adjustment almost immediately. And, given the political popularity of such a move, implementing it sooner rather than later could help consolidate support for a reform programme as a whole.

The major constraint to this particular reform is fiscal sustainability, not political opposition. But as countries' adoption of needed reforms, such as salary adjustment, would constitute a credible plan for EFA attainment, it is justifiable that any resulting financing gaps would be supported by international donors.

It is essential that such a reform be implemented in an intelligent manner that would maximize the positive impact on schooling quality – for example, by establishing new and higher standards, weeding out the weakest performers, introducing a structure of incentives to reward performance, and putting in place stringent processes for new teacher selection.

The size of the upward adjustment, which is very significant in some cases, raises obvious questions about the realism of





assuming that such a change could be implemented for one segment of the civil service in isolation.

Because raising average salaries can be expected to improve the quality of the teaching force as well as reduce absenteeism, stimulate greater accountability for teaching effectiveness, and create incentives for high performance or deployment to remote areas, it is considered a quality improvement in countries with salaries currently below the target.

For countries with teacher salaries above the target level of 3.5 times per capita GDP, the adjustment downward is considered an efficiency improvement. Since it is legally and politically impossible in most contexts to reduce the salaries of civil servants, this reform must be implemented in an especially gradual way. It should be assumed that a new cadre of teachers is recruited at the pace of new classroom construction and paid at the target level of 3.5 times the per capita GDP, and that all recruitment of higher-paid civil-service teachers is suspended. A number of countries in francophone Africa and elsewhere have in fact implemented such a reform in teacher contracting and have generally found no shortage of well-qualified candidates willing to work at the lower salary level, suggesting that the higher salary is not (or is no longer) an efficiency wage in these economies. However, the longer-term impact of this reform on teacher motivation and performance and student learning, as well as its political sustainability, are still open questions and merit further research.

Incumbent teachers should continue to be paid on their current salary scale, but over time their weight in the overall salary bill will diminish through retirement. Thus, the average salary will approach the target level.

Source: Adapted from Bruns *et al.* (2003: 74–75).

- Develop a policy for remuneration by other education providers, e.g. NGOs.

- Coordinate pay scales with the organizations involved. (See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for ideas on how NGOs can support education in emergencies, and the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.10*, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms’.)
 - Inform outside agencies of the government’s pay scale.
 - In refugee situations, is there a government or refugee camp salary scale in place?
 - How do the salaries of teachers/facilitators and educational staff compare to those of local, government teachers?
 - How do salaries compare to those of teachers in the refugees’ home country? (This will have an impact on their eventual return.)
 - When developing a salary scale for refugee teachers, the base wage should not be less than the earnings of unskilled labour and petty traders in order to avoid teacher turnover. If the salary or incentives are too high, however, a precedent may be set that prevents the government and NGOs from implementing services in the future, and may deter repatriation.
 - Ideally, salary scales in the education and health sectors (the two largest employers in crisis situations) should be the same to avoid strikes and riots later.
 - Wherever possible, it is better to delay the establishment of a monetary increase every year and explore alternatives such as the provision of tools, seeds or rucksacks to teachers
- In some instances, three pay scales must be developed to accommodate hiring:
 - Members of the emergency-affected community.
 - Local professionals from the area.
 - Skilled professionals from outside the immediate area who are hired because of their special expertise, e.g. secondary education teachers or teachers who work with children with disabilities.



TEACHER PAYMENTS IN REFUGEE SITUATIONS

In Tanzania, a single simple pay scale was adopted for refugee and Tanzanian educators. The payment matrix included a modest pay scale for refugee staff (who also benefited from relief assistance such as free food, health care and shelter), a slightly higher pay scale for locally recruited national staff (to compensate for their not receiving relief assistance) and a significantly higher pay scale for staff recruited from the capital, who had to relocate and perhaps maintain two homes.

Over seven years, Liberian refugee teachers in Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire slowly increased their salaries to US\$80 per month. Upon repatriation, however, the Liberian government could only pay US\$10 per month, which created a disincentive to repatriate and for those who did return, a disincentive to continue teaching – further disrupting the education of the children.

Source: Sinclair (2002) and Julian Watson, personal communication.

- Education systems are typically the largest employers in areas of conflict. For this reason, such employment should benefit as many people as possible.
 - Educators should not have more than one job.
 - Women, especially those who are single with children, should be considered for teaching and non-teaching jobs.

2. Consider non-monetary forms of support that can be provided to increase teachers' motivation, in addition to salaries/cash payments.

There are a number of alternative sources of incentives and support:

- In-service training to support teachers in their task and provide necessary motivation.

- Mentoring systems to support teachers.
- Other, non-cash incentives, such as food or housing allowances.
- Bicycles, if distances are great between teachers' homes and their schools.
- Improvements in working conditions (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.6, 'Learning spaces and school facilities' and Chapter 4.8, 'Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids').
 - How many children are in the classroom? Are there systems in place to evaluate whether classrooms are overcrowded, and what can be done to assist teachers who have too many students (e.g. hiring additional teachers, hiring classroom aids or engaging community volunteers)?
 - What are the physical conditions in which teachers work? Are classrooms large enough to accommodate all the children comfortably? What can be done to improve classroom space, e.g. efforts to make classrooms more soundproof so that teachers and students can hear and engage in learning more effectively, provision of movable furniture so children can work in groups, etc.?
 - Do the teachers have teaching and learning materials to assist them with lesson planning and preparation? Issue a complete set of textbooks and teacher guides to each teacher, if not already provided.

3. Consider initiatives to encourage community support of teachers.

Head teachers and supervisors can be trained in promoting community support for schools, which may also benefit teachers. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'.)

- Can communities contribute to the payment of teachers?

- Can communities provide other forms of compensation such as food or housing?
- If cleaners, guards, or cooks are paid out of the education budget, can the community take responsibility for these tasks?
- Are there other forms of support that communities can provide, e.g. special events to recognize teachers' efforts, support to school gardening projects, physical labour to construct classrooms in order to improve the learning environment for teachers and students, etc.?

4. Review financial control systems related to teacher payment.

Government and other education providers should review their systems of financial control. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8, 'Budget and financial management'*.)

- By what mechanism do teachers actually receive their salary? Are they being paid regularly and on time? Who handles the money? Are teachers receiving the correct amount? If not, review the payment process to determine necessary controls to minimize corruption in the teacher payment process.
- Are teachers paid in cash? If so, are systems in place to move this amount of hard currency safely into the field? Is it possible to pay teachers through a local bank?
- Are teachers in remote rural areas required to travel periodically to a town, or to the capital city, to receive their payments? This disrupts their classroom duties. If so, make arrangements for local payment of salaries.
- Does the school administration deduct items such as union dues out of the wages? How has this been decided? Are the dues accounted for?

- Are there mechanisms to ensure that only active teachers and not ‘ghost teachers’ are on the payroll? Ghost teachers may include teachers in exile, teachers who have obtained other employment but are still receiving their teacher salaries, or deceased teachers.

5. In situations where teachers or educated people have fled persecution, ensure that payroll lists cannot be used as a means of identifying and targeting individuals.

- Consider who has access to the lists.
- Store the lists in a safe and secure location with limited access.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for teachers’ compensation and working conditions

Standard 2: Work conditions

Teachers and other education personnel have clearly defined conditions of work, follow a code of conduct and are appropriately compensated.

Key indicators

- Compensation and conditions of work are specified in a job contract, and compensation is provided on a regular basis, related to the level of professionalism and efficiency of work.

- International actors coordinate with educational authorities, community education committees and NGOs to develop appropriate strategies, and agree to use fair, acceptable and sustainable remuneration scales for the various categories and levels of teachers and other education personnel.
- The code of conduct and defined conditions of work are developed in a participatory manner, involving both education personnel and community members, and there are clear implementation guidelines.
- The code of conduct is signed and followed by education personnel, and appropriate measures are documented and applied in cases of misconduct and/or violation of the code of conduct.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

- 1. Conditions of work** should specify job description, compensation, attendance, hours/days of work, length of contract, support and supervision mechanisms, and dispute resolution mechanisms (see also ‘Standard 1, guidance note 1’ above [in INEE, 2004]).
- 2. Compensation** can be monetary or non-monetary, should be appropriate (as agreed upon), and paid regularly. The appropriate level of compensation should be determined through a participatory process ensuring coordination between the actors involved. It should aim to be at a level that ensures professionalism and continuity of service and sustainability. In particular, it should be sufficient to enable teachers to focus on their professional work rather than having to seek additional sources of income to meet their basic needs. Compensation should be contingent on adherence to the conditions of work and code of conduct.

Care should be taken to avoid a situation where teachers from different backgrounds (e.g. nationals and refugees) receive different levels of pay. Key actors should be involved in the development of long-term strategies for a sustainable compensation system. There should be coordination between United Nations agencies, NGOs, educational authorities and other organizations to determine common levels of compensation.

- 3. The code of conduct** should set clear standards of behaviour for education personnel and specify the mandatory consequences for persons who do not comply with these standards. The code should apply to the learning environment and to education programme events or activities. The code should ensure that teachers and education personnel promote a positive learning environment and the well-being of learners.

The code should state, among other things, that education personnel:

- Exhibit professional behaviour by maintaining a high standard of conduct, self-control and moral/ethical behaviour.
- Participate in creating an environment in which all students are accepted.
- Maintain a safe and healthy environment, free from harassment (including sexual harassment), intimidation, abuse and violence, and discrimination.
- Maintain regular attendance and punctuality.
- Demonstrate professionalism and efficiency in their work.
- Exhibit other behaviours as deemed appropriate by the community and education stakeholders.

- 4. Code implementation guidelines:** there should be training on the code of conduct for all education and non-education

personnel who work in the learning environment. Training and support should be provided to members of community education committees and education supervisors and managers on their roles and responsibilities in monitoring the implementation of codes of conduct. They should also be helped to identify and incorporate key concerns around codes of conduct into school/non-formal education programme action plans. Supervisory mechanisms should establish transparent reporting and monitoring procedures, which protect the confidentiality of all parties involved.

Source: INEE (2004: 67–68).

2. INEE minimum standards – teacher’s code of conduct

At all times, the teacher:

- Acts in a manner that maintains the honour and dignity of the profession.
- Protects the confidentiality of anything said by a student in confidence.
- Protects students from conditions that interfere with learning or are harmful to the students’ health and safety.
- Does not take advantage of his or her position to profit in any way.
- Does not sexually harass any student or have any manner of sexual relationship with a student.
- Is a good, honest role model.

In the classroom, the teacher:

- Promotes a positive and safe learning environment.
- Teaches in a manner that respects the dignity and rights of all students.

- Promotes students' self-esteem, confidence and self-worth.
- Promotes high expectations of students and helps each student to reach his/her potential.
- Encourages students to develop as active, responsible and effective learners.
- Creates an atmosphere of trust.

In his/her professional life, the teacher:

- Displays a basic competence in educational methodology and his/her subject.
- Displays an understanding (in his/her teaching) of how children learn.
- Is always on time for class and prepared to teach.
- Does not engage in activities that adversely affect the quality of his/her teaching.
- Takes advantage of all professional development opportunities and uses modern, accepted teaching methods.
- Teaches principles of good citizenship, peace and social responsibility.
- Honestly represents each student's performance and examination results.

With respect to the community, the teacher:

- Encourages parents to support and participate in their children's learning.
- Recognizes the importance of family and community involvement in school.
- Supports and promotes a positive image of the school.

In addition to the items mentioned here, the teacher is expected to abide by all other rules and policies of the wider environment (camp, school, etc.).

Source: INEE (2004: 70).

3. NGO support to education in emergencies

Governments in disaster and post-conflict situations often do not have the funds to pay teachers an appropriate wage. The matrix below (adapted from INEE, 2003) presents some ideas for how NGOs can support government schools, and some potential positive and negative impacts of each strategy.

	POSITIVE IMPACTS	NEGATIVE IMPACTS
STRATEGIES TO ASSIST THE GOVERNMENT		
NGO pays teachers and school administrators a full or partial salary while government systems are established	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education system starts and maximum number of children attends school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Undermines government authority • Unsustainable and raises the question of when the government will be able – or willing – to pay salaries • May create disincentives for teachers to continue teaching after NGO programme ends
NGO pays incentives – all teachers receive the same amount regardless of experience and qualifications – for a limited period, e.g. the duration of a programme. The expectation is that the government will resume payment of teacher salaries as soon as possible	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pressure on government to receive and take responsibility for the teachers as well as for children and for new classrooms as part of the total programme • Trained teachers will continue teaching; children who complete NGO programmes can enter public school system afterwards • New teachers prove their skills and government has some time to consider and plan for additional salaries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers will be unhappy with the incentive system and the lack of a pay scale • Despite an agreed commitment to pay salaries, the government may be unable or unwilling to pay the salaries regularly. This will result in severe motivation problems for teachers who have become used to regular payments from the NGO

	POSITIVE IMPACTS	NEGATIVE IMPACTS
NGO advocacy with local government to compensate teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Additional pressure on the government to pay teachers • Identification of whether the problem is lack of money or administrative (e.g. no computers to compile payroll or transportation to deliver salaries to schools) • Identification of alternative means to support teachers. In some countries, teachers and civil servants are given an allocation of farmable land instead of monetary compensation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possible loss of political capital and leverage on a very complicated and political issue
NGO advocacy with donors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pressure on the local government separate from NGOs • Possible attention and assistance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possible loss of political leverage

		POSITIVE IMPACTS	NEGATIVE IMPACTS
STRATEGIES TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS THROUGH COMMUNITIES			
Help in establishing school fees (and exemptions for the poor)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable • Typically part of the pre-conflict culture • Some children might be able to attend school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some children might not be able to attend school • Fees might not provide adequate income to teachers
NGO support for school agriculture or income generation projects (cash crops, animal husbandry, bees)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable (but often ineffectual since school administration, parents and teachers may not be good managers of income generation projects) • Typically part of the pre-conflict culture • Educational opportunity in regard to teaching agriculture, business, and animal husbandry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students, often of one gender, are frequently used for labour in the school fields, taking away from the time they could be studying • Takes school administrators' time away from education
Teacher housing incentives (NGO to build houses for returning teachers)	On school compound	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can enhance school's permanent capital 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May hinder permanent settlement of families since they are living on school property • Creates a precedent for returning teachers and other professionals
	Off school compound	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhances community and family return 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disadvantages teachers who stayed during the crisis
Paying school teachers for additional work on NGO sponsored supplementary education projects, such as adult literacy		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides services for other portions of the population • Lays the groundwork for these services being included in the national agenda 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Potentially overworks teachers and school administrators • Potentially unsustainable by the community and by the government
NGO support for creation of a mentoring system for teachers in which mentors receive an incentive		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases the quality of education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unsustainable • Assists few teachers financially

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Chapter **3.3**

MEASURING AND MONITORING TEACHERS' IMPACT

MAIN OBJECTIVE

- **To improve the quality of education through support and guidance to teachers in their workplace.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

In emergencies and early reconstruction, there are often teachers who are new to the profession, and all teachers and head-teachers have to face unusual difficulties. Teachers may be isolated and it may be difficult for inspectors or monitors physically to access teachers and schools to observe and support them.

Most education programmes organize in-service training courses for teachers, if the emergency conditions permit. However, the desired result is good education in the schools. To ensure that this takes place, education programmes employ field staff with administrative and advisory functions. In some cases, these functions

are performed by separate people while in others they are combined.

New teachers without proper qualifications and training receive quick induction training and will need more observation and guidance. These teachers should be evaluated against their actual level of experience and training. Traditional expectations of teachers' performance may need to be reviewed and adjusted accordingly.

Emergency situations often provide the opportunity for participatory and child-centred methods to be introduced. Teachers who are not familiar with these methods will need training and follow-on support in order to implement these methods successfully.

New subjects or topics such as landmine awareness, environmental awareness, material on safe drinking water and other health and hygiene issues, HIV/AIDS prevention or peace education may have been added to the curriculum. Methods for measuring teachers' impact and providing in-school support with regard to these new topics will need to be developed, and will help guide training in these subjects.

In refugee and IDP emergencies, measuring and monitoring teachers' impact may be done by NGOs, United Nations agencies, government inspectors or some combination of these, and a coordinated approach is needed. Agencies must be encouraged to keep systematic records of teachers' performance, which will be needed to facilitate their return and be recognition of their qualifications and experience.

In early reconstruction, teacher supervision and guidance will likely be done by regular government inspectors, but they may have little access to initially insecure rural areas. Returnee

teachers must be informed of new expectations and of the government's inspection/observation policy. Governments must further increase their field supervision capacity to absorb new teachers into the system, at a time when experienced personnel are scarce and busy with many reconstruction tasks.

Teacher evaluations will need to be adapted in order to take into account the circumstances that teachers face in their classrooms. For example:

- Children may have been out of school for a long time. What impact does this have on the teacher's ability to perform effectively?
- Children may be hungry. Is there a school feeding programme to support them so that when they are in the classroom they are able to concentrate?
- Children may have special emotional needs. Have they been severely traumatized? If so, this will have an impact on their ability to learn.
- Teachers may also have faced traumas, and need help coping with it.
- Large classes may make it difficult for the teachers to do their job and for students to learn.
- Teaching and learning materials may be scarce.

Administrative issues facing teacher supervisors include ensuring that teachers attend school regularly, act in line with procedures and policies, and conduct themselves in an ethical manner (e.g. not harassing colleagues and students). Field staff combine this with other administrative tasks such as checking the attendance records of pupils, looking into the condition of buildings, furniture and equipment, distributing materials, and so on. This administrative role has a disciplinary aspect, in that

head-teachers and teachers can be penalized for not observing the rules.

It is difficult to combine this administrative and disciplinary aspect with the role of mobile trainer and adviser. Nevertheless, in many places the two roles are combined, in the ‘inspector’ or ‘supervisor’. This is often due to logistical factors. Especially in rural areas, it may not be practicable to send administrators and advisers separately to remote locations. This is even more true if the area is insecure, if public transport is not operating, and if there is limited budget or fuel for field missions. If, however, there is a concentrated population, combined with a large number of new teachers, as is often the case in a refugee situation, then it may be possible to separate the two roles, as was done, for example, in the refugee schools in Guinea. (See the example in the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.4, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.)

Recent trends in teacher supervision

In many countries, these trends are being observed (Carron and De Grauwe, 1997):

- More coherent job descriptions for supervisors. This implies separating advisory from control functions and administrative from pedagogic duties. Many countries are moving in this direction.
- More openness and transparency regarding reports and assessments from supervisors.
- More openness and discussion with those being appraised. Clear criteria and procedures are being established for appraisal and assessment.

- Strengthening follow-up actions on supervision meaning that the supervision has to include conversations with the supervisees and also to make sure that the supervisor's recommendations are being implemented.
- A change from individual teacher supervision to whole school evaluation.
- Increasing involvement of supervision and support services in system evaluation.



FIELD SUPERVISION: THE SUPPORT SYSTEM IN GTZ'S BASIC EDUCATION FOR AFGHAN REFUGEE'S (BEFARÉ) PRIMARY SCHOOL PROGRAMME FOR AFGHAN REFUGEES IN PAKISTAN

The BEFARé teachers have completed grade 12 and a 10 days' basic training course only. The training is not sufficient, but the field education supervisors (FES) support the teachers regularly. They visit the schools once or twice a week and observe the teachers in the classroom. The steady presence of a FES keeps the teacher on the right track, and communicates an interest in the teacher's performance. It helps him or her to translate the knowledge and skills taught in the basic training course to the classroom. The FES also notes attendance and dropouts. FES co-operates closely with the Head teacher (HT) and reports what he/she has observed. The field education supervisor also needs support, training and supervision. Here is where the master trainer (MT) comes in. His/her job is to supervise the FES, and to train them. The MT and FES report to the BEFARé regional sub-centre.

Without a support system, it would not have been possible to guide the teachers in the right direction. A basic training course is not enough. It is through daily teaching that the teacher is able to practise what he/she has learnt. Regular pedagogical supervision on the spot invites the teacher to revise his/her practice. Through refresher courses, which are based on the field education supervisors' experience from the supervision, the teachers receive necessary upgrading.

Source: Johannessen *et al.* (2002: 50–51).

The selection and training of supervisors

There is a worldwide tendency to think that any experienced teacher can be a good supervisor. This is only one criterion, although important. Formal qualifications and experience at least give supervisors the necessary authority and respect. However, this is not sufficient. A good supervisor also needs to be a good observer and to be able to base his/her guidance on the teacher's actual performance in a way that is supportive and encouraging. Another criterion is to make sure that they are familiar with the programme.

Many years of service do not guarantee that teachers are suitable to supervise. It depends on how they have reflected upon their experience and are able to build upon it when advising others. There is, however, a worldwide tendency for supervisors to be promoted on the basis of their experience and seniority as teachers. Therefore, the inspectors are relatively old and perhaps conservative in their approach. Fresh blood may be needed to renew the system and the ways of supervising. One solution may be to engage people on shorter contracts, so that inspectors do not stay in their position indefinitely.

Characteristics of good supervision

Before supervisors offer comment, they should allow the teacher to give his or her own assessment of the lesson that has just been observed.

Teachers often welcome supervision that is based on detailed, non-judgemental observations and are interested in feedback, even when they work under very difficult circumstances. This requires that supervisors:

- Present their observations in a factual way, asking for the teacher's comments.
- Not direct teachers to teach in a way they have not been trained to do or are not familiar with.
- Start by looking for the teacher's strengths.
- Yet be able to correct and handle weak teaching and unacceptable treatment of pupils.

Parents, children, teachers, education officials and the community are all affected by teachers' performance. Therefore, it is critical that each of these stakeholders has an opportunity to be involved in the development of plans and procedures for measuring teachers' impact. Since teachers are the ones who will be directly monitored, however, it is essential that they be informed clearly on how this will be done and on what basis they will be assessed under the actual circumstances.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Measuring and monitoring teachers' impact

1. **Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher monitoring and in-school support in the emergency-affected populations, and develop policy guidelines based on best practice among education providers.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct, coordinate or facilitate a survey of teacher monitoring and in-school support in the emergency-affected populations, and develop policy guidelines based on best practice among education providers.**

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for more information on supervision and support mechanisms as well as a sample teachers’ performance checklist.)

- Consider the teacher’s personal situation when assessing his/her performance in emergency situations, especially initially.
 - Is the individual a qualified teacher with previous teaching experience or a literate adult who has agreed to teach? Standards of performance should be different based on qualifications.
 - Does the teacher have a good sense of the stress/trauma of his or her own experience? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.5, ‘Psychosocial support to learners’*.)
 - Is the teacher expressing the need for and receiving support from parents, the head-teacher, other fellow teachers, the education committee and community leaders?
 - Is international humanitarian support being solicited to support teachers’ working conditions and improve their performance?
- Assess regularly the situation of schools and teachers that can be reached and keep records for the benefit of the school system and the individual teachers.
 - Are local schools working, and are the majority of children and teachers in place in certain areas?

- In active conflict situations where displacement has occurred, is it possible to monitor the teachers who remain?
- Ensure that refugee teachers' qualifications and experience are evaluated so that they can be hired and given the appropriate working conditions and salary upon return to their home country. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2, 'Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions'*.)
 - Has this process been prepared in advance so that teachers in exile may be more willing to return home when conditions permit?
- Review/revise the criteria and expectations that will be used for monitoring and measuring teacher performance and achievements. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for examples of how to assess teachers' performance.)
 - What changes in teacher requirements are necessary to adapt to the special challenges and circumstances that teachers face?
 - Have new subjects been added to the formal curriculum that demand different performance from the teachers?
 - Are additional guidelines needed on how to measure understanding and achievement in additional subject areas?
 - How can the children's understanding and absorption of topics be measured in order to assess the teacher's ability to transmit the new messages/topics?
 - Are there educational authorities or other teachers who are able to monitor, assess and advise the teachers in the new subjects on a regular basis? If not, can such support be provided by UNICEF, UNESCO or NGOs?
- For complementary or non-formal education programmes, such as accelerated learning, literacy or skills training, which are run by non-governmental actors, consider the following:

- Do certain government standards apply to these programmes?
- What is the government's role with regard to monitoring teachers' impact in these programmes?
- Do guidelines for teacher monitoring and assessment exist? Are they acceptable to the government? If not, can educational authorities and programme officers work together to develop agreed-upon guidelines?
- Do these programmes include a teacher-training component as a means of improving teacher performance?
- Agree with community leaders and parents (as relevant) how students' well-being will be monitored and assessed. Possible items to monitor include:
 - Children's attendance rate.
 - The teacher's behaviour in class.
 - Has the teacher created an environment conducive to learning where the children feel safe and appreciated? Initially, human relationships with the children/students should count more than formal job requirements and results.
 - Do the children seem interested?
 - Has the teacher been able to adopt, use and promote (among parents and community leaders) a methodology consistent with the needs of the pupils/students?
 - Are classes organized in a way that enables students to benefit and not lose concentration?
 - Is the teacher behaving the same towards all of the children?
 - Do all children have an equal chance to participate?
 - Is the teacher able to give advice and support to the children in an unfamiliar environment?
 - Is the teacher able to detect and act if a child shows signs of needing special assistance or referral?
- Is the teacher able to achieve results? What is the academic

performance of the students – pass rates, subject knowledge, etc.?

- If performance is generally poor, what has been done to identify the causes?
- Would special training for the teacher help improve both teacher and student achievements?
- Are classes organized with a consistent, regular timetable for the students?
- Is the teacher/facilitator on time and present to receive the students?
- Are recreational activities and breaks included in the timetable?
- Develop procedures for monitoring teachers and improving their performance.
- Who will do the monitoring and provide classroom guidance?
 - Head-teachers, mentors, government education inspectors, NGO staff, community members, others?
 - Senior staff within a school cluster?
 - Community education committees (especially regarding teacher attendance and conduct)
 - If educational authorities and NGOs/religious groups/others are cooperating in the assessment of teachers, do teachers clearly understand the roles of the different actors?
- How will monitoring of teachers' performance take place?
 - Classroom observations.
 - Dialogue between teachers and observers/supervisors.
 - Self-evaluation by teachers coupled with recommendations from observers.
 - Statistics such as attendance rates of students and teachers, pupil achievement, etc.

- With what frequency will monitoring and assessment of teachers' performance take place?
- What is the system for following up on teacher observations etc.? How can poor performance be remedied?
 - Improve teachers' performance.
 - Ensure that records are maintained of teachers' performance.
 - What records can be obtained of teachers' past model demonstration lessons.
 - Feedback on classroom observations.
 - In-service training on content, methodology and changes in job requirements.
 - Provision of support materials such as textbooks and teaching aids.
 - Consideration of teachers' working conditions (e.g. if there are 60 children in the classroom, education providers may need to explore ways to reduce class size in order to improve performance).
 - For refugee teachers, is there a way to contact the Ministry of Education in the home country directly, or through UNICEF or UNESCO?
 - For teachers displaced within their own country, how can records be accessed from their area of origin?
 - What records need to be developed and kept regarding teachers' performance?
 - In refugee situations, can home country guidelines and requirements be obtained so that teachers can be evaluated against familiar criteria?
 - Consider the development of a database of teacher qualifications and experience that can be made available to the teachers' home country prior to return. This may facilitate teacher certification in their home country. (See

also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2*, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’.)

- Ensure clear dissemination of information.
- In an emergency situation, have teachers been informed of any new rules and regulations or changes in expectations that have been introduced?
- Prior to repatriation:
 - Have refugee teachers been informed of requirements for recognition and certification in their home country, particularly if there have been changes?
 - Have they been made aware of teaching opportunities in their home country?
 - Do they need training to be able to qualify and pass required performance standards?
- During return and early reconstruction:
 - Have national teachers who did not move during the conflict been clearly informed about how the education system in their country will absorb returning teachers into the workforce?
 - Has information been disseminated on how the performance of returning teachers will be measured/ rewarded – if initially different from national standards?
 - Have all teachers been informed of guidelines and requirements for teacher achievements – for both formal and other recognized education programmes – how these will be enforced and when will the new requirements begin?
 - Have teachers, relevant educational authorities and officers been informed of any special considerations and exceptions during the reconstruction period?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for teacher support and supervision¹

Standard 3

Supervision and support mechanisms are established for teachers and other education personnel, and are used on a regular basis.

Key indicators

- A supervisory mechanism provides for regular assessment, monitoring and support for teachers and other education personnel.
- Staff performance appraisals are conducted, written up and discussed with the individual(s) concerned on a regular basis.
- Appropriate and accessible psychosocial support and counselling are provided to teachers and other education personnel, as needed.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

1. **Supervisory mechanisms:** Each country or affected area should define standards for teachers and education personnel and develop and implement a support and supervision mechanism. This mechanism may include representatives from

1. Source: INEE (2004: 69).

the community (including traditional and religious leaders), community school organizations such as parent-teacher associations, local authorities, head teachers and teachers' unions. The supervisory mechanism should be closely linked to the community education committee. The committee should include in its terms of reference the monitoring of education personnel in relation to codes of conduct, with a focus on professionalism, work efficiency and appropriate conduct.

.....

- 3. Staff performance appraisals** should include an assessment of the efficiency and effectiveness of the teachers or other education personnel and should provide consultation opportunities for teachers, head teachers and other relevant personnel to identify issues and develop follow-up activities that are agreed upon collaboratively. Where appropriate, appraisals should recognize and celebrate achievement in order to motivate education personnel. Monitoring and participatory evaluation may motivate teachers and increase their competence.
- 4. Crisis support:** Even trained and experienced teachers and other education personnel may find themselves traumatized by events and faced with new challenges and responsibilities vis-à-vis learners, and their ability to cope and perform depends on relevant support being available. A support mechanism should be established in the community to assist teachers and other education personnel dealing with crisis situations.

2. Save the Children UK form for assessing quality in schools

Is this school good for children?²

- School is a place where children learn. If it is open, friendly and welcoming, then children will feel safe and comfortable. Then they will learn better.
- How do we know if our school is good for children? We can look for things that show we care about children and are concerned for their safety and well-being.
- Start with what you can see happening in school. Look at the list and mark 'Yes'.
- Look at the list and see what is not happening yet. Make a plan and set a time line.
- In one month, do the checklist again. Has the school made positive changes?
- Do the checklist on a regular basis and keep a record of the date. Improvement will be shown each time you check.

2. Source: Nicolai (2003: 143–144).

	YES	NOT YET
1. Teachers smile frequently and speak in a friendly tone.		
2. Teachers listen attentively to children.		
3. Teachers bend down to children's level and make eye contact.		
4. Teachers call children by name.		
5. Teachers help children deal with feelings and help children solve problems in a positive manner.		
6. Teachers treat all children with respect.		
7. Children treat each other with respect.		
8. Children treat teachers with respect.		
9. The school is neatly organized with learning resources accessible to children.		
10. Children's work is displayed at their eye level.		
11. The building and immediate outside area are as safe and clean as possible.		
12. The daily programme includes small group activities.		
13. Children spend more time in class doing things than they do waiting, or listening to the teacher.		
14. The daily programme allows children some choice in activities.		
15. Teachers focus on what children learn and what they can do.		
16. Teachers use small group time to move from group to group and from child to child for brief conversations and positive encouragement.		
17. Teachers develop activities for children using a range of resources.		
18. Local children and refugee children have access together to school resources.		
19. There are mats available for floor activities.		
20. Parents are welcomed in the school.		
21. Teachers greet parents warmly by name.		
22. Parents work in the school on a regular basis and help support the school in other ways.		
23. An up-to-date and attractive parent corner or information board is maintained.		
24. Parents meetings are held at least every term.		
25. Information on the progress of each child's learning is recorded.		
26. Some of the child's work is kept by the teacher, some is displayed and some is taken home by the child.		
27. Drinking water is available to children who do not bring their own.		
28. There is a place for children to wash their hands.		
29. Separate girls' and boys' latrines are available in a safe location.		
30. Teachers say goodbye to children before the children go home.		

3. Teacher competencies

There are valuable examples of well-developed schemes of measuring competence and performance of teachers in exile. One of these is ‘Teacher competencies – indicators of teacher effectiveness’, developed by Consortium-Thailand, for primary, middle and secondary school teachers in refugee camps on the Thailand-Burma border. This material is a useful example of a tool for measuring teachers’ impact in emergency situations, although modifications will be necessary based on the particular context, situation and cultural background of the target groups.

The document defines basic competencies of a classroom teacher and states that refugee educators can use this document to assess the quality of the teaching in their schools. Teachers can use the document to assess their own teaching and areas of needed skill development. Finally, providers of educational training can use this document to provide direction for the content and level of teacher training they provide (Consortium-Thailand, 2000: 2).

The competencies are divided into the following areas:

1. Knowledge.

- Learning principles.
- Subject matter and curriculum.

2. Management of the learning environment.

- Teaching skills: planning.
- Teaching skills: delivery.
- Teaching materials.
- Assessment.
- Communication and teamwork.
- Classroom management.

3. Professional practice.

- Professional attitudes and behaviours.
- Professional development.

Below are two examples of teacher competencies from the Consortium-Thailand booklet.

SUBJECT MATTER:

THE TEACHER KNOWS THE SUBJECT AND CURRICULUM AND APPLIES THIS KNOWLEDGE IN THE CLASSROOM.

COMPETENCIES	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
1. The teacher demonstrates knowledge of the subject he/she teaches.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher often communicates wrong information. • The teacher does not tell when he/she does not know something. • The teacher never asks for help when he/she does not know or understand something. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher usually communicates accurate information to the students. • The teacher tells students when he/she does not know something. • The teacher usually asks for help when he/she does not know or understand. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher consistently communicates accurate information to students. • The teacher consistently tells students when he/she does not know something. • The teacher always asks for help when he/she does not know or understand.
2. The teacher understands and uses the curriculum appropriately.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher often cannot explain the objectives of lessons he/she teaches. • The teacher never asks for help when he/she does not understand the curriculum. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher usually knows and can explain the objectives of most lessons he/she teaches. • The teacher usually asks for help when he/she does not know or understand the curriculum. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher consistently can explain the objectives of lessons he/she teaches. • The teacher uses the curriculum flexibly and adapts it to real life situations.

**TEACHING SKILLS – PLANNING:
THE TEACHER PLANS APPROPRIATE AND EFFECTIVE LESSONS FOR THEIR
CLASSES.**

COMPETENCIES	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
1. The teacher has clear (written or unwritten) objectives.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher does not have lesson objectives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher sometimes has achievable, measurable objectives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher always has achievable, measurable objectives for each activity
2. The teacher provides appropriate content, according to the curriculum.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The content of the lesson is not relevant for the students according to the curriculum. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher provides some content relevant for the students' age, level and interests, according to the curriculum. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The subject content provided is always suitable for the students' age, level and interests, according to the curriculum.
3. The teacher identifies and plans to use a variety of methods.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher plans use of only one method. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher often plans use of a variety of methods in a sequence of lessons so students learn by seeing, hearing and doing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher consistently plans use of a variety of methods in a sequence of lessons so students learn by seeing, hearing and doing.
4. The teacher sequences the steps of the lesson.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The steps of the lesson are out of order or there are no steps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher plans lessons with broad steps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher plans specific steps in logical order to achieve objectives.
5. The teacher plans lessons using teaching materials.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher never uses teaching materials. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher uses some teaching materials. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher always uses teaching materials to encourage learning by seeing, hearing and doing.

4. Codes of conduct for teachers

Sexual harassment of students in return for better marks is a serious problem in a number of countries, and strict rules are needed. There may also be harassment of staff. A study of junior secondary schools in Ghana, Malawi and Zimbabwe found sexual abuse of girls by older students, teachers and ‘sugar daddies’, which the researchers saw as part of a wider problem of school-based violence, including excessive corporal punishment and bullying (Leach *et al.*, 2003). There is a culture of apathy on the matter and reluctance to believe girls who make allegations. The issue is a serious barrier to the retention of girls in school after puberty, since parents are wary of unwanted pregnancies and AIDS. Some programmes recommend that each school have at least two female teachers – one as head or deputy head (where a qualified woman is available) and one as a focal point or counsellor for girls. The development of a code of conduct is seen as one response to this problem (Johannessen, forthcoming).

Teacher’s code of conduct³

At all times, the teacher:

- Acts in a manner that maintains the honour and dignity of the profession.
 - Protects the confidentiality of anything said by a student in confidence.
3. This code of conduct was used by UNHCR Eritrea as a model, which schools then adapted for themselves (INEE, 2004: 70).

- Protects students from conditions that interfere with learning or are harmful to the students' health and safety.
- Does not take advantage of his or her position to profit in any way.
- Does not sexually harass any student or have any manner of sexual relationship with a student.
- Is a good, honest role model.

In the classroom, the teacher:

- Promotes a positive and safe learning environment.
- Teaches in a manner that respects the dignity and rights of all students.
- Promotes students' self-esteem, confidence and self-worth.
- Promotes high expectations of students and helps each student to reach his/her potential.
- Encourages students to develop as active, responsible and effective learners; creates an atmosphere of trust.

In their professional life, the teacher:

- Displays a basic competence in educational methodology and his/her subject.
- Displays an understanding (in his/her teaching) of how children learn.
- Is always on time for class and prepared to teach.
- Does not engage in activities that adversely affect the quality of his/her teaching.
- Takes advantage of all professional development opportunities and uses modern, accepted teaching methods.

- Teaches principles of good citizenship, peace and social responsibility.
- Honestly represents each student's performance and examination results.

With respect to the community, the teacher:

- Encourages parents to support and participate in their children's learning.
- Recognizes the importance of family and community involvement in school.
- Supports and promotes a positive image of the school.

In addition to the items mentioned here, the teacher is expected to abide by all other rules and policies of the wider environment (camp, school, etc.).

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Chapter **3.4**

TEACHER TRAINING: TEACHING AND LEARNING METHODS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To offer teacher training based on the need to understand and respond appropriately to educational needs in various phases of an emergency.**
- **To train teachers on new topics such as landmine awareness, psychosocial implications of emergencies, peace education, conflict resolution – topics that may be relevant to the emergency situation and people’s corresponding needs.**
- **To further develop teacher-training capacity.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Emergencies may affect complete communities and, though their teachers may be familiar with their jobs, they may need additional support to cope with emergency conditions. At the other extreme, communities may be broken up, there may be few experienced teachers, and many people therefore enter the teaching profession for the first time under difficult conditions. Even those with previous teaching experience may need training on new topics to be taught in displacement or returnee situations (e.g. life skills messages, etc.). Teachers are likely to need training related to psychosocial support for students. They may also

have been traumatized themselves and may need help with processing their own traumas. Teacher training is thus one of the most important dimensions of an emergency education response.

WHAT IS DIFFERENT ABOUT TEACHER TRAINING IN SITUATIONS OF EMERGENCY?

1. Stressful environment: ongoing conflict, family members killed or missing, traumatic experiences for both teachers and students.
2. Need for rapid training of unqualified teachers (often large numbers), either to work in government system or in NGO- or United Nations-supported schools.
3. Need for training in non-traditional topics (landmine awareness, health and hygiene issues, cholera awareness, peace education, conflict resolution).
4. Need for training in non-traditional methods (child-centred pedagogy, psychosocial referrals, participative classroom techniques).
5. Need for training to be recognized by government so teachers can be adequately certified, compensated and recognized, at least post-emergency.
6. Formal teacher training institutes may not be functioning or may not have capacity to train large numbers of new teachers.
7. Need for training in non-traditional education programmes (e.g. bridging programmes, accelerated learning programmes, etc.).
8. Training may be conducted by NGOs or United Nations organizations, either for the government school system or for schools run by NGOs.



WHAT DO THE TEACHERS NEED TO LEARN? THE CONTENTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education should cover theoretical knowledge in the subjects to be taught and in pedagogy as well as observation of role models, microteaching and simulated and actual classroom practice. Some research indicates that most of the teaching skills a teacher uses are acquired during the first five years of practice.

In brief, teachers in emergencies need to have knowledge and skills in:

- The basic subjects that are taught.
- Teaching methods, particularly participatory methods.
- New subject areas and 'life skills' in the fields of environmental education, HIV and AIDS prevention, peace education and reconciliation, developing respect for human rights, citizenship/civic education and moral/ethical education.
- Trauma and trauma healing.
- Teaching methods for pre-school children or for adults (where applicable).
- Child protection and non-harassment of students or colleagues.

Source: Johannessen (n.d.).

Much confusion can arise if different agencies use different models for teacher training without any coordination. Although in acute emergencies, there may be a need for short and improvised courses for the teachers, the continuing courses should be designed so that they both increase teacher effectiveness and also cumulatively build up the equivalent of a teaching qualification for the teachers.

In a refugee situation, UNHCR, UNICEF, international NGO implementing partners and the host government should decide on

the basic approaches and structures to be adopted, in consultation with organizations already providing in-service teacher training. If possible, there should also be consultation with the government of the country of origin of the refugees. It is important to ensure that training provided in refugee situations and outside of official government training facilities or programmes is recognized by the government. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'*.)

Teacher education colleges, like other educational institutions, may be destroyed or otherwise damaged during armed conflict, whether through direct attack, use as dormitories or stores, looting, or through lack of maintenance during a period of insecurity. Furniture and equipment may have been looted. It is important that renewal of the country's system of pre-service (full-time) teacher training be prominent in the plan for post-conflict reconstruction,



DAMAGE TO TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN IRAQ

In Iraq, a recent needs assessment survey showed that after years of economic sanctions which limited funding for maintenance, and the conflict in March/April 2003, only 41 (27 per cent) of the teacher training institutions had use of buildings that were in good condition. Fifty-six teacher-training institutions (37 per cent) were in buildings that were partially damaged, 31 (21 per cent) were in buildings that were seriously damaged, and 22 (15 per cent) in premises that were considered seriously unsafe. A total of 77 war-related incidents were reported on teacher-training institutions by survey respondents, in 15 governorates. Looting was most common (55 reported incidents), followed by burning (12) and bombing (10). It was also reported by 31 institutes that they were used by the military as barracks following the war.

Source: UNESCO (2004: 72).

and that renewal of content and pedagogy, as well as infrastructure, be included. Needs assessment for teacher training, both in-service and pre-service, should be seen as an integral part of ‘back to school’ and school reconstruction programmes. The emergency may be an opportunity to introduce or strengthen teaching methods such as those related to participatory approaches and child-centred methodologies.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Teacher training: teaching and learning methods

- 1. Coordinate or facilitate a needs assessment for teacher education and training, including development of a systematic structure that best meets the present and future needs of the emergency-affected populations.**
- 2. In consultation with other education providers, develop a framework such that in-service teacher training provided during emergencies can build up cumulatively towards recognized professional teacher status.**



- 3. Design an integrated programme for teacher training that provides an introduction to the needed competencies, together with continuing in-school guidance and support.**
- 4. Promote classroom-based training.**
- 5. Consider establishing teacher resource centres.**
- 6. Support teachers through provision of teachers' manuals and teaching materials.**
- 7. Recognize that teachers may have suffered stress during the emergency and prepare them to help students with psychosocial problems.**
- 8. Train selected teachers in education for 'survival skills' and curriculum enrichment themes related to the emergency such as health, safety, peace, citizenship and environment.**
- 9. Train bilingual teachers where necessary.**
- 10. Facilitate the training of teachers and volunteers for early childhood development and pre-school programmes.**
- 11. Plan for the renewal of full-time pre-service teacher education and training.**
- 12. Consider the use of open and distance learning for training teachers.**

Guidance notes

1. Coordinate or facilitate needs assessments for teacher education and training, including the development of a systematic structure that best meets the present and future needs of the emergency-affected populations.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’.)

- In the case of an inter-agency multi-sectoral needs assessment, undertaken jointly with the government, ensure that teacher training is represented in the needs-assessment team by international/national educators with experience of both pre-service and in-service training in the region/country concerned.
- Set in motion a detailed review, for emergency-affected areas, of teacher numbers in the various levels and types of schooling, their gender, qualifications and training, ongoing training programmes and the future need for in-service training and support.
- Collect information on the structure and contents of teacher training being undertaken by the United Nations, NGOs and other education providers.

2. In consultation with other education providers, develop a framework such that in-service teacher training provided during emergencies can build up cumulatively towards recognized professional teacher status.

- Compare the contents of ongoing teacher training with the national curricula for qualified teacher status, and, in the case of refugees, the curricula for qualified teacher status in their country or area of origin.
- Design a curriculum framework that enables teachers to cover the curriculum for qualified teacher status through in-service training modules, which also meet current emergency needs.



NEED FOR TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM STRUCTURE

“Seminars and design workshops involving education ministry officials and other stakeholders active in education and in-service teacher training are needed early in the reconstruction process, to harness the energies of the NGO and agency staff as well as the teachers to implementing training on a common basis across programmes, with common patterns of incentives, within a well-developed modular framework. If the Ministry of Education suggests a structure, and possible modalities for implementation, it will help the NGOs and other agencies to plan their support.”

Source: Johannessen (n.d.).

“The International Rescue Committee, which supported schools for refugees from Liberia and Sierra Leone who had taken refuge in Guinea, offered extensive in-service training and in-school support to the refugee teachers. The Ministry of Education in Liberia subsequently recognized the good performance of returnee teachers, but had difficulty in awarding qualified teacher status, which required completion of a specified training curriculum. A compromise was reached whereby a teacher, having received training while in exile, was awarded a basic-level teacher qualification. However, it was observed that projects providing training for refugee teachers should include the elements required for qualified teacher status in the home country and should be well documented.”

Source: Sinclair (2002: 56).

- Work towards recognition of this framework by the national government and, for refugees, by the government of the country of origin.
- Meanwhile, encourage field staff and other education providers to re-structure their training to meet this framework.
- In areas with acute teacher shortages, teachers who have not completed established certification processes but who possess ‘alternative qualifications’ should be formally recognized. This is especially important for promoting access to education in early reconstruction contexts such as Afghanistan.

3. Design an integrated programme for teacher training that provides an introduction to the needed competencies together with continuing in-school guidance and support.

- Allocate sufficient resources for teacher training, since many teachers may be inexperienced and even trained teachers are facing new challenges.
- Organize courses during vacations and weekends, but supplement them with continuing support.
- Where possible, do not use the cascade method for training teachers as trainers, unless there is close professional support for these trainers over a period of years. The cascade method is especially unsuccessful in transforming methodologies of teaching.
- Ensure that teacher trainers have good pedagogical experience of the type of teaching concerned (e.g. university lecturers may have no experience of child-centred learning activities for primary schools).
- Make a continuing linkage from the training course to the classroom through the use of mobile trainers, school clusters, in-school mentors, etc. (see below).



IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN GUINEA

“In 1991 the International Rescue Committee (IRC) initiated a programme of support for ongoing self-help refugee education programmes in Guinea, as the implementing partner for UNHCR. In 1998 around 60,000 refugee students from Liberia and Sierra Leone benefited from the programme, which employs about 1,400 teachers in 160 schools. The programme covers all levels, from ABC Kindergarten to higher secondary and in-service teacher training. An outstanding feature of the programme is the development of human resources through continuous teacher training and guidance. The initial training is not extensive: a workshop lasting five days. The strength of the system lies in the education co-ordinators, a group of field-based, mobile advisers. Each education co-ordinator is assigned a zone consisting of eight to thirteen schools depending on size and distances. The co-ordinators monitor teacher performance and provide professional in-service training and assistance by way of one-to-one ‘conferences’ or mini-workshops for teachers in their own schools as necessary. They also assess training needs and communicate and enforce IRC policies.”

Source: Lange (1998: 5).

- Consider training all the staff of a school at the same time, so that there is less rejection of new methods than when trained staff come back to a school where new ideas are unwelcome.

4. Promote classroom-based training.

- Ensure that teachers receive classroom-based training from mobile trainers or supervisors (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers’*), for situations when mobile trainers also serve as school supervisors.



IN-SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING FOR BHUTANESE REFUGEE TEACHERS IN NEPAL

“Newly appointed teachers have a three-day workshop in which they are given the basics in lesson planning and delivery. This includes demonstration and practice lessons, after which they have some confidence to enter the classroom. All primary teachers have a meeting every week with the in-school resource teachers (on Saturday mornings), when they plan for the following week’s lessons. During the week, the in-school resource teachers observe the teachers and support them with further ongoing guidance and advice, especially those who are newly appointed. Workshops on particular subjects are arranged by the resource teachers, as and when necessary ... The primary school teachers are given basic classroom management and child psychology, for example. The in-school resource teachers are trained in subject matter and development of alternative learning resources. The head teachers receive training in counselling, alternative ways of disciplining students, children’s rights, and leadership and managerial skills, and the central office staff are trained in management, training of trainers and conflict resolution.”

Source: Brown (2001: 134).

- Establish a mentor training programme whereby senior staff are trained to act as mentors to junior staff in their own schools.
- Consider establishing a cluster of schools, where senior staff are trained to act as mobile trainers/mentors for junior staff within the school cluster.

5. Consider establishing teacher resource centres

Many systems of education have teachers’ support centres, though their efficacy in changing classroom practice varies.

They are especially relevant in locations (such as refugee camps) where there is a high population density, and teachers from several schools can use the centre easily. In another approach, resource centres may also serve students.



THE ZIP (ZONA DE INFLUÊNCIA PEDAGÓGICA) IN MOZAMBIQUE: A SCHOOL SUPPORT SYSTEM

A school district is divided into ZIPs. The ZIPs were established in 1974 to implement a new education system. The idea was that the school directors and teachers within each ZIP meet regularly to discuss pedagogical topics, joint planning and elaboration of teaching methods. The ZIP system is being revitalized and has been given much emphasis in the country's strategic plan. Meetings are supposed to take place every second week.

The teachers mainly use the ZIPs as a place where they exchange experience and present their problems, and they get new ideas and support from their colleagues. They have closer contact with the director of ZIP and their colleagues within the ZIP than with the district director's office.

In the guide for the future of the ZIPs from 1998, the plans were to develop the ZIP as a support to the teachers, students and the community. It would offer training and seminars to teachers and parents, arrange meetings and discussions as well as exchanges between ZIPs, provide supervision to the schools, and establish resource centres for books and didactic material for teachers and students.

Source: Johannessen (1998).

6. Support teachers through provision of teachers' manuals and teaching materials

- Although countries may have teacher guides for the various subjects, or corresponding to each textbook, there are often

few copies available. Providing existing or new teacher guides may be helpful to inexperienced teachers.

- Teacher training often suggests that teachers prepare their own teaching aids. However, they may not have the time, materials, inclination or expertise to do this. Basic teaching aids should be provided wherever possible (including alphabet and number charts, maps, science charts, etc.).

7. Recognize that teachers may have suffered stress during the emergency and prepare them to help students with psychosocial problems.

Training for teachers in understanding children's psychosocial needs, often covered in separate teacher-training sessions/modules, should be integrated into general teaching methodology trainings. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.5, 'Psychosocial support to learners'*.)

- Have all teachers, or at least one or two teachers per school, received training regarding the psychosocial effects of trauma?
- Have teachers received a guidance pamphlet on how to cope with their own problems and how to adapt their teaching to meet children's needs?
- Have teacher trainers been trained to undertake this work, including the following messages:
 - Many children in emergency situations have difficulty in concentrating, so the lessons should have discrete units, and a very specific beginning and end.
 - Questioning skills: teachers should ask open-ended questions and should encourage the participation of all children, even of those who may be passive and withdrawn due to their experiences.

- Appropriate policy on discipline: a less authoritarian and gentler form of discipline should be used where possible, and strategies developed to cope with students who are confrontational as an aftermath of trauma.

8. Train selected teachers in education for ‘survival skills’ and curriculum enrichment themes related to the emergency, such as health, safety, peace, citizenship and environment.

(See also the section ‘Curriculum and learning’, in the *Guidebook*, Chapters 4.1 to 4.8.)

- Selected teachers from each school should receive training in these themes and in the active learning approach they require, to develop school programmes in these areas.
- All teachers may benefit from some training in these themes, to encourage them to reinforce them during their normal teaching.

9. Train bilingual teachers where necessary.

- Provide additional training for teachers in national languages of instruction, as necessary.



TRAINING BILINGUAL TEACHERS IN GUATEMALA

In Guatemala, Save the Children Norway together with other donors are supporting a programme that focuses on the education and certification of educators/teachers who work with indigenous (Maya) refugee children in the areas where they live (comunidades de retornados) The intention is to enable them to obtain the title Bilingual Teacher in Primary Education, which comprises two and a half years’ training.



Another objective is to strengthen the teachers' association.

To reach the objective, education materials have been developed based on Paulo Freire's approach. The Ministry of Education has approved this experiment under the country's official teacher-training programme.

The curriculum includes:

- One semester study of basic education.
- Basic cycle of bilingualism (Maya and Spanish) – prepare three courses of four months each.
- Professional studies adapted to the teachers/educators, which consists of psycho-pedagogical and didactic material.

When these courses have been completed, the teachers are qualified to receive the certificate of 'Teacher in Primary Bilingual Education'. Eighty-nine teachers were trained in 1998, and 85 in 1999. The project is part of the educational reform initiated by the government.

Source: Save the Children Norway (2001).

- Take steps to enable the early years of primary education to be conducted in the child's mother tongue, so far as practicable.

10. Facilitate the training of teachers and volunteers for early childhood development and pre-school programmes.

- The education of teachers for early childhood and pre-school education should focus on:
 - How the child develops socially, intellectually, emotionally, physically, and morally.

- Methods adapted to the child’s development emphasizing play, drama, games, artistic expression, gross and fine motor activities (not lectures).
- Basic concepts as a basis for later formal instruction in the subjects.
- Community members may volunteer as facilitators of playgroups and pre-school groups. They should not normally be remunerated, but this will not be sustainable over the longer term; there may be a need for full-time paid teachers to train the volunteers and support the functioning of the groups.



CORE MOTHERS IN CAMBODIA

The large unsatisfied demand for early childhood education was met by the Core Mothers’ project. Community leaders worked with the school director to identify a group of mothers with small children in the community, interested in helping their children to learn at home. Most of the women involved had themselves completed primary education, and some had participated in secondary education. The mothers volunteered to attend a four-session workshop at the school, and were given a reference book to take home. The book contained descriptions of psychomotor activities for children, associated with the task of food preparation, through which they could teach their children basic concepts (big–small, thick–thin, hot–cold, shapes and colours and so on). As mothers carried out their food preparation activities, they talked to their children, gave them things to play with, and observed the learning that was occurring through play. From day to day, they worked through a checklist of statements about children’s learning, understanding and skills in the reference book, and also wrote down their own observations. They met with the pre-school teacher once every two weeks to discuss their progress.

Source: Johannessen (2001).

- Consider involving the community and training mothers as facilitators/teachers.

11. Plan for the renewal of full-time pre-service teacher education and training.

In the post-conflict reconstruction phase, there is a good opportunity to raise the quality of pre-service teacher education as part of an internationally supported programme for the renewal of the education system.

- Ensure that the needs-assessment and fund-raising activities prioritize the rehabilitation of teacher-training institutions and of education faculties at the universities, not only physical infrastructure and equipment, but also staff training, curricula, arrangements for practice teaching, and other measures to improve the quality of teacher preparation.
 - Consider using teacher-training institutions as centres for in-service teacher training for teachers in the surrounding areas, as well as for full-time students.
 - Take steps to strengthen the teaching practice component of teacher training.



TEACHER IDENTITY

In Ethiopia, especially, teachers felt that they could not be good teachers until they completed their own education, regardless of the amount of in-service training they had received. Women teachers in particular (who generally have lower levels of education than the men), were very aware of their limitations and lacked confidence in their abilities. Teacher's self-image plays an important role in delivering quality education and must be taken into account in designing teacher development programming.

Source: Winthrop and Kirk (2004: 19).



RECONSTRUCTION OF TEACHER EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL IN IRAQ

“The situation in the educational sector in Iraq in general, especially the availability of qualified teachers, was raised constantly in discussion meetings, such as the stakeholders’ meeting in higher education for the UNDG/World Bank report in August 2003. Teacher availability is a very complex matter that has different elements (motivation related to level of salaries, social reputation, working conditions etc.) For the higher education sector, where over half of future teachers are educated, the following problems were raised during the discussions, as well as in interviews:

Education colleges were getting students with weaker performance than other colleges, especially medical and engineering.

The importance of education science has always been underestimated.

New methodologies in teaching, particularly methods that promote creativity and practical experience, are urgently needed.

International exchange is needed for staff to get acquainted with current trends in education.

New structures and courses might be considered for the educational colleges, such as offering special education studies mainly at the master’s degree level for graduates of colleges of arts and sciences.

The educational colleges clearly need special attention in the process of restructuring and renewal of the higher education system aimed at improving the quality of future teachers, given the importance of education in the emerging knowledge-based society.”

Source: UNESCO (2004).

12. Consider the use of open and distance learning for training teachers.

(See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.7, ‘Open and distance learning’.)

The start-up of an open and distance learning programme takes time, especially if there is to be a comprehensive teacher-training programme with national outreach. This approach may be more suited to post-conflict reconstruction or protracted situations, rather than acute emergencies.

- Consider the use of radio to communicate new teaching methods and content to teachers in emergency-affected locations.
- Small-scale open learning and distance learning can sometimes be arranged in situations of chronic conflict (e.g. hand-carried lessons for home study, magazines for children, etc.).
- Consider linking teachers to existing distance learning opportunities, for teacher training or otherwise.
- It is preferable to link distance education to regular teacher-training institutions or universities, drawing upon the experiences of their teacher trainers and their education materials.
- Match open and distance learning with the technological level in the country in question.
- Use of printed materials for correspondence is most common.
- Face-to-face interaction is necessary to succeed.
- Steady supervision and follow-up is crucial. Lack of interaction between tutors and students lowers motivation and effectiveness.



DISTANCE LEARNING FOR TEACHERS: ZIMBABWE INTEGRATED NATIONAL TEACHERS EDUCATION COURSE (ZINTEC)


The Zimbabwe Integrated National Teachers Education Course (ZINTEC) was a way to meet the excess demand for new teachers after independence. ZINTEC, initiated in 1981, was the most acclaimed post-independence teacher education programme in Zimbabwe. One of the aims was to improve teaching practice by assigning the student teachers to teach in schools on several occasions during the teacher-training period. During their practice, they were helped by distance teaching materials and supervised by college lecturers and also by school principals and education officers. A production unit was responsible for writing all the distance learning materials student teachers used when they were deployed in the schools, and the materials were dispatched to the regions through ZINTEC colleges.

The ZINTEC programme included:

- Theory of education (distance study).
- Reinforcing the distance education through vacation courses and weekend seminars.
- Practising teaching on a full-time basis with the same responsibilities as qualified teachers.

Lecturers visited students at least once each term, and others also supervised them (e.g. school principals, district education officers and education officers). The University of Zimbabwe certified candidates trained under the programme. From the beginning, the pass rates were relatively high, and the dropout rate insignificant. The actual percentage of students who completed their course varied from 86 per cent to 97 per cent. An important finding was that the final results of the ZINTEC candidates and those trained in regular colleges were similar.

Following the experience gained in the ZINTEC programme, the mode of training other non-graduate primary and secondary teachers changed from three to four years. Student teachers



spend their first and third years at college and their second year in the schools as full-time teachers receiving their tuition through distance education modules from the National Centre for Distance Education.

Evaluations of ZINTEC in 1982 and 1986 led to the following conclusions:

- ZINTEC colleges and regional centres should be administratively and physically united to facilitate closer co-ordination and co-operation between field- and college-based lecturers.
- The supervisors (college lecturers) had too many students to supervise.
- ZINTEC lecturers were university graduates who were not trained to teach at primary level.
- Those teaching at secondary colleges were not trained in teacher education, or in distance teacher education.
- Field supervision of student teachers by lecturers formed one of the most important activities in the training of teachers through distance education. However, the number of times a student was visited in the field is not sufficient (80 per cent were visited only once per term).
- It was reported that lecturers spent more time checking schemes of work, lesson plans and records rather than helping students reinforce concepts and skills and link theory with practice (due to lack of funds, vehicles and staff).
- The content, relevance and comprehensiveness of the modules produced for the distance education were tested. A majority of the students did not manage to explain basic terms in their own words, and consequently the modules had to be changed to match the students' level.
- Lecturers were slow to return students' distance education assignments, and it turned into a vicious circle when the students became unmotivated, as they did not get sufficient feedback.



- Mismatch was found between plans at the schools and plans at the college, and some colleges did not provide the students with proper planning guidelines.
- The good teaching some of the student candidates practised was not transferred to the classroom once they became fully qualified teachers.
- A pilot study showed that ZINTEC-trained teachers seemed to be more effective compared to their colleagues, and the conclusion is that distance education seems to be an effective method of training pre-service, non-graduate teachers.
- Weaknesses noted by the students were: inadequate supervision, lack of feedback on assignments, lack of books, poor postal service hindering communication between colleges and students, relatively heavy teaching loads.

Source: Shrestha (1997).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

An excellent resource kit on teacher training in emergencies and reconstruction has been published by INEE (2004b).

1. Key elements for teacher training

Teacher training should include the following very practical items:

- *Planning.* Preparation and planning of lessons is a first step in teacher education. It is important in all phases of emergencies.
- *How to organize the classroom.* The placement of benches/ desks and blackboard and how the children are seated.

Moving the learners around in the classroom, and avoiding having weaker learners sitting at the back.

- *What is learning?* Basic child psychology: how children learn and develop, inductive and deductive teaching, how the teacher relates to the children.
- *Didactics of teaching.* The principles may vary from one country to another (shows how to build up a lesson).
- *How the time is spent.* Making sure that the time is spent on different teaching activities. Avoiding extensive lecturing and copying from the blackboard.
- *Curriculum relevancy.* Allowing children to draw upon their own experience.
- *Simple and understandable language adapted to the learner's level.* Ensuring that the teacher is able to explain the topic in a way that the learners are able to understand.
- *Concept teaching.* Starting with basic concepts and making sure that the learner understands them.
- *Teachers' questions.* Use of open-ended questions that stimulate discussion, curiosity and problem solving. Avoiding questions to the whole group, which may be answered in unison by yes or no, or some memorized phrases.
- *Encouraging the children to ask questions.* It is a healthy sign in a classroom if the children ask questions.
- *Use of available teaching material.* Blackboard, slates, notebooks, textbooks, teacher guides, charts, maps, cubes and pictures.
- *How to develop and where to find local teaching material.* Identifying material available in the surroundings and showing how it can be used. Presenting a variety of teaching material that is easy to develop locally and demonstrating how it can be used in different subjects.

- *The use of a variety of child-centred methods.* Demonstrating the planning and implementation of group work throughout the training process, working in pairs, role play, songs, games, drama, drawing, music, problem solving, project work.
- *How to reduce the teacher's talking and increase the students' participation.* Ways of encouraging learners' oral presentation and participation in discussions.
- *The teacher's role as a facilitator.* How the teacher's role changes in child-centred methods, how the teacher provides a good climate for learning and guiding the learning process.
- *The use of child-to-child tutors.* Demonstrating how to make use of children as teachers and tutors, how the more advanced students may help the weaker.
- *How to teach big classes.* Demonstrating teaching methods that are applicable in big classes.
- *The use of two teachers in the classroom.* Demonstrating how to make use of a two-teacher system.
- *Observation of children.* Demonstrating observation as a tool to better understanding of the individual child and the group.
- *How to teach children who are slow or who have learning difficulties.* Methods to support slow learners. Avoiding spending most of the time on the clever students.
- *Children with special needs.* Methods of teaching adapted to children with special needs that may also be relevant to all children.
- *Praising children.* How praise can be used to encourage the learner's achievements.
- *Checking that a child has understood.* Demonstrating ways of checking the results of the teaching, through individual and group tasks, oral and written.

- *How to treat the child with respect and dignity.* Avoiding stigmatization of weak children, children who do not readily understand corporal and psychological punishment. Teaching students how to behave towards each other.
- *How to guide children to become more independent learners.* Some children need more support than others, but they also have to learn gradually how to manage on their own.
- *How to increase the child's sense of competency.* Focusing on what the child manages and less on his/her weaknesses.
- *Classroom discipline.* Rules of behaviour in the classroom, replacing strict discipline with positive discipline. The difference between productive and unproductive noise.
- *How to encourage girls' participation in the classroom.* Finding ways that increase girls' motivation for schoolwork and their participation. Some teachers do not expect as much from girls as from the boys.
- *How to make the lesson enjoyable.* How to stir the natural pleasure for learning by stimulating curiosity, concentration and productive work.
- *Extensive practical classroom experience.* This needs to be arranged for students following full-time courses of teacher education and training.

Source: Johannessen (n.d.).

2. Training topics: ideas for building awareness

Inclusive education

Key concept: Because all children have a right to education, teachers are obliged to make a special effort to reach those traditionally excluded – girls, disabled children, those from minority ethnic communities, etc.

Discipline in the classroom

Key concept: Physical punishment, using violent means or embarrassing children, reinforces a violent society and perpetuates cycles of disrespect and hate.

Involving parents in a child's learning

Key concept: It is essential for parents to contribute actively to children's learning, both at home, and by periodically assisting in the classroom.

Role of a teacher

Key concept: Essential qualities of a good teacher include respecting children as individuals, letting students know what is expected, and helping students to practise and to learn from mistakes.

Source: Nicolai (2003: 99).

3. INEE minimum standards for teaching and learning¹

Standard 2

Teachers and other education personnel receive periodic, relevant and structured training according to need and circumstances.

Key indicators

- Training corresponds to prioritized needs, objectives of education activities and learning content.

1. Source: INEE (2004a: 69).

- Where appropriate, training is recognized and approved by relevant educational authorities.
- Qualified trainers conduct the training courses and provision is made for ongoing support and guidance, appropriate follow-up, monitoring and supervision in the field, and refresher training.
- Training, including follow-up monitoring, encourages the teacher to be a facilitator in the learning environment, promotes participatory methods of teaching, and demonstrates the use of teaching aids.
- Training content is regularly assessed to determine if it meets the needs of teachers, students and the community, and is revised when necessary.
- Training provides teachers with appropriate skills to be able to assume leadership roles when required by members of the community.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

Training support and coordination. Once the emergency has stabilized, national and local educational authorities and community education committees should be involved in the design and implementation of formal and non-formal teacher-training activities, whenever possible. It is advisable to start a dialogue on curricula for in-service teacher training, and mechanisms for recognition of training received, at the beginning of the emergency response. However, in many refugee situations there is often no connection between the refugee community and its education programmes and the local education system.

Where possible, local trainers should be identified to develop and implement appropriate training for teachers, with capacity

building for their facilitation and training skills, as needed. Where there are limited numbers of trainers available or they are themselves inadequately trained, external agencies (e.g. United Nations, international NGOs) and local, national and regional institutions should make coordinated efforts to strengthen existing or transitional structures and institutions providing in-service and pre-service teacher training.

Recognition and accreditation. Approval and accreditation by national and local educational authorities is sought in part to ensure quality and recognition in the immediate situation, and in part with a view to the post-emergency situation. In the case of refugee teachers, the educational authorities of the host or home country/area, or at least one of these, should recognize the training. For this purpose, it is essential that teacher-training courses be well structured and well documented, and meet the teacher qualification requirements of the educational authorities, as well as including any additional components related to the emergency.

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Chapter **3.5**

PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT TO LEARNERS

MAIN OBJECTIVE

- **To provide educational, psychological and social opportunities which support the well-being of children affected by the trauma of conflict or natural disaster.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Defining psychosocial support

The impact of conflict or disaster on individuals depends upon their natural resiliency, exposure to disturbing events and the type of support they receive following the experience. The word ‘psychosocial’ is a combination of the concepts of the individual ‘psyche’ and the ‘social’ community in which the person lives and interacts. “Psychosocial support recognizes the importance of the social context in addressing the psychological impact of stressful events experienced in emergencies. In practice, this means facilitating the reconstruction of local social

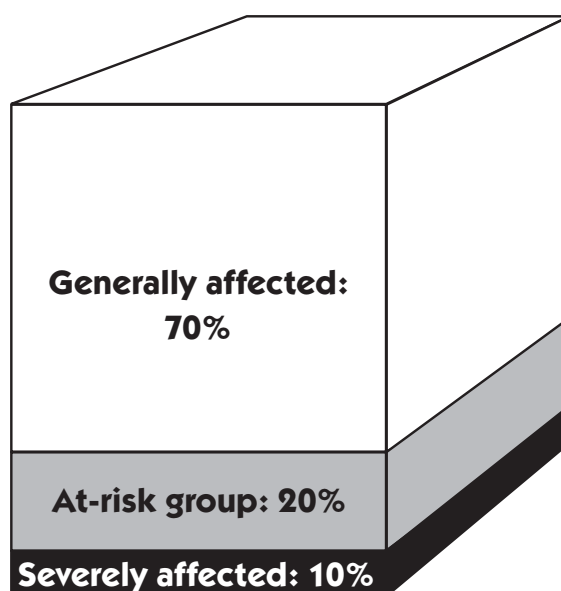
structures (family, community groups, schools) which may have been destroyed or weakened by an emergency, so that they can give appropriate and effective support to those suffering severe stress related to their experiences” (Nicolai, 2003a: 117).

Target population

Children and families who are part of the same community (and have endured the same sequence of events) will nevertheless have different experiences and responses. It is possible to distinguish between three groups, according to the degree of risk:

- **Generally affected group.** The largest proportion of the population consists of individuals who may not have been directly affected by crisis events and whose families may

CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AFFECTED BY CONFLICT



Source: Duncan and Arntson (2004).

be largely intact. Children and adults in this group may be suffering from physical and mental exhaustion, for example, but are not experiencing the level of distress felt by those in the severely affected or at-risk groups.

- **At-risk group.** Individuals in this group may have experienced severe losses and disruption, be significantly distressed, and may be experiencing despair and hopelessness. However, their social and psychological capacity to function has not yet been overwhelmed, although they are at particular risk of psychological and social deterioration if their needs are not addressed through timely support mechanisms.
- **Severely affected group.** The psychological and social functioning of children and adults in this group may be severely compromised. Children, such as former child soldiers, who may have been forced to watch and/or commit violent acts, are likely to fall into this group. They require intensive, individual psychological attention to address the more severe traumatic and/or depression disorders.

Source: Adapted from Duncan and Arntson (2004).

Coping mechanisms

It is important to emphasize that what people in crisis are experiencing after a traumatic event is a normal reaction to very abnormal events. Those affected should be assured that their situation over time will improve; most people will recover. Giving people this simple explanation helps them understand and address their stress. ‘Normal patterns’ of daily life such as going to school, social interaction, and play are known to mitigate the impact of the conflict. The re-establishment of weekly, monthly

and yearly events, such as the school year, and religious, cultural and social events, provides hope, as people are able to plan for the future. In addition, when children go to school, their parents and caregivers, who are also under enormous pressure, can focus on daily survival tasks without worrying about the well-being of their children. This also serves to reduce stress levels within families.

In recent years, research into what elements increase a child's ability to survive, cope and thrive following a traumatic experience has clearly demonstrated the important role that teachers, other educators and school routine can play. Several key characteristics (assets or resources of individuals who are able to best deal with stressful experiences) have been identified:

- Cognitive competence – a reasonable level of intelligence, skills in communication, or realistic planning.
- A positive sense of self-esteem, self-confidence and self-control.
- An active coping style rather than a passive approach – a tendency to look to the future rather than to the past.
- A sense of structure and meaning in the individual's life.

Teachers and educators are in a good position to encourage and nurture all these elements. It has also been shown that several aspects of a child's immediate social environment can play a key role in their ability to cope:

- Good and consistent support and guidance from parents or other caregivers.
- Support from extended family and friendship/community networks and teachers and the re-establishment of a normal pattern of life.

- An educational climate that is emotionally positive, open and supportive.
- Appropriate role models, which encourage constructive coping.

Source: Adapted from Nicolai (2003a)

Best practices in providing psychosocial support

For education professionals, psychosocial work is nothing new – as good teaching and learning practices are good psychosocial practices. Educators should strive to create a comfortable and supportive learning environment where learners feel safe, and should recognize that learners affected by conflict may especially need frequent breaks and a nurturing atmosphere to help them recover from the conflict. In emergencies (and during early reconstruction), all education personnel should be provided with a basic understanding of the psychosocial impact of conflict (see also point 2 in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter.) However, it should also be remembered that, in conflict situations, or following natural disaster, educators also have their own physical and psychosocial needs. In many cases, these needs add additional stress to an educator’s life and may lead to absenteeism, burnout and leaving the profession. In natural disasters, additional sources of stress, for both education personnel and children, may include: physical injury; loss of home and public services; loss of parent or other relatives; heightened poverty and a sense of vulnerability.

People experience extraordinary stress when their communities are divided by conflict: Families face long-term separation, they must live as refugees or IDPs, they are exposed to violence as

WHY SHOULD PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT BE A PART OF EDUCATION?

- Teachers can provide a stable, affectionate relationship for a child.
- Education staff can be aware of those having special difficulties in coping.
- Time can be dedicated to better understanding the crisis and its impact.
- Successes in learning will increase the self-confidence of a child.
- Local sports and art, such as drama and dance, help children relax, develop, value their cultural identity and build a sense of belonging.
- Schools and structured activities reinforce the social web of community.

Source: Nicolai (2003a).

either a witness or a victim, participate in conflict and experience broken-down trust in society. Refugees and IDPs may not have access to traditional coping mechanisms as a result of the breakdown in society that occurs following conflict. Severely traumatized refugees and IDPs may also not have access to qualified mental health professionals and people living in areas of conflict may have been impacted by multiple disturbing events. The psychosocial role that educators can play, in situations such as these, is vital.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies and during early reconstruction, children and young people often experience multiple sources of distress. Some suggested strategies for addressing their psychosocial needs are indicated below.



Summary of suggested strategies Psychosocial support to learners

- 1. Train teachers to monitor children and identify those who may be experiencing special difficulties when they are in school.**
- 2. Provide necessary support to teachers so that they can support distressed children.**
- 3. Begin structured education activities as soon as possible in order to mitigate the psychosocial impact of the emergency on children and youth.**
- 4. In protracted emergencies, support parents, families and communities with activities to address stress.**
- 5. Establish programmes that focus on longer-term concepts of justice, peace and democracy.**
- 6. Support good teaching and learning practices.**



- 7. Incorporate training in the psychosocial impact of the conflict with pedagogical training.**
- 8. Put a referral system into place.**
- 9. Support the physical and psychosocial needs of educators and learners.**
- 10. Monitor the success of any psychosocial programmes.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Train teachers to monitor children and identify those who may be experiencing special difficulties when they are in school.**
 - Basic ways of understanding distress include:
 - Observe children's behaviour and interaction with others for signs of distress. (See 'Symptoms of distress' in the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter.)
 - Listen to children. In order to help children talk and share their feelings, create a supportive educational environment where teachers regularly interact with children on an individual level.
 - Recognize and build on the experience and potential of children who have been affected by the emergency. Valuing and emphasizing their skills, personal resources, resilience and capacity to overcome challenges can help children to build self-esteem and confidence, and take a positive attitude to their future.



PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT SHOULD BE CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE

The cause and meaning of the symptoms of psychosocial impact vary between cultures and affect how and where those affected seek treatment. In Angola, some people felt that recurrent bad dreams were caused by spirits of family members who were not properly buried during the war. Organizations assisted those affected to perform the proper burial rituals to appease the spirits. In other parts of the world, people, and especially children, seek traditional assistance and charms to ward off bad spirits. These traditional perceptions and cures are just as valid as Western mental-health practices. Learners should be encouraged to seek whatever is effective as long as it does not cause physical harm.

2. Provide necessary support to teachers so that they can support distressed children.

- In teacher training, emphasize that an individual teacher cannot do everything or solve all the children's problems.
- Whenever possible, provide regular breaks for teachers.
- Regularly rotate responsibilities among teachers, so that one or a few teachers do not bear the burden of all that needs to be done.
- Schedule regular staff meetings and in-service training.
- Encourage peer support.
- Provide opportunities for teachers to improve their skills, which, in turn, will increase their sense of professionalism, self-esteem and motivation.

3. Begin structured educational activities as soon as possible in order to mitigate the psychosocial impact of the emergency on children and youth.

- Provide a safe place for educational and recreational activities and ensure that these activities are available for everyone in the community, especially girls and minority groups.
- Take steps to re-establish regular patterns of life for the learners.

4. In protracted emergencies, support parents, families and communities with activities to address stress.

- Support community efforts to re-establish schools.
- Consider providing cultural, social and sporting activities.

5. Establish programmes that focus on longer-term concepts of justice, peace and democracy.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.6, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'.)

6. Support good teaching and learning practices.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'.)

- Encourage educators to plan lessons with clear learning objectives.
- Provide students with frequent breaks.
- Instruct teachers not to beat or punish the learners.
- Provide training in and encourage teachers to use teaching aids and participatory teaching methods.



PSYCHOSOCIAL TRAINING IN TIMOR-LESTE

In Timor-Leste, experts from UNICEF, Community and Family Services International, the University of Indonesia and the Child Protection Institute produced a training package and manual on basic psychosocial support. Training included information on the importance of psychosocial support for children, discussion on the culture of East Timor and psychosocial implications, as well as skill development on identification of children with special needs. Additionally, topics such as communication with children, helping children in need of protection and the process of mourning were included (Jiyono, 2000: 8). There was little effort to address teachers' psychosocial needs and, according to one NGO worker there at the time, "teachers' emotional trauma sometimes interfered with their ability to provide a safe emotional and physical space for teaching and relationships with children". Teachers in the camp schools received introductory training in psychosocial counselling, and were supported to better identify students who may have had mental problems due to the crisis.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 65–66).

7. Incorporate training in the psychosocial impact of the conflict with pedagogical training.

- Provide pedagogical training for teachers.
 - In some instances, trained teachers may be hesitant to attend pedagogical training as they feel they have already been sufficiently trained. In this case, training on the impact of conflict can be structured as a new subject to attract their attendance.
 - Include participatory teaching methods, such as questioning strategies, and group work.
 - Emphasize why using good teaching methods is particularly important in areas of conflict.
- Train educators to identify psychosocial stress and trauma, and provide them with strategies to assist the learners. Teachers,

however, should not be overburdened with responsibility in this area, as they themselves may also be traumatized. They should not be expected to assume responsibility, beyond the identification of troubled children, for an area in which they are not specialized, or qualified.

- Provide educators, parents and community leaders with an orientation to the possible impacts of conflict, and how to identify them.

8. Put a referral system into place.

- Some learners may need support and assistance from mental health professionals.
- Train educators to screen learners so that they can refer specific learners for more assistance.
- Provide referral mechanisms for students who need individual assistance and clearly communicate these to educators. Possible referrals include:
 - School counsellors.
 - Traditional healers.
 - Mental health professionals.
 - Existing local mental health and social services.
- Ensure that system(s) have been put in place to respect the privacy of the individual who is referred.
 - Are specialized services or times available for women, girls, and youth to access services confidentially?
 - Are services offered in the appropriate languages by professionals of the appropriate gender and ethnicity?
- Determine what hinders access to local services.
 - Distance?
 - Lack of money?
 - IDP or refugee status?
- The implementation of a three-stage system of referral may be useful:

- Teachers are trained in trauma-symptom recognition. Confidential reports may go to the head-teacher of the school.
- The head-teacher should then take responsibility for the referral of at-risk children to a context in which play and social interaction can take place, animated, supervised and observed by trained, experienced psychologists.
- The psychologists may initiate referral of very severely traumatized children for therapy with psychiatrists if necessary.

9. Support the physical and psychosocial needs of educators and learners.

- Encourage teachers to support each other and to discuss among themselves strategies for assisting students.
- Determine the causes of stress for educators and learners. Educational authorities should either address these causes of stress or find organizations that are willing to assist.
 - Security?
 - Lack of basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing?
- Determine whether educators feel confident in providing psychosocial support.
 - Are regular meetings held so that educators can discuss how psychosocial support is given within the schools?
- Are communities supported to re-establish schools? Cultural and social activities? Sports?

10. Monitor the success of any psychosocial programmes.

Establish methods for measuring the ‘success’ of psychosocial programmes, e.g. decrease in symptoms, etc. For details of approaches that may be adopted, see Duncan and Arntson (2004).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Symptoms of distress

Children from different age groups react to stressful experiences in different ways. Generally speaking, symptoms of distress can include the following:

AGE GROUP	POSSIBLE SYMPTOMS
<p>VERY YOUNG CHILDREN (0–5 years)</p> <p><i>Not able to rationalize what is happening around them and not able to understand the concept of death, equating it with separation.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anxious clinging to caregivers • Temper tantrums • Regression, e.g. in speech development • Fear of going to sleep • Nightmares and night terrors • Excessive fear of real or imagined things, e.g., thunder, monsters
<p>YOUNG CHILDREN (6–12 years)</p> <p><i>Can recall and rationalize events in a more logical way. They will often use fantasy to deal with a stressful event, e.g. re-enacting or imagining a different outcome. They are more prone to feelings of guilt that they have not prevented bad things from happening.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor concentration, restlessness or bad behaviour in school • Anxious behaviour including hyperactivity, stuttering and eating problems • Psychosomatic complaints, e.g. headaches, stomach pains • Behavioural change, becoming aggressive or withdrawn and passive • Sleeping problems • Regression – acting like a younger child
<p>ADOLESCENTS (13–16 years)</p> <p><i>Have a good understanding of what has happened and also what the consequences might be. They are dealing with the emotional and physical changes of adolescence as well as coping with events and experiences related to the emergency.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-destructiveness and rebelliousness, e.g. drug-taking, stealing • Withdrawal – cautious of others and fearful of the future • Anxiety, nervousness • Psychosomatic complaints

Source: Nicolai (2003b), adapted from Macksoud (1993).

2. Best practices in providing psychosocial support

The best practices in providing psychosocial support to children through education are often reminiscent of effective classroom practices in general.

CHILDREN'S NEEDS	POSSIBLE PSYCHOSOCIAL INTERVENTIONS
A SENSE OF BELONGING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish an educational structure where children feel included. • Promote the restoration of cultural, traditional practices of childcare.
RELATIONSHIPS WITH PEERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide a dependable, interactive routine, through school or other organized educational activity. • Offer group and team activities (i.e. sports, drama, etc.) that require cooperation and dependence on one another.
PERSONAL ATTACHMENTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enlist teachers who can bond with children. • Provide opportunities for social integration and unity by teaching and showing respect for all cultural values, regardless of difference.
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhance child development by providing a variety of experiences.
PHYSICAL STIMULATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage recreational and creative activities, both traditional and new, through games, sports, music, dance, etc.
TO FEEL VALUED	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create opportunities for expression through group discussions, drawing, writing, drama, etc., which promote self-confidence. • Recognize, encourage and praise children.

Source: International Rescue Committee (2003).

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GUIDEBOOK for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction

SECTION 4 CURRICULUM AND LEARNING



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this review do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or the IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

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NOTE ON *GUIDEBOOK* UPDATE

This *Guidebook* was updated in 2010 to reflect some of the recent trends emerging in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction. As noted in the “Introduction”, there have been some positive developments in terms of engagement of the international donor community in this topic. Consequently the *Guidebook* has been updated to reflect some of these changes, along with an updated list of tools and resources for all chapters.

The following chapters have been revised:

- 2.3 Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion
- 2.4 Children with disabilities
- 2.6 Learning spaces and school facilities
- 2.10 Early childhood development
- 4.3 HIV prevention education
- 5.11 Coordination and communication

The following new chapters have been added:

- 1.2 Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster
- 2.8 Technology

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FOREWORD

UNESCO is increasingly requested to provide an educational response in emergency and reconstruction settings. The organization is in the process of developing expertise in this field in order to be able to provide prompt and relevant assistance. It will offer guidance, practical tools and specific training for education policy-makers, officials and planners.

The fifth of the eleven objectives adopted by the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 explicitly focuses on the rights of children in emergencies. It stresses the importance of meeting “... the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct[ing] educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict”. The *Dakar Framework for Action* calls for national Education for All plans to include provision for education in emergency situations. Governments, particularly education ministries, have an important role to play in an area that has often been dominated by the actions of NGOs and United Nations agencies.

Moreover, the field of educational planning in emergencies and reconstruction is still young. It has to be organized into a manageable discipline, through further documentation and analysis, before training programmes can be designed. All the more so since accumulated institutional memories and knowledge in governments, agencies and NGOs working on education in emergencies, are in danger of being lost due both to the dispersion and disappearance of documents, and to high staff turnover in both national and international contexts. Most of the expertise is still in the heads of practitioners and needs to be collected, since memories fade fast. Diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must now be more thoroughly documented and analyzed before they disappear.

The International Institute for Educational Planning's (UNESCO-IIEP) larger programme on education in emergencies and reconstruction involves not only this *Guidebook*, but also a series of country specific

analyses. They concern the restoration of education systems in countries as diverse as Burundi, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sudan and Timor-Leste. In addition, IIEP is producing global thematic policy-related studies on issues such as coordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide range of studies to build the knowledge needed. The broader task includes the publication and dissemination of the *Guidebook* for education officials and the agencies assisting them, and developing training materials for a similar audience. Details of the objectives of the *Guidebook's* publication may be found in *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction'.

Through this programme, IIEP will make its contribution to the discipline of education in emergencies and reconstruction. Its hope is to enrich the quality of the planning and management applied in this crucial field.

Khalil Mahshi
Director a.i., IIEP

IIEP'S MISSION

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* helps the International Institute for Educational Planning accomplish its mission of *strengthening the national capacities* of UNESCO Member States in the fields of policy-making, educational planning and administration. The Institute pursues this mission by carrying out four complementary functions:

- The *training* of national senior educational personnel and teaching staffs and institutions.
- *Research* and studies pertaining to educational policy-making, planning and administration.
- The *dissemination* of the results of its work (publications, research workshops, policy forums) among policy-makers, civil servants, research workers, administrators and representatives of educational cooperation agencies.
- *Operational support* to specific countries, as well as advisory services to agencies, based on requests.

Above all, the *Guidebook* will contribute to IIEP's endeavours to coordinate existing knowledge and experience gained on this subject, and to promote research into new concepts and methods of educational planning likely to further economic and social development.

INTRODUCTION TO THE **GUIDEBOOK**

Access to education is a fundamental tool for child protection. Education inherently provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. In appropriate security conditions, physical protection may be enhanced by the provision of adult supervision and a safe place to learn and play. Psychosocial protection is offered through opportunities for self-expression, the expansion of social networks and access to structure and regular routines. By placing children in the social role of learners, education gives children a sense of purpose and self-worth. Finally, education contributes to the cognitive protection of children affected by conflict or crises by addressing specific living conditions that arise from conflict (landmine awareness, health issues), strengthening children’s analytical abilities, and giving children the tools they need to develop skills for citizenship and life in peace. Education saves lives; education sustains life. It is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises.

This Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction aims to support educational authorities in providing equal access to education of quality for children affected by conflict or disaster.

THE READER

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* (hereafter referred to as the *Guidebook*) is addressed primarily to staff of ministries of education, including national, provincial and district level planners and managers, in countries affected by conflict or natural disasters, or hosting

refugees from a neighbouring state. This is the first time that detailed guidance on planning education in emergencies and reconstruction has been prepared specifically from this perspective.

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of UN organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in support of ministries to promote education for emergency-affected populations. Staff of those agencies will benefit from a fuller awareness of the ways in which they can strengthen national capacities for planning and management of education in and after periods of emergency.

In many countries, some aspects of education are covered by ministries, educational authorities or organizations other than the Ministry of Education. There may be a separate Ministry of Higher Education, for example. There may also be educational programmes for youth and persons with disabilities, or specific programmes that target gender inequity that are overseen by other ministries. Moreover, ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Agriculture or the Ministry of Labour will be important partners for the Ministry of Education. These partners can help to determine whether the output of the education system actually corresponds with the needs in the labour market. Experts from these sectors may also be important sources of information in the drafting of education plans, curriculum reforms or teachers' conditions of service. In this *Guidebook*, however, for brevity we shall refer to the Ministry of Education as shorthand for all ministries handling education matters.

In many situations of emergency and reconstruction, external agencies assume responsibility for a smaller or larger part of the

education system. In some situations, the government simply may not have control on the ground. Here, the *Guidebook* refers to the ‘authority’ responsible for education in those areas. The reader may make the necessary adjustments to take account of this fact in countries where education is covered by multiple ministries or authorities, or by different non-state actors.

EACH SITUATION IS DIFFERENT

The *Guidebook* presents examples of the problems faced in different kinds of emergencies, and suggests policy options and strategies that have been found useful in such situations (see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 1.3, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’, for information on the typology used: different types and phases of emergencies and different population groups). It must be stressed, however, that each emergency situation is different: each conflict or disaster takes its own particular trajectory, carries its own history and affects a particular country or countries differently depending on specific traditions in the field of education and culture, and specific economic and social problems and possibilities. The suggestions offered in the *Guidebook* thus constitute a checklist of points to consider. The *Guidebook* should not be considered a universally applicable model of activities to be undertaken, nor is it a static document. Care must always be taken to adjust the strategies and suggestions with regard to the local situation.

STRUCTURE OF THE *GUIDEBOOK*

This *Guidebook* is organized in five sections – one introductory section and four thematic sections:

- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners
- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

The first section provides an introduction and overview to the *Guidebook* and planning education in emergencies and reconstruction. The last four sections of the *Guidebook* cover a comprehensive range of topics relevant to education in emergencies and reconstruction. Every section consists of several chapters pertaining to the theme of the section. Each chapter starts with an overview of the context and the factors that influence educational response in relation to that topic: context and challenges. Next, each *Guidebook* chapter provides suggestions regarding possible strategies – actions that may be taken by the educational authorities to deal with these problems. In some cases, it is the educational authorities themselves that will be the education providers, while in other instances the main role of the educational authorities will be to coordinate and facilitate the work of other education providers.

Following the suggested strategies, in most chapters there is a list of ‘Tools and resources’ that can be utilized when implementing some of the suggested strategies. ‘Tools and resources’ contain an explanation of important concepts, action check-lists and a wide variety of tools used in planning and managing education. In each chapter, there are a number of useful case studies of how different countries have addressed the challenges under discussion.

Each chapter ends with a list of references and suggestions for further reading.

The *Guidebook* is presented in five spiral-bound booklets, alongside a CD-Rom version that contains all five sections of the *Guidebook*. Each of the booklets covers one of the sections, which permits users to refer to particular themes as they relate to the provision of education in emergencies. There are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, allowing readers to benefit from the linkages between topics.

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION 4

This section discusses curriculum and learning during emergencies and reconstruction. *Chapter 4.1*, 'Curriculum content and review processes', focuses on the broad objectives of a national process of curriculum change and on the fact that the revised curriculum strategy and design advances the achievement of those objectives. Additionally, this chapter seeks to ensure that textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids do not contribute to or exacerbate the conflict, and it also introduces teaching of life skills, to protect children in situations of emergency and reconstruction.

Chapters 4.2 to 4.5 focus on various aspects of curriculum and learning pertaining to the health, safety and well-being of students and teachers, including: health and hygiene education, HIV prevention education, environmental education and landmine awareness. *Chapter 4.6*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship', discusses how to help learners develop constructive non-violent behaviours, including cooperation, peaceful approaches to resolution of problems, respect for human rights and responsibilities, and active democratic citizenship.

Chapter 4.7, 'Vocational education and training', explores providing opportunities to conflict-affected people to learn technical and vocational skills that are relevant to current and future employment opportunities. This section concludes with *Chapter 4.8*, 'Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids', which looks at ways to provide quality materials to all teachers and learners in emergency contexts.

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CURRICULUM CONTENT AND REVIEW PROCESSES

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To contribute to common understanding of the broad objectives of a national process of curriculum change.**
- **To ensure that the curriculum strategy/ design advances the achievement of those objectives.**
- **To ensure that textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids do not contribute to or exacerbate conflict.**
- **As necessary, to introduce teaching of life skills, to protect children in situations of emergency and reconstruction.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

There is no single definition of 'curriculum'. The narrower definitions focus on learning content as defined by syllabi, which are translated into textbooks and other learning materials. The broader definitions include all desired learning experiences within the school environment including those not defined in the official curriculum (often called the 'hidden curriculum').¹

1. In many countries, there is an examination-oriented syllabus for the schools, serving as a framework for national textbooks prepared by the ministry of education. This is often referred to loosely as the 'curriculum', although many specialists consider that a curriculum should include a broader definition of the aims and methodology of the education process.

In general, the term ‘curriculum’ should be taken to mean ‘the organization of sequences of learning experiences in view of producing desired learning outcomes’ (Tawil and Harley, 2004: 17). It represents a ‘guide for teachers to plan the activities for an academic year and prepare individual lessons’ (INEE, 2003). The curriculum may be expressed in a series of documents including ‘legislative decrees, policy documents, curriculum frameworks or guidelines, standards frameworks, syllabi, textbooks and other instructional materials’ (Tawil and Harley, 2004: 17).

In situations of armed conflict, the education system, while perhaps not the root of the conflict, can often be manipulated to reflect a particular or dominant national view, which may have a significantly divisive impact on a society. In this way, the curriculum can play a contributing role in the conflict. Likewise, adjustments to the curriculum can help a society’s healing process.

Civil conflicts are rooted in power relations between two or more groups based on ethnicity, religion, or political affiliation. The dominant group will likely have control over the curriculum and its presentation of the ‘other.’ This may preclude the use of the curriculum (or sections of it) by the ‘other’ as well as create the possibility of increased tensions and exacerbating conflict within a country.

The process of curriculum review and renewal typically takes place in the post-conflict situation, when a new beginning is sought, often by a newly constituted government. It can also be undertaken on a preventive basis, if there are tensions in civil society. Another situation where curricula are reviewed is in refugee camps, where decisions have to be made regarding studies within refugee schools.

An initial rapid assessment of the syllabus (which is often limited to a review of textbooks) is necessary both to identify areas of strength to build on and areas that may be particularly susceptible to manipulation. The initial review represents the first step in a long-term and ongoing process of review and revision of all the components of curriculum – the content, methodology, democratization of the classroom and the school system philosophy (especially in view of girls’ education and corporal punishment) that will be updated.

A first priority, during the initial review, is simply to remove potentially divisive elements (e.g. negative depiction of a particular ethnic/political/religious group) until a thorough curriculum review and revision strategy can be conducted. This may make it easier to insert important non-traditional topics into the learning process, such as health and hygiene education, HIV/AIDS prevention, education for peace, human rights and citizenship, and environmental and landmine awareness (see the *Guidebook, Chapters 4.2 to 4.6* for more information on these subject matters). Their integration and inclusion may:

- Become part of the longer-term vision for the country’s curriculum.
- Be a life-saving measure in some circumstances.

In situations of both armed conflict and natural disaster, the curriculum can play a vital role in helping address the health and safety needs of children and youth. Messages such as proper treatment of contaminated water and landmine awareness can be life saving if quickly incorporated into teaching and learning materials. The objective of introducing such new areas is to create behaviour change that protects children. This may involve experiential and active learning, and may necessitate immediate training and re-training of at least some teachers so



PREVENTATIVE MEASURES FOR EARTHQUAKES: THE USE OF DIFFERENT MEDIA IN TURKEY

Shortly after the Kocaeli and Düzce earthquakes, Bosphorus University Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute signed a protocol with the Ministry of Education to provide earthquake preparedness education for schools. Professor Isikara embarked upon an extensive yearlong tour throughout the country, bringing earthquake education to schoolchildren in 29 provinces.

The first books for young children about earthquakes were published with the support of Professor Isikara and Kandilli. One of these, for pre-school children, was sponsored by the Mother Child Education Foundation and featured popular singer Barış Manço; the title of the book, *Getting ready for earthquakes with Barış*, was a play on the singer's name, which means 'peace'. The second book, *Restless earth*, was aimed at early elementary school children.

Simultaneously, a small American non-governmental organization, American Friends Service Committee (AFSC), provided community disaster preparedness for basic disaster awareness, e.g. the 'Earthquake hazard hunt' and the 'Family disaster plan'. These documents were designed to be distributed on a single double-sided sheet of paper. The design deliberately focused on a simple, consistent message, and two worksheets that required individual and family action.

AFSC partnered with CNN Turk in the production of 12 five-minute interstitial segments entitled 'Five minutes for life', which was prepared for the first anniversary of the earthquake. Later this series would be adapted for presentation on a CD-ROM, with individual segments separately accessed and with accompanying fact sheets.

The Suadiye Rotary Club and a commercial animation studio co-operated to produce a three-part cartoon series entitled 'Uncle Quake and Nature', which was released to the delight of children and educators.

Source: Petal *et al.* (2004).

that these messages and the experiential learning framework can be implemented into the schools in the minimum time. In order to ensure the effectiveness of a revised curriculum all teachers should be trained in experiential learning techniques in a timely fashion, which will require more resources and technical inputs to support and sustain this change over time. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*.)

In post-conflict reconstruction, curricular change may be sought due to perceived social, political and educational needs for:

- Updating of syllabus content – greater modernity and accuracy.
- Pedagogical improvement – e.g. making the curriculum and learning methodologies more learner-centred.
- Relevance – making the curriculum more responsive to the circumstances in the country, which have changed as a result of the conflict.
- Reconciliation between formerly (or even still) antagonistic political, ethnic, religious or other social groups.
- Social cohesion, which may involve movement from exclusive to more inclusive definitions of national and group identity, involving increased respect for human dignity and diversity.

After conflicts, societies often redefine, or define for the first time, the meaning of national identities, citizenship and shared destiny. They examine the content of collective memory. They face crucial questions over who has the right to take such decisions, on what basis and how, with what type, breadth and intensity of consultation. In such essentially political processes of national self-examination, the school curriculum can be the most important contested terrain (Tawil and Harley, 2004: 25-26).

In post-conflict reconstruction, three major demands are placed upon those involved in the curriculum development process (Tawil and Harley, 2004: 26):

1. To become aware of, and acknowledge the role that the curriculum may have played as a contributing factor to violent conflict in the past.
2. To deal with the legacy of violent conflict, by incorporating reconciliation and peace-building approaches and practices.
3. To help prevent any further outbreak of violent conflict, by promoting tolerance and an inclusive set of values.

The major difference in an emergency or post-conflict situation is that the crisis often provides a critical opportunity for educational authorities to examine the curriculum and revise it, or develop a broad curriculum philosophy in keeping with the country's recent experiences. The box below shows an example developed by the Rwandan Ministry of Education in 1996. Such a long-term vision allows educational authorities to make deletions or add elements to the curriculum that are seen as reinforcing the overall mission.

Thorough curriculum review processes require resources, as well as a national commitment to the process, legitimate national educational authorities, expertise in curriculum development processes and curriculum writing, capacity building for staff, and sufficient time to undertake reform. Successful curriculum review processes need to be inclusive, incorporating multiple groups and perspectives, which can sometimes present difficulties. Support may be needed from international organizations to ensure effective and inclusive curriculum review.

RWANDAN MINISTRY OF EDUCATION STATEMENT OF CURRICULUM GOALS

- To prepare a citizen who is free from ethnic, regional, religious and sex discrimination.
- To prepare a citizen who is aware of human rights and responsible to society.
- To promote a culture of peace and emphasize national and universal values such as justice, peace, tolerance, solidarity and democracy.
- To promote a culture based on genuine Rwandese culture, free from violence.
- To promote freedom of formulation and expression of opinion.

Source: Obura (2003: 94).

Existing textbooks and educational materials may include stereotypes of different groups in a society. Such text and images may fuel conflict and reinforce the stereotypes. They may also affect some children's access to or willingness to attend school where such materials are in use. Where curricula and textbooks are not in an international language, it may be difficult to organize a quick review to eliminate bias, since editors may themselves be unconsciously biased.

The skills associated with peace education, reconciliation and active citizenship, as well as health and HIV and AIDS prevention should be added to the curriculum. This will require the organization of special training and support for selected teachers as well as finding extra time in the usually overcrowded school timetable (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*).

Political pressure for immediate action on curriculum and textbooks needs to be counterbalanced by a realization that a thorough renewal of curriculum and the production and testing of a new generation of textbooks, followed by training of teachers and phased introduction, takes at least five years.



TEXTBOOK USE IN TIMOR-LESTE DURING TRANSITION

“To select student learning materials and textbooks, a committee of around 70 teachers met in early 2000 under the guidance of UNTAET’s [the UN Transitional Authority in East Timor’s] Division of Education. Because it had been agreed that Bahasa Indonesian materials would be used as a transitional measure, samples of various Indonesian textbooks were shipped in to be considered. This committee recommended a set that required only minimal changes to their original versions and marked text to be cut.” The procurement of textbooks included:

- **Indonesian textbooks.** Purchased from Indonesian publishers, photos of East Timorese children were put on the covers of these books, a preface by CNRT leader and future president Xanana Gusmão was added, and controversial texts around history and national identity were removed.
- **Portuguese textbooks.** Portuguese books were purchased for grades 1 and 2 in the subjects of language, mathematics, and social and physical studies. For grades 3 to 6 and all secondary school grades, language books were purchased.
- **Picture books.** For grade 1, picture books were purchased to help build communication skills. Sourced from Finland, these were wordless books used to encourage discussion in the mother tongue or facilitate second language teaching.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 110).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Curriculum content and review processes

- 1. Initiate a rapid review of curriculum and textbooks to remove elements that may fuel conflict.**
- 2. Conduct a curriculum and textbook analysis.**
- 3. In refugee operations, consult with refugee educators and leaders regarding the curriculum that will help them prepare for voluntary repatriation and reintegration.**
- 4. Prepare a programme of action for renewal of the curriculum framework, syllabi and textbooks, through a consultative process involving all stakeholders.**
- 5. In post-conflict situations, consider including in the national curriculum framework objectives for behavioural skills, and concepts and values development that support peace, human rights and active citizenship.**
- 6. Assemble expert groups to review the key content areas of the curriculum.**

Guidance notes

1. Initiate a rapid review of curriculum and textbooks to remove elements that may fuel conflict.

In post-conflict situations, times of refugee return, during prolonged insecurity, for prevention of conflict, or in refugee situations, consider the following (or verify that these items have been considered):

- A quick review to determine the extent to which existing textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids reflect particular or dominant national views that may have a significantly divisive impact on society. Ask the following questions:
 - Do textbooks promote the superiority of one ethnic or religious group over another?
 - Do textbooks contain nationalistic images and calls to young people to ‘fight for their country?’
 - Are contested historical, geographical, literary, religious or civics interpretations being used to politically mobilize conflicting opinions and positions?
- Remove potentially divisive materials from circulation until they can be thoughtfully revised.
- Prioritize less sensitive subject areas such as mathematics and science.
- Introduce or reinforce non-traditional curricular elements such as landmine awareness, health and hygiene, environmental awareness, HIV and AIDS prevention, conflict resolution, etc., that may be critical to children’s health and survival.



SOUTH AFRICAN CURRICULUM TRANSFORMATION

After an evaluation of their current curriculum that presented their “learners as divided and different; inferior and superior”, the South African Ministry of Education decided to develop and implement a new curriculum. Since 1994, this transformation has taken place through the National Qualifications Framework, and has integrated education and training, academic and vocational in order to create an outcomes based education aimed at providing learners with the skills needed to ensure economic prosperity and to contribute to the development of a common citizenship. A specific subcommittee was established with the goal of integrating human rights education into each of the eight learning areas defined by curricula developers. The social sciences learning area statement, for example, “aims at contributing to the development of informed, critical and responsible citizens who are able to participate constructively in a culturally diverse and changing society”.

Source: Surty (2004: 7–10).

2. Conduct a curriculum and textbook analysis.

- Assemble a review team.
 - Ensure that the team represents different groups in society (based on gender, culture, ethnicity, race, political affiliation, etc.). Particularly in the context of civil conflict, a cross-cultural analysis of textbooks or education materials is desirable.
- Determine the phasing of the review.
 - A rapid review may be needed urgently before textbooks are reprinted for the next school year, focusing on the removal of elements that may be offensive or ignite conflict.

- A more detailed review may follow, helping with the formulation of a new curriculum framework and preparing the ground for a new generation of textbooks, updated in terms of subject matter such as science, and promoting peace building, reconciliation and responsible citizenship.
- Determine the review approach.
 - Quantitative: How many times is a term used or how much space is allotted to a particular people or group of the society (gender, class, ethnicity, religion, disability, etc.)? How often are specific countries, topics, groups, etc. mentioned?
 - Qualitative: How are underlying assumptions revealed? What message(s) does the text transmit? What images are conveyed?
 - Combination of quantitative and qualitative: types of texts, modes and perspectives of presentation.
- Develop sensitivity criteria to identify parts of a curriculum that may provoke a reaction from a segment of the population because of their ethnic origin, religion, or social background. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for examples of sensitivity criteria.)
 - Ensure that all members of the assessment team have the same understanding of the different sensitivity criteria.
- Based on the approach and the sensitivity criteria, design a form to be used by the curriculum assessment team. Consider the following when designing the form:
 - In what context are the terms and people placed in the texts? What type of language is used and what potential biases exist?
 - Analyse the contents of the texts for:
 - Factual accuracy/completeness/errors.
 - Up-to-date portrayal of events.



THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEXTBOOKS AND CONFLICT IN SRI LANKA

“UNESCO has recently concluded that the tendency of history textbooks to exalt nationalism and address territorial disputes correlates with the xenophobia and violence found in many countries today. What is taught in history class and how it is taught is highly political and can foster either animosity or peace. A review of the textbooks used in the segregated schools of Sri Lanka in the 1970s and the 1980s, for example, found Sinhalese textbooks scattered with images of Tamils as the historical enemies of the Sinhalese, while celebrating the ethnic heroes who had vanquished Tamils in ethnic wars. Ignoring historical fact, these textbooks tended to portray Sinhalese Buddhists as the only true Sri Lankans, with Tamils, Muslims and Christians seen as non-indigenous and extraneous to Sri Lankan history. This version of national history, according to one commentator, has been deeply divisive in the context of the wider state.”

Source: Bush and Saltarelli (2000: 13).

- Topic selection/emphasis and balance/representativeness.
- Proportion of facts and views/interpretation.

3. In refugee operations, consult with refugee educators and leaders regarding the curriculum that will help them prepare for voluntary repatriation and reintegration.

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section entitled ‘Lessons learned from Rwanda’ for suggestions on curricula preparation.)

- As a minimum, the authorities in the host country should discuss with UNHCR the issue of the curriculum for refugee schools. This should normally be based on the curriculum of the country or area of origin, to facilitate repatriation and reintegration. In prolonged situations, there may be use of the curriculum of the country of asylum, if the language of study is the same. What should be avoided is that refugee children do not learn the language of instruction used in their country or area of origin.
- Authorities may also consider consulting with UNICEF, representatives from the refugee community, proposed education implementing partners and, if feasible, educational authorities from the refugees' country of origin.
- If the refugees will follow their home country curriculum:
 - Are copies of it available?
 - Are there textbooks that match the curriculum? Have teachers and students brought a complete set with them? Can they be obtained from the country of origin?
 - Are there facilities for reproducing the curriculum and textbooks? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.8, 'Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids'*.)
 - Where possible, there should be agreement regarding refugee curriculum with the educational authorities in the home country so that students' learning and achievements are to be recognized. However, this may not be possible if there is hostility or distrust between the refugees and the home government.
- In situations of return and reintegration, consider establishing a coordination mechanism for textbook review, especially when refugees made creative additions to the home-country curriculum when they were in exile.
 - Include representatives from various local contexts.

INCLUSIVE CURRICULUM REVISION PROCESSES IN POST-WAR GUATEMALA

Following the settlement of Guatemala's civil war, a Consultative Commission for Education Reform (CCRE) was established in 1997 to help design educational reforms for the country. The CCRE is a decision-making body with broad representation ... including Mayan organizations, women's organizations, teachers' unions and associations, students, journalists, churches, universities, private education centres and private enterprise.

Source: Salazar Tetzagüic and Grigsby (2004: 123).

- Share lessons learned.
- Consider ways that innovative education materials might be integrated into the official curriculum after repatriation.

4. Prepare a programme of action for renewal of the curriculum framework, syllabi and textbooks, through a consultative process involving all stakeholders.

(See 'Tools and Resources', 'INEE standard on teaching and learning: Curricula' for detailed information about curriculum revision during emergencies.)

Especially following conflict, educational authorities may wish to consider developing a strategy for curriculum renewal.²

2. This guidance note, and the ones that follow, apply to curriculum reform in all societies irrespective of whether the society has experienced conflict. Often, however, curriculum review is an essential element of a society's reconstruction after conflict so these generic steps are offered as a guide for educational authorities considering the implementation of a curriculum review process.

- Who will be responsible for revising the curriculum?
 - Are members of different groups in society (based on gender, culture, ethnicity, race, religious or political affiliation, etc.) represented in the process?
 - Are both subject-matter specialists and experts in pedagogy involved to update the contents and pedagogical aspects of the curriculum and textbooks?
- If some elements of the curriculum are particularly sensitive, is it possible to de-emphasize or suspend their use pending the full curriculum review?
- Which national bodies must authorize changes to the curriculum?
- What aspects of the curriculum will be revised?
 - Mission or values statements regarding the role of education in society.
 - Syllabi – which subjects are taught in each grade and the expected results.
 - Textbooks and learning materials – what is the objective of these? Are they:
 - Sources of information?
 - The only sources of information or do students and teachers have access to multiple resources?
 - Reinforcement for classroom practices?
 - Sources of guidance for development of critical thinking and life skills?
 - Directive models for use in the classroom?
 - Promoters of norms, social rules, etc.?
 - Teaching practices – are current practices in accord with proposed changes to the curriculum? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.4, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*.)
 - Are students encouraged to think critically and consider multiple perspectives or are they encouraged to memorize the facts as presented?

- Consider starting the review process with less controversial subjects such as mathematics and science.
- Does the curriculum review (see notes below on the review of textbooks and key content areas) suggest that one interpretation of priorities or viewpoints has been dominant in the preparation of existing materials?
 - How might a process of consensus work at including multiple interpretations or perspectives into the revised curriculum?
 - Is it likely that multiple resource materials, rather than textbooks, would be more responsive to immediate needs?
- What will be the time schedule, writing and consultative processes for curriculum and textbook renewal?
 - Capacity building for staff and specialists in subject matter and pedagogy.
 - Stakeholder consultations.
 - Preparation of new curriculum framework.
 - Preparation of syllabi and peer review.
 - Drafting and piloting of textbooks.
 - Training of teachers in the new curriculum (and providing copies).
 - Phased introduction of new textbooks into the different years of schooling.
- Will a plan be developed for the distribution of new materials and the collection of old materials? (Unless old materials are replaced, teachers will continue to use them.)

5. In post-conflict situations, consider including in the national curriculum framework objectives for behavioural skills, and concepts and values development that support peace, human rights and active citizenship.

(See the *Guidebook Chapter 4.6*, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’.)

6. Assemble expert groups to review the key content areas of the curriculum.

Note that an outstanding digital library of resource materials for teaching and learning in emergency settings is available on CD-ROM from INEE, the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (2004b). (See also INEE, 2008.)

- History
 - Is the text organized around the systematic recounting of previous conflicts (as opposed, for example, to a focus on national or social achievements)?
 - Are the principal figures or protagonists heroes of previous conflicts or struggles? If so, according to which members of society and relative to what kind of struggle?
 - Is the history of each component group of society represented? Is there stereotyping involved in this representation? How is the ‘other’ treated?
 - Are there different social groups who have expressed a concern about exclusionary or marginal interpretation of their culture in the texts?
 - Is the textbook the only source of information for history classes or do students and teachers have access to multiple resources?
 - Are controversial issues avoided? What methods can be used to bring these issues into the lessons in a balanced and sensitive way?
- Civics/citizenship
 - How is a citizen defined? Does that definition exclude any social groups?
 - Is citizenship infused through all subjects (history and geography in particular)?

- Does the curriculum highlight what citizens of the country have in common, such as their shared objectives and experiences, so as to create a common ground? This will be necessary for the construction of a strong bond between civil society and the state.
- Does the civics/citizenship curriculum provide for the students to discuss and practice key skills and values such as gender equity, tolerance, respect for human rights and humanitarian norms, conflict resolution and reconciliation, service to the community and especially vulnerable groups and environmental protection? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.6*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship', and *Chapter 1.2*, 'Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster'.)
- Geography
 - Are place names, regions, etc. linked to contested historical events and/or borders?
 - At the secondary level, does the geography syllabus cover themes such as environmental management and economic and social development, or is it restricted to descriptive place geography?
- Language/literature
 - What is the language of instruction?
 - Does instruction take place in the students' mother tongue or the official or national language?
 - Is there a progression from instruction in mother-tongue languages in the early grades to the official/national language in later grades?
 - Does the use of one language exclude certain social groups from the education process?
 - What is the status of minority languages in the curriculum? Can pupils study them as elective subjects?

- Are sufficient quantities of textbooks and other learning materials available in the pupils’ mother tongues?
- In what language are official examinations given? How does this affect children’s ability to take and pass examinations?
- Can pupils study international languages, such as English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Russian, Chinese or Portuguese?
- Does the language used in the texts convey certain biases, such as the use of words such as ‘rebels’ or ‘terrorists’ to describe certain groups, or make armed conflict seem glorious?
- Is the selection of literature biased *vis-à-vis* the cultural specificities of the population? Are selected authors all members of the dominant social class or do they represent the social diversity of the population?
- Does the thematic content tend to reinforce stereotypes and grievances negatively?
- Does the literature reflect a local, regional, or global context (i.e. narrowly exclusive or broadly inclusive)? Does it foster international and intercultural understanding?
- Culture
 - Do the cultural heritage and traditions of one group dominate the curriculum?
 - Are cultural references and illustrations for the various ethnic groups equally represented in textbooks, in respectful ways?
 - Are the art forms, music and literature of all groups represented?
 - Is there positive coverage of women and men, girls and boys?
- Religion
 - Are or were religious affiliations mobilized as part of the conflict? If so, it may be useful to de-emphasize religious elements of the curriculum initially.

- Is religion included in the curriculum only as religious education (that is, educating children in a particular faith)? Does the curriculum include a ‘world religions’ component to explain others’ beliefs?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for teaching and learning³

Standard 1: Curricula

Culturally, socially and linguistically relevant curricula are used to provide formal and non-formal education, appropriate to the particular emergency situation.

Key indicators

- Existing curricula are reviewed for appropriateness to the age or developmental level, language, culture, capacities and needs of the learners affected by the emergency. Curricula are used, adapted or enriched as necessary.
- Where curriculum development or adaptation is required, it is conducted with the meaningful participation of stakeholders and considers the best interests and needs of the learners.
- Curricula address life skills, literacy, numeracy and core competencies of basic education relevant to given stages of an emergency.

3. Source: INEE (2004a: 69).

- Curricula address the psychosocial well-being needs of teachers and learners in order for them to be better able to cope with life during and after the emergency.
- Learning content, materials and instruction are provided in the language(s) of the learners and the teachers, especially in the early years of learning.
- Curricula and methods of instruction respond to the current needs of learners and promote future learning opportunities.
- Curricula and instructional materials are gender-sensitive, recognize diversity and promote respect for learners.
- Sufficient teaching and learning materials are provided, as needed, in a timely manner to support relevant education activities. Preference is given to locally available materials for sustainability.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

1. **Curriculum.** A curriculum may be defined as a plan of action to help learners broaden their knowledge and skill base. For the purposes of the minimum standards, ‘curriculum’ is used as an umbrella term that applies to both formal and non-formal education programmes. It includes learning objectives, learning content, teaching methodologies and techniques, instructional materials and methods of assessment. Both formal and non-formal education programmes should be guided by a curriculum that builds on learners’ knowledge and experience, and is relevant to the immediate environment. For the minimum standards, the following definitions are used:

- *Learning objectives* identify the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that will be developed through the education activities.
- *Learning content* is the material (knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) to be studied or learned.
- *Teaching methodology* refers to the approach chosen for, and used in, the presentation of learning content.
- *Teaching technique* or approach is a component of methodology and constitutes the process used to carry out the overall methodology.
- *Instructional material* refers to books, posters and other teaching and learning materials.

Relevant formal and non-formal education curricula should have quality learning content that is gender-sensitive, appropriate to the level of learning and is in the language(s) that both learners and teachers understand. Participatory methodologies should also be part of the curricula, to encourage learners to take a more active role in their learning.

- 2. Age-appropriate and developmental levels.** Curricula should be examined to ensure that they are not only age-appropriate, but also that the developmental level is compatible with learners' progress. Age and developmental levels may vary widely within both non-formal and formal education programmes in emergencies, requiring an adaptation of curricula and methods. The term 'age-appropriate' refers to chronological age range, while 'developmentally appropriate' refers to the learners' actual needs and cognitive development.
- 3. Curriculum development.** This can be a long and difficult process but, in emergencies, curricula are often adapted from either the host country, the country of origin or other

emergency settings. It is important to ensure that both formal and non-formal rapid start-up curricula consider the special needs of all learners, including children associated with fighting forces (CAFF), girls, learners over-aged for their grade level, school dropouts and adult learners. It is equally important to ensure that stakeholders are actively involved in the design of curricula, as well as the periodic review of education programmes. A range of actors may be consulted, including learners, community members, teachers, facilitators, educational authorities and programme managers, among others.

Where formal education programmes are being established during or after emergencies, preference should be given to using, and if necessary adapting and enriching, recognized primary and secondary school curricula. For formal education programmes for refugees, it is preferable to adopt the curricula of the country of origin to facilitate voluntary repatriation, although this is not always possible or appropriate. Refugee and host country perspectives should be fully considered in these decisions.

Ideally, in longer-term refugee situations, curricula need to 'face both ways' and be acceptable in both the country of origin and the host country. This requires substantial regional and inter-agency coordination to harmonize educational activities and refugee caseloads in different countries. Specific issues to be decided include language competencies and recognition of examination results for certification.

- 4. Appropriate instructional methodologies.** These should be developed and tailored to suit the context, needs, age and capacities of learners. Implementation of new methodologies during the initial stages of an emergency may be stressful

for experienced teachers, as well as learners, parents and community members, who could perceive this as too much change and too fast. Education in emergencies or in early reconstruction should offer teachers in a formal education setting an opportunity for change, but transition to more participatory or learner-friendly methods of instruction must be introduced with care and sensitivity. With non-formal education interventions, learner-centred approaches may be introduced more quickly through the training of volunteers, animators and facilitators.

5. **Core competencies.** These should be identified prior to the development or adaptation of learning content or teacher training materials. Beyond functional literacy and numeracy, ‘core competencies of basic education’ refers to the essential knowledge, skills, attitudes and practice required by learners in an emergency-affected population to participate actively and meaningfully as members of their community or country.
6. **The psychosocial needs and development of learners.** As well as education personnel, these must be considered and addressed at all stages of an emergency, including crisis and recovery. All education personnel, formal and non-formal, should be trained in recognizing signs of distress in learners, and steps taken to address and respond to this behaviour in the learning environment. Referral mechanisms should be clearly outlined for education personnel to provide additional support to learners who exhibit severe distress. Teaching methods for child and youth populations who have been exposed to trauma should include predictable structure, shorter learning periods to build concentration, positive disciplinary methods, involvement of all students in learning activities, and cooperative games.

The psychosocial needs of education personnel will also need to be considered, as personnel are often drawn from the affected population, and face the same stressors or trauma as learners. Training, monitoring and follow-up support should clearly consider these factors.

7. Language. It is not uncommon for asylum countries to insist that refugee education programmes comply with their standards, including the use of their own language(s) and curricula. However, it is important to consider the future of the learners, especially those who wish to continue their studies after the emergency. Humanitarian actors should strongly encourage host governments to permit refugees to study in their home or national language(s). If this is allowed, all significant learning content, teacher guides, student texts and other written and audio-visual materials not in the home language of the learners and teachers will need to be translated into the language of instruction. If this is not allowed, supplementary classes and activities in the language of the learners should be developed.

8. Learning content and key concepts. When determining learning content, consideration should be given to the knowledge, skills and language(s) useful for learners at each stage of an emergency and those skills that would enhance their capacity to lead independent, productive lives both during and after the emergency and to be able to continue to access learning opportunities.

Appropriate learning content and key concepts should draw on the following:

- Skills-based health education (appropriate to age and situation): first aid, reproductive health, sexually transmitted infections, HIV and AIDS.

- Human rights and humanitarian norms; active citizenship; peace education/peace building; non-violence; conflict prevention/management/resolution; child protection; security and safety.
 - Cultural activities, such as music, dance, drama, sports and games.
 - Information necessary for survival in the new environment: landmine and unexploded ordnance awareness, rapid evacuation, and access to services.
 - Child development and adolescence.
 - Livelihood skills and vocational training.
- 9. Diversity.** Diversity should be considered in the design and implementation of educational activities at all stages of an emergency, in particular the inclusion of diverse learners, inclusion of teachers/facilitators from diverse backgrounds and promotion of tolerance and respect. Aspects to consider in encouraging diversity may include, among others, gender, culture, nationality, ethnicity, religion, learning capacity, learners with special education needs, and multi-level and multi-age instruction.
- 10. Locally available materials for learners.** This should be assessed at the onset of an emergency. For refugees, this includes materials from their country or area of origin. Materials should be adapted, developed or procured and made available in sufficient quantities. Monitoring of storage, distribution and usage of all materials is required. Learners should be able to relate to the learning content, and materials should reflect and be respectful of the culture of the learners.

2. Sensitivity criteria

The following is a list of sensitivity criteria that can be used during a textbook review process. The list should be modified, and relevant criteria selected based on the situation. When reviewing textbooks, consider whether there are offensive or stereotyped representations of the groups. Consider also whether there are balanced positive references to males and females and to other groups (as applicable). Does the presentation reinforce existing stereotypes?

- Gender equality.
- Religious affiliations.
- Ethnicity (understood as the mutually agreed upon identity of a social group).
- Minority/majority groups.
- Linguistic groups.
- Socio-economic groups.
- Geographic groups.
- Political groups.
- Street children.
- Persons with disability or HIV and AIDS.

Consider also the need to include examples of positive behaviour modelling skills-based approaches to health and HIV and AIDS prevention; peace, tolerance, respect for diversity; respect for human rights and active citizenship; respect for the environment.

Textbooks should be assessed for regional/national/local taboos, such as food taboos, in the depiction of agricultural practices in the science curriculum.

3. Lessons learned from Rwanda

In her case study regarding the reconstruction of the education system in Rwanda, Obura (2003: 98, 106) notes the following lessons learned with regard to the process of curriculum revision:

- Be aware that without teaching materials, syllabuses will not be taught.
- Lighten curricula, if possible, during the emergency and immediately after, so as to concentrate on fundamentals first and to 'clear space' for subsequent curriculum innovation.
- Early on, move from tinkering with syllabuses to curriculum overhaul, and at all times be aware of curriculum balance.
- Be aware that the structure of the education system is as much an item of learning as the syllabus topics. If the aim is to teach equity, schools must practise it through entrance mechanisms, relationships within the school, etc.
- Designate a team of 'curriculum watchers' to monitor and assess the curriculum development process, so that curriculum events as well as decisions can be anticipated and translated into decisions.
- Provide education planners and decision-makers with exposure to innovations and global developments as soon as possible, structuring the process.

With regard to history, in particular

- Within the first twelve months, initiate discussion on history teaching and civic education, knowing that curriculum building will take time in these sensitive but most important subjects.
- When the time is right, assist curriculum developers to go beyond syllabus/topic listings to envisaging the lessons,

to trialling lessons and to developing teachers' guides and theme/topic materials for pupils. Go slowly.

- Keep in mind that moving from the stage of rebuilding national history to producing a pedagogical course needs several intermediate steps.
- Note, in the light of experience, that without teaching materials, teachers will simply not teach difficult or sensitive topics.
- Regularly find ways of assisting the media to disseminate research findings in populist terms, so that constructive and unifying ideas can circulate.

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Chapter **4.2**

HEALTH AND HYGIENE EDUCATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To equip students and teachers to prevent diseases, both for their own well-being and that of their communities.**
- **To change risky health behaviours.**
- **To encourage coordination with relevant health authorities.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

“Thousands of children are killed each year as a direct result of armed conflict and natural disasters. Many more, however, die from the increased rates of malnutrition and disease that typically accompany such emergencies ... The interruption of food supplies, the destruction of crops and agricultural infrastructure, the disintegration of families and communities, the displacement of populations, the disruption of health services, and the breakdown of water and sanitation systems all take a heavy toll on the health and nutrition of children. Many die as a result of severe malnutrition, while others become unable to resist common childhood diseases and infection.”

Source: UNICEF (2001).

In emergencies, primary health care is a priority response in order to avoid death from diseases such as measles, diarrhoea (including dysentery and cholera), acute respiratory infections, malnutrition, malaria (where prevalent) and other illnesses endemic to a region, such as yellow fever or typhoid, in addition to outbreaks of opportunistic diseases such as leptospirosis. Emergency-affected populations are particularly susceptible to these diseases due to their conditions of life: overcrowded spaces, inadequate quantities and quality of water, poor sanitation, inadequate shelter and inadequate food supply (Sphere Project, 2004). In situations where government systems and traditional social networks break down, there is an increased risk of sexually transmitted diseases, as well as an increased incidence of exposure to drugs, alcohol, and cigarettes. Where there is armed conflict, a military force on the move constitutes a health risk to the populations with whom it comes into contact.

Wars bring huge institutional challenges to national health systems. A country's health infrastructure may have been specifically targeted during the crisis, destroyed or severely disrupted. Education service providers such as NGOs may not coordinate their efforts with health-service providers. Depending on the scale of the disaster, international organizations may be present and responding in the health sector. Therefore, educational authorities may need to coordinate health-education efforts with these health providers.

Refugees and IDPs will be unfamiliar with the local context and may not be accustomed to or equipped for local health threats. Therefore, they have less access to adequate health care and a higher morbidity rate than others in the same community. Refugees and IDPs often arrive in poor health due to problems encountered *en route* as well as having inadequate health care

prior to displacement. Refugee camps may not always be situated close to adequate clean water sources, and may be located in endemic disease-affected areas.

Once repatriation is under way, returnees from under-supported refugee or IDP camps may be in poorer general health, due to increased stress, poor hygiene practices in camps, and inadequate access to health care. Children whose families are returning from long-term exile may have less immunity to local diseases and be accustomed to good health care. Establishment of health services in insecure rural areas may be difficult and take time.

Education can play a critical role in supporting the efforts of primary health-care providers by teaching children about healthy behaviours, especially those most relevant to their current situation. Effective skills-based health education has two goals:

1. Children will change their own behaviours and adopt more healthy practices.
2. Children will share the information they learn in school with their parents and siblings, which may result in behaviour changes in their families.

For these reasons, inclusion of health and hygiene messages in the curriculum can be an effective means of transmitting information to a large segment of the emergency-affected population. Educational authorities should coordinate with other officials, such as those responsible for health services or water and sanitation, to ensure that appropriate messages are developed and incorporated into the curriculum. “Overall school health education seeks to help individuals adopt behaviours and create conditions that are conducive to health” (Aldana and Jones, 1999: 17).

Yet educational planners must go beyond awareness raising and ‘passing messages’. Assumptions about children’s capacity or willingness to change their attitudes, values and behaviours, based on ‘messages’ passed in class must be articulated in curriculum development and educational programme design. Similarly, the curriculum and instructional design must make explicit the manner in which children’s listening to messages will be transferred into behavioural change among adult members of their families. This implies understanding of modes of cultural transmission and intra-family communication. *Developing skills* is both more valuable and lasting, and much more difficult than merely passing messages.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Health and hygiene

- 1. Conduct a review of health-education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a joint working group to prepare best practice guidelines for health education providers.**
- 2. Health-education providers should assess health-education needs and develop skills-based health-education curricula/ programmes using the assessment results.**



- 3. Educational authorities and providers should facilitate or conduct health-education campaigns, designed in collaboration with community members and teachers.**
- 4. Consider developing an associated education strategy for security, protection, administrative and other personnel who come into habitual contact with youth.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Conduct a review of health-education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a joint working group to prepare best practice guidelines for health-education providers.**
- Health education is often provided by schools, health services (especially primary health care programmes), youth programmes, women's programmes, etc. Consider:
 - Which organizations are involved in delivering programmes? What health-education programmes are they delivering?
 - How is the education ministry involved?
 - Is it directly involved or in an advisory/consultative capacity with school programmes?

- Is the education ministry involved with non-formal health education for youth and adults?
- Are existing health-education programmes delivered through timetabled curriculum periods for health education?
- Are programmes taught by specially trained teachers or are health programmes included in other elements of the school curriculum?
- To achieve the best results for emergency-affected populations, the educational authorities and organizations providing health education should form a working group to develop health education guidelines and materials suited to local needs, adapting existing materials from the country/countries concerned as well as from international sources.

2. Health education providers should assess health education needs and develop skills-based health-education curricula/programmes using the assessment results.

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for ways to assure health promotion through education.)

- In coordination with health authorities, assess the health needs/issues in the community, and prioritize areas of greatest urgency. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’*.)
 - What are the leading causes of morbidity and mortality within the community?
 - What important health issues are affecting:
 - Younger children?
 - Adolescents?
 - Mothers (particularly lactating mothers and pregnant women)?
 - The elderly?

- Do these health issues have varying impacts on different segments of the population?
- What do health professionals consider to be the priority health issues? What does the community consider to be priority health issues? Are they the same or different?
 - If they are different, what communication mechanisms are necessary to bridge this gap between the health authorities and the population?
 - Such differences indicate areas for particular focus in the design of materials.
- What are the social taboos or other barriers to young people regarding education for reproductive health? Do young people have suggestions for overcoming them?
- Make sure to consider the following key areas:
 - Access to clean drinking water.
 - Waste disposal – including latrines.
 - Nutrition.
 - Drug use.
 - Reproductive health.
 - Immunization.
 - Psychosocial needs (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.5, ‘Psychosocial support to learners’, for additional information.)
 - HIV and AIDS (see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.3, ‘HIV prevention education’).
- Develop skills-based health-education curricula/programmes based on the assessment.
 - What are the behaviours that the health programme seeks to change?
 - What pedagogical techniques, partnerships, and/or other resources will help make behaviour change more realistic?
 - Who are the different target audiences (e.g. primary-age schoolchildren, adolescents, etc.)?



LESSONS LEARNED FROM A HEALTH-EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN GUINEA

In 1994, the International Rescue Committee (IRC) initiated an adolescent health-education programme for Liberian and Sierra Leonean refugees living in the Republic of Guinea. The programme was integrated within IRC's general education programme through the use of formal health-education classes. Additional activities included the formation of voluntary after-school 'health clubs' and young women's social clubs that were involved in promoting positive reproductive and general health practices.

IRC reported that given the chance to repeat the programmes the following changes would be made:

- A needs assessment would be carried out to enable more efficient targeting of activities and messages.
- Programme activities would be initiated earlier after the arrival of the refugees.
- Increased involvement of the programme recipients in programme planning.
- Better monitoring and evaluation of programme activities.
- Increased training for staff.

Source: Pfeiffer (1999).

- How will differences in age, gender, religion and cultural specificity affect the type of information students will require and the way it should be delivered?
- Have health-education materials been developed in the multiple languages present in the community? If this is impractical or too expensive, consider developing clear visual representations, such as posters, or short skits or mimes that do not require language to convey the desired message.



DEVELOPING SCHOOL HEALTH-EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

“School health-education should be a planned, sequential course of instruction from the primary through the secondary levels, addressing the physical, mental, emotional and social dimensions of health. It can be taught as a specific subject, as part of other subjects or as a combination of both.”

Source: Aldana and Jones (1999: 21).

- How can multiple approaches, or a ‘comprehensive approach’ be used to convey the information/skills?
 - Are there implications for teacher training if a different pedagogic style is to be employed?
- Are there sufficient resources available to meet the desired programme design? (For example, if teaching about safe sex, are there sufficient condoms available? If teaching about waste disposal, are there shovels to dig latrines? Is there safe drinking water if the lesson is to be about preventing water-borne illnesses?)
- Have programme designers accessed the existing teaching materials and other educational resources available through national governments and international organizations? These may be used for reference in local materials development, or made available directly to teachers, if appropriate in terms of content and language. See ‘Tools and resources, section 2’ for a list of health-education tools available from the INEE Technical kit (INEE, 2004b).
- Have emerging (or pre-existing) risk factors (such as trafficking or HIV and AIDS) been considered?
- Has the health and hygiene curriculum been developed multi-sectorally?



HEALTH-EDUCATION IN AFGHANISTAN

Under the Taliban regime, Afghanistan had “one of the worst child health records in the world. Because of the urgent health needs of Afghan children and obstacles to working with the Taliban school system, Save the Children focused on out-of-school structured learning activities. A programme of child-focused health education was developed to promote the rights of Afghan children – girls in particular – to health, education and participation. Activities took place both in refugee camps in Pakistan and within Afghanistan itself.

“Volunteer facilitators, supported by local partner organizations, formed children’s groups and took the groups through a series of child-focused health-education modules. Topics included diarrhoea, coughs and colds, worms, hand washing, safe water, and flies. Each module [had] a booklet, cloth flipchart, cloth poster and a carry bag. The modules [took] two to three months to complete. The project emphasized partnerships with NGOs and local authorities in order to deliver education messages ... Since the project began, improvements in children’s health-related behaviour were noted. Children were visibly cleaner in appearance and some children took responsibility for cleanliness within their home environments.”

Source: Nicolai (2003: 43).

- Consider establishing links between health, protection and psychosocial services, education and vocational training, and community-based organizations for young people.
- Pre-test the health-education materials that have been developed.
 - Are there small groups of students who are representative of the larger target audience who can participate in the pre-test?

- Did the pre-test group understand the message conveyed?
- Were combinations of approaches used? Which approaches seemed to be the most effective?
- Were the results from the trial group used to modify and revise the curriculum?
- Was the trial group followed up to determine whether the information had been merely received as opposed to understood and then practised?
- Build flexibility and sensitivity into the programme.
 - Have contingency plans been developed to allow for a rapid education response to sudden epidemic outbreaks? Have the types of diseases that provoke sudden outbreaks been identified (measles is a prime example)?
 - Are there issues that, due to social taboos, would be better discussed separately by male and female students? Are there sufficient teachers available for same sex classes of this kind? In other words, if the topic is sensitive, what can be done about creating a 'safe' or 'secure' environment in which to discuss it? Cooperation in this area could include:
 - Creating opportunities for group discussions.
 - Confidential counselling.
 - Other creative activities for young people to consider reproductive health issues in schools or other places of learning and interaction.
 - Consider setting up a confidential reporting system for young people to report gender-based violence. Ensure that data are continuously monitored and used to inform protection and other services for survivors as well as for education and other prevention efforts.

3. Educational authorities and providers should facilitate or conduct health-education campaigns, designed in collaboration with community members and teachers.

- Education providers should form a committee with representatives of health organizations, community members and teachers to design a health-education campaign.
 - Consider including youth representatives on this committee as peer education has proven to be quite successful in past efforts.
 - Do the committee participants have experience in designing community or school health campaigns? If so, what have they found to be most effective in the past?
 - Are committee members representative of the community in terms of age and social group, language group, gender, ethnicity, etc.?
 - Have young people from the target population and from the surrounding local communities been asked to express their concerns in the development of the curriculum?
 - Does the committee have clear terms of reference?
 - Does the committee have a way of communicating its priorities to funding agencies?
 - Will there be a comprehensive approach including school-based, non-formal and informal health education using multiple channels of communication?
- Consider developing a mechanism for data collection that continues to identify and involve young people, and monitor their health and education needs.
 - Can gaps in the provision of and access to health services be addressed?
 - Does the way in which young people engage in destructive and constructive activities change over time?

- Are young people involved directly in decision-making at all levels and stages of health education and health services policy formation and programme design, implementation, monitoring and follow up?

CHILDREN CAN TAKE ACTION IN DIFFERENT PLACES:		
AT SCHOOL CHILDREN CAN ...	AT HOME CHILDREN CAN ...	IN THE COMMUNITY CHILDREN CAN ...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn together actively • Help and teach their friends • Help and protect younger children • Help to make their surroundings healthy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe and demonstrate what they learn • Help their families with good health practices • Teach and help younger brothers and sisters • Play with children who do not go to school • Keep the home surroundings healthy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pass on messages through plays and songs • Act as messengers and helpers • Participate in health campaigns

Source: UNHCR and Save the Children (2001).

4. Consider developing an associated education strategy for security, protection, administrative, and other personnel who come into habitual contact with youth.

- Are community authorities sensitized to the particular health needs of youth?
- Has it been recognized that threats to young people, including rape and other forms of sexual violence relating to reproductive health, may come from international and local humanitarian and educational staff?

- Have clear guidelines for interaction with adolescents been established and disseminated? Are there mechanisms for reinforcing the guidelines?
- What education programmes are needed in this connection?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Assure health promotion and education

“The promotion of healthy practices and positive behaviour through education takes on added urgency in an emergency. Health-education efforts in the initial emergency phase should be simple, focused and directly related to immediate public health problems. Other health concerns can be part of broader awareness-raising efforts as the situation evolves. Critical initial messages include:

- Proper personal and food hygiene.
- Safe water and hygiene and sanitation practices.
- Measles immunization.
- Oral rehydration therapy.
- Recognition and referral of childhood diseases.
- STD / HIV/AIDS prevention.

Health-education strategies will depend on communication channels and culture-specific means with which information is transmitted and received. Those from within the affected community are usually more effective, especially over outsiders without knowledge of the local culture. It is useful to involve

respected local citizens, such as teachers, religious leaders, traditional healers, or traditional birth attendants (TBAs), who can disseminate health messages through their daily contacts with the community. Female communication agents, including community health workers, should be mobilized to ensure women access to basic health information.”

Source: UNICEF (2001).

2. Tools on health education available from the INEE Technical kit

These tools are available from the INEE Technical kit, which can be ordered by e-mail (coordinator@ineesite.org) or from their website: www.ineesite.org

- HPN, ODI. 2002. *HIV/AIDS and emergencies: analysis and recommendations for practice.*
- IRC. 1999. *Health education curriculum for kindergartens.*
- ISCA. 2002. *HIV and conflict: a double emergency.*
- NIKK. 2002. *Gendering prevention practices – a practical guide to working with gender in sexual safety and HIV/AIDS awareness education.*
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- UNESCO. *Living and learning in a world with HIV/AIDS – HIV/AIDS at school.*
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Source: INEE (2004b).

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Chapter 4.3

HIV PREVENTION EDUCATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To teach learners how to avoid becoming infected with HIV.**
- **To help learners recognize symptoms and to encourage those infected to seek appropriate medical care and counselling.**
- **To teach learners how best to help people living with HIV within their own families and communities.**

CONTEXT

The AIDS pandemic has grown to a global phenomenon over the past three decades. The overwhelming majority of people with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) live in the developing world. In 2008, approximately 334 million people globally were estimated to be living with HIV. As many as 95 per cent of those living with HIV do not know that they carry the virus, which contributes to its rapid spread. Every day, more than 15,000 people are infected with HIV. In 2008 alone, 2 million died in the AIDS epidemic. These results have been devastating in all affected communities. Notably, chronic emergency and disaster-prone countries and regions have been the most directly affected.

“Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for two-thirds of all infected people. South and South-East Asia have the second highest number of infected people” (www.avert.org/worldstatinfo.htm).

Unprotected sexual intercourse and intravenous drug use account for the majority of HIV infections globally. Today, virtually every country in the world is affected by HIV, but 90 per cent of people living with HIV are in the developing world. Women are at particular risk. Lack of awareness and information, poverty and/or intimidation makes it difficult for many, especially women, to request that their partners use condoms during intercourse.

“For every four men infected with HIV, six women are infected. While women and young children are physically more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS, it is now recognized that HIV and AIDS are a wider social and economic issue firmly rooted in power imbalances in gender relations in all social classes. These power imbalances are more acute in resource-poor countries and regions.” (Elliott, 1999.)

There are close relationships between emergency situations, displacement and HIV. In both acute and prolonged emergency situations, as well as in the reconstruction phases, infection rates are likely to increase. At the same time, the loss or disruption of social and health services tend to reduce treatment and support for victims.

In conflict situations, widespread violence and changing front lines are often associated with incidences of mass rape, including systematic rape as a military or terrorist strategy to demoralize opponents. Forced sex is associated with higher HIV infection rates than consensual sex. Soldiers are often poorly informed and/or in denial about the risk of HIV. Moreover, soldiers (both local and international) and the presence of large military camps/



HIV AND AIDS AND NATURAL DISASTERS: THE CASE OF HONDURAS

“Before hurricane Mitch, Honduras had one of Latin America’s highest HIV infection rates, ranking third behind Guyana and Belize. Conservative estimates suggested that some 40,000 people, mainly in the 15–29-year age bracket, were infected ... Mitch had a number of effects on the prevalence of HIV, and on the treatment and support of people with HIV/AIDS. The health infrastructure was severely damaged, while health workers focused predominantly on tackling health problems directly linked with the disaster, such as malarial infections caused by the collapse of sanitation systems. NGOs suspended HIV prevention programmes in favour of providing food, shelter and short-term palliative care. Staff were also called on to participate in national efforts to prevent epidemics.

Mitch also had other effects related to pre-existing social and economic conditions. In its wake, child labour increased and the number of girls and young women involved in sex work grew. Children made homeless and forced onto the streets of the country’s cities were at increased risk of sexual exploitation and violence. Population movements within the country and across its borders increased as people looked further afield for work. Particularly vulnerable groups such as sex workers relocated to areas with high levels of sex tourism, such as San Pedro Sulas, La Ceiba, Comyagua and Tegucigalpa. For women and children, sexual violence has been exacerbated by the pressures of homelessness and relocation to new and unfamiliar areas.”

Source: Artiles quoted in Smith (2002: 9).

bases often lead to the institutionalization of prostitution – which could lead to increasing the rate of HIV infection. In emergencies, especially chronic emergencies where impoverished communities have lost their normal livelihoods and families are broken apart, women and girls may turn to prostitution as a key survival strategy – thereby increasing their risk of contracting HIV. Poor medical services lead to infection through re-use of contaminated syringes, etc. Refugees and internally displaced people (IDPs) who are dependent on humanitarian assistance for food and other services are vulnerable to sexual exploitation by military/peace-keepers, aid workers and others persons in positions of power, which may increase the risk of HIV infection.

Weakened health services in conflict-affected areas make it difficult to advocate protective behaviour and spread contamination. Infections and diseases from other sources, engendered by the general collapse of health services, are the cause of the disruption of vital AIDS services. In situations of widespread violence, open wounds and contact with contaminated blood may increase the spread of HIV.

Generally, natural disasters do not disrupt national HIV prevention and care systems. However, local budgets might be diverted away from these programmes to more pressing disaster response activities, as in the case of Hurricane Mitch, and local clinics may be damaged or destroyed.

The breakdown in traditional structures and norms that may accompany refugee outflows and other mass displacements may affect longstanding sexual norms and practices, leading to higher numbers of sexual partners at earlier ages and higher HIV infection rates. The typical disruption of health and social services that accompanies these emergencies only makes matters worse. Without effective outreach and wide community understanding,

the AIDS epidemic will continue to spiral out of control. Basic community education on HIV prevalence and safe behaviour to help people avoid becoming infected are primary responses to gaining control of this problem. “In the decade ahead, HIV/AIDS is expected to kill ten times more people than conflict. In conflict situations, children and young people are most at risk – from both HIV/AIDS and violence” (Lawday, 2002: 1).

The illness or death of teachers, whether from AIDS or not, is especially devastating in emergency situations, where there is often already a shortage of educational services, and in rural areas where schools depend heavily on one or two teachers. Moreover, skilled teachers are not easily replaced. Teacher absenteeism may be increased by HIV and AIDS, as the illness itself causes increasing periods of absence from class. Teachers with sick families also take time off to attend funerals or to care for sick or dying relatives and teacher absenteeism also results from the psychological effect of the epidemic (World Bank, 2002). When a teacher falls ill, the class may be taken on by another teacher, be combined with another class or left untaught.

With regard to HIV education, “schools have been successful in helping young people acquire the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to avoid infection. Education, when it is appropriately planned and implemented, is one of the most viable and effective means available for stopping the spread of HIV infection” (Aldana and Jones, 1999: 9). Notably, children between the age group 5–14 have the lowest HIV prevalence in the population. This means that whilst they are an extremely vulnerable group, they also represent a key target for HIV education. Schools are a priority setting for HIV and AIDS education because they:

- Provide an efficient and effective way to reach large portions of the population, including young people, school personnel, families and indirectly community members.
- Can provide learning experiences, linkages to services, and supportive environments to help reduce infections and related discrimination.
- Reach students at influential stages in their lives when lifelong behaviours are formed.

Many people living with HIV face prejudice, discrimination or even seclusion from their communities. Education is a central means of distributing information about the disease, and helping people with HIV and AIDS contribute to the lives of their families and communities.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies HIV prevention education

- 1. Take steps to strengthen the education ministry's/ies' capacity for skills-based health education for HIV prevention and related issues.**
- 2. Conduct or facilitate a review of HIV and AIDS education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, for the emergency-affected populations, and establish a working group on this topic.**
- 3. Provide guidance to educational authorities in emergency-affected areas and to civil-society organizations on the conduct of HIV and AIDS education programmes.**
- 4. Provide resources and train teachers for HIV and AIDS education.**
- 5. In refugee or internal displacement situations where AIDS awareness and prevention education programmes are being implemented in camps, establish programmes for neighbouring populations.**

Guidance notes

1. Take steps to strengthen the education ministry's/ ministries' capacity for skills-based health education for HIV prevention and related issues.

- Does the education ministry already have capacity in this area?
 - Review the capacity/level of current functioning taking into consideration that the emergency will pose new challenges.
 - Is the education ministry collaborating with the ministry of health?
- There is an opportunity to benefit from international experience of HIV education, in emergencies and in normal situations. Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?
 - How can international experience with HIV and AIDS in emergencies and in normal situations be drawn upon?
 - Seek assistance for staff training.

2. Conduct or facilitate a review of HIV and AIDS education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, for the emergency-affected populations, and establish a working group on this topic.

- What HIV and AIDS education programmes already exist, and who is funding them?
- How are programmes being delivered?
 - Is it via formal or informal education, e.g. talks, posters, videos, drama presentations, leaflets, television shows or other media broadcasts?

- If it is via formal education, are programmes integrated across the core curriculum and/or within school health education?
- Consider the following when looking at the content of HIV prevention programmes:
 - Are the programmes founded on statistical facts and figures?
 - Is the information appropriate for the grade and level at which it is delivered?
 - Are local cultural and religious beliefs taken in to consideration?
 - Does the content project accurate understanding of the nature, means and likely causes of infection and include training in behavioural skills for responsible sexual behaviour to avoid HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), pregnancy, alcohol or drug abuse?
 - Does the content include sessions in empathy and information on what is appropriate care for persons who are infected with HIV?
- Are participatory teaching methods encouraged as a teaching strategy?
 - Does the teaching methodology enable students to recognize their attitudes and feelings about HIV and people living with HIV?
- Who is delivering the programme – teachers, peer educators, health workers, etc?
 - What kind of training have facilitators undergone?
- Are any counselling services provided?

3. Provide guidance to educational authorities in emergency-affected areas and to civil-society organizations on the conduct of HIV and AIDS education programmes, including elements such as those listed below.

(See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for information on the possible content of HIV and AIDS programmes, as well as for ways to promote effective HIV and AIDS education for behaviour change.)

- In the acute phase of an emergency, consider the use of multiple channels for HIV and AIDS awareness, especially where regularly attended school programmes cannot be assured. Consider the use of community education, radio, television, leaflets, or other mechanisms to convey information on HIV and AIDS and safe practices. (To prevent the spread of HIV, it may also be equally important, if not more so, to reach soldiers with these messages.)
- Involve all stakeholders in the design of HIV and AIDS education programmes.
 - Before starting new educational programmes on HIV and AIDS, involve teachers, community leaders, women’s groups and youth in focused discussions or workshops related to HIV and AIDS education.
 - Since the discussion of sexual practices and HIV is always culturally sensitive, great care must be used at the beginning of this process to provide a sense of ownership to teachers and the larger community.
 - Teachers, peer educators or group leaders must be trained to facilitate these discussions.
- Assess the need for HIV prevention education for students and for the broader community.
- What are the facts related to HIV prevalence and risk in the displaced community, the surrounding community, the country or area of origin and the host country (in refugee situations)?
 - What specific risk behaviours exist?

- What knowledge, attitudes, belief, values, skills and services positively or negatively influence behaviours and conditions most relevant to HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs)? (See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for examples of the types of knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and skills that are needed to prevent HIV transmission.)
- Can an HIV prevention/awareness programme be directly implemented in schools?
- What alternatives are possible if full inclusion into the curriculum is not possible (after-school or weekend activities, holiday programmes, etc.)?
- Does the community support education related to HIV and AIDS awareness and prevention, ‘safe sex’ and care for and/or rights of people living with HIV?



HIV EDUCATION PROGRAMMES FOR ADOLESCENTS

Save the Children Fund (UK) has carried out adolescent education programmes on reproductive health and HIV in South East Asia. Some important messages emerged:

- Personalize the AIDS problem so that all are aware of the fact that everyone is at risk in different ways.
- Involve programme recipients in planning to ensure sustainability and accordance with certain rights of the child.
- Include components of self-esteem building based on the premise that “young people will only protect themselves if they have a sense of their own worth”.
- Encouragement from adults is essential. Children are likely to confront HIV more effectively if not limited by adult restrictions.

Source: Pfeiffer (1999).

- What types of educational activities does the community want/support? (Community participation requires a series of open discussions where the elements and ramifications of HIV and AIDS education programmes are openly and frankly discussed.)
 - Inclusion in the formal school curriculum?
 - Workshops or non-formal education on these themes?
- Consider establishing school health teams (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.2, 'Health and hygiene education'*) to coordinate and monitor health promotion policies and activities, including those related to HIV and AIDS.
 - Potential members of the teams include: teachers, administrators, students, parents and health-service providers.
 - The involvement of parents and teachers will help ensure that programmes are developed in a culturally appropriate manner.
- Consider involving youth in all stages of HIV and AIDS education programmes, including their planning, implementation and evaluation.
 - Young people's involvement is critical since they get much of their sexual health knowledge from their peers.
 - Peers can convey messages about what is – and what is not – safe sexual behaviour.
 - Young people can use language and arguments that are relevant and acceptable to their peers.
 - Young people have credibility with their peers and may be able to offer applicable solutions to prevention problems.
 - For peer education to work, peer educators need training and supervision.

- Those trained as peer educators may benefit from improved self-esteem and skills and attitudes with regard to sexuality and health.
- Identify modifications required in the current curriculum to ensure inclusion of HIV awareness and prevention issues. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.1, ‘Curriculum content and review processes.’)
 - Can HIV prevention/life skills be taught as a separate subject? This will take persuasion but may be possible where decision-makers are sincerely concerned about building an AIDS-free future. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a discussion of where to place life-skills based education in the curriculum.)
 - If HIV prevention is not taught as a separate subject, can one particular subject (health or biology, for example) be designated that will allocate one specified period per week to this topic?
 - “Education to prevent HIV/STI and related discrimination should be combined with education about life skills, reproductive health and alcohol/substance use so that the learning experiences will complement and reinforce each other” (Aldana and Jones, 1999: 22).
 - Are there curriculum writing revision groups in existence who can be trained to include elements of HIV education as well?
 - Consider involving students, parents, teachers, representatives of ministries, curriculum developers, school personnel, persons living with HIV, and community leaders at key stages of curriculum development.
 - Determine which outside groups are already working on HIV awareness/prevention/life skills and seek to collaborate with them.

- Can existing HIV and AIDS programmes be adapted for use in the current environment? When reviewing the curriculum, consider whether the curriculum:
 - Integrates HIV education across the core curriculum and/or within comprehensive school health education.
 - Provides all students, at each grade level, with age- and gender-appropriate learning experiences, and considers cultural and religious beliefs.
 - Includes information about the prevalence of HIV/STI among young people in the nation/area and the extent to which young people practise behaviours that place them at risk of infection.
 - Sets objectives that reflect the needs of students, based on local assessment and relevant research.
 - Includes scientifically accurate information about the prevention of HIV infection.
 - Includes behavioural skills for responsible sexual behaviour to avoid HIV/STI, pregnancy and alcohol and drug use.
 - Includes learning experiences to promote empathy for and appropriate care of persons who are infected with HIV.
 - Addresses the use of effective teaching strategies (using participative methods).
 - Provides opportunities for parents and the community to learn about and reinforce education about HIV/STI.
 - Helps students recognize their attitudes and feelings about HIV and people living with HIV.

4. Provide resources and train teachers for HIV and AIDS education.

- Identify resources required for implementation of the accepted programme. (See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for some challenges related to implementing skills-based health education.)

- What consumable resources are required? These should be a minor part of the budget so that the programme remains sustainable even in the event of budget cuts.
- How will suitable teachers be identified and made available – will new teachers be hired or will teachers be selected for training from the existing staff?
 - How much training and in-school mentoring of teachers is required? (See additional points on training below.)

EFFECTIVE LIFE-SKILLS PROGRAMME PROVIDERS		
CAN BE ...	SHOULD BE PERCEIVED AS ...	SHOULD HAVE THESE QUALITIES ...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Counsellors • Peer leaders • Social workers • Health workers • Teachers • Parents • Psychologists • Physicians • Other trusted adults 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Credible • Trustworthy • High status • Positive role model • Successful • Competent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competent in group processes • Able to guide and facilitate • Respectful of children and adolescents • Warm, supportive, enthusiastic • Knowledgeable about specific content areas relevant to adolescents • Knowledgeable about community resources

Source: Education International and the World Health Organization (2001).

- How will the programme be funded and for what period?
 - After the initial start up phase, ensure the sustainability of the programme by including the necessary teachers and other resources in the normal education budget.

- What technical support is required?
 - Who will supply it?
 - What linkages can be made with local health providers (e.g. for referral of students for medical care or testing) or other organizations supporting HIV prevention (e.g. for condom distribution)?
- Provide awareness training for all educational administrators and other education workers not directly involved in the HIV and AIDS education programme.
 - It is essential that all schoolteachers and education personnel be trained on HIV prevention and education. They need to know:
 - The rationale for implementing HIV/STI education.
 - Accurate information about HIV/STI prevention.
 - Accurate information about sexual behaviour, beliefs and attitudes of young people.
 - Accurate information about alcohol and substance use in relation to HIV/STI prevention.
 - How to refer students with sexual health problems to appropriate services.
 - They need to have:
 - Opportunities to examine their own standards and values concerning sexuality, gender roles and substance use. Codes of conduct should prohibit sexual relationships between education personnel and students.
 - Practice using various methods to impart knowledge, develop attitudes and build skills related to HIV/STI prevention and responsible sexual behaviour.
 - Conflict management and negotiation skills.
- For teachers and other education workers who will be directly responsible for HIV education, ensure that their training includes the use of participatory methods. The training should be participatory and include:

- Training objectives and content that meet the identified needs of teachers.
- Follow-up sessions or some other way periodically to provide updates on HIV and other important health problems.
- Practice to increase teachers' comfort when discussing sexual behaviour, intravenous drug use and slang terms.
- Ways to deal sensitively yet firmly with cultural and religious traditions that perhaps hinder discussion about sex and sex-related matters in the school.
- The use of participatory techniques and skill-building exercises.
- Referral skills and ways to access health and social services.
- Methods to assess the impact and effectiveness of the training, with revisions in the training format made as needed.
- In returnee situations, make use of returning teachers who have been trained in HIV and AIDS education.
 - Consider using the knowledge and experience of trained returnee teachers to help establish education for HIV prevention and general community health in the curriculum of the home country.

5. In refugee or internal displacement situations where HIV awareness and prevention education programmes are being implemented in camps, establish programmes for neighbouring populations.

- Ensure that there are parallel education programmes in the host community to ensure mutual reinforcement and common behaviour modifications to minimize the spread of HIV.
 - What related programmes exist in the general community?

- Are the concept areas and attitudes similar?
- Do the programmes encompass and cater to members of all social groups (e.g. girls/women, youth, minority groups, religious, cultural groups, etc.)?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Some basic facts about HIV and AIDS

What are HIV and AIDS?

The human immunodeficiency virus, or HIV, attacks the body's immune system. By weakening the body's defences against disease, HIV makes the body vulnerable to a number of potentially life-threatening infections and cancers. HIV is infectious, which means it can be transmitted from one person to another. AIDS stands for 'acquired immunodeficiency syndrome' and describes the collection of symptoms and infections associated with acquired deficiency of the immune system. Infection with HIV has been established as the underlying cause of AIDS. The level of HIV in the body and the appearance of certain infections are used as indicators that HIV infection has progressed to AIDS (www.ispub.com/journal/the-internet-journal-of-health/volume-4-number-1-20/article/basic-facts-about-hiv-and-aids.html).

How is HIV transmitted?

People can be exposed to HIV in the following three ways:

- Unprotected sexual contact, primarily through unprotected vaginal or anal intercourse with an infected partner. Worldwide, sexual intercourse is the leading mode of HIV transmission. Oral sex is much less likely than vaginal or anal intercourse to result in the transmission of HIV. Women are more likely to contract HIV from men than vice versa. Among females, the risk is greatest for adolescent girls and young women, whose developing reproductive systems make them more likely to become infected if exposed to sexually transmitted infections (STIs), including HIV.
- HIV is transmitted most easily through the introduction of HIV-infected blood into the bloodstream, particularly through transfusion of infected blood. Most blood-to-blood transmission now occurs as a result of the use of contaminated injection equipment during injecting drug use. Use of improperly sterilized syringes and other medical equipment in health-care settings can also result in HIV transmission.
- Transmission from a mother with HIV infection to her child, during pregnancy, during delivery or as a result of breastfeeding.

How is HIV **not** transmitted?

HIV is the most carefully studied infection in history. Overwhelming evidence indicates that you *cannot* become infected in any of the following ways:

- Shaking hands, hugging or kissing.
- Coughing or sneezing.
- Using a public phone.
- Visiting a hospital.

- Opening a door.
- Sharing food, eating or drinking utensils.
- Using drinking fountains.
- Using toilets or showers.
- Using public swimming pools.
- Getting a mosquito or insect bite.
- Working, socializing, or living side by side with people living with HIV.

How can I avoid becoming infected?

HIV infection is entirely preventable. Sexual transmission of HIV can be prevented by:

- Abstinence.
- Monogamous relations between uninfected partners.
- Non-penetrative sex.
- Consistent and correct use of male or female condoms.

Additional ways of avoiding infection:

- Injecting drug users should always use new needles and syringes that are disposable, or those that are properly sterilized before reuse.
- For blood transfusion, blood and blood products must be tested for HIV and blood safety standards are implemented.

Source: Adapter from UNAIDS (2004) and UNAIDS (2005).

2. What knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values and skills related to HIV transmission are needed?

KNOWLEDGE Students will learn that:	ATTITUDES/BELIEFS/ VALUES Students will demonstrate:	SKILLS Students and others will be able to:
YOUNG CHILDREN		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HIV is a virus some people have acquired • HIV is difficult to contract and cannot be transmitted by casual contact, such as shaking hands, hugging or even eating with the same utensils • People can be HIV-infected for years without showing symptoms of this infection • Many people are working diligently to find a cure for AIDS and to stop people from contracting HIV infection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acceptance, not fear, of people living with HIV and AIDS • Respect for themselves • Respect between adolescent males and females – tolerance of differences in attitude, values and beliefs • Understanding of gender roles and sexual differences • Belief in a positive future • Empathy with others • Understanding of duty with regards to self and others • Willingness to explore attitudes, values and beliefs • Recognition of behaviour that is deemed appropriate within the context of social and cultural norms • Support for equity, human rights and honesty 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquire practical and positive methods for dealing with emotions and stress • Develop fundamental skills for healthy interpersonal communication

KNOWLEDGE Students will learn that:	ATTITUDES/BELIEFS/ VALUES Students will demonstrate:	SKILLS Students and others will be able to:
PRE-ADOLESCENTS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bodily changes that occur during puberty are natural and healthy events in the lives of young persons, and they should not be considered embarrassing or shameful • The relevance of social, cultural, and familial values, attitudes and beliefs to health, development and the prevention of HIV infection • What a virus is • How viruses are transmitted • The difference between AIDS and HIV • How HIV is and is not transmitted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment to setting ethical, moral and behavioural standards for oneself • Positive self-image by defining positive personal qualities and accepting positively the bodily changes that occur during puberty • Confidence to change unhealthy habits • Willingness to take responsibility for behaviour • A desire to learn and practice the skills for everyday living • An understanding of their own values and standards • An understanding of how their family values support behaviours or beliefs that can prevent HIV infection • Concern for social issues and their relevance to social, cultural, familial and personal ideals • A sense of care and social support for those in their community or nation who need assistance, including persons infected with and affected by HIV • Honour for the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and values of their society, culture, family and peers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate messages about HIV prevention to families, peers and members of the community • Actively seek out information and services related to sexuality, health services or substance use that are relevant to their health and well-being • Build a personal value system independent of peer influence • Communicate about sexuality with peers and adults • Use critical thinking skills to analyse complex situations that require decisions from a variety of alternatives • Use problem-solving skills to identify a range of decisions and their consequences in relation to health issues that are experienced by young persons • Discuss sexual behaviour and other personal issues with confidence and positive self esteem • Communicate clearly and effectively a desire to delay initiation of intercourse (e.g. negotiation, assertiveness) • Express empathy toward persons who may be infected with HIV

KNOWLEDGE Students will learn:	ATTITUDES/BELIEFS/ VALUES Students will demonstrate:	SKILLS Students and others will be able to:
ADOLESCENTS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How the risk of contracting HIV infection can be virtually eliminated • Which behaviours place individuals at increased risk of becoming infected with HIV • What preventive measures can reduce risk of HIV, STI and unintended pregnancies • How to obtain testing and counselling to determine HIV status • How to use a condom appropriately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding of discrepancies in moral codes • A realistic risk perception • Positive attitude towards alternatives to intercourse • Conviction that condoms are beneficial in protecting against HIV/STI • Willingness to use sterile needles, if using intravenous drugs • Responsibility for personal, family and community health • Support for school and community resources that will convey information about HIV prevention interventions • Encouragement of peers, siblings and family members to take part in HIV prevention activities • Encouragement of others to change unhealthy habits • A leadership role to support the HIV prevention programme • Willingness to help start similar interventions in the community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refuse to have sexual intercourse if they so choose • Assess risk and negotiate for less risky alternatives • Seek out and identify sources from which condoms can be obtained • Appropriately use health products (e.g. condoms) • Seek out and identify sources of help with substance use problems, including sources of clean needles or needle exchange

Source: Aldana and Jones (1999: 19-21).

3. Promoting effective HIV and AIDS education for behaviour change

The activities and methods used for teaching about HIV and AIDS are sometimes as important as the content of the information.

Methods could include:

- **Instruction:** providing an explanation and rationale for learning the new skill.
- **Modelling:** providing an example of effective enactment of the behaviour by a credible model.
- **Practice:** role-playing potential risk-inducing situations to practise the new behaviour.
- **Feedback:** using feedback on performance from group leader and fellow group members to support and reinforce behaviour changes.

Source: Kalichman and Hospers (1997).

4. Where to place life-skills-based education in the curriculum?

A major policy issue is where to place life skills for HIV prevention in the curriculum. Experience suggests that it needs a special place, within a 'carrier subject' in the short term and as a separate curriculum element in the longer term. The advantages and difficulties associated with different approaches are shown below.

Approach (1): 'Carrier' subject alone

In this approach, skills-based education is integrated into an existing subject, which is relevant to the issues, such as civics, social studies or health education.

Conclusion: good short-term option.

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher support tends to be better than for infusion across all subjects. • Teachers of the carrier subject are likely to see the relevance of the topic to other aspects of the subject. • Teachers of the carrier subjects are likely to be more open to the teaching methods and issues being discussed due to their subject experience. • Training of selected teachers is faster and cheaper than training all, for the infusion approach. • Cheaper and faster to integrate the curriculum components into materials of one principal subject than to infuse across all. • The carrier subject can be reinforced by infusion through other subjects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk of an inappropriate ‘carrier’ subject being selected, e.g., biology is not as good as health education or civic education because the social and personal issues and skills are unlikely to be addressed adequately by science teachers.

Approach (2): Separate subject

In this approach, skills-based education is taught as a specific subject, perhaps in the context of other important issues, such as health education or health and family life education.

Conclusion: good longer-term option.

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Likely to have teachers who are focused on the issues, who are more likely to be specifically trained (but this is not guaranteed). • Most likely to have congruence between the skills-based content and the participative teaching methods needed in the subject, rather than shortcutting and omission of content, which may occur with ‘infusion’ or ‘carrier subject’ approaches. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The subject may be attributed very low status and not seen as important, especially if not examinable. • Requires additional time to be found in already overloaded curriculum.

Approach (3): Integration/infusion across subjects

In this approach, skills-based education is included in all or many existing subjects through regular classroom teachers.

Conclusion: least effective option.

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• A ‘whole schools’ approach can be taken.• Utilizes structures that are already in place and is often more acceptable than a separate course of sex education.• Many teachers involved – even those not normally involved in the issue.• High potential for reinforcement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The issues can be lost among the higher status elements of the subjects.• Teachers may maintain a heavy information bias in content and methods applied, as is the case with most subjects.• Very costly and time consuming to access all teachers, and influence all texts.• Some teachers do not see the relevance of the issue to their subject.• Potential for reinforcement seldom realized due to other barriers.

Source: Adapted from UNICEF (n.d.).

Recent guidelines from UNESCO (*International Guidelines on Sexuality Education: An evidence informed approach to effective sex, relationships and HIV/STI education – 2009*) offer additional guidance to support national authorities and health professionals to develop and implement school-based sexuality education programmes and materials.

5. Some challenges to implementing skills-based health education

1. Health care providers, youth workers and teachers are often expected to help adolescents develop skills that

they themselves may not possess. Programme providers may need help building assertiveness, stress-management, and/or problem-solving skills for themselves before being able to teach these skills in the classroom. Therefore, an important component of any training programme is the inclusion of activities in which potential providers can also address their own personal needs.

- 2. There is a need to train adults in using active teaching methodologies.** Skills-based health education encourages participation by all students and, as a result, can create classroom dynamics with which some teachers are not familiar. Research, however, has found that teachers who were initially uncomfortable with the idea of using participatory methodologies in their classrooms overcame their reluctance after practising these methods during training sessions. Provider confidence is essential to the success of skills-based education.
- 3. Programme providers may feel uncomfortable addressing the sensitive issues and questions that may arise.** Some providers may feel unprepared to communicate with their students about sensitive topics such as sexual and reproductive health, violence and relationships. They also may not know where to go to access additional information on these topics. Again, training teachers prior to implementation on how to best address and respond to questions or comments about sensitive topics is the key to overcoming this challenge. Providers should also be encouraged to interact and meet with one another throughout the school year to share ideas and suggestions.
- 4. Programme providers are underpaid and overworked.** Programme providers may not have the morale or energy

to learn new teaching methodologies. Therefore, providers need to understand how skills-based education can have immediate and long-lasting benefits not only on their students' lives but also on their own personal and professional lives. Training programmes should include activities which help teachers build skills that they can use in their daily lives, e.g. to improve relationships, avoid sexual violence or harassment, or overcome alcohol or drug use. Studies have shown that skills-based education programmes can indeed improve attendance and morale among providers (Allegrante, 1998).

- 5. Teachers are often asked to implement many different curricula and instructional efforts, without a clear understanding of the relationships among them and the relative benefits of each.** A lack of coordination between school administrators, curriculum coordinators and health and education sectors can result in a number of competing curricula. This can prove to be frustrating to overworked teachers who may start to view new programmes as just another addition to their existing workload. Key to overcoming this challenge is a close collaboration between all involved, including teachers, so that there is a clear understanding of how new curricula can realistically be used to complement what is already being implemented.

Source: Education International and the World Health Organization (2001).

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ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

In settings of emergency, chronic crisis and reconstruction ...

- To foster clear awareness of, and concern about, economic, social, political and ecological interdependence in urban and rural areas.
- To provide every person with opportunities to acquire the knowledge, values, attitudes, commitment and skills needed to protect and improve the environment.
- To create new patterns of behaviour of individuals, groups and society as a whole towards the environment.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

In emergency situations, where large numbers of people may live in a densely populated area, the effect on the environment is frequently severe. Degradation occurs with rapid emergency movement of people (refugees and internally displaced persons [IDPs]), especially if the safe haven is a fragile environment that cannot support large numbers of people. Degradation will

also occur as a result of conflict. Access to natural resources such as cultivable land and clean water may be scarce, which may lead to increased conflict. Protecting the hosting environment is an important strategy in the protection of refugees and IDPs.

Without proper sanitation facilities and practices, for example, water sources can become polluted, which is harmful to the environment and can also lead to negative health impacts for those living nearby. Similarly, the need to gather firewood for cooking can also result in serious environmental consequences as an area becomes quickly deforested. These effects, and others, can be mitigated by an environmental education programme. The goal of such a programme is to change the behaviour of learners ‘and to translate acquired knowledge into action’ in order to preserve or minimize the detrimental effect on the environment (Talbot and Muigai, 1998: 243). Environmental education may be offered as part of the formal school curriculum, as an extracurricular activity (perhaps through environmental clubs), and through non-formal educational activities.

All environmental education activities should be undertaken as part of a comprehensive environmental management programme in the affected areas. In the case of refugees, “agencies aim increasingly to prevent, mitigate and rehabilitate negative refugee-related impacts on the environment. Such a commitment requires the integration, to the greatest extent possible, of sound environmental management practices into all phases of refugee operations” (UNHCR, 2002: 7).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Environmental education

- 1. Determine whether an environmental protection plan has been developed as part of the emergency response by consulting with relevant government ministries.**
- 2. Identify people within the education ministry who are (or will be) responsible for environmental education. Ensure that they receive any necessary training.**
- 3. Assess environmental education needs and develop skills-based environmental education curricula/programmes based on the assessment.**
- 4. Identify modifications required in the current curriculum to ensure inclusion of the environmental education component.**
- 5. Facilitate the development or improvement of materials and methodologies for environmental education, and the testing and implementation of these programmes.**



- 6. Provide guidance to educational authorities in emergency-affected areas and to civil-society organizations on the conduct of environmental education programmes.**
- 7. Provide resources and train teachers for environmental education.**
- 8. In refugee or internal displacement situations where environmental education programmes are being implemented in camps, establish programmes for neighbouring populations.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Determine whether an environmental protection plan has been developed as part of the emergency response by consulting with relevant government ministries.**
 - Have the specific areas of environmental degradation been identified?
 - Have all stakeholders been included in planning an environmental education response?

2. Identify people within the education ministry who are (or will be) responsible for environmental education. Ensure that they receive any necessary training.

- Draw upon expertise in other ministries responsible for environmental management as well as environmental NGOs, to ensure that all environmental educational activities are harmonized with the goals of the national environmental action plan.

3. Assess environmental education needs, and develop skills-based environmental education curricula/ programmes based on the assessment.

- Undertake a baseline study to determine the behaviours and attitudes of the population – both the local and the displaced communities – with regard to the environment and the use of natural resources.
- Conduct a review of environmental education programmes being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.
 - Identify features of the curriculum that teach knowledge, skills and behaviours that are constructive (or destructive) to the care of the environment.
 - Does the curriculum meet the needs of all the students (e.g. girls, religious/cultural groups, language groups, special needs groups) with regard to the knowledge required for sustainable use of the environment before those groups leave the formal education programme?
 - Are there content areas where the skills of environmental education are incorporated?



EXPLORATORY ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

For many refugee school programmes, fieldwork need not be restricted to the familiar school tree planting and vegetable garden. Solutions to environmental problems (such as water shortage, deforestation, soil erosion and desertification) can be studied first-hand, often by taking a short stroll outside the classroom. Practical field studies bring the textbook to life and promote a sense of moral engagement that is vital to the success of environmental awareness campaigns.

Evidence has shown that children can be important actors on environmental issues given their natural drive towards learning and demonstrating their knowledge within the family and the community context. Thousands of African and Central Asian refugee children, as well as children in the refugee hosting communities, have benefited from environmental education activities and out-of-the-classroom activities, including management of school gardens, competitions and kitchen gardening. To boost the out-of-the-classroom activities, UNHCR and UNESCO are currently developing generic materials such as environmental games, comic strips, drama and scientific measures to make the learning more engaging.

Sources: Talbot and Muigai (1998: 235); UNHCR (2003).

- Does the training incorporate conflict resolution skills? Since the roots of many conflicts are based in scarce resources, these skills may be necessary to avoid or deal with future conflicts over resources. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.6, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship.')
- Establish a joint working group to prepare good practice guidelines for environmental education providers.
 - Determine environmental themes, e.g. conservation of soil, water, vegetation and energy; sustainable shelter;

environmental health; and local laws and traditions on natural resource use. See also ‘Typical topics in refugee environmental education programmes’ in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter.

- Determine whether environmental education will be taught as part of the formal curriculum or through extracurricular activities. For example, in some countries environmental clubs and magazines are used to reach both schoolchildren and their families with simple ecological messages conveyed through activities that are fun as well as educational (Talbot and Muigai, 1998).

4. Identify modifications required in the current curriculum to ensure inclusion of the environmental education component.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.1, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’.)

- Will environmental education be taught as a separate subject as part of the formal curriculum? If so, will it be an examinable subject?
- If environmental education is not taught separately, which other subjects (e.g. science, geography, agriculture, etc.) can ‘carry’ the environmental education programme?
 - Are these taught early enough in the curriculum to ensure that the message, and therefore the desired changes in behaviour, is being conveyed to the population?
 - If environmental education messages are taught by a number of teachers in different subjects, this should be carefully planned in order to prevent repetition. For example, teaching about soil erosion may be done in science lessons or geography lessons. Consideration must be given to which teacher will be responsible.

5. Facilitate the development or improvement of materials and methodologies for environmental education, and the testing and implementation of these programmes.

- Local adaptation of existing materials, such as those that have been developed by UNESCO-PEER, may be an effective way to begin an environmental education programme. When adapting existing materials, consider whether:
 - The programme is acceptable to the community. (Is it culturally appropriate?)
 - The programme builds positive and constructive skills and behaviours.
 - The programme is a sustained learning experience (i.e. not an occasional programme).
 - There is a teacher-training component to ensure valid teaching.
- Ensure full community participation and ownership of any proposed environmental education programme.
 - Establish focus groups, ensuring that all elements of the community (including minority groups, women, religious leaders, community leaders and caregivers), actively participate in the development of an environmental programme.
 - Include host populations in discussions related to environmental education programmes for refugees as this will help minimize potential conflicts over the use of scarce resources.
- Consider environmental education programmes that have been developed by international youth movements, such as the Red Cross and Red Crescent Youth, the World Organization for the Scouting Movement and the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts.

- 6. Provide guidance to educational authorities in emergency-affected areas and to civil-society organizations on the conduct of environmental education programmes.**
- 7. Provide resources and train teachers for environmental education.**
 - Successful environmental education programmes incorporate participatory and exploratory teaching practices.



TRAINING ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN ETHIOPIA

In Ethiopia, UNESCO-PEER originally trained refugee teachers for the environmental education programme. Because many of these teachers repatriated or were resettled, it became necessary to devise an alternative system for training teachers, rather than to continue to rely on UNESCO-PEER to conduct the training. Consequently, staff from the teacher training institutions of both Gambella and Jijiga were trained to teach not only environmental education but also some pedagogical skills to assist the teachers in their professional development. This mechanism assisted greatly in the continuity and sustainability of the programme.

Source: Bird (2003: 9–10).

- 8. In refugee or internal displacement situations where environmental education programmes are being implemented in camps, establish programmes for neighbouring populations.**

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Typical topics in refugee environmental education programmes

The following seven broad topics are the subject matter of most refugee environmental education programmes:

- Energy conservation – focus is on household sector, where the aim is to reduce consumption of fuel, principally wood, for cooking and warmth.
- Sustainable shelter – housing requirements account for a small but significant proportion of wood use in refugee camps, especially in the early stages of an influx. In some places there are projects involving design and construction of sustainable refugee housing using alternative materials.
- Conservation of trees and other vegetation – energy conservation and sustainable shelter as well as protection and restoration of vegetation through promotion of domestic tree planting, etc.
- Soil conservation – topics include the causes and effects of soil erosion as well as physical and biological methods of erosion control.
- Water conservation – crucial concepts include control of water loss by physical and biological measures and protection of water sources.
- Environmental health – includes topics such as disease prevention through appropriate sanitation and water hygiene with a major focus on cholera prevention – link with health education.
- Local laws and traditions on natural resource use – to minimize conflicts with host communities, refugees and other displaced

should be aware of local laws and traditions regarding natural resource use. Topics that could be covered are: traditional resource-management practices of the local people, regulations governing access to and exploitation of reserve lands/national parks, laws on wildlife protection, fire regulations, grazing rights, rights over both wood and non-wood forest products.

Source: Talbot and Muigai (1998: 226–228).

2. Key points on environmental education and awareness-raising

General

- **Education has long-term impacts and should be supplemented with short-term regulatory measures and public information messages on environmental protection.**

Environmental education should be seen as a continuous and multi-sectoral process, as well as a tool for stimulating reflection, discussion and decisions on environmental issues and problems. As it focuses on changes in perceptions and attitudes, environmental education does not generate rapid impacts. It should be supplemented with shorter-term regulatory measures and public information campaigns to limit immediate damage to natural resources.

- **Environmental education should build upon existing ecological knowledge and skills.**

Refugees and host communities have considerable environmental practices to share with one another. Effective environmental education should target community groups, including women's groups and youth associations, which

have the capacity and will to promote sound environmental management.

- **Formal and non-formal approaches should be harmonized for better results.**

Non-formal approaches will be more effective if a ‘whole school approach’ to environmental education is adopted. Schools must not be treated as isolated islands of knowledge; they must be seen as part of the community. Likewise, the community must be brought into the schools, for example, through camp/settlement environmental working groups. Topics should be related to day-to-day life.

- **Environmental education and awareness-raising should be closely tied to broader environmental programmes.**

Environmental education should be fully integrated with ongoing efforts to promote environmentally sensitive behaviour. Linking environmental educational programmes to particular aspects of refugee life is not always easy, particularly when curricula are nationally standardized and examination-oriented. Building such linkages can broaden the refugee and local community’s interest in environmental concerns.

Non-formal environmental awareness-raising

- **Early, targeted environmental awareness campaigns are valuable in setting the parameters for sound environmental behaviour.**

Awareness programmes should be introduced before refugees have established environmentally damaging systems of behaviour that are difficult to change: for example, in the

styles of shelter they build, the areas in which they cut trees, or the cooking systems they use. Messages to be communicated typically relate to local and/or national laws, for example, on which practices are permitted and which are discouraged or prohibited.

- **When new settlements are established, refugees must be informed of regulations regarding natural resource use.**

Rules concerning natural resource use should be made clear from the outset. These may relate to tree cutting, charcoal making or management of wood-harvesting areas. One strategy is to record each tree above a certain diameter on every refugee plot, and assign responsibility for their protection to respective families. This approach requires the timely presence of an environmental agency, working in collaboration with the camp management agency, and subsequent introduction of incentives and disincentives. Ideally, the refugees themselves should record all relevant information.

- **Environmental awareness-raising can promote participation in environmental problem solving.**

Environmental activities, which involve target communities in problem identification and analysis, planning, implementation and evaluation, are more likely to have the desired positive impact.

- **Multiple entry points are available for environmental awareness-raising.**

Non-formal environmental education can be channelled through health programmes, adult literacy classes, video sessions, religious services, notice boards, drama and poetry festivals,

competitions, etc. Networks of community service and health workers can be particularly effective in passing on appropriate environmental messages, given adequate training.

- **Signs and posters communicating rules, regulations and sound environmental practices must be supported by, and linked with, other activities.**

Public awareness of the regulations governing the way in which refugees are permitted to harvest natural resources can be communicated through a number of channels. Signboards, for example, can be posted at a variety of locations in the camps and surrounding areas. They should be designed by the refugees wherever possible, should be multilingual and must convey the intended message in an appropriate and unambiguous manner.

- **Environmental awareness raising and training must include measures to empower communities and their management institutions.**

Training and educational initiatives undertaken with local communities will have limited impacts if these communities are unable to put the lessons into practice. Land access rights, institutional capacity and appropriate incentives can better ensure participation in sustainable management activities.

Formal environmental education

- **Environmental concepts can be integrated into formal education programmes.**

Possible approaches to formal environmental education include supplementing the existing curriculum with additional environmental materials, or developing a separate package of

awareness-raising materials. Decisions on whether to introduce environmental education as a separate theme should be made as early as possible. Perhaps surprisingly, evidence from past efforts suggests that infusing environmental concepts into an already overloaded curriculum may be less appropriate than introducing an entirely new subject.

- **Environmental education should be relevant to the needs of refugees and local communities.**

Refugee situations occasionally call for the development of new educational materials to address the teaching and content needs of refugee and returnee audiences and situations. In developing such materials, it is important to work closely with refugee teachers, implementing partners and often local actors, as this promotes a sense of ownership.

- **Environmental education activities should minimize reliance on materials not locally available.**

Acknowledging that educational facilities and teaching resources in refugee situations are often limited, the incorporation of locally available materials for environmental education and reference to local situations and problems can promote greater uptake, applicability and sustainability. Environmental education activities should be made simple and locally appropriate in order to minimize the likelihood of dependence on external support for their continuation.

- **New teaching methods may require improvements in teachers' competencies.**

In some cases, it may be appropriate to adopt new teaching approaches (e.g. activity-based and problem-solving approaches) to environmental education. These approaches may demand new skills and competencies from teachers and

trainers, with a likely shift away from didactic to teacher-centred methods. Capacity building may be required to develop teaching methods and resources.

Source: UNHCR (2002: 63–66).

3. The United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014)

The Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) is a far-reaching and complex undertaking. Its conceptual basis, socioeconomic implications, and environmental and cultural connections make it an enterprise, which potentially touches on every aspect of life.

The overall goal of the DESD is to integrate the values inherent in sustainable development into all aspects of learning to encourage changes in behaviour that allow for a more sustainable and just society for all.

The basic vision of the DESD is a world where everyone has the opportunity to benefit from education, and learn the values, behaviour and lifestyles required for a sustainable future and for positive societal transformation. This translates into five objectives, to:

1. Give an enhanced profile to the central role of education and learning in the common pursuit of sustainable development.
2. Facilitate links and networking, exchange and interaction among stakeholders in ESD.
3. Provide a space and opportunity for refining and promoting the vision of, and transition to sustainable development – through all forms of learning and public awareness.
4. Foster increased quality of teaching and learning in education for sustainable development.
5. Develop strategies at every level to strengthen capacity in ESD.

The concept of sustainable development continues to evolve. In pursuing education for sustainable development, therefore, there must be some clarity in what sustainable development means and what it is aiming at. This plan presents three key areas of sustainable development – society, environment and economy with culture as an underlying dimension.

Society: an understanding of social institutions and their role in change and development, as well as the democratic and participatory systems which give





opportunity for the expression of opinion, the selection of governments, the forging of consensus and the resolution of differences.

Environment: an awareness of the resources and fragility of the physical environment and the effects on it of human activity and decisions, with a commitment to factoring environmental concerns into social and economic policy development.

Economy: a sensitivity to the limits and potential of economic growth and their impact on society and on the environment, with a commitment to assess personal and societal levels of consumption out of concern for the environment and for social justice.

ESD is fundamentally about values, with respect at the centre: respect for others, including those of present and future generations, for difference and diversity, for the environment, for the resources of the planet we inhabit. Education enables us to understand ourselves and others and our links with the wider natural and social environment, and this understanding serves as a durable basis for building respect. Along with a sense of justice, responsibility, exploration and dialogue, ESD aims to move us to adopting behaviours and practices that enable all to live a full life without being deprived of basics.

ESD is for everyone, at whatever stage of life they are. It takes place, therefore, within a perspective of lifelong learning, engaging all possible learning spaces, formal, non-formal and informal, from early childhood to adult life. ESD calls for a re-orientation of educational approaches – curriculum and content, pedagogy and examinations. Spaces for learning include non-formal learning, community-based organizations and local civil society, the workplace, formal education, technical and vocational training, teacher training, higher education educational inspectorates, policy-making bodies ... and beyond.

The outcomes of the DESD will be seen in the lives of thousands of communities and millions of individuals as new attitudes and values inspire decisions and actions making sustainable development a more attainable ideal. For the DESD process as such, eleven expected outcomes are derived from the DESD objectives and relate to changes in public awareness, in the education system and in the integration of ESD into all development planning. These outcomes form the basis for indicators used in monitoring and evaluation; however, stakeholder groups at each level will decide on specific indicators and the kinds of data needed to verify them. Qualitative indicators must figure equally with quantitative indicators to capture the multiple connections and societal depth of ESD and its impact.

Source: UNESCO (2005: 5–8).

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LANDMINE AWARENESS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To provide information and knowledge that is reflected in safe behaviours with regard to landmines and unexploded ordnance (UXO).**
- **To secure community involvement in all landmine and unexploded ordnance awareness programmes.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The 1997 Ottawa Convention (which 156 countries have ratified or acceded to, and an additional 2 have signed but have yet to ratify) prohibits the use, production, or transfer of anti-personnel landmines. Nevertheless, landmines continue to be a deadly menace to all members of a society. Poor families are more likely to be affected as their need to forage for firewood or cultivate produce puts them at increased risk from landmines.

Children are particularly vulnerable since landmines, designed to maim, are likely to kill young children. Young children face other challenges,

THE 1997 OTTAWA MINE BAN CONVENTION

The Convention, established on 18 September 1997 and entered into force on 1 March 1999, imposes a total ban on antipersonnel landmines. Its negotiation was the result of a powerful and unusual coalition involving various governments, the United Nations, international organizations such as the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), and over 1,400 non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This unprecedented coalition used advocacy to raise public awareness of the impact of landmines on civilians and to rally global support for a total ban.

Key obligations outlined in the convention were:

Never to use, develop, produce, stockpile or transfer antipersonnel landmines, or to assist any other party to conduct these activities.

To destroy all stockpiled antipersonnel landmines within four years of the Convention's entry into force.

To clear all laid landmines within ten years of the Convention's entry into force.

When it is within their means, to provide assistance to mine clearance, mine awareness, stockpile destruction, and victim assistance activities worldwide.

Source: United Nations Mine Action (2004).

such as the inability to read landmine warning signs or the natural curiosity that will cause them to pick up objects that look interesting.

It is essential that landmine and unexploded ordnance awareness programmes be initiated in areas that have been mined or suffer the effects of war. "An effective educational approach to mine

awareness must be two-fold if it is to reach a significant portion of the population. First, it must target those fortunate enough to still be receiving formal education. Second, it must meet the needs of those unable to attend school (due to lack of facilities, teacher shortages, displacement, etc.)” (Baxter *et al.*, 1997: 11).

Mines are used by troops in minefields as a defensive move against opposing troops and/or to control or intimidate civilian populations – either because they are scattered indiscriminately or located purposefully to harm civilian populations. Unexploded ordnance (UXO) is a risk wherever there have been military activities or stores. Mines and UXOs limit habitable and exploitable land, which in turn puts pressure on less sustainable environments. Civilian populations may be unable to continue or resume agricultural practices, making them dependent on outside assistance for food or leaving them without food.

PRINCIPLES OF LANDMINE AWARENESS PROGRAMMES

- Landmine awareness programmes are not short-term or occasional programmes.
- Landmine awareness programmes are not the same as landmine marking or clearance programmes. A landmine awareness programme must be designed with a view to behaviour change.
- Materials must be relevant to the local situation.
- Materials must be field-tested.
- Messages should be clear and concise.





- Messages should say what should be done rather than what not to do. This is especially true for picture messages – they must never demonstrate wrong behaviour.
- Essentially there are only three types of visual message (for landmine awareness, the first two with appropriate explanation should be used):
 1. “Do this!”
 2. Positive/negative: the positive should always come first – if people read from left to right, then the positive message is on the left.
 3. Action/consequence messages: these are the least effective.
- Awareness and subsequent behaviour change are more effective than marking (markings can disappear).
- When marking is taught, it should be clear, simple and not require sophisticated (and valuable) equipment.
- Programmes should not teach clearance techniques.
- All programmes should be monitored and evaluated to ensure that changes in behaviour and changes in circumstances are taken into account.
- Complacency and ignorance of danger should be minimized through multi-disciplinary approaches and frequent changes in approach.

Source: Adapted from GICHD (2002).

In countries recovering from conflict, natural disasters may result in movement of landmines and UXOs – making previous mapping efforts worthless, and necessitating additional mapping and communication with the affected population.

In the acute phase of an emergency, activities such as de-mining or mine mapping may not have started yet – putting populations at greater risk of mine accidents. Education to ensure recognition of ‘evidence’ of mines is vital in this phase.

During protracted emergencies, de-mining, mine mapping and mine incident reporting programmes may have begun. Coordinators of landmine and UXO awareness programmes will be able to call on these resources when developing their programmes. Populations may become habituated to the threat posed by landmines and UXOs and may begin to exhibit risky behaviours unless mine awareness messages are ongoing and varied.

If areas have been mined, refugees and IDPs may be particularly at risk when fleeing from their home country. If refugees and IDPs are living in areas that have been mined, activities such as firewood collection put them at risk of landmine accidents, especially if the refugees do not live in camps or if they leave the camp to gather firewood. Messages regarding landmine and UXO awareness that are conveyed to displaced populations should also be conveyed to their host communities.

After repatriation, returnees will not be familiar with the local environment – they will need clear communications regarding the location of mined areas, the types of mines that were used during the conflict and local mine marking practices. Given the likelihood that the population will be at risk for many years, mine awareness programmes will be needed for children and adults on a continuing basis.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Landmine awareness

- 1. Identify persons within the education ministry responsible for landmine and UXO awareness education and ensure that they receive any necessary training.**
- 2. Conduct a review of mine and UXO awareness programmes being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism and working group.**
- 3. Facilitate the development or improvement of materials and methodologies for mine awareness education, and the testing and implementation of these programmes.**

Guidance notes

1. Identify persons within the education ministry responsible for landmine and UXO awareness education and ensure that they receive any necessary training.

- Can it be determined which ministries and organizations have responsibility for de-mining and marking activities?
- Has a landmine/UXO situation analysis been undertaken?
- Who are the populations at risk?
- How are people affected (e.g. physically, economically)?
- What leads to risk-taking behaviour?
- What activities if any, have already been conducted with the community (e.g. community meetings regarding the known location of mines and UXOs, community surveys related to knowledge and attitudes about landmines and UXOs, communications about mine incident reporting)?
- Is a landmine/UXO awareness programme necessary?
 - Is necessary training or awareness raising needed for education ministry personnel?
 - How will these programmes, if implemented, be linked to any mine clearance/marketing programme?
 - Who is affected and who will the programme target?

2. Conduct a review of mine and UXO awareness programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism and working group.

- Are all the organizations involved in mine marking/clearance education collaborating with regard to awareness programmes?
- Is there a database of all organizations working in the area?
- Is there information about the geographical spread and types of mines/UXOs?
- What is the magnitude and geographic focus of the problem?
- Have other awareness programmes already been proposed?
- How will a mine and UXO awareness programmes reach all children – both those who are in school and those who are not?
 - What can be done to reach the children who are not enrolled in school?
 - How can those children be identified, e.g. discussions with children and community members regarding which children are not in school? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'* for further information on access and inclusion.)
 - Where will activities for out-of-school children take place?
 - Possible places to locate these children include (Rädda Barnen, 1999):
 - Youth clubs.
 - Health clubs.
 - Houses of worship.
 - Sports fields.
 - Wells or water holes.
 - Anywhere young people meet.



LANDMINE EDUCATION FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN AFGHANISTAN

Save the Children, UK (SC-UK) began its Landmine Education Project in Kabul, Afghanistan in 1996. Because of the large number of children outside the formal school system at that time, SC-UK identified different ways of reaching those children. One way was through an Emergency Response Team (ERT) that was “established in reaction to emerging information about the alarmingly high number of incidents that were taking place in certain areas of the city”. The team identified high-risk areas and quickly reached large numbers of children with landmine/UXO education. The ERT developed a standard two-hour session based on the activity session that had been used in schools. Four groups, each containing three male facilitators, took responsibility for four districts of the city, sometimes crossing into other districts, as needed. Each set of ERT facilitators identified all the mosques in their districts and began using these as gathering places for participants. After reaching as many children as possible in the area surrounding one mosque, they moved on to the next.

Another pair of facilitators was also hired to travel around the city on a motorcycle to educate Kuchi nomads and internally displaced people. These teams established strong relationships with the communities and authorities in high priority districts and reached a large number of children and nomads. One disadvantage to the programme was, however, that “children, community members and facilitators grew tired of seeing the same materials and format again”, as messages were simply repeated rather than followed up with new messages or materials.

Source: Child-to-Child Trust (2004).

- In conjunction with all stakeholders, can appropriate multi-disciplinary programmes that may already exist be identified, even if modifications are required?
 - Does the material complement other materials/programmes already in use?
 - Are the materials/programmes multi-disciplinary?
 - What resources are required?
 - Who will fund the implementation of these programmes and for what period?
 - What technical support is required? Who will supply it?

3. Facilitate the development or improvement of materials and methodologies for mine awareness education, and the testing and implementation of these programmes.

- How will the landmine/UXO awareness programme be included in the school curriculum? Consider the following:
 - What will be the objectives of the landmine/UXO awareness programme (see below).

OBJECTIVES OF A MINE AWARENESS PROGRAMME

That children ...

Know where they might encounter mines in areas where they live.

Avoid entering hazardous terrain.

Recognize clues that indicate possible presence of mines.

Know what to do if a mine is spotted and who to inform about it.

Know how to behave if they suspect they have entered a minefield.



Can distinguish between different types of mines likely to be found.

Never ever touch a mine or UXO – or throw things at it.

Know ways of sharing mine information with others.

Source: Rädsla Barnen (1999) .

- Will the programme be a stand-alone course, or integrated into the curriculum in another way?
- What will be the length of the course?
- Will the course be taught during school hours?
 - If so, what will it replace? Alternatively, will extra time be provided?
 - If not, what steps will be taken so that children are able to stay and participate in the programme?
- Modify and or develop landmine/UXO awareness programmes that respond to the needs of the target populations, both in formal schools and for out-of-school children, youth and adults.
 - What variations in the course will be necessary, e.g. for children of different ages, different ethnic groups, for boys and girls?
 - What specific issues will be dealt with?
- Can messages of peace be built into mine awareness programmes? Since the UXOs usually come from both parties to the conflict (even if mines are laid by one side), children may be able to see that violent conflict is a poor way to solve problems because people get hurt during and after the conflict.
 - Who will develop/revise the materials?
 - Are they clear and ‘readable’?
 - Are they culturally sensitive and accurate?

- Have the materials been tested? If so, have they been revised based on the results and feedback from the testing?
- Do the materials send positive messages?
- Who will teach the materials?
 - It is vital to select people the children/youth will trust, who can make lessons interesting and who will cooperate with parents (Rädda Barnen, 1999).
 - Soldiers are usually not a good option for teaching mine awareness as they may know little about education and psychology (Rädda Barnen, 1999).
- What training will be needed – both in terms of content and pedagogical approach? Since the objective of landmine/UXO awareness programmes is behaviour change, it is particularly important that teachers use materials and methods that encourage children’s participation and that demonstrate the children’s good decision-making skills related to appropriate behaviours and choices they confront. Suggested methods include (Rädda Barnen, 1999):
 - Drama/role-play.
 - Puppets.
 - Simple board games.
 - Jigsaw puzzles.
 - Short video and/or audio tapes.
 - Stickers, posters, leaflets, brochures, etc.
 - Activity books.
 - Information gathering/reporting.
- Can children and youth be involved in the design and delivery of mine awareness programmes? Consider the following:
 - Community surveys and interviews.
 - Raising awareness among out-of-school youth by organizing activities such as:
 - Telling and/or collecting stories.

- Asking out-of-school children to draw pictures related to mine/UXO risks.
- Plays.
- Games (e.g. stories without words).
- Discussion groups.
- Singing songs.
- Playing the role of the teacher (using posters to initiate discussions and telling other children about key messages).
- Creating mine awareness materials such as posters or tee shirts.
- Raising awareness by discussing issues with parents and siblings.

(See the ‘Needs analysis exercise’ in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for one way to create mine awareness.)



DEVELOPING THE CHILD-TO-CHILD PROGRAMME IN CROATIA

As part of the child-to-child programme in Croatia, 60 youth members of the Croatian Red Cross between the ages of 13 and 19 were trained. Youth members completed a questionnaire that was used to find out how much they knew about the problems of mines and mine awareness programmes, as well as whether, when and how they participated in mine awareness activities in their community (in schools, youth clubs, NGOs etc.). In addition, they learned basic information about mines including:

Recognizing dangerous areas in the community, mine marking, how to recognize the warning signs and clues that an area is mined (using drawing and discussion).

Mine injuries (lecture by facilitator and discussion, using examples led by facilitator).

Modelling proper behaviour (using role-plays).

Source: Child-to-Child Trust (2004)

- Ensure that all mine awareness programmes include an ongoing monitoring and evaluation component to ensure that materials stay relevant and interesting for the targeted audiences.
 - Is there a procedure in place to ensure that priorities and approaches are periodically reassessed, including:
 - Changes in the mine/UXO situation.
 - Changes in vulnerable populations.
 - New educational materials to maintain interest in the programme.
 - What plans have been established for ongoing training and supervision of the mine/UXO awareness teachers?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Needs analysis exercise

This exercise is taken from the *Mine risk education booklet* developed by the Child-to-Child Trust (2004).

A needs analysis exercise can help to identify a key topic or a sequence of sub-topics when designing mine risk education programmes. It is a simple method, but one that generates useful discussion. This kind of exercise can be carried out using a number of methods such as drawing, discussion or role-play. A method that has been used successfully by a number of child-to-child projects is for groups to develop charts in the following way:

- In groups of 5 to 10 children and/or adults, participants are asked to identify the main problems affecting children's health in the community. In this case, the topic would be mines and the task would be to discuss what problems mines cause the children and the community.

- Discuss how serious each problem is (a system of points is used where 1 is the lowest level of problem and 5 is a problem of greatest importance).
- Discuss how common each of the problems is (with 1 being least common and 5 being most common).
- Discuss how much/what children can do.
- Total the points awarded against each problem and discuss the outcome.

The following is an example of a needs analysis exercise in which participants having identified mines and UXOs problems in their communities were then asked to analyse them. The scale used is 5 for the top score and 1 for the bottom score; the final column is the total score of the 3 previous columns.

Potential mines/UXOs problems identified in the community	How serious is the problem in the community?	How common is the problem in the community?	How much children can do and examples of what they can do	Importance to the CtC programme
Insufficient care for mine victims	5	3	3 Talk to parents about their concerns	11
Lack of knowledge about mines	5	3	3 Distribute leaflets	11
Mines as an ecological problem	4	2	3 Organize exhibition of drawings to raise awareness	9
Removing mine signs (vandalizing)	5	4	1 Talk to adults about danger	10

The problem scoring the highest points can be prioritized when designing the mine and UXO curriculum for that specific community.

For this particular analysis exercise, the group prioritized the two following problems:

- Insufficient care for mine victims.
- Lack of knowledge about mines.

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Chapter **4.6**

EDUCATION FOR LIFE SKILLS: PEACE, HUMAN RIGHTS AND CITIZENSHIP

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To help learners develop constructive non-violent behaviours, including cooperation, peaceful approaches to resolution of problems, respect for human rights and responsibilities, and active democratic citizenship.**
- **To ensure that learners develop the skills and values to consciously avoid negative behaviours such as violence, intolerance and discrimination.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Many emergency situations arise as a result of conflict, the roots of which are often the lack of respect for human rights and poorly functioning systems of local and national governance. Education for conflict-affected populations should help children and adults to understand their responsibilities for building a more peaceful future, in which the rights of all are respected. The relative emphasis on peace, reconciliation, respect for diversity, human rights and responsibilities, citizenship and democratic institutions will depend upon the local situation. Peace is a matter of great concern to those who have recently suffered from conflict, while those who have suffered from dictatorship

THE CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD AND EDUCATION FOR PEACE AND HUMAN RIGHTS

Article 29: “States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

...

- (b) The development of respect for human rights ...
- (c) The development of respect for ... the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own.
- (d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin ...”

Source: United Nations (1989).

and discrimination may be more interested in the concept of active democratic citizenship or human rights. Sometimes the government may prefer to use a more neutral term, and the messages of peace and citizenship may be referred to as ‘life skills education’ or another acceptable title.

In order to develop positive and constructive behaviours, the skills, concepts and values of peace, human rights and citizenship have to be taught using experiential methods. Structured activities such as special ‘games’, role plays and analyses of stories lead to discussions (facilitated by the teacher), in which students reflect on, develop, practise and internalize new behavioural skills, concepts and values. The skills should incorporate inclusion (understanding similarities and differences, avoiding bias), active listening and two-way communication, cooperation, analysis, problem-solving, appropriate assertiveness, negotiation, mediation, advocacy as well as emotional self-awareness,

empathy and trust. They are practised in a framework of values such as tolerance, peace, social equity and justice, gender equity, human rights and responsibilities and active citizenship based on democratic principles. Knowledge of a more factual nature, such as the history of peace theory, international declarations and conventions on human rights, or national constitutional and legal structures, is included as appropriate. For example, in a mixed nationality group of refugees, the ideas of human rights can be shared, whereas in a returnee or other ‘one nationality’ situation, it may be desirable to spend time understanding the national system of justice and governance.

Providing good-quality education for peace, human rights and citizenship is central in emergencies and reconstruction situations.

THE TWO FACES OF EDUCATION IN ETHNIC CONFLICT	
The negative face of education: Peace-destroying and conflict-maintaining impacts of education	The positive face of education: Peace-building and conflict-limiting impacts of education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The uneven distribution of education as a means of creating or preserving positions of economic, social and political privilege • Education as a weapon in cultural repression • Denial of education as a weapon of war • Education as a means of manipulating history for political purposes • Education serving to diminish self-worth and encourage hate • Segregated education as a means of ensuring inequality, inferiority and stereotypes • The role of textbooks in impoverishing the imagination of children and thereby inhibiting them from dealing with conflict constructively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflict-dampening impact of educational opportunity • Nurturing and sustaining an ethnically tolerant climate • Education and the desegregation of the mind • Linguistic tolerance • Cultivation of inclusive conceptions of citizenship • The disarming of history • Education for peace programmes • Educational practice as an explicit response to state oppression

Source: Adapted from Bush and Saltarelli (2000: 34).

To do this, however, educational authorities, agencies, donors and education personnel must be aware of the challenges as well as opportunities involved.

Populations affected by conflict or deprivation of human rights are often enthusiastic about education for peace, human rights and citizenship. Disaster preparedness and response also provide an opportunity for the practice of active citizenship at the community level. At the same time, head teachers may resist providing a timetable period for this subject due to curriculum overcrowding. Similarly, many programmes provide only resource materials and ask the teachers to formulate the curriculum structure themselves. Most teachers in emergency situations have neither the training nor the freedom to do this. Without special training, teachers cannot easily undertake this new and unfamiliar activity, which means that many programmes fail. It is also not realistic to expect teachers to deal with sensitive subjects such as the causes of and remedies for ongoing or recent conflict without appropriate training. Most will lack the expertise to provide more generic peace education.

To be successful, programmes need to be both structured and sustained. Occasional programmes such as ‘peace messages’ or ‘special days’ such as ‘peace days’ do not change behaviour.

When done properly, education for peace, human rights and citizenship can render invaluable benefits, however. Where displacement occurs as a result of internal conflict, education for peace and respect for diversity is of great importance to future social cohesion. Education for peace and citizenship can help build bridges between returning refugees or IDPs and those who did not migrate. The phase of the emergency and the population group concerned must always be taken into consideration when designing such programmes.

In situations of displacement, tensions will be very high and people will be under stress as they may have witnessed atrocities, or members of their family may have been killed. Conflicts can also arise between IDPs and community members who were not forced to move. In such circumstances, it is difficult to implement a 'peace education' programme *per se* right at the beginning. Peace education workshops including returnees, IDPs and non-migrants can help identify problems and build solutions, provided that skilled facilitators are available.

Psychosocial programmes during acute emergencies can incorporate peace elements, but it may be difficult to access and train teachers. Peace or human rights education initiatives must make it clear that they do not challenge the state but seek to convey norms and standards that the society may work towards in its own way in the post-conflict period.

Incorporation of human rights education in protracted emergencies should facilitate later reconciliation and development of effective structures of governance. At the stage of early reconstruction, courses for adolescents and adults need to extend from principles of peace to understanding of human rights and national law as the basis for prevention of conflicts and foundation of peacebuilding. Active citizenship activities at local level can be linked to or follow on from peace education programmes.

Returning teachers who have been trained in peace education and similar themes will be an important resource, if schools are willing to incorporate these themes in the timetable. However, a programme based on constructive skills for living should be acceptable if feasible under the prevailing conditions. Peace-building activities in other sectors than education, e.g. inter-ethnic community service or income-generation projects, can benefit from the inclusion of peace education workshops, if skilled facilitators are available.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Education for life skills:

peace, human rights and citizenship

- 1. Identify key personnel within the education ministry/ies, the curriculum centre, teacher training or university faculties of education and NGOs with interest and experience in education for peace, human rights and active citizenship (including responsible health and environmental behaviours), and form a working group.**
- 2. Conduct or facilitate a review of education programmes for peace, human rights, active citizenship, and responsible health and environmental behaviours, being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.**
- 3. Prepare a framework for cooperation between programmes in this field, and at the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action.**



- 4. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of education for peace, human rights, active citizenship and responsible health and environmental behaviours.**
- 5. Design programmes that meet the needs of a particular situation and phase of the emergency, with participation of educators, youth and adults from the affected communities.**
- 6. Consider how to provide time for interactive/experiential and reflective learning in this area, and how to train teachers.**
- 7. Consider offering non-formal workshops for youth, adults, women's groups, men's groups, community leaders and students to ensure that messages of peace, human rights, citizenship and responsible health and environmental behaviours reach all sections of society.**
- 8. Ensure monitoring and formative evaluation of the programme.**
- 9. Use peace education programmes for refugees, IDPs and returnees to build linkages between displaced, host and non-migrant communities.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Identify key personnel within the education ministry/ies, the curriculum centre, teacher training or university faculties of education and NGOs with interest and experience in education for peace, human rights and active citizenship (including responsible health and environmental behaviours), and form a working group.**

- 2. Conduct or facilitate a review of education programmes for peace, human rights, active citizenship, and responsible health and environmental behaviours, being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.**
 - Identify existing learning programmes in peace, human rights and citizenship education, as well as life skills education, from outside sources.
 - What titles do peace-oriented programmes have? (See also ‘Tools and resources’, ‘Interrelationship of education initiatives related to peace, human rights and active citizenship’.)
 - Education for conflict resolution.
 - Tolerance.
 - Reconciliation.
 - International or mutual understanding.
 - Values education.
 - Child rights.
 - Human rights.
 - Global education.

- What basic skills and values are taught in these programmes? (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for more information on the ‘Elements of Peace Education Programmes’.)
 - Basic skills and values of communication.
 - Empathy.
 - Avoidance of prejudice.
 - ‘Win-win’ problem solving.
 - Mediation and reconciliation.
- As there is often a great overlap in content with programmes known as ‘life skills’ education, which teach better communication, cooperation, problem solving and conflict resolution in relation to gender issues and HIV and AIDS prevention, evaluate these kinds of programmes.
- Are there any pilot programmes in a related area, respect for international humanitarian norms, which are being sponsored by the International Committee of the Red Cross.
- Analyse existing learning programmes (curriculum, textbooks, classroom activities) for elements and skills of peace or its opposite. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1*, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’.)
- Does the curriculum meet the needs of all the students (e.g. girls, religious/cultural groups, language groups, special needs groups)?
- Are there content areas where some aspects of education for peace, human rights and citizenship are already present?
- How much flexibility/space/openness is there to use the learning programme as a tool for healing?
- Determine whether a separate peace education or similar programme is desirable.

3. Identify modalities for cooperation between programmes in this field, and at the early reconstruction phase, prepare a plan for the progressive development and expansion of work in this area.

- Share expertise and coordinate efforts so that maximum benefit is obtained from limited resources.
- Avoid confusing teachers and students by a series of education interventions that cover similar ground but are interrelated.
- Make efforts at the stage of early reconstruction to include objectives of peace, respect for human rights and active citizenship in the emerging curriculum framework.
- Consider establishing a pilot programme in selected schools, to try out and adapt the materials available internationally and nationally in this area.
- Building on pilot experience, a framework for skills and values-based education can be developed as part of schooling from pre-school onwards. This framework should be focused on:
 - Developing skills and values for peace.
 - Human rights.
 - Citizenship.
 - Responsible health and environmental behaviours, etc.
- Coverage can be extended through strong government support for an expanding network of participating schools, leading to insights into how to strengthen this element of the curriculum for students generally.



LEARNING TO LIVE TOGETHER: SUGGESTED POLICY GUIDELINES FOR AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO SKILLS AND VALUES DEVELOPMENT

How to include goals of peace and conflict resolution, tolerance and respect for diversity, respect for human rights and humanitarian norms, active citizenship, environmental sustainability, non-pressured personal relationships and preventive health.

Element 1: Preparatory actions; identifying national and regional human resources for start up, participatory research, feasibility studies, stakeholder consensus building.

Element 2: Strong government policy commitment and vision statement.

Element 3: Creation of a core development team including committed educators who have proven skills in experiential education and in-service teacher training.

Element 4: Creation of a coherent and progressive age-appropriate unified curriculum framework for building skills, concepts, attitudes and values related to the goals of learning to live together, including preventive health.

Element 5: Introduction of a 'separate subject' for behavioural skills and values, with an appropriate motivational title, or series of titles, for one period a week throughout the years of schooling. This subject can be totally separate, or if necessary, an earmarked addition to an existing 'carrier' subject. It should have its own:



- Special title(s).
- Special time-slot in the timetable.
- Special active methodology.
- Special support materials based on a pedagogically sequenced curriculum.
- Specially identified and specially trained teachers.
- Special ongoing teacher support.

Element 6: Insertion of supporting course units/lessons units into existing subjects.

Element 7: Textbook reform to exclude harmful material and introduce positive modelling of learning to live together related to the various goals.

Element 8: Policy of government-supported step-wise expansion of network of participating schools and other education institutions and programmes (pre-school, vocational, non-formal, higher education) aiming towards universal coverage without diminution of quality.¹

Element 9: Conflict resolution/life skills/citizenship workshops for practising and trainee teachers.

Element 10: ‘Whole school’ and ‘whole community’ approach, and multiple channels of communication.

Element 11: Research, monitoring and evaluation.

Source: Sinclair (2004: 147).

1. With ongoing research-based development of diversified programmes suited to the various types of institutions including those operating under especially difficult conditions.

4. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of education for peace, human rights, active citizenship and responsible health and environmental behaviour.

A best practice review and annotated list of ongoing programmes could be helpful in promoting quality education and inter-agency cooperation in this field. See for example, UNESCO (2002b) or the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for a comparison of intervention models for behavioural skills and values development for peace.

5. Design programmes that meet the needs of a particular situation and phase of the emergency, with participation of educators, youth and adults from the affected communities.

- In the acute phase of an emergency, consider including interactive play components so that children begin to learn some of the messages of peace education, such as cooperation and inclusiveness.
 - These play components can be introduced even when the caregivers do not know the links between the activities and the concepts associated with peace education.
 - At a later stage, teachers can be trained on the concepts so that they can then discuss them with the children during the play activities.
 - Even before a formal peace/human rights/citizenship education programme is adopted, consider starting focused discussions, or ‘study circles’ on these issues with community leaders, youth, or women’s groups.

- Give group leaders or teachers initial training to facilitate these discussions. The training should be such that it can later be incorporated in training for the peace/human rights/citizenship education programme.
- Community activities that begin the process of education in the principles of citizenship will provide vital experiences for use in the wider society at a later date.
- Does the community support the inclusion of peace, human rights and citizenship education in the formal school curriculum? Does the community wish for workshops or non-formal education on these themes? Community participation requires a series of discussions where the elements and ramifications of such a programme are openly and frankly discussed.
 - Undertake a baseline study to determine the behaviours and attitudes of the population with regard to peaceful behaviours, human rights and citizenship. Design the study by reference to the types of activity to be included in the new education programme.
 - Establish focus groups ensuring that all elements of the community – including minority groups, women, religious leaders, community leaders and caregivers – actively participate.
 - Undertake focus group discussions to ensure that there is an understanding of the purpose of peace/citizenship education or similar programmes.
 - If there is support for peace education or similar programmes, determine the title of the programme. Some options include ‘peace education’, ‘human rights education’, ‘citizenship education’, ‘life skills education’.
- Design an appropriate programme.

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a list of elements generally included in peace education programmes.)

- Consider whether the programme:
 - Focuses on the skills of peace and citizenship in general.
 - Introduces humanitarian norms/the Geneva Conventions, especially where there is a risk of further violent conflict. These norms/conventions can also be used as a tool for active citizenship in meeting the needs of others.
 - Is acceptable to the community.
 - Is culturally appropriate.
 - Builds positive and constructive skills and behaviours. Focus should be on individual and inter-personal skills and behaviours, prioritizing matters within the competency of the students at the time, such as:
 - Peaceful resolution of conflicts in the community.
 - Promoting the rights of the child and women’s rights.
 - Condemning sexual and gender-based violence.
 - Reducing and countering peer or partner pressure to have unwanted or unprotected sex.
 - Ensuring rights of those with disability.
- Is a sustained learning experience rather than an occasional programme – uses a cyclic curriculum approach covering each year or grade of schooling.
- Has a teacher-training component to ensure valid teaching. Does the teacher training component lead to some form of certification?
- Can the programme be directly implemented in schools?
- Identify and ask teachers to remove elements of current curricula that incite hatred, violence, negative attitudes, etc.

- What are the alternatives if full inclusion into the curriculum is not possible – for example, after-school or weekend activities, or programmes during holiday or break periods, etc.?

6. Consider how to provide time for interactive/ experiential and reflective learning in this area, and how to train teachers.

Any programme that attempts to develop and change interpersonal skills, values/attitudes and behaviours needs time for experiential activities such as role-plays, together with group discussion and reflection. Without these elements, which are time-consuming, any learning will be theoretical and many students will not develop the intended skills and values. Hence, there must either be extra time allocated to a ‘separate subject’, or a weekly period is needed for a ‘carrier subject’ approach, which is more effective. Asking busy teachers to insert this kind of sensitive and activity-based approach into their regular teaching is not effective in the short or medium term (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.3, ‘HIV prevention education’*).

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for a comparison of intervention models.)

- If education for peace, human rights and citizenship is to be incorporated into the existing curriculum, identify the modifications that are necessary to include these elements. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’*.)
- Can education for peace/human rights/citizenship be taught as a separate subject? This will take persuasion but may be possible when decision-makers are sincerely concerned about building a more peaceful future.

- A separate named weekly lesson period is needed in each year of schooling for experiential teaching related to peace, human rights, citizenship and responsible health and environmental behaviours, whether it is a ‘separate subject’, or included in another ‘carrier’ subject such as civics.
- Into which subjects can teachers be helped to include the new themes related to peace, human rights and citizenship, to complement the focused lesson periods devoted to these topics?
 - Language instruction.
 - Physical education.
 - Religious education.
 - Civics.
- Are there curriculum writing/education revision groups in existence that can be trained to include these dimensions as well?
 - Consider the use of a core group of curriculum specialists, teachers and NGO educators with special experience in this area to design and implement a pilot programme, drawing on national and international experience.
 - Determine which outside groups are already working on peace, human rights, citizenship, environmental awareness, and life skills education and seek to collaborate with them.
- ‘Subject integration’ of peace education and citizenship can be seen as a target for gradual long-term quality improvement of various subjects. It does not represent a solution for providing education for peace and citizenship in post-conflict situations, for which a separate lesson period and specially trained teachers are required.

IMPROVING TEACHER SKILLS THROUGH PEACE EDUCATION

In the refugee schools in Kenya, peace education lessons provide many students and teachers with their first insight into the use and value of participatory methods. “The peace education teachers are now considered to be the best-trained teachers in the camp and they have taken on roles which were not envisaged, such as peer training, counselling and mentoring.”

Source: Baxter, in Sinclair (2001: 29–30).

Be aware of the extreme difficulty of integrating experiential behavioural skills and values development activities in existing subjects. This is very difficult even in countries with well-resourced education systems and well-trained teachers. It is almost impossible in countries with under-trained teachers and examination-focused teachers, students and parents.

- Consider how to train teachers for this new type of participative and sensitive work and identify other needed resources.

It will be difficult to train all teachers to undertake this type of work – it is best to train teachers with an aptitude and interest. Alternatively, but with less prospect of success, teachers of a particular ‘carrier’ subject may be trained in this work.

- How will suitable teachers be identified and made available – will new teachers be recruited or will teachers be selected for training from the existing staff?
- How much training and in-school mentoring of teachers is required for this new type of experiential education?
 - Generally, ongoing training during several holiday/break periods is required, for example, three sessions of ten days during holidays in addition to in-school support.

- In-school support is needed from mobile trainers, since most teachers will be new to this type of active learning and classroom reflection on sensitive matters
- As selected teachers receive training and develop the experiential skills needed to teach education for peace, human rights, citizenship education and responsible health and environmental behaviours, additional support may be provided so that they or other teachers can begin to incorporate these skills into the teaching of other subjects.
- What consumable resources are required? These should be a minor part of the budget so that the programme remains sustainable even in the event of budget cuts.
- How will the programme be funded and for what period?
 - After the initial start-up phase, ensure the sustainability of the programme by including the necessary teachers and other resources in the normal education budget.
- What technical support is required? Who will supply it?
- Provide awareness training for all educational administrators and other education workers not directly involved in the education for peace, human rights and citizenship programme.
 - Do administrators, teachers and education workers understand the philosophy and methodology of education for peace, human rights, etc.?

7. Consider offering non-formal workshops for youth, adults, women’s groups, men’s groups, community leaders and students to ensure that messages of peace, human rights, citizenship and responsible health and environmental behaviours reach all sections of society.

- Can such programmes be linked with ongoing skills-based health-education programmes to ensure that they give complementary messages, since similar core skills are involved?
- What linkages can be made with awareness-raising programmes related to gender, the environment, landmines, etc.?
- Can non-formal workshops be offered as part of technical/vocational training courses?

8. Ensure monitoring and formative evaluation of the programme.

- Involve the community in the monitoring and evaluation of the programme – both elements incorporated into formal school and elements included in non-formal settings.
 - Community participation in the development/acceptance/modification of the programme is vital.
 - Support should also be provided for follow up activities such as community service, inter-ethnic sporting events, production of creative writing/newsletters related to peace, etc.
 - Where possible, support national university staff and students to participate in and evaluate the programme.

9. Use peace education programmes for refugees, IDPs and returnees to build linkages between displaced, host and non-migrant communities.

- In refugee or displaced situations, where peace education programmes are being implemented in camps, explore ways of establishing parallel peace education programmes in the host community to ensure mutual reinforcement and common behaviour modifications.

- What allied programmes exist in the general community (e.g. non-formal education)?
- Are the concept areas and desired attitudinal learning similar?
- Do the programmes allow for a comprehensive approach?
- Do the programmes encompass and cater to members of all social groups? (Ensure access/participation of girls/women, youth, minority groups, religious, cultural groups etc.)
- In situations of return, consider using the knowledge and experience of returning teachers who have been trained in peace education and similar themes to help establish education for peace, human rights and citizenship in the curriculum of the home country.
 - Are there education working groups who can crosscheck the validity of the training programmes?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Elements of peace education programmes

The INEE *Good practice guide* suggests that the following elements are often included in peace education programmes:

Concepts

- Similarities and differences, inclusion/exclusion, self-esteem (in some societies), communication, self-respect, emotional literacy, social pressure, reflection, cooperation, conflict prevention/management/resolution.

- Human rights, children's rights, child protection, gender rights, marginalization, demobilization, reintegration, preservation of cultural norms, rule of law, civic participation/responsibility, democracy, good governance.
- Human dignity, humanitarian acts, civilians versus combatants.
- Peace (internal, external), peace building, peace maintenance, reconciliation, impunity, truth and justice, rehabilitation, disarmament, escalation and de-escalation of conflict.

Values

- Compassion, empathy, sympathy, kindness, inclusion, family values, respect for human life and dignity and similarity, love, caring, tolerance, diversity, simplicity, freedom, responsibility, honesty, emotional honesty, humility, happiness, cooperation, ethics/morality, equity, forgiveness, confession/admission, spirituality, patience, self-help, trust, integration, pluralism, cultural/social values preservation, accountability, unity/patriotism for national unity after conflict, good governance, peace.

Skills

- Active listening, questioning, communication.
- Working together, cooperation, social integration, accurate perceptions, recognizing stereotypes, assertiveness.
- Analysis/critical thinking, identifying root causes, reflection, problem-solving, making choices, identifying dilemmas, seeing that actions have consequences, having multiple perspectives, values clarification.

- Negotiation, mediation, conflict resolution, advocacy, teaching, sharing, consensus building, networking.

Knowledge

- Principles of human rights, human rights instruments, UN charter, UN Decade of a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World 2001-2010.
- Origin and principles of humanitarian law (including areas of application, who does it protect, why is it difficult to apply, who is involved).
- Problem solving, mediation, conflict management, peace building, community methods for conflict resolution, peace, justice, bias, tolerance.
- HIV and AIDS awareness and related interpersonal skills.
- Tools such as information technology, research, publications/ media, writing, case studies, networking.

In addition, the guide suggests the following tips for evaluating the success of peace education programmes:

- The importance of generating base-line indicators jointly with the community.
- The need to identify at the beginning (to the extent possible) the types of behavioural indicators that will be looked for as indicators of success [e.g. what is looked for in children's speech (e.g. stereotypes), their cooperation in tasks and outside of the school with groups who were previously marginalized, ability to socialize with people from opposing groups].

- Building baseline and subsequent measurement of indicators into the project design.
- Observation of participants can indicate values adopted.
- Possibility of systematizing anecdotal evidence collected through monitoring and evaluation.
- Evaluation should be both formative (during the implementation) and summative (measuring impact at the end of a given period). Evaluation needs to cover the content and methodology of the intervention as well as the structure (e.g. materials, teaching approaches and then full-time, part-time in or out of school, special training or add-on training etc.). These are all formative. Summative evaluation measures impact of the programme (longitudinal studies, anecdotal feedback reduction in violence, measurable improvement in levels of interaction (through high-level observation), etc.) Formative evaluation should be ongoing from the beginning of implementation; summative should be after three or four years. Behaviour change will not be visible prior to this time.
- Team evaluation (insiders and outsiders) is better than having a single outside evaluator.
- Being selective about evaluation, to keep costs in proportion.
- Success stories are important in training and fund-raising.

Source: INEE (2003).

2. Interrelationship of education initiatives related to peace, human rights and active citizenship

EDUCATIONAL INITIATIVE	NATURE OF LEARNING GOALS
Peace education	Conflict resolution, peace, reconciliation, tolerance, respect for human rights, civic participation ...
Education for mutual understanding	Social cohesion, respect for diversity, inclusive national identity ...
Multicultural/intercultural education	Tolerance, respect for diversity, anti-racism, non-discrimination ...
Human rights education	Respect for human rights and responsibilities, rights of women, children and minorities, tolerance, non-discrimination, prevention of bullying, civic participation ...
'Life skills'/health education	Preventive health/HIV/AIDS prevention, prevention of substance abuse, respect for the health rights of others, respectful relationships ...
Citizenship education	Active and responsible participation in civic/political life, democracy, respect for human rights, tolerance ...
Education for sustainable development	Environmental sustainability, respect for the rights and welfare of all ...
Humanitarian education	Respect for humanitarian norms, humanitarian acts, non-discrimination ...
Values education	Internalization of values of peace, respect and concern for others ...

Source: Sinclair (2004: 22).

3. Comparison of intervention models for behavioural skills and values development for peace, human rights, citizenship, preventive health behaviours

ADVANTAGES	TYPICAL PROBLEMS
INTEGRATION/INFUSION APPROACHES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A ‘whole school’ approach • Uses accepted school subjects • Many teachers involved • Potential for reinforcement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulty of ensuring cohesion and progression in what students learn (skills and values for peace, human rights, citizenship, preventive health behaviours) • Difficulty of accessing, training and supporting all teachers in skills-based experiential approaches and influencing all textbooks • Bias to information transmission in content and methodology (same as for other subjects) • Lack of lesson time for experiential activities and discussion • Can be lost among higher status elements of curriculum • Pressure to focus on examination topics • Some teachers do not see relevance to their subject • Potential for reinforcement seldom realised due to other barriers • Teacher turnover necessitates long term training and support programmes
CROSS-REFERENCING APPROACHES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special skills and values-focused lesson units prepared centrally for insertion by subject teachers as enrichment or application of certain topics means that information and guidance is provided to non-specialist teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulty of cross-referencing to subject syllabi • Difficulty of accessing, training and supporting teachers of concerned subjects in skills-based approaches • Lack of lesson time for experiential activities and discussion • Pressure to focus on examination topics • Teacher turnover necessitates long term training and support programmes

ADVANTAGES	TYPICAL PROBLEMS
CARRIER SUBJECT APPROACHES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher training and support easier because fewer teachers involved and some have relevant background due to their subject experience • Teachers more likely to see the relevance of the skills and values • Cheaper and faster to integrate the components into materials of one subject than to infuse them across all 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk of an inappropriate subject being chosen (e.g. biology is less good than health education or civic education for HIV/AIDS education because of the social and personal issues, and tendency of science teachers to focus only on transmission of knowledge) • Needs an extra timetable period for new experiential content • Pressure to focus on examination topics • Some of the subject teachers may be unsuited to experiential approaches and facilitating discussion of sensitive topics • Teacher turnover necessitates long term training and support programmes
SEPARATE SUBJECT APPROACHES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The specially trained teacher needs intensive training but through constant practice gains competence and is motivated to keep the job by actually teaching the skills, values and behaviours required by his/her employers • Clear labelling of the subject and adequate time allocation assist students to internalize appropriate values and behaviours 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires decision to find space in existing timetable or add an additional school period to the school week • Pressures on the specially trained teachers to do other things, especially if their programme is given low status • In small isolated schools, the specialist teachers need additional tasks to fill their timetable • Teacher turnover necessitates long term training and support programmes

Source: Sinclair (2004: 135).

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VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

MAIN OBJECTIVE

- **To provide opportunities to conflict-affected people to learn technical and vocational skills that are relevant to current and future employment opportunities.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

In countries affected by war, communities frequently suffer infrastructure damage and the supply of goods is disrupted by the lack of a viable logistics chain, destroyed production sites, and an impoverished population unable to pay for goods and services. Artisans may have lost their materials; factories and markets may have been destroyed; both adults and youth may have lost livelihoods or skills training opportunities.

In a refugee, IDP or conflict-impacted community, skilled artisans may be needed but markets are weak, procurement of raw materials is difficult and consumers are often limited to international actors implementing relief

programmes. The artificial nature of such markets makes it difficult to assess the long-term need for skilled artisans. Many skilled artisans have their own businesses, and often employ a traditional apprentice, but usually do not take part in formal training programmes. They represent an important potential resource for training on a wider scale. Vocational or skills training for a large number of students in standard trades will likely saturate the market, meaning that many of those trained may not be able to obtain employment or succeed in their own business.

Destruction of infrastructure and housing means there will eventually be a demand for skilled craftsmen and craftswomen (hereafter ‘craftspeople’) to help rebuild communities. As a result of conflict, a country’s existing vocational training centres or programmes may have been destroyed, or at least be severely under-resourced with regard to materials, functioning equipment and qualified trainers/teachers. The number of skilled craftspeople and artisans may have decreased resulting in a smaller pool of qualified people to help train others.

In refugee operations, host country governments may not allow vocational training that leads to job opportunities for refugees, as they may be concerned about the effect on their own labour markets. On the other hand, if no other post-primary options are available, some refugees may choose to attend vocational training programmes, even though they are not interested. This takes space away from others who are interested.

In acute and protracted emergencies, educational planners are often concerned with the number of youth who are potentially without access to secondary school or viable education and/or income generation options. For this reason, there is often

a tension between providing vocational education purely as preparation for employment, or as a psychosocial programme to keep youth hopeful and occupied while learning some useful skills. This social/conflict-prevention objective frequently runs contrary to the objective of providing training in specific skills based on identified market needs. There can be disillusionment if the training does not lead to genuine employment opportunities, and ex-trainees can be tempted to sell any tools they were provided with at graduation, or be unable to pay for tools if the latter are to be purchased based on their earnings.

At the stage of reconstruction, the need for skilled artisans to help rebuild destroyed communities can be enormous. It may therefore be wise to provide opportunities for out-of-school youth to learn vocational skills during situations of protracted emergency as well as at the stage of reconstruction itself (when there will be many opportunities for on-the-job apprenticeships). Many young people will initially be busy with rehabilitation of homes, fields, etc., and may not be available for training.

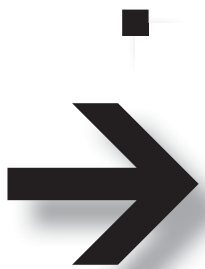
Donors may be willing to fund vocational training in returnee-receiving areas to facilitate their return and reintegration. Care is needed to give equitable treatment to non-migrants, who may have been deprived of access to skills training during the emergency.

Vocational education and training contributes to the building of human capital and the rebuilding of communities. Care must be taken, however, to ensure that the training provided is linked to the existing market for goods and services, so that trainees may gain practical experience for the world of work. Otherwise, trainees will become frustrated by the lack of market opportunities, or will choose not to attend programmes that they

deem irrelevant. One way of strengthening market opportunities is to find ways of channelling contracts for production of school furniture and relief goods in general to ex-trainees.

Since vocational education is often much more costly than schooling, programme planners must find a middle road that prioritizes training in skills that can be used during the emergency and will help meet later reconstruction needs. At the stage of early reconstruction, the needs may be clearer but there may be problems in providing organized skills training in scattered and perhaps insecure rural locations.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Vocational and educational training

- 1. Conduct or facilitate a review of vocational skills training programmes being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism and working group.**
- 2. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action for the renewal of technical and vocational education.**



3. **Provide guidance to civil-society organizations and external agencies on the conduct of vocational skills training programmes, including elements such as those listed below.**
4. **Design programmes that train for real employment opportunities.**
5. **Find the appropriate human and capital resources for the training programmes.**
6. **Consider developing a system of monitoring and evaluation, to identify whether ex-trainees are successfully entering the employment market.**
7. **Provide certification of students' achievements.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct or facilitate a review of technical and vocational skills training programmes being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a coordination mechanism and working group.**

- To make the most out of initiatives supported by outside organizations, educational authorities should facilitate the coordination of the various activities that are offered in order to:
 - Encourage the exchange of experiences among those conducting vocational training programmes.
 - Discuss lessons learnt with regard to programme monitoring and evaluation to determine whether the training offered is the most effective for the current needs of the country/ population.
 - Ensure that there is not unintended duplication of training that produces too many graduates in a given location.
 - Encourage the use of common standards for different types of vocational training programmes. (See also comments on certification below.)

2. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action for the renewal of technical and vocational education.

This will entail a needs assessment for government institutions that may have been damaged or closed during the conflict. There should also be a review of whether there has been a mismatch between the courses offered and the current labour market situation. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)

3. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations and external agencies on the conduct of vocational skills training programmes, including elements such as those listed below.

4. Design programmes that train for real employment opportunities.

- Set specific vocational education objectives and indicators for measuring success. (See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for an example of a programme outline for vocational training in Tanzania for Burundian youth.)
 - Are vocational education programmes developed with income generation, skills building or psychosocial objectives in mind?
 - Are programmes intended to lead to immediate full-time employment, part-time employment, increased self-esteem, or employment at a later date (in which case arrangements may be needed to ‘over learn’ the skills through temporary employment after training)? The structure and content of the programme will vary according to your priority objectives.
 - Are the objectives measurable and achievable? Have both qualitative and quantitative indicators been developed in order to monitor the success of the programme (e.g. number of programme graduates who obtained employment related to the learnt skill or participants’ satisfaction with the training programme, or with jobs acquired post-training)?
- Create a curriculum based on intended skills and learners’ current skill levels.
 - Do learners have opportunities practically to apply newly learned skills?
 - Is there a desire to include a life skills component in the training? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 4.2, ‘Health and hygiene education’, Chapter 4.3, ‘HIV prevention education’, Chapter 4.4, ‘Environmental education’ and Chapter 4.6, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’.)



THE ILO EMPLOYMENT-GENERATION PROGRAMME IN CAMBODIA

“[A] large ILO employment-generation programme in Cambodia in the 1990s ... used an integrated approach combining skills development, small business training and financial support, and labour-based technology. The first phase (1993–1996) of the skills development project provided to some 5,000 returnees and displaced persons, half of whom were women, quick training in diverse skills, ranging from two-week courses on mushroom growing to four-month courses on building construction. The second phase (1996–1998) concentrated on institutional capacity building and policy issues, besides skills training, for a further 2,500 persons. The employment and self-employment success rate for trainees was above 80 per cent, with highest rates for skills such as vegetable growing, shell craft, and radio and television repair. Meanwhile, within those eight years, some 4,000 received small business training, with 3,000 of them (67 per cent women) borrowing to start or expand their businesses. Hundreds of managers, contractors and government staff were trained in labour-based construction and maintenance techniques, as well as business, accounting, language and computer skills.

The salient elements of the programme’s success were: matching training to income-generation and employment opportunities; mobile training, so once sufficient people were trained in a given craft, the training programme would move to another district, thus preventing saturation of that craft; special training entry tests to ensure women and other disadvantaged groups received priority access to all courses. Furthermore, the programme tried to address the needs of disabled persons, such as identifying specially adapted, available and affordable farming, road building and other tools for them ...”

Source: Barcia and Date-Bah (2003: 215).

- For programmes with specific income-generation or skills-building objectives, conduct a market survey to determine the demand for skills in the market place. Consider:
 - The economic context in which the programme will take place,
 - The demand for particular skills in a camp environment will be limited, especially if camp residents are not allowed out of the camp to earn an income.
 - The demand for particular skills will also vary based on the stage of the conflict, e.g. if repatriation or return is imminent, it may be wise to consider the broader range of skills that will be necessary in areas of return. (It may be noted that return is often said to be imminent by assistance agencies and governments even when it is not, in order to please donors or meet political pressures respectively).
 - The skills or resources that may be under-appreciated or forgotten. For example, often men are recruited into agricultural training programmes and women are left out, despite the fact that they are often major producers. Alternatively, women are trained in sewing, because that is the Western sexist interpretation – even though it is men who sew in most developing countries.
 - Training in non-traditional areas so as not to saturate one or two fields and to diversify the skill set of a community. For example, refresher courses for midwives or traditional healers may strengthen existing community services in a time of need and keep these skills-sets fresh.
 - Incorporating community and learner interests and the perceived and actual value of certain skills-sets into the market survey.
 - Focus on discussions with craftspeople and with recently trained students rather than attempting a statistically

sophisticated survey, which will take time and perhaps not convey the full situation.

- What skills do people themselves perceive as particularly valuable?
- What are the constraints on their ability to participate in any programme that is offered?
 - Child care.
 - The time of day that the programme is offered.
 - Cost.
- Determine the best type of vocational education programme for the identified skills. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for an explanation of various models of vocational/skills training.)
 - If training is for a full livelihood, it is important to limit the number trained to what the market can absorb.
 - In refugee or IDP situations, it is better to train a limited number who will be able to practise their skills while displaced (at least for a year of production practice), so that their skills will be useful when they repatriate/return.
 - All skills training should include some ‘small business’ and administrative and financial skills.
- Identify the mechanisms through which training can be offered.
 - Government-run training centres or enterprise development institutes.
 - NGO or United Nations sponsored initiatives, for training courses, sponsored apprenticeships, or preferably programmes that incorporate elements of both.
- Identify training programmes and models that are appropriate to the learners’ needs and desires. Determine the target audience for the programme.
 - Youth: In acute and protracted emergencies where large numbers of youth may be idle or without access to other



BASIC BUSINESS SKILLS AS AN IMPORTANT COMPONENT OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING OF BURUNDIAN REFUGEES IN TANZANIA

“Many groups keep simple records of purchases and sales but do not have the capacity to carry out costing and pricing. Some of the group trainers reported that they had attended a one-day course in keeping books and said it had been interesting but too short. Upgrading trainers, particularly in quality control and business skills, could be very useful. In addition to enhancing their effectiveness as trainers, such offers of upgrading would certainly serve as an incentive to them.”

Source: Lyby (2001: 229).

learning opportunities, a skills training programme with primarily social objectives may be of interest to some youth. Others will be interested in a more rigorous vocational training programme in order to improve their skills and chances of obtaining employment.

- Vulnerable members of the community: Children heading households, orphans, former child soldiers, young mothers, and those with disabilities are often very vulnerable, especially when traditional support mechanisms and opportunities for economic advancement and autonomy disappear as a result of an emergency situation. Vocational education or skills training may be a good option for such vulnerable individuals. Sponsored apprenticeship is an especially good option for the vulnerable, as it can be arranged near their home, and introduces them to the workplace and subsequent employment opportunities. (In many trades, it is necessary to practise as a waged employee for some years to gain enough expertise and

develop a reputation that can lead to self-employment. Apprentices have a better chance of getting waged employment since their skills and application are known in the locality).

- Ensure that training programmes reach their intended participants. Consider:
 - Whether additional support is necessary for vulnerable individuals to successfully enrol and complete a vocational education programme. Support might include:
 - Childcare for siblings or children.
 - Community participation to promote acceptance of former combatants.
 - Scholarships or stipends.
 - Assistance with transportation to vocational education programmes.
 - Developing a policy on gender and disability to ensure that, from the start, implementers think creatively about how to reach sometimes forgotten participant groups.
 - The need for same-sex trainers.
 - Whether there is a need for remedial training to allow some participants to participate fully.
 - Establishing a list of criteria for accepting applicants and a review process that a committee can follow to ensure impartiality in accepting participants.
 - Interviews to assess the applicant's intentions and entrepreneurship potential.
 - Trial periods to determine whether trainees are committed and succeeding in the programme. If not, they could be replaced by more suitable candidates. Participants could be evaluated during the trial period based on their:
 - Attendance.
 - Interest.
 - Aptitude.
 - Ability to follow instructions.

- Developing an awareness and information campaign to communicate training possibilities to the community.
- Consider post-education follow-up training to reinforce skills learned.

5. Find the appropriate human and capital resources for the training programmes.

- For the rehabilitation of government vocational training centres and the renewal of the nation's vocational education programme, include good survey data on the institutions, a labour market review, and costings for infrastructure, equipment, materials and staff training in the needs assessment for the education sector presented to donors.
- For individual training programmes, consider:
 - Who is available to conduct the skills training?
 - Do those with the technical knowledge and skills have the appropriate pedagogical skills? If not, what additional training can be offered to improve their abilities to teach the skills to the intended learners?
 - Is it more cost-effective to build a centre, to decentralize and use local artisans (through apprenticeship) or to work through existing training structures, if any?
 - Is there a need to contract external trainers rather than those in the refugee, IDP or conflict-affected community to accommodate language differences, learners' prior knowledge or gender, or the need for particular specialist knowledge?
 - What tools and/or training materials can be made available to support the training programme – whether it is an apprentice programme or one run through a centre? Will tools be given to a craftsperson so that the additional apprentice can learn the full range of skills?



OPTIMIZING THE USE OF SKILLED TRADES PEOPLE IN THE COMMUNITY

In Tanzania, skilled tailors from Burundi keep up their skills and their business while living in the camps. “When asked whether they could take in more than one apprentice [both tailors] say that they could do so if they had the necessary tools and materials to support the training.”

Studies of a sponsored apprenticeship programme for Afghan refugees in the North West Frontier Province of Pakistan showed that a majority of the ex-trainees were in employment that used their skills.

Sources: Lyby (2001: 230); Sinclair (2002: 80).

- Will a personal set of tools be allocated to a student on a training course, to become his/hers on graduation – so that the tools are not shiny and saleable at a high price? Alternatively, will the student be given a new tool kit on graduation? Or asked to pay for it through subsequent earnings? Or linked to an income generation or micro-credit scheme?

6. Consider developing a system of monitoring and evaluation, to identify whether ex-trainees are successfully entering the employment market

- Develop a monitoring system to determine whether ex-trainees are employed and using the skills for which they were trained. (It is difficult to trace them, however.) Monitoring systems should also analyze:
 - Costs per trainee.
 - Market information.

- Consider periodic evaluations or assessment of vocational training programmes to answer the following questions (Lyby, 2001):
 - Is the training relevant to the needs of those receiving it?
 - Are the training interventions well designed, that is do the objectives correspond to the efforts (activities) in a way that is likely to bring about the desired results?
 - Do the results justify the costs? Is the work best organized to achieve the desired results? Do the organizations responsible for the training have sufficient capacity to coordinate and deliver it at the level required?
 - Are the objectives being achieved?
 - What impacts does the training programme have?
 - To what extent are the benefits of the training likely to be sustained over time?

7. Provide certification of students' achievements.

Consider accrediting or mainstreaming vocational education programmes into emerging or pre-existing education or skills training certification programmes.

- Are student diplomas from government or NGO training centres recognized in the various contexts, i.e. refugee, host country, or returnee contexts? If not, what steps can be taken to ensure that a students' learning is recognized?
- Certain non-governmental institutions have a high reputation, e.g. Don Bosco training centres.
- In general, NGO programmes prepare students for informal sector employment and their certificates are not recognized officially.
- It is always desirable to issue certificates at the end of a training course, even if there is no official recognition. The certificates give satisfaction to the student, and may be helpful in getting employment, even if not recognized by government.

- Testing procedures that could be used to provide government certification of skills acquired may not be functioning during times of emergency.
- What traditional mechanisms exist for certifying the capability of an apprentice? If certificates were provided prior to the conflict, can they be provided now?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Types of vocational training

Apprenticeships

Students are placed with skilled artisans for a pre-determined period. Often these programmes target out-of-school youth or vulnerable members of the population.

- **Quality and duration of learning:** Depends on the skill level of the artisan with whom an apprentice is placed. This is generally a good method for the acquisition of skills as learning is immediately applied, repeated and learned at the individual's pace. In addition, apprenticeship programmes also impart knowledge of all the skills needed to run a small business, such as improvising tools, materials and small parts as well as dealing with suppliers and customers.
- **Skills training areas:** Topics may include hairdressing, sewing/tailoring, carpentry, mechanics, leather working, photography, vehicle repair, or computer science, depending on the existing artisans, community needs and participant interest. One advantage of this approach is that trainees can study a wide

range of trades, and in a wide range of locations, thereby lessening saturation of the labour market.

- **Cost:** These programmes typically tend to cost less, as there are none of the costs associated with construction of centres. However, there will be staff costs associated with large-scale sponsored apprenticeship programmes, and in such programmes trainees may be given a travel allowance, etc., depending on local conditions. The artisans are provided with tools and materials for themselves (if they lost them in the conflict) or so that there is additional equipment to enable the apprentices to proceed quickly to learning the skills of the craft. As with all programmes, it is preferable to make a set of basic tools available to the graduating apprentice, since this increases employability.
- **Monitoring and evaluation:** Apprenticeship programmes are difficult to monitor as each artisan's training locality must be visited in order to verify attendance, learning progress, etc. However, it is somewhat easier to monitor ex-trainees as many continue working with the same master craftsperson or in neighbouring businesses, as waged employees.

Resource centres

Several artisans come together and are provided with working tools. Production or services are provided on-site for the local population. Resource centres may be set up by international organizations to facilitate the availability of materials needed for local procurement (e.g. school furniture) and to support the local economy. The impact of these centres on local markets should be considered before they are established.

- **Quality and duration of learning:** Depends on the skill level of the artisans but typically a good method because learning

is immediately applied, repeated and learned at individual rates. Resource centre staff may also help artisans and their apprentices learn business skills that enable artisans to manage large orders, and market their goods and services.

- **Skills training areas:** Teaching and production go hand in hand. For example, resource centres staffed with artisans and apprentices may produce school uniforms or school furniture. Sometimes multiple artisans are brought together in the same location.
- **Cost:** Typically includes construction or rehabilitation of centres, hiring staff to manage them and materials for equipping them.
- **Monitoring and evaluation:** Easy to monitor in terms of profits made, orders filled and quality of product produced, as well as attendance and application of learning. It is more difficult to monitor the training interaction between artisans and apprentices unless it is highly structured.

Training centres

Training centres are a more formal mode of training where students learn a trade from an instructor following a curriculum with some applied time practising the skill in a classroom setting. Some training centres have on-site production capabilities while others may be more theoretical and exam-based in terms of measuring skills achievement. Often training-centre programmes are independent of local markets. Some are established by NGOs, while some are businesses. In some cases, an international organization pays the fees for students to attend government or other training centres. Some NGO programmes have used mobile trainers who travelled to a variety of small training sites in a region.

- **Quality and duration of learning:** International humanitarian organizations that fund training centres have limited grant periods and are under pressure to serve the maximum number of students in the shortest period of time to show low cost per beneficiary ratios. This phenomenon frequently leads to training periods that are too short to prepare trainees adequately.

In addition, while the relevance of skills taught to the requirements of the local markets may theoretically be high, graduates may not find employment as there is often a missing link between formal vocational education training programmes and employment in communities where markets are severely weakened. Some programmes continue to train people on the assumption that skills learned cannot be lost and jobs may be found at a later time (such as upon repatriation or when markets recover). However, the skills learned in a training centre need to be developed and ‘over learned’ in a workshop situation before they are sustainable. Moreover, employment opportunities may simply not arise, and graduates may get frustrated.

- **Skills training areas:** Depending on the skill taught, theoretical approaches to learning may be more or less effective. For professional positions, such as business management, a case study approach may be good. For more applied skills such as carpentry, however, there may be insufficient time for practising a skill learned.
- **Cost:** The costs for these programmes may include the construction or renovation of centres, the hiring of management staff and the costs to equip the centres and provide materials. Often international organizations are tempted to build centres as they are highly visible and easy to monitor. Unless centres

existed prior to the conflict, however, financial sustainability is often difficult.

Mobile training centres may be a cost-effective alternative but factors such as the number of vehicles needed, the distance that will be travelled (and associated gasoline and maintenance costs) and the cost of necessary on-site materials must be factored into the total cost.

- **Monitoring and evaluation:** Training centres are typically very easy to monitor in terms of the number of participants involved in the learning programme. In addition, skills acquisition can be assessed by testing learners. Frequently it is more difficult to monitor employment gained and retained over time, as graduates may be difficult to follow or organizations are unable to sustain the monitoring effort after a certain time.

Training centres that are not in large urban areas or that enrol learners from the same geographic area may saturate the market with too many graduates, thereby jeopardizing their chances of finding employment opportunities. To remedy this situation, skills training options should be regularly evaluated to match market demands.

Training for self-help groups

Beneficiary groups frequently form their own cooperatives such as collective gardening, poultry raising, tie-dyeing or soap making. These groups are already involved in income generation and may have assembled their own resources but may want training in business and organizational skills, or basic literacy and numeracy.

- **Quality and duration of learning:** The quality of the teaching depends on the trainer and the learners' ability to apply the skills over time to their enterprises. Literacy and numeracy

skills often take a minimum of 18 months and must be continuously reinforced over time.

- **Skills training areas:** Typically, existing self-help groups need skills in business management, production and services and literacy and numeracy to improve areas such as record keeping and communication.
- **Cost:** These programmes typically are low in cost and require only a trainer, materials and transportation to self-help group sites. Since the skills taught are conceptual and mastered over time, however, these programmes are typically longer and involve smaller groups.
- **Monitoring and evaluation:** It is easy to monitor participant attendance and skills acquisition through testing. It is much more difficult to monitor changes in business strategy or overall effectiveness over time.

Source: UNHCR (1996).

2. A programme outline: vocational training for Burundian refugee youth in Tanzania

The overall objective of the programme is to provide refugees, and in particular the youth, with skills that will be useful for them on their repatriation to Burundi.

In order to achieve this, four immediate objectives have been formulated:

1. To establish and manage a camp-based training programme

This entails creating a coordination structure across the camps; establishing a training centre in each camp; identifying training opportunities with the NGOs that are engaged in

logistical work in the camps and ensuring that these are used in a systematic way; organizing market surveys and inventories of potential trainers in each camp; and testing new technologies with the help of consultants.

2. To enable youths to become self-employed through enterprise-based training

This is an economic objective. It would set as a target the annual graduation of 1,000 youths from enterprise-based training (assisted apprenticeships) with refugee micro-entrepreneurs, supplemented with theoretical instruction at the training centres.

3. To provide different target groups with employable skills through group-based training

This objective is also predominantly economic. It combines targets of 1,000 mainstream youths with 500 with special needs (from vulnerable groups). A third target is to have 5,000 people attend short horticultural training sessions each year through a considerable expansion of the land allocated to horticulture in each camp. The mode of training is group-based training, with supplementary theory at the training centres. Group instructors will receive monthly incentives at an agreed level.

4. To occupy out-of-school youths who otherwise have very little to do

The target here is to engage 5,000 youths in sports activities through the establishment of sports clubs, and to help primary schools to have, for example, football competitions. The second target is to extend computer and Internet use

to 1,000 youths per annum through the establishment of Internet cafés in seven refugee camps and three Tanzanian towns. Under the supervision of the responsible NGOs, refugees receiving incentives will largely run the activities.

Source: Lyby (2001: 246–247).

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Chapter **4.8**

TEXTBOOKS, EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND TEACHING AIDS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To provide quality materials to all teachers and learners that respond to relevant immediate, short-term, and long-term teaching and learning needs and, where possible, respect cultural specificities.**
- **To ensure the development and maintenance of functional literacy.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

In general, resources for educational activities are in short supply in emergency and post-conflict situations due to budgetary constraints. Usually, this shortage is further exacerbated by a breakdown in a country's productive capacity, including its publishing and printing industries and its distribution networks due to conflict or other emergency. It is therefore often difficult to ensure an adequate supply of educational materials such as textbooks, teaching aids, reading materials and student exercise books. In refugee situations, it may also be difficult to procure textbooks from the country of origin.

The supply of textbooks can play a critical role in maintaining education quality and effectiveness. They are important as reading materials and are also vital for their content. They are not the ultimate solution to a country's education system, but they are a major component underpinning many curricula and education systems. They provide a solid basis for children's learning and a means for gaining information and knowledge. While education systems should strive for properly trained teachers who do not need to rely solely on textbooks in order to conduct their classes, in situations where there is a lack of qualified, experienced teachers, textbooks provide a useful guide for teachers to follow. In addition to textbooks, supplementary reading materials are an absolute prerequisite, if schooling is to develop, maintain and enhance functional literacy. In early emergencies, the supply of blackboards and writing materials is the most urgent task, though there may also be a shortage of these supplies in prolonged crises as well.

During emergencies, affected families may be unable to purchase writing materials and other school requirements for their children. Supplies of writing materials, textbooks, etc., may be stolen during distribution in insecure regions. It may be expensive to import materials. Even if money is available to buy textbooks, maps, or other supplies from another country, they will not be culturally specific and may be inappropriate. It is expensive and time consuming to organize printing of local materials in another country, and then to import them.

Refugee families will have limited income-generating opportunities and so will not have resources to purchase learning materials for their children. Therefore, in most refugee situations all necessary teaching and learning materials must be provided by outside assistance. In refugee emergencies, the choice of curriculum

dictates much of what follows. UNHCR *Education: field guidelines* state that, where possible, the curriculum of the country or area of origin should be followed in refugee schools (UNHCR, 2003: 11, para. 2.1.1). This is to enhance the possibilities of a smooth return to the country of origin. It may be difficult to extend existing host country education programmes to refugees since there may be a language barrier between the refugee children and youth and the host country school system. If the home country curriculum is used, textbooks may not be available as refugee students and teachers will mostly have fled without them. It may be difficult to obtain home country materials for use by refugee students.

Internally displaced populations face similar challenges. In addition, government-approved textbooks may be available to IDP education programmes, although sections of the content may be contested by IDPs and therefore considered inappropriate.

There may be a conflict between immediate printing of textbooks to meet the need in the schools, and revision to remove elements that are controversial or inappropriate. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*.)

For its education programmes in situations of emergency, Save the Children (Nicolai, 2003: 80) recommends that education supplies should:

- Correspond to the country's culture and local practices in education while encouraging the participation and active learning of children.
- Be available for distribution quickly following an emergency event.

- Include teaching-learning materials, but also address aspects that facilitate children's attendance, e.g. clothing, hygiene items.
- Be consistently delivered during a chronic crisis.
- As much as possible be procured from local suppliers.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Some key strategies for making textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids available in emergencies and during early reconstruction are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies Textbooks, educational supplies and teaching aids

1. **In early emergency, education providers should meet with teachers from refugee or IDP populations to determine which education materials they consider to be needed/appropriate.**
2. **Take steps to strengthen the capacity of education ministry departments for the production and distribution of textbooks and other educational materials.**



3. **Prepare a framework for textbook revision and renewal, according to the phase of emergency.**
4. **Conduct a review of textbooks, reading materials and teaching aids in use by education providers from civil society, external agencies and NGOs.**
5. **Assess the need for and availability of textbooks, educational supplies and teaching aids.**
6. **Develop plans for the supply of needed education materials.**
7. **Develop an equitable distribution mechanism, and provide for maintenance and replenishment of materials.**

Guidance notes

1. **In early emergency, education providers should meet with teachers from refugee or IDP populations to determine which education materials they consider to be needed/appropriate.**
 - What textbooks and other materials do they have with them?
 - What materials can they easily re-create that they do not have with them?

- Can missing materials be re-acquired or replaced?
- Which materials do students and teachers find most valuable or of greatest relevance?
- Are there educational materials that were not traditional features of the curriculum that need to be accessed?



RECOMMENDATIONS ON EDUCATION SUPPLIES FOR RAPID RESPONSE IN EMERGENCIES

How soon are supplies needed?

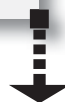
The aim is to create structured activities for children and adolescents in most locations within a month of displacement, and in all locations within three months. A unified education system should be in place for completion of the interrupted school year or for a new school year, not later than six months after the first major displacement.


When should supplies be procured locally?

Where possible, it is preferable to procure education supplies in the country or immediate region concerned. In many cases this is feasible, especially where procurement is through organizations such as NGOs. Supplies obtained in this way may be cheaper (especially if transport costs are taken into account), logistics may be easier, and there will be a benefit to the local economy.

When should supplies be procured internationally?

Where necessary, supplies can be sent from the UNICEF warehouse in Copenhagen or from United Nations or NGO regional centres, such as the UNESCO Programme of Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER), Nairobi. UNICEF often sends emergency supplies from Copenhagen, since procurement by local UNICEF offices requires various administrative approvals, which take time. UNICEF can send emergency education and recreation kits within a week, but





with high air freight costs, and the need for major logistic support for distribution on arrival. Sea freight takes several weeks but is less costly. Sending kits is appropriate when speedy local procurement by efficient NGOs is not practicable, and especially when procurement would otherwise be through a national government that lacks the capacity to work fast and cannot prevent diversion of resources.

Source: (INEE, 2001).

2. Prepare a framework for textbook revision and renewal, according to the phase of emergency.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*.)

- During the emergency, maintain the production of textbooks as a priority. Seek external assistance if necessary.
- At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action, including needs assessment, staff training, procurement of necessary equipment, textbook revision workshops, and funding for the preparation of a new generation of textbooks.
- Consider building a partnership with an institution of international repute to facilitate the use of updated content and methods.
- Ensure that writers are trained in the principles of gender equity, peace and conflict resolution, human rights and humanitarian norms, and active citizenship so that these are reflected in the textbooks.

3. Conduct a review of textbooks, reading materials and teaching aids in use by education providers from civil society, external agencies and NGOs.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*.)

These materials may be used for refugees in the country, IDPs or non-migrants, as well as any refugees from the country attending refugee schools in their countries of asylum.

- How can these materials be used as resources during the textbook renewal process in the reconstruction phase?
- How can the use and production of these materials be harmonized, even during the emergency?

4. Assess the need for and availability of textbooks, educational supplies and teaching aids.

- Which textbooks, supplies and educational aids were in use prior to and during the emergency?
- Are textbooks and other educational materials still available?
 - If so, how many, for each grade level and school subject?
 - For refugees, is at least a single complete set of textbooks from the country of origin available? If not, take steps to obtain one as soon as possible.
- What is the standard for distribution of textbooks?
 - A standard such as a student:textbook ratio of 3:1, or “subject specific textbooks should be distributed to every child” or “subject textbooks should be available in ‘class sets’ of 40 or 50 that can be used by several different classes in the same grade” must be developed in order to establish clear plans for achieving it

(Sinclair, 2002: 60).¹ Note that use of class sets often fails because school timetables require concurrent subject teaching per grade.

- Standards for primary and secondary education may be different – especially initially. For secondary education, textbooks for all subjects and for all students may be necessary to compensate for limited hours of schooling and/or under-qualified teachers (Sinclair, 2002).
 - Ultimately, the standard to aim for is one book per child per subject.
 - How many additional textbooks are required?
 - Were the textbooks previously used by conflict-affected populations, such as refugees, acceptable to all members of the community or did certain groups contest their use?
 - If contested, consider halting the use of these materials until a thorough curriculum and textbook review can be conducted (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1*, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’ for more information).
 - What other resource materials are available? (Resource materials are necessary to supplement and complement limited textbooks and to provide a base for a more enriched curriculum.)
 - Teacher guides: As teachers may have difficulty in using textbooks and teaching aids in an interactive way, there is generally a need for specific teacher training on the use of and practice with teacher guides. Teacher guides should not be distributed until the training takes place (which should be a very high priority). (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.4*, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.)
1. UNHCR sets a target of two students per textbook for its programmes (UNHCR, 2003: 15, para. 2.3.10).

- Teaching aids need to be made available or developed by the teachers. To do this, consider providing the following:
 - Posters for numbers and the alphabet, demonstration-size mathematical tools (triangles, ruler, compass), and world and regional or country maps.
 - Markers or crayons and poster board so that teachers can create their own teaching aids.
 - Books or guides to creating teaching aids.
 - Teacher resource centres (over the longer term) so teachers can prepare teaching aids and consult reference books.
 - Exercise books for students to take notes and complete exercises: UNHCR recommends that refugee students receive multiple exercise books per subject per year, with the total number of pages increasing with higher grades of schooling. Since many teachers expect students to copy notes and learn them for examinations, a good supply of exercise books is essential.
 - Reading materials for students to maintain functional literacy:
 - Consider a broad definition of reading materials (e.g. newspapers, information pamphlets especially about HIV/AIDS, sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), peace, tolerance, etc.) in order to identify materials that already exist and are readily available.
 - Consider creating reading materials. (Interview community elders and write down traditional songs, poems, stories, etc.)
 - Develop child-written ‘books’ by conducting ‘creative writing’ classes where the children write and illustrate their own books and then share them with each other. This is also an excellent way to get children to begin reading.

- Will the curriculum include life skills components such as HIV and AIDS, peace education or landmine awareness, etc.? (See also the relevant *Guidebook* topics.)
 - Review existing, trialled resources on these topics.
 - Consider using or adapting them as it would be inefficient to re-develop these materials for the existing situation.

5. Develop plans for the supply of needed education materials.

- Review the budget implications of producing or purchasing the required number of textbooks and other needed resource materials.
 - If sufficient funds are not available, is assistance from United Nations agencies or NGOs available?
 - Is such assistance limited to a one-time distribution or will it support school or education activities over a specified period of time?
- Evaluate the functioning and quality of any existing textbook suppliers in the country.
 - Do they have the necessary raw materials to produce the required number of textbooks?
 - Is their equipment in working order? Do they have spare parts in case of a breakdown?
 - What is the quality of their products? How long is a textbook expected to last before it needs replacement?
 - How long will it take to produce the textbooks?
 - Do suppliers have the capacity to distribute the textbooks within the country or to a specified central location?
 - If there are multiple suppliers, is there a competitive bidding process in place for use when selecting a supplier?
- If there are no functioning printing companies in the country, consider whether textbooks can be reproduced in another format temporarily, or whether the printing can be out-

sourced to a neighbouring country until local printing facilities are operating again.

- At the local level, search out low-cost reproduction techniques such as mimeograph machines and silk screening to distribute lessons or modules to teachers.
- Obtain heavy-duty photocopy machines for regional education centres.
- Consider whether textbooks can be imported from another country.
 - What is the cost of purchasing and transporting them compared to the local cost of production and transport?
 - In what language(s) is/are they available?
 - Do the majority of children understand the language(s)?
 - If materials must be translated, this work must begin immediately so the textbooks that are ultimately distributed are available in the children's language.
 - Do the textbooks follow the curriculum in use?
 - Are the textbooks locally appropriate? Certain textbooks such as those for mathematics may be appropriate across countries/cultures whereas others, such as history, would not be appropriate.
 - Are the foreign suppliers reliable?
 - How long will it take to get the textbooks to the classrooms?
- Determine what other educational materials are required, in addition to or instead of textbooks. (See also the 'Tools and resources' section for examples of materials that might be provided 'immediately, sooner, later' and for interim options related to learning materials.)
 - Are there local means of producing these materials?
 - Search out low-cost reproduction techniques such as mimeograph machines and silk-screening to distribute lessons or modules to teachers.

- Can low-cost ‘hardware’ be pre-positioned?
- How long will it take to procure or produce them?
- Encourage the use and development of locally made teaching aids and recreational materials.
- What can be recycled (e.g. bottle tops for use as counters in mathematics)?
- What can be constructed from natural resources?
- Are pre-packaged rapid emergency response kits available and desirable under the circumstances? (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a list of advantages and disadvantages associated with pre-packaged kits.) Consider:
 - Cost.
 - Local production of supply and material kits.
 - Whether classes vary widely in the number of students (since classroom kits have supplies for a fixed number of students).
 - Appropriateness to local standards/curriculum.
 - Cultural relevance.



DELAYS IN TEXTBOOK PRODUCTION IN RWANDA

“Looking back one has to ask why it took nearly three years to get materials to learners. Rwanda did not move in an uninterrupted manner from the major crisis in 1994 to growing stability and peace. On the contrary, there were repeated serious disruptions of security. It took time in 1994 to ensure security and the control of the national army in the south; one million refugees returned suddenly, late in 1996 from neighbouring countries; and there were repeated incursions into northern provinces lasting until 1998. Population movement within the country never ceased as people tried to settle down and then had to move again, particularly in the north. Distractions for the Ministry were many due to continual fire fighting in the field: re-opening



more schools, finding teachers and field education officers, rehabilitating yet more schools, requesting increased distribution of supplies from partners.

With regard specifically to the textbook production exercise, the Ministry of Education insisted on local printing despite the time lag involved. Agencies then needed special authorization from their international headquarters for local procurements, spare parts had to be brought in from Germany for damaged printing presses, and technical printing capacity needed to be restored. It was a time when ministries of education in Africa still clung to the principle of producing national textbooks not only within their borders, but by the Ministry itself. Since then, major changes have occurred in most countries liberalizing textbook production, including in Rwanda.”

Source: Obura (2003: 90).

6. Develop an equitable distribution mechanism, and provide for maintenance and replenishment of materials.

- Does the distribution strategy rectify or take into consideration inequalities of access to materials in terms of:
 - Geographic location?
 - Socio-economic considerations?
 - Linguistic inclusion? (Note: materials must be translated well in advance of distribution.)
- Consider ways the community can be involved in designing and implementing a distribution system for materials as this will help make the system more transparent.
 - Through the development of an information campaign to inform families and students of the materials that will be provided to them, which will help discourage abuse during the distribution process.

- Through assistance with distribution of supplies either at the schools or through other community structures (instead of direct distribution to children by teachers or school administrators).
- Through involvement in the development and implementation of monitoring systems to ensure that textbooks and supplies are reaching the intended recipients.
- Review and strengthen (or develop) monitoring systems to account for, protect and replenish textbooks and other educational materials.
 - Are textbooks stamped and numbered to ensure that they are accounted for?
 - Are textbooks covered with plastic film or paper to protect them from damage?
 - Are damaged textbooks mended?
 - What is the policy if a textbook is damaged or lost?
 - Are mechanisms in place to ensure that textbooks are returned at the end of a school year so they can be re-used the following year?
 - Do record-keeping procedures exist to account for the distribution, use, return and replenishment of textbooks and other educational materials?
 - Care should be taken to pay attention to the depletion of supplies, especially if an emergency situation persists.
 - Criteria must be established for the continuing provision of supplies.
 - Ensure that teachers are not discouraged from using textbooks in class or issuing them to students for fear of punishment if some are lost or damaged.
- Consider ways of recording innovative practices that have been put in place at the community level to develop and select educational materials. This will promote respect

and communication between community and educational authorities.

- How can such practices be shared with other communities and between all levels of the education system?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Excerpt from the ‘immediately, sooner, later’ matrix of response

PROGRAMME EXAMPLES		
IMMEDIATELY	SOONER	LATER
STUDENT MATERIALS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start-up set of exercise books/slates, pens/pencils and recreational materials • Additional exercise books for adolescents • Learning materials for life skills and recreation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Textbooks or similar texts based on area of origin curriculum (aim for this) • Consumable supplies • Supplies to promote participation, e.g. second-hand clothing, sanitary materials, food incentives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Replenishment of consumable supplies • Additional items added according to local and programmatic needs • Supplies for new programmes e.g. girls’ literacy support, youth writers, sports groups
TEACHER/FACILITATOR MATERIALS		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exercise books, pens, textbooks, teacher’s guides for preparing lessons • Resource materials for psychosocial and life skills education • Registration and student attendance books 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refugee/IDP professionals should hold writing workshops to produce emergency-related materials • Development of guides focusing on developing the classroom skills of para-professional teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mass reproduction and distribution of textbooks, teacher’s guides, curricula and education aids • Life skills strengthened and controversial areas resolved

Source: Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003: 31).

2. Options for interim decision-making on learning materials

In her case study *Never again: educational reconstruction in Rwanda*, Obura (2003: 133–134) developed the following options for interim decision-making on learning materials. They include:

Emergency options:

- Production of a simple textbook decision guide – or interim learning materials guide.
- Emergency copying of vital teacher and pupil materials, in language and mathematics – with a general studies guide for teachers at lower and upper primary, and lower secondary levels.

Interim options:

- Reprinting of pre-emergency materials.
- Adaptation of pre-emergency materials, and possibly translation.
- Off-the-shelf purchase of materials from neighbouring countries.
- Translation of materials from neighbouring countries.
- Adaptation of materials from neighbouring countries.

Developmental options:

- Production of new national materials, for compliance with new curricula.

3. Advantages and disadvantages of education kits

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
EDUCATIONAL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kits accomplish their basic goal of providing the necessary materials to support educational activities during emergencies • They enable children to engage in meaningful learning activities while administrative capacities are being restored at a national level • As kits enable the fast recommencement of classes and other educational activities they provide a signal to the community of hope for the future • The materials increase access to schooling and improve attendance • Kits can facilitate teachers' sense of effectiveness and security by providing them with materials suited to working in difficult conditions with large numbers of children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-designed kits never quite fit any given situation and local needs cannot be taken into account • The deployment of kits may preclude dialogue amongst families, children, education officials and agencies in the field about the roles they all can play in developing a long-term community based education system • Working with kits can make aid workers overly complacent about providing training and additional support and may create a dependency because of their convenience for users, donors and procurement managers • Kits can never replace all the other components necessary in creating a successful education system: community mobilization, identification of an appropriate curriculum, the development of learning and teaching materials, identification and training of teachers and the monitoring of standards. • Kits are not gender-sensitive and without additional work with recipient communities, the benefits are often unequally distributed between boys and girls along the lines of existing biases and prejudices
ECONOMIC	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It may not be possible for agencies to increase their budget line for education quickly enough to purchase a large number of new materials, but if standby stocks can be used, budget issues can be handled later • Kits are widely considered to be attractive to donors as a tangible emergency relief product 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The failure to purchase materials in the relevant country/region disadvantages the local economy • Kits are heavy, therefore both storage and transport costs are high • Kits are expensive when compared with the cost of bulk materials • Both financially and logistically the kit approach is unsustainable

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
LOGISTICAL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-packaged and pre-assembled kits mean field staff do not have to spend valuable time assembling materials from individual boxes • Pre-assembled kits can prevent delays and provide the rapidity and reliability of response needed in emergency relief • Pre-assembly of kits has the advantage of discouraging and helping to prevent theft of valuable, compact items • Pre-assembly means that the materials are protected from the rain and from other damage during transit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If road conditions are poor and air access is overloaded with other relief goods, bulky boxes of educational materials will not be given priority on crowded flight/road transport schedules • If, as is often the case, there is a chronic shortage in the supply of educational materials, agencies must spend time disassembling kits so that the contents can be distributed as fairly as possible • If a school receives fewer kits than it requires, disassembly may also then take place at this level and the original expenses incurred in packaging are rendered increasingly inefficient • The pre-assembly of standard kits renders 'refilling', or 'topping up' a complex task if the kit approach is used on a prolonged basis: the diverse items in the kits will need to be replenished at different rates

CONDITIONS IN WHICH PRE-ASSEMBLED KITS OF SCHOOL MATERIALS MAY BE ADVANTAGEOUS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When the procurement and distribution of materials are the responsibility of an unreliable government system, or it is not possible to quickly procure the needed items from the local market (e.g. if there is no known implementing partner that could make local purchases), pre-assembled standby stocks represent the best viable option for reaching crisis affected communities as swiftly as possible • The most effective use of kits comes when they form a component of a longer process and are used primarily to provide a critical bridge between an initial emergency and a recovery and reconstruction phase • Kits are most beneficial when accompanied from the beginning by training for teachers on the use of the teacher guide and materials and when the supply of kits stands only as the initial step for agencies in the process of redeveloping and establishing a successful educational structure

Sources: Sinclair (2001: 57–66); Nicolai (2003: 79); Eversmann (2000); Miller and Affolter (2002: 15–25).

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GUIDEBOOK for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction

SECTION 5 MANAGEMENT CAPACITY



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this review do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or the IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

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NOTE ON *GUIDEBOOK* UPDATE

This *Guidebook* was updated in 2010 to reflect some of the recent trends emerging in the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction. As noted in the “Introduction”, there have been some positive developments in terms of engagement of the international donor community in this topic. Consequently the *Guidebook* has been updated to reflect some of these changes, along with an updated list of tools and resources for all chapters.

The following chapters have been revised:

- 2.3 Ethnicity/political affiliation/religion
- 2.4 Children with disabilities
- 2.6 Learning spaces and school facilities
- 2.10 Early childhood development
- 4.3 HIV prevention education
- 5.11 Coordination and communication

The following new chapters have been added:

- 1.2 Prevention of conflict and preparedness for disaster
- 2.8 Technology

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FOREWORD

UNESCO is increasingly requested to provide an educational response in emergency and reconstruction settings. The organization is in the process of developing expertise in this field in order to be able to provide prompt and relevant assistance. It will offer guidance, practical tools and specific training for education policy-makers, officials and planners.

The fifth of the eleven objectives adopted by the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 explicitly focuses on the rights of children in emergencies. It stresses the importance of meeting “... the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct[ing] educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict”. The *Dakar Framework for Action* calls for national Education for All plans to include provision for education in emergency situations. Governments, particularly education ministries, have an important role to play in an area that has often been dominated by the actions of NGOs and United Nations agencies.

Moreover, the field of educational planning in emergencies and reconstruction is still young. It has to be organized into a manageable discipline, through further documentation and analysis, before training programmes can be designed. All the more so since accumulated institutional memories and knowledge in governments, agencies and NGOs working on education in emergencies, are in danger of being lost due both to the dispersion and disappearance of documents, and to high staff turnover in both national and international contexts. Most of the expertise is still in the heads of practitioners and needs to be collected, since memories fade fast. Diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must now be more thoroughly documented and analyzed before they disappear.

The International Institute for Educational Planning’s (UNESCO-IIEP) larger programme on education in emergencies and reconstruction involves not only this *Guidebook*, but also a series of country specific

analyses. They concern the restoration of education systems in countries as diverse as Burundi, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sudan and Timor-Leste. In addition, IIEP is producing global thematic policy-related studies on issues such as coordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide range of studies to build the knowledge needed. The broader task includes the publication and dissemination of the *Guidebook* for education officials and the agencies assisting them, and developing training materials for a similar audience. Details of the objectives of the *Guidebook's* publication may be found in *Chapter 1.1*, 'Introduction'.

Through this programme, IIEP will make its contribution to the discipline of education in emergencies and reconstruction. Its hope is to enrich the quality of the planning and management applied in this crucial field.

Khalil Mahshi
Director a.i., IIEP

IIEP'S MISSION

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* helps the International Institute for Educational Planning accomplish its mission of *strengthening the national capacities* of UNESCO Member States in the fields of policy-making, educational planning and administration. The Institute pursues this mission by carrying out four complementary functions:

- The *training* of national senior educational personnel and teaching staffs and institutions.
- *Research* and studies pertaining to educational policy-making, planning and administration.
- The *dissemination* of the results of its work (publications, research workshops, policy forums) among policy-makers, civil servants, research workers, administrators and representatives of educational cooperation agencies.
- *Operational support* to specific countries, as well as advisory services to agencies, based on requests.

Above all, the *Guidebook* will contribute to IIEP's endeavours to coordinate existing knowledge and experience gained on this subject, and to promote research into new concepts and methods of educational planning likely to further economic and social development.

INTRODUCTION TO THE **GUIDEBOOK**

Access to education is a fundamental tool for child protection. Education inherently provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. In appropriate security conditions, physical protection may be enhanced by the provision of adult supervision and a safe place to learn and play. Psychosocial protection is offered through opportunities for self-expression, the expansion of social networks and access to structure and regular routines. By placing children in the social role of learners, education gives children a sense of purpose and self-worth. Finally, education contributes to the cognitive protection of children affected by conflict or crises by addressing specific living conditions that arise from conflict (landmine awareness, health issues), strengthening children’s analytical abilities, and giving children the tools they need to develop skills for citizenship and life in peace. Education saves lives; education sustains life. It is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises.

This Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction aims to support educational authorities in providing equal access to education of quality for children affected by conflict or disaster.

THE READER

The *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction* (hereafter referred to as the *Guidebook*) is addressed primarily to staff of ministries of education, including national, provincial and district level planners and managers, in countries affected by conflict or natural disasters, or hosting

refugees from a neighbouring state. This is the first time that detailed guidance on planning education in emergencies and reconstruction has been prepared specifically from this perspective.

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of UN organizations, donor agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in support of ministries to promote education for emergency-affected populations. Staff of those agencies will benefit from a fuller awareness of the ways in which they can strengthen national capacities for planning and management of education in and after periods of emergency.

In many countries, some aspects of education are covered by ministries, educational authorities or organizations other than the Ministry of Education. There may be a separate Ministry of Higher Education, for example. There may also be educational programmes for youth and persons with disabilities, or specific programmes that target gender inequity that are overseen by other ministries. Moreover, ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Agriculture or the Ministry of Labour will be important partners for the Ministry of Education. These partners can help to determine whether the output of the education system actually corresponds with the needs in the labour market. Experts from these sectors may also be important sources of information in the drafting of education plans, curriculum reforms or teachers' conditions of service. In this *Guidebook*, however, for brevity we shall refer to the Ministry of Education as shorthand for all ministries handling education matters.

In many situations of emergency and reconstruction, external agencies assume responsibility for a smaller or larger part of the

education system. In some situations, the government simply may not have control on the ground. Here, the *Guidebook* refers to the ‘authority’ responsible for education in those areas. The reader may make the necessary adjustments to take account of this fact in countries where education is covered by multiple ministries or authorities, or by different non-state actors.

EACH SITUATION IS DIFFERENT

The *Guidebook* presents examples of the problems faced in different kinds of emergencies, and suggests policy options and strategies that have been found useful in such situations (see the *Guidebook*, Chapter 1.3, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’, for information on the typology used: different types and phases of emergencies and different population groups). It must be stressed, however, that each emergency situation is different: each conflict or disaster takes its own particular trajectory, carries its own history and affects a particular country or countries differently depending on specific traditions in the field of education and culture, and specific economic and social problems and possibilities. The suggestions offered in the *Guidebook* thus constitute a checklist of points to consider. The *Guidebook* should not be considered a universally applicable model of activities to be undertaken, nor is it a static document. Care must always be taken to adjust the strategies and suggestions with regard to the local situation.

STRUCTURE OF THE *GUIDEBOOK*

This *Guidebook* is organized in five sections – one introductory section and four thematic sections:

- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners
- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

The first section provides an introduction and overview to the *Guidebook* and planning education in emergencies and reconstruction. The last four sections of the *Guidebook* cover a comprehensive range of topics relevant to education in emergencies and reconstruction. Every section consists of several chapters pertaining to the theme of the section. Each chapter starts with an overview of the context and the factors that influence educational response in relation to that topic: context and challenges. Next, each *Guidebook* chapter provides suggestions regarding possible strategies – actions that may be taken by the educational authorities to deal with these problems. In some cases, it is the educational authorities themselves that will be the education providers, while in other instances the main role of the educational authorities will be to coordinate and facilitate the work of other education providers.

Following the suggested strategies, in most chapters there is a list of ‘Tools and resources’ that can be utilized when implementing some of the suggested strategies. ‘Tools and resources’ contain an explanation of important concepts, action check-lists and a wide variety of tools used in planning and managing education. In each chapter, there are a number of useful case studies of how different countries have addressed the challenges under discussion.

Each chapter ends with a list of references and suggestions for further reading.

The *Guidebook* is presented in five spiral-bound booklets, alongside a CD-Rom version that contains all five sections of the *Guidebook*. Each of the booklets covers one of the sections, which permits users to refer to particular themes as they relate to the provision of education in emergencies. There are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, allowing readers to benefit from the linkages between topics.

INTRODUCTION TO SECTION 5

This final section of the *Guidebook* discusses issues regarding the management capacity of educational ministries and agencies working in emergencies and reconstruction. *Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’, seeks to develop a sound information base for prioritizing immediate educational needs, coordinating emergency assistance efforts and a basis for longer-term educational planning and resource mobilization. It also discusses how to develop an action plan for fulfilling those needs. *Chapter 5.2*, ‘Planning processes’, discusses how to identify and coordinate programmes and priorities for action with an agreed timeframe based on rapid assessment of needs and also discusses medium- and long-term development planning frameworks. Building on the previous chapter, *Chapter 5.3* focuses on achieving the objectives of short- or medium-term plans and on how to delineate the responsibilities of various actors and stakeholders in developing and implementing the activities that are necessary to achieve the objectives.

Chapter 5.4 discusses the importance of identifying the legal basis for educational provision in a country and understanding a country’s legal and ethical obligations on education in emergencies. It also seeks to propose considerations for the national legal framework of education in reconstruction settings. *Chapter 5.5*, ‘Community participation’, promotes the appropriate involvement of communities in education during emergencies and reconstruction and discusses how to develop the capacity of communities to assume an increased role in educational processes and activities. *Chapter 5.6*, ‘Structure of the education system’, explains how to assess existing education

management structures and systems and how to ensure learners and teachers are provided with proper management support.

Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)', discusses provision of a timely and informed basis for planning and management of education services and how to establish relevant indicators and national systems for data collection, processing and utilization of education data. *Chapter 5.8*, 'Budget and financial management', addresses how to ensure that adequate financial resources are mobilized and effectively managed in order to work towards the long-term financial viability of a reconstructed education system. *Chapter 5.9*, 'Human resources: ministry officials', addresses Ministry of Education human resource requirements in conditions of emergency and early reconstruction and how to develop an efficient human resource system as part of the broader development of the education system.

Chapter 5.10, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms', discusses how to identify and obtain funding for support of education programmes in emergency situations and how to enhance partnership, solidarity and transparency among actors in emergency situations, aiming to maximize the effectiveness of aid. The final chapter in this section, *Chapter 5.11*, 'Coordination and communication', discusses the efficient planning and management of education service delivery and the participation in the education of learners, communities, government actors, international agencies and NGOs. It also focuses on ensuring that government and all non-governmental partners work together to provide access to quality education programmes for the emergency-affected population.

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Chapter **5.1**

ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS AND RESOURCES

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To develop a sound information base for prioritizing immediate educational needs, coordinating emergency assistance efforts and a basis for longer-term educational planning and resource mobilization.**
- **To develop a plan for action that includes needs grouped according to urgent and longer term, and then ranked according to priority, a general timeframe for services to be provided, and an estimate of the cost of resources required.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Assessment of emergency-affected populations – their numbers, resources and needs – is always difficult. In situations of displacement, people may still be moving and some may be afraid to identify themselves. At the beginning of an emergency, a rapid assessment must be conducted in order to obtain rough estimates about the size and demographic composition of the population. It is important to recognize that many actors – including educational authorities, other government officials, United Nations and non-governmental organizations, religious groups and local communities – will want this type of information as well as information about the security situation and

access to the population. Coordination of assessment activities is essential. Educational authorities should seek to be involved in such activities or, at a minimum, take advantage of the information that has already been collected so as not to waste time collecting it again. The assessment process involves five broad steps:

1. Identification of urgent needs.
2. Assessment of the educational status and needs of children, youth, families.
3. Identification of existing educational activities.
4. Identification of available and potential resources.
5. Identification and ranking of unmet needs according to immediate/urgent v. long-term, then according to importance, feasibility and cost.

The first rapid assessment exercise is only the beginning – the fluidity of emergency situations requires flexible assessment and response. During an emergency situation, assessment may be difficult due to unstable conditions: access to the population may be difficult because of continued violence, the presence of landmines, destroyed roads and infrastructure, and interventions may have to be local until peace is restored. Continued insecurity may severely hinder assessment and the presence of international forces, peacekeeping or otherwise, can be beneficial. The establishment of trust and a sense of cooperation, vital for the effective execution of a thorough assessment, may be problematic during times of conflict when several warring parties are involved. Indeed, the assessment project itself may be seen as controversial and its purposes disputed. Care must be taken not to endanger those who provide information.


It is necessary to assess the extent of damage to school facilities and/or the destruction of schools and supplies, and likewise for national and/or local education administrative offices. The possible prolongation of displacement and issues of long-term repatriation and reintegration should also be considered. Assessment should indicate specific issues needing attention in order to integrate returnees into the national education system.

As the population begins to stabilize and movements start to slow down, more assessments must be conducted in order to learn more about the affected populations, the area(s) in which they are located and, for the purposes discussed in this *Guidebook*, more information about the educational status and needs of children and adolescents and the resources (human and physical) that are available and needed in order to provide them with educational opportunities.



EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT IN TIMOR-LESTE 1999

The first step in organizing an emergency response to the explosion of violence in Timor-Leste following the popular consultation result in September 1999, involved a Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) to gather reliable information on the extent of damage to schools. In the JAM, the international community, together with East Timorese representatives aimed to prioritize short-term reconstruction initiatives and to provide estimates of external financing needs. Co-ordinated by the World Bank, a team of major donors, United Nations agencies, multilateral institutions and East Timorese technical specialists participated in a ten-day mission in November 1999. Education was one of eight sectors covered. In addition to field visits and meetings, the JAM education team relied heavily on information that had been gathered prior to the popular consultation in the course of other assessments, and



the findings of these assessments contributed significantly to priorities laid out in the JAM report. Destruction to education infrastructure throughout the country was so total that nearly everything needed repair or reconstruction. Therefore, details on individual schools were not gathered in JAM, but were left for UNTAET (United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor) district staff to gather at a later date.

JAM laid out four urgent priority areas for short-term reconstruction in the education sector, although these were not all acted on immediately. These were: (a) primary and secondary education; (b) training of teachers and administrative staff; (c) education and training for out-of-school youth; and (d) tertiary and technical education. Several key information gaps in the emergency assessment were also identified:

- **Quantitative data on different languages spoken.** Although a 1998 social survey had information about mother tongue, the sample was too small, and the level of detail inadequate. It was thought that it would be too difficult to develop transition plans for language of instruction.
- **Reliable data on literacy and numeracy.** Official Indonesian literacy statistics seemed severely inflated, and the low quality of education indicated a large difference in the number of semi-literate people and functionally literate ones. Hence the need for adult literacy training could not be assessed properly.
- **A consistent, integrated information system.** Statistics contained many misleading, overlapping or inconsistent figures. Classification of institutions was confused between public and private schooling, especially for vocational secondary and tertiary education. Building an integrated information system for the education sector would be necessary for policy planning.

Source: Adapted from Nicolai (2004: 72–75).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Assessment of needs and resources

- 1. Determine which organizations are conducting assessments or collecting data and what kind of data they are collecting. When possible, it is desirable to coordinate assessment and data collection.**
- 2. Rapidly assess the educational status of affected populations.**
- 3. Identify existing and needed educational activities.**
- 4. Assess available schools and learning spaces.**
- 5. Assess available human resources.**
- 6. Assess available instructional materials.**
- 7. Assess whether instructional support systems are functioning.**
- 8. Assess untapped resources potentially available to help in educational provision, especially in the community.**
- 9. Assess instructional quality and outcomes.**



- 10. In refugee situations, assess the needs and resources associated with the eventual return of the refugees.**
- 11. Based on assessment information, group unmet educational needs according to urgent/immediate and longer-term. Then rank the needs according to desirability, feasibility and cost.**
- 12. Consult with national experts and stakeholders before finalizing the assessment report.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Determine which organizations are conducting assessments or collecting data, and what kind of data they are collecting. When possible, it is desirable to coordinate assessment and data collection.**
 - Consult with relevant government ministries and with United Nations officials – the United Nations Resident Representative (often the head of the United Nations Development Programme in the country), the United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), UNICEF, UNHCR (for refugee emergencies).

- Will they provide their assessment information to educational authorities?
- What role can educational authorities have in the assessment activities (e.g. participation on teams, input into assessment questions and methodology)?
- Educational authorities and other organizations supporting education will likely need to carry out some assessments of their own in order to obtain more specific information related to the educational needs and resources of the affected population.
- If not already in operation, the educational authority should constitute a data collection unit to coordinate data collection for education.
 - To collect necessary data, the data collection unit should develop simple rapid data collection forms, which will later be made more comprehensive, to collect emergency data. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for an example of a UNICEF rapid assessment form, and for more information, the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, ‘Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)’*.)

2. Rapidly assess the educational status of affected populations.

(See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for the INEE standard on initial assessment.)

- What is the educational status of children, youth and families?
 - Who is enrolled in school? Who is taking part in other educational activities?
 - Who is not enrolled in school or taking part in other educational activities (in terms of age, gender, ethnicity,

- language group and, where relevant religion, other relevant social distinctions)?
- What is the educational status of children, youth and families?
 - How does educational status differ by age, gender, ethnicity, language group, etc.?
 - What groups are particularly vulnerable (e.g. girls, youth, female youth, children with disabilities, households without an adult breadwinner headed by boys, girls, or adults without access to employment and so forth)?
 - Vulnerability can consist of several dimensions including health, economic status, security, access to basic services.
 - IDP populations are particularly vulnerable, depending on the reason for their displacement, e.g. civil conflict.
 - What is the immediate status and current capacity of the education system in the affected areas?
 - Human: teachers and school leaders; students; district, regional and national officials; and system leadership.
 - Operational: district and local education offices, schools, equipment.
 - Institutional: data and communications; legislation, policy and regulations; and authority relationships.
 - Who are the relevant communities (e.g. the displaced, the local community, returnees, etc.)?
 - What educational opportunities does each community want?
 - What resources do they have (e.g. teaching skills, education, construction skills, other labour, cash, etc.)? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'*, for more information.)

3. Identify existing and needed educational activities.

- What educational activities are currently under way?
 - What formal educational activities?
 - Non-formal activities (for those for whom formal school is not an option, such as some adolescents, some people with disabilities)?
 - Recreational activities?
 - Who is taking part in each? Who is not?
 - Who is managing the educational efforts?
 - The affected communities?
 - The government?
 - External groups such as NGOs or international organizations?
 - What potential is there for building on these efforts, especially those originating in the affected communities?
- Are existing educational activities meeting the needs of most, or a substantial proportion of the affected population with regard to:
 - Recreation and socializing?
 - Psychosocial issues?
 - Literacy and numeracy?
 - Life skills (including immediate needs, such as landmine awareness, cholera awareness, local environmental concerns, etc.; urgent needs such as HIV and AIDS awareness for adolescents; and medium-term needs such as systematic education for peace, human rights and citizenship, reproductive health, environmental sustainability)?
 - Livelihood training?
 - Secondary and higher education?
 - Certification of attainments?

- Based on the assessment of existing educational activities and an analysis of who is participating in them, what other educational activities are needed and where?
- Are children ready to learn? (Use information from health authorities or organizations working with affected populations to assess their readiness.)
 - What is their health and nutritional status? Are there epidemics of infectious diseases?
 - Are schools and routes to and from school safe?
 - What is the psychosocial status of children and teachers' preparedness to deal with psychosocial issues? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.5, 'Psychosocial support to learners'*.)
 - Are children prepared physically, mentally and intellectually to participate in formal or non-formal education activities?

4. Assess available schools and learning spaces.

If central educational authorities cannot physically access the schools, conduct such assessments using local educational authorities where available, or other groups with means of communication, e.g. military, community leaders, NGOs, etc. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.6, 'Learning spaces and school facilities'*.)

- Are there sufficient schools to meet the learning needs of the affected populations?
 - In refugee or IDP situations, is there sufficient space/ absorptive capacity to integrate refugee or IDP children and adolescents into local schools?
 - Are schools using multiple shifts, or can an additional shift be added so that additional children can use existing facilities? Will this mean that the hours of schooling are insufficient for upper primary and secondary classes?

- If there are not enough schools/classrooms, what temporary arrangements can be made (such as the use of religious buildings, markets, restaurants, or tents or other temporarily constructed learning spaces)?
- Are schools and learning spaces safe?
 - Has the area been cleared of landmines and unexploded ordnance?
 - Are routes to and from school safe and secure?
- Is the physical environment conducive to learning?
 - Do the schools/learning spaces have sufficient light and ventilation?
 - Is there sufficient space? How many children can each classroom accommodate?
 - Refer to UNICEF’s Child Friendly Spaces initiative for minimum standards of learning spaces and basic services in an integrated response (UNICEF, 2001). See also the INEE Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction. Access and learning environment standard 2: protection and well-being (INEE, 2004: 45–46).
- Do the schools/learning spaces have access to clean drinking water? Are there separate latrines for teachers and students and for boys and girls? This is especially important for adolescent girls.
- Does the community have the resources to assist with the construction of learning spaces and/or sanitary facilities?

5. Assess available human resources.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1*, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers.’)

- How many experienced teachers are available?

- How many pupils are there per teacher? How does this compare to government targets, such as one teacher for 40 or fewer pupils?
- What qualifications do the teachers have? What is their educational level, and how much teaching experience do they have and with what grades/subjects?
- If sufficient qualified and/or experienced teachers are not available, are there potential teachers in the population?
 - How much training and supervision would they require before being able to serve?
 - Can qualified teachers help train less qualified teachers?
- Is there a sufficient number of female teachers or have potential female teachers been identified?
- Are people available to serve as leaders, principals/school directors, supervisors and trainers, education officials, to coordinate across schools and districts?
 - If not, can available experienced teachers be trained to serve in such roles?
- Are there training programmes to prepare new teachers and to help current teachers acquire competencies in areas of weakness, and continue their professional development?
- Are teachers supervised regularly and in a way that helps them improve their teaching?

6. Assess available instructional materials.

(See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 4.1*, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’, and *Chapter 4.8*, ‘Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids.’)

- Are pedagogically sound, developmentally and linguistically appropriate textbooks or similar instructional materials available?
 - How many copies are available in each school (or for distribution)?
 - How does this compare to government targets such as one copy for every one or two children?
 - If copies of books are scarce, does every school/teacher have a complete set?
 - Are there heavy-duty photocopy facilities to help cover the gap until materials are printed?
- Do the textbooks support a larger, developmentally sound curriculum?
- Is the curriculum appropriate in terms of the likely future residence of the students? In the case of refugees, are textbooks based on the general curriculum of the country or area of origin?
- Is the language of instruction in the host country the same as in the area of origin?
- Do teachers have teachers' guides that go with student textbooks?
- Are other needed instructional materials available such as teaching aids, writing implements, exercise books or slates, etc.? In what quantity?

7. Assess whether instructional support systems are functioning.

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.2, 'Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions').

- Are teachers being posted where they are needed?
- Are teachers being paid on schedule?

- Are teacher supervisory systems in place and functioning?
- Have teachers' salaries, textbooks and learning supplies for internally displaced populations been transferred to their current place of residence?

8. Assess untapped resources potentially available to help in educational provision, especially in the community.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'*.)

- What resources are available?
 - Cash.
 - Un(der)employed educated people.
 - Labour.
 - Expertise (language, crafts, traditions, marketable skills, farming, literacy, etc.).
 - Social capital (i.e. the active connections among people, the trust, mutual understanding and shared values and behaviours that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible).
- In developing educational activities, what potential is there for building the capacity of the affected population (e.g. as teachers or classroom assistants, for assistance with school construction or monitoring, etc.)?

9. Assess instructional quality and outcomes.

Where schools are functioning, observe:

- How much time do children spend 'on task'?
- What is the quality of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction?
- Are teachers well trained and supervised?

- Are recognized or prevailing standards of quality – such as teacher-pupil ratios, class size or availability of learning materials – being achieved? See also the INEE *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction*; ‘Teachers and other education personnel, standard 1’) (INEE, 2004: 66–67).

Regarding internal and external efficiency, ask:

- What are the repetition rates for the various grades in typical schools?
- Are children and youth persisting? If not, who is dropping out and when?
- Are children and youth receiving a recognized and usable credential? Where is the credential recognized?
- Is there a gender gap in achievement? For example, do more boys or girls drop out? Do more boys or girls pass examinations? Do boys or girls more frequently repeat grades, etc.?

10. In refugee situations, assess the educational needs and resources associated with the eventual return of the refugees.

(Note: similar considerations may apply to IDPs.)

- At the national level, is there an effective returnee office?
 - Are the appropriate authorities involved in cross-border negotiations?
 - Has a chart been created detailing the various actors’ responsibilities at the different levels of the system?
- What are the conditions in returnee areas of the home country? Have these been clearly communicated to the refugees? These factors will influence the rate of return

and the likelihood of families/workers staying in the areas of return.

- Is it safe for parents, children, teachers and education officials to return?
- Are there sufficient economic opportunities in the areas of return?
- Will returnee populations have access to food, housing and basic social services?
- At the instructional level, do teachers and pupils have certificates that enable them to continue teaching and learning in their home country/area of origin?
- In areas of return, have the needs and capacity of the home country education system been assessed? Are schools capable of handling the influx of returnees? What additional resources will schools need to cope? Are there areas of return with no primary/secondary schools?
- Have teachers and local populations been sensitized regarding the impact on local communities of returning refugees? Is inclusion part of the overall strategy? Is peace education part of the curriculum?

11. Based on assessment information, group unmet educational needs according to urgent/immediate and longer-term. Then rank the needs according to desirability, feasibility and cost.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8*, 'Budget and financial management.')

12. Consult with national experts and stakeholders before finalizing the assessment report.

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for analysis¹

Standard 1: Initial assessment

A timely education assessment of the emergency situation is conducted in a holistic and participatory manner.

Key indicators

- An initial rapid education assessment is undertaken as soon as possible, taking into account security and safety.
- Core stakeholders are involved in identifying what data need to be collected; in the development, interpretation and refinement of indicators; and in information management and dissemination.
- A comprehensive assessment of education needs and resources for the different levels and types of education, and for all emergency-affected locations, is undertaken with the participation of core stakeholders, and updated on a regular basis.
- Education is part of an intersectoral assessment that collects data on the political, social, economic and security environment; demographics; and available resources, to determine what services are required for the affected population.

1. Source: INEE (2004: 21).

- The assessment analyses existing and potential threats to the protection of learners, using a structured risk assessment of threats, vulnerabilities and capacities.
- Local capacities, resources and strategies for learning and education are identified, both prior to and during the emergency.
- The assessment identifies local perceptions of the purpose and relevance of education, and of priority educational needs and activities.
- A system is established for sharing assessment findings and storing education data.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

1. **The timing of assessments.** This should take into consideration the security and safety of the assessment team and the affected population. Where access is limited, alternative strategies should be explored, such as secondary sources, local leadership and community networks. When greater access is possible, the first assessment should be upgraded and based on more extensive data and information collected. The assessment should be updated regularly (at least quarterly), drawing on monitoring and evaluation data, review of programme achievements and constraints, and information on unmet needs.
2. **Assessment data and information collection.** This should be planned and conducted to understand educational needs, capacities, resources and gaps. An overall assessment, covering all types of education and all locations, should be completed as soon as possible, but this should not delay

the speedy preparation of partial assessments to inform immediate action. Field visits by different education providers should be coordinated, where possible, to avoid a continuous stream of visitors distracting staff from the emergency response.

Qualitative and quantitative assessment tools should be consistent with international standards, EFA goals and rights-based guidelines. This helps to connect global initiatives with the local community and promote linkages at the local level to global frameworks and indicators. Data collection forms should be standardized in-country to facilitate the coordination of projects at an inter-agency level and minimize the demands on information suppliers. The forms should provide space for additional information deemed important by the local/community respondents.

Ethical considerations are essential to any form of data collection in a humanitarian response. Collecting information for any purpose, including monitoring, assessment or surveys, can put people at risk – not only because of the sensitive nature of the information collected, but also because simply participating in the process may cause people to be targeted or put at risk. The basic principles of respect, do no harm, and non-discrimination must be kept in mind, and those collecting the information have responsibility to protect and inform participants of their rights.

- 3. Methods of analysis.** In order to minimize bias, data should be triangulated from multiple sources during analysis, before conclusions are drawn. Triangulation is a mixed method approach to collecting and analysing data to measure overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon,

yielding an enriched understanding to ensure the validity of qualitative data. Local perceptions are also included in the analysis, to avoid a humanitarian response based solely on outside perceptions and priorities.

4. **Stakeholders.** These should include as many individuals as possible from the affected population group(s). Stakeholder participation in data and information collection, analysis, and information management and dissemination may be limited by circumstances during the initial assessment, but should be increased during later assessments and monitoring and evaluation.
5. **Assessment findings** should be made available as soon as possible so that activities can be planned. Pre-crisis data and post-crisis assessments that identify education needs and resources (e.g. by authorities, NGOs, specialized agencies within the humanitarian community, and the local community) should be made readily available to all actors. This is particularly useful if actors cannot access the location during an emergency.
6. **General emergency assessments** should include an education or child protection specialist on the emergency team to collect data on education and child protection needs and resources. Agencies should commit resources and build staff and organizational capacity to carry out these activities.
7. **Risk analysis.** It is important to consider all aspects of the situation that may affect the health and safety of children and youth, in so far as education may constitute a protective and/or risk factor. The assessment should include a list or table of risks (a 'risk matrix'), which should document for different age groups and vulnerable groups the risks

associated with factors such as the following: (a) natural disasters and environmental hazards; (b) landmines or unexploded ordnance; (c) safety of buildings and other infrastructure; (d) child protection and security; (e) threats to mental and physical health; (f) problems regarding teachers' qualifications, school enrolment and curricula; and (g) other relevant information.

The assessment should state the risk management strategies needed for prevention, mitigation and action related to emergencies (preparedness, response, reconstruction and rehabilitation) during adverse events of a natural or provoked nature. This may in some circumstances require each educational centre to have a school contingency and security plan to prevent and respond to emergencies. Where necessary, each educational centre should prepare a risk map showing its potential threats and highlighting the factors that affect its vulnerability.

- 8. Sharing assessment findings.** This should be coordinated by the relevant authorities at the local or national level. If there are no competent authorities or organizations to do this, an international lead actor, such as the United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), should be named to head up the mechanism for coordinating and sharing information. The sharing of assessment findings should lead to the prompt introduction of a statistical framework and the output of data that can be used by all stakeholders.

2. Sample rapid assessment form²

Location(s):

Nature of emergency:

Main problem(s):

Are some schools still functioning?

Yes/No	Location(s)	Number of children attending	
		Girls	Boys
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

a. Main causes or manifestations of problem (check):

- School buildings have been damaged
- Water on school premises is unsafe/not available
- Children are unoccupied/out of school
- Equipment/materials not available
- Families cannot afford to buy materials
- Teachers have left or are afraid
- Lack of educated adults to replace teachers
- Teachers will not work if unpaid
- Travelling has become dangerous
- Teachers are enrolled in army
- Some children have been traumatized
- Some children are disabled
- Children are enrolled in army

2. Source: UNICEF (2003); INEE (2004: 33–38).

b. Identification of child population

	Total		Girls		Boys
Number of children	_____		_____		_____
0–5 year olds	_____ %		_____ %		_____ %
6–13 year olds	_____ %		_____ %		_____ %
14–18 year olds	_____ %		_____ %		_____ %
Residents	_____ %		_____ %		_____ %
In-movers	_____ %		_____ %		_____ %

c. Comparison with pre-emergency situation

	Total			Girls			Boys		
	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
Number of children	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
0–5 year olds	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
6–13 year olds	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
14–18 year olds	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
Residents	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More
In-movers	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More	Less	Same	More

Explain any major differences in gender:

Are there any other significant issues that need to be addressed (e.g. presence of ethnic groups)? Explain:

d. What is the children’s level of education?

	Early childhood education	Primary education	Middle school education (early adolescents)
Percentage of age group population that have completed	_____	_____	_____

e. What is/are the language(s) used by the children?

	Mother tongue	Spoken <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Written <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Local languages (specify)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (specify)	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	_____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

f.(1) Do you possess a map of the region on which the community buildings (e.g. schools, health centres, churches/mosques) are indicated?

f.(2) If the answer to f.(1) is ‘No’, could you obtain one?

f.(3) If the answer to f.(2) is ‘No’, indicate how to obtain this information.

g. What locations can be used for classes?

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Number of children that can be accommodated
School/classrooms	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Rehabilitation centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Shelter	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Outside (shade, tree ...)	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
House	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Religious buildings	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Clinics	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
Other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

h. Are the following facilities easily accessible?

	On-site <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	At a distance (meters) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Not accessible <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Water source (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lavatories	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Showers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Toilets	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Medical facilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilities for the disabled	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Electricity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

i. How far would children have to travel to attend classes?

	Percentage of the children group			
	0–25 %	26–50%	51–75%	76–100%
<i>(in metres)</i>				
500 metres or less	_____	_____	_____	_____
500 to 1,000 metres	_____	_____	_____	_____
> 1,000 metres	_____	_____	_____	_____
<i>(in miles)</i>				
Half a mile or less	_____	_____	_____	_____
Half to 1 mile	_____	_____	_____	_____
> 1 mile	_____	_____	_____	_____

j. Are children involved in household chores or any other work?

	Girls	Boys
Percentage	_____	_____
Hours per day	_____	_____
Mainly a.m. or p.m.	_____	_____

k. What is the quantity (approximately) of learning materials that are available and required?

	Available	Required
(Per child)	_____	_____
Textbooks:	_____	_____
Subject 1	_____	_____
Subject 2	_____	_____
Subject 3	_____	_____
Slate(s)	_____	_____
Chalk(s)	_____	_____
Ball sponge(s)	_____	_____
Eraser(s)	_____	_____
Exercise book(s)	_____	_____
Pen(s)/pencil(s)	_____	_____
Colour pencils	_____	_____
Others (specify)	_____	_____

I. What is the quantity (approximately) of teaching materials that are available and required?

	Available	Required
(Per classroom)	_____	_____
Guides/manuals	_____	_____
Record books	_____	_____
Blackboard	_____	_____
Chalk box(es)	_____	_____
Wall charts/maps	_____	_____
Pens/pencils	_____	_____
Stationery	_____	_____
Eraser(s)	_____	_____
Others (specify)	_____	_____
Recreational materials	_____	_____

m. Who is/might be available to teach children?

	No.	Women (%)	Men (%)
Trained teachers	_____	_____	_____
Para-professionals	_____	_____	_____
Professionals from other fields (e.g. medical/para-medical)	_____	_____	_____
Older children	_____	_____	_____
Community members	_____	_____	_____
NGO members	_____	_____	_____
Volunteers	_____	_____	_____
Other (specify)	_____	_____	_____

n. What adult human resources are available to support teachers?

	No.	Women (%)	Men (%)	Level of education/ qualification
Para-professionals	_____	_____	_____	_____
Professionals from other fields (e.g. medical/ para-medical)	_____	_____	_____	_____
Older children	_____	_____	_____	_____
Community members	_____	_____	_____	_____
NGO members	_____	_____	_____	_____
Volunteers	_____	_____	_____	_____
Other (specify)	_____	_____	_____	_____

o. Are children accompanied?

	Percentage of children group
By their whole family	_____
By at least one parent	_____
By older siblings	_____
By other family members	_____
By community members	_____
By volunteers	_____
Alone	_____

p. Who is the household head?

Percentage of children group

Mother

Father

Other adult (specify)

Other child (elder sister)

Other child (elder brother)

Other (specify)

q. Economic background of the children's family

Percentage

Farmers

Nomads

Artisans

Cattle raisers

Other (specify)

r. What are the special messages to be conveyed to children?

Messages on sanitation and hygiene

-
-

Health messages

-
-

Messages on potential dangers such as landmines

-
-

Life skills (specify)

-
-

Other (specify)

-
-

s. Presence of functioning key institutions in affected communities (indicate a few names)

	Universal	Common	Rare	Nonexistent
Community committees				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Education ministry resources				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teacher training institutes				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Education-active domestic NGOs				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Education-active international NGOs				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
United Nations agencies				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (specify)				
1. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Phasing of education in emergencies

After emergencies where there has been severe disruption of social services or large-scale displacement, there may be a phased reintroduction of education (see schema below, adapted from that developed by UNESCO, UNICEF and UNHCR in 1994) (Aguilar and Retamal, 1998). The affected population usually wants the immediate restoration of schooling to permit the completion of the interrupted school year. Depending on circumstances there may, however, have to be stopgap emergency education activities pending the restoration of the school calendar. Whether or not this happens, schools should try to provide opportunities for recreational and expressive activities for children exposed to traumatic events.

Phased approach to emergency education, where re-establishment of normal schooling is delayed

Phase 1: Safe spaces and recreational activities

If schooling has been disrupted, a first step is the creation of safe spaces for children and youth to take part in simple recreational and educational activities. Such activities allow children to socialize and play, to begin psychosocial healing and to resume more normal childhood activities and development. This must be done quickly as families will seek an urgent reintroduction of formal schooling.

Phase 2: Non-formal education

If restoration of schooling takes time, efforts should be made to ensure that basic educational and recreational activities are organized in most locations, typically including core school subjects such as language, and numeracy, together with survival skills. While increasingly organized, non-formal education

activities are not linked to a structured curriculum or a recognized credential.

Phase 3a: Formal education

It is important to resume formal education as quickly as possible and parents want this. The goal of formal education in emergency contexts is to provide as many children and youth as possible with a structured and recognized set of skills and knowledge, linked as closely as possible to the needs of the local environment and of the 'normal' environment to which conditions are to return. The curriculum framework should be based on that followed previously by the students, with enrichment elements related to the emergency, and possibly some temporary omission of controversial subjects or those for which textbooks and teachers are not yet available. Normally teachers prefer to use the same textbooks as before, or slightly revised versions of these.

Phase 3b: Reintroduction of certification

As soon as possible, arrangements should be made for recognition/certification of students' educational attainments and of in-service teacher training.

Even when most children and youth are enrolled in formal schooling, some are typically left out and thus in need of non-formal educational activities.

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PLANNING PROCESSES

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To address emergency needs, that is, to identify and coordinate programmes and priorities for action within an agreed timeframe (usually very short term) based on rapid assessment of needs and analysis of the situation.**
- **To set the stage for medium-term reconstruction and longer-range development planning, that is, to agree on a planning framework with all stakeholders as a prerequisite for coordination among actors and longer-range planning.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Ongoing system performance is enhanced by systematic planning, yet emergencies require rapid response. While it is true that disparities will arise in the provision of resources due to insecurity, political disagreement, and donor agendas, for example, planning is still an essential activity for the effective and efficient use of limited resources. Following a crisis, the needs and expressed expectations of affected groups will normally be immense. Educational authorities must be able to set priorities – an important component of the planning process. There may be external donors and agencies to coordinate. Without planning, it is likely that resources will be wasted

and services duplicated, that gaps and disparities in service provision will appear, and that local educational authorities will be sidelined.

Effective planning requires political agreement on values and goals as well as technical processes. Such agreement often proves difficult under conditions of civil conflict, yet education may provide a potential venue for parties in conflict to come together and work on concrete problems related to concerns of all. State education budgets generally decrease dramatically during situations of conflict as an ever-increasing amount of money is spent on military/security sectors. Education ministry staff for planning and statistics may also need strengthening and additional training in order to cope with the coordination of external actors and, ultimately, with reconstruction planning.

Planning for emergencies depends on the duration of the displacement, conflict, or disaster. It must respond to immediate, short-term, and medium-term needs as well as to local action, strategic, and system needs – all of which will be affected by the causes and the scale of the disruption. During the emergency phase, short-term plans are produced to guide urgent provision of services, and the focus is on quick resumption of educational services to affected groups to assist in overcoming trauma and in the return of normalcy. Detailed educational planning requires time and technical expertise, which may not be feasible or readily available during emergency phases, yet to whatever extent possible, short-term planning should be done with the needs of longer-term planning in mind. For example, the immediate collection of baseline data will help measure the long-term impact of services provided.




PALESTINIAN FIVE-YEAR EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT PLAN

In 1994, as soon as authority for Palestinian education was transferred from Israeli hands to the Palestinians, UNESCO offered its assistance in the creation of the Ministry of Education and the development of the education system. IIEP was entrusted specifically with the construction of planning and management capacity within the education system.

It was clear that the ministry had to start moving away from simply responding to emergencies towards strategic planning involving a long-term approach on managing the education system. A project was therefore launched in October 1998 to help the ministry strengthen its capacities in policy formulation and planning and to create its first five-year medium-term education development plan. This project also included a functional audit on four levels: central, ministry, district and school in order to formulate rules and regulations to improve the efficiency of the ministry and to make it ready for a successful and smooth implementation of the educational vision and the five-year plan.

It took the ministry and IIEP a year to formulate jointly the first draft of the plan. Meetings were organized in various districts to discuss the draft with community representatives, parents, political and social activists, leaders, education officials, principals, teachers, students and officials from other ministries (especially planning, finance, higher education and labour). More than 200 representatives from international and donor agencies and Palestinian academic and social institutions were invited to discuss the modified draft in a Consultation Workshop in October 1999. As a result of this workshop, it was concluded that the five-year plan was too ambitious and unrealistic in attempting to address all the immense needs in education in Palestine within five years. Therefore, with technical assistance from IIEP, the ministry reworked the plan, and cut it down to almost one third of its original estimated development cost.



Consensus on the plan within Palestinian society was made possible thanks to the systematic approach and the negotiating skills within the ministry developed during the two-year existence of the project. In August 2000, the ministry initiated the recommendations of the functional audit, and a central restructuring took place in order to implement the Five-Year Education Development Plan properly.

The five-year plan has now been fully implemented and completed in Palestine, and an evaluation of its results is ongoing.

Source: Adapted from Mahshi (2001).

The fluidity of emergency situations necessitates flexible and realistic planning based on ongoing situation analysis and reports. Standard planning approaches may not be well designed for the rapid response that is required, but well-designed, ongoing planning processes may help reduce the negative effects of emergencies on the education system as a whole. Plans should be periodically checked and modified as necessary to reflect changing circumstances. During early reconstruction, planners should produce a detailed, realistic strategic plan for medium-term development of the education sector (normally for a five-year period). This plan should fit within the broader national development plan or framework and, over time, as access questions are resolved, focus is likely to shift to the quality of education, its relevance to the needs and livelihoods of individuals and to the development of society at large.

Planning for refugee populations must consider the long-term prospects for repatriation and the implications of these prospects for education. In this case, it is essential to consider which language of instruction, which national curriculum, which certification of

completion, which teacher certification, salary scale and terms of service are to be used. Planning for repatriation and reintegration of refugees should begin with dialogue across borders, and an assessment of differences between the education provided while in exile, and education in the home country, as well as the implications for returnee students and teachers. Planning in the area of origin must also consider the possible differences in educational provision, especially if circumstances have favoured one group. Planning for IDP populations must consider the safety of IDPs, the difficulty of identifying some IDP populations, and their educational needs in light of their potential vulnerability. Again, explicit plans need to be made to facilitate re-entry and reintegration of IDPs into the national education system in their home areas.

Ideally, planning needs to be carried out by local educational authorities. At a minimum, however, planning should be under their supervision or conducted with their involvement. Otherwise, educational authorities will not be fulfilling their responsibilities for provision of education to all children and young adults in their territories. Therefore, it is advisable to set up a unit within the Ministry of Education that will be responsible for planning for all phases of emergency and reconstruction. This unit can assume responsibility for coordination, or a separate unit can be set up to manage external relations since, typically, a number of actors and agencies, international and domestic, respond to emergencies. The urgency of the needed response and the involvement of multiple agencies often tend to result in the marginalization of local educational authorities, particularly if they are not proactive. International agencies should be reminded of their responsibility to coordinate with local educational authorities. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.11, 'Coordination and communication'*.)




STRATEGIC ACTION PLAN FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFGHANISTAN

After several decades of civil war, Afghanistan has experienced a near breakdown of its entire education system, all levels of which are currently in the stage of profound rebuilding and restructuring. Higher education remains vital as the country is in crucial need of developing its human resources in order to staff the national administration with qualified officials, rebuild its health system and generate wealth through the development of its private sector. With this in mind, the public authorities of Afghanistan called upon IIEP to initiate a process for the preparation of a Strategic Action Plan for the development of higher education in Afghanistan.

The process of the plan was designed by IIEP and the Afghan Ministry of Higher Education to be open and participatory. A team from IIEP originally worked together with a group of officials from the Ministry of Higher Education in Afghanistan for two weeks during September 2003 to: (a) collect data; (b) diagnose the current status of higher education; and (c) make informed recommendations on a comprehensive set of political choices for restructuring and rebuilding the whole higher education system.

The plan consisted of two major parts, part 1 providing an analytical framework and foundation for part 2, which detailed the projects required to realize the plan. Within the first section, the team addressed a whole range of issues related to the institutional fabric of the system, its governance structure, admission and student policies, management of academic staff, improvement of the quality of teaching and learning, physical facilities and finance and management issues. The analysis of these issues took the form of arguments in response to explicitly formulated questions, followed by an identification of existing options, and a decision on the best course of action. Part 2 of the plan then dealt with the implementation of the confirmed policy choices: What is to be done by whom, when and with what resources? Activities were grouped under projects, responsibilities allocated, timeframes established and cost estimations finalized.



Given the need to make higher education a strong tool for nation building, every effort was made to equip the central authorities with the capacity to shape the future of their own education system. They were placed in charge of all major decisions relating to structures and processes, national procedures for student admission, teacher training and recruitment, and common rules of organization of study programmes. For such policy decisions, the ministry was also advised to draw upon professional bodies such as a Council for Higher Education and Afghanistan Evaluation and Accreditation Agency.

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Higher Education, Afghanistan and IIEP-UNESCO (2004: 13–14).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Planning processes

- 1. Constitute an emergency planning group or unit to coordinate emergency activities within (or by) the educational authorities.**
- 2. Coordinate activities and agencies.**
- 3. (Simultaneously) share information with the people most affected by the emergency and other stakeholder groups.**



4. **Monitor and review implementation and modify action plans accordingly.**
5. **Relate short-term activities to long-range planning.**
6. **Conduct a sector analysis.**
7. **Formulate education policies.**
8. **Draft a medium-term education development plan.**
9. **Consult national stakeholders.**
10. **Consult funding agencies.**
11. **Plan implementation.**
12. **Begin and monitor implementation, review progress and modify implementation plans as necessary.**

Guidance notes

1. **Constitute an emergency planning group or unit to coordinate emergency activities within (or by) the educational authorities.**
 - What is the charter of the planning unit?
 - How will it relate to the longer-range planning activities of the ministry/education officials and government/authority?
 - How long will it be operational?

- How will it relate to/interface with other sectoral planning groups (e.g. health, water and sanitation, etc.) and the agency tasked with overall coordination of the humanitarian response (e.g. a national authority or perhaps the United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) or another United Nations agency such as UNHCR or UNICEF)?
 - Will someone from the education planning group participate regularly in overall coordination group meetings?
 - Who will be responsible for ensuring that the work of the education planning group is shared, on a timely basis, with the overall coordination group? (See also the note on information sharing, below.)
- Who will be the chair of the education planning group? Will government educational authorities take the lead or will that function be assumed by another organization such as UNICEF, UNHCR, UNESCO or OCHA?
- Who will serve as members of the planning group? While composition of the unit will vary according to circumstances, will membership include at least education authority representatives, local education officials, representatives from the affected communities, and representatives from the United Nations and other agencies assisting in emergency relief?
- Has the education authority compiled a list of actors/agencies and their activities? Is the list updated periodically (at least monthly)? Do various agencies involved assist in maintaining this list?
- Are the affected groups (refugees, IDPs, national population in various regions) encouraged to select representatives or focal persons to liaise with planners/coordinators?
- Where will the unit be located?

- Will it be housed in the Ministry of Education, or another official part of the government or authority?
- If temporarily housed elsewhere, when will government take over operations?

2. Coordinate activities and agencies.

- Does the planning coordination unit meet regularly?
- Does it identify gaps, duplication and competition in the provision of planned activities and services?
- Does it seek to address needs in order of priority, based on the initial and subsequent needs assessments and analysis?
- Does the unit call on individual agencies and organizations to address gaps, duplication and competition?
- Does the unit have an explicit communications and coordination strategy? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.11*, ‘Coordination and communication’.) Have the expenses for this strategy been budgeted?
- Does the unit publicize its work (see below)?

3. (Simultaneously) share information with the people most affected by the emergency and other stakeholder groups.

- Has the coordination unit shared the rapid needs assessment and action plans with the various actors? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’.) Do these include:
 - A description of the needs in the various affected areas?
 - A general timeframe for services to be provided?
 - An estimate of the cost of resources required?
- Have a sufficient number of copies of the report/summary been made available?

- Are they available in the national language(s) and in international language(s) as appropriate?
- Are the reports published on an accessible website, if available?
 - Have other actors established links to the report on their websites (again, if internet is available)?
 - If internet access is difficult for educational authorities, are other agencies asked to assist in posting reports, e.g. OCHA via its ReliefWeb site (www.reliefweb.int)?
- Do local (provincial/regional/district) education officials or members of the coordinating unit meet periodically with representatives and focal persons from groups most affected to get feedback on assessment reports, plans, situation reports and on actual implementation?
- Does the coordination unit meet with a broader group of actors/donors to present and discuss the results of the assessment report and subsequent plans and activities of the coordinating unit and other actors?
 - Are the media invited?
 - Is this information published on the internet?
 - Is the information updated frequently based on new data provided by other actors?

4. Monitor and review implementation and modify action plans accordingly.

- Has the coordination unit developed a detailed plan for monitoring implementation of various projects/programmes?
- Is some group clearly charged with responsibility for monitoring implementation (perhaps the coordination unit or a sub-group)?
 - How does this group report to educational authorities?

- Are they provided with sufficient resources and logistical support to conduct monitoring and review activities?
- Does the monitoring group report to senior educational authorities and also cooperate with local educational authorities, representatives of affected groups and the chair of the education coordination unit to monitor and review implementation?
- Are monitoring/review reports prepared on a regular basis? Are the reports disseminated to stakeholders?
- Are action plans periodically (at least quarterly) reviewed and modified, based on results of monitoring and assessment activities?

5. Relate short-term activities to long-range planning.

- Does the emergency coordination unit meet regularly with planners and other education officials to ensure smooth coordination between emergency, reconstruction, and long-term development planning?

PLANNING FOR THE MEDIUM AND LONGER TERM

During the reconstruction phase, a more formal and systematic process is used in planning to meet medium-term reconstruction and longer-term development needs in the education sector. While planning in the emergency phase may be led by an outside agency, during reconstruction it is directed to a much greater extent by national and local education officials and agendas. The extent to which national officials drive decision-making may depend, in part, on technical capacity in the ministry, as well as ministry competence and assertiveness. Information is essential for effective planning. Therefore, a functional educational management information system





(EMIS) must be established, if one is not already operational. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and educational management information systems (EMIS)'*). The standard process consists of seven steps:

1. Conduct an education sector analysis.
2. Formulate education policies.
3. Draft a medium-term education development plan.
4. Consult national stakeholders.
5. Consult funding agencies.
6. Plan implementation.
7. Begin and monitor implementation, review progress and modify implementation plans as necessary.

6. Conduct a sector analysis.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section for an explanation of education sector analysis.)

- Has a national steering committee been constituted to oversee the sector analysis? Does the steering committee include top-level policy-makers, representatives of other relevant sectors, and representatives of the community and the private sector?
- Has the steering committee determined the scope of the analysis to be conducted? That is, have the issues to be included in the analysis been defined? Sector analyses typically examine:
 - Access (gross and net enrolment rates and completion rates for both primary and secondary education).
 - Equity (access by gender, rural-urban, ethnicity, or other groupings).

- Quality and relevance of education.
 - Learning and other outcomes.
 - Internal efficiency¹ of the education sector (e.g. repetition rates).
 - External efficiency² (e.g. mismatch with employment opportunities, skills shortages).
 - Management and structure (See also *Guidebook, Chapter 5.3, 'Project management'*, and *Chapter 5.6, 'Structure of the education system'*).
 - Costs associated with the education sector.
 - Learning and other outcomes.
 - Have sub-sector teams been formed? Who serves as members of the teams – education officials, community members, teachers, international consultants?
 - Typically, teams are organized around sub-sectors of the system, e.g. primary education, teacher training, etc.
 - Teams are typically charged with collecting, analysing, and interpreting data, and presenting results for their sub-sector.
- Has a technical analysis team, made up of educational planners familiar with sector analysis, been formed to advise the sub-sector teams?
 - Are data collected, analysed, and interpreted and then presented in an accessible format?
 - Are the results, including conclusions and recommendations, available in national language(s) as well as the relevant
1. 'Internal efficiency' refers to how well (effectiveness relative to cost) the organization achieves its shorter-term objectives (e.g. Gains in academic achievement, etc.) (Kemmerer, 1994).
 2. 'External efficiency' refers to how well the organization achieves its longer term objectives (e.g. good citizens, productive employees, etc.) (Kemmerer, 1994).

international language(s) if international groups are involved?

- Are copies of the report broadly available?
- Are they posted on the internet, if available?
- Are public forums arranged to discuss the findings, conclusions and recommendations?

7. Formulate education policies.

- Has the national sector analysis steering committee drafted policies based on the findings and recommendations of the sector analysis?
- Are meetings organized to discuss the draft policies with representatives of stakeholders and other actors?
 - Does the national steering committee revise the policies based on these meetings?
- Is there a process by which educational authorities then approve the policies?

8. Draft a medium-term education development plan.

- Is a team constituted to write the plan, based on policies formulated earlier? Does the team include education planners and officials from the relevant departments and, if at all possible, the most senior education official as chair?
- Does the team include meaningful representation of implementers and beneficiaries?
- Is a team constituted for each development programme area? Are these teams charged with detailing proposed activities and projects within each programme area?
- Are plans analysed for cost implications and for demographic changes?
- Does the committee produce a draft plan document for review?

9. Consult national stakeholders.

- Is the draft plan or a summary available in the national language(s) as well as relevant international language(s)?
- Are copies of the draft plan distributed within the ministry, to senior officials from the various central ministry departments, and provincial directorates?
 - To other ministries?
 - To broader national stakeholder groups and representatives, including teachers' groups and affected communities?
- Are consultation meetings organized for education officials from the various departments and provinces as well as with political leaders, community representatives, and representatives of civil society?
- Is the original document modified based on results of these meetings?

10. Consult funding agencies.

- Is the modified plan available in the appropriate international language(s)?
- Is a consultation meeting organized with local donor representatives?
- How does dialogue occur between national ministries and donor agencies?
- Are transparent procedures in place for the finalization of the plan?
- Is a final plan produced in national languages and the appropriate international language(s)?
 - Is an international consultation/donor pledging meeting organized?

- Are representatives of national stakeholders and donor representatives from headquarters invited?
 - Is the plan document sent well ahead of time to all participants?
 - Are funding agencies encouraged to make pledges and to decide the kind of financial support they want to provide?
 - Some financial support options include: basket funding³, budget support⁴, programme funding, and project funding⁵.
 - Are implementation and reporting procedures and the scheduling of disbursements discussed with funders?
 - Is the final plan discussed with the relevant parliamentary body, according to local law and custom?
 - Does that parliamentary body have to rectify the plan?
3. Basket funding occurs when several donors pool their funding into common ‘baskets’, or joint accounts, that support an overall programme or a sector within a government. Donors who pool funds agree to shift their support from individual projects to a common pool that is managed by one of the donor partners. There is increased reliance on common procedures, e.g. appraisal, reporting, monitoring and evaluation, and joint review processes. Some pre-conditions may apply to the release of donor funds. Funds are dispersed from the pool to a government on a periodic basis, based on a government’s reporting of sectoral expenditures for that period (adapted from World Bank, 2003).
 4. Budget support is an aid modality which consists of financial assistance provided directly to a partner country’s budget on a regular basis, using its own financial management systems and budget procedures (adapted from World Bank, 2005).
 5. A ‘programme’ is a set of interrelated projects, centrally managed and coordinated, and directed towards the attainment of specific (usually similar or related) objectives. A ‘project’ is a planned undertaking designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and within a specified period (adapted from MFA, Denmark, 2004).



RECONSTRUCTION ISSUES IN AFGHANISTAN

“Consultations with Afghan educators and other stakeholders during this preliminary assessment indicate that the development of a long-term vision and a national education policy are immediate priorities. The national education policy, medium-term plan and strategy should address some of the following key areas:

- Decentralization: identification of which powers can be decentralized to which levels.
- Governance: determination of policy authority of key stakeholders.
- Public/private partnerships: role in governance, extent of private sector involvement and accountability in service delivery, construction.
- Community role in: resource mobilization, school governance, access-quality monitoring.
- Equity: gender parity in enrolment, equity in enrolment and achievement.
- Teaching force: level of qualifications, competence, status and remuneration.
- Technical and vocational training: degree of flexibility and relevance, and market linkage.
- Tertiary: degree of autonomy, linkage to private sector, balance of research and teaching.”

Source: ADB, World Bank and UNDP (2001), in Sinclair (2002: 101).

11. Plan implementation.

- Have the programme teams produced detailed annual implementation plans? Have they identified:
 - The departments and units responsible for implementation?
 - The schedule for implementation?
 - Relevant indicators to be monitored?
- Is implementation appropriately decentralized?
- Are implementation plans collected into a single document, translated into national and international languages, with sources of funding and schedules specified?
- Are copies of the implementation document distributed to all concerned parties, especially those responsible for implementation, other ministries and donor representatives?
- Do annual education budgetary allocations reflect the financial requirements of the implementation plans?

12. Begin and monitor implementation, review progress and modify implementation plans as necessary.

- Are implementers and beneficiaries as well as education officials involved in monitoring, reviewing progress, and modifying implementation plans? (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 5.3*, 'Project management', and *Chapter 5.7*, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)').

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. What is education sector analysis?

The Education Sector Analysis (ESA) or Sector-Wide Approach (SWAP) in education is a common tool used in the development of education systems. Once conflict is over and the situation is stabilized, a general overview of the education system and a review of its present status are essential to the post-conflict reconstruction process. The Education Sector Analysis provides national authorities, donors, and other education stakeholders an understanding of:

- Essential inputs into setting national education sector policy.
- Implementation strategies for the sector policy.
- Action programmes to carry out the strategies.

Why ESA?

ESA is an essential activity because it provides a systematic analysis of objectives, criteria and priorities for nationally and internationally funded education reform and development activities. It can also increase the cost-efficiency and impact of the education system by increasing awareness of more and less effective aspects of the system.

By whom is ESA carried out?

ESA is carried out in different ways, by national authorities such as education ministries, planning and finance ministries, or other government units at central and provincial levels; external partners

such as donors and non-donor technical assistance agencies; and increasingly national public and non-public stakeholders.

What does ESA comprise?

- Identification of inputs (such as teachers, curriculum, textbooks, pedagogy) and results (such as graduates, learning outcomes, relevance, resource utilization, sector management, costs, achievement of goals).
- Assessment of strategies. This implies assessing the implications of alternative strategies in relation to the resources needed and available, sector management mechanisms and processes needed, and cultural and political factors.
- Action programmes, broken down into projects, to implement the strategies.

Source: Adapted from Bahr (2002).

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PROJECT MANAGEMENT

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To achieve the objectives of short- or medium-term plans, based on needs assessment or sector analysis.
 - To delineate the responsibilities of various actors and stakeholders in developing and implementing the activities that are necessary to achieve the objectives.
- work towards their particular objectives.
 - The education ministry (or equivalent authority) should, to the extent possible, be in charge of decision-making, policy and coordination at sector and sub-sector level and, where appropriate, advise on issues of project management, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
 - Short-term projects should, to the extent possible, contribute to and be part of the larger reconstruction and development plans and processes, forming the base for a system-wide approach to education to emerge.

KEY PRINCIPLES

- To the extent possible, emergency assistance projects should build the capacity of local/national/refugee educators, as well as

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Though there is no universally accepted definition of a project, the Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs definition is useful: ‘A project is a planned undertaking designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and within a specified period of time’ (MFA, Denmark, 2004). Projects are the concrete translation of short-term and long-term plans into reality through a structured set of activities.

In normal circumstances, following sector analysis, policy formulation, and plan preparation (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.2, ‘Planning processes’), the project cycle proceeds through seven stages:

1. Identification.
2. Preparation.
3. Appraisal/review.
4. Approval and financing.
5. Implementation.
6. Monitoring.
7. Evaluation.

This process, however, requires time and skill that may not be available or affordable during an acute/onset phase.

At the onset of emergencies, national authorities’ capacity for project implementation and management may be limited due to lack of personnel, management skills and experience, as well as vehicles and other equipment, or because available staff are overwhelmed by the emergency. Therefore, in the early phases, it may be advisable to leave implementation and management of rapid educational response projects to external actors or donors.

During this acute phase, the security and political situation, physical conditions and geographical dispersion of affected groups may make collection of relevant data difficult. National authorities, local organizations, and external actors need to be creative and flexible in devising effective procedures for collecting needed information.

As the situation develops, national authorities should take increasing charge of implementation and project management. In a protracted emergency, project design and documents will be expected to be more thorough and more accurate monitoring and evaluation data should be collected as soon as possible. Education projects following natural disasters need to show increased preparedness for similar disasters. Throughout, national education assistance programmes should be moving from individual projects to programme preparation,¹ funding and management as the first step towards a sector-wide approach with basket-funding² and budgetary support³ by donors.

- 1 A 'programme' is a set of interrelated projects, centrally managed and coordinated, and directed towards the attainment of specific (usually similar or related) objectives. A 'project' is a planned undertaking designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and within a specified period (MFA, Denmark, 2004).
- 2 'Basket funding' occurs when several donors pool their funding into common 'baskets', or joint accounts, that support an overall programme or a sector within a government. Donors who pool funds agree to shift their support from individual projects to a common pool that is managed by one of the donor partners. There is increased reliance on common procedures, e.g. appraisal, reporting, monitoring and evaluation, and joint review processes. Some pre-conditions may apply to the release of donor funds. Funds are dispersed from the pool to a government on a periodic basis, based on a government's reporting of sectoral expenditures for that period (World Bank, 2003).
- 3 'Budget support' is an aid modality which consists of financial assistance provided directly to a partner country's budget on a regular basis, using its own financial management systems and budget procedures (World Bank, 2005).

During early reconstruction, there needs to be continuing emphasis on increasing take-over of project management and implementation activities by national and local actors, increasingly sophisticated project design, better monitoring and evaluation, and increasing integration of projects into longer-term and more systemic reform processes. Reintegration/reconstruction requires that these activities be coordinated and integrated with national systems of management, which may not be as advanced. During periods of insecurity and early reconstruction, different external partners may have been allocated responsibility for assistance in different provinces/locations. There is a danger that they may emphasize activities of particular interest to their own organizations or donors (e.g. they may use disparate approaches to in-service teacher training, some may focus only on primary education). Though it may be difficult, it should be requested that they use compatible approaches, and cover all emergency-affected locations rather than favouring some and neglecting others.

In refugee situations, a non-government agency may have to serve in a management or coordination role, depending on the reasons for displacement and the role of government in the conflict. However, management of refugee projects by external or national agencies may make it difficult for refugees to build up skills at senior management level and they are sometimes unable to take on the most senior roles due to fears of pressure from ethnic/political/religious groups to divert resources or show favouritism. Refugees need to hold most management and operational posts in refugee projects in order to build up capacity for later reconstruction of their home areas, as well as for psychosocial reasons and to ensure cultural appropriateness

If donors/implementing agencies have a mandate limited to 'refugees' and their repatriation and early re-integration, there is a danger that needed activities and services will be abandoned once refugees return. Projects for returnee areas should be designed for integration into national education systems. Preference should be given to projects submitted by organizations that have a development orientation, if this is possible. Organizations with a refugee mandate need to work in partnership with a development-focused organization. Refugees may have received greater services than nationals, and this can be a tool for raising awareness and the quality of service provision in rural areas receiving returnees. To the greatest extent possible, services should be expanded to include all in need, whether returnee or not, and to minimize differences in provision across groups.

Educational authorities manage a variety of educational projects (see the 'Tools and resources' section: 'Typology of education projects') and each organization has its own format for designing, reviewing and evaluating these projects. In seeking external assistance, it is useful for national authorities and local organizations to be aware of the various formats used by major donors, funding agencies, and international organizations. These formats, however, require many of the same elements, which are often summarized in a Logical Framework (LogFrame) Analysis. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for a description of how LogFrames are generally organized.) Thus, it is advisable to prepare project proposals incorporating these common elements beforehand.

Funding organizations also have preferences as to how projects are managed. These preferences are related to the perceived capacity for implementation, accountability, and transparency on the part of national authorities/local organizations. The greater

the extent to which funding agencies trust national authorities or local organizations and respect their integrity, the greater their readiness to give them responsibility for management of externally funded projects. Project management undertaken by national authorities or local agencies normally leads to further strengthening of local planning and management capacity.

This topic outlines a process for government to manage or coordinate educational projects in an emergency situation.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Project management

- 1. Immediately constitute a project's coordination unit within the central ministry or education authority.**
- 2. Solicit draft project outlines/proposals from the various education departments in the ministry/ies of education and higher education.**
- 3. Obtain approval of project outlines from a senior-level decision-making body, and share them with potential donors and other concerned groups.**



4. **Agree on a management structure for each funded project with the agencies and donors that are involved.**
5. **Monitor and evaluate project implementation.**

Guidance notes

1. Immediately constitute a projects coordination unit within the central ministry or education authority.

Ideally, this unit should either be created from within the planning or external relations departments or attached to the minister's office.

- Does the unit consist of a minimum of five people, comprising a secretary plus one education official to deal with each of the following: bilateral donors, United Nations agencies, local community and affected groups, and neighbouring countries (if there is to be a return of refugees)?
- Do personnel:
 - Speak the necessary international language(s)?
 - Have practical experience in project management, fund-raising and donor coordination?
- Does the unit have communication and office equipment (phone, fax, computers, access to internet, mobile phone

and/or wireless system) and a vehicle? If not, consider borrowing or requesting such equipment from other parts of the government or from external partners

- Does the unit have easy access to the minister or senior-level technical official(s)?
- If the ministry is not functional, is there a project coordination unit for education, organized with international support?
 - Does this unit include representatives from national authorities, educators, and local leaders as well as representatives from the United Nations and non-governmental organizations and funding agencies?
 - How is this unit associated with the emergency education-planning unit discussed in the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.2, 'Planning processes'*?

2. Solicit draft project outlines/proposals from the various education departments in the ministry/ies of education and higher education.

These should be based on the priorities identified in the rapid needs assessment (and subsequent assessments if any have been conducted). (See the 'Tools and resources' section for a typology of education projects and the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)

- Has the Minister of Education (or equivalent education authority) formally given the projects coordination unit responsibility for soliciting and collecting the draft proposals, and for combining the drafts into a unified acceptable form?
- Have projects been identified by a wide range of groups including:
 - Relevant provincial education directorates?
 - Representatives of conflict- or disaster-affected groups?

- Representatives of other important actors and stakeholders, such as the United Nations and non-governmental organizations?
 - Have the above groups been given the opportunity to provide feedback on the draft project outlines?
- 3. Obtain approval of project outlines from a senior-level decision-making body, and share them with potential donors and other concerned groups.**
- Have copies been sent and discussions held with the Ministry of Planning?
 - Have the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Finance been involved?
 - Have individual or group meetings been organized with representatives of United Nations agencies, donors and NGOs?
 - Have copies of project outlines been given to provincial directorates of education? To representatives of affected groups (making it clear that project proposals do not guarantee funding)?
- 4. Agree on a management structure for each funded project with the agencies and donors that are involved.**
- For each project, has a focal person and contact person been designated:
 - From the central ministry?
 - From each of the concerned departments?
 - From the provincial directorates?
 - From the affected groups?
 - Have donors agreed to the location of the project management units and details of their operations/responsibilities?

5. Monitor and evaluate project implementation.

- In situations where educational authorities have difficulty accessing the site or obtaining data for monitoring purposes, have local project staff been trained to collect, compile, and send data to the project management unit according to an agreed-upon format?
- Have educational authorities reached agreement with donors on the frequency of project implementation reviews? Are such reviews frequent enough during this phase to identify problems before they become serious?
- Has agreement been reached with donors on details of the project evaluation team, which preferably includes members from both the educational authorities and representatives of beneficiary and affected groups?
- Are project status and evaluation reports available in national and international languages? Where are these reports located?

SELF-MONITORING QUESTIONS

- What has been accomplished?
(Description of small steps even if they might seem insignificant.)
- Are the activities in line with the objectives?
- To what extent have objectives been reached?
- Is it necessary to modify the objectives?
- Which are the positive and negative aspects of the management and coordination of the project?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Typology of education projects

Educational authorities manage a variety of education projects including:

PHYSICAL PROJECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Infrastructure, construction• Equipment• Materials
CURRICULUM AND TEXTBOOK PROJECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Production/procurement of books, school manuals, teacher guides, education aids• Curriculum and textbook development and pilot projects
TRAINING PROJECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Training of trainers and teachers (in-service, pre-service, mentors)• Training of head teachers and district supervisors
MANAGEMENT PROJECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Capacity building in general (management of systems of education)• Development of information systems, etc.

Source: Adapted from IIEP (2002).

2. Logical framework (LogFrame) analysis

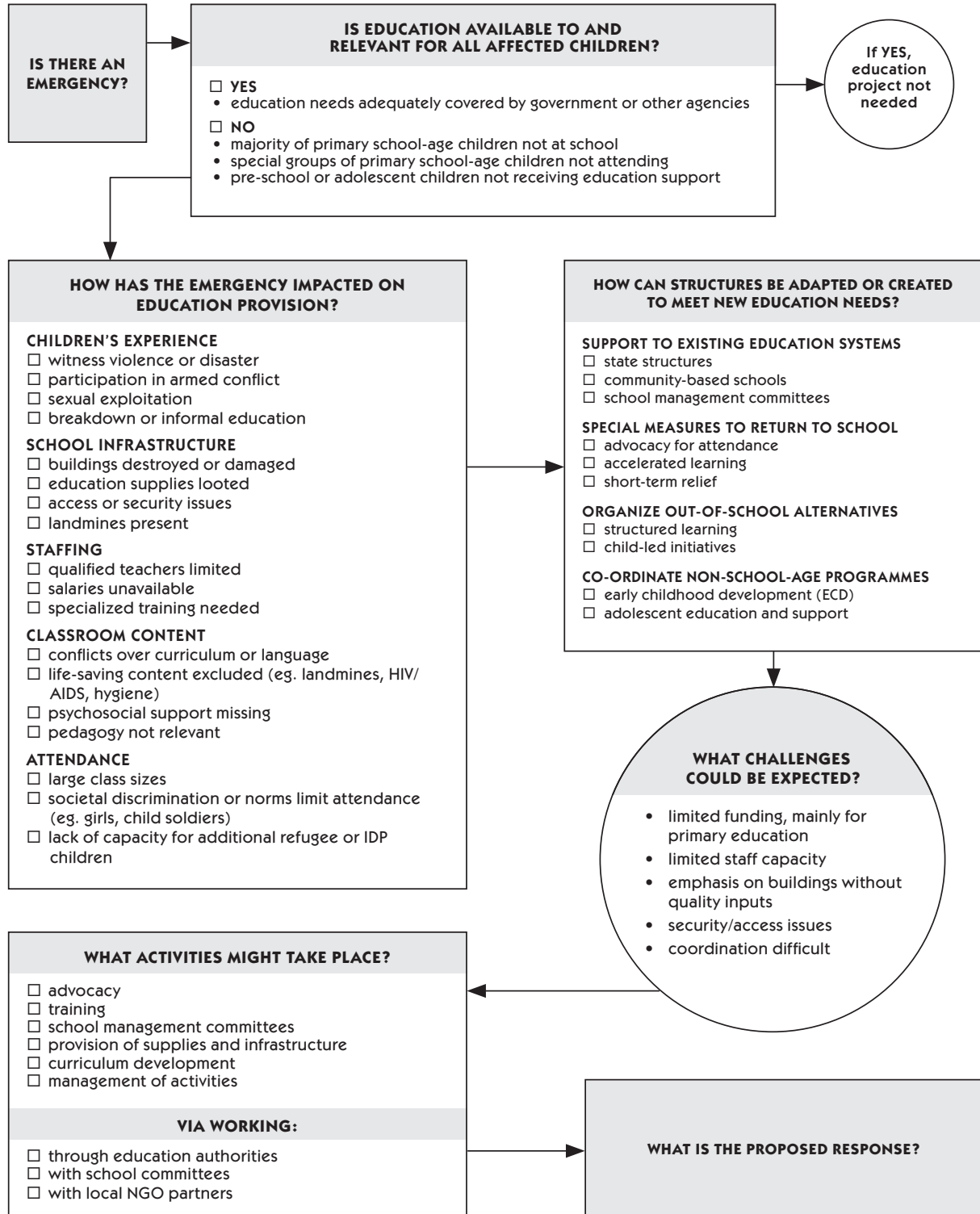
The LogFrame is often used to summarize a project. The following chart shows how a LogFrame is organized.

PROJECT SUMMARY	PERFORMANCE INDICATORS	MONITORING AND EVALUATION SYSTEM	IMPORTANT ASSUMPTIONS
<p>GOAL</p> <p>The higher overall goal to which this project (together with other programmes) will contribute.</p>		Evaluation system	
<p>PROJECT OBJECTIVE</p> <p>The specific impact of the project: the change in child development status, or change in behaviour, or improvements in institutional performance. (The intended/assumed effect of the project outputs).</p>	<p>Key performance indicators:</p> <p>A few indicators that measure whether the project outputs have had the intended impact on children and other beneficiaries.</p>	Evaluation system	Assumptions on the relationship between project impact and the overall goal.
<p>PROJECT OUTPUTS</p> <p>The project intervention: The outputs and deliverables that the project (team) are held accountable for.</p>	<p>Output indicators:</p> <p>To measure the value added of the project.</p>	Monitoring system	Assumptions on the relationship between accomplished project outputs and project impact.
<p>PROJECT ACTIVITIES</p> <p>The specific activities that have to be carried out in order to accomplish each respective project output.</p>	<p>Input indicators:</p> <p>Usually the financial, physical and human resources needed to carry out the activities.</p>	Monitoring system	Assumptions on the relationship between implemented project activities and outputs.

Source: World Bank (2003).

3. Steps in planning: an NGO approach

TOOL: STEPS IN PLANNING A RESPONSE



Source: Nicolai (2003: 26).

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LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To identify the legal basis for provision of education to all children and young adults within a country's borders, especially in situations of emergency.
- To ensure understanding, at all levels, of a country's legal and ethical obligations on education in emergencies, *vis-à-vis* relevant policy frameworks, international conventions and national policy instruments.
- To propose considerations that are essential to the establishment of a national legal framework of education in reconstruction settings.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Nations have a legal obligation to provide basic education to all children and young adults within their borders, including refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs) and others, although many people

including educators and government officials may be unaware of these obligations. Basic international human rights agreements endorse child protection and the rights of children, young adults and women to education. These international legal instruments are useful tools to assess and advocate for the needs of children in general and especially for children and youth in war-affected areas. In addition, they provide guidelines to be used when developing and implementing national legal frameworks for education in crisis or reconstruction.

The following are some possible components of a legal framework. These elements vary from country to country, depending on the political-juridical circumstances of each state. For countries in crisis, it is important, first of all, to determine which provisions have already been written, and which provisions need to be changed or added. It is not necessary for each country to possess each of the different provisions listed in the table below, but rather to adapt the possibilities presented to its own needs.

COMPOSITION OF A LEGAL FRAMEWORK

- **International provisions** as described in detail in the ‘Tools and resources’ section give an international framework for education, reflecting global norms.
- **Constitutional provisions** have two main purposes. First, they determine which authorities are responsible in educational matters. They also usually draw up basic rules for the school system: equal access, compulsory attendance, secular or confessional schools, free tuition, etc.
- **Statutory provisions** apply to educational matters according to procedures and in areas that vary with national systems. They formulate the system’s objectives, specify its general





organization, determine the jurisdiction of schools, guarantee the rights of families, and define the responsibilities of students. It is by means of these provisions that national political options and basic technical choices can be made known.

- **Infra-legal provisions** deal with the more highly evolved and complex aspects of educational systems. They consist in broadly applied rules with the aim of either complementing legislative provisions, or dealing with problems whose technical nature does not allow for parliamentary involvement.
- **Judicial provisions** enable the control of legality or liability of every planned act of an educational system.

Source: Adapted from Durand-Prinborgne (2002: 31–34).

Core international legal and policy instruments with respect to the right to education¹

The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights

- Article 26 outlines the right to free and compulsory education at the elementary level and urges that professional and technical education be made available. The declaration states that education should work to strengthen respect for human rights and promote peace. Parents have the right to choose the kind of education provided to their child (United Nations, 1948).

1. Sinclair, (2002); Nicolai (2003); Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003).

The 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 protocols

- Refugee children are guaranteed the right to elementary education in Article 22, which states they should be accorded the same opportunities as nationals from the host country. Beyond primary school, refugee children are treated as other aliens, allowing for the recognition of foreign school certificates and awarding of scholarships (UNHCR, 1951).

The 1966 Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

- The right to free and compulsory education at the primary level and accessible secondary-level education is laid out in Article 13. The covenant goes on to call for basic education to be made available to those who have not received or completed primary education. Emphasis is placed on improving conditions and teaching standards (United Nations, 1966).

The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child

- Article 28 calls for states to make primary education compulsory and free to all, and to encourage the development of accessible secondary, and other forms of education. Quality and relevance is detailed in Article 29, which mandates an education that builds on a child's potential and supports his/her cultural identity. Psychosocial support and curriculum elements covering human rights, peace, tolerance, gender equality and respect for the environment are emphasized in this article. Article 2 outlines the principle of non-discrimination, including access for children with disabilities, gender equity, and the protection of linguistic and cultural rights of ethnic minority communities. Article 31 protects a child's right to recreation and culture (United Nations, 1989).

The Geneva Conventions

- For situations of armed conflict, the Geneva Conventions lay out particular humanitarian protections for people – including children – who are not taking part in hostilities. In times of hostility, States are responsible for ensuring the provision of education for orphaned or unaccompanied children. In situations of military occupation, the occupying power must facilitate institutions “devoted to the care and education of children” (Fourth Geneva Convention, Articles 24 and 50, 1949). Schools and other buildings used for civil purposes are guaranteed protection from military attacks (Protocol I relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts, Article 52, 1977) (ICRC, 1949).

Regional agreements

- A number of regional agreements also address issues of education. References to the right to education are found in the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, Article XI; the American Declaration on the Rights and Duties of Man, Article XII; and the Protocol to the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of 1952, Article 2.

Other significant commitments and frameworks

- The United Nations *Study on the impact of armed conflict on children* (also known as the Graça Machel Report) – a seminal study on the effects of conflict on children and the need for protection and education (UNICEF, 1996).
- *Guiding principles on internal displacement* – an important legal foundation for the protection and education of internally displaced people, but without the legal force of a treaty (UNOCHA, 2003).

- Education for All (EFA) – Most of the world’s governments have committed themselves to the goals of Education for All, articulated and reaffirmed at the 1990 World Conference on Education for All and the 2000 Dakar World Education Forum. The Dakar Framework for Action declared that by 2015 all children of primary school age would participate in free schooling of acceptable quality, and that gender disparities in schooling would be eliminated. Levels of adult illiteracy would be halved, early childhood care and education and learning opportunities for youth and adults would be greatly increased, and all aspects of education quality would be improved (UNESCO, 2002*b*).
- Millennium Development Goals – The goals of universal primary education and gender parity were adopted as Millennium Development Goals by the United Nations General Assembly on 6 September 2001 (United Nations, 2000).

These different legislative measures are examples of the increased awareness on the part of the international community, of the needs of all children, including those affected by political crises or natural disasters. The international legal framework for the protection of children indicates that there is a strong need for a rapid response during emergencies. According to Margaret Sinclair, “the increased awareness of the psychosocial needs of children and adolescents and of rights under the Convention on the Rights of the Child have led to more rapid response” (Sinclair, 2002: 41–42).

UN Security Council resolutions on children in emergencies

A number of United Nations resolutions refer to the security and protection of children during emergencies. Resolutions 1261, 1314 and 1379 on children and armed conflict mandate international action to protect the security and rights of children in situations of armed conflict. Education is a part of each of these resolutions (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003: 8).

Resolution 1379 (2001) requests the agencies, funds and programmes of the United Nations to:

- Devote particular attention and adequate resources to the rehabilitation of children affected by armed conflict, particularly their counselling, education and appropriate vocational opportunities, as a preventive measure and as a means of reintegrating them into society.
- Promote a culture of peace, including through support for peace education programmes and other non-violent approaches to conflict prevention and resolution.

Resolution 1314 (2000) reiterates the importance of ensuring that children continue to have access to basic services, including education, during the conflict and post-conflict periods.

Resolution 1261 (1999) stipulates the provision and rehabilitation of medical and educational services to respond to the needs of children, the rehabilitation of children who have been maimed or psychologically traumatized and child-focused mine-clearance and mine-awareness programmes.

The foundation in international law for education of refugee children is Article 22 of the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees.

ARTICLE 22

PUBLIC EDUCATION

1. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education.
2. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regards access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships.

Although there are no specific laws written for internally displaced children, they are protected under the international frameworks cited above, and steps must be taken to ensure that they have access to education during and after situations of conflict. However, the 1990 World Conference on Education for All, in Jomtien highlighted the fact that this population is all too often overlooked and underserved (Aguilar and Retamal, 1998: 6). Nevertheless, the first of the 'Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement', presented by the United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs, maintains that

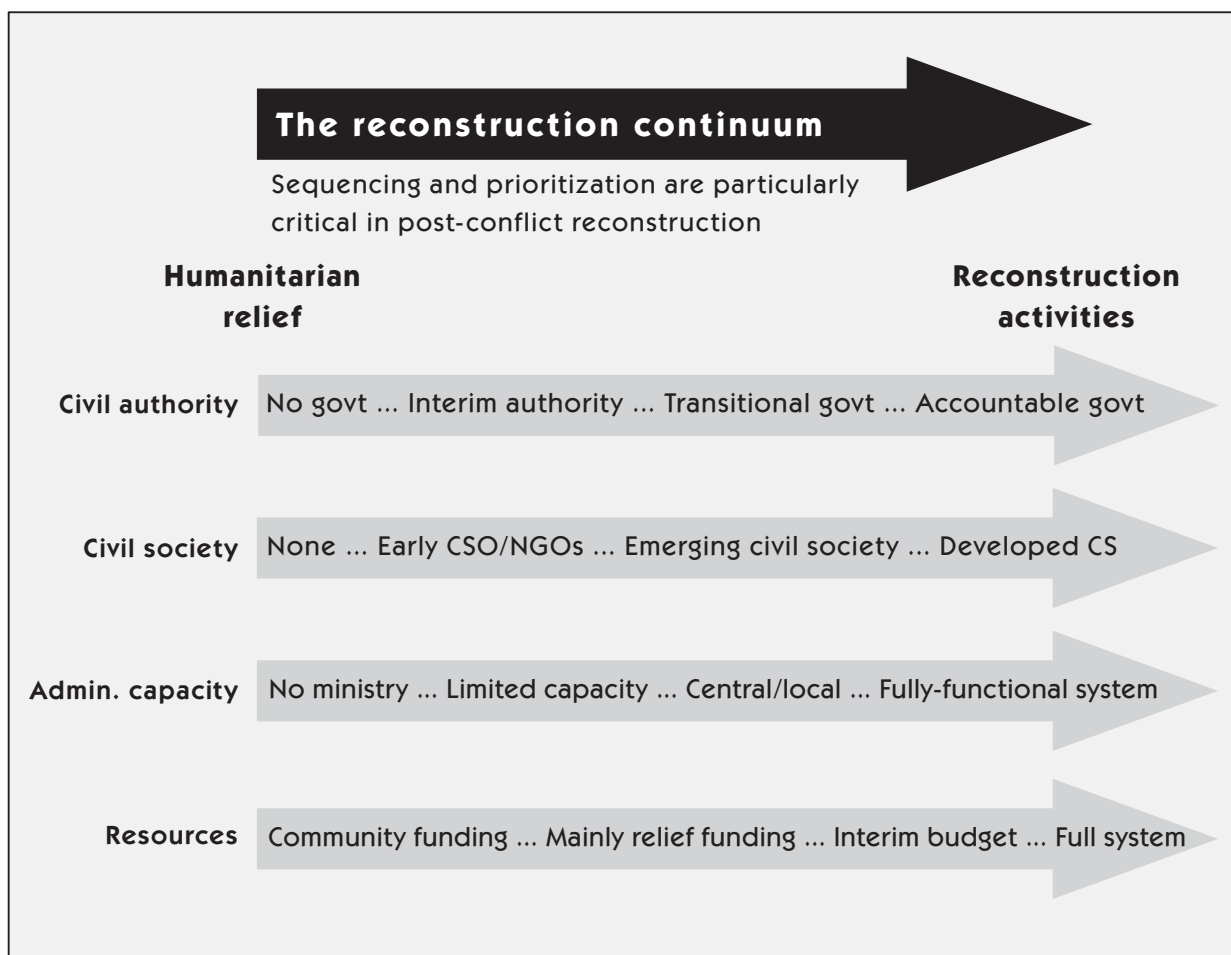
“internally displaced persons shall enjoy, in full equality, the same rights and freedoms under international and domestic law as do other persons in their country. They shall not be discriminated against in the enjoyment of any rights and freedoms on the ground that they are internally displaced” (UNOCHA, 2003).

National legal frameworks

Although different countries have diverse political-juridical traditions, “numerous similarities also exist in terms of legal approach and treatment: from the common setting in legal terms of aims and objectives assigned to education in order to achieve socio-economic goals, to regulations covering family obligations or rights” (Durand-Prinborgne, 2002: 16). In fact, the need for national laws to be consistent with international legislation tends to enhance similarities in educational laws from one country to the next.

When planning national legal frameworks for educational systems, it is important to keep in mind, as Claude Durand-Prinborgne (2002: 19) suggests, that “excessive production of legislation presents both advantages and risks ... It can have political impact due to the increasingly obvious gap between stated aims and reality. The drawing up of legislation, whether by the parliament or government, must be realistic” and further, should be neither too meticulous, nor too vague. In this way, educators will create a system that is more readily adaptable and more able to consider the particularities of the local population and their educational needs.

The development of educational legal frameworks is highly dependent on the evolution of the political and economic systems after an emergency situation. The World Bank presents elements of this evolution in an 'Education reconstruction continuum'.



Source: World Bank (2005: 3).

Immediately after a crisis, the general context can be characterized by the absence of government systems. At this time, international agencies often begin to provide services that are uncoordinated, use varying curriculum, and hold classes in homes, churches or makeshift buildings. During emergencies,

it is international law that provides the legal frameworks for education. As countries move towards the presence of an interim authority, education decisions are put in the hands of high-level ministerial authorities. At this time, NGO registration and rules regarding their presence in-country should be formalized, education plans are to be drawn up, and initial budgets are to be prepared. Quite often this phase is characterized by the return and repatriation of internally displaced persons and refugees. International legislation such as the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocols guarantee refugee children the right to elementary education and state they should be accorded the same opportunities as nationals from the host country. Beyond primary school, refugee children should be treated as other aliens, allowing for the recognition of foreign school certificates and awarding of scholarships. As mentioned above, the *Guiding principles on internal displacement* provide an important foundation for the protection and education of internally displaced people, but do not have the legal force of a treaty.

As situations become more stable and move into what the World Bank calls a transitional government, a new state constitution may be drafted and adopted. At this time, states begin to delegate educational authority to Ministry of Education officials at various levels. These officials will begin to draw up national legal frameworks for education. Most countries have accepted the international frameworks (such as 'Education for All' (EFA) and the 'Dakar Framework for Action') and have therefore committed themselves to providing free schooling of acceptable quality to all children of primary school age, increasing early childhood care and educational opportunities for youth and adults, and halving illiteracy rates.

Possible objectives of legal educational frameworks are found below.

OBJECTIVES OF LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

Defining educational objectives: Objectives must be clear and observable (permit evaluation). It is essential that these objectives be carefully chosen, well written and pertinent to the real educational situation. In this way, the goals to be achieved will effectively contribute to the mobilization of the different actors in the educational sector.

Determining the nature of instruction: This refers to technical aspects such as the general organization of the educational system, the curricula, the certification, and calendar. These elements are dependant upon the resources that will be given to the education sector.

Establishing the timeframe for the implementation of the means put to use: This also revolves around the problem of financing, and the portion of the Gross Domestic Product and the national budget allocated to education. Planners legally regulate the use of financial resources in varying ways in order to cover the costs of equipment, personnel and the operating budgets of schools. See also *Guidebook, Chapter 5.2, 'Planning processes', and Chapter 5.8, 'Budget and financial management'*.

Organizing educational provision in spatial terms: This objective should take into consideration the international goal of universal enrolment and the country's current enrolment rate. To this end, strategies such as school mapping can be used. In emergency situations, it is extremely important to identify carefully the demographic demand for education, which may have dramatically changed since the onset of the crisis.

Source: Adapted from Durand-Prinborgne (2002).



CREATING LEGAL FRAMEWORKS FOR EDUCATION: THE CASE OF AFGHANISTAN

In 2002, under the Transitional Administration, an Independent High Commission of Education for Afghanistan was established for the following purposes:

- Identification of the immediate needs and problems of education in Afghanistan.
- Formulation of education objectives, education policy and developing strategies for the revival and development of education in Afghanistan.
- Proposals on the ways and means for achieving the above objectives.
- Guidance and advice for funding the immediate renewal and long-term development of education in Afghanistan.
- Preparation of a consolidated education text on education policy, objectives and education strategies for input into the new Constitution of Afghanistan.

With the support of international organizations such as UNESCO, these objectives were carefully placed within the context of a developing national policy framework. To this end, the development of educational policy occurred simultaneously with the deliberations of the National Commission that had been established by the Transitional Administration to revise the Constitution. A national education policy task force, as well as several sub-sectoral task forces and thematic working groups, were organized, in order to draft policy papers for consideration within the overall framework.

Source: UNESCO (2002a).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies **Legal frameworks**

- 1. Identify staff, within the education ministry or elsewhere, who have expertise on the legal and policy frameworks of education, and those who report on national compliance with relevant international human rights instruments. These individuals should then identify current laws that apply to education.**
- 2. If the emergency situation has highlighted gaps in existing national laws and regulations related to education, determine what policy/regulatory changes are needed to bring the country into compliance.**
- 3. Determine authority and jurisdictional responsibilities for appropriate institutions and persons.**
- 4. Advocate, within the government and with local communities, for the importance of education in emergencies and the government's**



responsibility to ensure education is available to all – citizen, refugee or child asylum seeker – based on signed conventions.

- 5. Train local and regional officials (education and other civil officials) about the importance of these legal instruments and the obligations of government.**

Guidance notes

- 1. Identify staff, within the education ministry or elsewhere, who have expertise on the legal and policy frameworks of education, and those who report on national compliance with relevant international human-rights instruments. These individuals should then identify current laws that apply to education.**
 - Which international instruments have been signed and/or ratified by your country? (See the list of core international policy instruments related to education above.)
 - Which international instruments are relevant in the current context?
 - Which specific agreements apply to the emergency situation facing the country?
 - How can the international community assist with implementation?

- What are the current educational priorities established by law?
- Currently, what role does the government play in the organization and financing of formal education?
- Do current laws ensure sufficient and equitable resource allocation?
- Do current legal development practices leave room for a consultative process?

2. If the emergency situation has highlighted gaps in existing national laws and regulations related to education, determine what policy/regulatory changes are needed to bring the country into compliance.

- What is the legislative process for approving such changes?
- What is the role of educational authorities in advocating for such changes?
- Who is responsible for drafting proposed legislative changes? How can educational authorities assist in the process?
- What legal, policy, and regulatory changes are needed to comply with signed treaties and other agreements?
- Are there problems of implementation? How can they be addressed (training, capacity, enforcement, or incentives, etc.)?

3. Determine authority and jurisdictional responsibilities for appropriate institutions and persons.

- Which international or national authorities and administrative units are responsible for:
 - Implementation of Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), including for emergency-affected populations?

- Implementation of other international human rights instruments the country has ratified relating to education?
- Reporting on the implementation of these instruments to the appropriate international bodies?
- Development and implementation of the national 'Education for All' (EFA) plan?



DETERMINING AUTHORITY IN TIMOR-LESTE

Allocating authority for educational matters was not an easy task in Timor-Leste after the popular consultation in September 1999 made the peoples' aspiration for independence evident and pro-Indonesian militias stirred up violence throughout the country. At this time, the UNTAET (United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor) was created. However, the relationship between the UNTAET and the CNRT (National Council of Timorese Resistance) was conflictual from the start. Over the course of its ten-month existence, the transitional administration was very much a parallel administration to the CNRT. As a result, the months immediately following the crisis could be characterized as a period in which decisions were made with much difficulty. When the new administration was established in August 2000, (East Timor Transitional Administration), its theoretical purpose was to bring together both the international administration and the East Timorese administration. In practice however, the ETTA remained divided and programme planning and implementation continued to present a challenge, because of "the complexity of change and its demands, particularly on newly appointed and often inexperienced East Timorese decision-makers and administrators". With the creation of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports by this second transitional government, international workers were given only a few months to train permanent Ministry officials, and confusion regarding the role of the UNTAET lingered.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 97–99).

- To what degree will international agencies support the state in the planning of legal frameworks and policies?
- What role can national educational authorities play in advocating for implementation of these international policy agreements?
- To what extent will the state and territorial/regional authorities have legal decision-making abilities?
 - There are many possible variations concerning the divisions between state and regional authorities, variations that depend on the constitutional history of the nation and the relations of the central authority.
- What legal role will local authorities play in the development and implementation of educational policy?
 - This varies largely according to the overall population of a region. According to Durand-Prinborgne (2002: 48), the larger the population, the more likely the educational administration is to be left with only the ‘commanding heights’. Inversely, “the smaller the population and the fewer the resources of the regions, the more they need a state that can assist them, or a restructuring that can make them part of an educational network”.
- To what extent will schools themselves have decision-making capabilities?
 - Will schools be considered simply as executors of national educational policy, or will they be given the autonomy to make decisions concerning planning and administration?
 - Will schools have their own legal identity and budget?
 - Will schools be legally obliged to have a plan defining their internal management practice and the organization of services?
 - Will schools be able to create and implement a school project (an analysis of the environment and of means available, a setting of objectives and deadlines and the adoption of an evaluation process)?

- To what extent will private initiatives play a legal role in the establishment of an educational system?
- Do the laws clearly define the responsibilities of the different levels of participation?



DETERMINING JURISDICTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES IN PALESTINE: AN UNACCOMPLISHED TASK

Although authority for education decisions has been legally determined in Palestine by the Israeli-Palestinian Agreement on the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, no education law has yet been written. According to Saïdi, “there is not yet an official Palestinian decree or sub-decrees delineating roles and responsibilities for the [MEHE]” (2000: 5). Ministry officials feel that this ten-year delay is a result of the uncertain political status of the territories’.

The only law that mentions education, the Child Law, was implemented in January 2005 and echoes many of the articles from the Convention of the Rights of the Child, calling for free and compulsory education, the end to discrimination between girls and boys, and the inclusion of children with disabilities. In addition, ‘educational rules and regulations’ have been put into place by the Ministry of Education. This compilation includes ten chapters covering aspects such as general education, educational activities, examinations, financial affairs, administrative affairs, supplies, educational supervision, buildings and projects and educational technologies.

The lack of laws determining jurisdictional responsibilities can be grounds for contention amongst Palestinians. Schools themselves do not have a clear understanding of local application of the laws, rules and regulations pertaining to education. “Knowledge of how the education directorate is organized is the result of personal connections and not of official information. Relations with the education directorate and with technical and administrative deputies are not clearly established on an institutional basis. Most school head teachers are not familiar with the structure of the MEHE, its organizational chart, or the officials concerned” (Saïdi, 2000.).

Source: Nicolai (2007).

4. Advocate, within the government and with local communities, for the importance of education in emergencies and the government’s responsibility to ensure education is available to all – citizen, refugee or child asylum seeker – based on signed conventions.

- How aware are different parts of the government (central ministries as well as provincial and local authorities) of the country’s responsibilities vis-à-vis international agreements related to education for all children within the territory of the state?
- Who has the responsibility, authority, and power to ensure compliance?
- What steps can be taken to raise awareness and political will to meet international obligations?
- Do contingency plans include plans for educating internally displaced children, refugees or asylum seekers?

5. Train local and regional officials (education and other civil officials) about the importance of these legal instruments and the obligations of government.

- In what ways are local/regional bodies involved in enforcement of international legal obligations related to child protection and education?
- What are the factors that hinder implementation of international agreements?
- What violations of the CRC and the Geneva Conventions have taken place due to lack of adherence to signed agreements? Violations include:
 - Denying certain children access to education (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5, ‘Education for all in emergencies*

and reconstruction' for a more complete discussion of access and inclusion).

- Destruction of schools because of the armed conflict.
- Targeting teachers as part of the conflict.
- What is needed for local/regional bodies to play their part in compliance – e.g. training, awareness and capacity?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

INEE minimum standards for education policy and coordination²

Education policy and coordination standard 2: planning and implementation

Key indicators

- International and national legal frameworks and policies are reflected in the education programmes of relief and development agencies.
- Emergency education programmes are planned and implemented in a manner that provides for their integration into longer-term development of the education sector.
- Educational authorities and other key actors develop national and local education plans for current and future emergencies, and create a system for their regular revision.

2. Source: INEE (2004: 69).

- During and after emergencies, all stakeholders work together to implement a plan for education response that is linked to the most recent needs assessment and builds upon the previous education experience, policies and practices of the affected population(s).
- Education responses specify the financial, technical and human resources needed for effective planning, implementation and monitoring. Stakeholders ensure that the resources needed are made available.
- Planning and implementation of educational activities are integrated with other emergency response sectors.

Guidance notes

1. Meeting education rights and goals

Education programmes should provide inclusive educational activities in line with international frameworks, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), 'Education for All' framework (2000) and the Millennium Development Goals (2000), in addition to applicable frameworks and policies of the relevant educational authorities.

2. National education plans

These should indicate the actions to be taken in current or future emergencies with regard to programmes, actors, stakeholders, decision-making and coordination, as well as security and protection factors and mechanisms for inter-sectoral coordination. The plan should be supported by the appropriate education policy and frameworks. Contingency plans should be prepared for the education sector in relation to possible natural disasters (e.g. flooding, earthquake, hurricane)

and, where relevant, for potential refugee or returnee influxes that may affect a local or national education system.

3. Resources

Authorities, donors, NGOs and other stakeholders should work together to ensure that adequate funding is secured for emergency education programmes that focus on learning, recreation and related activities designed to meet psychosocial needs. As emergencies stabilize, opportunities for education programming may be expanded to include early childhood development, formal primary and secondary schooling and adult literacy and vocational programmes, among others. Resource allocation should be balanced to augment physical elements (such as additional classrooms, textbooks and teaching and learning materials) and qualitative components (such as teacher and supervisory training courses).

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COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To promote the appropriate involvement of communities in the development and management of learning processes during emergencies and reconstruction.
- To develop the capacity of communities to assume an increased role in the management of school/learning systems and environments, including, as appropriate, the functions of

planning, provision, maintenance, finance, staffing, instruction, supervision, monitoring and evaluation of education activities.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Communities can play a variety of roles in the provision and management of education and learning processes and systems. While often called upon to contribute financially or in-kind to the support of schools, communities can participate in a much broader range of functions, including administrative (e.g. school maintenance), managerial

(such as student and teacher discipline), financial (mobilizing funds and resources), pedagogical (establishing a preschool), or personnel functions (monitoring teacher attendance).

As such, communities can be a critical resource in the provision of education in emergencies and during reconstruction. Re-establishing schooling provides a common task around which there is often broad agreement, and around which members can rally and work together, even when there is conflict over other issues. In emergencies, involvement in education can also help communities strengthen their identities and (re)gain a sense of efficacy. Community participation has the potential to bring people together during a crisis, helping to establish a sense of routine and normalcy, and serving an important psychosocial function.

The general emergency context, however, implies a greater likelihood of instability among affected communities and their environments, which may result in the disruption of the community's usual social, political and economic roles and relationships. Such disruptions result in a decrease in social capital among the affected community, but, at the same time, may provide opportunities for desirable change, such as greater participation of groups who have historically been left out. Especially in refugee situations where communities live in camps with little or no opportunity to be self-sufficient, they may be unwilling to participate actively in supporting education, particularly for an extended period of time. Communities in early phases of emergency may be in such a state of flux or trauma that they are unable or unwilling to assume additional responsibilities beyond basic survival needs. Their participation is thus likely to be more difficult, and to require greater capacity building and time than is necessary for communities in more

stable environments. However, the burning desire to re-establish normalcy may also make communities more willing than usual to assist in education.

While communities can play a vital role in the provision of education in emergencies, they must be supported in order to do this effectively. Education can be used to foster further conflict and local agendas, by political factions. Educational authorities must be present and engaged with local communities to minimize this possibility and to promote the value of education for all members of the affected community. Due to a lack of resources, communities will need support – even if they are actively involved and participating in the education of their children. The energy generated by community involvement during an initial crisis should not be undermined during the reconstruction phase by NGOs or other international institutions. Rather, the efforts of international organizations and associations “must be progressively integrated into the emerging administrative and monitoring system to avoid the development of parallel bureaucracies” (World Bank, 2005*b*: 39).

Substantial community mobilization efforts may have to wait until stability and security are assured, after the acute phase of the emergency. The extended duration of protracted emergencies may require that important steps be taken under less than optimal conditions. In later phases of emergency, community readiness to participate is influenced by increased stability and security and people’s readiness to take greater responsibility for care and management of processes that directly affect their lives. Because teachers and community members may not be acquainted with the ways in which they can assist with schooling, longer-term emphasis is placed on capacity building and sustainability rather than stopgap measures.

While most emergency-affected communities are poor and unable to contribute substantially to education, their involvement still has the potential to encourage community members' sense of responsibility and ownership for provision and maintenance of education. It also has the potential to mobilize the resources that the community does have (some financial, but primarily 'in-kind' such as labour and expertise, knowledge of local conditions, etc.). Ultimately, the mobilization of community resources, together with a sense of community ownership, can have a significant impact on the sustainability of learning activities and educational systems.

As the community mobilizes, consultative and representative groups may emerge. They may be in the form of parent-teacher associations (PTAs), or broader community education committees (CECs).

Often called 'CECs', their "representation should be inclusive, with the participation of groups and institutions such as local NGOs, religious institutions, traditional leaders, groups with special educational needs, marginalized groups, women and girls, clans, tribes, age groups, etc. Representatives should be selected through a democratic process. During the reconstruction phase, the community education committee should be statutorily recognized and legally registered to act as an official institution/organization. Where community education committees with similar functions and responsibilities already exist, they should be adapted to avoid setting up parallel institutions". It is essential that the committee's roles and responsibilities be defined as soon as possible, and that they be prepared to focus not only on primary education but also on life skills training and adult literacy. Some possible responsibilities of community education committees are listed below:

- Meeting regularly to discuss issues of concern and to make decisions.





- Keeping minutes of meetings, decisions and community financial and in-kind contributions.
- Providing culturally appropriate approaches (e.g. flexible school calendars, education programme curricula that reflect the community context and involve community members).
- Communicating with the community, education programme and/or national and local authorities to promote good relationships between the education programme and community members.

Source: INEE (2004: 15–16).

Community participation can be understood along a continuum of decision-making power. According to Sherry Arnstein (1969) and Roger Hart (1992: 9), eight different levels of participation are possible at any given time. Educational authorities need to consider each of these possible behaviours, and to work towards attaining the highest level, where communities initiate and share all aspects of the decision-making process.

- Manipulation: Communities are manipulated.
- Decoration: Communities are used as needed.
- Tokenism: Communities are used in a perfunctory or merely symbolic way to give the appearance of real participation.
- Communities are assigned but informed.
- Communities are consulted and informed.
- Communities participate in project implementation.
- Communities initiate and direct decisions.
- Communities initiate, plan, direct and implement decisions.

See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a tool which permits analysis of the level of community participation.

The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) has issued *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction*, which include a standard on community participation (INEE, 2004: 15–18). That standard and associated guidance notes are provided in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Community participation

- 1. Conduct a feasibility study related to introducing or strengthening community participation in schooling.**
- 2. Establish or strengthen Community Education Committees. Monitor their functioning and adjust or extend their role.**
- 3. Decide long-term roles and responsibilities of CECs in the education system and the relationships between CECs and other parts of the system.**
- 4. Use Community Education Committees, as possible and appropriate, to assist in return and reintegration.**

Guidance notes

1. Conduct a feasibility study related to introducing or strengthening community participation in schooling.

- Identify relevant communities. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)
 - Who is affected by the emergency? What communities are affected by conflict? How do affected populations identify their communities? What are the characteristics of those communities?
 - How do different communities relate to each other?
 - Who is left out, invisible, or marginalized in the definitions of community in general use by the affected populations?
 - How many, and which communities, must be targeted separately?
- Determine how existing education/learning activities interact with community initiatives and community wishes. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)
 - What recreational and learning activities are currently under way? (This information should have been gathered during the assessment process.)
 - How can educational authorities (and others) support the various communities' education initiatives without undermining or overpowering the communities with external initiatives?
 - How can new activities capitalize on existing community efforts and initiatives?
 - What educational services, defined broadly, do community members want? What are the communities' educational priorities? What gaps do communities identify as most

important and urgent? (Again, refer back to assessment data.)

- In what aspects of education are communities most willing and able to be involved?
- What are the communities' traditions with regard to participation in education and other areas?
- Have certain community efforts been particularly successful in the past? How can these be supported or built on?
- As part of the assessment process, identify/map community leadership and organizations (religious, political, village, clan/tribe, commercial associations, etc.), their skills/knowledge/capacities, and their disposition toward collaboration and participation with likely authorities or agencies. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for an example of how to format such a mapping.)
 - Have all potential leadership groups been identified and approached? Have steps been taken to ensure that women's groups are represented among the identified groups?
 - Have leadership structures and their potential for involvement in educational management been identified? Have the skills and knowledge of both individual members and the particular groups also been identified?
 - How can these groups and individuals be mobilized in order to use their skills for the benefit of education/learning activities?
 - Are there local community-based organizations (CBOs) with educational experience that can help train communities to take part in educational management activities? (See the 'Tools and resources' section for a description of how communities can become involved in monitoring of education activities.)

- Consider ways of encouraging and soliciting community participation.
 - What resources does the community have to contribute?
 - Financial support.
 - Donated labour: for school construction, rehabilitation, maintenance, environment, gardens.
 - ‘In-kind’ material support.
 - Monitoring capacity.
 - Professional experience – teaching experience or other credentials.
 - Others?
 - What are the most important and urgent gaps in provision or management of education?
 - Planning.
 - Provision of facilities.
 - Maintenance.
 - Finance.
 - Staffing.
 - Instruction.
 - Supervision.
 - Monitoring and evaluation.
 - In the short run, what are the most important areas or gaps in education provision that can be supported by community members? (In thinking through these issues, it may be helpful to use a checklist of possible community resources and capacities. See the ‘Tools and resources’ for a sample format.)
 - In the longer run, what role will communities play in provision and management of education – in the emergency interim and on a more permanent basis?
 - How are such decisions made?
 - Who makes these decisions? What role will the community play in decision-making?



CONTRASTING PARTICIPATION IN TWO REFUGEE CAMPS IN TANZANIA

In a camp for Burundian refugees in north-west Tanzania, community participation was seen by some refugees as just the newest mantra from funding agencies when budget cuts affected education programmes and limited expenditure on school construction. The refugees – who had experienced a high level of external resources during the earlier phase of the emergency when speed of implementation was more important than cost – saw community mobilization as ‘community exploitation’. It therefore took considerable time to mobilize the refugee communities since a high level of dependency had developed.

In a neighbouring Burundian refugee camp, established five years later, community participation was instituted immediately; refugees were part of the decision-making process in education from the outset. In this camp, mobilization of the community was easier to establish and both school management committees and PTAs assisted in such activities as construction/maintenance of schools and sanitation facilities or preparing/cultivation of kitchen gardens.

2. Establish or strengthen community education committees. Monitor their functioning and adjust or extend their role.

- Establish (or continue) CECs – e.g. parent-teacher associations, school management committees, school community alliances, village education committees and community child protection committees (INEE, 2003) – as a means of ensuring community participation in education.

- What, if any, community education groups have been established?
- Who are the members?
- What was the process by which members were selected? Were the members elected or appointed? Were clear criteria established and communicated? Was the process open and transparent?
 - Who are the majority of participants in CECs: teachers, parents, influential leaders? Does this balance reflect the current needs and capacity of the affected community?
 - Are all groups (e.g. poor, less well educated) represented?
- If not, how can they be included without discrimination or marginalization by more powerful, affluent, educated members?
- Do all participants have equal status and voting rights?
 - Are women equally represented on the CEC? As women are typically under-represented in these bodies, it is helpful to encourage CECs to move towards gender parity as quickly as possible.
- What is the role or scope of the CECs?
 - If the CECs existed before the emergency, does their role need to be revised in light of present circumstances?
 - Are CECs used primarily as fund-raising and community mobilization tools? If so, how can they be empowered to take more management responsibility? How broad a responsibility should they have?
- Are there statutory regulations for the establishment of CECs? Can useful lessons be learned from countries in similar emergency situations?
- What is or should be the frequency of CEC meetings? In the early phase of an emergency, it may be necessary to meet more frequently as needs change rapidly.

- Who has decision-making authority and how much authority do the CECs have regarding the running of the school or educational organization? What types of decision-making power do (or should) they have?
- What capacities do CECs have? In what areas does their capacity need strengthening?
- Is there another, more appropriate mechanism or strategy for promoting community participation in this situation?
- Review the roles of CECs as the emergency changes.
 - As the emergency moves from acute to ongoing phases, have the CECs' ability to function effectively changed? How?
 - Have the issues discussed/dealt with by the CECs changed in the later phases of the emergency?
 - How can educational authorities help sustain the community's interest in participating in the education system?
 - Do CECs need a more formal management committee mandate? If yes, how can this be achieved?
- Develop a long-term strategy to build community capacity for the provision and management of education.
 - What capacities need developing?
 - What are the training needs?
 - What equipment, materials and resources are needed to support community capacities and their development?
 - How can such training, equipment, materials and resources be sustained over the long term with available and likely future resources?
- Conduct or expand training for CECs. Training and capacity development become more important as conditions stabilize and as CECs assume a more permanent role in provision and management of education.

- What if any training has been conducted? What impact has this had on the efficiency and effectiveness of CECs?
- What additional training is required to ensure that CECs can fulfil their functions, e.g. do some CEC members need literacy and numeracy training?
- Who is to be trained, how is the training to be conducted and by whom?
- Are informed resource people available to develop monitoring and evaluation capacity? If not, appropriate and cost-effective sources need to be identified.
- What follow-up mechanisms are in place to ensure that capacity building has been effective and sustained?
- Have the CECs been provided with the necessary tools and resources to assume monitoring and evaluation responsibilities? For example, monitoring and evaluation frameworks, materials etc. Such tools would vary depending on the management functions undertaken by CECs, but might range from matters such as building maintenance schedules, to teacher supervision, to monitoring of student (and teacher) attendance.



CONDITIONS FOR CECS TO BE EFFECTIVE

- A legitimate agreement among all important groups as to the roles, responsibilities and relationships of the different groups.
- Clarity regarding those roles, responsibilities and relationships.
- Capacity (and will) to carry out the responsibilities attendant to one's role.
- Sufficient resources.

3. Decide long-term roles and responsibilities of CECs in the education system and the relationships between CECs and other parts of the system.

- Establish (or continue) coordination structures at different levels to foster the effectiveness of CECs.
 - Are all important segments of the community represented on the CECs?
 - Are the roles and responsibilities of CECs and local school officials clear? Are their roles distinct?
 - Have linkages between CECs and central authorities been established to assist in the mainstreaming and decentralization of coordination?
 - Are there regional, district and local-level structures in place to coordinate the CECs at different levels? If not what resources and capacity development would be required to establish them?
 - Is there an existing government unit already dealing with community involvement and management? Where is it located?
 - Where, ideally, would such a unit best be placed within the education authority structure? Who has the capacity to manage it? Can similar units be established at the local level?
 - What resources are available and required to ensure such a unit?
- Strengthen coordination structures at all levels and improve local level support for the long term.
 - Are there coordination structures in place that allow CECs to be supported, either by each other or by a local body? If not what resources and materials would be available and necessary to establish such support structures?
 - Are there national CEC structures, e.g. a national parent-teacher association? Are all or most local CECs affiliated

- with these? What level and kinds of support do they receive from the national body?
- Are there teachers' unions? What role do they play in the management of learning processes and systems? How can a collaborative relationship be developed between unions, educational authorities and CECs?
 - Monitor the impact of CECs at a systemic level.
 - What are the goals for the CECs? How are differences in goals and values accommodated?
 - What are the best indicators of CEC effectiveness?
 - Number of meetings held?
 - Variety of issues addressed?
 - Level of authority mandated?
 - Gender parity?
 - Capacity for fund raising?
 - Tasks and objectives accomplished?
 - Others?
 - Are monitoring/reporting mechanisms already in place, or do they need to be developed? If in place, do they need revision?
 - At what level should the reporting mechanisms be set? To whom do CECs report – education system officials, funding agencies, community members? If not, what mechanisms ensure accountability? Wherever possible all activities should be part of an appropriate decentralization process.
 - What do CECs report on?
 - What follow up actions are needed to improve the performance of CECs?
 - Involve the wider national and international communities.
 - What local, national and international CECs, NGOs, agencies, or other civil-society organizations are available to assist in management and capacity-building processes?

How can the educational authorities utilize the skills/knowledge of these bodies most effectively?

- Have universities, institutes of education and/or management or teacher-training institutions been consulted in plans to improve quality and learning achievement?

4. Use community education committees, as possible and appropriate, to assist in return and reintegration.

- Do CECs have the capacity to assist both returnees and local populations in reintegration?
- What resources do they have available to facilitate this task? What resources do they require?
- Are returnees adequately represented on the CECs?
- Are CECs addressing the specific educational and psychosocial needs of returnees? Are they addressing potential problems of reintegration?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Evaluation of community involvement

The following chart can be used to assess the current level of community involvement and to help determine objectives for further community participation.

Manipulation: Communities are manipulated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communities do not understand the issues with which they are confronted. • Communities are not given feedback on actions taken. • Problem analysis is not shared with community members.
Decoration: Communities are used as needed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communities are not involved with the root of the problem; their participation is incidental. • External providers use community members to support their cause in a relatively indirect manner.
Tokenism: Communities are used in a perfunctory or merely symbolic way to give the appearance of real participation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communities appear to have been given a voice, but in reality have little or no choice about the subject matter. • Communities have little or no opportunity to formulate their own opinions.
Communities are assigned but informed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communities are given complete, accurate information about their actions, and understand why their participation is needed. • They know who made the decisions concerning their involvement and why. • They have a meaningful role to play in the development of a project. • They volunteer for a project after having been given all the necessary information.
Communities are consulted and informed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Projects are run and designed by external agencies, but communities understand the process and their opinions are treated seriously.
Communities participate in project implementation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions are initiated externally. • Communities have a high degree of responsibility, and are involved in the production and design aspects of projects. • Communities contribute their opinions before final projects are implemented.
Communities initiate and direct decisions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External agencies do not interfere or direct community-run projects.
Communities initiate, plan, direct and implement decisions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The community develops decisions and projects. • Actions are implemented by the community.

Source: Adapted from Hart (1992: 8–16).

2. Mapping of community leadership and organization

Community leadership and organization	Skills and knowledge	Disposition towards participation in management of schools
<p>Community leadership groups may include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious groups • Political leadership • Women's groups • NGOs • Businesses • Small enterprises 	<p>These groups may have some of the following management skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accounting • Technical knowledge • Craft manufacturing • Construction • Cultural knowledge 	<p>Groups may have these attitudes towards participation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Favourable • Hostile • Cautious • Neutral

3. Checklist of potential community resources and capacities

COMMUNITY RESOURCES	POTENTIAL COMMUNITY CAPACITIES IN EDUCATION
INSTRUCTION AND EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals specialized in certain subjects, i.e. farming, crafts, construction • Literate individuals who have had some schooling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural and recreational topics • 'In-kind' support (labour, construction, maintenance, school environment) • Teachers' aides
MANAGEMENT	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community education committees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solving conflicts between school and community • Monitoring attendance and work of teachers and principals • Developing productive links to government authorities and other external agencies

COMMUNITY RESOURCES	POTENTIAL COMMUNITY CAPACITIES IN EDUCATION
INDIRECT SUPPORT FOR SCHOOL WORK	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community members, CECs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure children’s attendance, completion of homework, nutrition and health (readiness to learn) • Value given to education • Support for girls’ education • Talking to elders of families not sending children to school • Getting drop-outs back into school
FINANCE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct monetary contributions • Individuals, CECs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Money used for school maintenance or schools supplies • Fund-raising abilities

4. INEE minimum standards for community participation¹

Standard 1

Emergency-affected community members actively participate in assessing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the education programme.

Key indicators

- The emergency-affected community, through its chosen representatives, is involved in prioritizing and planning education activities to ensure effective delivery of the education programme.

1. Source: INEE (2004 : 15–18).

- Children and youth are involved in the development and implementation of education activities.
- The community education committee holds public meetings to conduct social audits of education activities and their budgets.
- Training and capacity-building opportunities exist for community members, including children and youth, to manage education activities.

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

- **Community involvement in designing education responses**

All governmental and nongovernmental agencies should agree upon and establish procedures for ensuring community participation in designing education responses. These procedures should be an essential part of the immediate response from day one, and should include the use of participatory methodologies to rapidly establish: (a) the immediate education needs of diverse sub-groups (children, youth and adults); (b) available human capacity and time, as well as financial and material resources; (c) power dynamics between sub-groups, including language groups; (d) security limitations; (e) safe locations for education provision; and (f) strategies for integrating relevant life-saving educational messages into all aspects of emergency relief.

- **Local education action plan**

The community and the community education committee may prioritize and plan education activities through a participatory grass-roots planning process that reflects the needs, concerns and values of the emergency-affected

people, particularly those belonging to vulnerable groups. The result of this planning process is a community-based education action plan.

An education action plan may have several objectives, including but not limited to: (a) developing a shared vision among actors of what the learning environment might become, articulated through activities, indicators and targets; (b) gaining agreement and shared commitment among actors on priorities for improving specific conditions in the learning environment; and (c) articulating a plan of action with specific tasks and responsibilities that various stakeholders are to fulfil within given time periods, in order to accomplish targets outlined in the plan.

Local education action plans should define the collaborative roles of all stakeholders, including supporting agencies, community education committees and education programme stakeholders. Action plans should also incorporate a code of conduct to ensure regular community monitoring and assessment and help to establish a culture of involvement to sustain broad community participation. This may include areas such as planning, child protection, promoting the participation of girls and women and persons from vulnerable groups, implementation of teaching and learning activities, supervision, monitoring, resource mobilization, recruitment and training of staff, infrastructure, maintenance and development, coordination with relevant external agencies, and integration with health, hygiene, nutrition, water supply and sanitation interventions, where appropriate. It is important that all community members have access to information so that they can advise their community education committee how to manage the education programme effectively.

- **Children’s participation in education activities**

Article 13 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) gives children the right to have a say in matters affecting their own lives, to prepare for their responsibilities in adulthood. This article is applicable to all children in all emergency situations, including chronic crises and early reconstruction.

Learners, especially youth and adults, should be involved in the development and management of the system providing their education. Children must be trained in practices that help protect themselves and other children in their community. Training should emphasize their capacity to participate constructively and initiate positive change, e.g. suggesting improvements in school activities or reporting and preventing abuse within the learning environment. Tasks that arise during emergencies (e.g. providing recreational activities for children and youth) can be used to involve young people, especially those not attending schools, in activities that are important for the community. This gives them positive alternatives in the face of negative influences such as crime, armed groups, etc.

- **Social audits**

These are community-based evaluations of the education programme. They should be conducted to assess its human, financial and material inputs, identify what is still needed and what is actually available and, among other aspects, monitor the effectiveness of the programme. It may not always be possible to conduct social audits during the onset or mid-term stages of an emergency. However, once an emergency has stabilized (e.g. long-term chronic crisis or early reconstruction stages), social audits provide communities with an opportunity to build their capacity to more effectively monitor their education programmes.

- **Capacity building**

It is not realistic to expect community members to have the technical capability to manage and own education activities without adequate and appropriate training and mentoring. Training programmes should assess community capacity and identify training needs and ways to address these needs. In addition to capacity building for members of the community education committee, education programmes should involve community members in the work of education programmes and provide training, in order to promote the quality and sustainability of their support.

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Chapter **5.6**

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To assess existing management structures and their responsiveness to emergency needs. If necessary, to establish interim management structures and processes until more permanent arrangements can be made.**
- **To provide a coherent and sufficiently resourced system of quality instruction and learning opportunities to all children and youth.**
- **To ensure that learners and teachers are provided with proper management support, that is, adequate levels of material resources and instructional conditions conducive to effective learning on a stable and ongoing basis.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The provision and management of education is a primary responsibility of government, or other authorities that are temporarily performing governmental functions. Effective management requires sufficient resources and personnel, training,

accountability and transparency, equity and sustainability. Depending on the specifics of the emergency, management may have to be localized, or broadened, to include non-government actors to a much greater extent than in more stable situations. Thus, where the governing authority has limited legitimacy or capacity, key functions may be managed by other entities. When multiple and new actors fill service gaps, however, much more coordination is needed. These new actors should work in close consultation with national and local authorities, so far as possible. In addition, management functions should be progressively (re)turned to legitimate national and local authorities to the extent possible and as capacity is developed.

The demands on education in emergencies are greater than in non-emergency contexts, with many arrangements having to be developed in emergencies even as normal management structures are likely weakened. Thus, for example, in addition to formal instruction in literacy, numeracy and more advanced subject matters, children and youth are likely to need psycho-social interventions, life skills and, in some cases, vocational skills. Children and youth in emergencies are also less likely to be able to learn in conventional instructional settings with conventional approaches and timetables; they may need more student-centred instructional approaches, which in turn require more training for teachers. In the absence of a powerful authority to ensure compliance, the participation of affected populations/beneficiaries in the design and/or provision of management structures is likely to be an important factor in the success or failure of implementation.

Civil conflict is particularly likely to disrupt education in a heavily centralized system, as conflict-affected areas are likely to be cut off from central management and support. Resumption of normal management operations is likely to be complicated by any civil conflict. In such a context, even decisions of a technical nature are easily politicized, for social consensus has broken down.

Civil conflict is also likely to divert resources and political attention away from education toward resolution of the conflict. On the other hand, the near universal importance attached to education means that reconstruction of education can serve as a means for parties in conflict to work together. Natural disasters are likely to disrupt the normal governance structure in the areas affected. Resumption of normal management is not ordinarily as complicated as in civil conflicts, and is likely to be a more straightforward matter of simply rebuilding.

In the heat of an acute emergency, temporary, ad hoc, localized management by the best available agencies may be the best that can be done. In displacement situations, educational activities are likely to begin less formally, with recreational/psychosocial and simple educational activities. With greater stability, more structured educational activities are possible. Families want the interrupted school year completed as soon as possible.

Temporary management structures may become semi-permanent in protracted emergencies. Longer-range issues such as funding and sustainability, legitimacy, quality, capacity, institutionalization, relevance and credentials, as well as provision of higher levels of education then come to the fore.

The ongoing nature of chronic emergencies requires that interim structures be established to resume as near to normal educational conditions as possible, under conditions understood to be temporary. Interim arrangements (both at national as well as local levels) should be planned on the basis of later integration into larger or permanent education authority structures.

Re-integration of returnees into a structure adversely affected by conflict or disaster is difficult and additional resources may be needed, including the support of civil society and external agencies.

In reconstituting educational structures, there will be a tendency to rebuild previous structures rather than to refashion structures according to current or future needs. Yet, in many places, normal management structures are not sufficiently effective, efficient, transparent or equitable. In fact, inequity in educational provision, as well as aspects of education content, may have contributed to conflict (Smith and Vaux, 2002; Bush and Saltarelli, 2000). An emergency may therefore provide an opportunity to restructure education in a way that better meets system goals (Pigozzi, 1999).

Traditionally, planning begins at the national or system level where system goals are defined. It then moves progressively lower in the hierarchy to local levels, where the steps necessary for the local unit to contribute to system goals are specified. In pedagogical terms, a strong argument can be made for reversing that order. In such a view, the effectiveness of the structure of an educational system would be evaluated by the extent to which it supports classroom instruction. From this perspective, structures that do not foster effective classroom instruction should be eliminated or reorganized.

The starting point for design of education system structures is thus the classroom, followed by structures that provide direct support of the classroom through the traditional hierarchy. Such an approach may be particularly effective in planning educational responses in emergency contexts, where national or systemic structures may be inoperable, or unable to reach learners and teachers most directly affected by emergency.

Educational planners may find it useful to begin the work of structuring an education ministry after a conflict with a 'functional analysis' of the system, also known as a 'management audit'. IIEP has published an excellent manual to help with that process (Sack and Saïdi, 1997).

Decentralization. This is often suggested as a strategy for restructuring, but this strategy is more usefully understood when considered in terms of desirable criteria. When considering decentralization, it is useful to determine which functions should be located where in the system for maximum benefit, in terms of effectiveness, efficiency, responsiveness, transparency and empowerment, for example. In principle, a function should be located at the level that has the information and capacity needed to carry out the function and is closest to the principal activity of the sector (i.e. classroom instruction).

STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM: DEFINITIONS

'Decentralization', 'community support of schools', and 'local control' are all names given to the transfer of the authority (and responsibility) for the financing or governance of schools to a sub-national agency. Such transfer can take the form of: (a) deconcentration; (b) delegation; (c) devolution; and (d) privatization. The degree of decentralization or a nation's place on the continuum from extreme centralization to extreme localization (privatization) is indicated by which authority has been transferred, to whom, and to whom the decision-makers are responsible.

'Deconcentration' is the transfer of authority to lower levels of governance within the central government, for example, regional ministry of education offices. This model gives specific duties and responsibilities to its authorities at decentralized levels, all the while maintaining its overall authority at a centralized level.

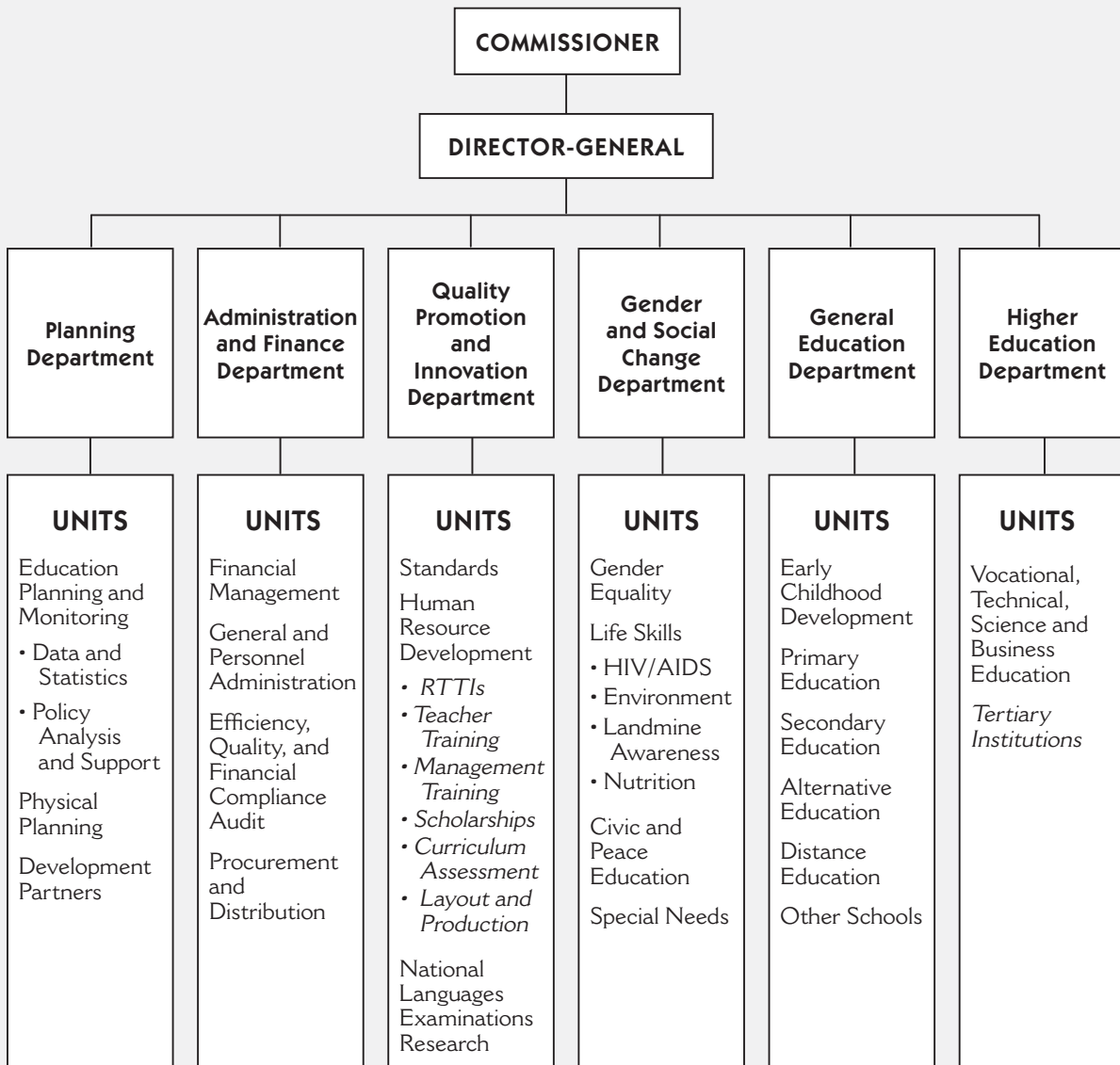
'Devolution' is the transfer of authority to a sub-national unit of government. Local levels of government have significant decision-making autonomy based on policies established at a central level.

Sources: Kemmerer (1994); Sullivan-Owomoyela (2004: 5).

The emerging education system in southern Sudan illustrates some of these principles:

SOUTHERN SUDAN SECRETARIAT OF EDUCATION ORGANIZATION CHART

Please note: *Italicized text denotes the proposed placement for a unit or office*





SOUTHERN SUDAN: SECRETARIAT OF EDUCATION STRUCTURE, STRENGTHS AND INNOVATIONS

The Secretariat of Education (SoE) organigram suggests a strong guiding central structure that supports autonomy at the regional, county, and payam levels to: (1) set the education agenda and define plans and programme, (2) administer and manage human resources and (3) plan financial expenditures in the near future. By organizing the central levels in this manner, the SoE is able to use its central level structure to foster autonomy of education programming at the most important level – the community.

In southern Sudan, the ‘STAR Education and Economic Rehabilitation Program’ focuses on assisting populations to transfer from ‘relief to development’ programming that targets capacity building of local authorities (county development committees) and civil society. The focus of the programme is to strengthen decentralized local authorities to have the capacity to undertake school rehabilitation, promote increased community involvement, and enhance gender equality (e.g., recruiting of female teachers) in the education system. Concretely, the Secretariat of Education creates guidance and approval for school selection and develops the policy framework. It is then the responsibility of school management committees to help construct schools, mobilize resources and make financial and administrative decisions for the school.

The proposed SoE structure in Sudan follows a systemic model that contains both deconcentrated and devolved elements to ensure the utmost flexibility in responding to society’s needs at the most important level – the community. The proposed model also allows for increased systemic devolution over time as systems capacity and infrastructure are gradually put in place.

Sources: Sullivan-Owomoyela (2003: 5); Sullivan-Owomoyela (2004: 4–5).

Rehabilitation and reconstruction of the education system in an emergency-affected area is a major undertaking. The World Bank (2005: 42–45) puts forth the following measures to be considered when reconstructing an educational system.

- Early policy and system reform preparation. This may include technical work on Education Management Information Systems (EMIS), a review and diagnosis of current educational legislation and regulations, or the analysis of resources.
- Role of political leadership. Leaders should provide clearly defined objectives for education, encourage educational actors to work towards them, and thus push the reform forward.
- Consolidation of authority. This may include rationalizing and modernizing ministries of education as well as implementing capacity-building programmes for central and district education offices. In this way, as decentralization progresses officials will have the capacities needed to assume their new responsibilities.
- Societal consensus building. This may involve national consultations or campaigns.
- Balanced approach to reform. “System reform requires a careful balance of building on the foundations of the previous system without reproducing the highly centralized control and inefficiencies typical of the past” (World Bank, 2005: 44).
- Strengthening schools and community linkages. Particularly important when the authority of the government is being consolidated, this may include programmes promoting community involvement, or the use of local level incentives.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies **Structure of the education system**

1. **Assess the impact of the emergency on educational management in crisis-affected areas.**
2. **Based on the assessment, make any needed modifications to existing management structures or establish new ones.**
3. **Establish and clarify relationships with external bodies or agencies.**
4. **Manage and monitor effective reintegration of returnees.**
5. **Develop a structure to support the education system in the post-emergency situation.**

Guidance notes

1. Assess the impact of the emergency on educational management in crisis-affected areas

- Identify and assess existing management structures and education providers.
 - At the macro level of the educational system, what management structures are in place?
 - What intermediate management structures are functioning at regional, district and sub-district levels?
 - What local management structures are being used? Are community education committees (CECs) operating? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5*, ‘Community participation’.)
 - What other agencies or bodies, if any, are involved in providing and managing education (understood broadly to include a range of formal and non-formal activities) in the areas affected by the emergency?
- Assess how well the system is functioning in terms of the core functions of an education support structure.
 - Curriculum – overall coordination and quality, provision of textbooks, teachers’ guides, other instructional aids, etc. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.1*, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’.)
 - Personnel – hiring, deployment of teachers, pre-service and in-service training, instruction support (as opposed to traditional inspection), on-time provision of salaries, reasonable terms of service, local administrators, etc. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1*, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers’, and *Chapter 3.4*, ‘Teacher training: teaching and learning methods’.)
 - Finance – sufficiency, equity, transparency and accountability,

- sustainability. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.8, ‘Budget and financial management’.)
- Oversight in terms of system goals – quality, equity, sustainability, relevance, learning and other outcomes, other values.
 - Access – ensuring access to all at basic levels; ensuring fair access at higher levels; equity, especially in terms of gender and among disadvantaged groups. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 2.1, ‘Rural populations’, Chapter 2.2, ‘Gender’, and Chapter 2.11, ‘Post-primary education’.)
 - Monitoring, evaluation and utilization of such information to improve the education system – at student, school, office, and system levels. (See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’.)
 - Analyse management structures and functions, in terms of effectiveness.
 - Consider developing a matrix of levels of the system and other actors in education along one axis, with effectiveness questions (by education management function), across the other. In this way, the management of the system can be visualized. (See the sample management matrix in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for an example.)
 - What problems does the analysis of management structures compared to effectiveness reveal?
 - What functions or levels/agencies need strengthening?
 - What functions need coordination?
 - Whose roles and responsibilities are unclear?
 - Are there any areas of duplication and overlap?
 - What gaps exist?
 - Are existing structures able to respond quickly and flexibly to the needs of an emergency, or is there a need to create an additional emergency response structure?
 - How vulnerable are different functions to further disruption, e.g. renewed fighting?

2. Based on the assessment, make any needed modifications to existing management structures, or establish new ones.

- Consider management structures that will best respond to immediate needs as well as build capacity for the future.
 - What functional-structural areas need revision?
 - What are the priorities among these areas?
 - Which problems, if any, are best addressed by creation of new or revision of existing management structures? Such structures would vary, depending on the needs of the system and the levels involved, but might include CECs at local levels, oversight offices at district levels, coordinating bodies at national levels, donor liaison officers within central educational authorities, etc.
 - What resources are required and available to create/revise management structures?
 - How, in the process of restructuring, can participation of beneficiaries and the broader civil society be encouraged in decision-making and provision of educational services?
 - How can fair representation of marginalized and traditionally under-represented groups be ensured?
 - What opportunities does restructuring provide to improve the functioning of the system? Is this, for example, an opportunity to improve accountability or gender parity, for example?
 - What steps can be taken to minimize disruption to the education system in case of future emergency or to prepare for possible crises?
 - Will the envisioned structure be able to respond to emergency needs, or will a more responsive and flexible unit/capacity need to be created?
- Ensure responsiveness to emergency needs.

- How can the system, particularly at macro levels, be as flexible as possible to meet new needs without compromising accountability? For example, how can a system deploy funds rapidly to areas affected by emergency, and ensure that such funds are used for the intended purpose, without the standard cumbersome system of oversight?
- At the micro level, have changes in teaching methods or the content of materials been made to prepare students and their families and communities for actual conditions they are likely to face, or likely future emergency conditions? For example, has the system introduced, where appropriate, a mine awareness programme? Is the system prepared to introduce such programmes rapidly in response to emergency needs?
- Are backup copies of important documents (records, teaching materials and aids) kept in a secure location in case of damage to the education ministry or (in the case of administrative records) regional offices?
- Establish new/interim/local management structures. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'* for a discussion of the role of CECs.)
 - What roles should CECs play, consultative or decision-making as well? At what level(s) of the system?
 - Who should serve on the CECs (e.g. parents, teachers, ministry officials, leaders of important social groups, students, NGO leaders, etc.) in order to adequately represent all important actors and stakeholders, yet yield a manageable group?
 - How can members be chosen in a legitimate way that ensures adequate representation on the part of all?
 - Have roles and responsibilities of different groups been clearly specified? Do all important actors understand their roles and responsibilities?

- What training and technical assistance is needed for all key actors to be able to carry out their functions?
- What resources are needed for the different groups to do their work?

3. Establish and clarify relationships with external bodies or agencies.

- How do the management structures established in the acute phase – such as management structures of schools run by NGOs or separate government structures set up to respond to the emergency – interact with other, more permanent or pre-existing organizational and sectoral entities? Are there any particular problems or constraints? How can these best be addressed?
- Does the way donors structure their systems affect education management structures? Has this affected the efficiency of the management process? For example, do donor reporting requirements oblige educational authorities to spend substantially more resources gathering and processing data for the donor than needed to manage their own system?

4. Manage and monitor effective reintegration of returnees.

- Do any additional structures need to be established to support returnees in their reintegration?
- Do existing structures need additional capacity or resources?
- Which agencies or bodies are best placed to assist most effectively? Where do these agencies/bodies fit within the existing structure?
- What mechanisms exist (or must be created) to ensure that reintegration takes place as planned?

5. Develop a structure to support the education system in the post-emergency situation.

- (De)centralize system structures appropriately.
 - What decentralization has taken place during the emergency? In what ways has the original structure changed to accommodate the decentralization process?
 - What is the overall plan for decentralization?
 - What is the intended location of the different functions of the education system?
 - What functions need to be decentralized for the system to work better, for example, provision or distribution of textbooks, teacher posting, school construction and maintenance, financial accounting, supervision, etc.?
 - Which functions need to be centralized?
 - How will transfer of responsibility take place?
 - Will those responsible for new functions be given the authority, responsibility, resources, and training necessary to carry out their new duties?
 - Is the decentralization plan realistic?
 - Has the plan been communicated clearly to all concerned: civil servants, teachers, communities, donors, NGOs?
 - How effective has the decentralization been in terms of delivery to the beneficiaries – that is the learners? For example, has a financial decentralization process aimed at ensuring that teachers' salaries are paid on time been effective?
 - What mechanisms are in place to monitor the efficacy of the decentralization process, and to make corrections if necessary?
- Develop a structure to support the education system over the longer term.
 - Are the functions now in place effectively located *vis-à-vis* centralization or decentralization?

- How is the effectiveness of management structure monitored?
- Have gender equity and fair representation of minority groups been achieved within management structures? If not, how might this be addressed most effectively?
- Are periodic reviews of the system structure and its efficacy part of the ongoing strategic planning process?
- Ensure accountability.
 - Does the structure of the system ensure accountability, but remain responsive to the needs of the beneficiaries?
 - What systems are in place to monitor accountability of the various functionaries at each level?
 - What follow-up measures are needed to ensure accountability?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Sample management matrix

Planners may find it useful to develop a matrix, perhaps adapting the following example, as a basis for understanding the effectiveness of the different functions of educational management. The example considers levels of the system and other groups involved in education along the vertical axis, and a series of questions as to responsibility and effectiveness across the top. Similar matrices might be developed for other functions of educational management, such as personnel; teacher supervision and instructional support; finance; oversight of system goals; access; monitoring and evaluation.

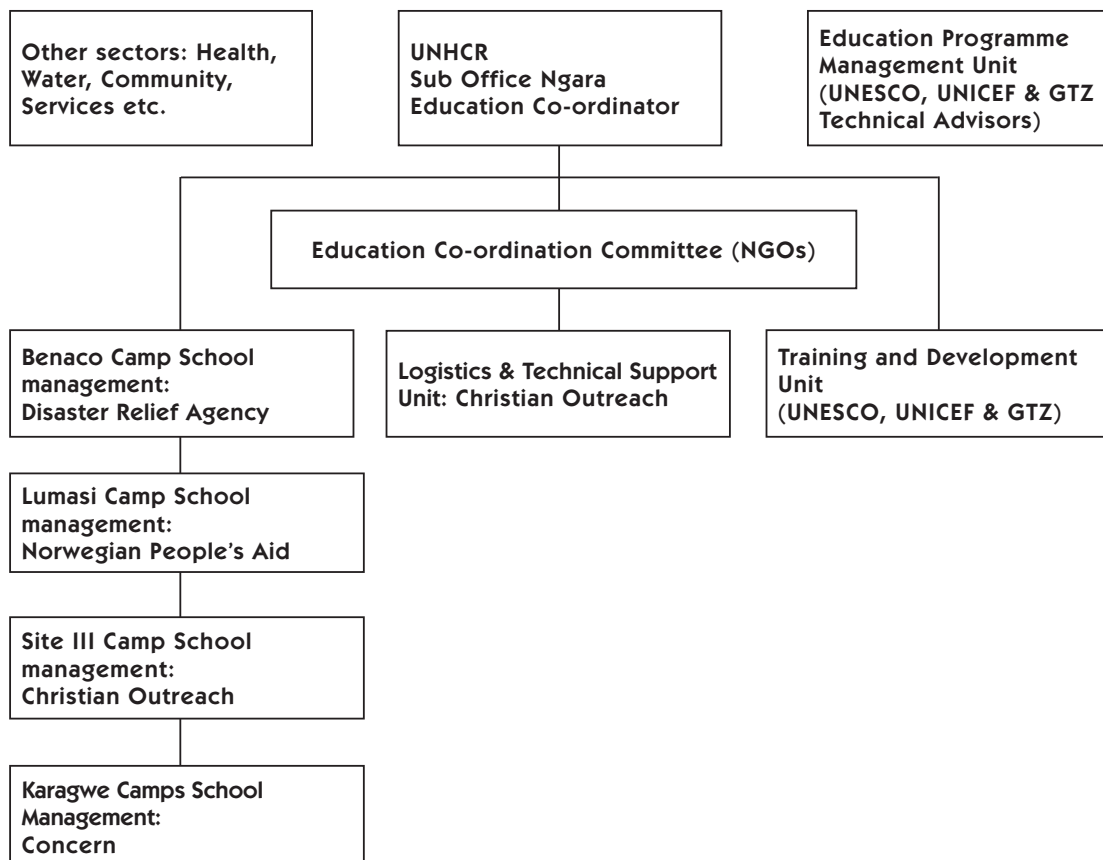
FUNCTION: CURRICULUM					
RESPONSIBILITY AND EFFECTIVENESS	Who is responsible? For what?	Who else is involved? How?	How effectively is it functioning?	What is the problem? Lack of clarity of task and role? Gaps? Duplication? Lack of coordination? Lack of know-how? Lack of resources? Insufficient accountability?	Comment
LEVEL OF SYSTEM					
Central educational authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall coordination and quality • Provision of textbooks, teachers guides, other instructional aids 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High quality • Uneven coverage of schools (some schools have too many textbooks, others too few) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of timely accurate data on numbers of children, numbers of textbooks needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data collection system needs work
Regional educational authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution in appropriate numbers to districts 				
District educational authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution in appropriate numbers to schools 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Districts rely on schools for data • No capacity to check 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will need to train school staff
School educational authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution to students 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Schools lack guidelines on data collection <i>vis-à-vis</i> textbooks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need training
Community					
International funding agencies		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • World Bank loan supports curriculum revision 			
NGOs		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advocacy for special curricula – life skills, peace ed, HIV and AIDS 			
Others					

2. Sample organization charts of education systems

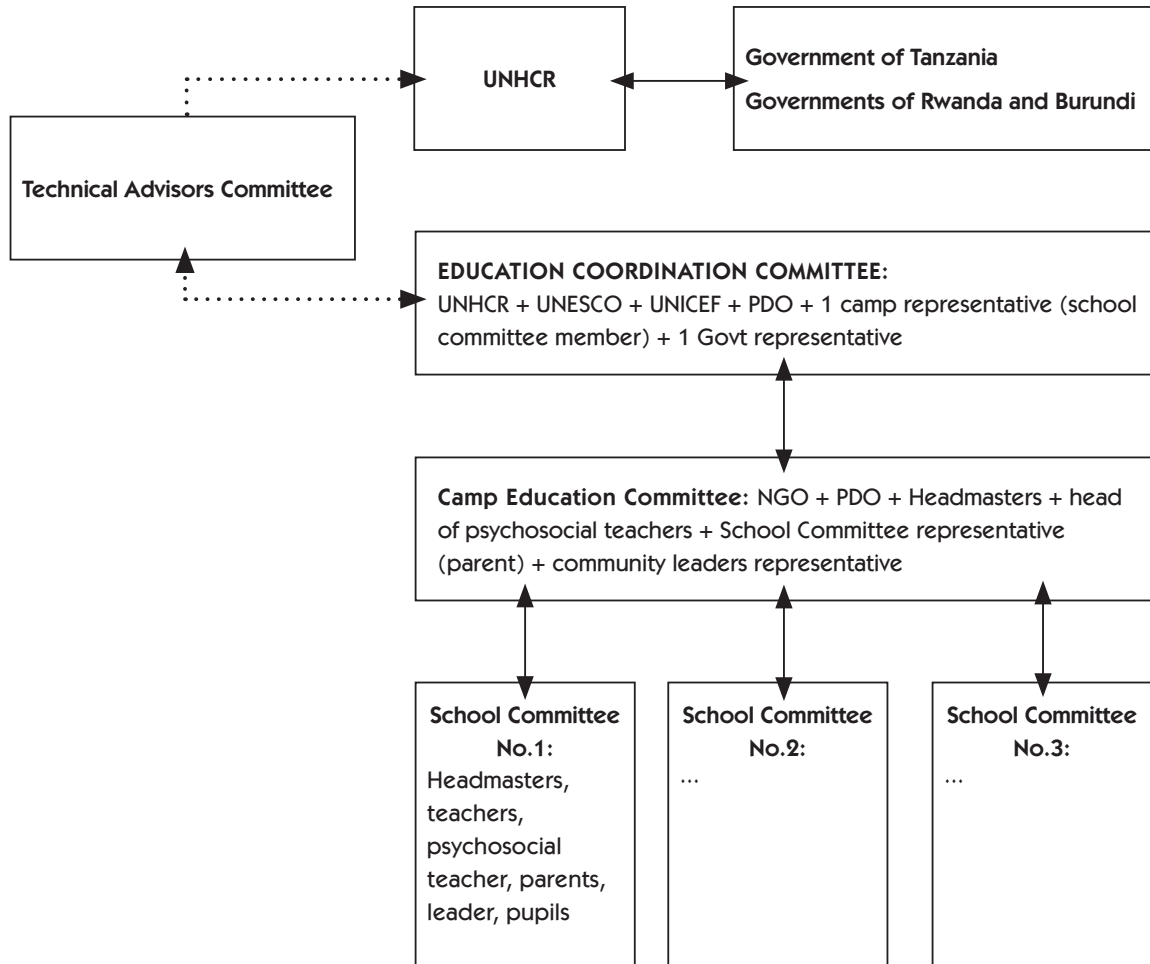
Organization chart for Kagera region: Education in Emergencies Programme for Rwandan Refugee Children

This is the first organization chart of the educational structure used in the Rwandan refugee camps in the Kagera region of Tanzania in 1994. It was a very top-down structure that gave little chance for refugee participation or decision-making (note that they are not even represented in the diagram). The second organization chart below indicates the change in thinking towards a more participatory approach where decision-making has been decentralized, giving much more authority to the refugees.

Source: Bird (2003: 66).



Organization chart of revised education management structure, Ngara



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Chapter **5.7**

DATA COLLECTION AND EDUCATION MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS (EMIS)

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To provide a timely and informed basis for planning and management of education services.**
- **To establish a set of relevant indicators for data collection and utilization.**
- **To establish or contribute to a national system for collection, processing and utilization of education data.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Data collection

Educational authorities routinely collect information on schools as part of their regular operations. Such data include location of schools, condition of school facilities, number of grades offered, numbers of students by sex and age, numbers of repeaters, number of teachers by sex and qualification. More sophisticated systems collect data on retention and completion rates, measures of achievement, and the number of children out of school; and examine statistics in terms of gender, ethnicity and income. Educational management information systems (EMIS) are designed to collect and analyse data on

the educational system to improve planning, resource allocation, monitoring, policy formation and decision-making.

Emergency situations call for special and timely information on:

- The number and location of displaced or otherwise emergency-affected school-aged children and whether they are with their families or have become separated.
- The availability and conditions of school facilities.
- The availability of teachers.
- The availability of learning materials.
- Security.

Initially, anecdotal information may be all that is available. More systematic methods of data collection should be initiated as soon as possible, using available personnel and simple forms designed to collect information on the five dimensions noted above. (See the sample assessment form found in the ‘Tools and resources’ section of the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources.’)

In civil conflicts, access to populations and data may be difficult, due to insecurity. Trust is difficult to establish with parties in conflict. Information can be misused in the wrong hands. Nevertheless, longer-term information needs must be addressed, despite the continuation of emergency conditions. In addition, information is needed for immediate response, even if technical issues are likely to be paramount. Reliable information may be difficult to obtain, particularly if the population is threatened by civil strife.

For refugee populations, UNHCR and other organizations working with refugees are likely to have data or the means of collecting data. Although it is frequently omitted, data that is available on refugees should be included in the education

statistics of the country of asylum. If practicable, the sharing of educational data between countries of origin and asylum can be useful. Likewise, data on IDPs should be included in national statistics (but rarely is). Efforts need to be made to track IDPs.

Regularly updated data on returnee arrivals are needed for reintegration planning (numbers of students, teachers, their respective levels of education and qualifications, and so forth). Educational authorities should seek, obtain and share data concerning their nationals who are refugees in another country.

Where there has been widespread disruption of education systems, it will be necessary to start with collection and analysis of basic statistics, and to elaborate a more sophisticated EMIS when resources (computers, software, skilled personnel) are in place, and field staff have been trained in data collection.

Although data and statistics are notoriously difficult to collect and use in emergencies, the effort must be made to underpin sound planning and management (Bethke and Braunschweig, 2004: 3–5). See the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.8, 'Technology'*, for innovative ways in which technology can be used to collect and monitor data.

Education management information systems (EMIS)

Where possible, emergency data and an existing EMIS should be coordinated, so that the Ministry of Education's regular EMIS is informed by data on those affected by conflict, and so that emergency data needs are systematized. When new data collection systems are developed, they should be structured to meet both immediate needs and the long-term reconstruction and development of the education system.


The development of an effective EMIS is a complex and expensive undertaking under the best of circumstances. During emergencies, it is even more challenging because multiple organizations are generally involved in the provision of education, making it difficult to establish common data requirements and to coordinate data collection from the various organizations. In designing EMIS, therefore, it is important to consider the needs of all the groups that will rely on the information, including central ministry planners, officials of other national ministries (for example, finance), regional and district education officials, donors, and NGOs. Ultimately, for EMIS to be effective as a planning and management tool, national needs, not donor requirements, must be the primary force behind the development of the system. Despite the difficulties associated with the development of an EMIS, emergencies may provide an opportunity for establishing a better functioning EMIS than was in place before the crisis.

This example demonstrates how educational authorities in Kosovo sought to follow the different stages required when creating an education information management system. These stages are further described below.



EDUCATION INFORMATION MANAGEMENT IN POST-CONFLICT KOSOVO


UNMIK (United Nations Interim Administration in Kosovo) started from a position of almost complete powerlessness in education because it lacked even basic data on how many schools, teachers, students, etc., there were. In 1999, the officials in the former parallel system had a considerable body of information on that system as it was in 1998, but its data did not cover developments since the conflict.




Similarly, the Serb-controlled provincial administration had detailed information on schools, teachers, facilities, etc., in the official system in 1989, but the massive exodus and population displacement made these data of questionable value. National and international NGOs and organizations that had been active in Kosovo during the previous decade also had their own sets of statistics, and UNICEF with its mandate to lead the back-to-school campaign quickly set about managing a huge assessment exercise involving site visits to every school, and assessment of their condition and capacity. A key source of statistical information for the parallel system was the company that had managed acquisition, printing and distribution of textbooks, although, again, its data were out of date, and did not reflect the population displacement and movement during and following the conflict.

UNMIK recognized during the back-to-school period that the establishment of a reliable and accurate education management information system would be a key to establishing coherent management required by a modern, decentralized education system. The project was designed with the assistance of an international consultant and, as of the time of writing, had just begun to provide data tables, but not in a form that could be widely distributed through the system for management purposes. A frustrated MEST (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology) official complained that getting data from the EMIS group was like “getting blood out of a stone” but the EMIS team responded that the database was only preliminary and that data had not been checked for final release.

On the basis of the framework drafted by the consultant, the first version of the system was developed in the World Bank supported Project Co-ordination Office within the DES/DEST/MEST [Department of Education and Science, Department and Ministry of Education, Science and Technology]. In this early





phase the greatest contact that education officials had with the EMIS was the requirement to provide data to be input to the system. It is thus some time before the system is able to produce output data that is seen by the same officials (if they are the same officials) as useful for planning and administration.

A second problem was that the technical demands of getting a computerized system to operate reliably, and in a way that is simple and friendly enough for managers to be able to employ, require sustained employment of local computer programming specialists. Such people usually have limited experience with education management data and are very hard to retain in employment on local salaries. While these technical and administrative problems are being ironed out, it is not uncommon for the EMIS system, around which there is often considerable publicity and high expectations, to be perceived as a 'black hole' into which huge amounts of data are 'poured in' but little is seen to come out.

The next challenge is to compile the database into a format that is useful for managers and cannot be corrupted, and to incorporate the usage of the EMIS system into the management training and development programme to be run by the MEST. At the time of publication, The World Bank had plans to support the finalization and implementation of this initiative as part of its second education project, currently under discussion. A full assessment of this initiative can only be made when it has reached the stage where reliable and useful data are regularly made available to planners, managers and the wider public.

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 103–105).

STAGES INVOLVED IN INFORMATION PROCESSING:

1. Identification of information needs

- How can the system's educational objectives be met and what is the current situation in relation to these goals?
- Establish indicators to measure progress made towards educational objectives. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for a list of 'Education for All' (EFA) indicators.)
- What are the current difficulties within the education system?

2. Inventory of available sources and data

- Which department or institution maintains current data?
- How is this data presented?

3. Data collection

What technique will be used to collect necessary information?

- **School censuses:** Often consist of questionnaires answered by principals to collect information annually on schools, students, and teachers.
- **Statistical surveys:** These aim to obtain more in-depth knowledge of a particular aspect of the system.
- **Sampling surveys:** Particularly useful for assessing knowledge acquired by pupils, or for learning about the expectations of parents or teachers.
- **Administrative and managerial documents:** May contain budget information, minutes from ministerial meetings.
- **Management databases:** Contain information on staff hiring and payment.
- **External information:** Includes information about the population and the job market, information coming from sources other than the Ministry of Education.





4. Database construction

- What structure will the database have? Depending on the complexity of the question, the database may be either a simple file or a relational database.
- Which classification scheme will be used? Do classification schemes of educational levels and teachers' status reflect the current system?
- How will administrative units be identified? It is important that the codes used to identify educational institutions be the same for all databases.
- Who will enter the data?

5. Data processing

How will the data be presented?

- Statistical tables?
- Figures?
- Maps?
- Analytical texts?

6. Publication and dissemination

How will processed data be distributed?

- Written publications.
- Written memoranda.
- Web site.
- CD-rom.

Source: Adapted from da Graça *et al.* (2005: 15–24).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)

- 1. Ensure the collection and analysis of emergency educational data, as possible.**
- 2. If not in place, establish a data collection unit for the emergency within the education authority to coordinate data collection at all levels.**
- 3. Assess the status of EMIS nationally and for the emergency-affected areas. Consider any needed improvements and seek assistance as appropriate to strengthen national capacity in this area.**
- 4. Conduct data analysis to produce indicators to guide policy makers and provide recommendations for practitioners to improve the quality of educational provision.**
- 5. Educational authorities should seek, obtain and share statistical data concerning nationals who are refugees in another country.**

Guidance notes

1. Ensure the collection and analysis of emergency data, as possible.

- Review the plans for and implementation of ongoing data collection.
 - What relevant indicators for rapid data collection have been agreed upon with refugees, IDPs and non-migrant populations affected by the emergency?
 - What demographic and education data can be collected from the affected populations?
 - What data can be collected from functioning education programmes?
 - Are the indicators disaggregated by age, gender, disability, educational level and grade, location, language, medium of instruction, etc.? (Collection of data on students by age may be impracticable due to lack of birth certificates, etc., as well as the constraints imposed by emergency conditions. Sample or anecdotal data can indicate the proportion of over-age students in need of, or participating in, schooling due to earlier disruptions of the education system.)
 - How will the data be collected or estimated?
 - Have existing forms been adapted? (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section in the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’* for an example of an emergency assessment form.)
 - Have local education personnel been trained to collect data using relatively simple forms? Is a system in place to collect such data?
 - Have other personnel travelling to affected areas (for example, other relief personnel, security forces, etc.) been asked and enabled to collect emergency data?



THE IMPORTANCE OF PROTECTING INSTITUTIONAL DATA IN AN EMERGENCY

“In October 1998, Hurricane Mitch left hundreds of thousands of people in Honduras without homes, and destroyed schools, day care centres and entire villages. Approximately 25 per cent of schools were destroyed. Over 250,000 children at primary level and 30,000 at secondary level had their studies drastically interrupted until March 1999 ... In addition, the central offices of the Ministry of Education, located in Comayagua, were severely damaged. More importantly, the bulk of the education archives were lost and with it the institutional memory of the Ministry. It will take several decades to reconstruct the educational sector in Honduras.”

Source: UNICEF (1999) cited in Sinclair (2002: 85–86).

- Are the data that are collected on refugees and IDPs included in national reporting formats and EFA monitoring statistics? If they are not currently incorporated, is there a plan to incorporate them? (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a list of EFA indicators.)
 - Data collection and analysis on IDPs and refugees is essential if authorities are to maintain control of the process and be part of the management of emergency assistance.
 - Information regarding people who have been or may be affected by emergencies should be collected on a regular basis.
- At least on an interim basis, until a thorough review can be conducted, use any existing EMIS and link data collection and analysis activities to those being conducted in other sectors, particularly health and social services/affairs.

2. If not in place, establish a data collection unit for the emergency within the education authority to coordinate data collection at all levels.

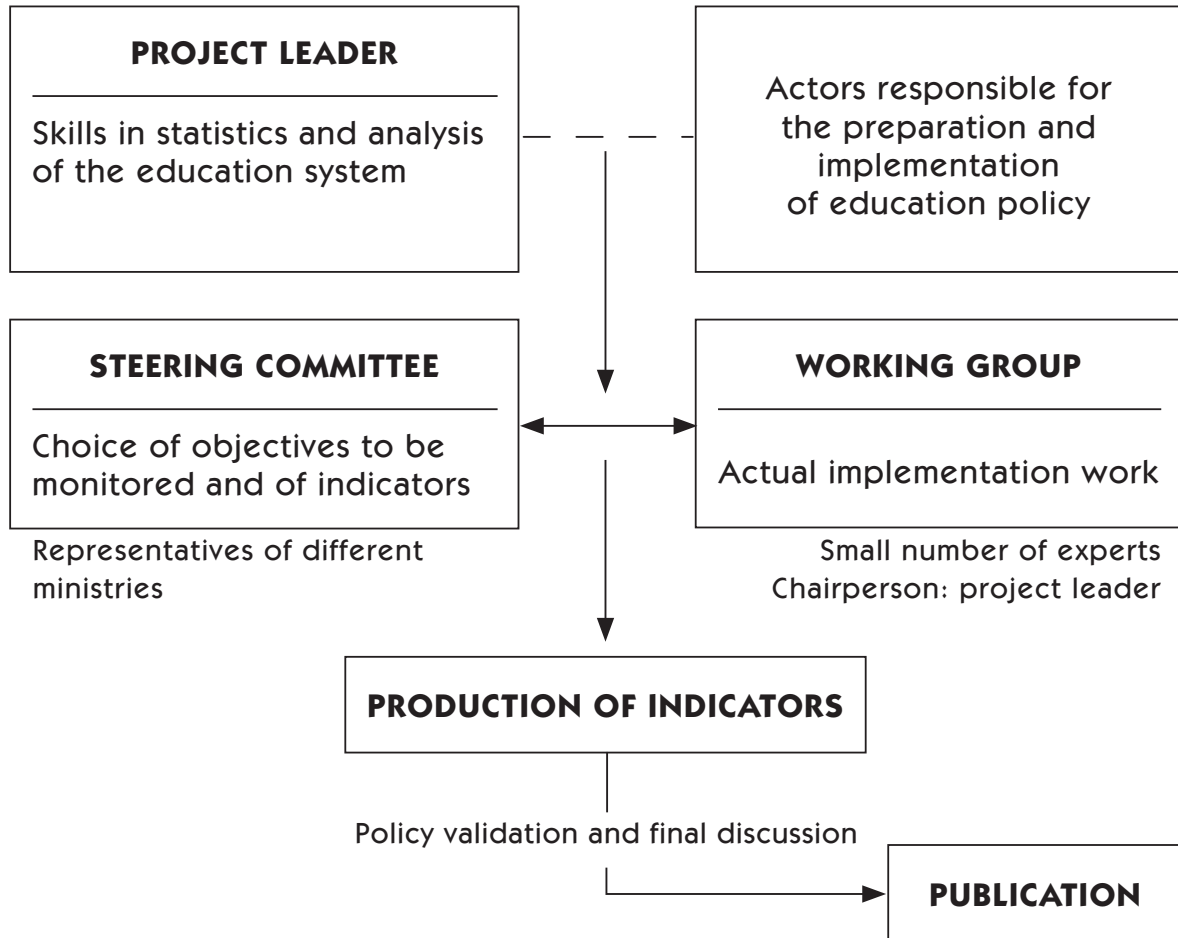
(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.1, ‘Assessment of needs and resources’.)

- Have competent personnel been identified to staff the unit?
- Have sustainable, cost-effective mechanisms been developed to collect data at central, regional and local levels?
- Have sufficient resources been provided to fund data collection, storage, analysis and reporting? Do levels of funding and infrastructure permit computerization and/or Internet access?
- If a Data Collection Unit already exists, have gaps and needs resulting from the emergency been identified, particularly in terms of personnel and resources?

3. Assess the status of EMIS nationally and for the emergency-affected areas. Consider any needed improvements and seek assistance as appropriate to strengthen national capacity in this area.

- Assess the state of existing EMIS.
 - What Education Management Information Systems, however informal, currently exist?
 - How functional were the EMIS before the emergency?
 - How functional are they now?
 - To what extent are they:
 - . Computerized?
 - . On paper?
 - . Informal?

- Have existing EMIS practices – such as data collection mechanisms, forms, procedures, indicators and statistics as well as utilization processes – been reviewed?
 - Has a team or structure been established to review data collection instruments?



Source: Sauvageot (1997: 29–30).

- Have data collection forms used in the acute phase been updated for use in later phases?
- What were the problems with earlier instruments?
- How can these be addressed effectively?

- Do educational authorities or other agencies collect educational data for refugee and IDP children and adolescents?
- Are these data included in national statistics?
- If not, is it possible to obtain the necessary data to include in the national statistical record?
- Is EMIS linked with data from other sectors, such as health, social affairs, labour, planning, and finance?
- What indicators are used at the national, regional, district and local school levels?
- What gaps are there in the current EMIS? For example,
 - Are reports and data analysis prepared on a timely basis?
 - Are the data relevant? That is, do they provide the necessary information to assist with educational planning and management priorities?
 - Are additional types of information necessary?
 - Are data or processes duplicated at different levels of the system?
 - Are data collection and analysis processes efficient?
 - Who analyses the data?
- What are the donors' data requirements?
 - Can the existing systems handle those requirements?
 - What additional data must be collected to satisfy the donors?
 - Can ministry officials negotiate with donors on equal terms?
- How are existing data utilized by the system?
 - Who has used the data?
 - Do data only flow from the local level up to the central level, or are data fed back to the service providers at the local level?
 - How can the data that are collected be used to help educational authorities improve educational services?

- How well coordinated are the various data collection and utilization efforts within the system?
- When was the EMIS last reviewed?
- Assess EMIS need.
 - What new data needs have emerged as a result of the emergency?
 - If a new EMIS is being considered, have EMIS in other countries in similar circumstances been reviewed to compare relevance and applicability to the current situation?
 - Can an existing system from another country be adapted according to the needs of this emergency?
 - What data are needed, by whom, and when? For what purposes will the data be utilized (e.g. budgeting, analysing trends in repetition or survival rates, etc.)? In planning EMIS, it is important to consider how the system will be utilized, and the demand for as well as supply of data. Often, EMIS data are extremely under-utilized, particularly in the early years after a new, reformed system has been introduced.
 - What practices are possible in the emergency context?
 - What procedures would lay the groundwork for a more permanent system?
- Have the various stakeholders been asked about their data needs?
 - Based on the identified needs, are there gaps in the data currently being collected?
 - What are the similarities in their needs? How can data be collected efficiently in order to respond to the needs of the various stakeholders without duplicating data collection efforts?

- (De)centralize data collection and EMIS appropriately.
 - How are the regional and district/local authorities involved in data collection, processing and analysis?
 - How can they be involved more substantively?
 - Do regional and district authorities share data and findings on a regular basis?
 - What monitoring mechanisms are in place to ensure that agents responsible for data collection, processing and analysis use the same methodologies at all levels?
 - EMIS must include ways to validate and check data and must anticipate negative unintended consequences such as the temptation to inflate enrolment figures when funds are allocated according to enrolment statistics.
 - Have plans been implemented for locating different aspects of data collection at appropriate levels of the system?
 - Has training for data collection at the different levels been conducted? If not, will training be provided? Who will conduct it, and who will be the principal beneficiaries?
 - What resources are available and necessary to ensure effective restructuring of data collection and EMIS, for example, computer and other information technology facilities, personnel and storage facilities?
- Seek funding for computer hardware and software to secure the most effective EMIS system.
- What software and hardware – computers, EMIS software programmes, typewriters, hand-held radios, telephone communications, transport for data collection etc. – do provincial authorities currently have?
- What software and hardware do they need in order to meet the needs for data collection and analysis?
- Have budgets been prepared that reflect the need for software and hardware, including training on how to implement a new/ revised EMIS.

- Have possible funding sources been approached?
- Is it desirable and feasible to provide computer services to all groups involved in educational data management as part of the development of EMIS (refugees, returnees, national populations)? If not, where does priority lie for provision of computer and internet services for data collection – with which groups, and at which level?
 - Are there any existing internet linkages that can be capitalized upon?
 - Is there a telephone network that could be used to establish an email connection?
 - What innovative strategies might be used to establish an internet or email network that is cost effective and sustainable?

4. Conduct data analysis to produce indicators to guide policy makers and provide recommendations for practitioners to improve the quality of educational provision.

- Are summary reports (including summaries of analyses and recommendations) clear, practical, and – from the perspective of practitioners – user friendly?
- Have summary reports been translated into languages that are appropriate for practitioners?
- Have summary reports been made widely available to stakeholders, in print form, and on the internet when possible?
- Have summary reports been provided and cross-referenced to relevant groups, including other sectors, such as health and social services/affairs, security, water/sanitation, etc.?

5. Educational authorities should seek, obtain, and share statistical data concerning nationals who are refugees in another country.

- Have cross-border negotiations/tripartite agreements on education been established between the United Nations and national authorities?
 - What issues have been addressed as a result of these negotiations?
 - Criteria for certification and recognition of educational achievements?
 - Criteria for recognition of teacher training and teacher qualifications?
 - Criteria for taking and passing national examinations?
 - Criteria for the printing and supply of sufficient textbooks from the country of origin, or permission for United Nations agencies or the country of asylum to print textbooks, etc.?
 - What steps have been taken to facilitate information sharing regarding the educational status of and systems for displaced populations?
 - In the case of prospective returnees, for example, have educational authorities requested education data (such as the number of learners/teachers, their area of origin, age, gender and grade/level, etc.) from the host countries/areas?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. EFA indicators

CATEGORY	INDICATORS
ADULT LITERACY	Adult literacy rates (total, male, female) Number of illiterates, 15+ (total, male, female) Adult literacy rate (total, male, female)
YOUTH LITERACY	Youth literacy rate (total, male, female) Youth literacy numbers (total, male, female)
EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION (ECCE)	Gross enrolment ratio in early childhood care and education (total, male, female, female/male) Percentage of new entrants to primary education with ECCE experience (total, male, female)
PRIMARY EDUCATION	Gross intake rate in primary education (total, male, female, female/male) Net intake rate in primary education (total, male, female, female/male) School life expectancy (total, male, female, female/male) Primary age group Primary school age population (total, male, female, female/male) Gross enrolment ratio in primary education (total, male, female, female/male) Net enrolment ratio (total, male, female, female/male) Percentage overage (total, male, female) Percentage underage (total, male, female)
SECONDARY EDUCATION	Secondary age group Secondary school age population (total, male, female, female/male) Secondary net enrolment ratio (total, male, female, female/male)

CATEGORY	INDICATORS
HUMAN RESOURCES	Percentage trained teachers, pre-primary education (total, female) Pupil-teacher ratio, pre-primary education Percentage female teachers, pre-primary education Percentage trained teachers, primary education (total, female) Pupil-teacher ratio, primary education Percentage female teachers, primary education Percentage trained teachers, lower secondary education (total, female) Pupil-teacher ratio, lower secondary education Percentage female teachers, lower secondary education
INTERNAL EFFICIENCY	Repetition rates, grades 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (total, male, female) Survival rates at grade 4, 5 (total, male, female, female/male) Transition to secondary (total, male, female, female/male)
FINANCE	Public current expenditure on primary education as percentage of GNP Public current expenditure per pupil on primary education as percentage of GNP Public current expenditure on primary education as percentage of current expenditure on education Total public expenditure as percentage of GNP Total public expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure Public current expenditure on education as percentage of total expenditure on education
PRIVATE ENROLMENT	Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment, pre-primary education Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment, primary education Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment, secondary general education
OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN	Estimated out-of-school children (total, male, female, female/male)

Source: UNESCO (2002).

2. INEE good practice guide for emergency education: assessment, monitoring and evaluation

The following table contains possible indicators to be used when assessing, monitoring and evaluating education programmes in emergencies or crisis situations.

	MONITORED ITEMS	POSSIBLE TRENDS AND ACTION
STUDENTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student registration disaggregated by gender, disability, age, ethnicity, grade • Student attendance disaggregated by gender, and ethnicity • Students who drop out • Student pass rates and matriculation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Changes in student registration and attendance can assist in identifying barriers to students such as community attitudes towards the education of girls, difficulty paying school fees and discrimination. • Following student pass rates be used as an indicator of quality of education, as well as monitoring the progress of special groups such as girls and minorities.
TEACHERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers at the school disaggregated by gender, ethnicity, grades taught, education level • Teacher attendance records 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tracking the teachers and grades combined with student data can lead to more effective assignments of teachers. • Monitoring the gender and ethnicity of teachers can lead to more equitable hiring and assignment practices. • Tracking attendance identifies teachers who are delinquent in their duties.
ADMINISTRATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administrative staff broken down by gender, age, ethnicity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring the gender and ethnicity of teachers can lead to more equitable hiring and assignment practices.

Source: INEE (2003).

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Chapter 5.8

BUDGET AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that adequate financial resources are mobilized and effectively managed to meet the needs of all learners, especially those affected by emergency.**
- **To work toward the long-term financial viability of a reconstructed education system – one with sufficient inputs that is sustainable and transparent.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The national government is, in principle, responsible for the provision of education to all children within its territory. In emergencies, however, states may need outside assistance to cope with immediate needs such as rehabilitation or reconstruction of facilities, supply of educational materials and textbooks and provision of education to a large number of refugee or displaced children.

The development of budgets and management of finances for education is a principal responsibility of the education and finance ministries. Emergencies may limit or reduce the domestic resources available to the education system, both

public and private, so educational authorities will be faced with challenges such as reallocating existing resources or encouraging communities to mobilize additional resources to help with the provision of education to their children. Emergency situations often result in the possibility of significant additional financial resources being brought into the country by international agencies – both as part of the humanitarian response and in support of reconstruction.

In times of emergency, there may be other channels for education funding and support, depending on the nature of the crisis. In some cases, territory may be under the control of an authority other than the national government, which may organize education using resources mobilized independently. In other cases, the national or local education administration may have been so severely disrupted that substantial financial management responsibilities fall to outside bodies such as the United Nations. Quite often, the government is dependent on international donors for funding. Especially in conditions of insecurity, and when reconstruction begins, there may be field-level programmes supported by international and national NGOs, with independent funding. Such programmes should be managed in as close a consultation as possible with national and local authorities. Thus, as possible and in coordination with the development of capacity, control over budget and finance should be progressively transferred to legitimate national and local authorities.

Educational authorities must seek involvement in education funding decisions, even when significant resources are not directly under their control, in order to ensure that resources are used in the interests of all learners, and in order to minimize unintended consequences on the national education system,

such as the negative effect associated with salary scales that are unsustainable.

In the early phases of an emergency, the education authority may experience severe budget cuts as resources are redirected to conflict. Physical and human resources may be targeted or damaged and depleted by competing forces.

Humanitarian agencies often provide financial and other resources to support refugee education through organizations and authorities other than the Ministry of Education. Refugees and agencies often support the establishment of educational institutions and the appointment of staff that were not foreseen in the host government's budget. It may be necessary to seek donor funding for projects in 'refugee-affected areas' that aim to bring educationally backward refugee-receiving areas up to the national standard for education.

When humanitarian funding declines, teachers appointed under refugee assistance programmes can place unsustainable salary demands on authorities and other providers. Standards of provision or teacher salary levels in refugee camps can create demands for additional funding for neighbouring communities to match standards of refugee provision. Teachers, schools, and communities may be displaced, which makes payment of teacher salaries, delivery of supplies, placement of personnel and supervision difficult. This lack of funding may lead teachers to resort to giving 'extra lessons' for students who can afford them, or to charging 'release fees' for examination results that promote children to the next grade.

IDPs in camps tend to set up schools and place demands on authorities for financial support. There may be administrative difficulties in transferring resources to these camps/settlements,

even if there are no political problems in doing so. Salaries for teachers and educational civil servants may go unpaid during the emergency; there may be possible demands for back pay. Interim budgets rarely provide sufficient resources for teacher salaries; many work for stipends, food for work, or limited community support.

In protracted emergencies, refugee needs become more comprehensive and varied to include vocational, secondary, tertiary, non-formal training approaches. This places greater demands on educational authorities and other providers. Refugees, especially at secondary, vocational or higher education levels, often attend local schools, which puts additional pressure on those schools. This may constrain access for local students unless additional classroom space and supplies are provided. Pressure on schools in areas not affected by conflict also creates demands for additional facilities and teachers. As much population relocation is rural to urban, sustained pressure is put on urban schools and the possibility of oversupply of teachers in urban areas and undersupply in rural areas.

Heavy dependence on community financing can result in inequitable access to education. Discrepancies in compensation or incentives that teachers received as refugees versus what they will receive as returnees can create long-term budgetary problems or unintended consequences, such as difficulties in recruiting or retaining teachers in areas of return.

Sudden return may put immediate, unforeseen pressure on regular budgets, which are often highly constrained. Returning refugee teachers may expect employment where no budgetary provision exists. Teacher salaries become a core issue at the reconstruction

phase; possibilities of strikes grow as more teachers come back into the system and communications are restored. Teaching positions may become contentious, if there is an over-supply of teachers. Funding for in-service training of new teachers may be needed in rural areas, if there is an undersupply of experienced teachers.

Budgets

There are three main phases to budget procedures:

Budget preparation:

This step is undertaken by the Ministry of Finance who considers system objectives and their relation to both the annual plan and laws and contracts. The Ministry of Finance uses this information to establish budgetary guidelines, which are then taken into consideration by other ministries as they draw up their own budget.

Budget adoption:

Proposed budgets are voted upon by governments.

Budget execution:

The implementation of budgets is regulated by accounting procedures that may vary from country to country. Most regulations establish some automatic or semi-automatic mechanisms that aim to ensure that funds are used according to initial governmental authorizations of credits. In addition, budget frameworks prohibit the 'one time' use of funds and encourage expenditures to be regularly distributed throughout the budgetary cycle.

Financial management

Once budgets have been prepared and approved by governments, the implementation of the expenditures must be carefully controlled. A system of control uses standards, institutions or mechanisms to multiply controls at all levels and phases of budgetary implementation.

Standards are a series of rules that ensure that persons responsible for the implementation of budgets do not misappropriate public funds for their own profit.

Institutions verify that the implementation of funds is in line with these standards, either before the implementation has started (*a priori*) or after it has finished (*a posteriori*).

Mechanisms are used to either suppress or change the standard, if implementation is shown to be inconsistent with the standards.

Source: IIEP (2005: 83).

The following actors contribute to the management and control of funds.

Procurement officers are those persons who are authorized to place the state under financial obligation. Generally, Ministers are responsible for their ministerial budget, and they then delegate responsibility for budgets to qualified assistant Procurement Officers, who are allowed to authorize expenditure on specific budget entries.

Accountants are responsible for making payments and recording them in accounts.





Comptrollers check that correct procedure is followed and that funds are available. Their approval is essential for an obligation to be valid, or for a supplier to be paid. They are often attached to the Ministry of Finance, but work directly for another ministry.

As a general rule, when procurement officers wish to effect payment, they must ‘obligate’ that payment, or earmark the corresponding sum for payment under the appropriate budget section. This must be done with the approval of the comptroller, who checks that it conforms to the budget line and makes sure that sufficient funds have been authorized.

Source: IIEP (2005: 85–86).

Within an educational system, the resources listed in the Ministry of Education budget are intended to be used for the benefit of schools, and the central and regional administrative authorities that run the system. The distribution of these resources varies from country to country, with some countries managing funds at a central level, and others managing funds at a local level, permitting schools themselves to make budgetary requests.

In emergency situations, international financial support may resemble a ‘relief bubble’; large sums of money appear and are immediately used for relief efforts before any provision can be made for a longer term, more stable source of financial support. Given this sudden flow of funds, it is not surprising that in many post-conflict contexts corruption and transparency in educational financial management are cause for concern. Increased transparency in resource allocation, as well as a greater control over resources, are essential to eliminating corrupt practices. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a summary of corrupt practices and a list of preventative measure, against them).

In an emergency situation, the capacity to channel and manage expenditures may be reduced by a loss of personnel and collapsing or deteriorating information, communication and finance systems. Control over resources in the education system may be dispersed among different educational authorities or may weaken or shift as the system is disrupted. Control over domestic resources may also be largely exercised at district, community or school levels.

Domestic resource mobilization, if centralized, may be temporarily halted if the system is disrupted. Shifts in the flow of internal revenue and resources are likely to have significant implications for equity and quality of provision. Household and community resources are often required to fill funding gaps, with consequent implications for equity and quality.

Population displacement also disrupts the capacity of communities to mobilize resources. Mechanisms – information systems, communication systems and banking or financial transfer mechanisms – to manage distribution of resources, especially salaries, supplies and learning materials, may break down or function unevenly, resulting in misallocation, inefficiency and inequity. Communities are often not able to meet household costs and therefore cannot afford education for their children, even when direct costs are minimal.

A final element of financial management is that of the analysis of budgetary expenditure, used to help educational planners better understand in what ways the allocation of funds has helped (or hindered) the realization of educational policy. Traditional budgets can give a comprehensive understanding of the educational objectives and activities, depending on what budgeting techniques are used. An analysis allows planners to determine whether or not these objectives have been attained. This involves obtaining

information on the structures of the educational system and the administration of education at different levels, and then identifying the expenditures at each of these levels.

Educational levels may include the following:

- Pre-school education.
- Basic education.
- Teacher training.
- In-service training and research.
- Literacy and adult education.
- General administration (central and regional).

In emergency settings, one might add the following:

- Educational provisions for refugees.
- Educational provisions for IDPs.
- Educational programmes for reintegration.

Basic expenditures may include:

- Teachers' salaries.
- Other staff salaries.
- Supplies and educational materials.
- School construction and maintenance.
- Transportation.
- Other running expenditures.

In an emergency situation, one might add the following:

- Re-establishment of infrastructures.
- Re-establishment of information and communication systems.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section for a sample expenditure table).

Once the necessary data is compiled, an analysis can provide information on the expenditure structure for the different functions of the basic educational system, the type of expenditure and the average expenditure by pupil and educational level.

By comparing the different findings of this analysis with the defined objectives for the development of the education system, progress towards these objectives is more carefully managed and measured.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Budget and financial management

- 1. When the country has been affected by an emergency, special attention should be paid to strengthening the education ministry's capacity for budgeting and financial management, to cope with the demands of emergency response and subsequent reconstruction.**
- 2. Coordinate donor resources and educational provision.**
- 3. Assess available resources and prioritize allocation of finances based on needs assessments.**



4. **Plan financing in light of the special considerations associated with the emergency conditions and link support to long-term plans.**
5. **Reduce household costs for education.**
6. **Mobilize additional resources to meet key financing gaps.**
7. **Monitor implementation of all expenditures to ensure accountability and transparency. Also, review expenditures based on issues of equity and sustainability.**

Guidance notes

1. **When the country has been affected by an emergency, special attention should be paid to strengthening the education ministry's capacity for budgeting and financial management in order to cope with the demands of emergency response and subsequent reconstruction. External agencies may be willing to support this objective, which will facilitate the management of external assistance, as well as effective and transparent use of national resources.**

2. Coordinate donor resources and educational provision.

- Are educational authority budget and finance specialists – both national and local authorities – involved in donor coordination meetings?
- Are finance issues openly discussed and presented at emergency coordination meetings with United Nations agencies and NGOs?



EARLY POST-WAR DONOR ASSISTANCE IN KOSOVO

When NATO's bombing stopped in June 1999, aid agencies flooded into Kosovo, competing for "funding, territory, and human resources" (Mattich, 2001: 8). NATO's and the United Nation's entrance was a media event, a sensational story, and it often seemed that every NGO and Western donor government wanted a part of the action. One Kosovar Albanian hired early by UNMIK called the arrival of NGOs from a wide array of countries an 'invasion'. Aid agencies experienced "an incredible pressure to act and be seen as 'doing something', which became "an impediment to pursuing participatory strategies" (Mattich, 2001: 33). A related factor was the urgency to rebuild the thousands of houses, schools, and hospitals that had been destroyed during or before NATO's campaign, before the cold winter months arrived. One aid official, who has worked in Kosovo since the summer of 1999, observed that one result was that "NGOs built with no community input". This applied to those previously involved with the parallel system of education. "During the parallel-system years", the official continued, "the Albanians did everything themselves". However, in this early post-war stage, "the expectation that the NGOs would do everything meant that Albanians could step back and let them do it". In the view of this official, and those of many Albanian educators interviewed, the opportunity to access the parallel system's potential to mobilize communities in co-ordination





with international agents was lost, a precursor to what eventually surfaced as the distancing of parallel education officials from education decision-making. At the same time, there were some reports of good working relations between international agencies and Kosovar community members during this period. In addition, in villages where outside agencies were not present, Kosovar communities organized themselves to clean up and repair their schools.

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 51).

- Is early agreement obtained on the basic scale for teacher stipends and salaries, including those for refugee and IDP programmes? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.2*, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’).
- Is there clear guidance on spending priorities?
- Are efforts made to develop a coherent financing approach based on the expenditure limitations and specializations of different donors, agencies, and NGOs?
 - Is a strategy developed to link the financing approach to subsequent take-over by the government?
 - Where accommodations among immediate funders cannot be made, is the education authority able to refuse funding by external agencies or negotiate for reallocation of funds?

3. Assess available resources and prioritize allocation of finances based on needs assessments.

- During the early acute phase, is there a rapid inventory of existing resources, especially teachers and potential teachers, within the affected populations? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1*, ‘Assessment of needs and resources.’)

- Assess available external and internal resources and how they are currently used. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a sample ‘Revenue sources’ checklist.)
 - Are existing budgets reviewed and expenditures reallocated to the extent possible to reflect new priorities?
 - Are available mechanisms for allocating resources – especially teachers – reviewed and redesigned as necessary, to meet existing needs?
 - Are donors and agencies required clearly to indicate the resources they are able to mobilize and any limitations on the utilization of those resources?
 - Have likely funding gaps been identified and prioritized?
 - Are interim financing measures placed in the context of long-term resource and budgetary constraints?
- Optimize capacity and use of all available resources.
 - Are standard guidelines and norms developed for temporary learning spaces and school buildings, which can be upgraded as financing becomes available? (For example, classroom size could be specified to avoid donor support for undersized classrooms.)
 - Are double shifts utilized as necessary to maximize the use of school facilities in congested areas? (Note that multiple shifts are unsatisfactory except for lower primary classes.)
 - Are teachers encouraged to teach double sessions, with salary supplements or additional incentives provided to multiple-session teachers? Are the hours of work this requires realistic?
 - Are agreements negotiated with publishers to make temporary photocopies, when necessary, of sections of textbooks while publishing orders are under way?
 - Is multi-grade teaching supported, including provision of training support, to maximize teacher utilization in rural areas?

- Are opportunities actively sought for sharing key resources, e.g. libraries, laboratories and teacher resource centres?
- Are incentives used to re-deploy teachers to the areas of greatest need?
- Are all possible local resources utilized in support of learning, including non-monetary resources?
- Align and prioritize the allocation of finances based on needs assessments.
 - For government programmes of reconstruction, are per capita costs of the previous system used as the starting point for calculating costs, including teacher salaries?
 - Are steps taken to be as systematic as possible when making financial decisions? For example, is available information from existing and emergency education management and information systems (EMIS) used and supplemented with information from rapid assessment, ongoing assessments, and sector analyses in order to make informed financial decisions? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'* and *Chapter 5.7, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).'*)

4. Plan financing in light of the special considerations associated with the emergency conditions and link support to long-term plans.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section for a sample financial expenditure chart.)

- Is an early decision made as to who will be responsible for the payment of salaries and other recurring costs?
- Are negotiations undertaken early to reach agreement that refugee teacher stipends and salaries will not be above the current levels of national teachers? (Normally, for reasons of

financial sustainability, external education providers pay less than the national scale, but care should be taken to avoid unsustainably high salary levels.)

- Is provision made for the likely rapid decline in international support that will occur as the crisis proceeds? Is planning begun early for middle- and longer-term finances?
- Are discussions initiated early as to the overall strategy vis-à-vis conflict-affected populations, i.e. return, reintegration, etc.?
- Are decisions made early as to whether refugee needs will be met separately in the camps, or whether they will be absorbed into local schools (depending on numbers, language of instruction, curriculum, level of schooling, etc.)?
- Are steps taken to monitor the flow of funds and to coordinate efforts among funders to ensure that funding follows the movements of the population?
- Do budgets include the costs of responding to all the social needs of learners in emergency contexts (including safety, psychosocial/recreational needs, rehabilitation programmes, services for the disabled, etc.)?



FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT IN EAST TIMOR

“Within available funds, UNTAET [United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor] and the donor community accorded a relatively high priority to the education sector. A World Bank paper on education outlined how, under the transitional administration, the sector was second only to infrastructure in public finance allocations. In 2000/2001, the amount available for education totalled US\$45.1 million.





There were three main ways in which these monies were disbursed, respectively making up 30 per cent, 23 per cent and 47 per cent of the total (Wu, 2000: 18). They were:

1. Consolidated Fund for East Timor (CFET), which covered wages and salaries, goods and services and capital expenditure of ETTA;
2. Trust Fund for East Timor (TFET) for rehabilitation and investment channelled through the School System Revitalization Programme (SSRP); and
3. Bilateral contributions, which came in various forms including aid-in-kind, technical assistance and scholarships.

The bulk of an education system's expense is spent on wages for teachers and other education personnel, regular replacement of textbooks and ongoing maintenance of school buildings. In East Timor, these kinds of recurrent costs are covered by CFET. Salaries accounted for approximately 75 per cent of the costs of this consolidated fund, with goods and services making up the other 25 per cent (Wu, 2000: 18). To recover from the crisis that East Timor had just undergone, there was of course a need to do more than cover recurrent costs. The multi-donor Trust Fund for East Timor (TFET) was created at the Tokyo donors' meeting and authorized by UN Security Council (1999: 13) Resolution 1272 as a means to pool donors' money for post-conflict reconstruction needs. TFET (2000) grants included sectoral programmes in the areas of agriculture, education, health, infrastructure and water and sanitation. There was no sovereign borrower, with UNTAET instead acting on behalf of a future independent government. TFET funds were first available to education through Quick Impact Projects (QIPs), with monies designated by districts to rehabilitate a few schools. The bulk of TFET for education was spent through the SSRP ..."

Source: Nicolai (2004: 100–101).

- Are costs budgeted for the changing needs of learners (e.g. accelerated learning programmes, vocational education, non-formal literacy training, life skills, etc.)?
- Have costs for returnees, including reconstruction, integration, re-integration, etc., been projected?
- Can financial support targeting reconstruction be linked to longer-term development plans?

5. Reduce household costs for education.

- Perform a cost analysis on the financial contribution of and the demands on households.
- Review the list of essential materials for school.
- Encourage complementary agencies to assist with provision of basic learning materials for the poorest children.
- When applicable, re-assess the role and cost of uniform in schools.
- Consider curriculum integration to cut back on the number of textbooks needed in classrooms.
- Change teaching/learning methods if possible to reduce exercise book requirements.
 - Use slates for a variety of classroom exercises.
- Build teacher and management capacity, to ensure efficiency in education and to avoid waste and mismanagement of parents' contribution to schooling and state subsidies in the following areas:
 - Expenditure analysis.
 - Resource identification.
- Consider the positive and negative aspects of school fee waivers.




RWANDAN HOUSEHOLD EDUCATION SPENDING

“In late 2002 the estimate of 11,000 FRW per child in primary school (USD 22) is a severe deterrent to registering children in school. A family with three children in primary school would be expected to use 25 per cent of family income on schooling. With one child in secondary school, it would cost over 21,500 FRW (about USD 43) or 17 per cent of the family annual income to pay the fees, exclusive of uniform, writing materials, bedding, transport, etc.

Government allocation or the unit cost per primary student to the state was reported as FRW 6,745 in 2000 (MOESTSR, 2002: 22), which is about half of what households spend on education (FRW 11,010) or 39 per cent of the total cost of primary education. Depending on how costs are calculated, other reports indicate that the family bears 90.6 per cent of school costs, 4.5 per cent are borne by the state and 3.9 per cent by other organizations (MOESTSR, 2002: 22).

The Ministry allocates a fixed sum of 5,000,000 FRW per province for primary education, whatever the school population or number of schools in the area or the GER/NER. During the study, primary schools reported that they receive no financial inputs from their district education offices. As noted in the case of one school in Nyamata, a high proportion of children receive fee waivers, which drastically cuts school fee revenues. There are no data available – or perhaps no data analysed – on the level of fee exemptions as a proportion of fees expected/needed, nor the level of school incomes. At present the shortfalls in school incomes due to fee waivers are not compensated by any mechanism ...

A new financial planning instrument has been developed, the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF), which symbolizes the Government's move from short term, relief-oriented annual plans to three year roll-over plans and allows for more realistic projections of spending. Currently the Government is planning for 2003-2005. It will allow planners



to match resource availability with resource requirements over a three year period. The MTEF is, in turn, oriented by the PRSP and Vision 2020, the Government's prime policy documents. Five year development plans are expected to start in 2006. Education is now considered holistically as a sector and Rwanda is developing a sector-wide approach (SWAp) for the development and implementation of the Education Policy and Education Sector Plan ...

In conclusion, the Government's aim is to increase its funding to education, in order to shift the heavy burden of financing education off the shoulders of households and off the shoulders of the children themselves. Communities will be invited to make significant input into decision-making regarding planning and expenditure at local levels, and to organize ways of contributing to local education funds. Increased efficiency in tax collection at both central and local levels is expected to generate more internal financial resources for education. With sound revenue collection and use of innovative planning instruments, for example, the SWAp, the Government expects to attract increased financial support from internal and external partners."

Source: Obura (2003: 144–149).

6. Mobilize additional resources to meet key financing gaps.

- Are prioritized and documented needs presented to donors, with efforts made to interest individual donors in key programme areas?
- Are proposals prepared (based on needs assessments) in collaboration with key actors in order to mobilize resources for critical additional activities that are not currently being conducted?

- How will educational authorities meet these needs beyond the interim?

7. Monitor implementation of all expenditures to ensure accountability and transparency. Also review expenditures based on issues of equity and sustainability.

- Are monitoring and reporting strategies and instruments required as part of project proposals?
 - Do funding proposals include provisions for the costs of monitoring and evaluation, including any needed technical assistance?
 - Are donors willing to fund the monitoring and reporting costs that their own projects require?
 - Have educational authorities and providers identified financing and accounting specialists to help meet donor reporting requirements?
- Have donors clearly communicated their minimum financial reporting requirements? Have these, in turn, been clearly communicated to any implementing partners? Are these requirements observed in practice?
- At the school and community level, has information on education expenditures been made publicly available (as much as is possible) to ensure transparency and accountability and to promote equity?
- Are survey data used to analyze expenditure flows by region, rural-urban, minority groups and income level (e.g. by quintiles), so as to ensure that resources flow to areas of greatest need?
- Is community input in cash, 'in-kind', and labour acknowledged in expenditure reporting at the local level?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

The two charts below may be useful when preparing and planning budgets.

1. Revenue source checklist: Kosovo

	BUDGET CODE	PREVIOUS YEAR	BUDGET YEAR	ESTIMATE (following year)	ESTIMATE (2 years in advance)
General budget grant for education					
Special budget grants for education					
Other municipal funds					
Education fees (preschool/boarding)					
Other funding					
TOTAL REVENUE					

Source: Venner (2002: Appendix 6).

2. Sample expenditure form: Kosovo

	BUDGET CODE	PREVIOUS YEAR	BUDGET YEAR	ESTIMATE (following year)	ESTIMATE (2 years in advance)
SALARIES AND WAGES					
Salary Full time employees					
Teaching staff					
Non-teaching staff					
Wages Part time employees					
Teaching staff					
Non-teaching staff					
Other compensation					
PURCHASED GOODS AND SERVICES					
Travel expenses					
Utilities					
Transport and communication					
Services					
Equipment/property purchase/rental					
Supplies					
Other					
CAPITAL					
TOTAL EXPENDITURE					

Source: Venner (2002: Appendix 6).

The following chart may be useful when analysing the distribution of funds.

3. Educational levels and Expenditure chart

LEVELS OF EDUCATION and other functions	CURRENT EXPENDITURE						Capital expenditure	Overall expenditure
	Teachers' salaries	Other staff salaries	Supplies/ education material	Other current expenditure	Fellowships/ family allowances	Total		
Pre-school education								
Basic education								
1st cycle								
<i>Public</i>								
<i>Private</i>								
2nd cycle								
<i>Public</i>								
<i>Private</i>								
Teacher training								
Pre-school								
Basic education								
In-service training and research								
Literacy and adult education								
General administration								
Central								
Examinations								
Regional								
<i>Regional directorates</i>								
<i>Basic education Inspectorate</i>								
GENERAL TOTAL								

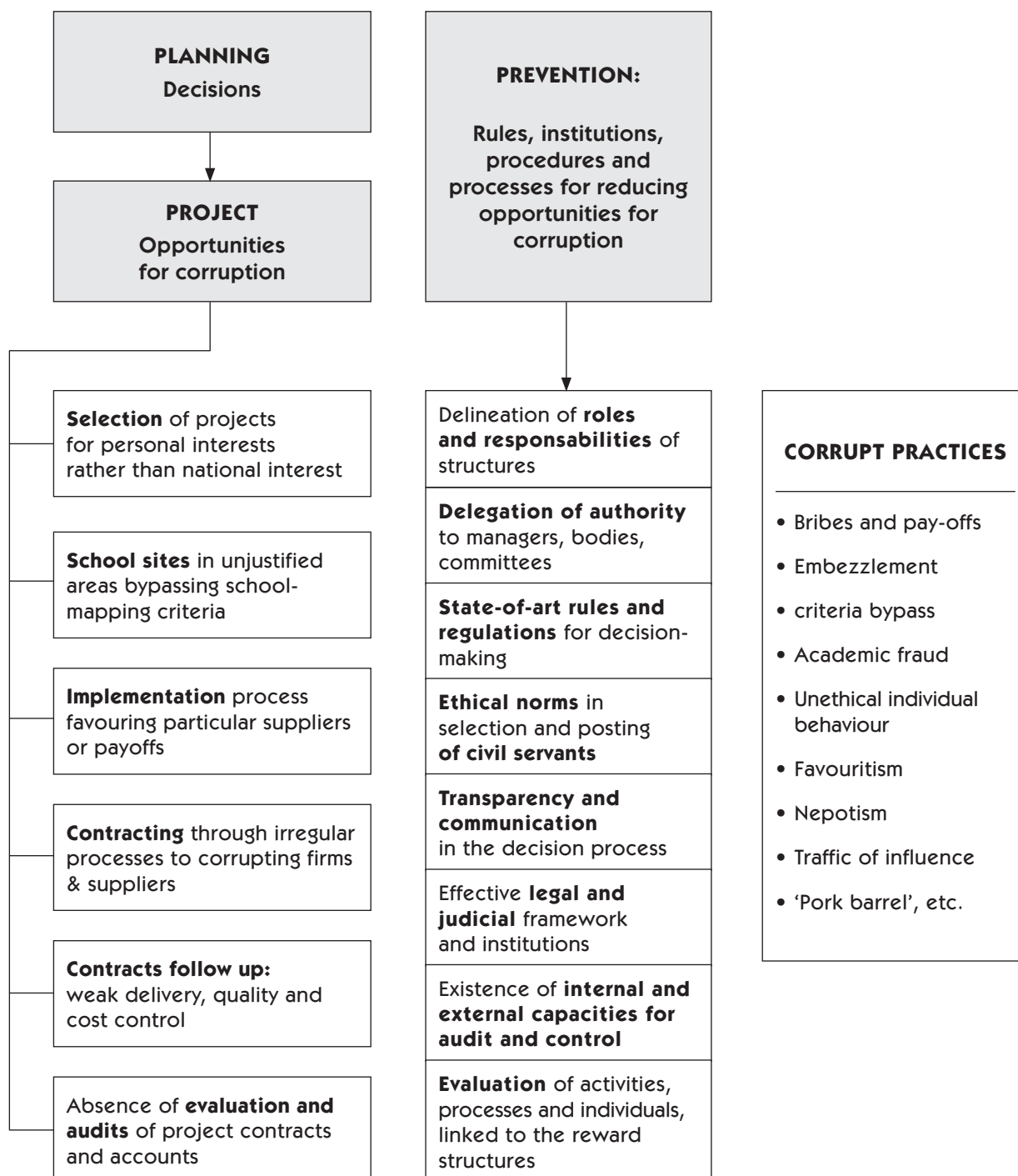
Source: IIEP (2005: 108).

4. Summary of some of the main practices of corruption observed within the education sector, and their possible impact on access, quality, equity and ethics.

AREAS OF PLANNING/ MANAGEMENT INVOLVED	CORRUPT PRACTICES	ELEMENTS OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS MOST AFFECTED
Building of schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public tendering • Embezzlement • School mapping 	<p>Access Equity</p>
Recruitment, promotion and appointment of teachers (including systems of incentives)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Favouritism • Nepotism • Bribes and pay-offs 	Quality
Conduct of teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘Ghost teachers’ • Bribes and pay-offs (for school entrance, for the assessment of children, etc.) 	<p>Access Quality Equity Ethics</p>
Supply and distribution of equipment, food and textbooks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public tendering • Embezzlement • Bypassing of criteria 	Equity
Allocation of specific allowances (compensatory measures, fellowships, subsidies to the private sector, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Favouritism • Nepotism • Bribes and pay-offs • Bypassing of criteria 	<p>Access Equity</p>
Examinations and diplomas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selling of information • Favouritism • Nepotism • Bribes and pay-offs • Academic fraud 	<p>Equity Ethics</p>

Source: Hallak and Poisson (2002: 20).

5. Corrupt practices: opportunities and prevention



Source: Hallak and Poisson (2002: 99).

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Chapter 5.9

HUMAN RESOURCES: MINISTRY OFFICIALS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To address Ministry of Education human resource requirements in conditions of emergency and early reconstruction.**
- **To respond to urgent needs and progressively work to develop a modern, efficient human resource system as part of the broader development of the education system.¹**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Population movements associated with emergencies disrupt human resource systems and disperse resources as well as people. In such contexts, community members, civil-society organizations, and community-based organizations may assume many human resource functions, but often lack the institutional and financial resources to sustain employment. Under such conditions, conditions of service come to vary widely as do the qualifications and competence of personnel.

1. This chapter should be read in conjunction with the *Guidebook, Chapters 3.1 to 3.5*, on teacher management.

System breakdowns and inefficiencies lead to non-payment of teachers and a decline in training, professional development, and skills transfer. Although teachers are quantitatively the larger problem in human resource management, emergencies often result in loss of education management personnel – principals and school directors, supervisors, district and regional officials, central ministry officials, senior university faculty, and others who support and guide the education system. Some emergencies present a particular threat to educators. In other cases, economic instability forces personnel out of education into more lucrative occupations. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.2, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’.)

Personnel may fall on different sides of a conflict, creating divisions within the national education system. Schools, managers and teachers may become polarized along ethnic or political lines. Human resources may be deployed based on political criteria rather than need and competence. There may be a decrease in staff, who may be hiding, fleeing or have died. As a result, the personnel left to support the system may be limited. Community members may be reluctant to play an active role in public schools, out of fear, or poverty. Teachers and other education workers may need to return home to assist their families in farming, rebuilding, etc. They may not be paid or may be paid late. Teachers may stop teaching or attend school intermittently. Professional development may come to a halt.

In conflict-affected areas, state authority may be limited, with little accountability or authority. Frequent movements of population complicate planning and development of management systems. Chronic conflict may lead to a lack of trained personnel, and a collapse or substantial reduction in pre-service training. As pre- and in-service training systems fail, there may be a long-term erosion of skills among all education personnel.

In refugee operations, international agencies and NGOs often come to play the role of education providers, and work with refugee communities (who are often accommodated in remote and underdeveloped locations) to quickly re-establish schooling. Education for refugees may be managed at the provincial level or through ministries other than the education ministry (e.g. ministry of home affairs/interior/local government). The education ministry may need to advocate for the involvement of its own education experts in senior management roles. Community education leaders – elders, former Parent Teacher Association members, church leaders, etc. – may take on the role of managers.


During crises and reconstruction, the staff of ministries of education play an essential role in the rehabilitation of educational systems.



REBUILDING FROM THE TOP DOWN: THE CASE OF RWANDA

“The genocide was over in the first days of July. The new Government assumed power on 18 July 1994. A Minister of Education was appointed. Over the days and weeks, individual staff resurfaced from exile and from hiding. As each one ventured into the old ministry building, torn and shelled and open to the elements, finding their way through the debris of broken furniture, stepping over burnt and torn papers, dust, rubble and stones, they were given a very special welcome. They stood wondering. Standing. Shocked. There was not one chair to sit on. No one knew how many colleagues had been killed.

Primary schools: The Ministry gathered the children back into school. They went around the country opening schools and conducted a strenuous campaign of social mobilization on the radio, in public speeches and through their visits. Before, the radio had been used as a treacherous divisive weapon. Now it called the children back to school.




Regional leaders were identified, the préfets, and asked to join in the ministry's campaign to restart education. Each local leader set the dates for re-opening in his area and the national radio announced it, explaining that the Ministry would preside over the event. The Minister himself, with a small band of colleagues, went from province to province, from district to district, from school to school, speaking to heads, teachers and parents, exhorting them to bring their children back to school. In some cases the visitors from Kigali reached schools with two children and two or three teachers. But the word went out, and children trickled in as the Minister waited. The atmosphere was tense, excited. But, eventually, children came."

Source: Obura (2003: 56–57).

The mandate of educational ministries is to organize the delivery of educational services, either on all educational levels or on selected levels. To do this, ministries of education are often called upon to work in collaboration with other governmental ministries. When establishing or re-establishing a ministry of education after conflict or disaster, the following human resource elements are important to consider:

Staffing: Staffing needs include teaching personnel and non-teaching personnel. The non-teaching staff of a Ministry of Education may include school directors, inspectors, office staff, MoE directors, policy-makers, planners and statisticians. Quite often, non-pedagogical positions are staffed with former teachers who have no specific training for the job. The difficulty then lies in placing staff in positions for which they are qualified. This can be facilitated by comparing the technical qualifications of individuals with the skill requirements of their jobs in a task position/qualification matrix. As it is essential for any Ministry of Education to have the ability to adapt to





changing demands and new situations, particularly in the case of an emergency, training new staff members, and thus providing them with qualifications that match staffing needs, is often necessary.

Reward structures: Staff performance is generally determined by individuals' motivations, which are often linked to reward structures. Rewards may include (among others):

- Monetary gains
- Career advancement
- Attaining prestigious or powerful positions.

Reward structures that are *performance-based* involve creating and attaining clearly defined criteria in order to advance in one's career or salary level. Within a Ministry of Education, this may include the evaluation of school directors according to overall school performance, and the performance of non-teaching staff by the examination of the completion of tasks within a specified time and budget.

Rules-based reward structures link factors such as age, seniority and diploma with salary levels or career advancement.

Decision-making: Decisions can occur at various levels; ministry officials must determine to what extent authority will be decentralized and responsibility given to regional or local authorities. National ministries of education are generally at the top of relatively centralized education systems. Decisions about the system's functioning, such as budget preparation and resource allocation, personnel and payroll management, curriculum development, teacher training, planning and statistics, are usually made in one place. Depending on the country's situation and the structure of its education system, teachers may be relatively autonomous, as they have little or no direct contact with Ministry of Education officials. (For more information on centralization and decentralization, see the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.6, 'Structure of the education system'.*)

Source: Adapted from Sack and Saïdi (1997: 50–53).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies **Human resources: ministry officials**

1. **Assess the current situation *vis-à-vis* education personnel serving emergency-affected populations.**
2. **Make interim human resource arrangements.**
3. **Work towards longer-term strategies for the government's management of ministry officials affected by emergency.**
4. **Work to ensure optimal provision for returnee educational personnel and teachers.**

Guidance notes

1. **Assess the current situation *vis-à-vis* education personnel serving emergency-affected populations, under government or other auspices.**

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3.1, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers.')

- Are there accurate data on the numbers, location, demographic characteristics, qualifications, experience, and salaries of teachers and other educational personnel? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*).
 - If not, how will this data be collected?
 - A simple form used by agencies visiting institutions in the field to gather basic information on ministry officials and teachers?
 - A possible component of rapid needs assessment?
 - As part of the work of agencies and officials managing the distribution of supplies and resources, or even security forces?
- Do personnel records remain? To what extent are the existing records up to date or relatively easy to update?
- Can existing or surviving personnel records be used as a basis for the format of a revised personnel register for national populations affected by emergency?
- Are district offices and local educational authorities functioning?
- Are there enough teachers, supervisors and support staff to provide instruction to all children and youth?
 - How many posts have already been filled?
 - How many additional posts are needed?
 - Are there any surplus posts?
 - If so, how can surplus employees be redeployed?
- Are ministry staff members qualified for the posts they hold?
 - If not, what provisions can be made for employee training?
- What provisions are there for making temporary appointments?

- Are there guidelines for the appointment of additional, new, or temporary staff and teachers?
 - What are the minimum qualifications for official jobs within the Ministry of Education?
 - How is gender parity being ensured through staffing methods?
- Is the salary payment system functioning?
 - If not, what arrangements are being made, for example, stipends, incentives, or in-kind payments?
 - Are there guidelines for the payment of stipends, incentives and the like? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.8, 'Budget and financial management.'*)
- Do guidelines for school safety and for psychosocial support include the safety and support needed by teachers and other educational personnel?
- Has agreement been reached among employing organizations on simple guidelines for flexible use of refugees, IDPs and returnees, drawing first on qualified teachers, then other educated personnel including graduates and retired, then teacher aides, and so forth?

2. Make or facilitate interim human resource arrangements.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for an example of an approach to meeting staffing needs.)

- If there are not enough teachers, supervisors, and support staff, are there enough potential teachers, supervisors, and support staff in the population to provide instruction and to assure the proper functioning of the education system?
 - Will their employment be assured by the government or through other education providers on a temporary basis?

- What provisions need to be made to facilitate temporary appointments for government education programmes?
- Are guidelines needed to assist in decisions about the appointment of additional, new, or temporary ministry officials and teachers?
- Do guidelines for payment of stipends, incentives or ‘in-kind’ payments exist? Can they be adapted?
- If district offices and local authorities are functioning in emergency-affected areas, are steps being taken to enhance their capacity so that they can better manage personnel?
- Has an interim salary scale and human resource management policy been developed for employees of educational authorities? In consultation with representatives of personnel affected?
- Have minimum standards been developed for private and non-public community institutions?
- Were salary scales in use prior to emergency used as the starting point and adapted to reflect new priorities and constraints?
- Is elimination of discrimination by gender, ethnicity and other characteristics a priority?
- Are employees’ representatives involved in the discussions of salary, policies, and terms of service?
- Are interim scales simple and loosely tied to qualifications beyond minimum levels?

3. Work towards longer-term strategies for the government’s management of teachers and other personnel affected by emergency.

- Are there plans for transforming temporary government appointments into longer-term appointments?
 - Do these plans include capacity building?



THE CREATION OF A MINISTRY IN EAST TIMOR

“When the second transitional government was installed, education commanded its own ministry. On 20 September 2001, Armindo Maia was sworn in as the first head of MECYS. Operating for a short eight months before independence, this era was characterized by the formation of what would quickly transition into a permanent education authority. By this time, many international staff had already left under the process of ‘Timorisation’; those who had not only had a few months for capacity building on the appointment of permanent MECYS employees. The transition was complicated by confusion regarding UNTAET’s role in direct governance versus capacity building, “UNTAET staff members often worked diligently in an effort to carry out their technical functions at the expense of transferring skills to their counterparts” (King’s College London, 2003: 256). Several UNTAET district education officers concurred with a colleague’s statement that “fortunately there was enough flexibility in the field to focus on capacity building when it was not yet the flavour of the day in Dili.”

With little time and limited resources, educational leadership in East Timor had to make hard choices about sequencing interventions and resource allocation. The primary aim was to return children to the classroom as fast as possible. To achieve this, activities were primarily centred on restoration of educational infrastructure. Efforts to address policy and delivery problems facing the system, such as maintaining increasing enrolments, quality issues in language and curriculum, and establishing sustainable public financing took second place (World Bank, 2002b: 58). One review of the transitional authority asserts that education efforts were too heavily influenced by emergency logic. Areas such as “teacher training and administrative capacity-building were treated as being of lower priority” (King’s College London, 2003: 253). Also, limited effort was put into decentralization at a time when this was actually crucial due to transport and communication difficulties.”

Source: Nicolai (2004: 99).

- Have steps been taken to see whether persons on the payroll are actually working? Is a process for matching payroll and staff in place?
- Is a process in place for periodic rationalization of the deployment of staff?
- Has a strategy been developed for rationalizing the work force based on competencies and not qualifications, and for removing weak staff?
- Have steps been taken to build morale among teachers and other education personnel?
- Are in-service and pre-service training programmes being re-established?
- Are steps being taken to strengthen data and records relating to personnel including teachers?

4. Work to ensure optimal provision for returnee educational personnel and teachers.

- Are authorities working closely with UNHCR and other agencies on refugee and IDP return?
- Are records of personnel involved in education of refugees and IDPs obtained (with their consent or that of their representatives) to facilitate absorption into the national system?
- Is a process established to expedite review of qualifications and experience for temporary appointment purposes?
- Are personnel policies interpreted flexibly so as to maximize utilization and recognition of talent?
- Are preparations made for reintegration of personnel, especially adaptation or development of validation and certification processes?

- Is the EMIS organized to accommodate teachers and other educational personnel?
- Are means established to assess the psychosocial needs of returnee teachers and other educational personnel?
- Are nation and community-building programmes developed among teachers and educational personnel, national and returning?
- Educational authorities' training may include, but is not limited to, the following elements:
 - Supervisory skills.
 - Finance and administration management.
 - Strategic planning and basic education (action) planning techniques.
 - Report writing (personnel and management).
 - Performance appraisal of education staff.
 - Gender equity in management and supervision.



MINISTRY HANDOVER IN KOSOVO

While UNMIK [United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo] formally handed over responsibility and authority for education in Kosovo to the MEST [Ministry of Education, Science and Technology] on 4 March 2002, the actual process of handover was never going to be easy. The education agenda for reform was too broad, the time-frame too short, and the capacity-building needs too great. Some of the contributing factors that made this process unusually difficult, however, require examination.

First, the combination of a narrow time-frame for implementing UNMIK-led reforms appeared to leave little time for patient mentoring and careful capacity-building work. UNMIK officials were preoccupied. Descriptions of the management style at the top of the education system resembled the sort of action-oriented operations that commonly surface during humanitarian emergencies. "We're doing reform and





handover at the same time. That's the problem," one UNMIK official commented. "It's all chaos." As a consequence, many education officials who were interviewed reported that Albanians in UNMIK's Department of Education and Science were subordinate. Many believed that the 'co-head' titles created for Kosovars working in UNMIK's Department were accurate in name only. "UNMIK education had a militarist command structure," one high-level international official observed. Many Kosovar officials suggested that UNMIK comprised a "parallel system of its own," an idea that some UNMIK officials also agreed was the case.

Not everyone agreed with this depiction. One official, for example, commented that UNMIK's achievements took place "with very significant local inclusion and consultation." Nonetheless, an international official recalled how "There were only 15 central administration staff who were locals" in UNMIK's Department of Education and Science prior to handover, "and none had any responsibility." The official concluded that "Kosovar Albanians were just pushing papers."

Second, it was unclear whether every UNMIK education official was prepared to hand over authority. The power to create and nourish a new education system was exciting, and for some international officials, the job felt unfinished. Some Kosovar officials also maintained that UNMIK was handing over responsibility for education in Kosovo before the reform processes were complete. "UNMIK's mistake was to pull out too soon," an UNMIK official observed. "We had a chance to lead a new society, and we let it go too soon." This is a remarkably revealing comment, because it contains the notion that an influential yet tiny group of foreign civil servants could drive social change in Kosovo. Another UNMIK official put the post-handover situation more plainly. "Our job is implementing, but we can't implement: it's not our job anymore," the official explained. As a result of the handover process, "Things are falling back already." The same official later noted, with some resignation, that "I liked it better when we [that is, UNMIK] were in charge."

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 128–129).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Sample staffing needs approach

STARTING POINT: DATA COLLECTION AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT	Existing staff figures of each department of the ministry have been established. <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Number of individuals.• Deployment of individuals.• Qualifications of individuals. Needs for staffing have been clearly established for both central and regional posts.
STAGE ONE: POST/PROFILES MATCHING EVALUATION	Existing human resources are compared to the needs at each level of the Ministry, and in each structure of the ministry.
STAGE TWO: SURPLUS/DEFICIT EVALUATION	Evaluation of the surplus or deficit of available resources in relation to requirements by structure and in terms of qualifications.
STAGE THREE: SURPLUS ANALYSIS	Examination of possible redeployments of personnel from the central structures of the Ministry to regional levels, and/or schools.
STAGE FOUR: DEFICIT ANALYSIS	Planning to fill staffing needs can include both training plans designed to correct the qualification shortfalls at different levels and recruitment plans to make up the deficit.

Source: Adapted from Sack and Saidi (1997: 94–95).

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Chapter 5.10

DONOR RELATIONS AND FUNDING MECHANISMS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To identify and obtain funding for support of education programmes in emergency situations.**
- **To enhance partnership, solidarity and transparency among actors in emergency situations, aiming to maximize the effectiveness of aid.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The term ‘donors’ encompasses a large range of actors, all with different outlooks, and often with different objectives and modes of operation. This and the following chapter on coordination is intended to give education ministries or other educational authorities a general introduction to some of the issues and challenges that are likely to arise when negotiating with and coordinating with bilateral donors, United Nations agencies, international financial institutions (IFIs), NGOs and local actors in an emergency or reconstruction setting. The tools and resources section of this

chapter gives an overview of some of the most important types of financial aid (balance of payments support; general budget support; aid-funded debt relief; sectoral budget support; project aid using government systems; project aid using parallel systems; project aid through NGO/private providers; and multilateral aid.) The tools and resources section also gives an overview over some of the funding mechanisms and strategies used for disbursement of aid to the education sector: the Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP); the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC); the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs); ‘Education for All’ plans (EFA plans); and the Fast Track Initiative.

Donors are increasingly aware of the need to support education initiatives for all populations affected by conflict or disasters. However, maintaining adequate levels of funding for education in emergencies continues to face a number of challenges:


Donor funding structures can perpetuate institutional fragmentation. This is likely to impede the possibilities for integrated, coherent and holistic education sector development and planning. Similarly, foreign actors and donors can undermine the role of national/designated authorities in both education management and resource mobilization. Implementing arrangements outside the structures of national authorities such as Project Implementation Units (PIUs) sometimes deplete and erode national capacities. PIUs are special administrative units established outside normal bureaucratic structures to facilitate implementation of projects, usually funded by international agencies such as the World Bank.

Another frequent problem is the tendency of international agencies to recruit the most qualified national staff for their

own programmes, further eroding national operational and management capacity, and the authorities' ability to collaborate with and coordinate external partners. Underlying these challenges are donors' particular funding arrangements and disbursement mechanisms. Many donors place various forms of conditionality on the funding offered (see the definitions of conditionality and earmarking). Moreover, funding sources tend to shift as the emergency runs its course, with a stronger humanitarian focus at the beginning and development focus later. As a result, education often 'falls between the cracks' (see 'Relief versus development', below). In reality, education is a long-term investment in the development of human capital, as well as a short-term protection strategy, a contribution to psychosocial needs and a source of social stability.

RELIEF VERSUS DEVELOPMENT: COMPETING VISIONS?

The lack of funding represents one of the most serious constraints to the provision of education in situations of emergency and reconstruction. One of the reasons for this is the so-called relief-development gap. Until recently, the belief prevailed within the international aid community that "relief, rehabilitation and development were separate states in the development process, and that education belonged to the development stage". One official in a major donor agency interviewed explained the issue in the following way: "Development is about investing for the future" while "humanitarian aid is about saving lives now". Accordingly, "supporting development for tomorrow doesn't make sense when people are dying today".



“This relief-development dichotomy is an artificial one. People have only one life. Children need a quality education whether they are living in peaceful or conflicted societies. A more realistic approach is to consider socio-economic development as a single process that includes catastrophes, responses to them and recovery from them” (Talbot, 2002: 4).

Since many humanitarian agency officials consider education a development activity, funding for education is supposed to wait – even when the emergency continues for decades, as for example was the case in Southern Sudan. As this *Guidebook* clearly documents, education in emergencies can be both life-saving and life-sustaining. It can support conflict-resolution and peace-building and provides essential building blocks for the economic, social and political future of a country. Governments and educational authorities should communicate this message to potential donors. The *Minimum standards for education in emergencies and reconstruction* (INEE, 2004) is an invaluable tool in this regard. The handbook gives guidelines that will improve learning opportunities, and can assist in linking education programmes to psychosocial aid, shelter, health, water supply, sanitation, nutrition and security. At the same time, the handbook is designed to give governments and humanitarian workers the tools that they need to address the Education for All and UN Millennium Development Goals, bridging the efforts of the humanitarian response with long-term development goals.

Sources: INEE (2004); Sommers (2005); Sommers (2000: 36).

DEFINITIONS OF CONDITIONALITY AND EARMARKING

Conditionality generally has two objectives.

- To give the recipient government an incentive to implement a different set of policy measures during the time period specified in the programme.
- To record the understanding between the government and donor partners on those policy measures to be implemented by the government.

In times of financial crisis for countries that are highly dependent on aid, conditionality may force governments to implement policy measures with which it disagrees. However, evaluations of such conditionality show that the implementation is more effective and sustainable when recipients adhere to the conditions as result of convictions rather than coercion. **Conditional aid** should benefit the budgets of the specific departments that have the power to ensure that the conditions are met. **General or macro level conditionality** may be appropriate in circumstances where the constraints to sustained poverty reduction must be tackled through action by all the central departments of the government. Likewise, **sectoral and sub-national conditionality** may be used to support policy changes within sectoral departments.

Earmarking limits the types of programmes or project that can benefit from the aid with the intention of changing spending patterns. Unlike conditionality, the incentives and disincentives are not optional; the funds will be spent in full if and only if the government fulfils its obligations. **Sector earmarking** occurs if the main focus of donors is on reforms, which are with the power of policymakers of a specific sector. In this case, if earmarked funds to one sector are denied, the government can compensate for this shortcoming using funds from different sectors. **Project earmarking** is even more specific and may occur where donors fear that the government may fail to ensure that specific categories of spending receive adequate priority.

Source: Foster and Leavy (2001: 14).

The challenges just listed are serious, but it is important to see the potential that lies in maintaining good donor relations. Negotiation with aid agencies is not a zero sum game (Hallak, 1995: 4). Often, circumstances, chance and the negotiating skills of the educational authorities can increase or decrease the total given to a programme or a project. In negotiations between donors and authorities or implementing agencies about funding for education in emergencies, both parts should keep the following key principles in mind:

- Donors and agencies should move toward needs-based resource identification and funding rather than supply-driven funding.
- Programming should be done according to the educational priorities of affected populations.
- The importance and urgency of education in emergency situations needs to be advocated.
- Education is a critical need during all phases of emergency, from the acute onset of an emergency; in protracted crises to the reintegration phase, reconstruction and development.
- There are critical links between the quality of the education delivered during acute phases, in the gradual and systematic rebuilding of education systems during protracted phases, and education delivery during early reconstruction and reintegration.



DONOR CONDITIONALITY AND EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN SUDAN

Many donors make respect for human rights and good governance a condition for aid. Sometimes, this conditionality limits budget support to the government only, but often it has wider implications. International providers of education in southern Sudan, for example, expressed concern with the poor human rights record of the Government of Sudan in Khartoum. As a result, many European governments, as well as the European Union, suspended funding support for Sudan during the late 1980s and early 1990s. Since there was no official recognition of the Sudan People's Liberation Movement or other movements in southern Sudan, the suspension applied equally to all parts of the country, the north and the south. The human rights record of one party in the war, in other words, has seriously and negatively affected donor assistance to Sudanese civilians regardless of their location. The offending party, in this case, was the national government.

At a time when the Education for All (EFA) movement has focused world attention on the rights of all children to access education, it is significant that such roadblocks remain so under-examined. In this case, international assistance for education can be limited during civil war either because the internationally recognized state government has a negative human rights record or because the rebel side, by definition, remains unrecognized. In the case of southern Sudan, both have applied and thus have negatively affected international assistance for education for Southern Sudanese.

Source: Sommers (2005) .

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Donor relations and funding sources

- 1. Establish national leadership for coordination of donors, including appointment of appropriate staff to work full time on this role.**
- 2. Strengthen the ministry's leadership role for donor coordination and aim to make the ministry responsible for the overall sector programme.**
- 3. Ensure that concerned staff are familiar with the roles, mandates, normal practices and limits of foreign actors and donors.**
- 4. Take steps to build mutual trust and confidence.**

Guidance notes

1. Establish national leadership for coordination of donors, including appointment of appropriate staff to work full time on this role.

- What are the management implications in assuming this role? Is there a need to establish a special unit for this purpose?
- Is there capacity within the educational authority to perform this function?
 - Is there a need for external support (e.g. secondment of staff from external agencies, provision of computer/Internet facilities)?
 - Are key staff being ‘poached’ by donors, NGOs or United Nations organizations?
- Has a senior national educator with good interpersonal and language skills been appointed to manage donor liaison?
- What will constitute the optimal mechanisms for such coordination?
 - Monthly/quarterly meetings
 - Frequent thematic/policy seminars
 - Separate meetings by types of donors (United Nations, bilaterals, NGOs, etc.)?
- Do parties share expectations regarding coordination meetings?
 - Have agenda and priorities been shared and agreed upon?
 - Is there a need to discuss and agree upon what should be the concrete output from such meetings? For example, joint programmes, common implementation arrangements and reporting, joint activities etc.?

- Are donors willing to respect the leadership role of educational authorities?
 - If not, why not? How can this problem be addressed?
 - Can a ministry representative be in charge of chairing the meeting?
- What are the medium- and long-term implications of current national leadership for sustained development of the education sector?



TRANSITIONAL RESULTS FRAMEWORK IN LIBERIA

“In August 2003, Liberia signed a comprehensive peace agreement. Three months later, a joint needs assessment mission took place, led by the United Nations Development Group and the World Bank. With participation from the transitional government, an innovative framework was produced, setting out the transition to stability. The [Results Focused Transitional Framework (RFTF)] addresses security, diplomacy, and development aspects such as education ... acknowledging that progress has to be made in all areas. Expected results were defined for every six months during the transition. Contributions by donors and the transitional government to achieving these results were laid out clearly. In this post-conflict environment, where needs are urgent and widespread, and capacity very low, the framework is the government’s tool for prioritizing and sequencing actions. It is also, importantly, supposed to serve as a means of communicating with the public and managing expectations. The implementation of the transitional results framework remains a challenge and expected results may need to be revised to be more realistic.”

“The RFTF ... effectively took the place of a Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) for 2005. At the end of 2004 both humanitarian and targeted transitional needs were integrated into the RFTF Humanitarian Appeal – requesting a total of \$246 million.”

Sources: DFID (2005: 19); Global IDP database (2005: 87).


2. Strengthen the ministry's leadership role for donor coordination and aim to make the ministry responsible for the overall sector programme.

- As authorities increase in capacity, transparency and effectiveness, are they asking donors to (re)allocate funding according to well-documented and legitimately derived national (rather than external) policy priorities?
- Are planned activities consistent with ongoing national and international education initiatives such as rights-based education, 'Education for All', poverty-reduction, gender equity and conflict prevention?



EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION IN POST-WAR KOSOVO: PARALLEL WORLDS

"Kosovo was inundated with donor funding. Aid agencies flooded into Kosovo, competing for "funding, territory, and human resources" (Mattich, 2001: 8). NATO's and the United Nation's entrance was a media event, a sensational story, and it often seemed that every NGO and Western donor government wanted a part of the action. One Kosovar Albanian hired early by UNMIK called the arrival of NGOs from a wide array of countries an 'invasion'. Aid agencies experienced "an incredible pressure to act and be seen as 'doing something,'" which became "an impediment to pursuing participatory strategies" (Mattich, 2001: 33). A related factor was the urgency to rebuild the thousands of houses, schools, and hospitals that had been destroyed during or before NATO's campaign, before the cold winter months arrived. One aid official, who has worked in Kosovo since the summer of 1999, observed that one result was that "NGOs built with no community input." This applied to those previously involved with the parallel system of education [the period 1989-1998, where Albanians and Serbs ran separate education systems].



“During the parallel-system years,” the official continued, “the Albanians did everything themselves.” But in this early post-war stage, “the expectation that the NGOs would do everything meant that Albanians could step back and let them do it.” In the view of this official, and those of many Albanian educators interviewed, the opportunity to access the parallel system’s potential to mobilize communities in co-ordination with international agents was lost, a precursor to what eventually surfaced as the distancing of parallel education officials from education decision-making. At the same time, there were some reports of good working relations between international agencies and Kosovar community members during this period. In addition, in villages where outside agencies were not present, Kosovar communities organized themselves to clean up and repair their schools.”

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 51–52).

3. Ensure that concerned staff are familiar with the roles, mandates, normal practices and limits of foreign actors and donors.

- Are there national rules and regulations that donors and other external actors should follow in conducting their operations?
 - Is there a need for a review or redesign of such instruments?
 - To what extent are partners aware of these rules?
 - Is there a need for discussion and dissemination of these rules and regulations?
- Are foreign actors registered with the authority?
 - Is there a need for such a registry, and are partners willing to cooperate and provide the necessary information?
 - Does capacity exist for registry and monitoring? Can

this function be delegated to donors or NGOs? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.11*, ‘Coordination and communication’).

- Ensure that national staff have access to and study the websites and annual reports of key international donors and agencies.
- Ensure that national staff are familiar with the process of the consolidated appeals process, where relevant, and have studied some past appeals.



FUNGIBILITY, CONDITIONALITY AND EARMARKING

“Aid is said to be **Fungible** when Government offsets donor spending on a particular purpose by reducing its own expenditure on the same purpose. For example, donor funding earmarked to [education] will not increase total education spending if Government reduces its own [education] spending, and reduces the funds thus released for some other purpose.

Fungibility means that total public spending (both Government and donor financed) is adjusted to reflect the priorities of the national Government rather than the unco-ordinated preferences which emerge from large numbers of donor projects. If Government and donors are in agreement on budget priorities, then fungibility is welcome, and ensures that the agreed budget priorities can be implemented. If donors disagree with Government spending priorities, they can try to influence them through policy dialogue, through conditionality, or by earmarking their aid. Depending on the stage in the budget cycle at which earmarking takes place and Government reactions to it, it may be capable of changing allocations between or within sectors, or the extent to which aspects of the finally approved budget are actually executed. It requires strong assumptions regarding the efficiency of the budget process and the relative power of the finance ministry before donor earmarking is rendered entirely impotent.”

Source: Foster and Leavy (2001: 14).

4. Take steps to build mutual trust and confidence.

- Do donors channel funds through the authorities?
 - If not, why? What steps need to be taken for this to happen?
 - Is there a lack of confidence in the accounting and reporting system or implementation capacity?
 - Can donors assist in addressing these weaknesses?
- Is there a clear understanding of what constitutes obligations and duties on both sides in the monitoring and reporting process?
- Is there a problem with transparency? If so, how can it be addressed? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.4, ‘Legal frameworks’, and Chapter 5.8, ‘Budget and financial management’)
- To what extent are donors prepared and willing to adjust to changing needs and priorities?
 - Does the national government have the authority to amend or reject donors/NGOs involvement in educational reconstruction if their priorities do not reflect national plans?
 - Are donor and NGO activities sufficiently well regulated and defined?
- To what extent can reporting requirements be harmonized?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Types of financial aid

- **Balance of payments support** provides finance in support of a programme of policy reform, usually agreed upon by the government with the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. The emphasis is put on the policy actions which the government has agreed to implement, with little if any attention to how the finances would be used. No restrictions are placed on the use of the foreign exchange, and there is no formal accounting for how the aid is used.
- **General budget support** can be thought of as a sub-category of balance of payments support except that instead of receiving foreign exchange to support its outstanding payments, the aid is used to increase the domestic currency balance of the receiving government. These funds are then freely available to the government and can be used to raise spending, reduce borrowing, or reduce taxes. The conditions typically include agreement to the overall budget priorities as defined by a medium-term budget and expenditure framework.
- **Aid-funded debt relief** reduces the accumulated debt obligations that governments are expected to meet in the future. This can encourage private-sector investment and decrease government dependency on donor funds. Debt relief permanently increases the financial resources available to the government. It can be subject to conditionality but, once granted, it cannot be reversed, and the government is free to decide how to allocate the additional resources.

- **Sectoral budget support** is earmarked to help finance an agreed sector expenditure plan. Donors normally require an agreed policy and expenditure plan for the sector but the funds are allocated and accounted for through government systems.
- **Project aid using government systems** provides more specific earmarking for a discrete set of activities. Donors will expect that coherent objectives, inputs and outputs will be defined for each activity. This form of aid can be a part of government budgets, subject to government policy conditions, and disbursed and accounted for by government systems.
- **Project aid using parallel systems** involve spending proposals for which donors have taken the lead, decided the inputs that are to be provided, and use their own disbursement and accountability procedures.
- **Project aid through NGO/private providers** involves subsidizing activities carried out by non-governmental organizations. This type of donor involvement is used in situations of market failure, or when NGOs propose projects that are cost-effective and provide better access to an important service. This implies using competition to ensure that the ‘user’ benefits from the subsidies.
- **Multilateral aid** is disbursed by ‘international financial institutions’ such as the IMF and the World Bank. These are financed and controlled by their member countries. The IMF promotes development through an expansion of world trade whilst the IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) and IDA (International Development Association) which are grouped as the World Bank, provide low-interest loans, interest-free credit, and grants to developing countries. With the United Nations Millennium Declaration, there has been increased commitment from the IFIs to be

more poverty focused and provide greater volumes of ODA (official development assistance) with enhanced developing country participation/ownership in IFI funded projects.

Sources: DFID (2005); Foster and Leavy (2001);
IMF (2005); OCHA (2005).

2. Different funding mechanisms

- **The Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP)** is a mechanism used by aid organizations to plan, implement and monitor their activities. In 1991, following a problematic response to the plight of Iraqi Kurdish refugees in the wake of the first Gulf War, the United Nations General Assembly created the consolidated appeals. As a planning mechanism, the CAP is supposed to foster a more strategic approach to the provision of humanitarian aid and closer cooperation between governments, donors, aid agencies, and a range of other humanitarian organizations. Working together in the world's crisis regions, aid organizations produce a Common Humanitarian Action Plan (CHAP) and an appeal, which they present to the international community and donors. Consolidated appeal documents provide a snapshot of a situation and present aid agencies' financial requirements. In 2005, 100 NGOs, the International Federation of Red Cross and the Red Crescent societies, the International Organization for Migration, and 20 United Nations agencies are part of the CAP.
- **The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)** initiative is a comprehensive approach to debt reduction for heavily indebted poor countries pursuing IMF- and World Bank-supported adjustment and reform programmes. Countries' continued efforts toward macroeconomic adjustment

and structural and social policy reforms – including higher spending on social sector programmes like basic health and education – are now central to the enhanced HIPC Initiative. To be considered for HIPC Initiative assistance, a country must:

- Face an unsustainable debt burden, beyond traditionally available debt-relief mechanisms.
 - Establish a track record of reform and sound policies through IMF- and World Bank-supported programmes.
 - Have developed a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) through a broad-based participatory process (an interim strategy is sufficient to begin the process).
- **Poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs)** were introduced by the World Bank and the IMF and constitute a framework for development assistance beyond the operation of the international financial institutions. Based on the principle of country self-help and support from the international community, they integrate poverty analysis, public policy, macroeconomic policies, budgetary process and monitoring systems in a participatory manner. Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) are prepared by governments in low-income countries through a participatory process involving domestic stakeholders as well as external development partners, including the IMF and the World Bank. A PRSP describes the macroeconomic, structural and social policies and programmes that a country will pursue over several years to promote broad-based growth and reduce poverty, as well as external financing needs and the associated sources of financing.
 - **‘Education for All’ (EFA) plans** show donor agencies that governments have made long-term plans for the development of the education sector. According to the Dakar Framework for Action, all States should have “develop[ed]

or strengthen[ed] existing national plans of action by 2002 at the latest” building on existing national education sector development strategies. These plans should be integrated into a wider poverty reduction and development framework, and should be developed through transparent and democratic processes, involving all relevant stakeholders, especially peoples’ representatives, community leaders, parents, learners, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society.

- **The Fast Track Initiative (FTI)** was launched in 2002. It was designed as a major donor initiative to help countries achieve the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of Education for All (EFA) by 2015. The initiative provides additional and better coordinated external assistance to countries that may lack financial resources and capacity, but have development plans that demonstrate a serious commitment to implementing policy and institutional reforms. The Fast Track Initiative encompasses all major donors for education – more than 30 bilateral, regional and international agencies and development banks. It requires countries to have:
 - An approved national poverty reduction strategy, or a similar national strategy that would help ensure that education strategies are anchored in country level consultative and budgetary processes.
 - A sector-wide programme for education agreed with in-country donors and including a strategy for HIV and AIDS, gender equality, capacity building, monitoring and evaluation.
 - Agreement to monitor benchmark indicators.
- **A Sector Wide Approach (SWAp)** implies that all significant public funding for the sector supports a single sector policy and expenditure programme, under government leadership,

adopting common approaches across the sector. SWAps aim to use government procedures to disburse and account for all public expenditure, however funded. The working definition focuses on the intended direction of change rather than just the current attainment.

Sources: Brown *et al.* (2000); DFID (2005); Foster and Leavy (2001); IMF (2005); OCHA (2005); Caillods and Hallak (2004).

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Chapter **5.11**

COORDINATION AND COMMUNICATION

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To contribute to the efficient planning and management of education service delivery.**
- **To encourage participation in education on the part of learners and communities, various levels and sectors of government/authority and international and United Nations agencies, and NGOs.**
- **To ensure that government and all non-governmental partners work together to provide access to quality education programmes for the emergency-affected populations, in a spirit of cooperation and with agreed procedures and priorities.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Coordination is not easy, and it normally requires initial resources and investments. Even the term itself is disputed, and it is not clear what makes it happen. Antonio Donini, an officer at the United Nations Secretariat, suggests at least three categorizations: ‘Coordination by demand’ involves a leadership authority, reinforced by sticks and/or carrots. ‘Coordination by consensus’, on the other hand, uses less authority and requires more persuasion. Finally, there is ‘coordination by default’, which has very few structures for orchestrating concerted action. Coordination by demand is not a realistic option for donors or for the United Nations itself. The best that can be hoped for, Donini claims, is coordination by consensus in which “UN organizations and various NGOs would at least share information and attempt to avoid duplication”. In this context, it is not realistic to think that the educational authority of a crisis-stricken country can command its partners or donors to coordinate (Sommers, 2004: 25).

In situations of emergencies or reconstruction, the capacity of national educational authorities to coordinate activities and to manage communication is often already quite weak. None the less, it is important for the government or authority to take as much of a leadership role as possible in coordinating delivery of services and managing the education system. Especially in the early phases, this will require careful negotiations with donors and service agencies (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.10, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms’). Communication is central to this effort. When the government is unable to assume full responsibilities, the relevant UN agency, sometimes in partnership with NGOs or bilateral agencies, may assume

temporary leadership, still giving as much responsibility as possible to government, while ensuring attention to emergency needs.

Unfortunately, coordination in early phases of a crisis tends to be limited to the exchange of information and the division of labour, often assigned by territory and/or area of intervention. In early phases of acute/complex emergencies, the Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) plays a critical role. Unfortunately, UN coordination through humanitarian and resident coordinators does not always include non-UN actors. In major emergencies, the World Bank and regional development banks may work in partnership with the United Nations to organize joint needs assessments in the emergency-affected country/region, as well as calling donors together for pledging conferences (see also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 5.10, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms').

Coordination of programmes is difficult if there are many external actors. Some education programmes (depending upon the school level serviced, the type of programme provided, or the region in which services are provided) may attract more donor funding than others. External education providers may provide different services in their respective locations, causing misunderstanding and leaving needs unmet.

To avoid *ad hoc*, unpredictable humanitarian responses, with inevitable capacity and response gaps, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) formally established a Global Education Cluster in December 2006. An Education Cluster Working Group (ECWG) was set up in September 2008 to lead its coordination mechanism globally. Like the clusters for sectors such as Emergency Shelter, Health, Water, Sanitation

and Hygiene, the Education Cluster is an open platform made up of representatives from organizations working on emergency preparedness and response in emergencies and early recovery – specifically focused on the coordination of response efforts in such contexts.

At a global level, the Education Cluster is co-led by UNICEF and the Save the Children Alliance and works to promote and enable continuity of quality education in emergencies and emergency-prone situations by strengthening the comprehensive preparedness and technical capacity of international agencies and ministries of education to respond to humanitarian emergencies. In this way the Global Education Cluster strives to ensure greater predictability and more effective responses in education in the main areas of standards, policy, response capacity and operational support (ECWG, 2009a).

At the country level, the cluster approach is intended to strengthen rather than replace sectoral coordination under the overall leadership of the Humanitarian Coordinator, with a view to improving humanitarian response in emergency situations (IASC, 2006). (See the ‘Tools and Resources’ section of this chapter for more information on the responsibilities of sector/cluster leads at the country level). As of May 2009, 28 countries had established an Education Cluster. Several of these clusters have minimized/discontinued activities as the respective crises have entered the recovery phase.

The Ministry of Education has taken on a formal co-lead role in five of these country-level clusters.




THE EDUCATION CLUSTER IN SRI LANKA

In recent months, parts of Sri Lanka have faced an increasing humanitarian crisis due to intensified conflict. Displacement in the north has led to a critical shortage of classroom and teaching space, with schools functioning under difficult circumstances and others being used as centres for the displaced. In the east, a process of re-settlement and rebuilding is following the long period of conflict, with teacher shortages the biggest educational challenge.

The Education Cluster thus operates in very different ways in the different parts of the country. At a national level, the Education Cluster is led by UNICEF and Save the Children and operates within the framework of the country's Common Humanitarian Action Plan (CHAP). In the north, where there has been intensified conflict, access in the controlled areas and coordination with the education authorities is challenging. In the east, the Cluster is now seen more as a regular coordination mechanism for education programming and is led by the Department of Education. The Education Cluster feeds into the Consultative Committee for Humanitarian Affairs (CCHA), specifically through the CCHA sub group on Education. Cluster leads work closely with the Ministry of Education on these task teams.

Highlights of 2008 included:

- Formalising the Education Cluster at national and sub-national levels (holding regular meetings, rapid response planning, developing ToR [terms of reference], publishing on the OCHA Humanitarian Portal).
- Being granted CERF funding for emergency response in the north.
- Provision of Temporary Learning Spaces in areas of displacement, education supplies for children and teachers, ECCD [early childhood care and development] provision in Child Friendly Spaces, bicycles to children to enable them to sit key examinations.
- Training 25 participants (from Cluster members and the Education Department) on the INEE Minimum Standards



and development of a further strategic capacity building programme.

- Through advocacy, providing education supplies into the Vanni area, responding to flood disaster in different parts of the country.
- Established a working group (as a sub-group of the Education Cluster) on Emergency preparedness in schools, bringing together and harmonising the various national programmes of Emergency Preparedness and Disaster Risk Reduction, working with the Ministry of Education.
- Playing a role in CCHA sub groups on teacher deployment, examinations (in the conflict affected areas), developing Home Learning Modules for children who cannot go to school every day due to the security situation, and taking forward recommendations on a report on the Right of IDP [internally displaced person] children to education.

Source: ECWG (2009c).

Humanitarian Information Centres (HICs) contribute to coordination efforts by providing a framework for information management with the humanitarian community, as described in the box below.



HUMANITARIAN INFORMATION CENTRES AND EDUCATION

In a rapidly changing emergency situation, a Humanitarian Information Centre (HIC) may be an effective means of co-ordination within the education sector, through the provision of information products and services. When high turnover within humanitarian organizations and poor communications infrastructure make co-ordination difficult, these centres can support the decision-making process at headquarters and in the field by contributing to the creation of a common framework for information management within the humanitarian community.



The HIC web site for Liberia was operational from 2003 to 2006, and contained national 'school details for current month' information sheets, a school facilities update form, as well as information on UNICEF's back-to-school programme. 'Who does what where' reports on education and school maps were also featured. The HIC formally transitioned into the National Information Management Centre (NIMAC) Project in 2006, which is jointly administered by the Government of Liberia and UNDP.

HIC Sumatra was deployed to Banda Aceh in January 2005 immediately following the tsunami as a common service to the humanitarian community working in Sumatra and the surrounding countries. As the relief efforts transitioned into recovery and development, the focus of the HIC shifted as well. In September 2005 the HIC was re-named the United Nations Information Management System (UNIMS), concurrent with the establishment of the Office of the United Nations Recovery Coordinator for Aceh and Nias (UNORC) to support the Government of Indonesia in its reconstruction efforts.

The Myanmar HIC, deployed in May 2008, provides information to the humanitarian community responding to the impact of Cyclone Nargis on the people of Myanmar. The site aggregates information from the IASC Clusters and their members, as well as providing operationally focused documents, maps, contact information and meeting details.

Humanitarian Information Centres have also been established by the OCHA in Kosovo, Afghanistan, Sierra Leone, Eritrea, and the occupied Palestinian territories, among others.

Sources: HIC and Partners (2009); Sida and Szpak (2004).

National authorities sometimes establish separate management structures for aid administration, such as Project Implementation Units (PIUs). In the case of refugees, they may be administered under a ministry concerned with internal/home affairs rather than individual ministries for health, education, water supply, etc. Under these circumstances, there can be poor communication with the national education ministry.

Civil conflict represents a particular challenge to communication and coordination within affected countries and regions. Depending on the causes of the emergency, government authorities may not be best placed to serve the needs of children in affected areas or to coordinate response. Because government resources and attention are likely to be diverted from education during crises, NGOs often provide services and serve as de facto educational authorities in local areas. Even though ongoing emergency conditions make communication and coordination difficult, they are essential to providing effective and efficient services and to building an institutional base for reconstruction and development.

IDPs' needs may vary according to the cause, origin and destination of displacement, and as a result of the disruption and insecurity



BACK TO SCHOOL AFTER THE TSUNAMI

Following the tsunami of December 2004, the hard hit fishing village of Ban Nam Kem, Thailand was looking for ways to bring children back to school. Communities and agencies created coordination mechanisms to respond to the challenges brought about by the calamity.

About a quarter of the village school's 400 students were missing or had been killed. Another quarter of the students stayed home immediately after the natural disaster. Access to school proved to be difficult as most of Ban Nam Kem's surviving students lived in a relief camp three kilometres away. When many failed to turn up for class on the first day of school following the tsunami, UNICEF met with local officials and teachers to consider how to get them back to school. In a partnership between UNICEF and the Thai military, military transport trucks were turned into school buses. From then on, military convoys took children to school, and back again to their temporary home in the camp.

Source: Adapted from Relief Web (2005).

may not be well communicated to the educational authorities. Coordination and communication across borders, educational authorities, United Nations organizations and other assisting agencies is essential for smooth reintegration of returnees. Non-governmental education providers need to communicate with officials about the urgency and importance of IDP and refugee education, and about the role of the community in mobilizing their own resources, especially teachers. Policy guidelines for equitable treatment of returnees and non-migrants must also be communicated to remote locations.

In the acute phases of an emergency, communication is likely to break down, affecting the collective response. Communication channels may be used to promote particular political interests, which may not necessarily be in line with learners' needs. Amongst educational authorities, communication between different management and organization levels may be disrupted or inefficient, resulting in fragmentation of the system. The presence of a number of external humanitarian organizations often leads to parallel coordination and communication systems set up to meet the needs of competing or parallel authorities.

Whenever possible, the education ministry needs to direct coordination of education delivery and reconstruction. Otherwise, the relevant UN agency may have to assume interim leadership, or the United Nations and NGOs working in partnership with government/authority. Unless there is strong coordination, different assistance agencies may seek to impose their own organization's priorities in the areas where they are operational. Some agencies have mandates or policies that limit their role (agencies may, for example, focus on young children/primary education, or refugees, and only be able to provide short-term support for returnees).



COORDINATION AND THE LACK OF IT

“While co-ordination is essentially a method of getting institutions to work together, it is clearly not synonymous with togetherness. Undercurrents of suspicion and distrust between individuals and institutional actors can affect important relationships and give rise to enduring misunderstandings and perplexing challenges. Turf battles involving huge international institutions are a real life illustration of the African adage: ‘When elephants fight, the grass suffers’. In terms of co-ordination: war-affected, displaced, disempowered and traumatized communities constitute the grass.”

Source: Sommers (2004: 15).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies Coordination and communication

1. **Assess coordination and communication needs.**
2. **Consider whether there is a need to strengthen the ministry’s coordination and communication capacities.**



3. **Where the system is seriously fragmented and under the control of different or competing authorities, ensure educational activities are coordinated, to the extent possible, with regard to the best interests of learners.**
4. **Develop policies in a coordinated manner, in consultation with major actors and then communicate them clearly.**
5. **During return and early reconstruction, consolidate coordination mechanisms among all actors who have been involved in education during the crisis and protracted phases. Provide clear messages on how the mechanisms can be aligned with the emerging priorities of the system under transformation.**

Guidance notes

See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for the INEE minimum standards dealing with coordination.

1. Assess coordination and communication needs.

- Have the various actors, their education-related activities, and their coordination and communication needs – both sending and receiving – been mapped? (See the ‘Tools and

Resources' section of this chapter for the Education Cluster Capacity Mapping Tool.)

- Mapping should include:
 - Educational authorities, at central, regional, district and school levels.
 - Other government ministries.
 - Communities.
 - Local, national and international NGOs.
 - UN organizations, international development aid agencies.
 - Professional organizations such as INEE.
 - Exiles.
- Does a coordination mechanism such as an Education Cluster exist?
 - If so, are there linkages between the education sector coordination mechanism and other sector coordination mechanisms?
 - When possible, government authorities should take the lead of the coordination mechanism. If there is a lack of government capacity, ensure that a representative of the local authority is on the coordinating body.
- How effective is coordination between national authorities and international partners?
 - What communications strategy can facilitate better coordination?
 - What technology is available to support communication? (For more information on the potential uses of technology in coordination efforts, see the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.8, 'Technology'*).
- How effective is coordination among international partners (UN agencies, donors, NGOs)?

- What communications strategy can facilitate better coordination?
- How effective is coordination between educational authorities and other sectors or ministries?
 - What communications strategy can facilitate better coordination?
- How effective is coordination within the education system?
 - Within the education ministry?
 - Between central authorities and regions, districts and schools?
 - Horizontally across regions, districts, schools?
 - What communications strategy can facilitate better coordination?
- How effective is coordination within communities, between communities and civil-society organizations, and among schools, civil society, and communities?
 - What communications strategy can facilitate better coordination?
- Assess the communications environment to establish best channels for communication.
 - How does communication currently take place for each of the pairings above?
 - What formal and informal channels and mechanisms of communication and dialogue are in current use?
 - Do all actors know each other's communication mechanisms? Especially those of educational authorities?
 - Does information flow sufficiently? Does it flow top-down? Bottom-up? Horizontally?
 - In the case of a major emergency, is there a communications focal point or communications officer monitoring

- development and implementation of a communications strategy?
- Where is the officer located?
 - What organizational authority and resources does he/she have?
- Is there a need to develop an overall communications strategy?
 - Would more frequent meetings between certain stakeholders contribute to better understanding and resource mobilization?
- Assess the communications between educational authorities/ education providers and learners, communities and civil society.
 - Are learners, communities and civil society informed about all available learning opportunities?
 - Are there mechanisms for learners, communities and civil society to communicate their concerns to educational authorities?
 - Are there channels of communication with learners and communities to ensure respect for cultural sensitivities? That is, information campaigns, language sensitivity, other formal and informal communication channels?
 - Have arrangements been made for community leaders and civil-society organizations to assist in disseminating and explaining appropriate messages regarding reconstruction of the system?
 - Are there ways to involve communities and civil society actively in dialogue about the shape of the reconstructed system?
 - Are regional and local education system actors and teachers, etc., involved in the formulation and dissemination of messages?



THE NEED FOR COORDINATED EDUCATION SUPPORT: THE CASE OF EASTERN ZAIRE

“Schools started by refugee, IDP or other war-affected communities may be seen as heroic efforts to claim and assert the right of their children to access education. As such, they are worthy of energetic and appropriate international and national government support. The issue of coordination and support is important, because without it, the schools may find other benefactors. The case of Rwandan refugees in former Eastern Zaire is instructive:

‘Left uncontrolled and uncoordinated, the many refugee-led schools in Eastern Zaire became sites for sinister teachings. An education expert described how ... international humanitarian agency officials “weren’t interested in education, [so] the government-in-exile ran the schools” ... Reserved for young Rwandan Hutu elites, it was widely assumed that the schools emphasized the sort of ethnically based version of Rwandan history that [had] provided the rationale for ethnic genocide. The official concluded by declaring that the Eastern Zaire case provided “the strongest argument for why we need to [provide] emergency education support that is timely and involved”.’

It should be noted that the situation was eventually addressed by international agencies in the area, at least to some degree. As Bird (2003) has noted, ‘At the early phase of the refugee crisis in [the former Zaire], UNHCR refused to support any education activities ... However, by early 1995 [perhaps a half year later], UNHCR did start to provide minimal support for [refugee education].’”

Source: Sommers (2004: 40).

2. Consider whether there is a need to strengthen the ministry's coordination and communication capacities.

- Is there a need for training and resources to facilitate better communication within the system?
- Does the government need more access to computers, internet, etc.?
- Is external assistance needed to strengthen coordination and communications capacity?
- Are there development partners willing and able to help develop and implement a coordination strategy with the authority?
- Will development of such a strategy be undertaken within government structures so as to develop the government's capacity to lead the coordination and communications function? Will steps be taken to ensure funding for any necessary positions and training?
- Has the option of using an assistant seconded from a UN agency or NGO been considered during the developmental stage?

3. Where the system is seriously fragmented and under the control of different or competing authorities, ensure educational activities are coordinated, to the extent possible, having regard for the best interests of learners.

- Are there development partners, other agencies and sectors that can help get simple directives and messages regarding interim education arrangements to other education providers?

- Is there an international agency that can work across lines of conflict (or national borders) to communicate messages about basic educational assumptions and values that transcend conflict issues, foster system coherence, limit fragmentation and protect learners' interests?
- Are there national rules and regulations that donors and other external actors should follow in conducting their operations?
 - Is there a need for a review or redesign of such instruments?
 - To what extent are partners aware of these rules?
 - Is there a need for discussion and dissemination of these rules and regulations?
- Are foreign actors registered with the authority?
 - Is there a need for such registration, and are partners willing to cooperate and provide the necessary information?
 - Does capacity exist for registration and monitoring? Can this function be delegated to donors or NGOs? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.10*, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms').

4. Develop policies in a coordinated manner, in consultation with major actors, and then communicate them clearly.

- Ensure that simple, clear messages about any major initiatives to restart or adjust education programmes are made accessible to communities and civil society (community groups, NGOs, religious organizations – through radio, posters, or leaders, depending on context and available means of communication).

- Is there a need to launch a ‘back-to-school’ campaign? What key information will need to be included in communications around such a campaign?
- If a back-to-school campaign is coordinated by a ‘lead agency’, what key messages need to be communicated to ensure popular support for a return to school? To ensure that schools do not exacerbate conflicts?

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for ten suggestions for effective project communication.)

5. During return and early reconstruction, consolidate coordination mechanisms among all actors who have been involved in education during the crisis and protracted phases. Provide clear messages on how the mechanisms can be aligned with the emerging priorities of the system under transformation.

- Is there good coordination and communication between the education ministry departments/other ministries/special councils, etc., responsible for schooling, higher education, technical education, teacher training institutions, non-formal education?
- Is there a simple ‘mission statement’ that captures the emerging vision of educational authorities regarding education reconstruction to be presented to development partners and citizens?
 - Is the mission related to the authority’s long-term strategy for education priorities?
- Do existing coordination mechanisms provide opportunities for agencies to articulate how their programmes will adapt to reflect the emerging education priorities?

- Are there mechanisms in place to ensure linkage of education programmes with other relevant sectors?
- Have the linkages among conflict prevention, education and wider reconstruction been made explicit for consideration by national authorities and key ministries that will determine the broader reconstruction priorities?
- Is the education authority working with its development partners to communicate a broad vision for education reconstruction to be discussed in sector development planning and wider development strategy? (Is there a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, for example?) (See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section of the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.10*, ‘Donor relations and funding mechanisms’).
- Is any needed cross-border communication taking place, and are issues of certification and validation being addressed in these discussions?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE Minimum standards for education policy and coordination¹

Standard 3: Coordination

There is a transparent coordination mechanism for emergency education activities, including effective information sharing between stakeholders.

1. Source: INEE (2004: 77–78).

Key indicators

- Educational authorities establish an inter-agency coordination committee for current and future emergency response, which assumes the major role in planning and coordinating emergency education activities.
- When the education authority is not present or is unable to lead coordination, an interagency coordination committee provides guidance and coordination of education activities and programmes.
- Authorities, donors and other agencies establish financing structures that are coordinated with and support activities of education stakeholders.
- A common statement of coordination aims, indicators and monitoring procedures is in place, and all education actors commit themselves to work within that framework and make key information and statistics available in the public domain.
- Affected communities are authorized and able to participate in decision-making that directly affects them, particularly in policy or programme formulation, implementation and monitoring.
- A transparent and active mechanism exists for sharing information across sectors and between key national and international stakeholders.

Guidance notes

1. **Inter-agency coordination committee**

Representatives should include a wide spectrum of stakeholders, wherever possible under the leadership of

the education authority. Coordination committees may be needed at regional, national, district or local levels, depending on the nature of the emergency. Where educational authorities lack capacity or legitimacy, leadership may be assigned by agreement to different agencies, but a representative of the local authority should always be a member of the committee. As soon as conditions permit, responsibility for coordination should be transferred to the appropriate authorities.

2. Financing

Sufficient funds are required for successful and timely implementation of education programmes in emergencies. Every effort should be made to ensure transparent and coordinated approaches to financing, especially where salary payment systems for teacher compensation are inadequate or non-functional. Emergency financing arrangements should take into consideration local labour market conditions and traditions and should avoid setting precedents that cannot be sustained.

3. Key coordination challenges

These should be identified and addressed from an early stage in the emergency phase, in order to achieve a cost-effective approach that leads to sustainable and harmonized future education services. Issues may include teacher training, certification and payment; curriculum and related components (textbooks and teaching and learning aids); and structuring and recognition of schooling and examinations.

4. Joint policy development and training workshops

These should be developed collaboratively with educational authorities and external actors to ensure good

communications, promote collaboration and commitment to a shared vision, and enhance the overall development of the education system.

2. Responsibilities of sector/cluster leads at the country level²

The role of sector leads at the country level is to facilitate a process aimed at ensuring well-coordinated and effective humanitarian responses in the sector or area of activity concerned. Sector leads themselves are not expected to carry out all the necessary activities within the sector or area of activity concerned. They are required, however, to commit to being the ‘provider of last resort’ where this is necessary and where access, security and availability of resources make this possible. ... Specific responsibilities of sector leads at the country level include ensuring the following:

- Inclusion of key humanitarian partners.
- Establishment and maintenance of appropriate humanitarian coordination mechanisms.
- Coordination with national/local authorities, state institutions, local civil society and other relevant actors.
- Participatory and community-based approaches.
- Attention to priority cross-cutting issues (e.g. age, diversity, environment, gender, HIV and AIDS, and human rights).
- Needs assessment and analysis.
- Emergency preparedness.

2. Source: IASC (2006: 7).

- Planning and strategy development.
- Application of standards.
- Monitoring and reporting.
- Advocacy and resource mobilization.
- Training and capacity building.
- Provision of assistance or services as a last resort.

Sector leads have a particular responsibility for ensuring that humanitarian actors working in their sectors remain actively engaged in addressing cross cutting concerns such as age, diversity, environment, gender, HIV and AIDS, and human rights. Experience of recent crises suggests that these important dimensions to ensuring appropriate responses have too frequently been ignored.

Sector leads are responsible for ensuring the necessary shift in programming as priorities move from emergency relief to longer-term recovery and development. All sectoral groups should include early recovery strategies and procedures for phasing out or handing over activities. In addition, networks of early recovery focal points should be established at the country level to ensure joint planning and integrated response.

3. Education Cluster Capacity Mapping Tool: Education Coordination and Information³

- 1.1. Have your emergency education responses ever been constrained by the following?

3. Source: ECWG (2009b).

	NO CON- STRAINT	OCCA- SIONAL MILD CON- STRAINT	OCCA- SIONAL SEVERE CON- STRAINT	FRE- QUENT MILD CON- STRAINT	FRE- QUENT SEVERE CON- STRAINT	DON'T KNOW	NOT APPLIC- ABLE
Lack of baseline data for the affected area prior to the emergency							
Lack of assessment tools							
Lack of assessment data							
Assessment tools, but lack of staff expertise and capacity to use them							
Insufficient level of information concerning the affected area							
Uncertainty regarding the impact of the crisis on education infrastructure							
Lack of agency contingency planning							
Lack of government contingency planning							
Standard operating procedures for education							
Lack of clarity about who's doing what, where							
Lack of knowledge about who all the national and local actors are who are involved in education/emergency education							
Lack of technical expertise/guidelines about how to respond							
Lack of data on the number of people affected							
Lack of maps of the affected area							
Level of the existing education infrastructure							
Lack of information on what other clusters/sectors are doing							
Other (please list)							
Implications for education in emergencies?							

1.2. To what extent have the following issues constrained education in emergencies responses?

	NO CON- STRAINT	OCCA- SIONAL MILD CON- STRAINT	OCCA- SIONAL SEVERE CON- STRAINT	FRE- QUENT MILD CON- STRAINT	FRE- QUENT SEVERE CON- STRAINT	DON'T KNOW	NOT APPLIC- ABLE
Differences in the policies of different agencies							
Coordination with the affected population							
The lack of a common response strategy for the cluster							
Coordination between emergency education agencies							
Coordination between different ministries in government							
Differences between government and agency policy							
Too many coordination meetings							
Coordination between emergency education and other sectors/clusters							
Government coordination with agencies							
Agency coordination with government							
Lack of a fully functioning EMIS at national level							
Lack of access to accurate EMIS data at provincial/district level							
Other (please list)							
Implications for education in emergencies?							

4. Ten suggestions for effective project communication

1. Project leaders must see themselves and be seen as chief project communicators. They should lead the project's communication programme, speak on behalf of the project and organize other credible persons to do the same.
2. Every project requires a 'communications unit', at least one additional person charged with ensuring communication actually takes place. If the designated person is untrained in communication skills (beyond journalism or public/media relations), some training may be required. The communications unit will require clear support by the project leader, senior personnel and stakeholders. Some projects may even create a communications committee made up of representatives of internal and external publics. This is frequently done for specific events, e.g. launches, campaigns, etc., but is useful as part of normal project management.
3. Communication has costs (time, labour, expertise, materials, media, etc.), which should be explicitly budgeted as part of necessary project resources.
4. Communication is more effective when planned in a systematic and strategic fashion, with objectives, target groups, timing, channels/media to be used, costs, etc. Because communication is often unplanned, many communication efforts tend to be haphazard exercises in 'fire-fighting', crisis-oriented, and thus ineffective.
5. Communication is more than messages and mass-media appearances. Meetings, courtesy visits, working sessions, launches, all need to be carefully planned and evaluated. Local traditional structures (elders' groups, women's societies,

occupational groups) and folk media and performing arts (song, dance and dramatic entertainment) are also important vehicles for project visibility, and should be included in planning project communications.

6. Project communication should be participatory, whether for internal or external publics. This means involving relevant stakeholders in planning, implementation and evaluation of project activities, providing timely information, encouraging ideas and feedback. Participatory communication requires effort and will; it may take more time, but it can enhance solidarity, ownership, support and sustainability.
7. Communication should be evaluated, like all project inputs. Simple instruments and indicators can be used. Ask questions like: Did project staff and stakeholders think the monthly meeting was valuable? Were the assigned responsibilities understood? How many people heard the project being mentioned in radio programmes; at the ministry; in the local communities? What did parents learn from the dramatic sketch performed by schoolchildren at project launch?
8. Mass media are important for national and district projects. Journalists, editors and radio/television producers should be cultivated as partners, to generate their interest in the project, its objectives, activities and progress. These partners will require information: briefings by project personnel, visits to schools and access to other project sites, and interviews with stakeholders. Often ministries have bureaucratic procedures that inhibit journalists, delaying and even denying their access to project officials. More information to media is better than less. Anything deliberately hidden from the press can sooner or later be exposed. Some media reports may be sensational; most will seek to be factual and positive.

9. Community spokespersons are often credible sources of information on project achievements. Project beneficiaries should be encouraged to speak about their experiences with project activities and any gains they may have derived. They may also express some criticism of project activities and objectives. However, stakeholder participation in project communication activities is an effective weapon against vocal opposition by negative individuals and groups. The project communication unit should analyse stakeholder communications, incorporating suggestions, justifications and examples taken from them for use in future work.
10. Communication will not eliminate conflict; but it can help to reduce the climate of misunderstanding, suspicion and lack of trust that fuel conflict. If poor communication is one of the major reasons projects fail, good communication may contribute to project success.

Source: Opubor (2002).

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