GUIDEBOOK

FOR PLANNING EDUCATION

CD-ROM version

IN EMERGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

UNESCO

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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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 co-ordination, teacher management and integration of youth-at-risk, during emergencies and reconstruction.

IIEP has organized a wide round 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*, '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.

Mark Bray

Director, 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 co-operation 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 co-ordinate 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.

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Chapter 1

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 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. Thus, education is an essential element of response efforts to conflicts or crises (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003). 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 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 drafts of this *Guidebook*. Since then, the text has been reviewed, edited and enriched to produce the 38 chapters that now constitute the *Guidebook*. 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 start-of-the art review written by Margaret Sinclair (2002), entitled *Planning education in and after emergencies*. Complementing that work is a thematic study of co-ordination of education in emergencies and reconstruction (Sommers, 2004). Five published case studies, on Rwanda (Obura, 2003), education of Rwandan refugees (Bird,

2003), Kosovo (Sommers and Buckland, 2004), Timor Leste (Nicolai, 2004) and the Southern Sudanese (Sommers, 2005), have provided valuable material to illustrate the principles and guidance of the *Guidebook*.

This *Guidebook* is also intended for staff of United Nations 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 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 resume 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-governmental 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 2*, '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 six sections – two introductory sections and four thematic sections:

- Basics
- General overview
- Access and inclusion
- Teachers and learners

- Curriculum and learning
- Management capacity

In the 'Basics' 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, '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 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 the third chapter, 'Capacity building'. Many crosscutting topics, such as gender or peace education, have been treated in separate chapters in the *Guidebook*. However, the issue of capacity building is crosscutting 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 different chapters.

In the section entitled 'General overview', there is only one chapter: *Chapter 4*, '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 4* 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.

The last 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 co-ordinate 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 loose-leaf format. This permits users to refer to particular chapters without needing to carry the full *Guidebook* on all occasions. Nevertheless, there are frequent cross-references between *Guidebook* chapters, to allow readers to benefit to the maximum from the linkages between topics.

INEE: THE INTER-AGENCY NETWORK FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

The Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE) is an open network of United Nations agencies, NGOs, donors, practitioners, researchers and individuals from affected

populations working together to ensure the right to education in emergencies and post-crisis reconstruction. At a Strategy Session on Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis at the World Education Forum in Dakar, April 2000, a decision was taken to develop a process of inter-agency communication and co-operation in order to improve response to education in emergencies. INEE was then founded with the aim of promoting access and completion of education of quality 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.

As of September 2005, INEE had well over 1,000 individual members and more than 300 organizational members, representing a diverse array of organizations. At present, a steering group, composed of representatives from CARE International, 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.

This *Guidebook* is placed at the disposal of all INEE members on the IIEP web site:**www.unesco.org/iiep**

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 *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (MSEE). 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 4,* '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. Please send your feedback on any aspect of the *Guidebook* to **guidebook**@**iiep.unesco. org** – it will be taken into account in any future revision of the *Guidebook*.

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

December 2004 saw the launch of the first ever global standards for education in emergencies and early reconstruction. The *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (MSEE) were the result of a two-year consultative process, facilitated by the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), and involving over 2,250 individuals from more than 50 countries. The standards represent a universal tool to define a minimum level of educational quality and help ensure the right to education for people affected by crisis. It is thus both a practical handbook and an expression of the commitment that all individuals – children, youth and adults – have a right to education during emergencies. The minimum standards are built on the foundations of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the Dakar Education for All (EFA) framework, the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and the Sphere Project's Humanitarian Charter. Like the Sphere Project's Minimum Standards in Disaster Response, the standards are meant to be used as a capacity building and training tool. They will also enhance accountability and predictability among humanitarian actors, and improve co-ordination among partners, including educational authorities.

The handbook offers a set of minimum standards, key indicators and guidance notes that inform humanitarian action in the context of education, from the development of educational programmes to their implementation and continuity, as well as government and community support. 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 partnerships 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 MSEE working group is currently moving the MSEE process forward through the promotion, training, piloting, monitoring and evaluation of the standards. By September 2005, 17,500 handbooks had been distributed all over the world. Training materials have been developed on the standards and a process is under way to pilot and test the impact and quality of the standards in various emergency and reconstruction settings. Information on the standards and related activities can be found on **http://www.ineesite.org**

Source: INEE (2004).

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Chapter 2

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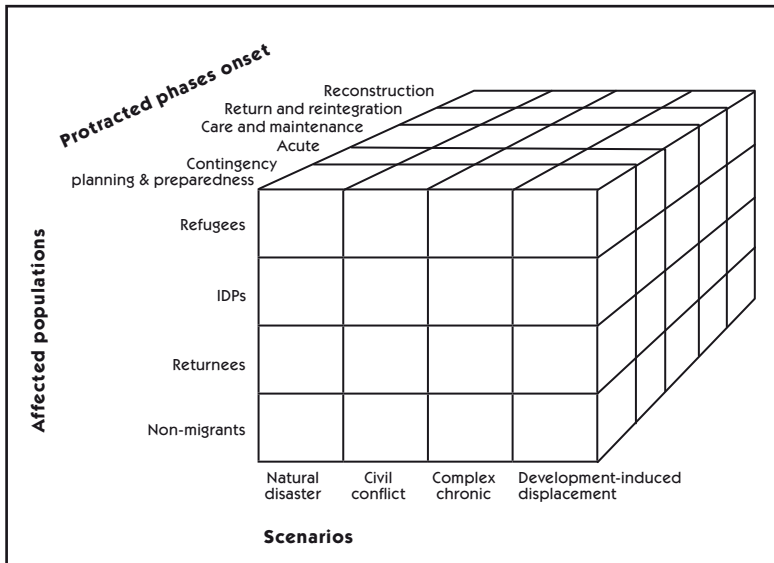
Source: IIEP (2005). Adapted from a model developed by Rob Fuderich of UNICEF and Peter Buckland of the World Bank.

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/AIDS, which spreads 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 co-operation 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 co-ordination. 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 co-ordinate 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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Chapter 3

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 28*, '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 37*, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms' and *Chapter 38*, 'Co-ordination 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).

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 28*, '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 34*, '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 35*, '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 15*, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers', *Chapter 18*,

'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods' and *Chapter 36*, '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 38*, 'Co-ordination and communication'.) Are the units being supported with training? With national or international technical assistance when needed?

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Chapter 4

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: § 7).

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 31*, '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*, '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 educationopportunities" (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 2*, 'Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction'.

SAFETY-RELATED REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	**WHAT CAN BE DONE?**	**GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS**
Concerns related to safety en route • 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	• 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	• *Chapter 6:* Gender • *Chapter 10:* Learning spaces and school facilities • *Chapter 11:* Open and distance learning • *Chapter 19:* Psychosocial support to learners
Concerns related to attending school • Parents are concerned that conditions in the school are insecure, especially for girls • Girls risk sexual harassment and abuse	• 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	• *Chapter 6:* Gender • *Chapter 10:* Learning spaces and school facilities • *Chapter 32:* Community participation
Concerns related to distance to school • Children have to walk too far to get to school	• 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	• *Chapter 5:* Rural populations • *Chapter 6:* Gender • *Chapter 8:* Children with disabilities • *Chapter 10:* Learning spaces and school facilities • *Chapter 11:* Open and distance learning • *Chapter 35:* Budget and financial management

ECONOMIC REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	**WHAT CAN BE DONE?**	**GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS**
• 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	• 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)	• *Chapter 5:* Rural populations • *Chapter 10:* Learning spaces and school facilities • *Chapter 27:* Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • *Chapter 37:* Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	**WHAT CAN BE DONE?**	**GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS**
Bureaucratic hurdles and problems of access • 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	• 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	• *Chapter 4:* Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction • *Chapter 27:* Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • *Chapter 31:* Legal frameworks • *Chapter 37:* Donor relations and funding mechanisms
Curriculum issues • The curriculum is divisive • The curriculum is not considered interesting or relevant, or is not valued, etc.	• 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	• *Chapter 20:* Curriculum content and review processes • *Chapter 27:* Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • *Chapter 32:* Community participation • *Chapter 37:* Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	**WHAT CAN BE DONE?**	**GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS**
Inadequate school facilities • 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	• 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	• *Chapter 5:* Rural populations • *Chapter 10:* Learning spaces and school facilities • *Chapter 32:* Community participation • *Chapter 35:* Budget and financial management
Problems of marginalization • Children and youth at risk are often marginalized and not included in education[1]	• 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	• *Chapter 8:* Children with disabilities • *Chapter 9:* Former child soldiers • *Chapter 32:* Community participation
Staff issues • Not enough or poor-quality teachers • Not enough women teachers to encourage families/girls to continue with schooling	• 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)	• *Chapter 5:* Rural populations • *Chapter 15:* Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers • *Chapter 16:* Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions • *Chapter 18:* Teacher training: teaching and learning methods • *Chapter 35:* Budget and financial management • *Chapter 37:* Donor relations and funding mechanisms
Concerns related to vulnerable groups • 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.)	• 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	• *Chapter 8:* Children with disabilities • *Chapter 18:* Teacher training: teaching and learning methods • *Chapter 35:* Budget and financial management • *Chapter 37:* 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

RELEVANCE / MOTIVATIONAL REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	**WHAT CAN BE DONE?**	**GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS**
Concerns related to age disparities • 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	• Special primary classes for older children/boys • Accelerated learning or bridging programmes • Literacy/numeracy programmes • Non-formal education	• *Chapter 12:* Non-formal education
Lack of perspective • Youth who have completed primary school have no other educational options	• 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	• *Chapter 11:* Open and distance learning • *Chapter 12:* Non-formal education • *Chapter 14:* Post-primary education • *Chapter 26:* Vocational education and training

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providing for parents in prison; displaced children; girls; girls after puberty; children from 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.

CO-ORDINATION AND CAPACITY BUILDING

- Governments and assistance agencies should promote co-ordination 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.**

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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 co-ordination 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 co-ordinated 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 28*, '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 28*, '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/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 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources', and *Chapter 34*, '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 27*, '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/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] GoI 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 GoI 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, 2000: 3).

Source: Nicolai (2004)

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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	• Measured informally, socially • Difficult to quantify, despite general agreement
INPUTS	• 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	• 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	• 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	• 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	• 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	• Measures extent of improvement • Relatively easy to conceptualize, depending on specifics, change is difficult to measure and requires baseline
SELECTIVITY	• 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 necesarily 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

STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT	
PROMISING AVENUES	**BLIND ALLEYS**
Curriculum • Improving the implemented curriculum	• Adjusting the intended curriculum
Learning materials • Good textbooks and teacher guides	• Computers in the classroom
Teaching quality • In service training • Interactive radio instruction (with pupils) • Programmed materials	• Lengthening pre-service pedagogical training
Teaching time • Setting and maintaining standards for instructional time: 25 hours of instruction per week for core subjects	• Lowering class size
Teachability • Preschools (targeted at disadvantaged) • Nutritional interventions-school snacks/breakfasts, micronutrients, treat parasites • Vision and auditory screening	• School lunches

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

environments 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:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of children enrolled in primary school}}{\text{Total number of children aged 6-11}}$$

- 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:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of 6-11 year old children enrolled in primary school}}{\text{Total number of children aged 6-11}}$$

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**
• 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.	• 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**
• 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.	• 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**
• 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.	• 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**
• 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.	• 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 possibly 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); CRS (2003); Janke (2001); INEE (2003); Meir (2004); Nazaire (2000); World Food Programme (2003).

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