



USAID
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

EDUCATION IN CRISIS SITUATIONS

MAPPING THE FIELD



This publication was produced for review by the United States Agency for International Development. It was prepared by Creative Associates International, Inc.

MARCH 2006

Since the time of publication, USAID has conducted research, revised policies, and developed new strategic plans to support education in crisis settings through the implementation of the framework presented in the USAID 2005 Fragile States White Paper.

Readers are encouraged to visit USAID's web site, http://www.usaid.gov/policy/policy_framework_jan06.html for updated data on USAID's approach to this topic.

PREPARED BY:

Dana Burde, Ph.D.
Saltzman Institute of War and Peace Studies &
Program on Forced Migration and Health
Columbia University
New York, NY 10027

Creative Associates International, Inc.
The Basic Education and Policy Support (BEPS) Activity
Contract No. HNE-I-00-00-0038-00

PREPARED FOR:

United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

PHOTO CREDIT:

Photo by Ms. Francoise Beukes. Children at a temporary school in Baghlan Province Afghanistan.

2005

The author's views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development or the United States Government.



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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) provided funding for this paper via the Basic Education and Policy Support (BEPS) Activity. The opinions and observations expressed in this document are those of the author. They are not necessarily the views of the United States Government or the United States Agency for International Development.

The author wishes to thank committed colleagues from international agencies who generously shared documents and/or provided their time to discuss various aspects of the issues described in this paper: Pilar Aguilar, UNICEF; Allison Anderson, INEE; Lynne Bethke, InterWorks; Peter Buckland, World Bank; Frank Dall, CAI; Mitch Kirby, USAID; Eldrid Middtun, Norwegian Refugee Council; Susan Nicolai, Save the Children/UK; Pamela Shifman, UNICEF; Margaret Sinclair, Consultant; Christopher Talbot, UNESCO/IIEP; Sohbi Tawil, UNESCO, IBE; Carl Triplehorn, Save the Children/US; and Rebecca Winthrop, International Rescue Committee.

Thanks also to Don Graybill, BEPS project Director; Margaret McLaughlin, Senior Education Advisor; and Vicky Frantz, Management Associate at Creative Associates International for their ongoing interest, support, and valuable comments on earlier versions of this document.

Additional thanks to Sherrill Stroschein and Denis Moynihan for their feedback.

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I. INTRODUCTION



OVERVIEW

The start of the new millennium coincided with a renewed focus on international development, crisis, and education. Integrated global communications and markets, increased awareness of violence from non-state actors, and the surge in infection and death rates from HIV/AIDS have drawn attention to development in a way that has not been seen since the end of World War II (Natsios, 2004). From mass-mobilized movements to closed-door meetings, citizens and leaders around the world have challenged, questioned, or reinvigorated development goals and progress. Many have called for enhancing development gains by addressing political, economic, and health crises more explicitly and deliberately as a component of foreign assistance (UNICEF, 2004; USAID/Conflict Management and Mitigation [CMM], 2004). The need to protect, rebuild,

and strengthen education systems, and provide quality education to children everywhere sits at the center of this discussion.

Multilateral and bilateral agencies involved in setting international development policies have highlighted the role of education in development. At the United Nations Millennium Summit in September 2000, world leaders adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that place development at the top of the world agenda and set forth eight key goals to “significantly improve the human condition” (Millennium Project, n.d.). A call to ensure that by the year 2015, all boys and girls worldwide will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling, defined as the first five years of formal education, ranks second on this list of MDGs.

Significantly, in keeping with the MDGs, development together with

defense and diplomacy form the three pillars of the US Government’s (USG) 2002 National Security Strategy. The strategy calls for “including the world’s poor in an expanding circle of development—and opportunity” by doubling the size of the poorest economies within a decade (USG, 2002, p. 21). It stresses that increasing the number of children receiving a quality education is one of the most important indicators to use to measure progress toward this goal. Furthermore, based on the belief that ignorance and poverty may be two reasons youth are drawn to pursue radical ideologies, the US Government argues that aid is critical in “fragile but friendly Muslim nations” such as Pakistan (\$600 million), Afghanistan (\$297 million), and Jordan (\$250 million) (New York Times, October 12, 2003).¹

Although support for education has been provided as part of foreign

¹ Aid figures are from October 2003.

assistance since the Bretton Woods institutions (World Bank, International Monetary Fund) were created, most bilateral donors did not articulate support for education in crisis as a deliberate policy intervention, separate from education for development, until recently, and some have not yet done so. Yet, crises present enormous obstacles to achieving Education for All (EFA) and the MDGs (World Bank, 2005). Nearly 60 percent of the countries where USAID operates are currently experiencing conflict (USAID/CMM, 2004). Prior to the 1990s, however, most donor and multinational agencies maintained separate operations that responded to humanitarian crises without including education activities in these emergency responses. Education services that were delivered in refugee camps maintained by international agencies—for example, in Vietnam, the Occupied Palestinian Territories, and Guatemala—were an exception to this pattern, but these interventions were not institutionalized under a broad education policy to respond to crises.

Given the changing global environment and the emphasis placed on development as an element of national security, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has started to rethink the role and effectiveness

of foreign assistance (USAID, January 2004).² According to USAID, foreign aid should focus on more than humanitarian and development goals. A USAID white paper on foreign assistance for fragile states (January 2004) outlines five core operational goals to reorient the agency:

- promoting transformational development,
- strengthening fragile states,
- providing humanitarian relief,
- supporting US geostrategic interests, and
- mitigating global and transnational ills” (p. 5),

with education as a component of each (Atherton, February 25, 2004, p. 29).

The April 2005 USAID Education Strategy, *Improving Lives Through Learning* now leads the Agency in its support of education in crisis settings. Following this effort, the draft *USAID Fragile States Education Strategy for Africa* specifically states, “The importance of education in fragile states cannot be overestimated: education changes behavior” (USAID Education Strategy, April 2005, p. 3).

Since 2000, the Basic Education and Policy Support (BEPS) Activity has carried out basic education, educa-

tional policy, and planning activities to provide technical assistance to USAID. BEPS has initiated education activities in countries experiencing crises, including: Afghanistan, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Nepal, Somalia, Sierra Leone, Uganda, and Zambia. It has contributed to large-scale education interventions and assisted countries with transitions toward stability and reconstruction.³

When BEPS activities began, “education in crisis situations” was a loosely defined field with international organizations providing a patchwork assortment of services. Since then, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), multinational agencies, and other stakeholders have started to reorganize the field and, simultaneously, USAID has given greater attention to education programs in crisis situations. Research has described and highlighted the impact of crises on education, and in turn, generated numerous debates regarding the types of circumstances that warrant external intervention, the quality and type of education to be provided, when, where, for whom, and by whom. The potential role of education in ameliorating (or perpetuating) crisis, in protecting children from exploitation, and in investing in their prospects for the future has touched off a surge in interest among donor and aid agencies. Yet, concentrating on how to

² For a complex review of these issues, see also: *Foreign Aid in the National Interest: Promoting Freedom, Security, and Opportunity*. USAID 2002. Available: <http://www.usaid.gov/fani/>.

³ See BEPS http://www.beps.net/crisis_situation/crisis_index.htm for a full list of publications relating to education in crisis situations.

fix a problem, while critical and necessary, must be done in concert with inquiries into how the problem is defined, how it arose in the first place, and what confounding socio-political and economic factors perpetuate it.

Given this critical mass of converging interests, the following study surveys the field, articulates current debates, documents the program growth of recent years, and offers recommendations for further study. Based on the work of other scholar-practitioners and the author's own experience (e.g., Bethke, 2004; Burde, 1999; Miller & Affolter, eds., 2002; Nelles, ed., 2004; Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003; Sinclair, 2001; 2002; 2004; Sommers, 2002; Smith & Vaux, 2003; Talbot, 2003; Tawil & Harley, eds., 2004; World Bank, 2005), it describes some of the practical and theoretical dilemmas facing program managers, policy-makers, donors, and academics. In doing so, this paper is meant to provide USAID staff and stakeholders with an accessible overview, analytical framework, and reference document that explains the breadth and depth of education in crisis within the context of foreign assistance.

The following recommendation from the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) highlights the survey's findings:

A key recommendation is that education in emergencies be seen, and planned from day one, as part of the development process and not solely as a 'relief' effort. Donors should avoid compartmentalization of funding that can have the effect of creating an uneducated and bitter, revenge-oriented generation, because education in emergencies was seen as the last call on inadequate 'humanitarian' budgets (or excluded from them). Moreover, restoration of access to schooling in a post conflict situation should be seen as a funding priority (Bensalah, et. al., 2000).

Support for this recommendation is presented in this paper's four sections. The first section presents the state of the field: definitions of terms, an overview of the problems facing populations affected by crisis, and the actors involved. The second section describes institutions and their mandates, focusing heavily on USAID, and highlights sample programs. The third section surveys gaps in program implementation and suggestions for future research. The last section summarizes the survey's findings and recommends future research areas. To avoid duplication of effort, experts interviewed for this paper are listed in Appendix A and an extensive list of references is included in Appendix B.

METHODS

The material presented here was gathered from July to December 2004 using both open source research tools (i.e., internet and website search engines) and academic databases. Policy documents and research studies were collected from websites of various agencies, including USAID and the USAID Development Experience Clearinghouse, US State Department, US Department of Labor, the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UNESCO—the Institute of International Educational Planning (IIEP) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE), the Overseas Development Institute, the Development Gateway, the Eldis Gateway to Development Information, and the World Bank (WB), and from academic books and journals in international relations and comparative and international education. Select program documents were also included from international nongovernmental organizations (e.g., Academy for Educational Development, CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Christian Children's Fund, Creative Associates International, Inc., International Rescue Committee, Jesuit Refugee Service, Norwegian Refugee Council, Save the Children Alliance/UK/US,

Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children) that are on the forefront of practical changes in international efforts to administer education in crisis situations. This written material was complemented by interviews with several practitioners and policy makers. See Appendix A for list of interviews with key informants and Appendix B for a complete list of references.

A note about the notes: Sources are cited according to American Psychological Association (APA) style, although some internet cita-

tions have been adapted to provide more information for the reader.

The footnotes listed throughout the paper often provide a web address for easy access, and/or, the name of a study. The complete citation is generally not listed in the footnote, but all complete citations (including sources cited in footnotes) are listed in the reference section (Appendix A and B).

Because of the often short-term nature of education in crisis programs, and because of differing definitions of these programs, it is chal-

lenging to gather data for a survey of this type. Often data is lost when a short-term program grant ends. In addition, organizations that identify their education work within a development framework, rather than as part of humanitarian aid may not have their programs counted among education in crisis or emergencies projects.

In the collaborative spirit of the INEE, the author hopes that colleagues will comment on the ideas presented here, continuing the discussion on-line and in other venues.

II. STATE OF THE FIELD



This section begins with definitions of crisis, education, and affected populations, followed by a brief overview of the problem, i.e., the impact of four kinds of crises (political, economic, environmental, health) on children's access to quality education and the systems of delivery. It then looks at the actors involved in the field of education in crisis situations, and concludes with a brief description of the history of the field, highlighting three historical conceptual approaches—development, humanitarian,⁴ and human rights—and their influence on administering education in crisis programs.

DEFINING CRISIS, EDUCATION, AND AFFECTED POPULATIONS

Outlining a clear definition of education in crisis situations is a necessary step toward developing a policy to

respond appropriately and in a timely way to potential educational needs; and, conversely, the lack of a definition leads to the potentially damaging omission of education as part of a systematic response to crises. That said, existing definitions vary in their description both of crisis and of education. The following section will describe USAID's salient definitions for each element—crisis and education—situating them within the context established by other key international players in delivering humanitarian and development assistance.

WHAT IS CRISIS?

The difficulty in defining “crisis” is part of a larger conceptual problem with maintaining a distinction between relief and development assistance. This conceptual issue will be addressed in more detail below. In brief, USAID currently uses three definitions of “crisis.”

First, the Agency uses crisis to refer to a *broad range of circumstances in which children's access to education is in jeopardy*. These circumstances fall under the following four categories: political, economic, health, and environmental. Political crises include social unrest and violent conflict; economic crises encompass severe poverty that manifests in a significant percentage of school-age children living on the streets, or being exploited as child laborers; health crises include epidemics such as HIV/AIDS; and environmental or natural disasters include hurricanes, earthquakes, droughts, and volcanic eruptions (Harwood & Anis, unpublished, 2001).

Second, USAID refers to crisis *along a continuum of four different capacities of governance and corresponding phases for educational activities*: (1) no government and education emergencies, (2) interim govern-

⁴The word “humanitarian” can be ambiguous, referring sometimes to all relief and development activities. In this study, it is used in the narrower sense, to refer explicitly to relief or emergency assistance.

ment and recovery, (3) new government and rehabilitation, and (4) established government and reconstruction. Stated more simply, this continuum includes emergency, recovery, rehabilitation, and reconstruction (Miller & Affolter, 2002, pp. 123-128). Because government usually remains intact during epidemics and natural disasters, this description of stages during crisis refers primarily to conditions related to political crises when the state has failed, or is beginning to reemerge.

A third USAID definition limits a crisis to *a set of conditions that lead to an inability of a population to meet its basic needs, usually described as shelter, water, health, and nutrition*. This definition is employed by USAID's Office of US Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA) (OFDA, September 2004). When the definition of crisis is limited to impacting basic needs, education is usually omitted from the emergency response.

Similar to the USAID continuum definition listed above, most international agencies use the term "emergencies" and "chronic crises" to refer to the impact of various stages of conflict, transition, recovery, and nat-

ural disasters on affected populations.⁵ Still these agencies' positions raise nettlesome questions about what constitutes a crisis, or emergency, and when it becomes urgent. Broad humanitarian aid responses attempt to address this problem of priorities by relying on clearly articulated disaster mortality thresholds, but this technique has its own inconsistencies and debates. For example, the crisis in Kosovo never reached this threshold, while the crisis indicators in Darfur in October 2004 were several times higher.⁶

WHAT IS EDUCATION?

Defining "education" in the phrase "education in crisis" is almost equally fraught with difficulties. The central conceptual question is whether there are distinguishing characteristics between education in crises and education in peaceful developing countries. The Save the Children Alliance says "Education for children affected by emergencies" is "education that protects the well-being, fosters learning opportunities, and nurtures the overall developments (social, economic, cognitive, and physical), of children affected by conflicts and disasters" (cited in Sinclair, 2002, p. 23). Education services

delivered during these times and under these conditions are meant to support simultaneously children's cognitive and emotional development, while including additional educational content relevant to the crisis circumstances. It is certain aspects of program implementation (e.g., rapid training of paraprofessional teachers, physical protection for program staff, packaged material resources) and the new subjects related to protection and security (e.g., land mine awareness, life skills to prevent HIV infection) that change or are added to the fundamental content during an emergency (Burde, Spring 2004).⁷

The lack of consistency in defining education programs in crisis contributed to the absence of program standards and was one reason for the exclusion of education as a component among other humanitarian interventions that were included in the Sphere Project (Anderson, August 2004, Interview).⁸ The work of the InterAgency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) to establish Minimum Standards on Education in Emergencies is an effort to address this gap and is hoped to ensure a minimum level of quality and access.⁹ See Appendix C

⁵ This distinction is beginning to change. In UNICEF's State of the World's Children 2005, the report defines three threats: poverty, armed conflict, and HIV/AIDS.

⁶ The "Crude Mortality Rate" (CMR) that is usually used to define a humanitarian crisis is one death per 10,000 people per day. For perspective, the CMR in North Darfur in September 2004 was 1.5 deaths per 10,000 people per day; in West Darfur it was 2.9 deaths per 10,000 people per day (WHO, Sept. 2004). The average crude mortality rate in peaceful Sub-Saharan Africa, including countries affected by the AIDS epidemic, is approximately .5 people per 10,000 per day. But relying on the CMR is a "trailing indicator"—some consider it the public health equivalent of assessing a community through autopsies (Martone, personal communication, 2004).

⁷ For definitions, see also Nicolai (2003) p. 11 and Triplehorn (2001) p. 3.

⁸ A group of international humanitarian organizations launched the Sphere Project in 1997 to establish a minimum standard of humanitarian assistance to which all people have a right, along with a set of indicators to help quantify and monitor the provision of services to guarantee this right. Although some Sphere Project committee members viewed favorably the idea of including education, the chapter was already closed for revision. For more information see: <http://www.sphere-project.org/>.

⁹ See section IV Sample Programs, below, for a discussion of the INEE minimum standards.

for a discussion of the INEE minimum standards.

In keeping with USAID's new, comprehensive approach to development assistance for fragile states and conflict affected regions, and consistent with the five goals outlined in its January 2005 white paper on foreign assistance for fragile states, this paper will use a broad definition of crisis—political, economic, health, and environmental—in order to survey the education components that may be included in each of the five goals. Among these goals, currently education is a standard element in “promoting transformational development” and often in “mitigating global and transnational ills” such as HIV/AIDS. Education programs funded by USAID have played less of a systematic role in “strengthening fragile states” and “supporting US geostrategic interests,” although as noted above, these efforts are increasing. In “providing humanitarian relief,” support to education has only been included on an ad hoc basis and typically not during the first 60 days of an emergency.

Because fragile states figure into USAID's goals prominently, and into the analysis presented in the white paper, it is important to discuss them here briefly. Although there is no single definition among scholars and practitioners, most agree that

fragile states are characterized by the failure to provide public goods such as education and health care, and an inability to resolve conflict nonviolently (Center for Institutional Reform and the Informal Sector [IRIS], n.d.). Typically, fragile states are also associated with high levels of bureaucratic incompetence as well as increased crime and violence that cause government institutions to lose their legitimacy. In fragile states the government is weak but intact. In contrast, in failed or collapsed states, the government is divided, or dissolved, and unlikely to maintain control over its territory. These features are the outcomes of failure, not the fundamental sources of the failure (IRIS, n.d.).

WHO ARE THE AFFECTED POPULATIONS?

In addition to dividing work according to definitions of crisis and education, international agencies often organize their work according to “targeted” or “affected” populations. Some of the more common terms used by international agencies (bilaterals, multilaterals, and NGOs) to identify vulnerable people and to provide assistance are refugees, internally displaced people (IDPs), civilians caught in a conflict (“stayees”), returnees, displaced children and orphans, victims of sexual and gender based violence (SGBV), youth and adolescents, child sol-

diers, street children, people living with HIV/AIDS, and orphans and children made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS. These categories of targeted populations are also important because, in some cases (e.g. refugees), labels connote legal status with particular rights granted to individuals who acquire this status.

Among conflict-affected populations, stayees, followed by IDPs, tend to be the most under-served groups because they are harder to reach even if funding is available to assist them. Often IDPs choose to blend into their new region, and, depending on political tensions, governments may be reluctant to allow aid agencies access to groups displaced within their borders (e.g., IDP camps in Azerbaijan).¹⁰

For a list of these selected categories used by international agencies to describe affected populations, see Appendix D.

OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEM: EFFECTS OF CRISES

Applying the first definition of crisis outlined above, this sub-section gives a brief overview of the impact of the four categories of crises on children's access to quality education and the systems of delivery. For a more detailed analysis and discussion of the relationship between each crisis listed here and its impact

¹⁰ In Azerbaijan, for several years after the Azerbaijani population was displaced from the west and southwest area of the country, the government was reluctant to provide services to these groups. It feared that in doing so it would give tacit consent to Armenia's territorial gains and, therefore, have more difficulty later recovering land that it lost in the conflict. There are approximately 600,000 IDPs living in Azerbaijan, and although a cease fire was signed ten years ago, there is still no peace agreement between the two countries (Global IDP Database, May 1, 2003).

on education, please consult the references provided in Appendix B.

POLITICAL CRISES

Violent conflict disrupts children's access to quality education in multiple ways. In approximately 80 countries around the world, children live with unexploded ordnance and land mines (Machel, 2001). Roughly 20 million children were displaced from their homes in the 1990s; currently, 40 million people in the world are displaced, one-third of them beyond the borders of their countries (UNICEF, 2004). In just ten countries recently surveyed, over 27 million refugee and internally displaced children and youth affected by armed conflict do not have access to formal education (Bethke, 2004, p. iii).¹¹ UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* for 2003-2004 estimated that half of the 104 million children out of school globally live in countries affected by or recovering from conflict. Teachers and educational administrators are often victims of violence, and school buildings may serve as terror targets, soldiers' barracks, or sites of war crimes. In Mozambique, for example, approximately 45 percent of primary schools were destroyed during the war (Machel, 2001).

It is important to note that different types of conflict—ideological-, identity-, or resource-based—have different implications for education systems, both in the role that educa-

tion may play in creating hostility, and its potential role in reducing it (Brown, 1999; Tawil, 2004; World Bank, 2005).

ECONOMIC CRISES

A study of 43 developing countries recorded that, "on average, children of families in the bottom wealth quintile of the population are more than twice as likely to die before reaching the age of five than children living in families in the top quintile" (Minujin & Delamonica cited in UNICEF, 2004, p. 27). Desperate economic circumstances push parents and children to take drastic measures such as employing children in economic activity or selling children into various forms of bonded labor. UNICEF notes that 1.2 million children are trafficked annually for sex and labor, many of whom are sold by parents (Shifman, personal communication, 2004; UNICEF, 2004).

HEALTH CRISES

The HIV infection rate in African, Caribbean, and Pacific countries is the most glaring example of a transnational pandemic that disrupts education systems, creating a crisis and requiring urgent attention. More than 13.2 million children in the world have lost one or both parents to AIDS, and 80 percent of these children live in Sub-Saharan Africa (*Global Information Network*, May 12, 2004; *Los Angeles Times*, July 12, 2004). In countries where

over 30 percent of people between the ages of 15 and 49 are infected with HIV/AIDS, the loss of personnel—in addition to the loss of parents and caregivers—has decimated education systems.

A USAID-funded education program in Zambia highlights the strain HIV/AIDS has on the education system. Through its efforts, teachers are encouraged to be tested for HIV. If they are found to be HIV positive they are assisted with the process of securing publicly-funded treatment. Of the teachers tested as part of the program, an average of 25 percent have tested HIV positive (Graybill, personal communication, 2004).

ENVIRONMENTAL CRISES

Although natural disasters can strike anywhere, upwards of 90 percent of people affected by natural disasters—earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, landslides, tsunamis, and volcanoes—live in countries least able to cope financially and administratively with these events (CIDA, n.d.). Natural disasters can span borders, devastating already weak school systems and housing stock throughout a region. For example, in Aceh, Indonesia, officials reported within a few weeks of the 2004 tsunami that 1,000 teachers were missing and at least 50 percent of schools were destroyed, leaving 140,000 elementary and 20,000 junior-high students with nowhere to study. The tsunami damaged or destroyed 112 schools

¹¹ The ten countries surveyed in the report are: Sudan, Afghanistan, Occupied Palestinian Territories, Colombia, Angola, Congo, Iraq, Burma, Burundi, and Uganda. See table 2 on page 9 of the survey for more information.

in Sri Lanka; refugees occupied another 244 schools (Basic Education Coalition, cited in World Bank/Youthink, 2005). In 1998, hundreds of schools in Central America were damaged by Hurricane Mitch and many others were converted into shelters.

Each of these crises individually prevents children's access to quality education, but none of the crises described above should be viewed in isolation. Often one follows in the wake of another. For example, reported incidences of child trafficking rose shortly after the 2004 tsunami struck. And, countries that have experienced conflict once are at a greater risk of experiencing it again (World Bank, 2005). In addition, children are not simply "at risk" of exploitation during war and violent conflict; they are also increasingly perceived as "the risk."¹² With the advent of light weaponry, the role of child soldiers in conflicts moved from ancillary to primary and incorporating children into warfare has emerged as a new military tactic (Singer, 2001).¹³ Furthermore, natural disasters are frequently paired with drastic economic decline as well as various health-related impacts, e.g., clean water is contaminated and increased levels of garbage and sewer cannot be dis-

posed of properly. Examples abound from current literature on the Asia Tsunami relief and reconstruction efforts.

COMPARING THE IMPACT OF CONFLICT AND NATURAL DISASTERS

According to USAID (2002), natural disasters are "statistically less lethal" than conflict-related emergencies, causing one-third the number of deaths. However, in the 1990s natural disasters affected seven times the number of people as did conflict. In addition, natural disasters are on the rise, occurring three times as often in the 1990s as they did in the 1960s (USAID, 2002, p. 24).

Confusion arises regarding the deadliness of armed conflict because, although the total number of violent conflicts in the world has decreased since the mid-1990s, the number of intrastate conflicts has increased dramatically, and the percentage of civilians affected by armed conflict has skyrocketed.¹⁴ To illustrate, in the wars through most of the 19th and 20th centuries roughly 10 percent of casualties were civilian; in the intrastate wars of the last decade, 90 percent of the casualties are civilian (USAID,

2002, p. 24). And of this group, 80 percent are women and children (UNICEF, 2004).

DEVELOPMENT OF THE FIELD

Despite the devastating statistics cited above and the numerous populations affected by crisis, humanitarian relief and development agencies have been slow to incorporate education into their emergency responses. From the 1960s until the 1980s, the system of foreign assistance was divided between relief and development. Beginning in the 1990s, international agencies started relying on the "relief to development continuum" concept that was meant to bridge the gap between the two types of efforts. Yet, agencies were still largely specialized, constrained by mandates, money, and different understandings of priorities (Smillie, 2000).¹⁵ In the continuum, education was considered a "development activity," and therefore excluded from humanitarian response to crises.

Several initiatives and documents in the 1990s started to move international agencies toward giving more systematic attention to the impact of crisis, particularly armed conflict, on education and, vice-versa, the

¹² For an interesting discussion of perceptions of children and childhood, see Stephens (1996) on street children in Brazil.

¹³ The use of child soldiers as a military tactic has been linked directly to the creation and proliferation of arms that are light enough for children to carry, i.e., the Kalashnikov and AK-47 (Singer, 2002).

¹⁴ The number of violent conflicts in the world has actually *decreased* since the mid-1990s (Gleditsch, et. al., 2002; Marshall & Gurr, 2003; Project Ploughshares, 2004). According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Project, armed conflict is defined as "a contested incompatibility that concerns government or territory or both where the use of armed force between two parties results in at least 25 battle-related deaths [per year]. Of these two parties, at least one is the government of a state" (cited in Tusicisny, 2004, p. 488).

¹⁵ For a compelling discussion of this paradigm, see Ian Smillie, (2000) "Relief and development: Disjuncture and dissonance," in D. Lewis & T. Wallace (eds.), *New roles and relevance: Development NGOs and the challenge of change*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press. pp. 17-28.

need for education to mitigate that impact. For example, a group of representatives from NGOs established a working group on rapid education, Graca Machel completed her study, *The Impact of War on Children*, and the Norwegian Refugee Council launched its campaign to include education—in addition to food, shelter, and health care—in humanitarian response. Adding momentum, the Oslo/Hadeland Conference in 1998 proposed a “Declaration on Principles of Education in Emergencies and Difficult Circumstances,” and the Global Information Networks in Education (GINIE) was created to link educators working in countries in crisis and transition (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003).¹⁶ Simultaneously, many education advisors in many international agencies advocated loudly for education services to be included in humanitarian aid packages administered by international agencies, along with water and food, shelter, and medical treatment (Aguilar & Retamal, 1998; Machel, 2001; Save the Children Alliance, 1996; Sinclair, 2001). This culminated in 2000 with the establishment of the INEE at the Interagency Consultation on Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis.

Reflecting this history and these international agencies’ traditional and evolving views of foreign assistance, the following three conceptual approaches to education inter-

ventions continue to shape the field of education in crisis situations:

- ***The development approach:*** advocated by most educators and supported by international frameworks and policies (e.g., Bensalah, et. al., 2000). This approach views a crisis as immediately holding back development potential, recognizes that education is a long-term social investment, and justifies this intervention to prevent “backward development,”¹⁷ to promote stability, and to rebuild a country. Concretely, this approach emphasizes educational content, community participation, and collaboration with government officials immediately or as soon as possible, and it starts program activities with an eye toward sustainability and transition.
- ***The humanitarian approach:*** views an emergency as a temporary set of circumstances for which education services and structures can be employed to provide immediate protection to children and prevent human rights violations. Concretely, this approach emphasizes safe spaces, educational activities as a stop-gap measure until regular services can resume, and community participation as a practical way to deliver and manage services. This approach may include working with govern-

ment officials, but does not emphasize building these relationships with state institutions.¹⁸ The humanitarian approach was implemented among educators in order to ensure that education be included in the context of humanitarian relief at a time when most international agencies viewed education as an unnecessary component, beyond the scope of humanitarian service delivery. To overcome these obstacles, education was presented as a commodity to be delivered rapidly, on a large scale, similar to any other type of assistance provided to a crisis-affected population (Save the Children Alliance/US, 1996). This view has been slow to change, and is linked closely to the relief-to-development-continuum paradigm.

- ***The human rights approach:*** emphasizes the importance of education as a human right and employs it as a key ingredient in peace building strategies. It views crises, or underdevelopment in any country as potential obstacles to children’s right to receive education, and it uses education to cultivate active citizenship, tolerance, and peace building at any stage of relief or development in industrialized, underdeveloped, or conflict-ridden countries alike. According to this approach, cultural (or other)

¹⁶ See: <http://www.nrc.no/pub/protection> for the full conference report from Oslo; and GINIE: <http://www.ginie.org/>.

¹⁷ Backward development refers to social gains lost as a result of conflict. The World Bank refers to conflict as “development in reverse,” see World Bank (2003), *Breaking the Conflict Trap: Civil War and Development Policy*. Washington DC: Oxford University Press/World Bank.

¹⁸ In the total breakdown of a state, or in a refugee camp, these institutions are not functioning, or not available.

contexts always influence educational content, but education perse is not defined by these differences. See Appendix E for a list of core human rights instruments.

These three approaches—development, humanitarian, and human rights—persist because each one has merit in organizing and delivering foreign assistance. Many agencies have aligned their program goals and objectives along the lines of these approaches, but, unfortunately, the sets of conditions they reflect are not mutually exclusive. For example, development is a long-term social investment that can also occur during a crisis.

Recognizing the need to move away from the linear relief-to-development continuum, some organizations are beginning to acknowledge the importance of integrated approaches. The World Bank, for example, now advocates for a mixture of development and relief activities to be delivered in varying proportions depending on the phase of the conflict. Although there is little consensus on the definitions of “phases” of conflict and post-conflict, “education reconstruction activities should begin concurrently with humanitarian assistance and be scaled up as political space, civil society support, administrative capacity, and resources permit” (World Bank, 2005, p. 33).

In addition to the World Bank’s recognition of the need for integrated approaches, several additional sources have exerted pressure to include delivery of education services in all forms of crises:

- Crisis-affected populations have continually voiced a demand for education to the humanitarian aid providers that they meet (Bensalah, et. al., p. 6).
- Many advocates have strengthened their rights-based approach, pointing out that children have “a right to education even under conditions of emergency” (Harwood & Anis, unpublished report; Bensalah, et. al., p. 6). Included in this effort, both the movement to promote Education for All / the Dakar Framework for Action (Sommers, 2002), and the Millennium Development Goals (Birdsall, et. al., 2004) advocate for holding governments accountable for fulfilling their responsibilities toward children during times of crisis, ensuring that they can exercise their right to education.
- Many practitioners have argued that education protects children by helping them avoid military recruitment or abduction, by providing cognitive and intellectual tools for them to make better decisions, and by

ensuring that they are physically counted (Aguilar & Retamal, 1998; Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003; Sinclair, 2002).

- Networks such as INEE have raised the profile of education problems and responses in crisis situations and have begun to unify the field. INEE coordinated an effort to establish “Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies Chronic Crises, and Early Reconstruction,” inspired by the Sphere Project.¹⁹
- The US government has revised its view of foreign assistance since September 11, 2001. This has added to the confluence of interests described above and to the importance with which the US government views foreign aid and education in crisis situations.

Reflecting these shifts, USAID is also moving away from a distinction between relief and development and is alternatively moving toward the five goals outlined in the white paper—promoting transformational development, strengthening fragile states, providing humanitarian relief, supporting US geostrategic interests, and mitigating global and transnational ills—to address the political, economic, health and environmental crises. Including education in these efforts is likely to enhance these goals.

¹⁹ Although the Sphere Project’s minimum standards are limited to emergencies, INEE’s minimum standards cover a range of “phases.” INEE members believe that educational responses should be planned and implemented along the continuum of emergency through to development, rather than either or.

ACTORS INVOLVED IN THE FIELD

The most common actors involved in providing education in crisis are bilateral aid agencies, multilateral organizations, national governments, international NGOs, local NGOs, and sometimes peace-keeping forces. Overall there are hundreds of actors involved; too many to name. Therefore, taking the various approaches to education in crisis situations into account as well as USAID's five goals for foreign assistance for fragile states, this sub-section examines policies toward education in crisis among various key institutions that are responsible for administering US foreign assistance, or for playing a major role in influencing the field of education in crisis situations.

BILATERAL AID AGENCIES

Bilateral aid agencies generally coordinate their aid strategies with the regional, political, and economic objectives of the respective donor nation, emphasizing certain sectors depending on the link between the donor nation's interest in the sector and its overall strategy toward the recipient country. Grant making typically prioritizes international NGOs whose headquarters are based in the same country as the bilateral aid agency.

Several bilateral donors, recognizing the gap in services provided during

crises, have begun establishing policies to provide education in crisis situations. Among prominent bilateral organizations, e.g., the British Department for International Development (DFID), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), and USAID—DFID published a paper on education, development, and conflict, exploring the ways in which conflict inhibits countries' abilities to reach the MDGs (Smith & Vaux, 2003), and has recently commissioned a policy paper on education for IDPs and refugees (Payne & Fraser, March 2004, unpublished draft). GTZ emphasizes "do no harm" strategies in addressing countries in crisis and highlights "youth promotion." In addition, GTZ has recently published a paper on education and conflict (Seitz, November 2004) and has just developed a position paper to address education in conflict and crises.²⁰ CIDA emphasizes child protection in its June 2001 Action Plan, and pledges explicitly to support "basic education for refugee and internally displaced children, as well as children in post-conflict situations," and "education that empowers girls and boys to prevent and resolve conflicts" (p. 33). SIDA lists "emergency education" under its "sectors for humanitarian assistance" (SIDA, n.d.), and the Norwegian Agency for Development

Cooperation (NORAD) devotes a section to education in emergencies in its strategy paper for delivering education for all (NORAD, 2003).

USAID has long emphasized basic education in the context of its development work, and has funded school reconstruction as part of disaster relief, but has yet to include education explicitly as part of its policy in emergency response to crises. The USAID Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons Policy (October 2004) is an exception. In this document, USAID articulates its role as "lead agency" in coordinating US government comprehensive support to IDPs via Disaster Assistance Response Teams (DART), and USAID Missions. Education is the first priority in the second phase of humanitarian assistance for IDPs, "care and maintenance" (USAID, 2004, p. 7). Still, although USAID is a significant funder of education in crisis programs around the world, there are few public documents describing the agency's approach to these programs. Also, because education in crisis programs are often not categorized as such, but rather as community development (e.g., Bosnia) or basic education projects, or projects to support vulnerable groups (HIV infected, child soldiers, orphans), it is difficult to measure the impact of these initiatives. The April 2005 launch of USAID's *Education Strategy: Improving Lives Through Learning* promises to unite

²⁰The Seitz paper is available on the INEE website. The German versions are listed in the resource section of this paper.

humanitarian and development assistance efforts in supporting education in crisis settings. See Appendix F for more information on USAID Offices' involvement in education in crisis situations.

Other departments within the US government that provide support for populations affected by crisis are in the US State Department, the Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (BRPM), and in the Department of Labor (DOL) through its International Child Labor Initiative.²¹ Within the US government, the BRPM holds primary responsibility for creating “policies on population, refugees, and migration, and for administering US refugee assistance and admissions programs” (BRPM, n.d.). It is BRPM that channels US government funds to the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), and various other agencies that provide assistance and protection to refugees overseas.²²

This fall DOL provided approximately \$110 million in grants to fight exploitive child labor worldwide. The aim is to “remove young workers from abusive work situations and improve access to quality basic education in areas with a high incidence of exploitive child labor” (DOL, September 30, 2004). In addition, DOL has focused recently

on preventing the recruitment of child soldiers and assisting with their rehabilitation.²³

MULTILATERAL ORGANIZATIONS

This term typically refers to agencies like the UN and the World Bank that are directed by member governments, and generally work through government counterparts rather than through local or international NGOs. Some multilateral funding streams now include calls for support to education in emergencies, for example, the UNICEF consolidated appeals process (CAP) for Chad includes a total of nearly \$1.8 million for “Education in Emergency Situation” (UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs 2004, p. 9).

The primary UN agencies that are involved in responding to children's needs are defined by three foci: education, emergency protection, and children. UNESCO is mandated to respond to education needs; UNHCR is responsible for providing emergency protection and education to displaced people outside their country of origin (i.e., refugees); and UNICEF is responsible for children, broadly. A Memorandum of Understanding gives UNHCR the lead responsibility in refugee situations and UNICEF the lead responsibility in in-country

situations. At the time of the *Global Survey on Education in Emergencies* (Bethke, 2004), UNHCR was operating education programs for refugees in 107 of the 113 countries (and territories) included in the study. UNICEF was operating in 26 countries, primarily catering to internally displaced, war-affected stayees, and returnees. Their mandates are described below.²⁴ The UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) is responsible for overall coordination of humanitarian aid.

UNESCO's strategy is formulated around a single unifying theme, “contribute to peace and human development in an era of globalization through education, science, culture, and communication” (UNESCO, n.d.). It strives to achieve this objective by conducting studies, sharing knowledge, and providing expertise. UNESCO's response to populations affected by crisis is based on five principles: “decentralization, information, cooperation, capacity-building, and prevention” (Smith & Vaux, 2003, p. 52). UNESCO houses INEE and has conducted extensive work on education in crisis through its International Institute for Educational Planning and International Bureau of Education. See Appendix I for a summary of UNESCO activities.

²¹ See <http://www.state.gov/g/prm/> and <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/iclp/>.

²² Within BRPM, these funds come from the Migration and Refugee Assistance (MRA) Account. The Emergency Refugee and Migration Assistance (ERMA) Fund, also from BRPM, supplies funds for urgent, unforeseen crises and is replenished yearly (USCR, January/February 2003). UNHCR receives approximately 25 percent of its total annual budget from BRPM (InterAction, n.d.). Data on specific aid allocations by funding level, year, month, project, and organization are listed on the BRPM website. Available: <http://www.state.gov/g/prm/fund/>.

²³ See <http://www.dol.gov/ilab/programs/iclp/childsoldiers/main.htm> for conference program and other details.

²⁴ See also Smith and Vaux (2003) “Education, Development, and Conflict” for descriptions of UN agencies and their mandates.

UNICEF has five related priorities: educating girls, protecting children, preventing HIV/AIDS, providing early childhood development, and immunizing children. In its most recent *State of the World's Children 2005* report, UNICEF identifies, and organizes its program responses around, three key threats to childhood: poverty, armed conflict, and HIV/AIDS (UNICEF, December 2004). In countries in crisis, UNICEF provides “special protection for the most disadvantaged children: victims of war, disasters, extreme poverty, all forms of violence and exploitation, and those with disabilities” (UNICEF, n.d.). UNICEF’s approach to education in emergencies and reconstruction describes education as a “development activity” and challenges short-term responses that view education as a “stop-gap” measure (Pigozzi, 1999).

UNHCR is responsible for leading and coordinating international action to protect and safeguard refugee rights worldwide (UNHCR, Basic Facts, n.d.). The agency bases its provision of education to refugees, on its *Refugee Children: Guidelines on Protection and Care* (1994), in addition to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and Action for the Rights of Children—an inter-agency initiative sponsored by UNHCR, the Save the Children Alliance, UNICEF, and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.²⁵ UNHCR’s review of its

education activities in 2000 “places strong emphasis on ‘increased priority for primary education’ and achievement” of the international targets for education (Smith & Vaux, 2003, p.55).

The World Bank, on the other hand, does not intervene during an armed conflict, but provides funds and program support immediately upon cessation of hostilities. The Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction (CPR) Unit assesses causes, consequences, and characteristics of conflict and examines lessons learned in its program experiences. The CPR also specializes in designing development efforts for conflict-affected countries (World Bank/CPR, n.d.). Because standard funding streams are not available at the World Bank for work in failing or failed states, the Post-Conflict Fund (PCF) provides financing for physical and social reconstruction initiatives in post-war societies. Current conflict-affected countries and regions where the World Bank plays a significant role include Afghanistan, Africa’s Great Lakes region, the Balkans, Iraq, Liberia, Nepal, Sierra Leone, Timor Leste, the West Bank and Gaza (World Bank/PCF, n.d.).

NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS

Although local government actors are available during and just after a crisis, most government ministries are typically badly damaged after a

conflict and only beginning to re-emerge. In crises with a large number of aid agencies, foreign organizations typically pay the highest salaries in the area. The loss of human resources from people fleeing conflict, combined with a shortage of government funds and a damaged bureaucracy that is not yet able to absorb and disburse large sums, make it difficult for government ministries to retain talented staff. While ministries often remain severely under resourced, local NGOs may be groomed to carry on education programs after international NGOs have left.

INTERNATIONAL NGOS

CARE, Christian Children’s Fund, Creative Associates International, Catholic Relief Services, the International Rescue Committee, Jesuit Refugee Service, Norwegian Refugee Council, Save the Children/US and UK, as international NGOs, appear to be responsible for the largest portion of internationally managed education in crisis situations’ programs worldwide, if UNHCR is excluded from the tally.²⁶ Although these different agencies carry out their programs with a greater or lesser focus on each of the three conceptual frameworks (development, humanitarian, human rights) listed above, all are primarily service delivery organizations (rather than advocacy agencies). International NGO advocacy agencies such as Amnesty International,

²⁵ For extensive information on training for UNHCR staff, see <http://www.savethechildren.net/arc/>.

²⁶ This was derived from the Global Survey on Education in Emergencies (Bethke, 2004). It is important to note, however, that this list is partial and evolving.

Human Rights Watch, and Watchlist include an analysis of education systems in their reports on human rights abuses, describing discrimination against minorities in the classroom, school closings in minority areas, and attacks on schools. Both service delivery and advocacy NGOs rely on UN conventions and protocols to promote their work on education in crises.

According to the Global Survey, among education in emergencies programs operated by international NGOs, the International Rescue Committee (IRC) was operating the largest number with education programs in approximately 20 countries. The Norwegian Refugee Council managed approximately 15, the Jesuit Relief Service, Save the Children/US and UK, CARE, Christian Children's Fund, and Catholic Relief Services, provided the bulk of the remaining programs described in the survey.

Again surveying, tracking, and analyzing these programs are difficult because there are multiple ways they are categorized. As a result of different data collection and reporting methods, there are agencies working on education projects in

countries affected by conflict that are not included in the Global Survey data, but that are included in InterAction's various country-specific Member Activity Reports. Although this difference in data collection is not likely to change the list of key international players in education in crises, it would show organizations like Save the Children, Catholic Relief Services, and CARE as figuring more prominently in educational service delivery. In addition to Bethke's categories, education programs are still often identified according to the traditional divisions in assistance (humanitarian or development).

LOCAL NGOS

These agencies often spring up during or just after a crisis to provide better quality services directly to communities within which they work. Many international NGOs encourage the development of small civic associations or local NGOs to take on this role for several reasons. Government may be significantly discredited after a conflict and fostering civic associations is believed by many aid agencies (international NGOs, bilateral, and multinational agencies alike) to help rebuild civil

society after a conflict. In addition, local partner NGOs can often increase the legitimacy of internationally sponsored work by creating a cultural bridge between international intentions and national programs.

MULTILATERAL AND BILATERAL PEACEKEEPING FORCES

If these forces are present, they are typically involved in repairing infrastructure after a conflict. Since schools generally sustain enormous damage, and since they often need to be cleared of mines and booby traps before re-opening, peacekeeping forces often begin rebuilding schools. These responsibilities sometimes expand to include other public services.

Although the agencies and funds listed here do not make up an exhaustive list of support for education in crisis, nor does the list give credit to all the key actors in the field of education in crisis situations, the list does provide a starting point for forming a strong policy approach, and consolidating and complementing agencies' efforts.

III. SAMPLE APPROACHES



This section first examines the links between sample approaches to education in crisis, including some illustrative education program descriptions, and USAID’s five goals for foreign assistance for fragile states. This discussion is followed by an overview of available resources and reference materials related to implementing education in crisis activities, and of the minimum standards for providing an education program in an emergency situation.

The programs selected to highlight the relationship between education in crisis programs and USAID’s five goals are primarily those sponsored by international agencies; limited information is provided regarding local NGOs’ independent initiatives (although most international programs are implemented with varying levels of participation on the part of local organizations), and this paper does not include potentially promis-

ing programs sponsored by national governments within their countries. Little comparative information is available about government-sponsored programs. Given the importance of supporting fragile states, it is a gap in the literature.

To link these approaches to achieving the five USAID goals, three variables for policy-makers should be considered:

- **Population:** the status of the population for whom the service is provided (e.g., refugee, internally displaced, stayee, returnee, ex-combatant, homeless child, healthy/ill);
- **State:** the status of the state in the region before the crisis began (functioning, fragile, failed) and its on-going ability to provide public services; and
- **Crisis:** the type of crisis (political, economic, health, environ-

mental; or specifically: e.g., high/low intensity conflict, post-conflict, economic collapse, pandemic/epidemic, natural disaster).

Table I provides examples of the relationship these variables have to the USAID goals, each variable can change and there are many additional possible combinations. Each one of the sample approaches listed in the table is described in greater detail below.

These approaches are offered as examples of good practice.²⁷ In keeping with the categories of the five USAID goals—promoting transformational development, strengthening fragile states, providing humanitarian relief, supporting geostrategic interests, and mitigating global and transnational ills—an attempt was made to provide examples from four different types of implementing agencies. Therefore, examples from

²⁷ It is important to note that few independent assessments have been conducted on these various education in crisis programs.

**TABLE I:
PROPOSED APPROACHES TO EDUCATION
WITHIN USAID'S NEW POLICY GOALS: CHOOSING A PROGRAM**

USAID Goal: Promoting transformational development	Crisis: Economic- Extreme poverty/uneven distribution of wealth	Sample Education Program: "Street education" program to educate and advocate for children living on the street in Salvador, Brazil (Projecto Axe, Brazil)
	Population: Street children	
	State: Stable (Brazil)	
USAID Goal: Strengthening fragile states	Crisis: Political- Low intensity conflict/post-conflict	Sample Education Program: 1. Teacher training (IRC) 2. Accelerated learning (Catholic Relief Services) 3. Youth centers (SC/IRC/CCF)
	Population: Returnees, stayees	
	State: Fragile (e.g., Afghanistan)	
USAID Goal: Providing humanitarian relief	Crisis: Political	Sample Education Program: Education (early childhood development) in emergencies for people affected by conflict (Save the Children/US) UNICEF Child-Friendly Spaces
	Population: Refugees, IDPs, and "Stayees"	
	State: Failed (e.g., 1993-1995 Bosnia)	
USAID Goal: Supporting geostrategic interests	Crisis: Economic/Political- Conflict prevention	Sample Education Program: Peace education (UNHCR)
	Population: Teachers	
	State: Failed (e.g., refugee camps in Kenya housing refugees from a failed state)	
USAID Goal: Mitigating global and transnational ills	Crisis: Health - HIV/AIDS	Sample Education Program: HIV/AIDS awareness/life skills training (Government of South Africa)
	Population: Youth	
	State: Stable (e.g., South Africa)	

local NGOs, local government, international NGOs, and multinational (UN) agencies are included.²⁸ It is beyond the scope of this study to provide an exhaustive list of programs. Where possible, the author has listed additional references.

GOAL #1: PROMOTING TRANSFORMATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

As with most development efforts, it is difficult to identify which salient interventions lead to transformational development, but the two sample programs listed below show significant promise.

COMBATING POVERTY: ASSISTING STREET CHILDREN IN BRAZIL

Project Axé is a Brazilian NGO founded in 1990 with a mission to ensure basic human rights, particularly those of children and adolescents. Axé began with the intent to provide education for children who were making a living in the streets of Salvador, Brazil as part of an effort to support these children's rights. Since its founding, Axé's activities have expanded to include programs to assist the families of these children to enhance reintegration, to promote prevention by supporting children who are at risk, but not yet living on the streets, and to collaborate with colleague organizations with whom to share experiences. To do so, Axé's efforts focus on: "street education" to establish

relationships with the children and introduce them to human rights concepts; "educational units" to provide creative and cultural activities; and advocacy efforts with municipal and state governments to train professionals and influence public policy.²⁹

According to data collected regarding the organization and its programs, the *quality* and *contextual relevance* of Axé's educational interventions have notably improved the quality of life for street children in Salvador. In addition, the program succeeded in lobbying the state to create a school that integrated children from the surrounding area (50 percent) with street children (50 percent) (Angotti, 2003).

REINTEGRATING CHILD SOLDIERS

Programs to disarm, demobilize, and reintegrate child soldiers have proliferated in recent years, particularly since the issue has been brought to the attention of western peace-keeping forces confronting a child as a military opponent (Singer, 2002). In addition to numerous programs to assist child soldiers, significant and interesting data are available to reflect on program progress in helping former child soldiers rejoin and become productive members of society. These will be noted below.

First, Verhey (2001) provides an in-depth assessment of two initiatives to prevent recruitment, demobilize, and reintegrate child soldiers in

Angola and El Salvador. She identifies the following: advocacy, legal frameworks, monitoring, planning and coordination, social networks, and education and economic opportunities as important elements in the three phases—prevention, demobilization, and reintegration. She further reports that apprenticeships and micro enterprise approaches are more effective for assisting child soldiers than vocational training, and that government should include reintegration of child soldiers in its broader economic policies. She notes that in the programs she studied, the specific needs of girls and disabled were neglected across phases.³⁰

New data from a longitudinal study on child soldiers in Mozambique provide very encouraging information. From 1988 until 2004, information was gathered from 39 male former child soldiers who participated in Save the Children/US's Children and War program in Mozambique. The study examined how these former child soldiers fare as adults. Findings show that although these adults continue to struggle with their past, the vast majority of this group have become "productive, capable, and caring adults" (Boothby et. al., 2005, p. 2). In addition, the research identifies specific interventions that helped these children make their transitions from soldiers to civilians by participating in activities that did the following:

²⁸ Note that some programs can serve more than the goal they are listed as supporting.

²⁹ For more information, see: <http://www.comminit.com/experiences/pds11-15-99/experiences-306.html>.

³⁰ Creative Associates International carried out a research study to assist the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in formulating national policy to demobilize and reintegrate child soldiers, to assess the educational needs of demobilized child soldiers, and to provide recommendations to address them. The study was intended to assist the government in issuing a decree for a national policy that prohibits recruitment of child soldiers (Agborsangaya, August 2000).

- supported and strengthened individuals' coping skills for anticipated trauma and grief, as well as those that supported normative life cycle milestones;
- instilled a sense of social responsibility, and promoted safe codes of conduct, self-regulation and security-seeking behavior; and
- apprenticeships, community-sensitization campaigns, community works projects, and outward support of community rites. (Boothby et. al., 2005, p. 3).

Helping former child soldiers integrate into a post-conflict, peaceful society is a step toward transformational development both for individuals and for society.

GOAL #2: STRENGTHENING FRAGILE STATES

Unlike new data available on child soldiers and supporting transformational development, there are limited data on fragile states and even less on the potential relationship between education in crisis programs and fragile states. As noted above, there has been some exploration of the general relationship between education and conflict, describing the impact of conflict on education (e.g., World Bank, 2005),

or the exclusion of minorities, or other groups, leading up to or contributing to conflict.³¹ In *Education, Conflict, and Social Cohesion*, Tawil and Harley (eds.) (2004) gathered researchers from across conflict-affected countries and regions to “gain a better understanding of the role of education policy in shaping social and civic identities and in redefining or reconstructing national citizenship within the context of identity-based conflict” (p. 6). Given that a lack of public services (education and health) is one of the indicators for failed and fragile states, providing support to education (equitably) should hold promise for strengthening fragile states.³²

Because post-conflict states are almost always fragile, these are important observations. However, less has been observed regarding the impact of relatively discrete foreign assistance in education in crisis on fragile states. The following paragraphs provide preliminary observations on teacher training programs and a youth reintegration program.

TEACHER TRAINING

“Teachers are the most critical resource in education reconstruction” (World Bank, 2005, p. xviii). The importance of teachers is echoed throughout the literature relating to varied education crises. Teacher training and retention have

been linked to educational quality (Bethke, 2004; UNESCO, 2005; Winthrop & Kirk, 2005), to children's psychosocial well-being, and, potentially, to strengthening the state.³³

Teacher training supported by education in crisis programs is often supplemental to past pedagogical training that teachers have had, or it may be re-training for paraprofessional teachers. Key elements included in training are: pedagogy (usually a focus on creating supportive classroom and promoting child-centered learning), supplemental content (life skills-HIV/AIDS education, peace or civics education), and often resources development. Most international agencies provide rapid training seminars, usually 3-5 days that are followed later by in-service training in conflict or disaster-affected environments. Although there is not much evidence to demonstrate “a measurable impact on teaching practice,” these training sessions help to build professional ties across groups (e.g., Bosnia example cited below) and also build teacher morale. Some evidence indicates that training linked to developing materials will have a better impact on teaching practice (World Bank, 2005, p. 49).

³¹ See Anna Obura (2003), *Never Again: Educational Reconstruction in Rwanda, and Human Rights Watch*, Children's Rights 2002-both provide excellent descriptions of minority and other groups exclusions from education; see also World Bank (2005), Chapter 2, “The Impact of Conflict on Education”-describes effects on children and systems, and notes that systems are surprisingly resilient.

³² It is important to note that high levels of literacy and education provision do not preclude countries from experiencing conflict (e.g., Bosnia, Northern Ireland), but this also indicates that it is topic about which much remains unknown.

³³ See INEE Teacher Training Task Team.

COMMUNITY-BASED, RAPID RESPONSE DEMOBILIZATION

The Youth Reintegration Training and Education for Peace (YRTEP) Program that OTI developed in war-torn Sierra Leone with its partners, Management Systems International and World Vision, is a community-based, rapid response to demobilize and reintegrate ex-combatants at a low cost. YRTEP features a six to twelve month program providing “psychosocial and vocational counseling, literacy, life-skills and agricultural skills training, and peace education” (OTI, 2004). A BEPS evaluation of OTI’s program reported that YRTEP supported peace-building efforts and praised the program’s rapid and broad administration of services, and inclusion of women, but expressed concerns about unmet expectations of participants when trainings ended (Hansen, et. al., 2002).

To avoid unmet expectations when programs end, and to avoid leaving a power vacuum behind, it is important to plan for transitions and include government officials/Ministry of Education in these activities.³⁴

GOAL #3: PROVIDING HUMANITARIAN RELIEF

Currently, there are numerous forms of emergency education that

agencies can implement effectively to provide humanitarian relief. Several are listed below.

QUICK-RESPONSE EDUCATION ACTIVITIES AFTER A NATURAL DISASTER

Typically “rapid” education for communities affected by natural disasters consists of the following elements: assessment of needs, reconstruction of schools, training for teachers, and organizing classes quickly for students. For example, when Mozambique experienced massive floods in 2001, 100,000 people were affected and 100 people were killed. In one district where Save the Children/UK worked, approximately 25,000 people were displaced and in some areas could only be reached by boat. Immediately following the initial response to deliver food, medical supplies, plastic sheeting and non-food items, Save the Children assessed the number of stranded children (by sex, age, disability), searched for classroom sites, and available teachers. Save the Children built temporary classrooms, bought educational supplies, trained teachers in the areas of hygiene, HIV/AIDS, and disability, and organized recreational activities for children. Save the Children and UNICEF provided “school and learner kits” to the district office of education (Nicolai, 2003, p. 41).

EDUCATION AND PROTECTION

The Save the Children/US program listed here was launched as an emergency intervention during the war in the Balkans. It provided education and safe places to young children and families during shelling, sieges, and in refugee centers from 1993 to 1995 in Croatia and Bosnia, and continued to operate for several years during reconstruction after the peace agreement was signed. At the time of its inception in the refugee centers, there were no other social programs offered by either the host government, or by other international NGOs. Also for families living in besieged cities (Mostar, Sarajevo), this particular education program was one of the few available services—most government institutions had stopped their regular functions. At that time there were frequent disappearances, and people who took part in the program felt there was some measure of security provided by affiliation with an international agency. This proximity offered at least sporadic protection, they said, or the perception of protection, from targeted violence and human rights abuses (Burde, 1999).³⁵

The education services were delivered across the region to refugees, IDPs, and stayees. The international NGO helped community members organize committees to hire teach-

³⁴The chief investigator for the Truth and Reconciliation Commission in Sierra Leone proposed requiring that all political parties post 10 percent of their candidates from the youth category, described as 18-35 year olds. See www.witness.org. These types of initiatives could be linked to youth education programs.

³⁵From March 1999-November 2000 the author conducted independent research on this program, interviewing over 50 teachers and parents (many selected randomly) who had participated in the program either during or after the conflict, staying with them in their towns and villages, and observing the children in the preschool; those who had enrolled their children during the conflict expressed gratitude for the emotional relief the program had given them.

ers, pay salaries, and manage the preschools. The program sent an important message: it advocated for education as a necessary service to be delivered as part of a humanitarian aid package, just as aid agencies delivered other, more quantifiable necessities (food and water, shelter, and medical supplies).

CHILD-FRIENDLY PLACES

In Liberia in 2002, UNICEF established Child Friendly Spaces (CFS) in each of the new IDP camps. These are meant to provide safe places for children to play and learn together, acquire life skills, and have access to clean water and health facilities (UNICEF, February 2002). In its original design, it included spaces for pre-primary and lower primary classes, three spaces for upper primary classes, a play area, a baby area, and a women and children's adult area (Nicolai, 2003). They are meant to provide mothers with a place to care for their infants, and a space for children to experience a degree of normalcy amid the chaos around them.

TEACHER TRAINING PACKAGES

UNESCO's Programme for Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER) is based in Nairobi. PEER produced Teacher Emergency Packages and carried out teacher training to address re-professionalization (of teachers, inspectors, and educational administrators), and the need for peace, tol-

erance, and reconciliation. UNESCO developed the "Teacher Emergency Package" in Somalia in 1992 so that communities would be able to start their own schools, without government structures. The program expanded to the rest of Somalia, Northwest Somalia (Somaliland), and to the refugee camps in Kenya, Djibouti, Yemen, and Ethiopia, as well as to the Rwandan refugee camps in Tanzania and Zaire. The work in Somalia resulted in Environmental Education kits and fostered a regional awareness-raising program of environmental issues among refugees (Payne & Fraser, March 2004).

GOAL #4: SUPPORTING GEOSTRATEGIC INTERESTS

International NGOs that typically administer USAID programs maintain an uneasy relationship with overtly political mandates. That said, this does not decrease their activities in politically charged environments. A variety of education in crisis programs have potential to be applied toward this goal.

PEACE EDUCATION³⁶

UNHCR's peace education program (PEP) is run in nine countries in Africa, and also in Pakistan (through Save the Children/UK) and Kosovo (through World Vision). Partners adapt the materials to the local environment. The program is run through refugee schools, and has

been described as a "skills for constructive living" course to enable discussion of issues about tolerance, diversity, bias, stereotyping, and cooperation. It has been extended beyond school children to community groups, which has so far been successful (e.g. in Sri Lanka). PEP has also developed a youth manual for out-of-school youth, yet a lack of resources and an insufficient number of facilitators have prevented full implementation. Although the program was originally designed for refugees, in Liberia and Guinea it has been extended to include host populations. UNHCR provides technical support and advice on the peace program from the central Education Unit in Geneva (Obura cited in Payne & Fraser, March 2004). See Appendix J for a summary of PEP and a list of peace education programs.

ACCELERATED LEARNING

In Afghanistan Catholic Relief Services (CRS) operates an accelerated learning program in two provinces north of Kabul: Kapisa and Parwan. The goal of the Accelerated Basic Education project is to help students make up the education they lost during the recent conflict and to reintegrate them into regular primary schools quickly. To do so, the accelerated curriculum compresses one year into six months. In 2004, there were approximately 1400 students enrolled, and although approximately 50 percent are male and 50 per-

³⁶ See Margaret Sinclair (2004), *Learning to Live Together: Values and Attitudes for the 21st Century* for a comprehensive review of peace education programs.

cent are female, the program places particular emphasis on girls' education and teacher training. This program demonstrates typical characteristics of education sponsored by international NGOs in war-torn and early reconstruction settings, both because the learning is accelerated and because of the emphasis placed on girls' education to enhance their protection.

DISTANCE LEARNING

In Hebron, in the Occupied Palestinian Territories, 30 schools were involved in UNICEF's Community-Based Education Program/Reducing the Impact of Conflict in Learning, including 600 teachers, parents, local TV networks, and the district directorate. Two hundred thirty "self-learning sheets" were developed, and 20 lessons were broadcast on local television stations. This resulted in 40 hours of remedial education for children in grades 1-4 (UNICEF, 2002).

GOAL #5: MITIGATING GLOBAL AND TRANSNATIONAL ILLS

The impact illness and disease has on a community can most easily be seen in countries with high HIV/AIDS infection rates. Yet, other diseases and illnesses, such as polio, cholera, dysentery, and malaria, are also increasingly recognized for the effect they have on individuals and the community at large. Therefore, more and more programs are being designed with the intention of pre-

venting and treating many illnesses and diseases.

HIV/AIDS

Extensive work has been carried out to address this devastating pandemic. The World AIDS Campaign advocates for integrating life skills, sexual health, and HIV/AIDS education into school curricula starting with primary school and continuing throughout the students' education. The programs should be developed by national ministries of education in collaboration with parent teachers associations and participation from young people (UNAIDS, cited in Kelly, 2000).

The Department of Education in South Africa, with financial support from USAID undertook an extensive evaluation of its HIV/Life Skills program across the country. Among its salient findings it determined that only 29 percent of schools were actually implementing the program due to lack of support, insufficient teacher training attendance, and little contact between districts and schools (Khulisa Management Services, August 8, 2000).

In an extensive study compiling diverse literature and experiences on addressing HIV/AIDS, the World Bank advocates for key interventions such as: school-based prevention programs (Focusing Resources on Effective School Health—a program created in partnership with UNESCO, WHO, and UNICEF),

skills-based health education (linking information about HIV to the development of interpersonal skills and critical thinking), peer education and focus on youth (education by youth, for youth), support for orphans and out-of-school youth (with research and cross-sectoral efforts), and multimedia campaigns (raise public understanding regarding the issues) (World Bank, 2002, p. xix).

These sample programs suggest the abundance of approaches to education in crisis settings. Following is a summary of several initiatives and resources that inform the field.

RESOURCES AND REFERENCE MATERIALS

Recently, INEE consolidated and packaged a vast volume of program experiences, advocacy tools, training instruments, and other useful documents on a CD Rom, "The INEE Technical Resource Kit on Education in Emergencies and Early Recovery—A Digital Library" (2004). This collection of materials is well-organized and easy to use, and is a likely place to find program information relating to any of the following topics: core reference materials, advocacy and policy statements, Education for All documents, human rights instruments, evaluations and case studies, and models and frameworks. In addition, several international organizations have designed a number of education "tool kits" and other materials to

assist humanitarian workers, educators, teachers, parents, and community members in providing education services during a complex emergency—typically a natural disaster or armed conflict (Nicolai, 2003; Pigozzi, 1999; Triplehorn, 2001). Nicolai’s toolkit contains extensive descriptions and examples of case studies from Save the Children’s experiences in providing education support to children affected by conflict, disaster, and other crises. Specifically related to USAID supported programs and several case studies, see *Helping Children Outgrow War* (Miller & Affolter, 2003). These references are all available in the digital library.³⁷

MINIMUM STANDARDS

The Minimum Standards on Education in Emergencies (MSEE) facilitated by INEE, were reached through an extensive consultative process that spanned all continents, more than 2200 participants, and one and a half years.³⁸ The results of these consultations and discussions culminated in the publication and dissemination of the MSEE in December 2004. The standards are intended to serve as a common starting point for international aid workers and others in “providing guidance and tools on how to reach a minimum level of educational quality.” Specifically they are meant to:

- Promote education as a core element of humanitarian assistance;
- Enhance accountability among humanitarian actors;
- Improve coordination among partners, including education authorities;
- Serve as a capacity-building and training tool to enhance education management and effectiveness;
- Provide a strong advocacy tool promoting education to humanitarian organizations, governments, donors, and populations affected by crisis; and
- Serve as a tool for planning, implementing, and evaluating education projects (INEE, 2004).

Although in explicitly targeting “education in emergencies, chronic crises, and early reconstruction” the Minimum Standards have an implicit focus on armed conflict and natural disasters, they also address issues specific to girls, people affected by HIV/AIDS, and other vulnerable groups. The MSEE Working Group envisions that establishing standards will help move the world closer to reaching the Education for All and UN Millennium Development Goals

(INEE, 2004). See Appendix C for an overview of the minimum standards.

In addition to the enormous effort undertaken to launch the minimum standards, many promising programs such as those listed in the table on page 18 exist to help provide educational resources and support to populations affected by crises. Bethke (2004) names, and includes brief descriptions where information is available, approximately 500 projects in 113 countries managed by approximately 25 international NGOs, 50 national NGOs or international organizations with a single regional focus, 12 governments, six bilateral government aid agencies, and four multi-governmental (UN) agencies. Although there is considerable overlap between education in crises programs and more standard education programs, the survey lists the following nine types of educational activities as typical examples of education in emergencies programs: structured recreational activities (usually for young children), youth centers, formal education, vocational or skills training for youth, accelerated learning programs, bridging programs, life skills education, teacher training, and distance education programs (pp. 6-7).³⁹

³⁷ Also many are available on the INNE or GINIE websites. For comprehensive set of practical guides and resources for organizations implementing education in crisis programs on the INEE website, see: <http://www.ineesite.org/core/default.asp>. Several excellent, generic, and comprehensive resource guides to approaching education in various types of crisis situations are available.

³⁸ “...delegates and INEE members in the regions coordinated local, national, and sub-regional consultations in 47 countries to gather input and information from over 1,900 representatives of affected communities, including students, teachers and other education personnel; NGO, government and UN representatives with experience in education; donors and academics,” additional members participated on-line. See: <http://www.ineesite.org/standards/default.asp>.

³⁹ See the Global Survey on Education in Emergencies (Bethke, 2004), available: http://www.womenscommission.org/pdf/Ed_Emerg.pdf. For individual country summaries, see InterAction membership activity country reports.

IV. DEBATES, GAPS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH⁴⁰



Given that the field of education in crisis situations is still being defined and a wide variety of actors are involved, debates about the field and gaps within the field remain widespread. This section is not intended to go into great depth about any one debate or gap; nor is it intended to discuss each one. It simply acknowledges the wide variety of issues and offers some potential research to be considered in hopes of promoting greater understanding of the needs and issues involved and inspiring new activities to resolve them.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND CONFLICT

The relationship between education and conflict is not clear. Education may have potential for strengthening social cohesion, rending it, or creat-

ing a more complicated reaction (Bush & Saltarelli, 2000; Krech & Maclure, 2004; Tawil, 2004; World Bank, 2005). In Sierra Leone, for example, the public education system was regarded as contributing to social decline and directly influencing children's participation in the war. The kleptocratic government pilfered state resources for many years unchecked, while the education system continued to create "widespread school leaver disillusion and frustration" (Krech & Maclure, 2004, p. 142).

Although education may create conflict, it is also credited with resolving it, and is often considered a key instrument for reconstruction. In the interest of responding effectively to the needs of fragile states, the relationship between education and conflict should be better understood.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND PROTECTION

The Role of Education in Protecting Children in Conflict (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003) argues for education to play a more prominent role in humanitarian assistance programs based on its ability to provide protection for children and youth. Advocacy literature points out that "certain aspects of education can inherently protect children: the sense of self-worth that comes from being identified as a student and a learner; the growth and development of social networks; the provision of adult supervision and access to a structured, ordered schedule" (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003, p. 9). Beyond this, education provides "life-saving messages" such as nutritional information and information regarding HIV transmission.

⁴⁰ See also, Sommers "Education in Emergencies: Critical Questions and Challenges." BEPS: <http://www.beps.net/publications/Challenges8.5x11ChangesFINAL.pdf>.

To educators and aid workers these conclusions make sense intuitively. Yet researchers know little about whether education in emergencies works to protect children or not. In fact, others point out that schools can be dangerous places for children—particularly for girls. The incidence of Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV) in refugee camps is relatively high, and aid workers themselves have participated in the violations (Shifman, personal communication, 2004).

There are important questions to answer: if education protects children, how does it work? Does it work because children are counted and their activities are monitored, or because they acquire particular cognitive skills that afford them greater decision-making capacity and an increased ability to avoid exploitation? The answer is likely to be a combination of the two, but without studies that have measured these outcomes, it is difficult to hone policy recommendations.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EDUCATION IN CRISIS AND EDUCATION IN DEVELOPMENT

According to Buckland (Interview, August 2004), education, properly defined, is inherently a development activity. Education is not simply carried out to provide safe spaces for children, but it is also meant to pro-

mote their cognitive, emotional, and social development. The two goals are not incompatible, but one may exist without the other. “Teaching an irrelevant curriculum may be counter developmental, although it may keep children safe” (Buckland, Interview, August 2004). In this view, the content of good quality education will vary according to any context; different crises, like different cultures, provide additional variations in context. The extra content included in education in crisis that is particular to these contexts can include practical “life skills” messages such as landmine awareness and health education that is particular to specific health threats in refugee or IDP camps. In education for children affected by armed conflict, content also typically includes greater than average emphasis on some form of peace, human rights, or tolerance education. As noted above, teaching methodologies and curriculum designs also change to adapt to the circumstances. For example, a dense curriculum may be used to provide accelerated learning for children who have significant gaps in their education.

ROLE OF THE STATE IN EDUCATION IN CRISIS

Education is believed to be a key to state building. “Sustainable civil peace relies on the successful reconstruction of legitimate state authority” (Doyle & Sambanis, 2000,

p. 2). Rebuilding an education system is one of the essential tools that governments use to cultivate and maintain legitimate authority. Yet education programs for developing stable countries, and programs for post-conflict countries, for a variety of reasons, may circumvent the state. If the state is already fragile, or fledgling, this will not increase stability, and may, in fact, add a destabilizing influence.

EMPHASIS ON COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Parent, teacher, and community involvement in management and school governance in a conflict or post-conflict environment are emerging as critical principles of education in crises. When government has collapsed or withdrawn, there is often no other way to provide education services. In addition, creating local parent teacher associations, or parent support groups, is meant to increase the social glue that bonds neighbors and thus builds community. But these types of community bonds, particularly after a conflict, can be exclusive—insulating a neighborhood group against perceived intrusions from the outside or from “others” (Burde, 2004). Also, in the context of a fragile state, or a re-emerging state, it is critical to strengthen the state. Too much emphasis on civil society, particularly in providing services that are in the purview of the state, may

hinder national development rather than help it.

COORDINATION

Many observers, critics, and aid workers note the lack of coordination among international aid agencies providing services during crises and post-conflict reconstruction and the problems associated with it (Minear, 2004; Sommers, 2004a; Rupp, 2004). Numerous reports cite “increased coordination among international agencies” as one of the primary recommendations for improving the efficiency and efficacy of the delivery of educational services in these circumstances (Bethke, 2004; Nicolai, 2004; Sommers, 2004a, 2004b; World Bank, 2005). Recommendations from a conference, “Workshop on Refugee Education in Complex Emergencies, Forced Migration, and Post-Conflict Transitions,” held in 1999 on education in emergencies, stressed the importance of increasing collaboration among international agencies to provide education services during crises.⁴¹ To support global collaboration and data collection, the INEE was founded shortly after this workshop. With the level and intensity of attention that has been given to the problem of coordination in multiple contexts, the question now is less about what the problem is, but rather why the problem persists.

Reasons offered range from the practical to the structural. First, in

crisis-affected environments, it is difficult to track projects when the central accounting system is limited or does not exist. With multiple donors representing multiple countries providing grants to multiple NGOs, the sheer numbers of projects are difficult to track even when an accounting system is in place. During a conflict, looting and violence destroy old records of all kinds, and keeping new records hardly seems like a priority.

Second, during and after a conflict has ended, UNICEF, in conjunction with the ministry of education, usually becomes the “lead agency” for coordinating projects related to the education system. International NGOs and bilateral agencies, however, are not *required* to coordinate with UNICEF and the ministry; they are simply *expected* to do so. Logistical difficulties and internal agendas can easily overshadow a task that is viewed as a professional courtesy, and the outcome is a continued lack of coordination.

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

PAYING TEACHERS

Recruiting and retaining teachers can be a challenge for international agencies working in crisis areas. Qualified paraprofessional teachers often leave international NGOs after having received training and, once conditions have stabilized, moving either to a job that is closer

to their original line of work or to a better position elsewhere. They do this because they are concerned that the job is short term and will end when the NGO finishes its work in the country or because the pay is low.

Although pay is typically minimal, there has been significant debate regarding whether or not to pay teachers at all in education programs launched during crises. Many international agencies argue that because paying teachers is a recurring expense, it is an unsustainable activity for an NGO, and it is the responsibility of the government. However, international organizations are funded to provide educational services during a crisis often because government has collapsed, or is divided, or is too fragile to assume full responsibility for managing the education system. Many argue that serving in this capacity includes paying teachers' salaries (Midttun, 2004, personal communication). Not to do so may undermine the credibility of the international agency, and typically hampers the success of the education program. Paying teachers' salaries is correlated with better quality education programs (Bethke, 2004).

EDUCATING ADOLESCENTS

International norms and standards emphasize primary education. Education for adolescents, both secondary and primary (for older chil-

⁴¹ This workshop was co-sponsored by the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, InterWorks, Norwegian Refugee Council, and the Congressional Hunger Center; supported by the Bayan Tree Foundation, and hosted by the World Bank.

dren who have missed school), has traditionally been neglected. Adolescents, however, make up large numbers of people affected by conflict. They are vulnerable to exploitation, as mentioned above, and they hold the potential to have a large impact on society, both now and in the future and in both positive and negative ways. Many educators argue that it is important to recognize this potential and help adolescents develop in positive and productive ways (Bush & Saltarelli, 2002). But because secondary education is not mandated in international rights documents, as primary education is, many donors and host governments do not support it.

CERTIFYING TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Finding certifications that will be recognized after a crisis is resolved is a dilemma both for teachers and for students. Students enrolled in education in emergencies programs are often taught by paraprofessional teachers with a curriculum that may be one from the host country, may be a version of the pre-conflict curriculum from the country of origin, or may be a mixture of NGO curriculum innovations and a local model. When children graduate from these courses, whether they are formal or nonformal programs, and when teachers graduate from basic training courses, even if the sponsoring agencies issue certificates, once the teachers and stu-

dents return to their country of origin, or the system resumes around them, a new government will rarely recognize these certificates.

PROVIDING PEACE EDUCATION

Nearly every educator agrees that peace education is a good idea. Generally two ways are suggested for including peace education, or one of its many derivatives—human rights education, tolerance education, education for reconciliation—in the school curriculum. Either it is “mainstreamed,” in other words, included as a theme in every course taught, or it is taught as an independent class. Some argue that, as with mainstreaming gender, issues that are treated in this way are often overshadowed by other priorities. The best way to produce results, they say, is to combine the two—include a separate class that promotes behavior relevant to the conflict at hand (Sinclair, 2004). Sometimes this may mean teaching peace education, or it may mean a greater emphasis on citizenship education to counteract ethno-nationalist divisive tendencies. See Appendix J on Peace Education Programs.

MINIMUM STANDARDS

Although establishing minimum standards was an exceptionally well-organized process, it was not without its debates. Most members of the consultation meetings supported the idea of establishing guidelines

and standards, but some questioned the tension between reaching aspirations in education and establishing a low threshold for achievement. To test this, INEE plans to pilot, monitor, collect baseline data, and evaluate the standards to assess their impact, and to refine and improve the standards in the future.

CURRICULUM

Curriculum issues are complex in part because of the many purposes and agendas that a national curriculum is meant to serve.⁴² For refugee education, most agencies try to rely on the country of origin for curriculum materials. These are not always available and may be a source of social tension.

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

In programs that offer urgently needed services, tension often exists between delivering those services and assessing their outcomes. Data collection takes time and resources that many field workers do not have. On the other hand, poor monitoring leads to incomplete and inaccurate data. Many argue for monitoring and evaluation to become standardized and to systematically collect data relating to enrollment, persistence, retention figures, and tracking out-of-school youth.

⁴² See Obura (2003) for insights into post-conflict curriculum building in Rwanda, and Tawil and Harley (2004) for cross national post-conflict curriculum issues.

CONDUCTING AND COLLECTING RESEARCH AND DATA

There are three sources of information on education in crisis situations: (1) program documents produced by international and national non-governmental organizations involved in service provision in the field; (2) policy case studies and series papers produced by development institutes; and (3) academic articles and book chapters usually focusing on educational issues in specific conflict areas, not necessarily tied to programs carried out by international organizations.

Although typically large amounts of data are collected, there is little standardization and critical information may be missing. For example, although it is by now standard for most education programs to record the numbers of children enrolled in education programs, many do not

record the numbers of children who attend classes or activities full-time, or the total number of un-enrolled school-age children in the community (Bethke, personal communication).

Many NGO program reports remain hidden from the public. They are often written as internal documents to be circulated within the agency and to potential donors, but not necessarily to be shared with a broader audience. The recent collaborative efforts of INEE have been helpful in making such information available more broadly, but some have advocated for gray literature to be made available through a public database.

Academic studies of education in emergencies that employ a theoretical framework, rely on established research methods, and systematically collect empirical data are scarce. It is difficult to collect data and con-

duct academic research for several reasons. First, education programs designed to provide services during crises are often short term and flexible. Research requires planning and often extra funding. By the time plans are made and funds are raised, an education program in a conflict region may be over. Or the study variables may have changed significantly. Second, program logistics are difficult to manage during crises. Any research efforts will have to address the same logistical difficulties, but given the level of precision and accuracy required for empirical studies to be reliable and robust, the obstacles to collecting data increase. For example, it is challenging to find a control group of out-of-school children to compare to in-school children in order to test the impact of the education program. Finally, changing security compromises program delivery and data collection.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS



A key recommendation is that education in emergencies be seen, and planned from Day One, as part of the development process and not solely as a 'relief' effort. Donors should avoid compartmentalization of funding that can have the effect of creating an uneducated and bitter, revenge-oriented generation, because education in emergencies was seen as the last call on inadequate 'humanitarian' budgets (or excluded from them). Moreover, restoration of access to schooling in a postconflict situation should be seen as a funding priority (Bensalah, et. al., 2000, p. 38).

This quote summarizes the issues facing the field of education in crises elaborated in this paper: What role does education play in humanitarian action: does it require a humanitarian, human rights, or development approach? How should agencies plan for it—in segments or as an integrated approach? When should they plan it—during or after the start of the crisis? How should it be fund-

ed—as an “add-on” initiative or a priority?

The following recommendations are offered with these questions in mind.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

- Continue to support education for girls and youth as well as specific programs that target them.
- Approach education from the perspective of quality and access (human rights) across the spectrum of relief to development (rather than development or relief).
- Continue to advocate for life skills education that also focuses on interpersonal relations and critical thinking skills, to respond to HIV/AIDS.
- Ensure that HIV/AIDS awareness is addressed in all populations affected by crisis.
- Support and strengthen the INEE, providing on-going funding sufficient for the secretariat and resources to engage active member participation.
- Support implementation of minimum standards for education in emergencies.
- Support monitoring and evaluation. Establish standard indicators across programs.
- Support research and improve data collection. Examine: 1) education and protection; 2) relationship between education systems and fragile states; 3) impact of teacher training on teacher practice.
- Pool “gray” literature on education in crisis (program evaluations, reports) and make it available in a managed public database.

RECOMMENDATIONS TO USAID

- Articulate policy on education in crisis across the agency. Clarify terminology and include education in Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA) policy. Add an education specialist to the Disaster Assistance Response Team (DART).
- Prioritize collaboration with national governments/ Ministries of Education and encourage them to establish a transparent coordination mechanism for all education activities, including effective information sharing among stakeholders. Increase incentives and requirements for international agencies who receive grants from USAID to coordinate with each other and with national governments.
- Serve as a buffer between military operations and humanitarian aid delivery, particularly in geostrategic areas.
- Examine USAID's experience in youth programming and expand programs to provide out-of-school activities and support to secondary education.
- Assist fragile states and other national governments in disaster preparedness.

RECOMMENDATIONS TO INTERNATIONAL NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS (NGOS)

- Support national governments, particularly in fragile states.
- Provide greater number of program possibilities for adolescents and youth: education for different ages.
- Focus on girls and gender-specific issues in the classroom.
- Include peace education principles throughout teaching materials but also as a separate class, such as a civics/citizenship class.
- Standardize monitoring and evaluation tools for collecting project data; posted on and maintained on INEE website, or other suitable database.

RECOMMENDATIONS TO NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS

- Ensure that school buildings are up to scale to withstand natural disasters, and that school administrators are trained in emergency preparedness.
- Include peace education and civics principles throughout teaching materials.
- Educate school administrators about SGBV and ensure that administrators, teachers and

other education personnel follow a code of conduct.

In a short period of time, provision of education for children affected by crises has increased substantially. Many transnational actors—national and international, bilateral and multinational, governmental and NGO—have worked hard to illuminate the dilemmas facing crisis-affected populations, and have effectively realigned policies to focus attention on these pressing issues. Now, in the light of international attention, humanitarian actors (donors, practitioners, activists, researchers) can increase educational access and quality everywhere, thus guaranteeing every child's right to education, even the ones most deeply affected by crises. Supporting education programs across humanitarian and development assistance efforts, and committing to policies that incorporate the assets of those whose lives are most impacted by the crises will enrich the field...and eventually ensure the effectiveness and timeliness of its accomplishments.

Whether education plays the role of transforming development, strengthening fragile states, providing safe spaces, supporting peace and democracy, or mitigating the HIV/AIDS pandemic, it is critical within any crisis setting. Education “fuels new hopes” (USAID Education Strategy, April 2005, p. v) and USAID is well-positioned to help transform this hope into action.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: SELECTED INTERVIEWS

Pilar Aguilar, Senior Education and Protection Officer; UNICEF

Allison Anderson, Focal Point, Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies, Minimum Standards, International Rescue Committee

Lynne Bethke, InterWorks

Peter Buckland, Senior Education Advisor; World Bank

Mitch Kirby, Senior Education Advisor, East and Southern Africa, USAID

Eldrid Middtun, Norwegian Refugee Council

Margaret Sinclair, Consultant

Christopher Talbot, UNESCO, IIEP

Sohbi Tawil, UNESCO, IBE

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APPENDIX C:

INEE WORKING GROUP ON MINIMUM STANDARDS ON EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

EXCERPTED FROM:
**[HTTP://WWW.INEESITE.ORG/STANDARDS/
OVERVIEW.ASP](http://www.ineesite.org/standards/overview.asp)**

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES, CHRONIC CRISES AND EARLY RECONSTRUCTION: A COMMITMENT TO ACCESS, QUALITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY

DEVELOPING GLOBAL STANDARDS

Facilitated by the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies' (INEE) Working Group on Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies (WGMSEE), a broad base of stakeholders developed standards that articulate the minimum level of educational service to be attained in emergencies through to early reconstruction. INEE held regional, sub-regional and national consultations, INEE list-serve consultations and peer reviews. This process reflects lessons learned from the Sphere Project and emphasizes transparent, cost-effective and consultative decision-making. The participatory process was intended to enhance the applicability of standards to varying educational contexts, while at the same time ensuring relevance to and ownership of the standards across a wider group of stakeholders.

Participants included representatives from affected populations, including students, teachers and other education personnel; NGO, government and UN representatives with experience in education; donors and academics. They will develop standards, indicators and guidance notes that reflect their own experiences and good practice. The standards will apply to a variety of affected populations, from refugees to internally displaced and host country populations.

EXPECTED OUTCOMES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF MINIMUM STANDARDS

Education is primarily the responsibility of governments; however, governments are often unable to fulfill their roles during wars and disasters. The standards will therefore be a common starting point for the international community and others in providing guidance and tools on how to reach a minimum level of educational quality. They will also contribute to strengthening the resiliency of education ministries and equip them to ensure that the minimum standards are implemented. In addition, the establishment of standards that articulate the minimum level of educational service to be attained, along with indicators and guidance notes on how to reach the standards, will give government and humanitarian workers the tools that they need to address the Education For All and UN Millennium Development Goals.

In addition, minimum standards will:

- Promote education as a core element of humanitarian assistance
- Enhance accountability among humanitarian actors
- Improve coordination among partners, including education authorities
- Serve as a capacity-building and training tool to enhance education management and effectiveness
- Provide a strong advocacy tool promoting education to humanitarian organizations, governments, donors and populations affected by crisis
- Serve as a tool for planning, implementing and evaluating education projects

Furthermore, the consultative process of developing standards will strengthen the education and humanitarian community by linking beneficiaries, practitioners, policy-makers and academics through discussions on best practice.

INEE'S WORKING GROUP ON MINIMUM STANDARDS

INEE's Working Group on Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies consists of 13 organizations with expertise in education in crisis and early reconstruction situations: CARE Canada, CARE USA, Catholic Relief Services, the International Rescue Committee, Norwegian Church Aid, Norwegian Refugee Council and the Norway United Nations Association, Save the Children UK, Save the Children USA, Refugee Education Trust, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNICEF and World Education. The Focal Point for the standards process is based at the International Rescue Committee in New York City. The standards process has received core

funding from the Swedish International Development Agency and the International Rescue Committee, and is seeking additional support for the consultative process and the publication of standards.

INEE is an open network of UN agencies, non-governmental organizations, donors, practitioners, researchers and individuals from affected populations working together to ensure the right to education in emergencies and post-crisis reconstruction. The network is responsible for gathering and disseminating best practices in education in emergencies and ensuring a regular exchange of information among its members and partners. INEE is led by a Steering Group composed of representatives from CARE International, International Save the Children Alliance, the International Rescue Committee, Norwegian Refugee Council, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNICEF and the World Bank.

APPENDIX D: AFFECTED POPULATIONS

Refugees. The 1951 Refugee Convention and the 1967 Protocol state that refugees are those who have a well-founded fear of persecution and are forcibly displaced beyond the state boundaries of their countries of origin. Based on these criteria, they are granted legal refugee status. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), refugee children are accorded the same rights and standards as refugee adults. A child with refugee status cannot be forced to return to her/his country of origin (the principle of non-refoulement), and refugee children must be given access to the same level of primary education to which their host country counterparts have access. Secondary education must be provided at the same level that it is afforded to non-refugee aliens in the host country (UNHCR, 1994, p. 18).

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). People who are forced to migrate within their home country's borders due to war or natural disasters are considered IDPs. Given the fact that most conflicts today are civil rather than interstate, most war-affected forced migrants are IDPs (Harwood & Anis, unpublished report 2001; Machel, 2001; USAID, 2002). IDPs are particularly vulnerable to suffering and exploitation because they fall outside of the UNHCR's mandate and they are often difficult for aid organizations to reach for political reasons.

Civilians caught in conflict or "stayees." The numbers of people who attempt to weather low intensity conflicts by remaining where they are, or who are unable to leave because of sieges (e.g., Sarajevo) or severe travel restrictions (e.g., Palestinians living in the Occupied Palestinian Territories) have increased with the increased number of civil conflicts.

Returnees. People returning to their region or country of origin after conflict are referred to as "returnees." The resettlement of returning refugees and IDPs is an important component of reconstruction activities.

Displaced children and orphans. The USAID Displaced Children and Orphans Fund defines this target group as vulnerable children who are: (1) affected by armed conflict, (2) living on or in danger of living on the street, (3) living with disabilities, (4) otherwise separated from caregivers" (USAID/DCOF, n.d.).

Victims of Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV). In the past several years, awareness has grown regarding specific dangers affecting girls and women, particularly in the midst of social chaos and crisis.

Youth and adolescents. There are different definitions of this phase of a child's life. Some agencies and governments take a broad view, for example, in a national policy document developed by Beirzeit University in partnership with UNICEF, describe youth and adolescents as encompassing an age range from 15-35. The INEE Task Team on Adolescents and Youth in Emergencies defines youth as young people between the ages of 12 and 24 (INEE, n.d.).

Child soldiers. or children associated with fighting forces (UNICEF, 2004) are boys and girls who have been conscripted by government or rebel forces to fight with or support an army. Children as young as five or six have been conscripted, but the average age is estimated to be 12 or 13, depending on the region (Singer, 2002).

Street children. According to Human Rights Watch (HRW), "the term street children refers to children for whom the street more than their family has become their real home. It includes children who might not nec-

essarily be homeless or without families, but who live in situations where there is no protection, supervision, or direction from responsible adults” (HRW, n.d.).

People living with HIV/AIDS. This term encompasses people who have been diagnosed with HIV but may not yet developed AIDS, as well as those who have.

Orphan Due to AIDS. A child who has at least one parent dead from AIDS.

Double Orphan Due to AIDS. A child whose mother and father have both died, at least one due to AIDS. (UNAIDS, UNICEF & USAID, July 2004)

APPENDIX E: KEY UN AGREEMENTS OUTLINING CHILDREN'S RIGHT TO EDUCATION

KEY UN AGREEMENTS OUTLINING CHILDREN'S RIGHT TO EDUCATION

SOURCE: NICOLAI. (2003). EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES TOOLKIT. LONDON: SAVE THE CHILDREN/UK PP.7-8.

The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights: Article 26 outlines the right to free and compulsory education at the elementary level and urges that professional and technical education be made available. The declaration states that education should work to strengthen respect for human rights and promote peace. Parents have the right to choose the kind of education provided to their child.

The 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees: Refugee children are guaranteed the right to elementary education in Article 22, which states they should be accorded the same opportunities as nationals from the host country. Beyond primary school, refugee children are treated as other aliens, allowing for the recognition of foreign school certificates and awarding of scholarships.

The 1966 Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: The right to free and compulsory education at the primary level and accessible secondary-level education is laid out in Article 13. The covenant goes on to call for basic education to be made available to those who have not received or completed primary education. Emphasis is placed on improving conditions and teaching standards.

The 1989 Convention of the Rights of the Child: Article 28 calls for states to make primary education compulsory and free to all, and to encourage the development

of accessible secondary, and other forms of, education. Quality and relevance is detailed in Article 29, which mandates an education that builds on a child's potential and supports their cultural identity. Psychosocial support and enriched curriculum for conflict-affected children are both emphasized in this article. Article 2 outlines the principle of non-discrimination, including access for children with disabilities, gender equity, and the protection of linguistic and cultural rights of ethnic minority communities. Article 31 protects a child's right to recreation and culture.

The 1990 World Declaration on Education for All: In 1990, at a global meeting in Jomtien, Thailand, the governments of the world committed to ensuring basic education for all. Ten years later at the Dakar World Education Forum, governments and agencies identified humanitarian emergencies as a major obstacle toward achieving the goals of Education for All (EFA). Within the Dakar Framework of Action, a call was made for active commitment to remove disparities in access for under-served groups, notably girls, working children, refugees, those displaced by war and disaster, and children with disabilities.

The Geneva Conventions: For situations of armed conflict, the Geneva Conventions lay out particular humanitarian protections for people – including children – who are not taking part in hostilities. In times of hostility, states are responsible for ensuring the provision of education for orphaned or unaccompanied children. In situations of military occupation, the occupying power must facilitate institutions “devoted to the care and education of children”. Schools and other buildings used for civil purposes are guaranteed protection from military attacks.

Regional Agreements: A number of regional agreements also address issues of education. References to the right to education are found in the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, Article XI; the

American Declaration on the Rights and Duties of Man, Article XII; and the Protocol to the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of 1952, Article 2.

APPENDIX F: USAID OFFICES' INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION IN CRISIS SITUATIONS

As mentioned in Section II, State of the Field, USAID disaster relief mechanisms do not always incorporate education in initial response stages. For example, the *Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance* (DCHA) houses four offices that address violent conflict and disaster relief: Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA), Office of Transition Initiatives, the Office of Conflict Management and Mitigation, and the Displaced Children and Orphans Fund (DCOF). Although the other agencies may be involved in supporting education in crisis programs, only DCOF makes significant mention of education in describing its work.⁴³ See Appendix G for organizational charts of USAID and DCHA.

For example, the most recent version of OFDA's Guidance for Disaster Planning and Response strictly prioritizes shelter, water, sanitation, health, nutrition, food, agriculture and livestock, and most vulnerable populations. An OFDA Disaster Assistance Response Team typically consists of sector specialists to support an assessment of the priority sectors listed. Therefore it may include an expert on protection, but is not likely to include an educator (OFDA, September 24, 2004). OFDA maintains an internal commitment to limit aid grants to 12 month periods, thereby avoiding the congressional criticism that the office may be subjected to if it seems to be carrying out activities that have been considered part of traditional development work and therefore outside of its mandate (McClelland, December 2000).

Ten years ago USAID established the *Office of Transition Initiatives* (OTI) to bridge the gap between its disaster assistance and development work. OTI is meant to provide quick, high-impact

intervention at appropriate moments. Thus OTI defines "four key criteria for engagement: the country's importance to US foreign policy, the existence of a 'window of opportunity' for democratic development, the likelihood that OTI's efforts would have a significant impact, and assurance of an acceptable level of risk" (OTI, 2004, p. 6). The traditional USAID gaps that OTI strives to overcome consist of (1) delays in USAID responses to crisis caused by lack of contingency funds and a slow budgeting process; (2) lack of flexibility in hiring staff, procuring materials and making grants to small NGOs ill-equipped to deal with US government accounting procedures (OTI, 2004, p. 9).

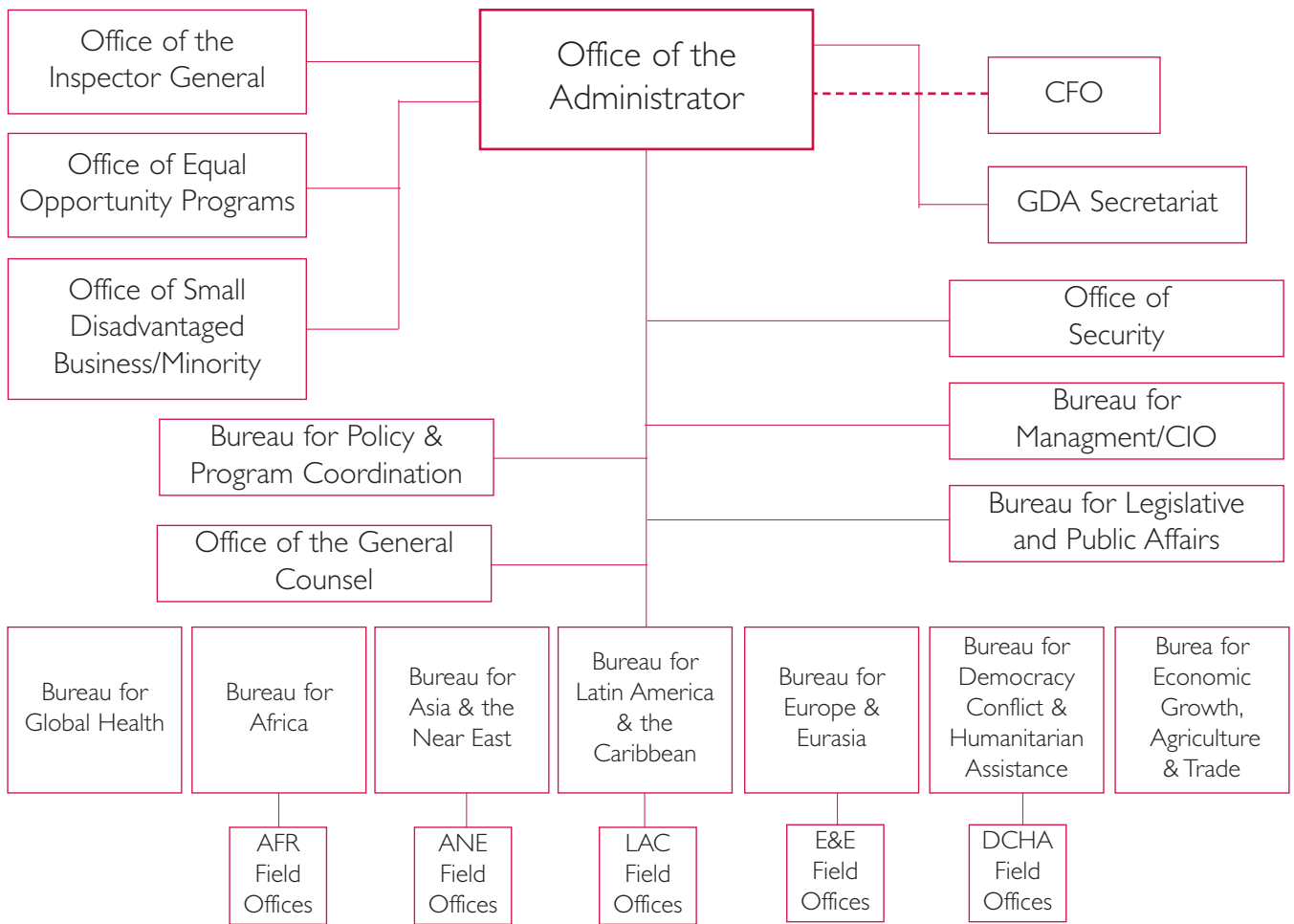
The *Office of Conflict Management and Mitigation* (CMM) was created in 2002 to assess widespread violent conflict and its relationship to, and impact on, development. CMM does not manage programs of its own, but is intended to change the way in which aid is planned implemented by providing technical expertise and support for USAID field offices operating in countries at risk of conflict, (USAID, July 29, 04), e.g., conducting conflict assessments, developing "toolkits," supporting conflict management programs, developing a conflict early warning system, outreach and training.⁴⁴

The *Displaced Children and Orphans Fund* (DCOF) was established in 1989 and has evolved since then to focus primarily on issues of loss and displacement among three groups of children: children affected by armed conflict, street children, and children orphaned and otherwise made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS (Cripe & Williamson, 2002, p. xii). It provides support to programs that emphasize protection, demobilization of child soldiers, and reunification programs, among others.⁴⁵

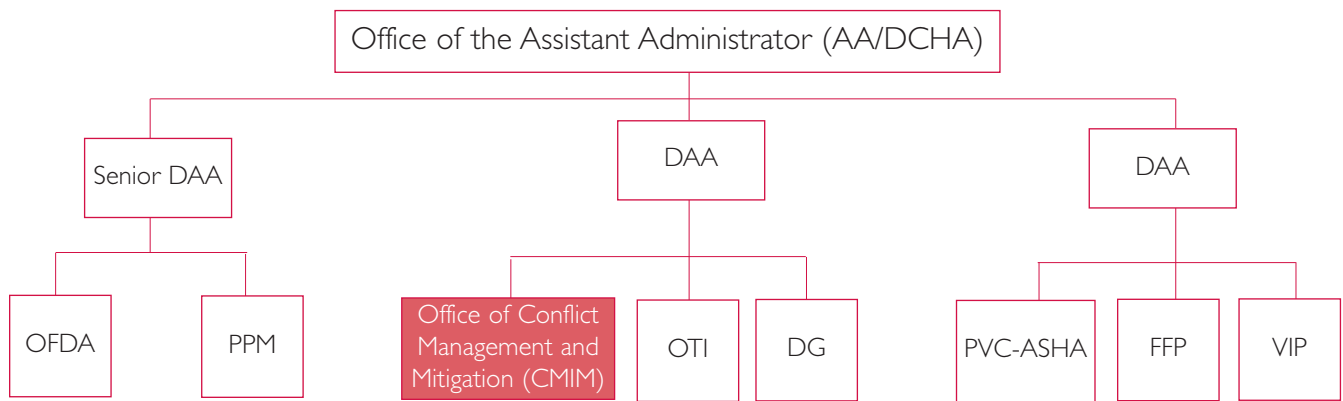
⁴³ OTI manages a child soldier demobilization and reintegration program in Sierra Leone that has been well-received and evaluated, for final report, see BEPS (August 2002).

⁴⁴ Final Evaluation of the Office of Transition Initiatives' Program in Sierra Leone: <http://www.beps.net/publications/FINAL%20EVALUATION%20OF%20OTI%20PROGRAM%20IN%20SIERRA%20LEONE.PDF> for final.

⁴⁵ For more information see: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/conflict/.



THE CMM OFFICE WITHIN THE BUREAU FOR DEMOCRACY, CONFLICT, AND HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE (DCHA)



DAA	Deputy Assistant Administrator
OFDA	Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance
PPM	Office of Program, Policy, and Management
OTI	Office of Transition Initiatives
DG	Office of Democracy and Governance
FFP	Office of Food for Peace
VIP	Volunteers for Prosperity
PVC-ASHA	Office of Private and Voluntary Cooperation - American Schools and Hospitals Abroad

APPENDIX G: USAID ORGANIZATIONAL CHARTS: 1) DCHA AND 2) USAID AGENCY-WIDE

Office of the Assistant Administrator (AA/DCHA)

Senior Deputy Assistant Administrator (DAA). (#1)

- Office of U.S Foreign Disaster Assistance (OFDA)
- Office of Program, Policy, and Management (PPC)

Deputy Assistant Administrator (DAA). (#2)

- Office of Conflict Management and Mitigation (CMM)
- Office of Transition Initiatives (OTI)
- Office of Democracy and Governance (DG)

Deputy Assistant Administrator (DAA). (#3)

- Office of Food for Peace (FFP)
- Volunteers for Prosperity (VFP)
- Office of Private and Voluntary Cooperation - American Schools and Hospitals Abroad (PVC-ASHA)

APPENDIX H: SELECTED WEBSITES

Global Information Networks in Education (GINIE) www.ginie.com

Global IDP Project www.idpproject.org

Global Humanitarian Assistance www.globalhumanitarianassistance.org

Humanitarian Practice Network www.odihpn.org/

International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) www.unesco.org/iiep

International Labour Organisation (ILO) www.ilo.org

Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) www.innesite.org

International Organisation for Migration (IOM) www.iom.int

Overseas Development Institute www.odi.org.uk/index.html

Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) www.nrc.no

UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) www.reliefweb.int

UNHCR www.unhcr.ch

UNICEF www.unicef.org

UNESCO www.unesco.org

USAID Development Experience Clearing House www.dec.org/default.cfm

Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children www.womenscommission.org

APPENDIX I: UNESCO INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION IN CRISIS

Adapted from: Payne & Fraser, (March 2004). Quality and Access to Education for Refugee and Internally Displaced Children (including young adults), DFID.

UNESCO is increasingly engaged in emergency education, including the Education in Crisis and Reconstruction Unit, the Educational Policy Research and Studies Unit and the International Institute for Education Planning.

International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP)

IIEP provides collaborative research, training and policy development work. UNESCO and the IIEP are conducting a joint program, aiming to:

- contribute to building up the field of education in emergencies and reconstruction.
- build capacity in planning and managing education in this context.
- support the efforts to disseminate and exchange information and to network.

IIEP partners include the US Social Science Research Council, UNESCO's International Bureau of Education in Geneva and The World Bank.

IIEP Seventh Medium-Term Plan for 2002-2007 include the following activities for 2002-2003:

- A state-of-the-art review (booklet), with a practical approach.
- Case studies (Burundi, East Timor, Honduras, Kosovo, Palestine, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Sudan).

- Policy-related studies, including: responsibility and co-ordination of education (role of government vis-à-vis other actors); validation of pupil qualifications for refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons; teacher management in emergencies.
- A Handbook on planning and managing education in emergencies and reconstruction, to be published in 2003.
- Training and policy forums. The IIEP Summer School, which in July 2003 looked at post-conflict reconstruction in the education sector (hosted jointly with the World Bank. The IIEP Summer School was based around four main modules: Access to Education, Teacher Management, Curriculum and Education System Development.

The review of the Summer School, available on the IIEP website, covers a series of generic questions, focused on educational planning and management functions of ministries of education in emergencies and reconstruction. These include providing access; ensuring quality and relevance; building planning and management capacity; and securing funding and developing external relations.

IIEP is also conducting several studies of thematic policy issues in association with UNESCO Headquarters' Section for Support to Countries in Crisis and Reconstruction (ED/EPS/CCR). The first four of these policy studies will cover:

- responsibility and coordination of education in emergencies and reconstruction: the roles of government vis-à-vis other actors.
- accreditation, certification and validation of pupil

and teacher qualifications for refugees, returnees and internally.

- displaced persons; education for reintegration of youth at risk in post-conflict situations, with some emphasis on vocational education; education for prevention of and educational response to natural disasters.

In 2002-3, the UNESCO IIEP and Section for Support to Countries in Crisis and Reconstruction developed a joint program to build government's capacity to plan and manage education in emergencies, beginning with documentation of case studies.

IIEP is also involved in more direct program work. For example, within UNESCO's education program for Afghanistan, IIEP will be embarking on activities in educational planning and management capacity building, thereby contributing to reconstruction and peace in the country and to security in the region and in the world at large.

The operational unit has programs in the following regions:

AFRICA Program

Reconstruction and education in emergencies, particularly special classroom kits for refugee children. Technical training or intellectual assistance to the independent media.

Former Yugoslavia

Reconstruction and development of school curricula. Restoration of historical city centers as UNESCO has been entrusted by the Dayton Peace Agreement.

Iraq

Action plan (Oil for Food, res. 986) comprising the reconstruction of 150 schools mostly in the northern part of Iraq, production of school stationary.

Lebanon

Rehabilitation of Beirut and Tyre city centres, long-scale project of archeological excavations. Technical support in the development of basic education.

Haiti

Improvement of education quality in Haiti. Support for the expansion of the national radio network by installing new transmitters.

Afghanistan

Reconstruction – facilitating workshops for Ministry officials to discuss priority education concerns.

APPENDIX J: PEACE EDUCATION

Source: Smith, A. & Vaux, (2003). *Education, conflict and international development*. London: Department of International Development p. 35.

FORMS OF PEACE EDUCATION

Skills-based programmes involve workshops in communication skills and interpersonal relations as well as conflict resolution techniques. It is important to consider how the development of interpersonal skills in conflict resolution might have an impact on the dynamics of inter-group conflict within wider society.

Peace programmes that are explicitly labeled 'peace education' often share many of the characteristics of skills-based programmes but a defining characteristic may be that a particular orientation is taken towards 'violence'. In some cases the defining characteristic may be that the programme material is heavily contextualized within a specific local or regional conflict. The rationale as to why peace education programmes are directed towards certain groups (children, adolescents, adults, politicians, combatants, bereaved) is also an important question to ask.

Multicultural and intercultural education emphasizes learning about diversity and concepts such as mutual understanding and interdependence. It may be simplistic to think that conflict arises simply because of lack of understanding of other cultures. McCarthy (1991) suggests that such approaches lack impact if they 'abandon the crucial issues of structural inequality and differential power relations in society'.

Human rights education. Here the emphasis is on universal values, concepts of equality and justice, and the responsibilities of individuals and states. There are significant difficulties in achieving approaches that are well

integrated within the curriculum and other school activities. One issue is the absence of a human rights dimension in initial teacher education. Other difficulties include lack of commitment at political level because of the challenges that human rights education might raise.

Civic education, citizenship and education for democracy. Modern civics programmes go beyond simple 'patriotic' models of citizenship that require uncritical loyalty to the nation state. By defining 'citizenship' in terms of human rights and civic responsibilities, such programmes attempt to uncouple the concept of 'citizenship' from 'nationality' in a way that may make it more difficult to mobilize political conflict around identity issues.

Education for international development. The relevance of such programmes for the prevention of conflict has been heightened by the impact of globalization and the events of 11 September 2001. The relationship between global security, the role of international development aid and social justice issues in an unequal world is an important question.

Summary of the Inter-Agency Peace Education Programme (PEP)

Sources:

Payne & Fraser, (March 2004). Quality and Access to Education for Refugee and Internally Displaced Children (including young adults), DFID.

Obura, A. (March 2002). "Peace Education Programme in Dadaab and Kakuma, Kenya Evaluation Summary" In association with David W. Khatete and Zipporah Rimbui. UNHCR.

Central tenet: Peace can be fostered through the adopting “peace promoting behavior” and by the practice of “specific peace related skills, which can be taught” (Payne & Fraser, March 2004, p. 56).

The objectives of PEP are:

- promotion of ‘positive peace’, enhancing the quality of life for all individuals, and for the community and nation; and they aim to prevent violent conflict.
- teaching peace building skills to pre-empt conflict, including an initiation into mediation techniques for conflict resolution and dispute containment.
- in order to strengthen skill acquisition, provide opportunities for individuals to acquire new understandings, values and attitudes related to peace. (Payne & Fraser, March 2004, p. 55)

PEP has two main thrusts to encompass all potential school and out-of-school learners, from camp leaders and secondary school graduates in the camp, to illiterate adults, housewives, goatherds, and youth who have missed out on schooling:

- A. *The schools program*, with one peace lesson a week for all children at primary and secondary schools, with corresponding teacher guides for 28 lessons per year for eight primary grades.
- B. *The community workshop program*, for adults and out-of-school youth, comprising an extensive program - a weekly workshop over ten or twelve weeks; or a more intensive option running over ten/twelve consecutive half days.

In addition there is a public awareness program using posters and drama, akin to a communication component, and a fourth component of various planned and spontaneous PEP activities, which are characterized by their multiplicity and inventiveness and by the diversity of their initiators. Refugees are active participants in the program.

PEP has adopted a skills-oriented approach aimed at behavior development and/or behavior change. It uses a variety of activities for teaching and learning effectiveness in the program, focusing on the learning of specific skills and on skill practice during each workshop and each lesson of the year. The same skill is then practiced in the wider context of school life, in the home, and in the street. The program is characterized by experiential learning. PEP aims at improving the quality of life for all refugees, now and in the long term. It focuses on *conflict prevention*, and includes elements of conflict resolution, opting for mediation techniques which produce more satisfying long term positive outcomes for everyone, in preference to intrusive methods with less durable outcomes.

PEP describes itself as an education program rather than a communication or conflict resolution program. It emphasizes skill acquisition, and is activity-centered. It promotes peace building and conflict prevention.

As an education program, PEP aims at individual learning over time, through long-term programs: a twelve year program in schools and an initial 12-unit community workshop reinforced by follow-up activities over the years. PEP is first and foremost a skills acquisition program targeting various peace building skills such as: the skills of cooperation; communication skills - including enhanced listening, speaking skills and the skill of

remaining silent; skills of trusting, of practicing empathy; skills of assertiveness deriving from enhanced self-esteem and self-image; the skill of taking increased individual and social responsibility - for one's life and decisions, and for other people; the skill of controlling emotions; mediation skills (a conflict resolution skill, together with problem solving, negotiation, and reconciliation skills) derived from an increased attitude of tolerance and open-mindedness.

PEP is not a communication program despite the fact that it has a minor communication component, which it calls 'public awareness'. It is also not a conflict resolution program, although it includes a small component on conflict resolution skills. It teaches conflict mediation

techniques, which promote the active participation of the parties, concerned in finding a win-win, durable solution facilitated by a mediator.

Teacher / facilitator training follows a pattern of an initial ten-day training of facilitators and teachers, followed by inservicing over two further ten-day sessions during the year. It is supplemented by regular visits of PEP advisors to schools/workshops and monitoring; professional development meetings, which are fortnightly or monthly when regular; organized by PEP advisors for mixed groups of teachers and facilitators; and follow-up training at a later date.

PHOTO CREDITS:

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Photo by Ms. Francoise Beukes. An accelerated learning class in Baghlan province.

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Photo by Creative Associates International, Inc. Girls from Al Eman School in Iraq display the student kits they received from the USAID Revitalization of Iraqi Schools and Stabilization of Education (RISE) project.

Page 17

Photo by Lawrence Ndagije. Students gather for a Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to Youth (PIASCY) assembly at Angole Were Primary School in Uganda where drama, song and poetry are used to relay messages about HIV/AIDS prevention and life skills. This skit is of a person sick with AIDS visiting a counselor to get advice on how to live with the disease.

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Photo by Sarida Matug. Children huddle together in makeshift classrooms in Sitangkai, Tawi-tawi Province, in Southern Philippines trying to seek elementary education through CAll-assisted Alternative Learning Systems (ALS) program in the area.

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Photo by Janet Robb. School in the Machinga District of Malawi.

DESIGN & LAYOUT:

graphics/Creative Associates International, Inc.

U.S. Agency for International Development

1300 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW

Washington, DC 20523

Tel: (202) 712-0000

Fax: (202) 216-3524

www.usaid.gov