![Save the Children]

Education

Care & Protection of Children in Emergencies
A Field Guide • **Carl Triplehorn**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD

Today's humanitarian crises have increasingly targeted children and women, often caught in the middle of civil conflict which erupts around them. Whether as victims or perpetrators of violence, children see the protective social fabric around them collapse as homes are destroyed, families uprooted, schools and health services ransacked, and communities consumed by violence.

In situations that pose a violent, extreme or sudden threat to the survival and well-being of children and women, Save the Children's basic objectives are to *ensure the survival* of the most vulnerable children and women; *assure protection* against violence and exploitation; *support the rehabilitation and recovery* of children, families and communities; and *promote lasting solutions* by creating and strengthening the capacity of families and communities to create an environment in which children can thrive.

Education in emergencies is not only key to the rehabilitation of communities, it is critical to the protection of children in threatening situations. After years of advocating for the needs of children in crisis, it truly gratifying for me to see the increasing interest in education programs in emergencies. The momentum has been building slowly and, due to a variety of efforts by the United Nations and NGOs like Save the Children, education is now increasingly recognized within the international community as an essential component of any emergency response.

This Field Guide to Education Programs in Emergencies is an important step in building Save the Children's capacity to address this challenging area of emergency response, and as such complements the other programming field guides in this series. I hope that it will prove a valuable tool to all field staff and foster even more programs which contribute to children's well-being in emergencies.

Dr. Neil Boothby
Director, Children in Crisis
Save the Children

INTRODUCTION

Save the Children is pleased to introduce this Field Guide to Education Programs in Emergencies, as one in a series compiled through its Children and War Capacity Building Initiative. Through this initiative, Save the Children has made a clear institutional commitment to providing quality programs which support children's well-being in emergencies and crisis, and to ensuring that SC staff have the knowledge and skills they need to continue this important work.

After consultations with staff at both headquarters and in the field, it became clear that there was a need not only for a thematic overview on key protection concerns, but also a quick and practical reference for practitioners when facing new emergencies or designing new programs. With this in mind, the Children in Crisis Unit has designed this series of field guides as the basis for in-depth training sessions on priority subjects, while including quick implementation tools such as checklists of key concerns, sample forms, job descriptions, and rapid guideline references in a portable format.

The field guides have been designed specifically for SC field, headquarters, and partner organization staff members who are involved in the design and management of children and war programs. As such, the series builds on Save the Children's specific approach and programming principles while also bringing in best practices and examples from other agencies' experience. At the same time, however, we hope that these field guides may also prove useful to other organizations engaged in similar programming and contribute to the further development of child-focused emergency programs within the international community.

The Field Guide to Education Programs in Emergencies has greatly benefited from the contributions of Mark Lorey, Amy Hepburn, Tanya Wolfram, and Naoko Otani during production and field-testing. Dr. Laura Arntson has provided helpful insights to the monitoring and evaluation sections. Valuable comments from Helen Kirby, Jane Lowicki, and Fred Wood have also allowed a broader perspective and well-balanced guidelines to emerge.

This field guide is an important one for Save the Children to be putting forward at this time, as more attention is given to education as an essential protection mechanism and developmental priority for children in emergencies and crisis. It is my hope that this guide will lead to new insights in program design and be a useful tool in your work.

Christine Knudsen
Children and War Specialist
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I. OVERVIEW

OVERVIEW OF THE CHILDREN AND WAR FIELD GUIDE SERIES

This field guide is one in a series compiled by Save the Children (SC) as part of its Children and War Capacity Building Initiative. The SC Children in Crisis Unit developed this initiative in order to support SC staff in responding to the priority care and protection needs of children and adolescents during new emergencies and in situations of chronic armed conflict or displacement.

Save the Children recognizes children as being any person under the age of 18, including adolescents as well as younger children. Children of all ages are of key concern to Save the Children, and their specific needs and resources are priority considerations in any programming decision. For the sake of brevity, the term "children" will be used in this document to encompass all individuals under the age of 18, while recognizing that the needs and resources of adolescents and younger children may vary significantly and should be considered specifically when designing programs.

The field guides are intended to provide comprehensive, hands-on guidance for programming in each of six key thematic areas during emergencies and crisis:

- *Education in emergencies:* focusing on the transition from non-formal to formal education activities in order to foster sustainability and community involvement.
- *Youth:* an approach to planning non-formal education, vocational training, community mobilization, and other activities for 13-25 year-olds.
- *Separated children:* care and protection of children separated from families as well as steps to take toward reunification.
- *Child soldiers:* social reintegration and the prevention of recruitment of girls and boys.
- *Sexual and gender-based violence:* prevention of violence and support to SGBV survivors.
- *Psychosocial care and support:* a resource kit applicable for all areas of children and war programming.

The field guides have been cross-referenced and designed as complementary documents. While there are clearly a number of areas of overlap among the themes, repetition has been minimized while ensuring that each field guide remains a useful stand-alone document. Each field guide is also accompanied by a CD-ROM which contains key reference materials and international guidelines for further consideration, as well as practical tools which can be easily modified for use in a specific situation.

OVERVIEW OF THE FIELD GUIDE TO EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN EMERGENCIES

The *Field Guide to Education Programs in Emergencies* is intended as a reference for Save the Children staff and partners in designing and implementing education programs in situations of crisis. This field guide is meant to be useful both for staff who have limited experience with education in emergency situations and for staff who are experienced in such programs but wish to improve their understanding of particular components.

The field guide is composed of five parts and five appendices, supplemented by a CD-ROM. Section II, *The Issues*, introduces and defines education in emergencies, explaining why it is a priority in situations of crisis and displacement. Section III, the *International Framework* presents a discussion of the applicable international laws and policy instruments as well as the role of relevant UN agencies in programming for education in emergencies

Section IV provides a *Programming Framework* in three-phases: safe spaces and recreational activities, non-formal education, and re-establishment of formal education. Section V, *Programming Process*, then presents a range of possible program options and discusses key operational issues to be considered when planning education programs in emergencies. Section VI, the *Conclusion*, is a matrix of activities that can be used to plan and implement a phased approach to education programming in an emergency.

II. THE ISSUES

WHAT IS MEANT BY "EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES"?

The term *education in emergencies* refers to formal and non-formal education in situations where children lack access to their national and community educational system due to complex emergencies or natural disasters. Because modern conflicts are often of very long duration and may be chronic in nature, the word "emergency" refers not only to initial non-formal education programs, but also to the establishment of formal education programs during the conflict, as well as the eventual re-establishment of community and governmental educational structures in a post-conflict environment. Education in emergencies is typically not an intervention of a month or a year, but a long-term, multi-year process that eventually merges with normal models of development.

Education programming in emergencies may be implemented in a community setting or in a camp for refugees and displaced persons. Education programs in emergencies seek to support the variety of responses that communities may initiate to provide education for their children. In an acute emergency, even before water, food and shelter are fully secured, people affected by the crisis often begin to provide informal education and restore non-formal education systems for their children. Parents or caregivers instruct their children on how to stay safe and healthy, equipping them with skills for their future. A few days after an emergency, parents may gather children into groups for school-like activities, such as basic math and reading exercises without a set curriculum, as well as sports and games. These non-formal education activities may eventually develop into a formal education system.

EDUCATION DEFINITIONS

Informal education: A process of learning through everyday experiences and the transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes through traditional culture, families, communities, and media.

Non-formal education: A flexible approach to education using alternative modes of delivery outside the formal system. The content offered by non-formal education programs may be identical to that available in school or it may be different, as in the case of literacy programs and popular education initiatives that do not lead to certificates.

Formal education: An educational system with hierarchic structures and a chronological progression through levels or grades with a set beginning and end. Formal education usually takes place in an institution and involves some kind of assessment leading to a certificate of qualification.

Although crisis-affected communities will usually initiate education efforts as one of their first priorities, they often cannot sustain and expand such efforts alone. These communities frequently lack the material resources to rebuild and re-equip schools or provide basic school materials for their children. Furthermore, they often lack the technical skills to address the training and administrative needs of a post-crisis education system. For example, peacetime curricula may need to be revised to include key "survival" issues, such as living with landmines, AIDS/STDs, tolerance education and coping emotionally with the impacts of the crisis.

Although education in emergencies may share some of the same challenges as education in poor countries, the emergency setting requires education programs to set different priorities, consider different factors, and design different activities than would otherwise be the case in a peaceful environment. This is especially true during the early phases of emergency programming. In emergency situations, education activities initially focus on protection, providing survival messages, psychosocial support, and stability to children who have been forced to flee their homes. As the situation stabilizes, education programs can focus on expanding access for all children and improving the quality of educational services. Attention can then turn to curriculum development and education standards.

Peacetime education programs build on emerging or established training and structures. In an emergency, all of the training systems and educational structures are typically lost at the same time and must be quickly re-established: classrooms have to be identified, educational materials provided, and certification standards re-created. Issues of quality must also be addressed, as untrained and unqualified personnel often fill the posts of teachers and school administrators during an emergency and transition period. It is this simultaneous need for materials, training, and the re-establishment of systems in an unstable environment and in a short period of time that makes education programs in emergencies especially challenging to implement.

WHY IS EDUCATION A PRIORITY DURING AN EMERGENCY?

Education is a high priority during an emergency because children and their futures are at risk. Children have a fundamental right to education and education programs in emergencies should protect or fulfill this important right, even during conflict. In addition to supporting children's social and intellectual development, education programs can provide

physical protection from the dangers of a crisis environment, mitigate the psychosocial impact of the crisis, and facilitate screening for children who need special assistance. Box 2.1 lists the potential benefits of education programs in emergencies to children.

Education programs in emergencies can also benefit the larger community by helping re-establish a sense of normalcy. Additionally, schools can help bring communities together and re-establish community bonds. When parents and leaders come together and build education programs, they assert control over their new environment and create a sense of accomplishment, pride, and hope. Schools can establish an important positive, forward-looking energy in the community and help develop civil society by providing a meeting place for sports, social activities, and community dialogue. This kind of community building is strongly preferable to strengthening community bonds by forming militias or seeking revenge.

Education programs in emergencies also protect the investment that families and nations have made in their children. When a crisis strikes, hard-won family and national development gains are immediately put at risk and are often reversed. In countries where families invest in the education of their children as protection against future uncertainty, the non-completion of school causes the loss of a huge cumulative investment. Achievements in improving access to education for marginalized groups are particularly jeopardized, as these groups — minorities, girls, disabled children or certain age groups – may be cut off from schooling. Even if access is restricted for a relatively short period of time, these children run the risk of never returning to school or completing their education. Once a child falls out of the education system, he or she will often not feel fully empowered to participate in community programs or civil society. Additionally, education programs in emergencies protect the national educational investments by keeping teachers and educational administrators from leaving the education profession during times of crisis and by sustaining parent-teacher associations, teachers' unions, and other educational bodies.

Conversely, emergencies can provide new opportunities for marginalized groups to have increased access to school and form the basis for more equitable access in the future. Emergency education programs with a focus on inclusion, representation and community participation can lay the groundwork for the establishment of equitable governance and civil society. By allowing space for reviewing curricula, addressing issues of access and equity, and enhancing professional training, emergencies can provide opportunities to work with communities for social transformation. By creating programs which allow all children

to attend school, education programs in an emergency can set a precedent for women, the disabled, and minorities to participate in community and government systems. Similarly, the emphasis of education in emergency programs on engaging communities in the development of their local schools sets precedents for goal setting, achievement, and accountability that can foster the development of other community groups and improve citizens' relationship with their government.

BOX 2.1: POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF EMERGENCY EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Education in an emergency can help to:

- Protect children from physical harm
- Prevent military recruitment
- Prevent gender-based and sexual violence
- Prevent separation of children from their families
- Provide a safe place for young people, especially adolescents and small children
- Prevent children from turning to or being forced into exploitative work
- Identify and combat labor practices that harm children
- Prevent alcohol and drug abuse

Trained teachers and education staff in emergencies can:

- Facilitate the screening of children for specific protection needs
- Identify children who need special assistance
- Form strong positive relationships with young children
- Provide positive role models in periods of instability
- Build children's sense of positive self-identity

Schools can mitigate psychosocial impacts of conflict by:

- Re-establishing children's positive identity as students
- Enhancing children's understanding of events they have lived or are living through
- Providing daily structure, purpose, and meaning
- Providing avenues to express feelings and opportunities for more personal support
- Restoring playfulness

Education can provide for children's future by:

- Developing children's organizational and analytical skills
- Increasing children's options for careers and helping them find positive ways to make contributions to their community
- Promoting self-reliance
- Promoting reconciliation between parties to conflicts
- Conveying survival and peace-building messages
- Promoting children's rights and leadership

Despite these strong reasons for initiating education programs early on during emergencies, governments and donors may be hesitant to provide such support. Three concerns, shown in Table 2.1, are cited most often. These concerns can readily be countered with the documented importance of education to children's well being and future development.

TABLE 2.1: CONCERNS AND RESPONSES

Concern	Response
Education implies a long-term financial commitment to refugees in an unstable setting.	Loss of existing educational gains during displacement makes the re-establishment of new systems even more expensive in the longer term.
Education may deter speedy repatriation.	In short conflicts, such as Kosovo, the establishment of schools in the areas of asylum did not deter refugees from returning. In longer-term conflicts, children's basic right to education must be met to ensure their healthy development. When repatriation becomes a safe option, the establishment of schools in areas of return enhances repatriation.
Education is "too political."	Modern crises are often based on ethno-political divisions. There is a risk that teachers or community leaders may attempt to use schools to incite ethnic violence through their lessons. Evenhanded education can play a critical role in stopping cycles of violence and retribution.

While the importance of education in emergencies and the opportunities that these programs offer can no longer be disputed, such programs are often difficult to implement and maintain in a fluid, challenging environment. Education can be very politicized, and caution must be taken to ensure inclusiveness and balance. Communities may use the educational programs to reinforce destructive values just as they may choose to promote peaceful values. Care must be taken not to allow education programs to become a platform for inciting hatred or violence. Schools may be targeted as sites for abducting children for military recruitment. Staff, who are charged with forging positive relationships with children, serving as positive role models, and screening at-risk children, should be carefully recruited and monitored to prevent abusive situations and to support the legal and psychosocial protection of children.

There can be many pitfalls to implementing programs during emergencies, and education programs in particular require all staff to be especially cautious in designing inclusive approaches that integrate children's protection at all levels. This field guide has been

designed to explore more of these concerns, lead staff to consider various aspects of program development, and avoid some of the unintended — yet common — consequences of education programs in emergencies.

III. INTERNATIONAL FRAMEWORK

INTERNATIONAL LAW AND POLICY INSTRUMENTS

When designing programs in emergency environments, it is important to understand how international legal instruments relating to education and the protection of children have been incorporated into national laws and regional commitments. As a first step, it is useful to investigate national standards and identify key areas for improvement or opportunities for enforcement. Not only will this provide a context for more effective programming, it may also provide leverage for working with governments to meet their own needs. The instruments discussed below should be the starting points for this inquiry and dialogue.

Within the framework of international law, all children have an irrefutable right to basic education. The importance of education was codified within the founding documents of the United Nations, including the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (Article 26) and the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (Article 28). The rights enshrined in the Universal Declaration have been further elaborated in subsequent instruments for groups requiring extra protection, such as refugees, children and, even more specifically, children affected by armed conflict.

First, the widely signed 1951 *Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees* mandates that host countries are obliged to provide primary school education to refugees on the same scale as their own citizens. For post-primary education, such as secondary school, technical training or universities, refugees are to be treated as other aliens. No provision is made for pre-school activities. Although primary responsibility for providing education falls clearly on the host government, in most countries of crisis and asylum governments are barely able to provide education to their own citizens. As a result, the responsibility for education often falls to the UN and other agencies.

The specific rights of children are further articulated in the 1989 *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (CRC). This landmark document, ratified by all countries except Somalia and the United States, re-confirms the fundamental importance of education for children and emphasizes gender equity, inclusion of the disabled, and the linguistic and cultural rights

of minority children. Article 28 of the CRC establishes that education for children is not just a need but also a right. Article 28 commits state parties to ensuring that primary education is free and compulsory, while making other forms of education available as well. In the CRC, primary school education, and to a limited extent pre-primary education, are viewed as fundamental rights of all children. Secondary schooling and vocational training are not mandatory under the CRC.

Finally, in 1990, the *World Conference on Education for All* adopted a declaration affirming the commitment to "Education for All" with a special focus on underserved groups such as working children, refugees, the disabled, and those displaced by war. In April 2000, the World Education Forum was held in Dakar to reaffirm the Education for All (EFA) declaration, review progress made in the ten years, and to set new concrete and accountable targets for 2015. Further development in this direction will be critical to turn the declaration's goals into reality.

In 1996, UNICEF commissioned Graça Machel to conduct a comprehensive study on the impact of armed conflict on children. The *Impact of Armed Conflict on Children*, commonly referred to as *The Machel Report* provided a wide-reaching overview and solid framework of recommendations that were later codified under UN Resolution 1266. The follow-on report in 2001 conducted a review of progress made against these recommendations and specifically emphasizes young people's needs and rights to an education in situations of armed conflict.

RELEVANT UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES

The principal UN agencies involved in education programming during emergencies are UNESCO, UNHCR and UNICEF.

UNESCO is the UN agency directly mandated to oversee education globally, yet is the least funded of the three UN agencies focusing on education in emergencies. However, UNESCO has been able to play a significant role in many countries in crisis such as Somalia and Liberia. UNESCO is also a useful resource for samples of educational materials developed around the world, educational reports, surveys and books. In addition, UNESCO is monitoring Education for All and progress made in achieving targets and goals.[1]

Broadly, UNHCR's mandate is to assist refugees and to support one of three "durable solutions": repatriation, resettlement, or integration. UNHCR oversees management of refugee camps and supports organizations like SC to run programs for refugees; the agency may also be given the mandate to oversee the protection and support to specific cases of internal displacement. UNHCR often supports programs that re-integrate refugees back into their home communities, including construction of social infrastructure such as schools or clinics. The agency usually emphasizes primary education, but also has limited program funds available for secondary and tertiary education, including scholarships to universities in very limited cases.[2]

UNICEF has an expansive mandate to care for the world's children. This mandate is broadly interpreted and considers children holistically within their communities. Thus, UNICEF supports not only education and other programs specifically for children, but also programming in community health, water, and sanitation, and women's issues. Where UNESCO is absent in the field, UNICEF is often the lead UN agency for education and frequently plays a crucial advisory and support role for nascent Ministries of Education. Under the Education for All Declaration, UNICEF focuses on providing primary school education, with support for kindergarten education and secondary school education to a lesser extent.[3]

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[1] See UNESCO's website: www.unesco.org for more information.

[2] See UNHCR's website: www.unhcr.ch for more information.

[2] See UNICEF's website: www.unicef.org for more information.

IV. PROGRAMMING FRAMEWORK

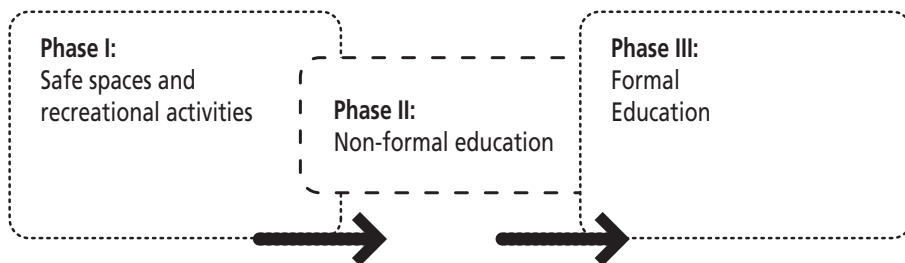## SAVE THE CHILDREN'S PRINCIPLES FOR EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN EMERGENCIES

Save the Children has adopted six principles to guide and strengthen its programs world-wide. This section applies these principles to education programs in emergencies.

1. *Child-centeredness.* Children are central to SC's mission and are the primary beneficiaries of education programs in emergencies. In areas of crisis, SC seeks to protect the rights of children by simultaneously addressing their physical, intellectual, emotional, and social needs. SC undertakes this action directly or through support to local partners.

2. *Gender equity.* SC supports gender equity among children participating in education programs, as well as among education staff. SC seeks to maximize educational access for girls and boys, support gender-sensitive teacher training, and promote the equitable hiring of male and female teachers and school administrators.

3. *Empowerment.* SC programs are designed to increase the capacity of disadvantaged individuals and groups, such as those affected by crisis, to make choices and take action on their own behalf. SC education programs in emergencies support children, their parents, and their communities in identifying education needs and developing appropriate responses. As a means of fostering empowerment, SC is committed to participatory teaching methods and community-based design of education programs.

4. *Sustainability.* SC seeks to make positive changes in institutions, behaviors and policies affecting children's well-being, changes which last beyond SC's direct involvement. Education programs allow gains in children's knowledge, critical thinking skills, and social competencies that are fundamental to SC's vision of sustainability. Where applicable, SC seeks to support the integration of successful education programs by communities, institutions and governments. It should be noted, however, that in some cases, provision of immediate protection may be more important than long-term sustainability of programs. As a crisis situation stabilizes and longer-term planning becomes possible, sustainability must be a key consideration to all community-based education programs.

5. *Scaling up.* SC seeks to expand successful and quality education programs that have a measurable impact on the lives of children. Given the lack of services, training and staff in areas of crisis, SC seeks to establish and expand education services to reach as many children as possible in emergencies. This expansion can include the development of new partnerships and policy and legislative initiatives, as well as the increase of programs' geographical coverage.

6. *Measurable impact.* SC is committed to ensuring that its programs demonstrate positive impacts on children and their communities. This is accomplished through the development of clear objectives and the systematic collection and analysis of program activities and outcomes, using educational statistics and qualitative indicators. Education in emergencies readily lends itself to the use of both quantitative and qualitative indicators which can be designed with tools presented in this field guide.

FRAMEWORK FOR EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN EMERGENCIES

For the past 10 years, Save the Children has collaborated with UNICEF and UNHCR to develop a three-phase framework for implementing education programs in emergencies. This framework follows the natural progression that crisis-affected communities will initiate for the education of their own children. In implementing education programs in emergencies, it is SC's intent to enhance the speed, quality and sustainability of these initiatives.

Phase I:
Safe spaces and recreational activities

Phase II:
Non-formal education

Phase III:
Formal Education

This graphic presents three phases, which clearly lead from one type of programming to the next. While there is indeed a natural progression from less formal to more formal structures, there is often also a great deal of overlap in field programs. The phases are not

distinct, nor do they follow neatly one after the other in most cases; in emergencies, these phases are often even less rigorously defined because it is necessary to meet a variety of education priorities within an extremely limited timeframe. In all situations there will be cross-programming between these phases, perhaps with activities drawn from all three phases planned for one project. Depending on the conflict and the children involved, Phase I and Phase II activities may be combined. In communities that have a well-developed school system, formal education can be re-started rapidly. In this case, Phase I and II activities may not be as necessary, although they should be considered as supplementary activities. It should also be noted that there will always be a small group of children for whom formal education may not be the only or best option.

Phase I: Safe spaces and recreational activities

The initial emergency response is the creation of "safe spaces" for children and adolescents to participate in educational and recreational activities. These safe areas are clear of harmful objects and create a peaceful and supportive environment for children to play and relax. Each safe area should be cleared of landmines, unexploded ordnance, sharp metal, and broken glass. The cleared space should be fenced or, at a minimum, marked with tape to ensure the safety of the children. Typically, activities occur under trees or in temporary shelters. Where possible, activities can be conducted in schools and their surrounding recreation areas.

Once the areas are secured, a caring environment can be created for children to play, socialize and express themselves. Regularly scheduled structured play activities, such as sports, drama, music, and art, are vitally important in the emergency and post-conflict period because they enable children to process the events around them and resume normal childhood development. Activities should be planned for different age groups and for boys and girls, separately and together. A useful strategy is to have youth organize activities for younger children and take part in safe space management. In addition to the benefits for younger children, this involvement has significant psychosocial importance for youth, who can benefit from being engaged in such positive, meaningful tasks as a complement to the other activities in youth-focused programs which may designed to meet their own specific needs.

GOAL FOR PHASE I: **To mitigate the psychosocial impact of the conflict by providing rapid, structured recreational activities for affected children and youth.**

Activities	Materials	Personnel	Training
• Sports and play groups • Music, art, drama, or other expressive activities • Community service projects • Storytelling, oral history, or other cultural activities	• Sports equipment • Musical instruments • Basic shelter for shade and protection from the weather • Mats for sitting on the ground	• Caring adults • Youth • Teachers	• 3-5 day initial training covering psychosocial impacts of conflict, basic child development, protection, and program implementation • Follow-up training to focus on specific issues in more depth • Where possible, program materials should be in language of personnel

Examples of indicators to monitor implementation

- Number of children participating in the program, disaggregated by age and gender
- Degree of application of training and training materials by facilitators, measured by observation and survey
- Percentage of community children attending activities at least 2 hours per day
- Level of inclusion, measured by proportion of participants to non-participants, disaggregated by age, gender, activity, and other factors limiting participation (e.g., female-headed household, disability, ethnic background, religion, language, child/youth's stature for age, etc.)
- Number of youth involved in peer support and recreation activities, disaggregated by gender
- Speed with which activities were initiated
- Level of satisfaction with service provided (measured by survey or focus group)

Examples of evaluation indicators

- Proportion of children and youth involved in activities who demonstrate improved psychosocial status as evidenced by their interaction and relationships with peers
- Proportion of children and youth involved in activities who are better able to express difficult emotions associated with crisis-related experiences
- Proportion of youth involved in community service projects who report a greater sense of self-confidence, self-worth, and competency
- Proportion of children and youth involved in storytelling, oral history, or other cultural activities who report a greater sense of self-confidence, self-worth, and identity

Phase II: Non-formal education

The initial games and recreational activities in the safe spaces are eventually combined with non-formal educational activities, such as literacy, numeracy and survival training (e.g. health education or landmine awareness). As time goes by, these school-like activities become more structured, with the children divided by age or grade. These classes often do not have any long-term structure and do not conform to any specific curriculum. Young people who were in secondary school can help organize peer education and non-formal education programs for younger children.

GOAL FOR PHASE II:	To promote social reintegration and development of cognitive/social skills by affected children and youth through structured non-formal education activities.		
Activities	**Materials**	**Personnel**	**Training**
• Beginning literacy and numeracy activities • Youth groups, including peer study groups • Survival education: landmine awareness, health education	• Chalkboard/chalk • Exercise books • Pens and pencils • Textbooks and supplementary materials from area of origin (if possible and appropriate) • Posters and visual materials on survival messages	• Primary and secondary school teachers • Caring adults • Older students	• 3-5 days covering psychosocial impact of conflict, protection, basic child development, review of teaching methodology, and survival education

Examples of indicators to monitor implementation

- Number of children participating in the program, disaggregated by age, gender and activity
- Number of adults and youth trained to run programs, including percentage of female facilitators
- Degree of application of training and training materials by facilitators as measured by observation and survey
- Percentage of community children participating in non-formal education activities
- Proportion of youth involved in peer study groups, disaggregated by age and gender
- Level of inclusion, measured by proportion of participants to non-participants, disaggregated by age, gender, activity, and other factors limiting participation (e.g., female-headed household, disability, ethnic background, religion, language, etc.)
- Age-appropriateness and level-appropriateness of literacy and numeracy activities
- Speed in which activities were initiated
- Level of satisfaction with service provided (measured by survey or focus group)
- Degree of importance community gives to survival messages   **continued**

GOAL FOR PHASE II: continued

Examples of evaluation indicators
- Proportion of children and youth involved in non-formal education activities who display improved social reintegration, measured through observation and sentinel surveillance methods
- Proportion of children and youth involved in non-formal education activities who demonstrate improved cognitive and social skills development, measured with a sample survey that includes age-appropriate tests and measures
- Proportion of children and youth involved in survival education activities who demonstrate improved landmine awareness and health knowledge

Phase III: Re-establishment of formal education

In a limited number of situations, where the pre-conflict environment had a well-estab-lished and broadly accessible curriculum-based system of education, the first two phases can be bypassed and formal education can start very quickly. Typically, these community-initiated efforts do not have sufficient resources, experience, or staff to accommodate the number of children who want to participate in formal schooling. SC's role during this phase is to ensure that the programs reach as many children as possible and to enhance the qual-ity, relevance, and regularity of activities.

In the majority of cases, including many long-term refugee situations, formal education will gradually develop as families seek a broader range of opportunities for their children. In these instances, SC's role may be to facilitate development of standards and competencies, support formal training of teachers, or ensure that gains in equity and access are main-tained in a new formal system.

GOAL FOR PHASE III: **To re-establish formal schooling for affected children and youth enabling them to continue and complete their education.**

Activities	Materials	Personnel	Training
• Curriculum-based primary and secondary education	• Textbooks for teachers and students	• Primary and secondary school teachers	• In-service and pre-service training covering identified needs of trained and untrained teachers
• Continuation of survival education	• Chalkboard/chalk	• Caring adults	
• Improving the relevance and quality of the curriculum	• Exercise books	• Older students if secondary school teachers are not available	
• Establishment of a system to attract and retain non-school-going children	• Pencils and pens	• Administrators	
	• Desks and chairs	• Parent-teacher associations	

Examples of indicators to monitor implementation

• Number of children participating in the program, disaggregated by age, gender, and activity

• Ratio of children to teachers per class

• Number of classes that meet the program's objectives for class size

• Number of trained teachers and school administrators disaggregated by gender

• Proportion of all school-age children in the community who regularly attend school, disaggregated by age and gender and other factors (e.g., female-headed household, disability, ethnic background, religion, language, etc.)

• Percentage of previously out-of-school children who regularly attend school by the end of the project, disaggregated by age, gender, and other factors (as above)

Examples of evaluation indicators

• Relevance of curriculum and the development and integration of appropriate materials

• Proportion of children and youth attending school who demonstrate improved cognitive skills development, measured through a sample survey that includes age-appropriate tests and measures

• Ratio of classroom capacity in fully operational formal schools to number of school-age children in targeted communities

• Retention rates

Issues to consider

WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION?

It is impossible to provide educational services to all children in an acute emergency for many reasons: young people are busy doing a variety of things with or for their families, children may not be easily tracked to participate in all activities, and organization in the community is only beginning to emerge. NGOs and the affected community must prioritize educational interventions. Typically, the first priority of communities is to re-establish lower primary school education because, prior to the crisis, more children are typically in primary school than any other type of education activity. Few children usually have access to secondary school, and pre-primary schools do not exist in most areas prior to conflict or displacement.

The next priority for communities is often education for older or adolescent children, either through higher primary grades and secondary school or early primary grades if youth did not have the opportunity earlier. Due to their level of development, these children have very different psychosocial and cognitive needs than primary school-aged children. If secondary education existed prior to the conflict, high schools will often spontaneously develop in a fashion similar to primary schools. It is not uncommon for students to organize classes or study groups on their own. However, secondary school programs are challenging to implement for three main reasons: teachers are much more specialized, the curriculum is more complex (and therefore often more political), and a wider range of teaching materials are needed, such as laboratory equipment or specialized books.

Early childhood education, while important for children's longer-term development, is typically not prioritized over primary and secondary education in stable situations and therefore rarely develops spontaneously in crisis-affected communities. The fundamental psychosocial needs of pre-school age children are usually satisfied if parents or primary caregivers remain with children during and after the crisis. However, research shows that in times of crisis, parents tend to dedicate their energy and limited resources to addressing the physical needs of their young children. In difficult circumstances, parents are often unable to provide adequately for their children's social, emotional, and cognitive development and early childhood development programs may be initiated to help parents learn how better to support their children in a difficult environment.

In static environments, such as long-term refugee camps, early childhood education programs provide important stimulation for young children. They also provide older siblings, parents and other caregivers an opportunity to participate in development activities or trainings. It is preferable to train community volunteers for this work with young children, so that the work can continue when funding is no longer available.

WHAT CURRICULUM TO USE?

During Phases I and II, a formal curriculum is not necessary to implement recreational and non-formal education activities. The goal during these two phases is to provide educational and psychosocial support to children as quickly as possible. Specific activities are shaped by the facilitators, with training and mentoring by SC staff. SC may also provide resources, such as textbooks and books of games, which guide the facilitators in designing activities.

Curriculum development for formal education is a major undertaking that requires sensitivity and broad consensus, especially in an environment that may be charged with ethnic or political bias following a conflict. Development of a new curriculum or revision of old curriculum may take a very long time over months or even years, and planning for such an undertaking should be realistic in allowing the necessary time.

> **WHAT IS A CURRICULUM?**
>
> A curriculum is the outline of the program of learning that students and teachers follow in order to develop knowledge and a set of skills. By outlining what students must learn, a curriculum provides a guide for teachers to plan the activities for an academic year and prepare individual lessons.

Wherever possible and appropriate, the curriculum established prior to the conflict should be used for developing education programs. This provides psychosocial benefits of creating a "normal experience" by using familiar classroom materials and texts, facilitates the immediate re-employment of refugees as teachers, and ultimately enables students to repatriate and re-enter schooling in their areas of origin.

However, when working in a situation of ethno-political conflict, great caution should be taken to review curricula for messages that would be contrary to SC's program principles, and a review committee should be established to quickly delete controversial components such as highly politicized interpretations of history. This review committee should be inclusive, with broad representation from the community and other stakeholders in the process. It should be noted that curriculum review can be an extremely delicate process that requires a strong commitment to finding consensus from all parties. However, just as

education in crisis settings provides opportunities for enhancing equity or access, this process can also provide opportunities to develop a curriculum that promotes reconciliation and peace building.

It is not uncommon for asylum countries to insist that refugee education programs comply with their standards, including the use of their language and curriculum. For example, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Southern Sudanese and Angolan refugees must follow the francophone national curriculum, even though their own education systems are conducted in English and Portuguese, respectively. This creates problems for refugees who wish to continue their studies in their home county. Where possible, NGOs should strongly encourage host governments to permit refugees to study in their native languages. Where this is not possible, supplementary classes and activities in the students' native language should be developed.

Ideally, in longer-term refugee situations, the curriculum needs to "face both ways" and be acceptable in both the country of origin and the host country. Changes regarding the nature and development of the curricula need to incorporate the views of all stakeholders. This requires substantial regional and inter-agency coordination to harmonize educational activities and refugee caseload in different countries. Specific issues to be discussed include language competencies and recognition of examination results.

EXAMPLES OF BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

- Some young refugees who fled to Pakistan from Afghanistan in the 1980s studied in their own language (Pashto) and in Pakistan's language of Urdu, while following a curriculum based on their religious beliefs rather than the Marxist curriculum adopted in Afghanistan at the time. Recently, Afghan children from grades one to six in Pakistani refugee villages were learning only Pashto and Dari, the two dominant languages in Afghanistan. Some students who go on to secondary school learn Urdu and English.
- In 1988, the governments of Malawi and Mozambique agreed to introduce bilingual basic education programs in large settlements of Mozambican refugees in Malawi. The Malawian curriculum was in English, the Mozambican in Portuguese.
- Bhutanese refugees in Nepal, being taught in English, feel there is a need to strengthen their knowledge of Dzongkha, the lingua franca of Bhutan, to prepare them for repatriation.

V. PROGRAMMING PROCESS

PROGRAM OPTIONS

No international standards presently exist for education programs in emergencies. The standards of the pre-crisis schools and local schools in cases of asylum should be used as a guide as to what is needed and appropriate. Within each particular emergency context, a variety of program options can be considered. These options can be grouped into three categories: capacity building, protection, and material needs. None of these categories are mutually exclusive. All are related and build on each other.

Capacity building

COMMUNITY SCHOOL ALLIANCES

In many crisis situations, early education programs will originate from within the community. In the long term, SC's role is to create an environment that allows these efforts to develop in a constructive and sustainable way, leading to a strong sense of community ownership. All community members — political, religious, and traditional leaders, parents, teachers, students, and representatives from different ethnic groups — should be actively involved in developing a strategy of support for education. Community assessments and consultations lay the groundwork for the creation of a committee concerned with the long-term development and management of education activities within a community. SC programs usually refer to this committee as a *school management committee* (SMC).[4] SMCs are the foundation of SC's longer-term educational strategy of community participation in schools.

Although communities usually welcome the concept of community involvement in schools, they often have little understanding of roles of a committee and its potential. To address these issues, SC has developed a complete set of training and reference materials to support the process of community dialogue, problem identification, decision-making, and community mobilization. These materials, taken from the series Improving Quality Education Through Community Participation, are available through SC's Community Mobilization office and provide a detailed description of how SC works with communities to identify and address educational priorities.

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[4]SC uses the term "school management committee"since it reflects the interests of the whole community rather than just the parents, as in "parent teacher associations."

TRAINING

Training of educators is essential to providing quality educational services for children. Wherever possible, training should support and build on the skills of existing professionals, interested adults, and young people, encouraging them to play leadership roles.

When undertaking training activities, consider the following:

- Short, one- to three-day training courses are usually most effective during an emergency. Longer courses are more expensive since the participants in most cases will require housing and food. In the case of in-service training, longer courses may also keep teachers away from school for too long.
- It is best to train two or more staff members from a school (e.g. two teachers or a headmaster and a teacher) in order to create a team to implement ideas and activities learned in the training and to provide training to other colleagues. A team also helps ensure that activities will continue if one trainee leaves.

- Training content and evaluation methodology should be documented for the participants.
- All training should be followed up with monitoring and support.
- The World Food Program (WFP) has an established a food-for-training program that supports training activities. This can be a valuable resource to draw on during crisis situations.

Types of training
Safe area/Non-formal education training
During the initial establishment of safe areas and non-formal education, facilitators should receive training in basic teaching methodologies, the psychosocial importance of structured activities, and development of their own lessons and activities. To ensure quality, the training should be followed up by monitoring and on-the-job support.

Teacher training/Formal education
In crisis situations, training is needed for all teachers. Certified teachers need to be re-oriented to teaching in a crisis situation. With support from facilitators and efforts to educate teachers about new possibilities, experienced teachers will often request materials to update their teaching skills. Uncertified or untrained teachers usually require subject-specific instruction and general teaching support. Qualified teachers will often organize training for uncertified teachers if given basic resources such as training materials and food. Experienced teachers can be identified in each school to mentor untrained teachers. Training and mentoring of uncertified teachers should focus on two priorities: preparing the teachers for the daily reality of the classroom and bolstering the teachers' confidence and self-esteem.

When pre-existing education systems have been disrupted for some time, teachers will frequently request "new" or "modern" teaching methods. This is a good opportunity for SC to lend its expertise. Strategically, it is important to balance the opportunity to make change with enabling the trainers to make the system their own. A strategy of supporting self-initiated teacher training recognizes the training and experience of teachers and allows them to take control of the situation, while providing external training opportunities as well.

Initially, a 3-4 day "pre-service" training covering the topics described in the textbox should be conducted before teachers enter the classroom. When a pre-service training is not possible, "in-service" training can be conducted during weekends and holidays.

A Training-of-Trainers (TOT) strategy is the most effective approach for teacher training since it builds local capacity and can be implemented in the local language. In this approach, an experienced teacher from either a region or school participates in a TOT covering the training material, as well as adult learning theory. This initial in-service training lasts about 4-5 days. If school is in session, the training can be conducted during weekends. Following the training, trainers should provide one or two days of training for the teachers in their school or region. All trainings should use participatory learner-centered methodologies to provide the trainees with models and examples of good teaching practices.

An underlying assumption of teacher training is that the teachers know the subjects to be taught. In crisis situations, many teachers do not have basic qualifications and may not have finished secondary school. Therefore, steps must also be taken to improve teachers' knowledge of the key elements of subjects they will teach.

BASIC COMPONENTS OF A TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

- Lesson preparation
- Development and completion of schemes of work (lesson plans for a full semester or year)
- Simple teaching methods
  - Question and answer method
  - Discussion method
  - Group work
  - Peer-to-peer work
  - Demonstration
  - Hands-on learning
- Use of locally available materials
- Classroom management
- Management of large classes exceeding 40-50 students
- Assessment/testing of students
- Strategies for handling a large class
- Strategies to enhance girls education
- Childhood development and learning theory
  - Basic cognitive (thinking) skills
  - Motor skills (physical ability)

Pre-and post-tests should be conducted as part of all trainings to measure gains in the trainees' understanding of teaching theory, methodology and content. The ultimate goal for the training is for teachers to apply their knowledge in the classroom. This goal can be measured through observation, review of lesson plans, and individual surveys.

Teacher training and support is a continual process for teachers everywhere in the world. Topics for ongoing training include strategies for teaching children with special needs, strategies to target and support girls, and updated teaching practices. In emergency situations, basic training should be continually offered because of high teacher turnover. In these situations, trained teachers with language and organizational skills often leave the profession for higher paying jobs, resettlement, or repatriation.

Administrative training

Within SC's school partnership approach, the principal/headmaster of the school and the school management committee jointly undertake school management. Ideally, administrative training is conducted for the school principal/headmaster and one or more teachers in the school, as well as the regional administrator. As with teachers, it is typical for motivated but untrained individuals to enter school administration. Experienced school administrators and headmasters can facilitate improvements in many aspects of a school's operation by managing personnel, supervising teaching, modifying student behavior, and addressing issues of resource allocation, accounting, and cash flow. An effective administrator can enable staff to work as a team to improve the quality of education and also to tackle difficult issues like discipline and low student retention rates. Among the most effective trainers of administrators are experienced and skilled administrators themselves.

Psychosocial training

Training on the psychosocial impact of the conflict on children should be integrated into the training of teachers and school administrators. As outlined in SC's policy paper *Promoting Psychosocial Well-Being Among Children Affected by Armed Conflict and Displacement*, this training should not focus solely on the identification of trauma symptoms, which could result in harmfully labeling children within the school and community. Instead, strategies for mitigation of trauma and other hardship should be discussed within the context of training for teaching or school administration, because *good teaching and learning practices are good psychosocial practices*.

Psychosocial elements can be integrated into education in emergencies in a variety of ways:

- *Modifying Lesson Plans*. Since many children in a post-conflict or ongoing conflict environment have significant problems concentrating, an emphasis should be placed on lesson planning and ensuring that lessons have a specific beginning and end. Lessons may be shorter and repeat key elements more often.

- *Questioning Skills*. Teachers should ask open-ended questions and should ask questions of all students to encourage participation by young people who tend to be withdrawn.

- *Discipline*. A review of disciplinary strategies and rules regarding the discipline of children should be undertaken, since some children affected by conflict will be more confrontational and challenging for teachers. In particular, children who may have been victims of violence or demobilized from armed groups may revert to violence as a principal means of expression. Teachers must be given the skills they need to protect themselves and other students, as well as methods to help these children find more positive expression.

Follow-up support for training: ensuring quality education and administration
Support and monitoring are integral to building the capacity of teachers and school administrators to maintain a quality education system. Regular, structured visits build teachers' skills as well as their confidence to fulfill responsibilities on their own. In most education systems, a government official is responsible for providing this support by monitoring school administration and teaching practices in the schools. In some countries, the government official also supports the development of school management committees or parent-teacher associations. While governmental systems in areas of crisis frequently do not work because they lack resources, the principles and structure of the system are sound.

Initially, schools should be visited at least once a week to support the goals of teacher and administrative training, to work with and monitor principals and teachers, and to resolve administrative issues. Depending on the number of students or schools, the geographical area, and the programs SC is undertaking, these visits can be made by SC's education coordinator and/or a combination of managers. These managers and/or staff whom they have trained should provide individualized, regular feedback, conduct mini-workshops on common themes, and follow up on teacher training.

In areas where a government education system is operating, either in refugee situations or during reconstruction, the roles and responsibilities of SC monitoring staff and the government's school monitors can become blurred. Sometimes government officials will wish to delegate the responsibility for school monitoring to SC, since the authorities have limited transportation, time, and resources. This should be avoided when possible, since SC's aim in most cases is to support the development of governmental services, not to develop parallel systems or do the work for them. Ideally, government and NGO staff train together, collaboratively develop monitoring methodologies, and conduct joint monitoring visits. Typically, this collaboration will involve SC providing some support for educational authorities, such as transportation, office supplies, or the rehabilitation of their offices.

Importance of documenting training

Teacher training is not only a means of improving the immediate standard of education, but also an investment in a future educational system. Where possible, teachers trained during a crisis should be certified with the appropriate authorities. Training should be designed to equip teachers with the skills and qualifications they need to earn certification and continue teaching in the government system after repatriation or when government schools reopen. Records should be kept of all teachers trained, the number of training hours, training subjects and content, methods used for trainee evaluation, and how these areas relate to the official national curriculum. Similarly, smaller training and classroom observations should be recorded. The teachers themselves should also be given documentation of their professional development, such as a permanent certificate printed on heavy paper and accompanied by a plastic sleeve.

Once a government is established, documentation can be used to certify teachers, although this is rarely a quick or easy process. Since government officials are often reluctant to undermine the credentials of previously trained teachers and afraid that sub-standard education may be provided, they are often reluctant to certify NGO-trained teachers. For example, NGOs trained Liberian refugee teachers in Guinea and Cote d'Ivoire. However, neither group of teachers met the precise specifications for teacher qualifications in Liberia and their training was not initially recognized. After extensive negotiation, the Liberian Ministry of Education agreed to accredit only some of the teachers, and as a result some of the educational investment was lost within the formal system.

SURVIVAL EDUCATION

Traditional formal and non-formal education systems usually do not prepare children to live in crisis and post-crisis areas. Children in emergencies may find themselves facing a host of new threats, including landmines, ethnic violence, and diseases like cholera and HIV/AIDS. Education programs in emergencies must prepare children for these threats to their well-being and help them to adjust to their new surroundings.

In many cases, children are the best educators of their peers and communities. SC and Teaching Aids at Low Cost (TALC) have developed a set of materials to support child-to-child programming.[5] These materials, which include a training manual, background information, and handouts for students and teachers, cover a wide variety of topics, such as landmine awareness, HIV/AIDS and other STDs, and immunization. They can be adapted for any situation. Ideally, children choose the topics for survival education, although NGOs

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[5]The documents are available through TALC at http://www.rgp.man.ac.uk/gp/talc/chpub.htm.

frequently begin the process by starting a campaign on a certain topic. Once a system is established, children then develop their own programs.

During their training, teachers should also be sensitized to survival issues faced by children in crisis and given strategies that incorporate lessons into classroom and school activities. In areas with high numbers of untrained teachers, specific lesson plans and activities for survival education should be available. In-class activities should be supplemented with additional instruction during free class time or after school. In some cases, survival education programs in schools have been so popular that outside community groups have requested similar training. This can provide an opportunity to build non-formal adult education groups and convey protection messages at the same time.

When setting up supplementary programs, it is important to consider whether or not staff will be paid as normal teachers. Supplementary programs can require a specialized staff that dedicates time to addressing special issues and often does outreach beyond schools. In the long term, however, if supplementary programs are designed to be separate from schools, they will not be supported by the future Ministry of Education, and, as a result, teachers that dedicate themselves to these programs will be unemployed and the material may no longer be addressed.

Health education
In crisis situations, simple health education is survival education. Preventable diseases, such as cholera, measles, and diarrhea, can turn into epidemics and kill thousands of children, especially within the early months of the crisis. Safe areas and schools become vital venues for non-formal preventative health education campaigns. Out-of-school youth should also be included in the target groups for safety and health messages as a priority. These campaigns address very basic health issues, such as personal and community hygiene, purification of drinking water, digging of latrines, food preparation, and immunization. Children take these lessons back with them to their communities.

Additionally, with the breakdown of governmental systems and traditional social networks, children — especially adolescents — are vulnerable to sexually transmitted diseases, as well as exposure to drugs, alcohol and cigarettes. Children's susceptibility to these health risks is exacerbated because traditional moral and ethical behaviors may erode in times of conflict, especially when combined with boredom, curiosity, and a lack of parental supervision. Children and adolescents may also be targeted for violence, including sexual violence,

creating grave health problems for young people. Education staff should collaborate with health professionals to conduct focus groups and individual interviews with young people to assess their experiences and knowledge gaps regarding these particular risks. This information should be shared with community leaders and teachers and used to design an appropriate intervention.

Given its sensitive nature, reproductive health education can be difficult to address. Parents generally will deny that their children are sexually active, or that sexual violence is affecting them, and they will question the existence of sexually transmitted diseases in their community, especially HIV/AIDS. For example, Save the Children in Ethiopia has been training teachers to effectively teach the existing reproductive health curriculum in schools and organizing school-based adolescent reproductive health clubs. Students in the clubs educate their peers about reproductive and sexual health topics, such as HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, and sexual abuse, by writing and presenting skits, poetry, and essays and by organizing contests and other games for their peers. In Kailali, Nepal, SC has organized a network of peer educators in Youth Action Groups (YAGs). These groups are comprised of more than 6000 youth who educate, counsel, and refer their peers to reproductive and sexual health services. Experience shows that program examples like these can be readily adapted to crisis situations and non-formal education programs for displaced children and youth.

Landmine awareness
Landmines and unexploded ordnance (UXO) have become a leading cause of death and injury to children and adolescents in conflict and post-conflict areas. Often these injuries occur outside the school area, in places where children play, farm, herd livestock, or collect wood. However, in some crises, schools and areas where children play have been specific targets for landmines. Typically, the UN develops an overarching strategy of landmine response for the entire conflict area, including removal and education, within which Save the Children will focus on education. SC has developed a series of child-focused landmine education programs, including in Angola and Afghanistan, which may serve as models for programs in a new crisis.

Schools are frequently the center for community landmine awareness programs. A properly designed program is composed of both a short-term awareness phase and a long-term program to address community behavior. In the first phase, knowledge is shared about landmines and UXO: where they are, what types are being used in the area, how to avoid them, and what to do and who to contact if one is located. Typically, these campaigns

involve plays, songs, or drama and are complemented with a barrage of posters, games, stickers, brochures, and other printed materials.[6] It is crucial that any landmine awareness program be linked with an organization capable of landmine removal. Delayed removal of landmines undermines awareness campaigns.

Peace education
Education programs in emergencies frequently include components focused on fostering tolerance, curbing violence, and providing young people with conflict management skills. SC's bases these activities on indigenous knowledge and traditions of peace, as well as conventional Western conflict resolution strategies. Programs may include the exchange of traditional stories, sayings, and songs that promote respect and tolerance, as well as discussion of approaches to conflict resolution within the community. These traditional modes of conflict resolution can be complemented by discussions of international human rights, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as structured activities such as those focusing on active listening, understanding emotions, cooperation, problem solving, prejudice reduction, and mediation skills.

Behavior modeling by teachers, school administrators and NGO workers is a powerful tool for shaping community interactions and should be emphasized in any training for staff. To be effective, peace education programs in schools should be complemented with activities and discussions with the larger community and especially parents, because it can be confusing for children to be taught one moral framework in school and another one in their home.[7]

"Peace" programs are sometimes thrust upon divided communities because the international community wants to assist the peace process. Assessing the receptiveness to such a program is very delicate, since mentioning "peace" or "reconciliation" during or soon after fighting can be offensive to local communities and potentially dangerous for SC staff. However, in many cases, skills may be effectively introduced into education activities without calling them "peace education" prematurely.

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[6]For more information on landmine education programs and support to landmine survivors, see the International Save the Children Alliance (2000), Child Landmine Survivors: An Inclusive Approach to Policy and Practice. Other examples of landmine awareness initiatives have been posted on http://ginie1.sched.pitt.edu/ginie-crises-links/lm/index.html.

[7]For more information on these types of programs, see Marc Sommers, "Peace Education and Refugee Youth," a paper prepared for presentation at a UNHCR workshop on Refugee Education in Developing Countries: Policy and Practice. (2001). Washington, D.C.

STRENGTHENING GOVERNMENT AND LOCAL NGOS

In its education in emergencies programs, SC seeks to build the capacity of governments and local NGOs to address the needs of children both inside and outside of school. However, this can be a challenging undertaking due to political and security concerns, as well as organizations' implementation capacity. Since education is inherently political, governments and local NGOs all have stakes in how to interpret and assign meaning to the crisis; this meaning is then integrated into trainings, curriculum development, and the direct teaching of children. Either overtly or covertly, these groups can provide services to some groups over others and influence what is taught in the classroom, especially in the areas of history, geography, and language. Not only are the services provided to children at stake, but the security of teachers, students, education families, and SC staff may be at risk.

With this in mind, it is initially best to work at the community level and with known organizations with a proven track record and an identified and acceptable political position. Later, as political agendas become clearer, other local partners can be identified, such as women's and youth groups, teachers' and trade unions, and religious organizations. In some areas of the world, such as the Balkans, many of these organizations have developed regional expertise that can be drawn upon for materials and training.

Throughout the implementation of education programs in emergencies, local and international SC staff must be in place to monitor and help adapt the program to the particular environment. In this regard, focus groups with teachers, government officials, and communities, facilitated by SC local and international staff, can be invaluable sources of insight and information.

Providing basic resources

While local governments, teachers' unions, and NGOs may have the staff and mandate to provide educational services, they frequently do not have adequate resources to function in a crisis setting. Provision of these resources can accelerate the process of restoring normal, quality education. Possible interventions include the rehabilitation of regional education offices and the provision of telephones/radios, computers, office furniture and supplies, and motorbikes or vehicles. Providing a photocopier or printing and distributing copies of curricula, policies and rules, and other necessary documents can also be helpful.

Supporting education professionals

SC should actively support local education professionals to allow them to participate in the development of educational programs within both SC and the larger humanitarian response. SC can organize or support meetings of education professionals at local and national levels to examine critical issues and develop needed products. SC should also ensure that local education professionals are fully included in decision-making related to education in crisis-affected areas. One important way to do so is by providing translation services, including verbal translation during meetings, written translation of important documents, such as SC proposals, and the translation of proposals and other materials developed by the professionals into the language of the humanitarian community.

Re-establishing teacher training

In some situations, a government may request that SC support the re-establishment of normal teacher training institutions or pre-service training programs. This typically involves reviving the normal one/two-year teacher training system while simultaneously addressing the immediate needs of uncertified teachers. There are two main approaches to certifying teachers who have not gone to formal institutions. In some situations, a shorter accreditation process is developed for uncertified teachers already working in the system. In this abbreviated process, teachers are given credit for their teaching experience; their accreditation is based on classroom observation and monitoring. In other situations, governments offer a shortened version of the full 1-2 year curriculum, leading to provisional or lower grade certification that can be upgraded at a later time. Any new certification process must be considered carefully so as not to undermine the credentials of already certified teachers.

School systems management

In some situations involving refugees or internally displaced persons (IDPs), SC may be requested by donors or the government to develop and manage an entire education system for the crisis-affected population. The box at right lays out some of the school system management issues that must be addressed.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT ISSUES

- School approval and recognition
- School staffing and staff recruitment
- School property and operational funds
- Student admissions, grading systems, and student promotions
- Supervision, support, and termination of teachers
- Handling grievances and conflicts
- Academic calendars and instructional periods
- Guidelines for parent-teacher associations
- Guidelines for school construction
- Guidelines for training workshops
- Student discipline

Material needs

After the early phases of education programs in emergencies, as facilities are being equipped and as students and teachers receive necessary education supplies, activities often become more material intensive. In preparing to address these needs, SC must work with the community to determine basic educational targets that are necessary for planning purposes: how many students per classroom, how many classrooms and schools are needed, how many exercise books and textbooks students will need at each level of instruction, etc. These targets have immediate budgetary implications and should be decided as quickly as possible.

It is SC's view that material support programs should never focus only on delivering materials from point A to school X. Rather, they should be designed to enhance or complement community support for education, strengthen local and regional accountability, and reinforce the establishment of permanent government structures. Wherever possible, communities should be consulted in the design of education facilities and should contribute labor or materials to their development. This involvement not only enhances sustainability, but also provides the community with a strong sense of ownership, which can provide positive identity in an unstable situation.

SHELTER AND RECREATIONAL SPACE
Safe areas and temporary shelters
In a crisis situation, one of the first educational decisions is where educational activities will take place. In situations where there are no buildings, communities often initiate activities under trees with children sitting on the ground. In these cases, temporary shelter should be provided as quickly as possible to protect the children from sun and rain. A simple roof can quickly be erected by building a frame of wood or bamboo and covering it with a plastic tarpaulin. Tents, though rarely available, can also be used for temporary shelter.

In refugee camps, it is important not only to establish temporary education facilities, but also to allocate space for more lasting schools and recreational areas as camps are being constructed. Frequently, camps develop quickly and do not consider the long-term development of schools, community centers, and recreational areas such as soccer fields or volleyball pitches. SC, wherever possible, should be involved in the design of the camp to

advocate space allocation for these activities. In the absence of authority, marking an education space with sticks and colored plastic tape can reserve the space. The space allocated should be double the anticipated space to allow for future school and program expansion.

Integration in local schools

Where at all possible, local schools should be investigated as sites for education in emergency programs. If students are already attending the school, a system of shifts can be established with local or refugee/IDP students attending during the morning and the other group during the afternoon. In these cases, teaching styles and curricula should be adapted for decreased teaching time. As an emergency measure, a three-shift system (early morn-

ing, early afternoon, late afternoon) system can be established but should not be maintained over the long-term since it significantly decreases the amount of teaching and learning time and can exhaust teachers.

Where refugees/IDPs share a school with local students, protocols should be developed to participate in the cleaning of the school and to document and take responsibility for any damage done. In order to maintain harmony between the existing students, the local populations, and the new students, some type of compensation should be given to the school. Compensation may take the form of educational materials and training, school fees, the building of additional classrooms or a playground, or repairs and rehabilitation. A fresh coat of colorful paint can make the environment more conducive for learning and can lead to more respect for the structure and its maintenance.

Non-school property

Other spaces that can be used for emergency education are often available within communities. Use of these buildings (gyms, warehouses, government buildings, etc.) usually must be negotiated with local officials. Where possible, renting should be avoided since this will impose a substantial overhead cost. If renting is the only option, contracts should be signed for at least six months, with the possibility for renewal. Rehabilitation should be approached cautiously, since buildings are commonly repossessed once they are usable.

School construction

If no facilities are available for education, then classrooms must be built. The construction standards of the classrooms should be those of the area. For example, in many parts of the world mud-walled classrooms with a metal roof or thatched roof is the norm, while in others locally made bricks are the standard for construction. Plans should be made to include sufficient reading light for students, either through construction or provision of lamps. In areas with a winter season, plans should include means of heating to local standards. In areas with very high temperatures, plans may want to focus on cooler sites such as hills or sites that are shaded.

Following SC's commitment to community participation, school construction should be through partnership with the local community. Communities should be actively involved in deciding how the schools will be constructed, where, by whom and what the community will contribute to the construction. Frequently, communities contribute labor for carrying water, sand or mudding the walls, while the NGO provides the roofing, doors, windows and furniture. When considering community-initiated schools, it is important to consider the timeframe for completion and quality of construction. Frequently, communities overestimate their resources and underestimate the constraints on their time.

Doors and latrines in newly constructed schools should be wide enough for disabled children to move about with ease. Ramps for disabled children should be included in multi-level schools.

EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND TEXTBOOKS

Based on initial assessments, basic education and recreation supplies to support education programs in emergencies should be ordered as early as possible in the crisis period. In order not to delay implementation of these important activities, materials should be ordered even if full assessments have not yet been completed. As supplies are being procured or delivered, more in-depth program planning can determine exactly how these materials should be used. Ideally, the materials should be purchased locally or regionally to support the local economy. However, the final decision should be based on cost, including transportation charges, and speed of delivery.

Materials for safe area and non-formal education activities

In order to implement education programs as quickly as possible, basic education, recreation, and psychosocial materials such as chalk, pens, blackboard paint, exercise books,

footballs, and paints can be pre-positioned for immediate use in crisis-prone areas. There are also a variety of generic "school in a box" models developed by agencies at headquarters level for use in any emergency. Kits should be used only for the first 1-2 months of a crisis, when it is not possible to procure and distribute locally procured materials in quantity. Kits do have the advantage of being useful for rapid implementation, but in practice are often not suited to the specific needs of targeted schools, include insufficient quantities of certain materials, and may take up valuable staff time in repackaging to meet the needs in a specific situation. If kits are to be organized locally, a pre-test should be conducted with local educators to determine whether the materials are useful and appropriate. Appendix 2 more fully explains the advantages and disadvantages of using local or international kits and provides four examples of kits which have been used in the field.

Materials for longer-term response
After the initial stages of the crisis, materials must be supplied to replenish those used during the first few weeks or months, as well as to strengthen schools and support increased enrollment. These materials should be ordered in bulk as soon as possible to ensure program continuity. Table 4.1, based on UNHCR's guidelines, contains a summary of the materials needed for a school. The types of materials and number needed will vary from crisis to crisis. Decisions about types and quantities of materials required should be made in collaboration with teachers and administrative staff, based on a comparison with local schools. As a rule of thumb, older children need more exercise books than younger children, and larger exercise books of 64 or 96 pages are usually preferred.

Textbooks
Textbooks, while important for students, are even more important to teachers because they guide the content of lessons. However, textbooks in most crisis situations are rare. Teachers should be given a priority in distribution since they use textbooks to guide their teaching and, in parts of the world, it is part of the learning process for students to transcribe textbook passages into the exercise books. In cases where only a few textbooks remain, they can be reproduced by mimeographs, photocopies, stencil copies, or reprinting through a local publisher. Before republishing, the books should be reviewed to remove passages that incite violence or are politically controversial. Children and teachers can also develop and reproduce their own teaching materials, such as illustrated books of traditional stories and songs.

TABLE 4.1:	Student materials	Teacher materials	School equipment
PRE-PRIMARY	• Crayons/stubby pencils • Writing materials • Art supplies (paints, paper, colored crayons, glue, scissors)	• 1 hardbound book for keeping student grades and attendance. • 4 x 100 page exercise books per subject and class • Blue/black pens for writing. Red pens for grading papers • A minimum of one complete set of text-books and teachers' guides per school • Manila paper/newsprint and markers to prepare teaching aids • Masking tape • Minimum 2 x 3 m blackboard regularly repainted • White and colored chalk • Laminated or cloth alphabet and number charts for primary classes • One science kit per secondary school • Maps	• Seating available for all students based on local practices. Typically mats for pre-primary. Height of desks should be appropriate to students' age and size. • Office furniture and supplies (e.g. files, paperclips, staplers, glue, inkpads, stamps) for school administration and staff • Sports materials (foot-ball, volleyball, nets, repair kits, whistles) provided in pairs for girls and boys • Locking cabinet or locker • Where applicable, sup-plies for evening study, e.g. lanterns or electricity • Plastic sacks for students to carry school materials • Table and chair in each classroom for teachers
PRIMARY	• Pens, pencils, erasers • Slates and pencils where applicable • Grade 1 to 4: exercise books • Grade 5-6: at least 10 x 48 page exercise books • Grade 7-8: at least 12 x 98 page exercise books • One reading and one arithmetic textbook for every three students • Art materials		
SECONDARY	• Pens, pencils, erasers • 2 x 98 page exercise books per student per subject per term • Geometry set (ruler, triangles, and compass) for every 3 students • One textbook for every 3 students per subject • Art materials		

School furniture

Lack of school furniture should never prevent or delay starting an education program. However, as the program develops, appropriate furniture should be considered along with other material needs. In many cultures, students sit on the floor on mats, and furniture is not needed at all. In other cultures, where desks and chairs are the norm, furniture should be made locally to support the local economy and skills. In some areas, contracts for school furniture have been given to vocational training schools. Wooden desks and chairs, while desirable, can be expensive and difficult to procure. As alternatives, communities can construct tables and chairs from local resources, such as bamboo or even mud bricks. Furniture for older children should be distributed first and care should be taken to ensure that student desks are appropriate for their height.

Distribution of materials

Distribution of materials can require SC staff to strike a difficult balance between accountability and building local capacity and trust. School staff, government officials, school management committee (SMC) members, and community leaders should all be involved in designing a transparent system for distribution of materials and should be held accountable for the results. The community should be informed of the distribution and each student's entitlement. Direct distribution by SC to students is discouraged since this does not build the capacity of the teachers, school administrators, and regional education officials.

Textbooks and exercise books should be stamped to discourage diversion to local markets. If materials are diverted to markets, this should be seen as an opportunity for capacity building and community dialogue about education. For example, if students are not getting the materials provided, SC staff should hold the headmaster and the SMC accountable for investigating the problem and developing a solution. In the short term, this approach requires extensive monitoring and discussion. However, in the long term it can significantly strengthen accountability within educational systems, so that donors can eventually give materials to schools and the Ministry of Education without fear of corruption.

SCHOOL FEEDING

In protracted emergencies, schools frequently are used as venues to address moderate malnutrition in children. School feeding can also provide an incentive for children to attend school, as malnutrition and lack of food are often major factors contributing to young people's lack of access to education. SC's Food Security and Health Units manage school feeding programs around the world; they can assist in assessing the need and feasibility of

implementing a school feeding initiative, assessing children's nutritional needs, and collaboratively designing a school feeding initiative.[8]

The use of food resources in a school setting, when complemented with other activities to improve the quality of schools, can have both short and long term benefits. In the short term, it alleviates hunger, improves health/ nutrition status, provides an alternate source of income to the family/community, and improves attention. In the long term, food-for-education programs can improve productivity, establish better health and nutrition practices, reduce fertility and improve livelihood security.

Implementing school feeding programs can be logistically and organizationally challenging and should be approached cautiously. Wet feedings, which require cooking food and distributing a meal at the school, are a major undertaking. Cooking facilities, including dishwashing facilities and storage, must be constructed and equipped, regular firewood/fuel must be provided, and cooks must be hired. One alternative is to distribute dry rations of uncooked food. However, in this instance the ration should be considered as a family ration or an income transfer because it will be shared within the family.

Given some of the organizational constraints, it is imperative that the goals and objectives of a food-for-education program be developed collaboratively from the perspectives of education, community development, and health. School meals provided early in the school day can have a positive impact on learning, but require community involvement for the daily management of programs.

In the long term, food-for-education programs can receive funds from the Global Food for Education Grant proposed by USAID. These longer term resources can be used to offset the costs of school maintenance and repair, teacher training, materials and other school quality improvements so that the food aid can be complemented with essential services to enhance learning and education among the children in our communities.

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[8]For more detailed guidance on the design of school feeding programs, see the following two resources: G. Bergeron and J. Del Rosso, (2001). Food for Education Indicator Guide, Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development. B. Leveinger. (1986). School Feeding Program in Developing Countries: An Analysis of Actual and Potential Impact. USAID Evaluation Special Study, No. 30. Washington, DC: USAID.

Protection and educational access

PROMOTING PROTECTION IN SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES

As discussed earlier, safe spaces and schools are essential for the protection of children. Educational sites can also promote protection of parents, teachers, and communities. "Protection" in this sense means ensuring people's safety and security as well as protecting their rights, including the right to life and the right to education. Emergency education programs, and specifically schools, can serve as the social center for crisis-affected populations. They can therefore be an effective venue for monitoring and improving the "protection" situation of children and their community.

SC's experience worldwide indicates that many protection issues are rooted in the attitudes, beliefs and laws of local communities, and in the basic lack of information regarding the scale of the issue. Crisis often exacerbates protection issues that were present prior to the conflict, such as discrimination, domestic violence, rape, child marriages, and harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation. SC has found the following combination of approaches effective in targeting behavior and attitude change and policy change.

For change to occur, individuals, communities, and governments must be aware of the issues and alternatives. Key potential target audiences include students, parents, elders, teachers, and school administrators, as well as school management committees, police, and security forces. School-based drama, writing and music competitions to address certain themes can be used to raise the awareness of both children and their communities. Radio, TV, newspaper and newsletters, video programs, and other media can reach the larger community.

SC should be prepared to follow up by supporting community groups, SMCs, and schools in designing their own strategies for addressing protection issues that concern them. Sometimes the strategies require action beyond the immediate community and must be addressed at a higher level. SC and the community can jointly undertake advocacy with the national government, the UN administration, or other relevant bodies.

STRENGTHENING SYSTEMS FOR COLLECTING EDUCATION STATISTICS

Education statistics can be an effective means of gaining insight into the protection concerns of the larger community as well as monitoring changes in children's access to educational programs. Changes in school attendance can indicate changes in the community's

physical security and access to food. For example, in many parts of the world, children — especially girls — are withdrawn from school during times of community stress or famine to look for and prepare food. Similarly, education statistics are frequently the first indicator of repatriation or significant population movements.

When possible, the methods used for data collection should be based on those of the former education system's education management information system (EMIS). At their most basic, statistics should include the number of children attending classes, disaggregated by grade and gender. Education statistics should note the numbers of children actually attending school in relation to the numbers of children registered to attend. The reintroduction of education statistics can be a community sensitization tactic in itself, because it provides a valuable opportunity to discuss child rights, gender equity, disability, and other issues.

IMPROVING EDUCATIONAL ACCESS

A key protection priority in SC's education programs in emergencies is to determine who is not attending school, discover why, and develop strategies to improve attendance and retention. Groups that may not have equitable access include girls, minorities, persons with disabilities, foster children, and children of a particular age range, such as adolescents. Table 4.2 on page 48 summarizes approaches to improving educational access for these groups.

The most efficient means of finding out who is not going to school is to conduct community awareness campaigns through the schools, children's groups, SMCs, women's groups, or other local organizations. These organizations can be supported to visit homes with children not attending school, to identify the reasons for non-attendance, and to identify strategies that will encourage children to attend school. Programs should then be modified or created to address the most outstanding protection concerns. For instance, girls may not be attending schools because of concerns for their physical safety and the risk of rape; in such instances, appropriate steps should be taken with families to ensure safe access to education, either by relocating classrooms closer to the community center or by providing escorts.

One common barrier to attendance is a conflict between the timing of scheduled classes and other responsibilities young people must perform, such as farming, collecting food and water, or other work. Schedules and timing are especially important issues for children who work on the street, children who must collect food or water at a certain time, or farming families. It is also important to consider what weeks or months children are not attending

school. For example, children may miss a significant portion of a school semester because they are planting or gathering food, or may miss several weeks due to traditional season-al rituals. Schools' daily and yearly schedules can be adjusted to facilitate attendance.

Girls
In many areas of the world, girls do not have free and equal access to education. In times of crisis, families and communities may place significantly less priority on girls' education. SC should include an emphasis on girls' education in every emergency education program. This focus may include community awareness and advocacy efforts, in-school programs to increase girls' access and retention, and the training and placement of female teachers and school administrators. SC may also address the sensitive issue of girls not attending school during and after puberty by facilitating the provision of sanitary materials and separate toi-lets or latrines. Ideally, the SMCs or community groups should follow up on girls who have dropped out or attend irregularly.

Recognizing that girls' school attendance is often a larger cultural issue, SC may adopt a temporary remedy while searching for a longer-term solution. Specifically, SC can support incentive strategies that provide material assistance, such clothing or food, to girls and their families. In some countries, the World Food Program has given a monthly ration of 12.5 kg of wheat for both boys and girls, with an additional five-liter can of oil for every girl pupil. Similarly, in refugee camps in northern Kenya, girls with good attendance were given empty food sacks and jerry cans that had value to their families.

In many instances of conflict and instability, girls are not allowed to attend school because they and their parents fear that they may be raped or otherwise attacked. Sexual violence is a very real risk for many girls and young women in refugee settings.[9] Families worry not only about the violence which girls may face, but also may worry that their girls will then not be able to marry and thereby affect the family's economic status as well. Some parents may also believe that girls will get pregnant if they go to school and mix relatively freely with boys. It is certainly true that girls can and do get raped on the way to and from school, sometimes by teachers and security forces. These factors give more than ample reason to provide thorough, independently monitored security to girls in school and as they travel to and from their homes.

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[9]For more discussion of this topic, see the *Field Guide to Sexual and Gender-Based Violence Programs in Emergencies* by J. Benjamin this series.

Teachers and students need to be sensitized to the specific issues that girls face so they can organize programs to protect girls. The previously discussed factors affecting girls' access to education also clearly highlight the need to include education on reproductive health, relationship communications, negotiation skills, and other forms of conflict resolution training for young people.

Children with disabilities

Promoting the inclusion of children with disabilities should be emphasized from the start of an emergency education program through community sensitization campaigns and training for teachers and educational officials. In designing sensitization campaigns, it is necessary to determine the stereotypes for different types of disabilities that exist among the population and may hinder access to education for these young people. Typically, many parents do not know or believe that disabled children can be educated, learn, or develop. Moreover, parents are often ashamed of their disabled children and wish to keep them hidden. Even if they are not ashamed, overprotective parents will often keep their children indoors, away from school.

SC can support several measures to ensure that disabled children are not excluded. Schools must be made physically accessible for the disabled. Necessary changes may include wheelchair ramps, toilets with enough space, and wide doors. Additionally, teachers and administrators should receive disability training emphasizing practical strategies to address the needs of disabled children. As a first step, teachers should be encouraged to test their existing students for sight and hearing disabilities and, where applicable, to place children closer to the front to see or hear better.

Minorities

Many modern conflicts are rooted in ethnicity, religion, and other differences, with one group denying another access to basic resources, such as education. When educational systems are re-established, these issues become enmeshed in political and security considerations, and decisions must be made about how to safely educate minority groups. The most difficult decision is whether minorities should be integrated into existing schools, or whether separate educational institutions should be supported. Following a crisis, there is a brief window of opportunity for the integration of schools. If this window is missed, segregated schools quickly become entrenched, making future integration difficult, if not impossible. In all cases, the security of the children is paramount and should not be sacrificed for the principle of integration.

If communities and NGOs are to integrate schools, they must ensure the safety and appropriate treatment of all children. NGOs can consult with schools and the larger community, and help them design and run campaigns to sensitize and integrate children prior to school opening through integrated games and activities. Schools may designate a teacher to focus on minority issues; it is often helpful to have a minority teacher play this role. Schools can also establish groups with minority and majority students and teachers, start a human rights club, and provide minority students with escorts to and from school. NGOs and other organizations can encourage schools to integrate by offering them incentives, such as textbooks, sports equipment, or teaching materials.

Where classroom integration is not possible due to language, separate shifts in the same school may be established for majority and minority students. Where integration is not possible, steps must be taken to ensure that the minority schools do not become targets. Among other things, speed bumps may be installed in front of the school to reduce the chance of drive-by attacks.

Older children who have missed years of school
It is not uncommon in areas of protracted crisis and intolerance for sizeable numbers of school-age children to have never attended school or to have missed many years of schooling. As a result, they do not fit in with their age mates within the school grade structure. In many cultures, this is a significant barrier to attending school since older children find it humiliating to be at the same level as young children. To address this problem, "catch-up" or "accelerated" education programs are implemented to provide children with the basic literacy and numeracy skills to integrate back into the formal education system. For example, the first six years of primary school can be condensed into three years for adolescents. In all cases, learning materials should be relevant to children's life experiences and age. In some situations, youth participate in a combined program of vocational and formal education, and receive certification of technical and primary school completion after three years. Programs must be developed in collaboration with education authorities to ensure that the children's education is recognized and certified.

Adolescents face a wide range of challenges in trying to access education. These may include early marriage or heading up their own household. Some adolescents may be recently demobilized child soldiers, or have heavy responsibilities for earning money. Adolescents require a flexible approach to securing their right to education, and an approach which really addresses what education is most appropriate for them. The *Field Guide to Youth Programs in Emergencies* provides a fuller discussion on some of the needs of adolescents and approaches that are useful in education programming.

New arrivals
Newly arrived refugees or internally displaced children often do not have access to already established education programs. Wherever possible, newly arriving refugee children and young people should be quickly admitted to ongoing education programs. Their integration will require training and support for the teachers and school administrators, as well as a supply of additional educational materials. Some mechanisms should be put into place to monitor the integration of new students and, when necessary, to follow up on their needs. If admission during the school year would be disruptive, or if there are large groups of new arrivals, these students should have access to a special emergency "transition" program until the new school year starts. This program could offer multi-grade classes with a focus on basic literacy and numeracy skills and psychosocial skills. If large groups of children enter a camp or settlement, then new schools or classes can be started even during the school year. While efforts should be made to meet the special needs of these students, it must be handled carefully so that newcomers do not feel ostracized or "different" from the other children.

TABLE 4.2: APPROACHES TO IMPROVING EDUCATIONAL ACCESS		
	Specific issues	**Programmatic interventions**
STUDENTS TOO FAR FROM SCHOOL	• Schools too far away, especially for younger children	• Where merited, construction of full schools in underserved areas • Construction of classrooms nearby for younger children; older children can walk to more distant school • Arrangement of transportation with community, e.g. horse cart collecting children for school or free/discounted transportation on local buses
GIRLS	**Security** • Insecurity of traveling to or from school • Threat of sexual violence and other assaults at school	• Providing escorts to girls to and from school • Raising community, teacher, and student awareness about how to prevent sexual violence
	Cultural • Cultural views against female education; often compounded if there is no certification or possibility for employment • Education beyond a certain level is not valued • Early marriage or betrothal • Gender roles requiring girls to undertake home duties during school hours • Gender work roles limiting time for homework • Lack of separate facilities in schools (latrines and in some cultures separate classrooms or schools)	• Improving access to firewood, water and childcare • Distributing food through schools • Providing extracurricular activities that parents think are useful to girls such as tailoring and embroidery • Hiring of female teachers and school administrators • Sensitization of community as to benefits of girls' education in terms of employment, childcare, etc. • Construction of separate sanitation facilities in school for girls • Inclusion of girls education issues in teacher training, e.g. equal questioning of girls and boys, group work, etc.
	Economic • Preference for boys' education if the family is poor. • Lack of proper clothing, sanitary materials and soap	• Economic programs focusing on low-income households, with condition that girls in the household attend school • Provision of sanitary towels/napkins, soap, and clothing to girls attending school **continued**

TABLE 4.2: continued	Specific issues	Programmatic interventions
POOR CHILDREN	• Lack of resources for children to attend school • Children's labor or income are needed to support the family • Children do not have families.	• Income generation support targeting poor families • Income generation support for schools to decrease school fees • Scholarships • Change the timing of schooling to fit the children's work schedule
DISABLED CHILDREN	• Cultural views regarding disability and low expectations of disabled • School facilities not equipped for disabled children • Lack of targeted teacher training • Difficulty transporting disabled children to school	• Community sensitization regarding disability • Rehabilitating schools for disability including widening doors, ramps, and adapted latrines • Bicycles or wheelbarrows can be provided for transporting disabled children to school

MINORITIES	• Security of children and teachers
	• Prejudice of community, teachers, and students
	• Language barriers
		• Sensitization of community and the development of a community integration plan including:
		  ■ Integration activities for minority and majority students
		  ■ Hiring of minority teachers
		  ■ Integration training for teachers
		  ■ Establishment of a community escort system
		• Separate shifts where classroom integration is not possible
		• Human rights training for teachers
		• Bilingual instruction

OLDER STUDENTS AND ADOLESCENTS	• Older children do not want to attend a class with younger children	• Establishment of accelerated classes combining the first 3 or 4 years of school into one year • Where small numbers exist, inclusion of older students into classes with extracurricular, age-appropriate individual and group work continued

TABLE 4.2:	continued	
	Specific issues	**Programmatic interventions**
NEW ARRIVALS	• New children disturb classes and are not at the same level as other children • New children need additional materials • New children and families do not know how to enroll in school • New children may not speak the language used at the school	• Training and support for teachers and school administrators in the incorporation of new arrivals • When necessary, separate classes for new arrivals until a new school term begins • Extra materials available for new students • Follow-up on new arrivals to make sure they are accessing available services, including school and health facilities • Intensive training in new/majority language

OPERATIONALIZING EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN EMERGENCIES

Pre-crisis preparedness

While it is impossible to predict the size and scope of an emergency, steps can be taken to prepare for implementing an emergency education program before a crisis erupts.

SENSITIZATION AND ADVOCACY

Donors and local governments have traditionally not seen education as an integral component of an emergency response, though this attitude has been changing gradually. SC is committed to integrating education as a basic pillar of humanitarian response and advocating for its inclusion as a vital protection mechanism for children early in emergencies. To address this, SC staff should actively sensitize local government, local education professionals, UN officials, and donor staff to the importance of emergency education and its integration into all emergency preparedness exercises. This important investment in sensitization can increase future collaboration and support from partner organizations and can lay the foundation for the rapid implementation of quality programs should an emergency occur.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND CONTACTS

Information about the pre-crisis education system and available resources are essential tools for designing and implementing effective programs, as well as valuable resources in briefing new staff. As part of emergency preparedness and planning, educational materials such as those in the accompanying textbox should be collected to facilitate later development of programs. Specific questions to be answered include the levels of education offered (pre-primary, primary, secondary, post-secondary), how many years each take, and requirements for moving from one level to another, as well as the history, demographics and evaluation of the educational system. The process of collecting this information has a second purpose: introducing SC to local education authorities and providing an opportunity for advocating for emergency education.

IMPORTANT EDUCATION RESOURCES TO ASSEMBLE

- National teaching curricula for primary, secondary, and post-secondary education
- Textbooks in all subjects for all grades, especially the first four
- Teacher training curricula
- National exam standards
- Previous national exams
- Reports or assessments of the education system

Situation assessment

SC strongly believes in addressing the needs of children holistically by building on existing community strengths. The best foundation for this is a broad-based, highly participatory situation assessment. Ideally, a multi-disciplinary assessment team should be assembled to conduct the assessment and consider community needs and community resources in all sectors (education, health, nutrition, water and sanitation, etc.). As much as possible, the team should involve community leaders, adolescents, women and parents in the design and implementation of the assessment, as well as in developing an integrated multi-sectoral program of response.

A generic school assessment form accompanies this manual as Appendix 3. It should be adapted for a specific emergency. The education component of the assessment should examine these issues, among others:

BEWARE LANDMINES AND UNEXPLODED ORDNANCE:

Safety First! It should be firmly emphasized to all assessment staff not to enter any building or area unless they are 100% sure that it is safe.

- Profile of existing education activities
- Community education committees/school management committees
- School shelter
- School materials and supplies
- School feeding
- Non-attendance of school
- Threats to the community and survival skills
- Training needs of teachers and school administrators
- Educational management support

None of these issues can be addressed in isolation. For example, school rehabilitation is a multi-sectoral undertaking. Shelter engineers are needed to rehabilitate the school. They must collaborate with water and sanitation specialists for the adequate provision of toilets and water taps. They should consult education specialists regarding the lighting of the room, the types of furniture to be bought, etc.

In order to develop empowering, sustainable programs, it is important to understand what resources were available prior to the conflict, as well as those available at the present time.

MATERIALS AVAILABLE
It is important to identify materials that are locally available, as well as those available in the markets. For example, educational and recreational materials can often be bought in small amounts in the local markets. For construction, it is important to note the availability of water and sand, construction materials such as wood and bamboo, and the type of soil.

LOCAL SERVICE
Urban areas are typically the centers for services needed for education programs in emergencies. Local printing and photocopying and translation services are vital for reproducing textbooks, teachers' manuals, posters, and brochures. Additionally, it is important to determine the availability of radio and television stations, newspapers and Internet providers.

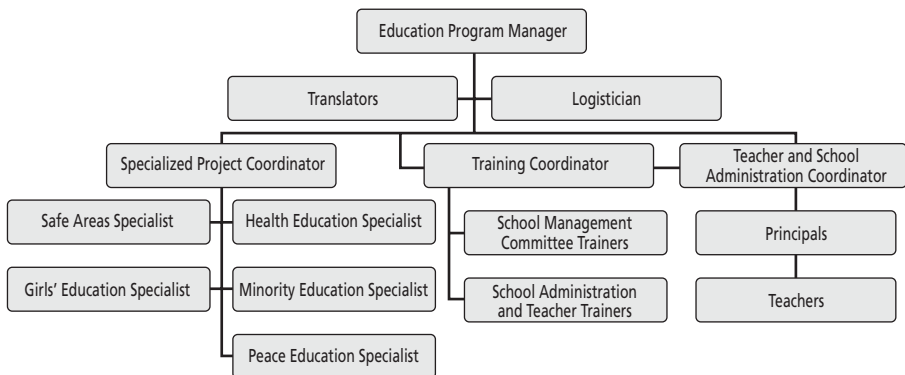### LOCAL PROFESSIONALS, NGOS, AND GOVERNMENT
Local, regional and international education professionals must be identified as early as possible to build upon the accomplishments of the pre-crisis situation and to support post-crisis initiatives. Frequently, assessments focus on identifying the specific needs of the affected communities while avoiding or ignoring the needs and capacity of national and

regional systems or organizations to provide educational support and services. In many crises, the difficulty of assessing local capacity is compounded because there are few education professionals or because they are reluctant to come forward because they had been targeted during the crisis.

Staffing

The accompanying diagram displays a hypothetical organizational chart for a SC emergency education program. The education program manager is usually the first education staff member in the field and oversees the development and management of the programs. This position is typically filled by an expatriate with an advanced education, management skills, and experience working with education programs in crisis environments. In order to ensure the rapid establishment of safe areas and eventually the re-establishment of formal education systems, one staff member should be assigned to each of the key tasks. Oral and written translation needs for each of the staff should be considered. Sample job descriptions accompany this manual in the CD-ROM.

Theoretical Emergency Education Organizational Chart

Education Program Manager

Translators — Logistician

Specialized Project Coordinator — Training Coordinator — Teacher and School Administration Coordinator

Safe Areas Specialist — Health Education Specialist — School Management Committee Trainers — Principals

Girls' Education Specialist — Minority Education Specialist — School Administration and Teacher Trainers — Teachers

Peace Education Specialist

It is important to ensure that the specialist project coordinators collaborate closely with the training and schooling units of the program. An alternative to the organizational chart above is to integrate the specialists into these units.

While teachers and school administrators are important to the school, it is also important to understand and have compassion for them as individuals who have lived through a crisis with personal and family responsibilities. Many of these education professionals, as leaders in their communities, have been victims of the crisis and need time and space to recover. However, due to their professionalism, need for money, and community spirit, they will often return to teaching and sometimes overwork. Where possible, teachers can be given special support to enable them to continue working, such as de-briefing and counseling, social activities, or expedited access to food distribution and building materials.

Timeline

If a crisis interrupts the school year, special programs should be developed to ensure that students complete their unfinished studies in order to continue to the next grade. During the Kosovo crisis, the Albanian government formulated a plan for "catch-up" classes so that Kosovar refugees could be ready for a new school year in September 1999, whether in Albania or Kosovo. Similarly, in 2000, the Eritrean government arranged vacation classes for school children to make up the last three weeks of the school year, including school examinations needed for promotion to the next year of schooling.

It is important to map out the school year in terms of weekends and holidays as possible times for the training of teachers and school administrators. This can also be a tool to ensure that teachers and school administrators are not overloaded with commitments. Special activities for children such as sports competitions, drama and music festivals can also be planned for school breaks.

Transition from emergency to post-emergency situations

In initiating most education programs in emergencies, SC should share the responsibility for the long-term incorporation of the developed programs and interventions into fully maintained community schools or into an appropriate permanent education system. This should be included in the initial planning and actively pursued at the local, regional, national levels — and in the case of repatriation, at the international level. Exceptions to this are

programs such as pre-schools or non-formal education that provide vital emergency services and not meant to be permanent. They act as stopgaps and may no longer be needed once educational systems are re-established.

RECOGNITION OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND CERTIFICATION

A key part of sustainability for SC's education programs in emergencies is official recognition by government and regional bodies of the education and training that were provided. Each year of a child's education should be recognized and certified upon graduation. Similarly, teachers and school administrators should also receive accreditation for their training. To facilitate this, SC should keep detailed records of which children and teachers attend school/training, what they learn, and how they perform.

INCORPORATION OF PROGRAMS AND MATERIALS INTO PERMANENT SYSTEMS

Frequently, NGOs state that local communities or government will continue the NGOs' program activities after the crisis. Such statements are based on huge assumptions. In many crisis-affected areas, communities and governments do not exist or are severely damaged. Where they are intact, they are usually overburdened with re-establishing basic primary and secondary school education. Thus NGO programs may not be continued — especially pre-schools and complementary programs.[10] While such programs may be essential to protecting and promoting children's well-being during the period of displacement, as the situation stabilizes and repatriation becomes more likely, SC should carefully consider if resources should be invested in programs that are unlikely to be sustained.

SPECIAL ISSUES FOR REPATRIATION OR RESETTLEMENT

Wherever possible, refugees and internally displaced people should be prepared for returning to their communities and their responsibilities in re-establishing educational services. Following a crisis, governments rarely have resources to pay teachers, build schools, or provide school materials. The local community is expected to supplement what little support the government can offer. Seminars can be held in camps to discuss the establishment of SMCs, income generation for schools, the establishment of school fees with the option of families paying in-kind or with labor in the teacher fields, and the construction of schools. In communities in transition, capacity-building efforts should focus on increasing the knowledge and skills of as many individuals as possible since refugees and IDPs rarely return as entire villages, but as individuals and families.

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[10]For example, universal pre-school education and HIV/AIDS awareness programs do not often occur in even the most developed countries.

IMPLICATIONS OF PAYING TEACHERS

In areas of conflict and post-conflict, it is likely that the government will not have the resources to pay teachers and school administrators fully. In these situations, organizations like SC are faced with a difficult dilemma: teachers will usually not continue to work without appropriate compensation, but paying teachers undermines the government's role and responsibility and cannot be implemented consistently across the country. SC can use a range of approaches besides direct payment to help the teachers and administrators gain a living wage, with examples noted in the table below. There is no hard-set rule to determine when teachers should be paid. Rather, it is important to be aware of the implications for whatever choice is made. Education systems in refugee setting are often not designed to be sustainable, as they are meant to be for short-term use before return. In some cases, if there are no salaries, teachers will discreetly require students to pay fees, which will reduce access for the most vulnerable children.

If salaries are paid, care must be taken to ensure that incentives are not too high because it may set a precedent that prevents future governments from implementing services. In other words, pay scales determined in the very early days of a crisis can create a salary expectation that will impair the future government's ability to pay its employees. For example, the pay for Liberian refugee teachers in Guinea and Cote d'Ivoire slowly increased to US$80 per month. During the repatriation, the Liberian government could only pay US$10, creating a disincentive for the refugee teachers to continue teaching and further disrupting the education of the children. A realistic sense of community resources is necessary to make any kind of decision on salary payments.

There are also instances where UNHCR is working closely with government authorities and the education systems to benefit both refugees and nationals. In these cases, UNHCR may supplement teachers' wages in accordance with local standards and balance out other benefits, such as refugee health clinics or food rations, which refugees may get but national teachers do not. See table 4.3 for a summary of strategies to help governments and communities support teachers.

TABLE 4.3: STRATEGIES TO SUPPORT TEACHERS

PROBLEM STATEMENT: GOVERNMENTS IN POST-CONFLICT SITUATIONS DO NOT HAVE ENOUGH MONEY TO PAY TEACHERS A LIVABLE WAGE

	Positive impacts	Negative impacts
Strategies to assist the government:		
Paying teachers and school administrators a full or partial salary while the government is being established	• Education system starts, teaching dedication and quality are high, and maximum number of children attending school	• Undermines government authority • Unsustainable and raises the question of when the government will be able to pay salaries • May create disincentive for teachers to continue after SC program ends
Advocacy with local government to compensate teachers	• Additional pressure on the government to pay teachers • Identification of whether the problem is lack of money or administrative (e.g. no computers to compile payroll or transportation)	• Possible loss of political capital and leverage on a very complicated and political issue
Advocacy with donors	• Pressure on the local government separate from SC • Possible attention and assistance	• Possible loss of political leverage
In the interim, strategies to support communities:		
School fees	• Sustainable • Typically part of the pre-conflict culture • Some children might be able to attend school	• Some children might not be able to attend school • Fees might not provide adequate income to teacher
School agriculture or income generation projects (cash crop, animal husbandry, bees)	• Sustainable • Typically part of the pre-conflict culture • Educational opportunity in regard to teaching agriculture, business, and animal husbandry	• Students, often of one gender, are often used for labor in the school's fields, taking away from the time they could be studying • Takes school administrators' time away from education

continued

TABLE 4.3: continued		Positive impacts	Negative impacts
In the interim, strategies to support communities:			
Teacher housing incentives (building houses for returning teachers)	**On school compound**	• Can enhance school's permanent capital	• May hinder permanent settlement of families since they are living on school property • Creates a precedent for other professionals and may be disincentive to repatriation
	Off school compound	• Enhances community and family return	• If built by the NGO, creates a permanent structure that indicates refugee status • Disadvantages teachers who stayed during the crisis
SC-sponsored supplementary education projects, such as adult literacy		• Provides services for other portions of the population • Lays the groundwork for these being included in the national agenda	• Potentially overworks teachers and school administrators • Potentially unsustainable by the community and by the government
Mentoring system for teachers in which mentors receive an incentive		• Increases the quality of education	• Unsustainable • Assists few teachers

POSSIBLE LONG-TERM CONSEQUENCES OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

It is often difficult to anticipate the long-term impacts, both positive and negative, of emergency education programs, as well as their regional and national implications. The following is a brief discussion of some of the long-term issues that may be raised by education programs in emergencies.

Changing traditional roles

In order to survive a crisis, men, women and children frequently take on new roles in their families and communities. This change in gender and age roles is accelerated with the implementation of modern educational systems, quotas for hiring female teachers, mixed

classrooms, and admittance of pregnant girls to school. Not only are girls being educated, but women, by being teachers and wage earners, also may adopt new leadership roles in their families and communities. On a larger scale, early childhood education, and to a lesser extent primary schools, give women more time to pursue their own education, income generation and development activities.

Education for transformation
Emergency and crisis situations can provide a window of opportunity to modernize antiquated educational systems and approaches, making them more relevant to the needs of students and facilitating the inclusion of girls, adolescents, the disabled, and minorities. This process of transformation may unfold at the community level, at the national level, or at both levels. At the national level, the transformation process is often driven from the capital or regional center by an educated elite working in collaboration with the UN and NGOs. Such a process usually includes revising national curricula, updating teaching methodologies, and incorporating standards for equitable education. There is a risk that a "top down" process can weaken communities' faith in the education system. In order for national educational change to be effective, it must have grassroots support. When possible, SC should seek to link national processes of educational transformation with local processes, ensuring that each level is aware and informed of the other.[11]

Changing educational demographics of a country
In many countries, disparity of education between groups (e.g. ethnic, urban/rural, etc.) is a factor contributing to the crisis. Education programs can reduce these gaps and consequently have a significant impact on the future of crisis-affected countries. As an example, Liberia's rural poor were poorly educated and dominated by the urban elite in Monrovia prior to the Liberian civil conflict. However, education programs in the refugee camps in Guinea and Cote d'Ivoire have educated large numbers of rural Liberians. As the rural poor participate more actively in business, government, and civil society, this educational shift will affect the future of Liberia.

Undermining local educational authorities
In crises, governments and local authorities are frequently sidelined. This is sometimes intentional, as governmental donors do not trust the government authorities and thus support UN agencies and NGOs to provide services. This creates a parallel system where the NGOs have hired all the qualified personnel in the area and can be seen providing goods and services while government officials with no salary, transportation, or materials are

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[11]See Pigozzi, M.J. (1999). Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction: A Developmental Approach. Working Paper Series, Education Section, Program Division. New York: UNICEF.

viewed as ineffective. From the beginning of its education programs in emergencies, SC should consider carefully how to restore education authorities' capacity to educate children over the long term and how to avoid undermining these authorities.

PROPOSALS AND DONORS

Funding for education programs usually peaks after the emergency phase, when the educational system has limited capacity and is still developing. Paradoxically, the funding needs for educational programs do not level off over time but tend to expand as the number of children in upper primary levels increase, secondary schools are opened, and complementary education programs are initiated. At the same time, funding is often available only for short programming cycles (6-12 months), and funding levels generally tend to decrease as a crisis endures. Long-term emergencies or chronic crises, such as those in southern Sudan or Pakistan, present special challenges since education programs are usually unable to plan and secure support for multi-year programs. With this in mind, it is essential for SC to maintain regular contact with UNHCR, UNICEF, UNESCO, World Bank, US Government (Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration) and other donors to understand their funding priorities and guidelines. SC education program management should build and maintain relationships with actual and potential donors and should secure donors' guidelines for present and future education funding in the country.

VI. CONCLUSION

This matrix has been designed as a "rough model for action" which identifies immediate, intermediate and long-term activities needed to implement possible components of education programs in emergencies.[12] For the sake of clarify, the terms "initially", "sooner", and "later" have been used to apply to the development of programs in each component; in practice, this should be seen as a programmatic evolution rather than as specific guideline for when individual programs should be started and completed. Some activities will move through these phases faster than others, and some will continue to have activities in all phases at the same time.

Program component	Activity	Immediately	Sooner	Later
Psychosocial	Recreational, expressive and community service activities	• Quick structured activities for children and youth • Organization of community service activities	• Incorporation of psychosocial issues into teacher in-service training • Psychosocial healing discussions for teachers and for leaders in youth, women's and community groups • Strengthening of structured activities for adolescents and youth	• Training of at least 2 persons (male/female) per school as counselors • Systematic and continuing development of psychosocial activities within the curriculum • Systematic development of youth programs and related training for self-sufficiency
Protection	Monitoring of the condition of children	• School statistics system developed including girls, children, and young persons with disability and minority students	• Community survey using students and community groups to identify non-school going children • Programs developed to target students not attending school due to discrimination and/or weak family motivation	• Integration programs established and refined with adequate measures taken to ensure children's security, including liaison with community (women, youth, leaders) groups • Special programs to promote gender equity and participation of persons with disability established and documented

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[12]Sinclair M. and C. Triplehorn. (2001). Rough Model for Action. Handout during presentation at the UNHCR workshop Refugee Education in Developing Countries: Policy and Practice. Washington, DC.

Program component	Activity	Immediately	Sooner	Later
Life skills	Life saving information that is outside or not covered in the normal curriculum	• Disseminations of urgent preventative health measures including HIV/AIDS, environmental, and landmine awareness messages • Audit of school curricula and materials for removal of incitation of hatred and violence	• Audit of school subjects for peace/ tolerance/citizenship, health and environ- mental content and filling in the gaps with simple supplementary materials and teacher training	• Thematic life skills activities in health, HIV/AIDS avoidance, citizenship/peace education included in timetable following grade-wise curriculum for one period per week with specially trained teachers • Same as above for non-school going children, youth groups, and interested community groups
Academics	Non-formal education (language and numeracy classes and related activities)	• Pre-school classes and groups • Primary school-type classes • Youth groups including study groups if desired	• Pre-school classes and groups • Primary school type- classes merge into normal schools. • Some youth study groups develop into secondary school classes	• Non-formal educational activities with a life skills component added for non-school going youth • Coverage extended to meet community needs, e.g. youth/ adult/women's literacy
	Formal education	• Planning restoration of a unified system of schooling through focus groups with community, govern- ments, and regional authorities	• Primary school type- classes merge into normal schools • Some youth study groups develop into secondary school classes • Emergency-related curriculum elements and structure to prepare for the new school year • Restoration of a standardized curriculum similar to the one in the area of origin	• Arrangements made for student certification • Where applicable (for refugees), development of a curriculum that "faces both ways" serv- ing both the language and curricular needs of the areas where the students are, as well as in their area of origin • Inter-agency work to define basic competen- cies by school grade, and to develop related study and test materials

Program component	Activity	Immediately	Sooner	Later
Capacity building and strengthening of operational systems	Teachers and school administrators	• Volunteers teaching and working with young people	• Assessment of volunteers' skills and development of on-going in-service training • Payment of "incentives" to full time workers to establish daily consistency, lessen turnover, and improve quality	• Self-management of school • Design of in-service training to cumulatively lead to recognized qualification. • Certification of trained teachers and school administrators by government or regional body/bodies
	School management committees/PTAs	• Concerned parents and leaders identifying space, shelter and coordinating volunteers	• Committees selected and approved by community • Trained to promote educational quality, relevance, participation, management	• Trained in strategies for post-conflict reconstruction and the development of sustainable educational systems
	Local government and NGOs	• Identification of educational professionals and inclusion into planning and management of educational programs • Assessment of implementing capacity of local, governmental and regional organizations	• Strategies developed to facilitate their ability to implement projects including material support including transportation, communication, and training needs • Grants and administrative training supplied for educational services	• Progressive increase in responsibilities of local partners, leading to handover of management of educational programs and responsibilities • Facilitate direct donor support to government and local NGOs

Program component	Activity	Immediately	Sooner	Later
Supplies	Shelter	• Plastic sheeting, poles, tarpaulin/plastic mats or tarpaulins for floor covering • Fencing for school area where possible	• More cost-effective shelter, typically good roof and floor, low-tech walls	• Where applicable construction of permanent schools
	Furniture	• Blackboards and supports, teachers' chairs	• Benches /desks of the correct size for students, preferably made by refugee youth apprentices; older students receive desks before younger students	• Chairs and tables for teachers and school administrators • Locking cabinets for school books and administrative materials
	Student materials	• Start-up set of exercise books/slates, pens/pencils, and recreational materials. Additional exercise books for adolescents/youth • Learning materials for life skills and trauma	• Textbooks or similar texts based on curriculum from area of origin • Replenishment of consumable supplies to promote participation e.g. secondhand clothing, sanitary materials, food incentives	• Replenishment of consumable supplies; additional items added according to local and programmatic needs • Supplies for new programs e.g. girls literacy support, youth writers, sports groups
	Teacher/ Facilitator materials	• Exercise books, pens, textbooks, teachers' guides, or resource materials for preparing lessons; including basic resources on how to teach • Teaching/learning materials for psychosocial healing and life skills education • Registration and attendance books	• Refugee/IDP professionals should hold writing workshops to reproduce key elements of previous curriculum and/or emergency related materials for schools and youth • Development of teachers' guides focusing on developing the classroom skills of para-professional teachers	• Mass reproduction and distribution of revised post-conflict textbooks, teacher's guides, curricula, education aids and supplementary materials, with life skills areas strengthened, hate passages deleted and controversial areas resolved

Program component	Activity	Immediately	Sooner	Later
Management	NGO education advisors	• Deployment of Educational Coordinators • Non-formal education manager hired to implement safe spaces project • Participatory educational needs assessment • Training of staff	• Proposal writing and securing of funds • Identification/hiring/training of program-matic specialists in teacher training, and life skills specialists • Education Coordination Meetings with other partners, donors and UN • Systematic skills and knowledge development timeline to facilitate program-matic and management handover to teachers, school administrators and local partners	• Progressive handover to teachers, school administrators, and local partners • Where appropriate, strengthening of district/national education offices

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APPENDIX 2: EMERGENCY KITS FOR EDUCATION AND RECREATION ACTIVITIES

To restore education and recreation activities as quickly as possible in disrupted communities, some organizations assemble and distribute kits of school and recreational materials for students and teachers. Kits are generally intended for use in the early stages of a crisis. They can also be useful for equipping communities that are isolated due to security or geography. Kits may be pre-packaged and pre-positioned for rapid deployment, or they may be assembled locally in areas of crisis. Table A.1 presents the pros and cons of both types of kits.

Table A.2 contains a comparison of emergency education and recreational kits assembled by international organizations for four different crisis situations. When possible, the contents of education and recreation kits should be designed based on input from teachers, school administrators, and students about their needs and priorities. Kits should be accompanied by teachers' guides to ensure that all materials are used for maximum benefit.

TABLE A.1: PROS AND CONS OF EDUCATION AND RECREATION KITS			
	Pros	**Cons**	**Applicability**
PRE-ASSEMBLED KITS	• Can be deployed quickly • Saves time by eliminating need for local design, contracting, manufacture, and assembly • Pre-packaging can discourage stealing • Packaging can protect materials from rain and transit damage • Deploying education and recreation kits along with food, shelter, and other key items during an emergency can generate attention and support for children and youth	• Some materials in kits may not be replaceable within the local context • Materials may not be culturally relevant • Kits often rely on assumptions of class size that may be inaccurate • If a kit is targeted to a certain number of students, it can be difficult to divide it among a larger number of students • Storage of materials may raise problems of space availability, security, and deterioration • Kits can be difficult and time-consuming to assemble • Kits may be heavy and difficult to transport • Cost for transport of kits may be higher than local assembly costs • Can be difficult to match language and curriculum needs	• Useful in remote or unstable areas that are difficult to access or infrequently visited • Useful in early emergency programs such as start-up for child friendly spaces/non-formal education programs • Useful when procurement and distribution are the responsibility of unreliable government systems **continued**

TABLE A.1: continued			
	Pros	**Cons**	**Applicability**
LOCAL PURCHASE	• Can contribute to local economy • Can provide culturally appropriate materials • It may be less likely for local quality materials to be diverted into local markets • Can be divided to meet the specific needs of each school and community	• Potential time delays when specific items are not available or are in high demand • Locally-made materials may be of lower quality and higher cost than those bought in bulk	• Can be useful in any stage of crisis • Especially relevant in post-emergency, care and maintenance, and reconstruction phases

TABLE A.2: COMPARISON OF EMERGENCY EDUCATION AND RECREATION KITS

Education Kits	UNICEF Somalia Kits	UNICEF Emergency Kits (2000)	Teacher Emergency Kits in Angola	NRC Kits in Sierra Leone
	for 160 students	for 80 students	for 50 students	for 40 students
Rucksack		1		
Pens (boxes of 100) Red	5	2		
Blue	5	2	4	5
Black		2		
Checking pencils (boxes of 10)	1			
Colored pencils (boxes of 10)	4			
Chalkboard triangles 30-60-90		1		
45-90		1		
Chalk (boxes of 100) Colored	5	3	3	1
White	35	3	6	
Exercise books (96 pages)		1		
Stamp pad	1			
Stamp pad ink	1			
A3 newsprint	3 reams			
A4 duplicating paper	2 reams			
Black carbon paper	1 box			
1.5 cm thick masking tape	1 roll			
Glue	1 litre			
Empty 250 ml bottles	5			

Education Kits		UNICEF Somalia Kits for 160 students	UNICEF Emergency Kits (2000) for 80 students	Teacher Emergency Kits in Angola for 50 students	NRC Kits in Sierra Leone for 40 students
Inflatable globe		1			
Wall map		1			
Wall clock		1			
School bell		1			
Craft knife		1			
Clock			1	2	1
Desk top pencil sharpener		1			
Felt-tipped pens (box of 10)			2		
Five colors heavy manila		5 sheets per color			
Scissors		2	1		
Twine		1 roll			
Stapler		1			
Staple pins		1			
Hole punch		1			
Pins		1			
Paper clips		1 box			
Tape measure			1	2	1
Blackboard paint (in litres)		2	1	.5	.5
Blackboards		4			
Paintbrush				1	1
Cloth duffle bag with drawstring				1	1
Lock					1
Metal or plastic box for storage			1		
Posters	Alphabet		1 (laminated)		1 (cloth)
	Number		1 (laminated)	1 (cloth)	1 (cloth)
	Multiplication		1 (laminated)		1 (cloth)
Alphabet cards				1	
Scrabble (30 cubes)					5
Abacuses		2			
Compass			1		
Blackboard ruler (inches and cm)		4	1		
Set of plastic covered wooden cubes			1		
Registration book (for marks)			2	2	1
Attendance books				2	1

	UNICEF Somalia Kits	UNICEF Emergency Kits (2000)	Teacher Emergency Kits in Angola	NRC Kits in Sierra Leone
Education Kits	for 160 students	for 80 students	for 50 students	for 40 students
Teacher's printed notebook (200 pages)	4			
Teacher's guide			1	
Blackboard eraser	8	2	2	
Paint brushes	1 set of 7			
Crayons (box of 8)	10 boxes per class	40		5
Water-based paint (1/2 litre cans)	4			
Eraser (soft)		100	50	40
Exercise books 48 pages square (A5)	Grade 1: 40 Grade 2: 80	100	50	
48 pages lined	Grade 3: 200 Grade 4: 200	100	50	40
Pencils for slates	Grade 1: 40 Grade 2: 40	100		
Pencils	Grade 1: 80 Grade 2: 160 Grade 3: 160 Grade 4: 160	144	50	40
Pencil sharpeners			10	3
Blue ballpoint pens	Grade 4: 80			
Bag carrier		80		
Ruler plastic (30 cm, set of 10)		10		
Scissors, child	5	40		
Slate, students' A4	Grade 1: 40 Grade 2: 40	50	52	40
Recreation Kits				
Notebooks A4		3		
Pen, ballpoint		12		
Chalk, powdered, 3 kg		1		
Handballs, senior size		2		
Handballs, junior size		2		
Whistles		2		1
Inflating and repair kit	2	2		1
Tape measure, 5 m		1		
Slate (A4)		2		

TABLE A.2: continued				
	UNICEF Somalia Kits	**UNICEF Emergency Kits (2000)**	**Teacher Emergency Kits in Angola**	**NRC Kits in Sierra Leone**
Recreation Kits	for 160 students	for 80 students	for 50 students	for 40 students
White chalk (box of 100)		3		
Hand bag and lock		1		
T-shirt		1		
Cap		1		
Musical instruments (according to local practice)				
Colored tabards (to distinguish teams)		20		
Skittles		20		
Volleyballs	2	2		
Volleyball nets	1	2		
Volleyball posts				
Footballs	2	2		1
Softballs				1
Tennis balls	5			
Rubber rings	4			
Skipping rope (short)	3			4
Skipping rope (long)	3			2
Bats		5		
Pickets with flags		6		
Metal box with padlock		1		

Notes (based on UNICEF guidelines for kit use):

• In countries with wet seasons, each student should have a plastic sack to protect exercise books.

• Blackboard paint should always come with a paintbrush. If the paint is water-based, the brush can be cleaned with water. If not, it must be cleaned with paraffin or kerosene to prevent it from becoming brittle and useless.

• All items should always come with some means for storage. The inside of a storage box can be painted with blackboard paint. Thus making the lid a blackboard.

- The blackboard paint can also be used on a smooth surface, like a wall or board. The surface must be smooth so as not to waste chalk, as rough surfaces use more blackboard paint.

- The paint can be used to repaint and refresh the blackboard as needed. Blackboards need to be painted several times a year to keep them looking fresh, attractive, and readable. Be sure to close the paint can lid tightly to prevent the paint from drying prematurely.

- Use a sponge or a soft cloth as an eraser. Do not use paper since this scrapes away the blackboard paint and makes it shiny and unreadable.

- Tape measures can be used to mark heights on a pole or a wall, so that pupils can measure their height in centimeters. The tape can also be used for teaching measurements.

- The use of slates depends upon the country. Francophone countries tend to use slates more than Anglophone countries.

APPENDIX 3: SAMPLE SCHOOL ASSESSMENT FORM[13]

Name of School: _____

Village: _____ Municipality: _____

Informant(s):_____

Name of Director(s): _____

MINES CLEARED? ☐ **YES** ☐ **NO**

IF YES, **BY WHOM?** _____

WHEN? _____

What type of school? ☐ Preparatory ☐ Primary ☐ Secondary

If primary, answer the following:

    1. Is this a satellite school? ☐ Yes ☐ No

    2. If yes, what is the name of the main school? _____

STUDENT STATISTICS

Class	Total number of students	Number of girls

Disabled students

Disability	Number of students
Physically disabled	
Hearing impaired	
Sight impaired	
Other (specify)	

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[13]This form is also available on the accompanying CD-ROM so that it can be more easily modified and reproduced for specific situations.

Ethnicity

Ethnic Group	Number of students
a	
b	
c	
Other (specify)	

TEACHER STATISTICS

| | Total number of teachers | | Number of female teachers |

| | Number of formally qualified teachers | | Number of unqualified teachers |

Language(s) of instruction: _____

Are the students divided into shifts or streams? If yes, describe how.

_____

_____

_____

SCHOOL SCHEDULE

	MON.	TUES.	WED.	THURS.	FRI.	SAT.	SUN.
7 a.m.							
8 a.m.							
9 a.m.							
10 a.m.							
11 a.m.							
12 noon							
1 p.m.							
2 p.m.							
3 p.m.							
4 p.m.							
5 p.m.							
6 p.m.							
7 p.m.							
8 p.m.							
9 p.m.							

COMMUNITY SUPPORT

Is there a parent teachers association or school management committee?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

If yes, describe its composition and activities:

_____

_____

_____

FACILITIES

Number of rooms used for teaching: ☐

Staff room?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Private room for individual student attention?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Copying machine?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Sanitation Facilities	Number for	
	Girls	Boys
Latrines		
Indoor toilets		

Describe the sanitation facilities' condition

_____

_____

_____

WATER

Is there a well?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Water is: ☐ Inside the building   ☐ Outside the building

Describe how the school gets water:

_____

_____

_____

HEAT

How is the school heated?   ☐ Wood   ☐ Coal   ☐ Oil

If stoves, number of stoves: ☐   Number of stoves needed: ☐

Amount of fuel needed :   Wood _____ m3 per winter

                             Coal _____ m3 per winter

                             Oil _____ m3 per winter

Type of furniture	Standard	Existing	Needed
Chairs			
Tables			
Blackboards			
Teacher desks			
Director desk			
Cabinet			
Other:			

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT, SPORTS AND RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

Is the school fenced?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Is there a school crossing sign at relevant roads?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Is there a football field?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Is there a basketball court?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Is there a volleyball court?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Other types of sports/play grounds:

_____

_____

_____

Musical instruments and traditional dance materials:

_____

_____

_____

Other (describe):

_____

_____

_____

Additional Questions:

- Are there any children of school-going age who are not going to school? Who are they?
  - Which children are not receiving education and why?
  - Which children are at risk of having their education disrupted?
  - What measures can be taken to prevent disruption?
  - What short-term inputs are needed to restore basic functionality to the education programs?
    - Tables and chairs
      - Separate or benches
    - Community Involvement
      - Parents Involvement
      - Students Involvement
    - Setting up formal/non-formal education programs in a refugee camp
      - Space assignment
        - What is a reasonable size for a school? How many streams?
          How many students per classroom?
  - Standards of Education:
    - What is the typical number of students in each class?
    - Availability of textbooks for teachers?
    - Availability of textbooks for students?

Attachment of Digital Photos:
- A distance photograph of the school to give and indication of its size
- Internal shots including classrooms
- Latrines

APPENDIX 4: CHECKLIST OF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND ISSUES WHEN SCHOOLS HAVE BEEN ESTABLISHED[14]

For parents:
• Why do you send your children to school?
• How was the decision taken to send/not send your children to school?
  Who made the final decision made?
  What factors influenced the decision?
• Are you happy with the school?
• Are there topics not covered in school that are necessary for your child's success in the future?
• How do parents contribute to their children's education?
• Do you learn from your children?
• What are the problems you face in keeping your children in school?
  Are these the same for your sons as for your daughters?
• What factors help support your children to continue in school?
  Are these the same for your sons and daughters?
• How does the community use the school for its activities?
• Do your children understand school lessons?
  What did the teacher do to make sure the students understood the lessons?
• What do you see as your role in your child's education?

For communities:
• What does the school management committee do when a child stops attending school?
• What does the community do to support children who attend school?
• What does the community do to prevent children from dropping out of school?
• What community efforts are currently being made to improve education at the local school(s)?

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[14]This form is also available on the accompanying CD-ROM so that it can be more easily modified and reproduced for specific situations.

For students:
- Do you enjoy school?
- What do you like/dislike about school?
- What problems do you face at school?
- How can school be improved?
- What do boys/girls do at school?
- What do you do at home?

- How long have you gone to school?
- If you stopped attending school, why?
- Why do you think other girls/boys stop attending school?
- How did your parents encourage you to attend school?
- What is your dream?
  What do you want to be and do when you are an adult?
- Does the teacher treat students in the class differently? If so, how?

For teachers:
- What makes a good teacher?
- How much training and experience have you had?
- How do you assess your lessons?
- What are your problems?
- What problems do students have?
- What subjects are the teachers responsible for?
- What academic background is the teacher supposed to have (minimum qualifications)?
- How much lesson planning is required of the teacher?
- How much of the curriculum does the teacher have control over and how
  much are they required to teach?
- What content areas would the teachers like to cover in trainings?
- What lesson planning skills would the teachers like to learn?
- What techniques are considered acceptable, effective, and appropriate in the school and system?
- What are the cultural expectations for both teacher and student interaction in the classroom?
- What are the standard acceptable disciplinary and classroom management approaches?

For school administrators:
• What is the purpose of education in your school?
• How is your school managed?
• What school records to you keep?
• How do you deal with disabled children?
• What problems does your school have?

For program managers:
• What are the main strengths of your program?
• How do you measure quality?
• How do you measure and achieve cost-effectiveness?
• What improvements have you made?
• What are the gender issues facing the program, and how do you deal with them?