

EDUCATION FOR ALL IN EMERGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

SECTION

2

GENERAL OVERVIEW



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The publication costs of this study have been covered through a grant-in-aid offered by UNESCO and by voluntary contributions made by several Member States of UNESCO.

Published by:

International Institute for Educational Planning

7-9 rue Eugène Delacroix, 75116 Paris

e-mail: info@iiep.unesco.org

IIEP web site: www.unesco.org/iiep

Layout and cover design: Sabine Lebeau

Typesetting: Sabine Lebeau

Printed in IIEP's printshop

ISBN: 92-803-1288-X

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EDUCATION FOR ALL IN EMERGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

DAKAR 'EDUCATION FOR ALL' (EFA)

GOALS RELATED TO ACCESS

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

Source: World Education Forum (2000: § 7).

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

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

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

In meeting EFA and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as governments' other obligations under international treaties (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 31, 'Legal frameworks'*), educational authorities are faced with the major challenge of ensuring access for *all* children, regardless of their location, political or ethnic affiliation, gender or citizenship. Access must be ensured for the following:

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

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

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

EFA and Millennium Development Goals should be applicable *during* and *immediately* after emergencies. Civil wars and complex chronic conflicts can last for decades. Therefore a commitment to providing inclusive access to education is just as important in emergencies as during peacetime, if not more so. The *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (INEE, 2004), launched in December 2004, in the form of a *Minimum standards handbook*, is an expression of this commitment. Through a highly collaborative process, facilitated by the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies, and involving more than 2,250 individuals from over 50 countries, global standards have been developed for the minimum level of educational quality and access that should be provided in emergencies, chronic crises and the early reconstruction phase. (See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 1*, 'Introduction', for more information on the standards.)

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

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

THE POTENTIAL PROTECTIVE ELEMENTS OF EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES

PHYSICAL PROTECTION

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

PSYCHOSOCIAL PROTECTION

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

COGNITIVE PROTECTION

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

Source: Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003: 10)

Standard 1 on access and learning environment in the *Minimum standards handbook* deals with equal access: “All individuals have equal access to quality and relevant education opportunities” (INEE, 2004: 41). The table below lays out three primary reasons (safety-related, economic and institutional) why children might not be in school, and offers a few examples of what can be done to provide them with access to learning. The third column of the table provides cross-references to other chapters in this *Guidebook* that deal with these issues. For a more comprehensive outline of the challenges facing educational authorities working with different population groups in different types and phases of emergencies and reconstruction, please see the *Guidebook, Chapter 2, ‘Challenges in emergencies and reconstruction’*.

SAFETY-RELATED REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Concerns related to safety en route</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parents are afraid to send their children to school due to ongoing conflict The route to school is unsafe Children are afraid to leave their parents Children’s movement is restricted due to roadblocks or closures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide child friendly spaces for schools Facilitate home schools Give psychosocial training for teachers Arrange escorts, school buses Arrange community education or advocacy Give distance education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 6: Gender</i> <i>Chapter 10: Learning spaces and school facilities</i> <i>Chapter 11: Open and distance learning</i> <i>Chapter 19: Psychosocial support to learners</i>
<i>Concerns related to attending school</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parents are concerned that conditions in the school are insecure, especially for girls Girls risk sexual harassment and abuse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lobbying of government by local educational authorities to render schools safe Provide child friendly spaces for schools Mobilize community volunteers in schools Set up school management committees Exercise enforced code of conduct for teachers Keep separate toilets for girls Provide sanitary materials for older girls 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 6: Gender</i> <i>Chapter 10: Learning spaces and school facilities</i> <i>Chapter 32: Community participation</i>
<i>Concerns related to distance to school</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Children have to walk too far to get to school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop community schools for early primary grades Early primary schools can be ‘feeder schools’ for larger schools with higher primary grades as older children can walk farther to a bigger school Use ‘satellite’ schools or classes for early years of schooling, administered as part of larger schools Set up school buses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 5: Rural populations</i> <i>Chapter 6: Gender</i> <i>Chapter 8: Children with disabilities</i> <i>Chapter 10: Learning spaces and school facilities</i> <i>Chapter 11: Open and distance learning</i> <i>Chapter 35: Budget and financial management</i>

ECONOMIC REASONS		
WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children must work for their families – doing planting/harvesting, water and/or firewood collection, rations collection, etc. • Child/sibling-minding responsibilities • Parents cannot afford the direct cost of schooling, including registration, school fees, tuition and examination fees, unofficial fees charged by schools and informal payments of teachers, community contributions for school construction and maintenance, uniforms/decent clothes, transport, learning materials, etc. • Parents do not prioritize education for their children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrange for alternative school times • Arrange for alternative times for food/water distribution in camps • Engage primary schools or satellite premises that have free crèche and pre-school facilities • Provide school feeding/food items based on attendance as incentive for family • Abolish compulsory school uniforms, provide second-hand clothing to poor children • Facilitate study groups • Arrange catch-up classes, classes for working children • Arrange peer teaching • Provide learning programmes for adults, persuading them of the value of education for themselves and their children • Put stress on governments' obligation to provide access to free primary education, (which includes paying teachers regularly) and to facilitate access to secondary and higher education, e.g. through non-discriminative scholarships, refugee/IDP schools, distance education • International organizations can provide materials, scholarships, teacher incentives (especially in the acute phase and for displaced populations) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 5:</i> Rural populations • <i>Chapter 10:</i> Learning spaces and school facilities • <i>Chapter 27:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 37:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
Bureaucratic hurdles and problems of access	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambiguous legal frameworks • Authorities and schools require records of previous schooling, identity papers, birth certificates etc. • Lack of opportunity to proceed from primary to secondary education • Lack of school leaving certificates accepted in the concerned country/ies reduces future economic opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Waive procedures to get children into school • Provide counsellors to help urban refugee/IDP children enter existing national schools • Support testing for older children to enter appropriate grades in the national schools • Provide bridging tuition/ classes to prepare refugee children to enter local schools/colleges • Put stress on governments' obligation to provide access to free primary education, (which includes paying teachers regularly) and to facilitate access to secondary and higher education, e.g. through non-discriminative scholarships, refugee/IDP schools, distance education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 4:</i> Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction • <i>Chapter 27:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 31:</i> Legal frameworks • <i>Chapter 37:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms
Curriculum issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The curriculum is divisive • The curriculum is not considered interesting or relevant, or is not valued, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lighten curriculum during and immediately after emergency, thereby 'making space' for subsequent revisions, creating less pressure on students and teachers, especially if school hours are short due to the use of multiple shifts • Conduct curriculum review; engage and consult with community • Use children's mother tongue as language of instruction, at least in early primary • Use country/area of origin curriculum for refugees when possible • Facilitate recreational/ cultural activities liked by boys, girls, parents • Teach positive moral values, peace, citizenship, adolescent health, in a way that is culturally acceptable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Chapter 20:</i> Curriculum content and review processes • <i>Chapter 27:</i> Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids • <i>Chapter 32:</i> Community participation • <i>Chapter 37:</i> Donor relations and funding mechanisms

INSTITUTIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Inadequate school facilities</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Over-crowding; not enough schools, classrooms, school tents, plastic sheeting, etc. Fighting parties using schools for their own purposes or schools having been destroyed by fighting or natural disasters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consider multiple shifts Repair damaged schools Build temporary schools Build new schools (seek outside assistance) Consider use of other structures (religious buildings, privately owned buildings, etc.) Consider open-air semi-sheltered spaces that can be made secure and available 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 5</i>: Rural populations <i>Chapter 10</i>: Learning spaces and school facilities <i>Chapter 32</i>: Community participation <i>Chapter 35</i>: Budget and financial management
<i>Problems of marginalization</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Children and youth at risk are often marginalized and not included in education¹ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pro-active measures to identify and draw in children and youth at risk Educational authorities and international organizations set goals, develop and implement strategies to achieve universal primary education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 8</i>: Children with disabilities <i>Chapter 9</i>: Former child soldiers <i>Chapter 32</i>: Community participation
<i>Staff issues</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not enough or poor-quality teachers Not enough women teachers to encourage families/girls to continue with schooling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recruit and hire more teachers, including new teachers if necessary, and including a substantial proportion of women Provide substantive in-service teacher training Solicit outside help, if necessary initially, in developing teacher-training modalities Provide teacher incentives (at a sustainable level) to reduce turnover Develop programmes for attracting teachers to rural areas (and retaining them) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 5</i>: Rural populations <i>Chapter 15</i>: Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers <i>Chapter 16</i>: Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions <i>Chapter 18</i>: Teacher training: teaching and learning methods <i>Chapter 35</i>: Budget and financial management <i>Chapter 37</i>: Donor relations and funding mechanisms
<i>Concerns related to vulnerable groups</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers not qualified or have no training in dealing with children with special needs (e.g. traumatized children, children with hearing or sight problems, children with physical disabilities, children with learning disabilities, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bring in outside experts and teachers if necessary, especially initially Give teacher training Introduce psychosocial programmes Provide recreation, 'expressive' activities and community services for traumatized child and adolescent populations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 8</i>: Children with disabilities <i>Chapter 18</i>: Teacher training: teaching and learning methods <i>Chapter 35</i>: Budget and financial management <i>Chapter 37</i>: Donor relations and funding mechanisms

1. Categories may include: orphans, child victims of abuse, violence and rape; ex-child soldiers, child perpetrators of violence; children in child-headed families, child heads of families, children with HIV, children of HIV-positive parents; children providing for parents in prison; displaced children; girls; girls after puberty; children from disadvantaged minority communities; returning exiles; children separated from their families; children with special needs; child victims of war, war wounded children, traumatized children; lost, demoralized and disoriented children.

RELEVANCE / MOTIVATIONAL REASONS			
	WHY ARE CHILDREN NOT IN SCHOOL?	WHAT CAN BE DONE?	GUIDEBOOK CHAPTERS
<i>Concerns related to age disparities</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Older children and youth who have missed years of schooling may not want to attend early primary grades with young children or may have lost interest in school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special primary classes for older children/boys Accelerated learning or bridging programmes Literacy/numeracy programmes Non-formal education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 12:</i> Non-formal education
<i>Lack of perspective</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Youth who have completed primary school have no other educational options 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide post-primary learning opportunities, such as secondary school, vocational training, skills training, etc. Provide scholarships for secondary and higher education Consider distance learning options for post-primary students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Chapter 11:</i> Open and distance learning <i>Chapter 12:</i> Non-formal education <i>Chapter 14:</i> Post-primary education <i>Chapter 26:</i> Vocational education and training

KEY PRINCIPLES

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

SINCLAIR'S PRINCIPLES OF EMERGENCY EDUCATION

ACCESS

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

RESOURCES

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

ACTIVITIES/CURRICULUM

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

CO-ORDINATION AND CAPACITY BUILDING

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

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

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

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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



Summary of suggested strategies

Access and inclusion

1. **Be active in education for emergency-affected communities, and provide leadership in needs assessment activities.**
2. **Assess the educational needs of children who are out of school as well as those attending school.**
3. **Collect data on school enrolment, retention and completion for different groups and areas.**
4. **Ensure participation of emergency-affected populations in educational planning and decision-making.**
5. **Work to make schools and access to schools safe.**
6. **Advocate for equitable access to international assistance for all emergency-affected sections of the population.**
7. **Consider absorbing limited numbers of IDP or refugee students in local schools.**
8. **Plan or facilitate the establishment of separate schools for large refugee or IDP populations.**
9. **Plan education in refugee or IDP schools to support repatriation/return home, including the use of a curriculum (especially language of study) that is similar to that of the area of origin.**

Guidance notes

1. **Be active in education for emergency-affected communities, and provide leadership in needs-assessment activities.**

- Whenever possible, educational authorities must be active and present in war-affected communities for which they have responsibility. Indeed, bold and visionary leadership is essential to the continuance, reconstruction and transformation of education services.
- Standard 2 on policy and co-ordination in the Minimum standards handbook deals with planning and implementation: “Emergency education activities take into account national and international educational policies and standards and the learning needs of affected populations” (INEE, 2004: 73). Needs-assessment missions by international agencies and organizations should be co-ordinated to the greatest extent possible by the education ministry, which should be represented on all the specialist sub-groups dealing with different levels and types of education and overall educational planning.
- Determine whether certain areas of the country are inaccessible due to landmines or destroyed infrastructure (such as bridges or roads), ongoing civil conflict or issues of control over contested areas.
 - If so, is anything known about how many children are in the inaccessible areas? How many are in their home areas, and how many belong to internally displaced or refugee populations?
 - Are local schools or other schools operating? If so, how many? At what level?
 - Is anything known about how many children (boys, girls) are attending school? Especially in areas of ongoing conflict, parents may be reluctant to send their children to school, especially girls.
- When certain areas are inaccessible, educational authorities may not be able to fulfil their responsibilities. If educational authorities are not functioning in the area, access by the relevant United Nations agencies should be facilitated.
 - Can civil-society organizations or non-governmental organizations reach the affected populations, with the consent or support of the educational authorities?
 - Do they have the mandate, funding and adequately trained and experienced staff to undertake this responsibility?
 - What information do they have regarding how many children have access to schooling and the quality of education the children are receiving?
 - How can they support education for these inaccessible communities, for example provision of teacher training, materials, etc.?
 - How can the government support or work with these organizations?

- Are local or regional education officials able to travel from the affected area in order to report on the educational situation?
- Is use being made of available channels of communication, e.g. radio?
- Are needs assessments being organized by international organizations, in the country concerned or elsewhere? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources'.)
 - Are the national educational authorities and their specialist staff involved in all the needs-assessment activities?
 - If this is not possible, are reputed national education specialists involved in all these activities?

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

Assessing children's access to education and learning is an essential part of both the planning and implementation of educational programmes, as the assessment will affect the quality and relevance of the education provided. Anyone involved with this task should also consult the *Guidebook, Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources'. Below is a summary of some of the questions educational authorities must consider when assessing children's access to education and learning:

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

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

If available, review gross and net enrolment ratios for emergency-affected provinces or districts, and/or refugee or IDP camps or settlements, within the country. (See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for an explanation of calculation of gross and net enrolment ratios.)

- Are there differences in enrolment ratios in certain areas of the country?
- If enrolment statistics are not available, consult with provincial/district educational authorities. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources', and *Chapter 34*, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)', for guidance on collecting educational statistics.)

- Do local authorities have enrolment statistics for their area? What is the date of the statistics? Have they been validated by recent visits to schools?
- If local authorities do not have current enrolment statistics, is it possible to obtain them, at least for some of the schools in their area?
- If population statistics are not available, how was the population of school-age children in each province/district estimated?
 - Consult with the national statistical office or institute to determine whether they have developed provincial/district population estimates.
 - If gross population estimates are available, consider estimating the school-age population. (See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for basic principles on estimating the school-age population.)
 - Consult with key informants to estimate the ratio of children in school to the total numbers in the relevant age group.
 - Have provincial/district authorities talked to local community members/leaders to ask how many children in the relevant age group are or are not in school?
 - Have representatives from all segments of the community been consulted (e.g. men, women, children, community leaders, members of different ethnic groups, etc.)?

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

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

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

- What is needed to implement these options?
 - Learning spaces.
 - Teachers – teachers already in service, where applicable; volunteer teachers, if required – who will need some kind of regular incentives, in cash or kind.
 - In-service teacher training.
 - Learning materials (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 27*, ‘Textbooks, educational materials and teaching aids’, for more information).
 - Building materials – or some components, such as plastic sheeting, poles, cement, gravel, etc.
 - International assistance.
- What is needed to attract students?
 - Interesting, high-quality learning environments and pedagogical approaches.
 - Curricula that are relevant to all students and free of divisive messages.
 - Compassionate teachers, with sound interpersonal skills.
 - Safety.
 - School feeding (see the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for arguments for and against school feeding).
 - Non-formal approaches for special groups such as adolescents who cannot attend regular school or need help with (re-)entry to schooling.
 - Elimination of bureaucratic hurdles to enrolment, e.g. the requirement for birth certificates, previous diplomas, etc.
- What is needed to attract teachers?
 - Training and other forms of support.
 - Salaries/incentives.
 - Other compensation such as housing, food, etc.
 - Some incentive to teachers who are not on the government payroll, to compensate for income lost due to time spent teaching.
- What is needed to gain the support of parents and communities?
 - No school fees – explicit or hidden such as uniforms, materials, payments to teachers.
 - Safety.
 - School feeding or food items in return for regular attendance (see Point 4 on school feeding under ‘Tools and resources’, below).
 - ‘Quality’ education (see Point 1 on quality under ‘Tools and resources’, below).
 - Involvement – school management committee, etc.



INTRODUCTION OF ACCELERATED LEARNING IN RWANDA

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

Unfortunately, the first reaction of the Catch-Up field managers was to ignore the carefully designed programme they had drawn up for themselves. They could not resist accepting every applicant. All-comers were accepted; classes were allowed to grow beyond the well set limits; the ages of children were not monitored; nor were the children allocated to classes or streamed according to their previous schooling experience. Classes opened before the teachers had been oriented and before the teaching and learning materials reached the centres. It has been pointed out to [the Ministry of Education] that unless the basic design of the programme is respected, it will not achieve its goal . . . Without such a framework the programmes will be in immediate danger of failure and of disappointing the children, the Ministry and education planners with this first and well-publicized attempt in Rwanda of providing much needed alternative education programmes. A planning process has to result in respect for the plan drawn up. Rwanda needs a success with this first official alternative education programme.”

Source: Obura (2003: 137-138)

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

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

- What efforts have been made to encourage community involvement?
 - As guards.
 - As monitors of teacher and student attendance and behaviour.
 - As guides on gender issues for teachers and students.
 - As escorts for children travelling to and from school.
 - As negotiators with warring parties in areas of conflict.
 - As partners in helping to keep the school premises (including latrines) in good repair.
- Have all staff received gender training?
- Have efforts been made to recruit more female teachers?
- Are schools located close to children’s homes, especially for the early primary grades, so children do not have to travel far to attend school?
- Are school latrines sex-segregated and visible from the classrooms?

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

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

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

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

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

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



THE PROBLEM OF PROVIDING EDUCATION FOR A RAPID REFUGEE INFLUX

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

Source: Nicolai (2004)

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

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

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

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

When separate primary schools are established for refugee or IDP children, use the curriculum from their place of origin and their mother tongue as language of instruction when possible. This will facilitate their access to the school system in their home area/country after repatriation or return from internal displacement. Standard 1 on teachers and other educational personnel in the *Minimum standards handbook* deals with recruitment and selection: “A sufficient number of appropriately qualified teachers and other education personnel is recruited through a participatory and transparent process based on selection criteria that reflect diversity and equity.” (INEE, 2004: 65).

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

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Linking access and quality

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

Defining quality of education

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

Source: INEE (2004).

Improving quality of education

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

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

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

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

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

“School improvement strategies are most effective when developed on site and in collaboration with stakeholders and implementers... To improve quality, the role of central authorities is less one of providing quality than of fostering environments that support site-based improvement. Innovations are less effectively ‘replicated’ than promoted.”

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

2. Calculating gross and net enrolment ratios

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

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

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

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

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



GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS IN REFUGEE CAMPS AND SETTLEMENTS

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

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

3. Estimating the school-age population

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

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

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

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

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

4. School feeding

Arguments for and against school feeding

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

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

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

SCHOOL FEEDING AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF CHILDREN'S HEALTH	
ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In areas of crisis, school feeding programmes are an effective strategy to improve children's health, especially when combined with specific health interventions. • School feeding (especially wet feeding) stabilizes the individual child's food supply. • A school feeding programme with an established mechanism for storing and delivering food can be used to increase distributions to a broader target population without having to establish an entirely new infrastructure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding may alter the children's access to food in their homes, if parents give children less food because they have eaten at school. • Take-home rations have no guaranteed nutritional effects on the students, as food rations may be sold, shared by the whole family, etc. • As food given at school is often the same as provided in regular distribution, it may lack the micronutrients and vitamins required.
SCHOOL FEEDING AND LEARNING CAPACITY	
ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As many children arrive at school without breakfast and/or after a long walk to school, a breakfast or mid-morning snack will decrease their short-term hunger. • Providing students with a nutritious meal may improve their learning capacity and performance. • School feeding can help to provide stability and regularity in the time schedule. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased learning capacity is difficult to document, especially with take-home rations, as there is no guarantee that the learners actually get the food. • Children wait in long queues for food, which is not effective use of limited school time. • School personnel (teachers and administrators) are expected to oversee the programmes, to the detriment to their other educational responsibilities.
SCHOOL FEEDING AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION	
ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR	ARGUMENTS AGAINST
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding can encourage community participation in education, especially through its participation in the implementation of the programme. • The logistics of a school feeding programme or the running of a school garden may create employment opportunities in the local community. • A school feeding programme can be a good platform for other, complementary types of interventions, at and around the schools. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School feeding, especially wet feeding, requires support structures, such as water, fuel, additional food items such as salts and spices, and cooking. These are often scarce commodities, and the opportunity cost of providing these to a large group rather than with the family can be very high. • The local offices of the Ministry of Education and local communities are often not in a position to respond effectively by contributing time and labour.

Conditions for successful school feeding

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

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

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

2. Food resources are readily available to programme implementers.

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

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

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

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

- Combine with other school health programmes interventions (de-worming, drinkable water supply at schools, provision of school latrines, etc.).
- Combine school feeding programmes with complementary interventions targeting other obstacles to enrolment and retention. Make school quality a first priority.

- Ensure programmes are targeted only to those areas/population groups where they are most needed. Re-target as necessary as the situation develops.
- Develop exit strategies already at the onset of the programme, as well as strategies in the case of unexpected termination of funds, resources or need.

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

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

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

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

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CHAPTER **4**



SECTION 2



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning