

Chapter 5

RURAL POPULATIONS

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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MAIN OBJECTIVES

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

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Even before conflict, rural areas tend to have fewer economic and human resources, and thus a greater prevalence of those household risk factors associated with reduced access to education: poverty and hunger, poor health, greater gender inequities, a high proportion of child labour and often reduced private and public funding for education. There is often a lack of awareness amongst educational planners and officials as well as within the international community about the educational needs of rural people. Schools that do exist will most frequently be primary schools, and with only limited opportunities for both preschool and post-primary education. Moreover, the curriculum in place may not be relevant to rural economic opportunities. Because rural areas are often populated by minority groups and indigenous peoples who may already perceive themselves to be socially disadvantaged, it is crucial that existing social and economic tensions are not exacerbated by the neglect of education in rural areas.

Emergencies and civil conflict tend to aggravate these difficulties, and quite often educational systems in rural areas are the hardest hit. One reason is that rural-urban migration is frequently intensified during emergencies as cities are generally safer and provide more income-earning opportunities. Because teachers are among the most educated members of rural society and often have either more income or more income-generating options than others, during conflict they tend to migrate, either to urban areas or to a safe place in another country. Teachers that do not migrate may have less teaching experience or fewer educational qualifications. In situations

where education has been politicized, teachers may be the targets of attacks and therefore may migrate to save their lives. As a result, education services in rural areas will normally require particular attention during emergencies and reconstruction.

Physical access in rural areas is, by its very nature, often particularly difficult. Rural areas often have a poorer infrastructure in place due to urban biases in the allocation of resources. Rural education, even in times of peace and stability, often suffers from lack of teaching materials and remoteness from information sources, and the fact that children must often travel long distances through difficult terrain to reach schools. These problems will also be compounded by emergencies. Rural areas are more likely to be cut off by fighting, landmines and other manifestations of conflict, or to be under the control of forces in conflict with government. This will make the route, and thus physical access to school, very dangerous or even impossible for many rural children. Teachers, teacher trainers, school supervisors and even supplies may be cut off from rural areas. Similarly, centralized educational authorities and other education providers will have greater difficulties undertaking needs assessment, supervision and monitoring.

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



SIERRA LEONE: LESS ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS

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

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

Source: Lowicki and Pillsbury (2002: 18).

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

In the reconstruction phase of an emergency, refugees and IDPs may be reluctant to return to rural areas unless they are secure and present economic opportunities. Also, if difficulties of access or insecurity make it difficult to establish or expand schools in rural areas, refugees or IDPs may further delay their return home. Moreover, the lack of resources and access to paid employment in rural areas after an emergency will discourage families from sending their children to school. Many families will focus their resources on rebuilding homes, restoring agricultural or other economic activities, and will have limited time and resources to help with school restoration. They may also use their children's labour for economic or domestic purposes.


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

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

For organizations seeking to assist urban refugees, IDPs, or nomadic peoples, the task is complicated; these populations are quite often dispersed and difficult to locate. In addition, urban refugees or IDPs often refuse to be identified for fear of being sent back to their home country or to another refugee camp with fewer income-generating options, or simply out of fear for their security. Refugees and IDPs living in camps, which are frequently located in rural areas, are much more likely to receive an education. Whilst this topic focuses on the relative disadvantages of rural areas, many of the issues discussed will also apply to urban areas.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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



Summary of suggested strategies

Rural populations

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

Guidance notes

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

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

Also, consult the *Guidebook, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*. *Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'* will also provide some general considerations related to needs assessment and access to schooling.



NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN RURAL TIMOR-LESTE

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

Women's learning

Learn personal hygiene
Go to school
Learn to cook
Learn to make *tais* (traditional weaving)
Get married and look after children
Learn to use a sewing machine
Teach daughters to make *tais*
Pass on traditional knowledge to children

Men's learning

Help look after animals
Work in the gardens/help in the fields
Learn to ride a bicycle
Work by themselves in the field
Build houses
Sell in the market
Get married
Learn traditional laws
Teach children

When asked what education issues they found important, some villagers discussed language difficulties in schools that arise because many teachers do not speak Portuguese. Others highlighted the need for adult literacy classes in Tetum (one of the two official languages). Still others talked about the long distances their children have to travel to attend junior high. Issues of youth leaving rural areas and moving to more urban areas were also mentioned, with those surveyed emphasizing that villages were losing some of their best talent, and that large numbers of young people in urban areas were unable to find work. As Fox (2003: 5) explained, "the educational system rapidly draw[s] youth from the countryside and train[s] them for non-existent positions in urban areas". While parents see that literacy is important in their changing world, those youth in rural areas who are successful in formal education often leave villages and do not return.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 91-93).



NEWLY ACCESSIBLE AREAS IN ANGOLA

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

Source: Bethke and Braunschweig (2003: 12).

- Ensure that national education statistics are disaggregated by region and, if possible, by district. See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 34*, ‘Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).’
 - Seek differentiation between educational statistics for urban and rural areas.
 - Train educational planners in use of such differentiated statistics in the design of differentiated educational offers.

2. Prioritize teacher recruitment in rural areas.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 15*, ‘Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers’.)

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

- Consider offering teachers incentives such as higher pay, a housing or food provision, or subsidies to work in difficult rural areas. Especially in areas of return, teachers may need a guarantee of income and security/job stability to agree to teach there. One solution would be for the Ministry of Education to agree to finance teacher salaries for a minimum period (for example for at least a year).
- Provide teacher-training programmes for those living in rural areas. Recruitment of new teachers locally, especially women, may be necessary.
 - If the newly trained teachers are already from the area, they may be more likely to stay.
 - Training can be offered on the condition that teachers stay in the area after completion of the programme.
 - Programmes that train community members to teach will ensure that teachers speak the same language as their students.
 - Women should be recruited even if their education level is less than that of some male candidates, provided they have the aptitude for the work. They may stay in the area for family reasons, and will encourage girls’ enrolment in school by providing positive role models.

ATTRACTING TEACHERS TO REMOTE AREAS IN SRI LANKA

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- If necessary, solicit support from the international community for building or rehabilitating schools and classrooms in emergency-affected rural areas as well as for providing teaching and learning materials, uniforms/clothing and other supplies to affected rural and, in some cases, urban populations.
- Consider abolishing documentation and registration requirements, as they may force children and youth to travel long distances for registration, or may prevent access to education for those children without documents.
- Consider abolishing or relaxing rules about school uniforms that are costly for poor families.
- Consider the implementation of school feeding programmes (see also the 'Tools and resources' section in the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'* for more information on school feeding). Look for ways to make these programmes sustainable, for example by establishing school gardens supported by the parent-teacher association.
- Consider the possibility of compensating families for the loss of their child's income through programmes such as 'Food for attendance'.
- Consider implementing both flexible school hours and a school calendar that do not conflict with children's family obligations such as chores at home or in the fields, or other tasks which may contribute to the family's income.



ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR INTERNALLY DISPLACED CHILDREN

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

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

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

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

(See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 4*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', and *Chapter 10*, 'Learning spaces and school facilities' for general considerations related to school safety.)

Access can be organized in the open air (in some climatic conditions), with temporary shelter (e.g. tents or plastic sheeting) or school buildings. Issues to be considered by national and local educational authorities, as well as other education providers, include the following:

- Are the schools in an area of ongoing fighting?
 - Has there been communication with all parties to the conflict regarding the schools' designation as a 'safe area'? The Rome Statute of 1998, which outlines the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court, includes protection for educational institutions under Article 8. Therefore, the targeting of schools and educational institutions can be prosecuted as a war crime.
- Are parents afraid to send their children to school, as they fear for their safety en route? (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 6*, 'Gender', and *Chapter 9*, 'Former child soldiers', for a discussion of how to make schools safer from recruitment/abduction.)
 - Have landmines been removed from paths leading to schools?
 - Is it possible to enlist adult escorts or older children to escort young children to school?
 - Can a 'buddy system' be implemented so children never walk alone?
 - Can the community organize transportation for children from particular areas?
 - If children must walk in the dark, how are they seen? Do they have reflectors or reflective tape on their clothing or school bags?
- If there is a shortage of classrooms, what alternative, safe, learning spaces can be used on a temporary basis?
 - Shelter provided by trees.
 - Roof or frame constructed of wood or bamboo and covered with a plastic sheet or tarpaulin.
 - School tents.
 - Non-school property such as gyms, warehouses, unused government buildings, or religious buildings – if such facilities are safe.
- What spaces can be used for recreation and sports, preferably in proximity to schools?
- Who must grant permission for such spaces to be used?

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

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

See the 'Tools and resources' section for a checklist on attributes of a good quality school as perceived by learners, parents and the community and teachers.

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

(See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 11*, 'Open and distance learning' and *Chapter 26*, 'Vocational education and training'.)

- Which teachers do not have access to in-service training and further professional studies? (Review the questions in the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 18*, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'.) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
- What are the educational needs/preferences of the children and youth that do not have access?
 - Primary or some form of accelerated learning to re-enter the formal system?
 - Post-primary – formal secondary, tertiary?
 - Basic literacy?
 - Vocational/skills training?
 - General knowledge regarding health issues, citizenship, human rights, environment?
 - For which of the above educational needs/preferences is distance education a viable option?
- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?
- How can international experience with open and distance learning – in emergency and in non-emergency situations – be drawn upon?
- Who will adapt/develop the learning materials – existing teachers and administrators or an outside organization in consultation with educational authorities? (*Note*: adaptation is much quicker than developing new materials and testing them. It is crucial that content and examples fit the local context, however.)
 - Consider if existing materials from a country with similar conditions, curricula and language of study could be adapted, with permission from the authorities concerned (this saves time, cost and benefits from the pilot testing, evaluation and improvements already carried out).
 - Train the writing team of educators on the objectives of the programme, and how to prepare the materials. If possible, provide them with examples of existing programmes, guidelines and templates for open and distance learning.
- How will the distance learning materials incorporate the existing curriculum?
- Are the certifications obtained by distance education courses valid in the student's home/host country?
- Who will produce and deliver lessons that will be offered via radio, television, or online?
 - Identify teachers or other educators.
 - Provide them with training relative to the instructional medium to be used.

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

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

- Create mechanisms that can be used for periodic consultation and planning among different sectors.
 - Consider establishing a common working group within the ministries of education and agriculture (and other ministries where relevant) to deal with rural people's education and training needs.
- Encourage the development of strong links between rural employers and the schools.
- Encourage rural employers to offer apprenticeships and work placements.
- Encourage rural employers to identify and communicate unmet basic learning needs to education administrators.



VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN RURAL BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA

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

Source: White (2002: 28)

- Allow for flexibility within rural schools. Given that many children will be involved in labour on the land, the system could allow for seasonal shifts in labour demands or operate on an alternating school/work schedule. This is not to say that child labour should in anyway be encouraged, but rather that the economic realities of conflicts and early reconstruction should be acknowledged if children are to be allowed meaningful access to education.
- Collect data on rural people's economic activities, education and training needs, and review their relevance in reference to current and future labour market requirements. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 26*, 'Vocational education and training', *Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources' and *Chapter 34*, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)').
- Promote a lifelong learning approach by developing and implementing policies that enable schools and educational institutions to offer 'second-chance' education and learning programmes. This may involve a combination of formal and non-formal activities within existing schools and institutions, for both out-of-school youth and adults.
- Establish an overview of all relevant formal and non-formal education and training providers in rural areas. The list may include:
 - Primary and secondary schools.
 - Private companies and individuals.
 - University outreach programmes.
 - Agricultural research institutes and extension services.
 - Commodity based institutes.
 - NGOs.
 - Farmer associations and organizations.
 - Employers.

8. Involve local communities in the education planning process.

See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 33, 'Structure of the education system'*, for more information.



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

El Salvador's Community-Managed Schools Programme (*EDUCO: Educación con Participación de la Comunidad*) has been remarkably successful in expanding educational opportunities for the poor in rural areas. Decentralization has also been instrumental in getting families and communities more involved in their children's schooling. In 1990, education indicators in El Salvador were among the worst in Latin America, with high levels of repetition and dropout. The net enrolment rate was 79 per cent, the dropout rate 15.3 per cent, and the average annual promotion rate was 77 per cent. By 1997, education indicators had already shown significant improvement, with the net enrolment rate increasing to 88 per cent, the dropout rate decreasing to 4.5 per cent, and the annual promotion rate increasing to 87 per cent.

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

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

Source: World Bank (1998).

- Encourage a high level of community involvement through the promotion of parent-teacher associations and other such groups that demonstrate community support for schools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 32, 'Community participation'*.)
 - What opportunities will community members have to express their ideas on education?
- Encourage community volunteers to ensure schools are safe and to help with school projects such as constructing new classrooms or rehabilitating existing ones.
- Encourage school clustering to facilitate peer exchange of experience, information and resources.

9. Establish a policy on education for nomadic peoples.

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

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

Urban and self-settled refugees need formal recognition and a status that grants them access to education. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*.)

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



URBAN CHILDREN LIVING ON THE STREETS

The direct and indirect impacts of conflict can drive rural children out of their homes into urban areas and on to the streets of big cities. Without family or local community support, these children lack the protection, supervision, and direction of responsible adults. Urban street children are often at a higher risk of HIV/AIDS infection due to sexual exploitation and substance abuse. They depend upon the informal sector and often on the sex industry and petty crime to survive. In addition, depending upon the nature of the conflict, street children may be predominantly from particular religious or ethnic backgrounds, making them more vulnerable to abuse and stigmatization. For children living on the streets, education therefore becomes particularly important as a tool of protection. Carefully designed education programmes for urban street children are needed. These may include apprenticeships that allow children to earn money whilst learning and provide them with practical skills. Links should be formed with local companies and industries so that once these children are trained in useful skills, they will then have a better chance of entering the formal job market.

Source: Limmat Foundation (1999).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. ATTRIBUTES OF A GOOD SCHOOL

AS SEEN BY:

PUPILS

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

PARENTS AND COMMUNITY

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

TEACHERS

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

ADMINISTRATORS AND INSPECTORS

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

Source: World Bank (2000).

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CHAPTER **5**



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter 6

GENDER

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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Chapter 6

GENDER

➔ MAIN OBJECTIVES

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

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

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

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

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

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

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

Source: World Education Forum (2000).

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

Promote gender equality and empower women. Target 3: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.

Source: United Nations (2000).

UN GIRLS' EDUCATION INITIATIVE

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

Source: UNESCO (2002).

Situations of emergency change the dynamics of gender – dynamics that may be reinforced or challenged in the classroom – through role models, curriculum and teaching methods. For example, the diversion of men and boys into armed forces is likely to increase the workload for girls and women, and may also alter their status in the family and in society. This can be both an opportunity and a barrier to enhancing girls' access to education. Being in an emergency may deprive young men and women of their traditional gendered tasks and from access to traditional rites that cultivate their gender identity (rites and ceremonies of passage to adulthood, initiation rituals, etc.). This may increase alienation and despair. At the same time, emergencies may, by necessity or opportunity, create an environment for more equal gender roles and opportunities. For example, girls residing in refugee or IDP camps may have more opportunities to go to school than in their home country as international organizations often place a priority on girls' education, and some basic needs are potentially met by food rations, etc. In a refugee or IDP setting, it may also be possible to recruit more women as teachers to serve as role models and counsellors for girls, if there are enough educated women in the population. However, this may not always be the case, especially in rural populations. Moreover, inaccessibility may mean that female education supervisors do not visit refugee and IDP camps regularly. Interruptions of secondary education make it difficult to recruit women teachers for the re-opening or expansion of schooling, especially in protracted emergencies.

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

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

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

In situations where children are recruited or abducted to serve as soldiers, boys and adolescent males are particularly at-risk. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 9, ‘Former child soldiers’.*) Military work threatens the physical and mental well-being of boys and generally prevents them from continuing their education. While girls are also at risk of military recruitment, the threat is generally more serious for boys. In addition to the risks associated with military recruitment, boys may also be called upon to sneak out of secure areas (such as camps, villages or neighbourhoods in more-or-less safe areas) to visit their families’ land in the areas from which they fled. Boys may also migrate in search of work, often to obtain jobs in extremely dangerous occupations such as mining or in the sex industries.

For both boys and girls, growing older often means that they are increasingly able to work and increasingly susceptible to exploitative labour. During and following wars, economic pressures often overwhelm families, including those headed by youth. Boys and girls must

often contribute to securing food and shelter for their families. Parents begin to think about the cost of education and potential long-term benefits compared to the immediate gains of their children's labour. In areas of crisis, where resources are scarce, there are many children (especially girls that do attend school), who drop out as soon as they are able to perform some income-earning task. The necessity to contribute to their families' income, therefore, can prevent both boys and girls from starting, attending, or continuing school.

CONCEPTS RELATED TO GENDER

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

Parity: Refers merely to numerical proportions. In education, gender parity would involve the same proportion of boys and girls entering the school, or the same proportion represented in overall enrolment figures, or the same proportion of candidates sitting an examination.


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

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

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

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies, most girls are likely to have reduced access to education, while others may have new educational opportunities, for example if they move nearer to a school, or the arrival of humanitarian agencies is accompanied by the construction of new education facilities. Gender issues should be considered in relation to all the topics covered in the *Guidebook*. Readers are also encouraged to review the guidance notes in the general overview of the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 4*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', for a thorough discussion of access and inclusion. Some key strategies are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies

Gender

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

Guidance notes

1. Review the gender-related goals found in the Education for All (EFA) declaration, Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), and adopt appropriate targets for emergency-affected populations. (See text box on page 2 of this chapter.)

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

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

It is important throughout the emergency to collect statistical data on school enrolments, retention and teachers, etc., with separate data for female and male teachers, and for female and male students. The data should be improved over time (e.g. grade level (school year) of students, examination results, teacher qualifications and training, infrastructure, equipment, textbooks, supplies) to constitute an orderly 'education management information system'. Data should also be collected with the help of small household and community group surveys to determine which boys and girls are not in school. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 34, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)').

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



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

1. **To improve young girls' perceptions of their academic capabilities.**
 - Gender training programme for all teachers.
 - Showcase girls' work in early primary grades.
 - 'It's not too late' campaign for girls aged 13 or older to return to school.
2. **To increase adult involvement in their daughters' education.**
 - '20-minute a Day' campaign for parents to hear their daughters read.
 - Parent/daughter school days.
 - Female education campaigns in target areas of low enrolment and high dropout.
3. **To provide academic support for girls who have no adult assistance.**
 - Assist female students living alone to organize study groups.
 - Organize an academic 'buddy system' where each of these girls is paired up with a girl from the next class up.
 - Organize monthly conferences with the education co-ordinator for the zone.
4. **To ease the economic burden that school poses for girls.**
 - Provide clothing.
 - Implement scholarship programmes for the very poor who are academically talented.
 - Provide a space in school for income-generating activities.
5. **To address reproductive health and contraceptive issues.**
 - Start contraceptive education sooner (at grade three).
 - Revise the contraceptive curriculum for upper primary, including negotiation skills.
 - Organize young men's social clubs to discuss responsible sexuality (girls' clubs already exist).
 - Organize reproductive health seminars with parents.
 - Experiment with conducting separate classes for pregnant students.
 - Initiate co-operation with United Nations agencies and other international NGOs regarding sanction for any worker who impregnates a student.

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



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

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

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

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004)

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

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

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

4. Make schooling safer.

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

- Children, particularly girls and minorities, are susceptible to abuse when travelling to and from educational activities.
 - In some situations, it may be possible to establish schools (or places of learning) that are closer to the students.
 - In extreme situations, more targeted interventions may be required.
 - Recruit parents or students from the community to escort at-risk children to school.
 - Minimize police or military escorts as their presence will help to militarize the school environment, and will also diminish the community’s responsibility for protection.
- Children are also vulnerable to abuse while at school. Teachers may abuse their authority by offering better grades or money to pressure girls for sexual favours or ‘dating.’ Girls may have sex with teachers for better grades. Students may also abuse or harass other students. Some of the ways student safety can be tackled include:
 - Incorporate a code of conduct into teachers’ and school administrators’ contracts. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 16, ‘Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions’.) In addition to training the teachers and administrators on this code of conduct, ensure that students are also trained or oriented.
 - Students should be made aware of their rights with regard to sexual harassment, corporal punishment and discrimination.
 - The code of conduct should specifically forbid sexual relations between teachers and students, stating that the teacher should be automatically dismissed and criminal proceedings initiated should any form of sexual relations occur.
 - The code of conduct should define sexual harassment and punishments. These should be developed in collaboration with students to define the kinds of abuses that tend to occur, including sexual advances, fondling, lifting girls’ dresses, boys entering girls’ toilets or girls’ dormitories.
 - Administrators and teachers should be instructed to avoid stigmatizing those who are victims of abuse. In the case of sexual harassment of both boys and girls, this kind of stigmatization can permanently interrupt their education, as well as affect their emotional and social well-being.

- Develop multiple channels through which students can report abuses. Possibilities include:
 - Clarification of students' rights during the student orientation.
 - Designation of a female staff person in whom girls can confide.
 - Election of student representatives who can take issues forward to the school administration or the parent teacher association.
- Develop and inform all stakeholders about reporting procedures. Make information widely accessible through the use of posters, handbills, etc. Emphasis must be put on:
 - Confidentiality, meaning that information is kept private between consenting individuals. Information can only be shared with those who need to know in order to provide assistance and intervention, and only with the consent of the offended party.
 - Consent, implying mutual agreement. Informed consent means making an informed choice freely and voluntarily by persons in an equal power relationship.
- Consider alternatives such as all girls' schools if parents refuse to send their girls to school. In some cultures, it will also be necessary to ensure that female teachers teach girls.
- Ensure that women are represented on school management committees and support their input regarding school safety.



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

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

Source: IRC (2003).

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

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

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

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

- Place special emphasis on hiring and training women teachers, classroom assistants, administrators and other education workers.
- Review the curriculum and textbooks for gender bias, and eliminate and adapt content as necessary. Ensure that the text, as well as examples and illustrations, refer to both boys and girls. Make special efforts to include curriculum content that challenge dominant notions of masculinity and femininity, for example by using pictures/drawings of women performing traditional men's tasks and vice versa.
- Make special efforts to include elements in the curriculum and reference material that has special relevance for girls.
- Offer appropriate sports and recreation activities for girls.
- Offer education on reproductive health.
- Provide leadership opportunities for girls in the classroom and in the school.
- Train teachers on the importance of ensuring that girls have equal access to resources, including the teacher's time and attention. This point is reflected in Standard 2 on teaching and learning in the MSEE handbook, and requires that "teachers and other education personnel receive periodic, relevant and structured training according to need and circumstances". If teachers are expected to sensitize their students on gender issues, they themselves must first be sensitized.



HOME SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS IN AFGHANISTAN

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

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

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

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

- Ensure that head teachers do not refuse to allow young mothers to attend school.
- Make it possible for female students and teachers to bring their children to school, perhaps by providing nursery or preschools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 13, 'Early childhood development'*).
- Consider providing food and other supplies for babies at the school.
- Organize home schools or evening classes, and set up a buddy system that allows girls to walk in groups from their homes.
- Organize non-formal literacy/numeracy programmes that are offered at flexible times and/or provide childcare.
- Organize distance education (for those who have completed primary education).

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

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

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

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

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

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

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

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

Source: Adapted from UNICEF (2000).

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

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

Source: INEE (2002).

3. Partnership and social mobilization

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

- Engage the government at national, governorate and district levels. Engage the ministry of education as well as the ministries of information, finance, and religious affairs should they exist. If child labour is an issue, encourage the participation of the ministry of labour. The judiciary department should be involved if laws concerning the right to education are violated.
- Encourage business leaders involved in education to mobilize their possible engagement in local financing of girls' education.
- Support communities to engage fully in mobilizing efforts for girls' education, both in order to understand what they want for the upcoming generation and to mobilize their support to schools and educators in their community, including local financing.
- Facilitate NGOs and civil-society organizations, especially those representing minority and marginalized groups, and professional and workers' associations (e.g. farmers' association, teachers' association, doctors' association) to lobby for girls' education.
- Enlist parliamentarians as partners for girls' education. Remain in touch with their views, to keep them sensitized to education issues, and to ensure that they support the girls' education needs of their constituencies and support national funding and education reform legislation, especially as it relates to access to quality education for girls.
- Engage religious leaders as critical partners and mobilizers of parents and communities so that families enrol their children, especially girls, in school and keep them there. The networks of houses of worship are an indispensable when mobilizing communities for girls' education.
- Enlist the media to raise awareness and public demand for education, and keep girls' education issues constantly on the minds of leaders at national and sub-national levels.
- Consider children's views and recommendations in programme planning and advocacy for girls' education to help understand needs and concerns. Children have the right to be consulted about decisions that affect them.
- Involve donor partners who can provide technical, advocacy and financial support, including the World Bank and regional multi-lateral funding institutions.
- Through a national education policy, ensure that both private and public education efforts complement and support each other and that both demonstrate a commitment to girls' education.

Source: UNESCO (2002).

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CHAPTER

6



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **7**

**ETHNICITY
POLITICAL AFFILIATION
RELIGION**

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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➔ MAIN OBJECTIVES

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

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Political, religious and ethnic affiliation, or some combination of two or three of these, can directly affect access to education. Throughout history, many states have supported education of varying quality for different members of their populations. In such instances, access to education becomes highly politicized as less powerful groups demand better-quality education for their children, and more powerful groups seek to retain their advantage in society. In times of conflict and emergencies, these controversies are likely to intensify. Most of the world's conflicts are civil wars. Of the 36 armed conflicts in 2003, only one (Iraq) was between states.

Political, religious or ethnic differences are almost always components of civil conflict. Education may be deeply embroiled in the conflict itself, as the education system reflects, conveys and/or even aggravates tension and conflict along political, religious or ethnic lines. Education may also be used as a weapon in cultural repression of minorities. Minorities may be denied access to education altogether, or education may be used to suppress their language, traditions, art forms, religious practices and cultural values. The denial of education may become a weapon of war in itself, through, for example, the forced closure of schools. Further challenges relate to conflicting parties' manipulation of history and textbooks for political purposes. Teachers may use their position in the classroom to assert their ethnic, political or religious position, or teachers and schools may be seen as parties to the conflict and become targets of the warring parties. (Bush and Saltarelli, 2000) At the ministry level, instability may lead to frequent changes in senior personnel

of the Ministry of Education, and thus, to frequent policy changes. For these reasons, it is critical to consider access and inclusion issues with regard to education for all ethnic, political and religious groups in a society in times of crises or early reconstruction.


Standard 1, on access and learning environment, in the handbook *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction* (MSEE), (INEE, 2004a), deals with equal access: “All individuals have equal access to quality and relevant education opportunities” (INEE, 2004a: 41). Access does not simply mean that all children are ‘included’ in educational activities. It also means that children have equal opportunities to learn and therefore has to do with the quality of education that children receive (see also the discussion of the meaning of quality in the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’*, and the definition of equality in *Chapter 6, ‘Gender’*. At times, it may be necessary for students with different ethnic, political or religious backgrounds to study separately from one another – especially in a conflict or post-conflict situation where the safety of children and youth may be endangered if they study together. Separate schooling may also be necessary where children of different ethnic, political or religious backgrounds live in geographically separated areas. In most instances, however, it is desirable to move towards a policy of integrated education, where students from any political, religious or ethnic affiliation have the opportunity to study together if they so choose. This will normally require pro-active measures on the part of ministry officials, educational experts, planners and implementers.

When children from different religious or ethnic groups speak different languages and have different traditions, the issues of access and inclusion become more complicated. In these situations, educational authorities will need to consult widely with members of all groups when determining policies and practices related to language and curriculum (see the *Guidebook, Chapter 20, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’*).

In a situation of forced migration, refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) may reside in a country or region with different ethnic, political or religious groups. Whilst the level of hostility is usually lower in the host country/region than in the refugees’ place of origin, these differences may be a source of new tension and conflict. Refugees and IDPs may be denied access to local school systems because of differences in ethnicity, political affiliation or religion (as well as lack of places in the local schools). If refugees or IDPs of different ethnic, political or religious groups reside in the same camp, there may be serious tensions and possibly violence, as well as competition for assistance and jobs. Also in post-conflict situations, returnees are often subject to discrimination if they have a different ethnic background, or belong to a different religious or political group from others in their community. Discrimination may continue until conditions improve and trust-building measures are in place.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Differences in the quality and content of education received by different ethnic, political and religious groups can give rise to social tensions and armed conflict. These issues should be addressed in a preventive manner, if possible. Likewise, in renewing the education system after conflict, steps should be taken to reduce tensions between different sections of society, in order to build sustainable peace. Some suggested strategies are indicated below.



Summary of suggested strategies
Ethnicity / political affiliation / religion

1. **Review government policies related to education and non-discrimination.**
2. **Review government practices related to education and non-discrimination.**
3. **Ensure the protection and safety of all children affected by emergency situations.**
4. **Conduct a school mapping exercise to ensure equitable access.**
5. **Ensure that school management committees and parent-teacher associations/organizations have representatives from the various political/ethnic/religious groups within the school community.**
6. **Consider establishing a programme of education for peace, respect for diversity, human rights and citizenship, with a title appropriate to the national situation.**
7. **Consider extracurricular means of integrating children, such as sports and recreation programmes that are offered to all children.**

Guidance notes

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

- What does the constitution say with regard to the education of all citizens?
- Does the government's national 'Education for All' (EFA) strategy specifically address the education issues of all of the country's various religious/ethnic/political groups?
- What government policies have an effect on access to education for the country's various religious, ethnic, political groups? Consider:
 - Language policies – is one language of instruction mandated that can lead to the exclusion of some children from schooling?
 - Curriculum policies – are some groups or religions portrayed negatively in the national curriculum and textbooks? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 20, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*, for more information.)
 - Recruiting policies – for both teachers and administrators (including those in the Ministry of Education): Do equal opportunity and non-discrimination policies exist with regard to hiring all education staff?
 - Non-discrimination policies for students: Do education policies explicitly state that all children have a right to education in institutions of the same quality? Does this apply to public and private educational institutions?
 - School funding policies: How are funds allocated within the country? Was the distribution formula developed based on a principle of equity so that no groups are disadvantaged or discriminated against? (See the definition of equity in the *Guidebook, Chapter 6, 'Gender'*.)
- Does the education system encourage appreciation of diversity, or does it seek to educate all students according to the viewpoint of the majority or the ruling group?



THE TWO FACES OF EDUCATION IN ETHNIC CONFLICT

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

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

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

- Are members of all political, religious and ethnic groups actively recruited for teaching and administrative positions?
- Is education better in some places than others? For example, do schools in some areas of the country have more resources to pay for teachers, build schools, buy school materials, etc.?
- Does the state allocation of funds for education favour certain groups, such as the ruling political party?
- How do access and enrolment rates vary depending on the students':
 - ethnicity?
 - religion?
 - political affiliation?

This may be an indicator of the effects of discriminatory practices.

- Do private schools (religious or otherwise) comply with state policies of non-discrimination?
 - Develop coherent strategies for addressing non-compliance, including reporting mechanisms, sanctions and training.
- Are children of different religions, ethnic groups, or political affiliation taught in the same classrooms or separately?
- What are the languages of instruction?
 - Does the use of this language exclude some children from school? Educational authorities should ensure that the languages taught in the schools are used by the majority of the population.
 - Consider the use of bilingual education when the children's mother tongue is different from the official language of instruction.
 - Do children and their parents want children to be taught in their own language? Alternatively, do children and their parents prefer to be taught a language that can lead to jobs or be used to deal with traders, etc.?
 - How political is a particular language?



THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE AS PART OF ETHNIC AND CULTURAL IDENTITY

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

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

- Are certain subjects or parts of the curriculum sensitive? If so, educational authorities should carefully make decisions related to the timing (during or after emergencies) of when certain subjects such as language, history, art, culture, etc., are introduced. For more information, see the *Guidebook, Chapter 20, ‘Curriculum content and review processes’*.
- When government policies and current practices differ, consider how these differences can be addressed. When possible, use non-political means, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Education for All targets or the country’s Constitution to resolve differences.



GOVERNMENT SUPPORT TO EDUCATION IN CONFLICT-AFFECTED AREAS

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

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

3. Ensure the protection and safety of all children affected by emergency situations.

- Do integrated schools put some children at risk? If so, consider:
 - Separate schools or classrooms if absolutely necessary.
 - Distance learning or home schooling options.
- Even when children are separated, ensure that all children still have access to the same quality education.

EDUCATION IN POST-CONFLICT KOSOVO

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

Faced with this conundrum – separate schooling was unacceptable, but separate schooling was a de facto reality and the only way to ensure access for all, UNMIK’s next tactic was to propose an incremental strategy termed ‘unification’ which “proposed acceptance of the status quo of schools already established, but introduced over time a reversal of the institutional separation that had developed after 1992 . . . Progress towards integration of all schools within a single, unified system, which still remains the explicit goal of the MEST and UNMIK, has been exceptionally slow. . . . The issue of unification of schooling provides a particularly graphic example of the challenges that planners confront in a context where official policy commitment to an integrated non-discriminatory system runs directly against the political realities on the ground, and depends on political agreements that are well beyond the reach of education officials.”

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 81-84).

4. **Conduct a school mapping exercise to ensure equitable access.**

- In situations of emergency and post-conflict reconstruction, where many international organizations are providing assistance, school mapping is especially important, as it helps to establish the actual status of educational services. This will, in turn, help the government in its attempt to ensure that all areas of the country and all groups within the country are receiving educational assistance. Different organizations might favour different groups or geographical areas based on their beliefs, sympathies, preferences, and political interests. Therefore, mapping is essential to ensure that all groups and areas have access to education. Such equitable provision can help prevent conflict or prevent it from recurring.
- School mapping should show which organizations are working where and with what groups.
- Based on the school mapping results, educational authorities may want to designate areas where additional assistance is needed.

Consider consulting the IIEP-UNESCO publication series ‘School mapping and local level planning’, available online at:

<http://www.unesco.org/iiep/spa/publications/recent/rec6.htm> for further information.

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

See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 32, ‘Community participation’.

6. **Consider establishing a programme of education for peace, respect for diversity, human rights and citizenship; with a title appropriate to the national situation.**

See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 25, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’.

7. **Consider extracurricular means of integrating children, such as sports and recreation programmes that are offered to all children.**

(See the *Guidebook*, Chapter 12, ‘Non-formal education’ and Chapter 25, ‘Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship’, for additional information).

SOUTH AFRICAN CIVICS EDUCATION

In June 2002, South Africa introduced a 'Values in education initiative' aimed at promoting good citizenship and peace through the education system. The values informing this initiative are laid out in the 'Manifesto on values, education, and democracy' and incorporate ten values from the South African Constitution:

Democracy	Social Justice and Equity
Equality	Non-racism and Non-sexism
Ubuntu (Human Dignity)	An Open Society
Accountability (Responsibility)	Respect
The Rule of Law	Reconciliation

The manifesto calls out to all those engaged in education to become involved in the values project: educators, administrators, community leaders, parents, officials, and, of course, learners themselves. Practically, the Manifesto outlines sixteen strategies for instilling democratic values in young South Africans in the learning environment. The first two strategies deal with making schools work better: nurturing a culture of communication and participation; promoting commitment as well as competence among educators. The next set of strategies focuses on the curriculum, the primary means of instilling knowledge, skills and values in young people: infusing the classroom with the culture of human rights; making arts and culture part of the curriculum; putting history back in the curriculum; teaching religion education and promoting multilingualism. A further strategy uses sport to shape social bonds and nation building at schools. A sense of equity, social justice and equality in schools is the thematic thread linking the next set of strategies: ensuring equal access to education, promoting anti-racism, and freeing the potential of girls as well as boys. The last cluster of strategies aims at preventing HIV/AIDS and nurturing a culture of sexual and social responsibility, making schools safe to learn and teach in, and bringing back the rule of law to schools; and, finally, nurturing the new patriotism. Each strategy is accompanied by various remarks about education sector initiatives. The strategies are reflect the recognition that values are become real when transformed into action, or in the words of Nelson Mandela: "We cannot assume that because we conducted our struggle on the foundations of those values, continued adherence to them is automatic in the changed circumstances. Adults have to be reminded of their importance and children must acquire them in our homes, schools and churches. Simply, it is about our younger generation making values a part of themselves, in their innermost being".

Source: Surty (2004); James (2001).

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CHAPTER 7

SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter 8

CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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➔ MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that children and youth with disabilities have access to quality education and learning opportunities.**
- **To integrate children with disabilities into the regular education system whenever possible.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

“War, crisis and disruption of communities can significantly increase the number of adults and children with disabilities. Gunshot wounds, land mines, or violent acts of chopping off limbs may cause disabilities. Inadequate health care and lack of access to nutritious food during times of extended conflict may result in the loss of sight or hearing. Often those affected, their parents, teachers and community members, believe that persons with disability are a burden and do not think they are capable of being educated or contributing to society” (INEE, 2002).

The degree to which an individual pupil may be considered as having a handicap is thus determined by his/her environment. The school environment (organization, methods and attitudes) may play a central role in the transformation of individual characteristics into handicaps. A central challenge to providing access for children and youth with disabilities is therefore the destruction of negative and stigmatizing perceptions. Focus needs to shift from the disabilities to the needs and resources of the individual child as a whole. In this holistic perspective, diagnoses of the particular handicap should be abolished as they underline shortcomings of the pupil. The general approach must be that every pupil is seen as potentially able and creative. Schools are responsible for creating environments where this potential can develop (UNESCO, 2004a).

In reality, however, children with disabilities are left out of education even during the best of times. During and after an emergency, they become even more marginalized as fewer resources are available to provide for their special needs. Disabled children may be separated from

KEY PRINCIPLES RELATED TO EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH WITH DISABILITIES

- When in the best interests of the child, integration into the regular education system should be encouraged.
- When integration in the same classroom is not possible, children with disabilities should preferably be taught in a separate room within the same school complex as peers.
- Appropriate low-cost aids should be provided to disabled children and adults to support their access to education.
- Parents and communities should be an integral part of supporting education for children with disabilities.



SPECIAL-NEEDS EDUCATION

'The term 'special-needs education' has come into use as a replacement for the term 'special education'. The older term was mainly understood to refer to the education of children with disabilities that takes place in special schools or institutions distinct from, and outside of, the institutions of the regular school and university system. In many countries today a large proportion of disabled children are in fact educated in institutions of the regular system.

Moreover, the concept of 'children with special educational needs' extends beyond those who may be included in handicapped categories to cover those who are failing in school for a wide variety of other reasons that are known to be likely to impede a child's optimal progress. Whether or not this more broadly defined group of children are in need of additional support depends on the extent to which schools need to adapt their curriculum, teaching and organization and/or to provide additional human or material resources so as to stimulate efficient and effective learning for these pupils."

Source: UNESCO (1997b).

their parents or caregivers. Restricted access to schools can make it difficult to implement policies that promote the integration of children with disabilities.

There may be more opportunities for children and youth with disabilities to attend school in refugee camps or even IDP camps, as donors may provide additional funding for this purpose, and as travel distances to school may have decreased. At the same time, however, teachers, parents and peers may view children and youth with disabilities a burden, and/or the provision of special assistance as 'unfair'. Refugees and IDPs may deem education of children and youth with disabilities futile, knowing that there are few educational opportunities available upon return. Often, amongst returnees, disabled students who received special assistance as refugees or IDPs may find that similar programmes/services are not available upon return to their home area. Education/training for the disabled may not be formally recognized by host governments and/or in the refugees' country/area of origin.

Nevertheless, "addressing disability is not as expensive or as unsustainable as it is commonly perceived. Building capacity to work effectively with people with disabilities has been shown to improve the skills of parents, teachers and communities" (INEE, 2002). Especially in the reconstruction phases, donors may be willing to help strengthen national education programmes for persons with disabilities, but it is important that this be given attention in the early stages of reconstruction. Providing physical access for students and teachers with disabilities by, for example, allowing for wide doors and access without steps to a new building is not costly, but it may be difficult and more costly to change later.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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



Summary of suggested strategies Children with disabilities

- 1. Review government policy related to children with disabilities. Emphasize the importance of education for children with disabilities in emergency-affected populations.**
- 2. Enlist community support to promote schooling for disabled children.**
- 3. Develop guidelines on integration of children with disabilities into normal classes, where appropriate, or into separate classrooms or facilities.**
- 4. Identify resources to promote the education of children with disabilities.**
- 5. Ensure that special training is available for teachers.**
- 6. Adapt school facilities and other education buildings to promote access for children with disabilities and consider strategies to help children and youth with disabilities physically get to school.**
- 7. Use the emergency to help strengthen national capacities in education for persons with a disability.**
- 8. Provide technical and vocational education/ skills training opportunities for youth with disabilities.**

Guidance notes

1. Review government policy related to children with disabilities. Emphasize the importance of education for children with disabilities in emergency-affected populations.

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

- Do existing policies specifically address the issue of access to education for all children, including those with disabilities?
- Are there equal employment policies that encourage the hiring of teachers, administrators and other education workers with disabilities?
- Are these policies for students and staff known at provincial, district and school level, in emergency-affected areas? What support is given to education for children with disabilities in refugee and IDP camps?
- Should a policy be developed and disseminated to support the education of children with disabilities and inclusive staff recruitment for emergency-affected populations?



REFORM OF POLICY TOWARDS DISABLED CHILDREN IN KOSOVO

Prior to 1999, Kosovar children with special needs were either accommodated in a small number of special schools, or were unable to attend school. Estimates of the proportion of children with 'moderate to severe impairments' in the population range from 5 to 8 per cent, which implies that more than 30,000 children of school-aged children have moderate to severe handicaps. In 2001, the department of Education and Science, using the 'most conservative estimates of children with severe impairments' (1 per cent), estimated that there were at least 4,000 severely impaired children who could not be accommodated in ordinary schools without special arrangements.

In 2001, a strategy was developed to implement the commitment of the United Nations Interim Administration in Kosovo to a policy of inclusion of children with special learning needs. Over a period of two years, a Finnish-based NGO in close partnership with local organizations and in particular the advocacy organization, Handikos, made significant strides in building support for and developing consensus on a radical shift in the approach towards the education of children with special needs. Whereas the old system failed completely to meet their learning needs, or consigned them to specialized institutions, the new policy encouraged a graduated approach that accommodated children in a range of institutional contexts, from inclusion in mainstream classrooms, supported by appropriate physical and pedagogical accommodations, through 'attached' special education classes to specialized institutions.

Source: Sommers and Buckland (2004: 84-85).

2. **Enlist community support to promote schooling for disabled children.**

School principals, teachers and community education committees may be given training on how to enlist community support:

- To identify and promote the school enrolment of children and youth with physical handicaps, visual or speech impairments, learning disabilities and emotional difficulties.
- Assist schools in arranging introduction days for parents and children.
- Stimulate positive recognition of children's skills, display disabled children's works, etc.
- To support integration of children and youth with disabilities into regular classrooms.
- To involve parents in supporting education for children with disabilities.
- To design interventions for the disabled that can be made or developed locally.

3. **Develop guidelines on integration of children with disabilities into regular classes, where appropriate, or into separate classrooms or facilities.**

- As noted above, children with disabilities should be integrated into normal classrooms whenever possible, so that they can experience the same education as their peers and become socially integrated.
 - Children with disabilities can often study alongside other children, perhaps with a peer assigned to assist them.
 - Consider a 'buddy system' where children with disabilities pair up with a peer for activities outside the classroom.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for possible classroom adaptations and teaching strategies which facilitate the inclusion of children with disabilities.)

- In some cases, special classes or classrooms may be necessary for children with disabilities. (See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for some advantages and disadvantages of having special facilities for children with disabilities.)
- When separate classes are established, try to ensure that all children share the same school or educational facility, and consider combined events, such as sporting activities or field trips for all children.



EDUCATION FOR DEAF REFUGEE CHILDREN IN KENYA

“Deaf children and youth have their own classroom in one of the normal primary schools in each refugee camp in Dadaab, Kenya. A teacher who knows sign language teaches them a mixture of their own (Somali) signs and Kenya sign language; the students also learn to write.”

Source: UNHCR (1995: 37).

4. **Identify resources to promote the education of children with disabilities.**

- What resources – specially trained teachers, volunteers, classroom aides, building modifications, special equipment – are required to enrol these children in school?
- Prepare a budget.
- Advocate with the Ministry of Finance and other government officials for funds to be made available to ensure that children with disabilities have access to education.
- In situations of displacement where the government is requesting international assistance for educational needs, ensure that such requests include assistance for children and youth with disabilities.

5. **Ensure that special training is available for teachers.**

Special training should be provided to assist teachers in identifying, assessing and following up on the education needs of children with disabilities.

- Request support from the international community if necessary.
- Provide training for both teachers and students so that they understand disability issues and methods of educating children with different types of disabilities.
 - Consider giving introductory courses in sign language, Braille, physical therapy, special training methods, etc.
- Instruct teachers to share information on children’s disabilities with other teachers as the children progress to the next grade.



INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS FOR BHUTANESE REFUGEES IN NEPAL

“There are 1,085 children with various disabilities in the camps, of whom about 30 per cent are hearing-impaired. These children are admitted into school at the same time as the normal children, although some flexibility in age is allowed. Only one type of disabled child is put in any one class [in these large schools] and the children are normally seated in the front row for easy access to the teacher. Awareness programmes have been given to the community and all teachers. Each school has a special needs support teacher. The special needs support teachers receive training from the central office, after which they train the schoolteachers in how to deal with disabled children in their classes. The special needs support teacher also provides support and guidance to the disabled children. Where necessary, remedial classes are given to the disabled children after school hours. The special needs support teachers visit the homes to guide and train the parents so that they can assist their disabled children and monitor their progress. . . . Contacts have been made with donors who have offered hearing aids or spectacles to the children after they have been tested physically.”

Source: Brown (2001: 133).

6. **Adapt school facilities and other educational buildings to promote access for children with disabilities and consider strategies to help children and youth with disabilities physically get to school.**

- Ask field staff to assess whether children with disabilities can physically access existing education facilities.
- If modifications are required:
 - How can these be funded?
 - Can community members be enlisted to make the modifications?
 - Range modification by the amount of resources/input required, and by whom.
 - Modifications that require simple inputs, such as new seating arrangements.
 - Modifications that require modest material inputs/inputs that can be provided by the school or the community, such as crutches.
 - Modifications that require substantial financial/external inputs, such as new stairs, computers.
- What special equipment and materials are needed to support learning for children with disabilities? When provided by outside organizations, ensure that these are technologically appropriate for the local setting (that is, sustainable after outside organizations have left).
- Train teachers to adapt seating arrangements based on students' disabilities (e.g. children with poor vision may be seated near the front of the classroom), limit background noise, and ensure good lighting.

- Identify situations where education services can provide special transport (e.g. buses) or where the community can assist with transport.
- Organize ‘buddy schemes’ where children with disabilities are paired up with a peer who helps them to get school if necessary.

7. Use the emergency to help strengthen national capacities in education for persons with disability.

- Assess the need for special expertise to educate children with disabilities, such as teachers trained in reading and writing using Braille, teachers trained in sign language, etc.
 - Donors may be willing to support hiring experts in these areas to train and work with local teachers to strengthen their skills.
- Assess the need for teacher-training institutions to strengthen pre-service training and in-service training in special-needs education.
- Raise awareness of educational authorities at the national and local level.



INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN VIET NAM

The aim of the programme of inclusive education supported by Rädde Barnen (Swedish Save the Children) in Viet Nam is to integrate children with disabilities in the regular education system. Discrimination of children with disabilities is counteracted through raising the awareness of decision-makers at national and local level, capacity building of national resource persons, teacher trainers, principals and teachers.

Teachers are looked upon as key agents for change. To achieve effective inclusion, the development of skills and attitudes of teachers are given high priority. The programme has shown that teachers become better teachers when they are responsible for all children. In assuming this responsibility, teachers become more active, innovative and creative, and learn to see the needs of individuals. Interviews with children show how education can counteract their isolation and feeling of being different. Inclusive education in Viet Nam is developing. The focus is not on ‘sameness’ and making children similar, but about a world where children are different.

Education that welcomes all children focuses on how to learn together and live together with each other. The programmes in the schools in the pilot areas are supported by community support teams that involve parents, health personnel, retired individuals and different local mass organizations.

The strategy has facilitated the assumption of responsibility and community building in the communes where inclusive strategies have been built.

Source: SIDA (2001: 35).

- Consider incorporating inclusive education into ongoing in-service teacher training.



TEACHER EDUCATION ON INCLUSION IN KENYA

An agreement with the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) has led to ongoing in-service training for Oriang teachers. The KISE courses offer certificate and diploma qualifications, lasting one and two years respectively. There is distance learning during term-time, and meetings with tutors in the school holidays.

This model of training, although available for other curriculum areas such as mathematics and English, is the first of its kind in Kenya to incorporate inclusive education. The results of a baseline survey by LCI in 1999 played a significant role in the design of the course. At the moment, 15 teachers are on an in-service diploma course in inclusive education, which includes sign language, Braille, and use of teaching and adaptive aids.

Source: UNESCO (2004a: 17).

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

This is especially important, as their access to the labour market may be restricted due to physical or mental capacity. It will also help these youth become more self-sufficient.

- Reserve a quota of study places in regular vocational training centres for students with disabilities. For example, students with injuries to their legs can take up tailoring, shoemaking, etc.
- Organize special training programmes and apprenticeships near the residence of the youth.

(See the *Guidebook, Chapter 26, 'Vocational education and training'*, for more information.)



SKILL TRAINING FOR AFGHAN REFUGEES WITH DISABILITIES

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

1. Instructing vocational training centres to include refugees with disabilities as at least 5 per cent of their enrolment.
2. Restricting sponsored apprenticeships in the fields of tailoring and shoemaking to male students with disabilities, and women with disabilities or heading needy households.
3. Creating mobile training units that provided 4- to 6-month courses for refugees with disabilities in different refugee camps, to overcome problems of access.
4. Providing a special training centre for refugees with disabilities, where students acquired vocational skills and improved their literacy/numeracy abilities, followed by a 3-month apprenticeship in the workplace to gain experience and acceptance, with a monthly stipend to cover expenses.

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

Source: Margaret Sinclair (personal communication).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Advantages and disadvantages of special schools for the disabled

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

Source: Save the Children UK (2002).

2. Inclusion of children with disabilities into the classroom

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

WARNING SIGNS	THINGS TO DO
INTELLECTUAL DISABILITY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student has not reached the same level of development as their age mates with regard to for example oral and understanding abilities, playing/moving, behaviour • Head injury or serious illness 	<p>CLASSROOM ADAPTATIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce distractions – keep desk clear. • With children who are inclined to run around, seat them by the wall with bigger children beside them. Tasks can be assigned that allow them to move without being disruptive such as distributing papers, notebooks or materials. • Recruit volunteers to come to class to provide one-on-one attention for the student. <p>TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess whether the child’s reduced learning capacity may in fact relate to other factors. For example, the child may be trying to hide visual or hearing problems, or may be suffering from dyslexia. In addition, responsibilities at home may be hindering the child in committing fully to his or her studies. In some cases, behavioural problems have their source in abuse. • Show the child what you want him or her to do rather than simply telling. • Use simple words when giving instructions and check that the child has understood. • Use real objects that the child can feel and handle rather than doing paper and pencil work. • Do one activity at a time and complete it. Make clear when one is finished and a new one begins. • Break tasks down into small steps or learning objectives. Have child start with what they can do before moving to a harder step. • Give plenty of praise and encouragement to the student. • Give extra time for practice. • Pair the student with a peer who can focus their attention.
HEARING DISABILITY	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor attention • Poor speech development or may talk in a very loud or soft voice • Difficulty following instructions • May turn or cock head when listening • May watch what other students are doing before starting his or her work • May give inappropriate answers • May be shy or appear stubborn and disobedient • Reluctant to participate in oral activities • May complain of earaches, colds, sore throat 	<p>CLASSROOM ADAPTATIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seat student as close as possible to teacher. • Instruct teachers to face their students and not to cover their faces or talk when writing on the chalkboard. • Make sure students can see teacher’s face, hands and lips. • Ensure that student can see both the teacher and other pupils at the same time to see how they are responding. • Minimize classroom noise, possibly using a quieter part of the school. <p>TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speak clearly and loudly. • Make sure students’ hearing aids are switched on. • Use visual aids for teaching. • Pair the student with hearing students. • Check with student to ensure they have understood. • Take time to listen to what the student is saying.

Source: Adapted from INEE (2002).

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CHAPTER

8



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter 9

FORMER CHILD SOLDIERS

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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➔ MAIN OBJECTIVES

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

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

WHO ARE CHILD SOLDIERS?

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

Source: UNICEF (1997: 12).

Child soldiers are among the tragic victims of today’s armed conflicts, and the use of them has recently become more common than ever (Lorey, 2001). More than 300,000 children are estimated to be actively participating in more than 30 conflicts in Africa, Europe, Latin America and the former Soviet Union (UNICEF, 2004). At the same time, more and more legal frameworks devoted to stopping the use of child soldiers and creating awareness about this subject have been written. Under the Geneva Convention and the Convention of the Rights of the Child, it is illegal to recruit soldiers under the age of 15. By international norm, however, a child soldier is any person under the age of 18 who is part of any kind of regular or irregular armed force or armed group in any capacity (UNICEF, 1997).



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

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

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

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

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

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

In protracted conflicts, older students at well-established educational institutions may be 'groomed' to take part in the conflict, and education providers may be unaware of these problems, or unable or unwilling to intervene. In situations where child soldiers are used during conflict, educational authorities must work to understand the situation of these children and youth – who they are, what they have gone through, and the impact of their experiences on them. Child soldiers are deliberately used because children do not

understand the consequences of their actions to the same degree as adults. They are thus frequently assigned to carry out the most serious crimes, often under the influence of narcotic drugs.

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

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



DIFFERENT ROLES OF CHILD SOLDIERS IN CAMBODIA

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

Source: Deng (2001).

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

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



SRI LANKA: CHILD TSUNAMI VICTIMS RECRUITED BY TAMIL TIGERS

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

Human Rights Watch said that the Tamil Tigers, who were already recruiting large numbers of child soldiers, now might seek to replace forces lost to the tsunami with child recruits. "As the LTTE seeks to rebuild its forces after the tsunami, children are at enormous risk," said Becker. "Children have always been targeted, but children who have lost their homes or families from the tsunami now are even more susceptible to LTTE recruitment."

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

Source: Human Rights Watch (2005).

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

Many child soldiers have had limited or no access to formal education because they were recruited at an early age, their education has been disrupted by conflict or their families have not been able to keep them in school. They may thus have learned no skills other than those required for fighting and surviving in an armed group. However, despite the horrors experienced by many child soldiers, some will also have gained considerable maturity and be quite experienced in survival skills, leadership, negotiation, organization, information sharing and communication. This may complicate their social relations with other children of the same age and can create particular challenges regarding their integration into regular schools and classrooms.


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

opportunities – whether these consist of formal schooling, some type of vocational or skills training programme, or an organized recreation programme to help them re-adjust to community life.

While such efforts are critical, educational authorities must also be aware of the dangers of aiming programmes exclusively at demobilized child soldiers. Such programmes run the risk of further stigmatizing child soldiers and of excluding other children and youth who managed to resist or avoid becoming child soldiers. Children and youth who did not become child soldiers may resent programming efforts targeted specifically at former child soldiers. In extreme cases, they may even take up arms just to gain access to the programme. Girls who served in some capacity with the fighting forces may be excluded from programmes for former child soldiers and particularly vulnerable as they may be isolated from their community as well. A strategy must be developed for the identification of children eligible for rehabilitation programmes, using the broadest definition of a child soldier. It is crucial not to nourish the serious and dangerous perception that former combatants are being rewarded with a programme, job skills, or other incentives that are not available to others. Therefore, it is essential that programme designers understand child soldiers and their experiences as well as the educational needs of the entire affected community. See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 19*, 'Psychosocial support to learners' and *Chapter 25*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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



**Summary of suggested strategies
Former child soldiers**

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

Guidance notes

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

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

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

(See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources' and Chapter 34, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).')

- Do all programmes have an education component?
- Where are education activities occurring?
 - In demobilization or transit camps?
 - In interim care centres?
- Which of the following types of programme are being offered (in addition to access to normal schooling)?
 - Structured recreational activities or youth clubs to increase self-esteem and decrease isolation?
 - Accelerated primary education? (e.g. six years condensed to three years).
 - Basic literacy/numeracy?
 - Skills training?
- Who is conducting the education activities and where?
 - Local NGOs?
 - International NGOs?
 - UNICEF or another United Nations agency?
 - Religious organizations?
 - Other government ministries, particularly those responsible for children and youth, health, welfare and development, disarmament and demobilization, and reconstruction and rehabilitation?
- Who is funding the initiatives?
- For programmes that are being offered in demobilization or interim care centres, what are the plans for where the children will go and what they will do after they leave the centres?
 - Can members of the community participate in the programmes offered in these centres?
- When are children expected to be reintegrated into their communities, and which communities will be affected?

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

Needs assessment should examine the current circumstances and plans or interests of former child soldiers with regard to education. Assessments that are participatory and involve former child soldiers in their design and implementation will help ensure relevant programming decisions based on the assessments. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources' and *Chapter 34*, 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)').

- Have the needs and conditions of all former child soldiers been assessed?
 - Boys and girls?
 - Former combatants and those who served another supporting role?
- What is the educational background of the former child soldiers?
- How many former child soldiers – both boys and girls – would like to enter the formal school system?
- Are special programmes, such as accelerated learning or bridging, needed to (re) integrate former child soldiers into the formal education system? (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 12*, 'Non-formal education.')
- Where would such programmes be located?
- Are there teachers who are trained and available to implement these types of programmes?
- If outside assistance is needed, are there organizations in the area that can support the design and implementation of such programmes?
- How will these programmes be linked to the formal system to ensure that students can successfully make the transition from the accelerated programme to the national school system?



INFORMAL EDUCATION FOR FORMER CHILD SOLDIERS IN LIBERIA

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

Source: Lorey (2001: 29).

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



LEARNING PEACE

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

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

Source: Miller and Affolter (2002: 34).

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

- How can plans be developed that take into account the needs of former child soldiers while not neglecting the needs of other children and youth in the area?
- What gaps exist in educational opportunities for demobilized child soldiers?
 - How can these gaps best be addressed?
 - Can local or district educational authorities address the gaps?
 - Are outside resources necessary?

- If all the former child soldiers that want to continue (or start) their formal education were integrated into the national system, how many additional children would enter the system – where and in what grades?
 - What additional resources – teachers, classrooms, supplies, etc. – would be necessary to accommodate these children?
 - Are additional resources available from other organizations?
 - How can resources be made available to former child soldiers without singling them out for special treatment?
 - Can resources be provided to the entire school so all benefit?
 - Can certain resources, such as clothing/school uniforms or supplies, be delivered directly to former child soldiers to allow them to attend school?
- What must be done to prepare the schools to receive former child soldiers?
 - What steps must be taken to protect the identities of former child soldiers?
 - Do administrators, teachers and other education workers need training related to child soldiers on the following subjects?
 - How to avoid stigmatizing them.
 - How to handle violent outbursts.
 - How to mediate or resolve conflicts (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 25, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'*).
 - How to refer child soldiers (and others) for special counselling if necessary.
- Are awareness raising campaigns or community education programmes necessary or desirable?
 - Who will conduct them?
 - What will be the role of parent-teacher associations or school-management committees?
 - Initial meetings should focus on listening to the concerns of community members and identifying how these concerns can be addressed (Lorey, 2001).



COMMUNITY EDUCATION INVESTMENT PROGRAMME IN SIERRA LEONE

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

Source: Lowicki and Anderson-Pillsbury (2002).

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

(See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 19*, 'Psychosocial support to learners' and *Chapter 25*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship'.)

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

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

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

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Legal frameworks prohibiting the use of child soldiers

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: Lorey (2001: 9-10).

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

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

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

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

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

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

POTENTIAL NEGATIVE EFFECTS	RESPONSE
The solidarity, <i>esprit de corps</i> , and authority structures among child soldiers may be reinforced if they stay together for long periods in an interim care centre or other facility. This can lead to re-recruitment or mass departure of the children.	Develop activities to facilitate a break with military life after demobilization and encourage programming with small groups of children. Emphasize community reintegration when possible to prevent long-term stays in care centres.
Former child soldiers may become dependent on the services provided at an interim care centre, leading to unwillingness to depart.	Minimize the duration of children's stay and do not provide support that greatly exceeds the support available in the community where the child will be reintegrated.
Assembling a large group of ex-child soldiers in one site may attract recruitment or retaliation.	Locate facilities at a reasonable distance from active conflict zones, ensure that security is strong at the facility, and resettle children in family situations as rapidly as possible.
Children who are reintegrated into a community may face retaliation by community members or by members of the armed group that they left.	Work with community leaders in advance of reintegration to ensure acceptance and protection of children by the community. If children are in danger of retaliation from their former armed group, consider reintegrating the children into other communities and maintaining confidentiality about their locations.
Resentment may emerge toward former child soldiers if they are seen as recipients of more benefits than other children; this perception may also provide another 'incentive' to join an armed group for other children and their families.	Balance assistance to ex-child soldiers with assistance for all war-affected/vulnerable children in an area. Avoid programming that isolates or differentiates ex-child soldiers from other children.

Source: Adapted from Lorey (2001: 56).

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CHAPTER

9



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **10**

LEARNING SPACES AND SCHOOL FACILITIES

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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Chapter 10

LEARNING SPACES AND SCHOOL FACILITIES



MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure access to safe learning spaces and provide for children's daily basic needs during school hours.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

The space to learn is one of the most basic elements necessary to ensure access to education. Although school classrooms are the most common location in which structured learning takes place, education can (and does) take place in a variety of locations – in permanent school facilities; in tents or temporary school structures; under plastic sheeting or trees; in places of worship; in people's homes, etc. Spaces for learning are essential and should be demarcated even at the earliest stage of the creation of a new settlement or camp. Refugee children, and sometimes IDP children, especially those in camps, cannot generally be accommodated in local schools, which may be subject to overcrowding if they are opened to these children. Construction of refugee schools is sometimes undertaken by external agencies without consulting the concerned local and national authorities of the host country. This may cause resentment among the local population, unless appropriate measures are taken. For this reason, safe spaces for learning are needed within the camps themselves – a requirement that will be more challenging if the camps are overcrowded.

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

may begin unco-ordinated construction of inappropriate schools, without proper safety factors, adequately sized classrooms, access for the disabled, or space for future expansion. There may be no or inadequate information available on both the number of students or teachers to expect and their educational levels or needs. While learning spaces are important, what is happening inside them is paramount, especially in emergency settings.

Conventional learning spaces are often destroyed, inaccessible, or occupied for purposes other than schooling – such as housing, storage or medical care. Particularly during civil conflicts, school buildings are often targeted due to their status as gathering points for the community and as training grounds for future community leadership. This is less common in the context of international conflict, due to international rules of engagement such as the Geneva conventions. However, this may be exploited by the warring parties who often use school premises to conceal weapon stores, etc., rendering the schools intrinsically unsafe. In situations of conflict, school premises can also become places for recruitment of both male and female child soldiers.

In all types of conflict, parents are often afraid to send their children to school during periods of active fighting, since both schools and their access and exit routes may be unsafe. In the case of protracted emergencies, premises may become progressively more inadequate – due to deliberate damage, looting and/or lack of repair and maintenance. Environmental damage can occur if natural materials are used for rapid educational response, but communities are often left with no choice but to attempt to repair old school buildings with what limited resources they have. The most important factor remains the provision of a safe and secure environment in which a level of quality education may be provided.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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



Summary of suggested strategies

Learning spaces

1. In early emergencies, ensure immediate access to schooling for as many children as possible.
2. Ensure that existing learning spaces are safe.
3. Take steps to strengthen the education ministry's department for construction and infrastructure.
4. Prepare and implement a plan for the rehabilitation, reconstruction or replacement of damaged buildings.
5. Determine whether new schools or additional learning spaces are needed.
6. Determine where new schools will be located.
7. Prepare guidelines regarding permanent and temporary building standards, if needed.
8. Consider the establishment of learning spaces that address the needs of the whole child, including food and health.
9. Promote access to safe drinking water. Schools and health centres should have priority in emergency water supply programmes.
10. Emphasize the need for adequate and well-functioning latrines.
11. Communicate the necessity of establishing waste disposal programmes at the school level.
12. Encourage schools to seek the support of the local community.
13. Determine and prioritize needs for school furniture, equipment and supplies.

Guidance notes

1. In early emergencies, ensure immediate access to schooling for as many children as possible.

Access can be organized in the open air (in some climatic conditions), with temporary shelter (e.g. tents or plastic sheeting) or school buildings. (See the 'Tools and resources' section for examples of what can be done 'immediately, sooner, later'.) Issues to be considered by national and local educational authorities, as well as other education providers, include the following:

- Can displaced children be integrated directly into existing schools and classrooms?
 - In the case of refugees, is this option acceptable to government authorities and community members?
 - Is it feasible, for example if refugee numbers are high?
 - For refugee students, how are critical considerations such as curriculum issues and language of instruction to be addressed? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 20, 'Curriculum content and review processes'*.)
 - Is there enough space so that classrooms will not be overcrowded?
 - If classrooms are already overcrowded, can they be used during non-school hours for the education of displaced children?
 - Does the inclusion of displaced populations require amendments to the learning spaces, for example to provide separate classrooms for girls, access for disabled children, etc.?
- If there is a shortage of classrooms, what alternative, safe, learning spaces can be used on a temporary basis?
 - Shelter provided by trees.
 - Roof or frame constructed of wood or bamboo and covered with a plastic sheet or tarpaulin.
 - School tents.
 - Non-school property such as gyms, warehouses, unused government buildings, or religious buildings – if such facilities are safe.
- What spaces can be used for recreation and sports, preferably in proximity to schools?
- Who must grant permission for such spaces to be used?
- Do the plans for temporary structures ensure that children are protected from rain, sun and cold? All construction should be appropriate for the local climate and allow for adequate light, ventilation and heat, if necessary.

2. Ensure that existing learning spaces are 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 emotional well-being of learners.” (INEE, 2004: 41). The key indicators related to learning that may show whether this standard has been met include:

KEY INDICATORS OF PROTECTION AND WELL-BEING

- Schools and other learning environments are located in close proximity to the populations they serve.
- Access routes to the learning environment are safe and secure for all.
- The learning environment is free from dangers that may cause harm to learners.
- Training programmes for teachers, learners and the community are in place to promote safety, security and protection.
- Teachers and other education personnel are provided with the skills to give psychosocial support to promote learners’ emotional well-being.
- The community is involved in decisions concerning the location of the learning environment, and in establishing systems and policies to ensure that learners are safe and secure.
- The nutrition and short-term hunger needs of learners are addressed to allow for effective learning to take place at the learning site.

Source: (INEE, 2004: 45).

See also the ‘Tools and resources’ section for a full overview of Standard 3, on access and learning, in the *Minimum standards*, which concerns facilities.

- What is the condition of existing school facilities? Have local supervisors and head-teachers reviewed the following:
 - How many schools have been damaged during the conflict? Bombed? Burned?
 - Have the building and grounds been officially cleared of landmines and unexploded ordnance?
 - Have sharp and dangerous objects been removed from both inside and outside the school?
 - Has there been an assessment to determine whether each building is structurally sound? If a building is determined to be a hazard, has it been clearly communicated to all concerned that the building should no longer be used?
- Are the schools in an area of ongoing fighting?
 - Has there been communication with all parties to the conflict regarding the schools’ designation as a ‘safe area’? The Rome Statute of 1998, which outlines the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court, includes protection for educational institutions under Article 8. Therefore, the targeting of schools and educational institutions can be prosecuted as a war crime.

- What steps have been taken to prepare the students and schools for safety if fighting occurs?
- Are there evacuation plans?
- What plans have been put in place to reunite students with their families if attacks occur?
- Are bomb shelters needed?
- Are buildings suitably reinforced for fighting, using sacks filled with dirt or sand, for example, to catch ricocheting bullets and provide additional support for walls and ceilings?
- Are parents afraid to send their children to school, as they fear for their safety en route? (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 6*, 'Gender' and *Chapter 9*, 'Former child soldiers', for a discussion of how to make schools safer from recruitment/abduction.)
 - Is it possible to enlist adult escorts or older children to escort young children to school?
 - Can a 'buddy system' be implemented so children never walk alone?
 - Can the community organize transportation for children from particular areas?
 - If the school is near a busy road, what provisions have been made for children to cross the road? Are children trained in road safety?
 - If children must walk in the dark, how are they seen? Do they have reflectors or reflective tape on their clothing or school bags?

3. Take steps to strengthen the education ministry's department for construction and infrastructure.

- Do staff have the expertise to cope with planning and co-ordination roles for learning space repair and reconstruction in urban and rural areas affected by conflict or natural disasters? There will likely be extra work involving project design and management in relation to multiple organizations and donors.
- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?

CHILD FRIENDLY SPACES

“Developing designated safe areas in the aftermath of an acute crisis can be an important mechanism of protection for children. In refugee camps, for example, the simple demarcation of an area with rope, plastic tape or stones can preserve a space for children that can later be developed into a school or a playing area. UNICEF’s ‘Child Friendly Spaces’ provide integrated educational, health and social support services for conflict-affected families. The concept was first used in 1999 in the Kosovar refugee camps in Albania and Macedonia. While school classes and recreation served as core activities, the model offered a structure for ensuring that other children’s services, such as early childhood care, psychosocial counselling, infant feeding, nutritional support, basic health care and hygiene, were available. The concept has subsequently been adapted for use in Afghanistan, Angola, East Timor, El Salvador, Guinea, Kosovo, Liberia and Turkey.”

Source: Siegrist, cited in Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003: 20).

4. Prepare and implement a plan for the rehabilitation, reconstruction or replacement of damaged buildings.

Depending on the scale of the emergency, this may be a matter of a few buildings or it may cost millions of dollars. A detailed survey is needed to identify the condition of buildings, prioritize maintenance, repair or reconstruction work and decide which buildings are unsafe and must be vacated.

- What is the condition of the buildings? The water supply? Latrines? Electricity supply?
- How much work can communities undertake, if certain materials are provided?
 - Consider establishing district or sub-district centres with roofing materials, etc., for reconstruction of schools and on-site examples of how to use the materials.
- How much will it cost to rehabilitate, reconstruct or replace the damaged buildings?
 - Is international assistance required?
 - If so, how will such assistance be co-ordinated to ensure that schools throughout the country are repaired and replaced?
- Have district education offices been rehabilitated/reconstructed? These offices will be essential for the co-ordination of school rehabilitation or (re)construction.
- Is a national construction unit required to handle major infrastructure programmes?



SCHOOL REHABILITATION IN EAST TIMOR

A team of East Timorese engineers and school architects, hired in early 2000 to conduct a civil engineering survey, reported that nearly half the schools surveyed needed to be demolished and replaced. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sports, district education committees made the decision on which schools to rehabilitate, based on damage reports and enrolment estimates. A group of supervising engineers then set out to inspect the schools selected to assess whether they were repairable, and if so, to scope the repair work. School principals, in consultation with school councils where they existed, managed the rehabilitation. As deemed appropriate, this could be done through volunteer labour or sub-contracted. Overall, some US\$1.19 million was paid out to communities for work on minor school construction. In addition to local volunteer labour, 52 different local businesses and community co-operatives were contracted to rehabilitate schools. To inform the community of these activities, posters were translated into local languages and posted at school sites. They contained information on the total amount of the sub-grant, its expected outcomes, names of the construction workers and the expected start-up and completion dates.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 106).

5. Determine whether new schools or additional learning spaces are needed.

(Refer also to the *Guidebook, Chapter 4*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction' for a general discussion on access and how many children are not in school.)

- How many children are estimated to be out of school and seeking admission?
- How many additional learning spaces are available?
- What are the local norms or standards for how many children should occupy a classroom at one time?
- Has the possibility of multiple shifts been considered?
 - UNHCR (2003: 73) recommends a minimum of 6 hours per day for students in grade 4 and above, which in many conditions means a full-day session.
- How many additional classrooms/learning spaces are needed? Is this estimate based on the use of shifts for students in lower primary, or for higher grades?
- Have learning resource centres/libraries for students and adults, and teacher resource centres been considered? These may help to raise education standards, and provide places for study and lesson preparation.
- Have donors been asked to provide support for temporary structures in *all* locations rather than modern school buildings for a few central locations?

6. Determine where new schools will be located.

- Have site selection committees been formed? The committees should include:
 - Teachers.
 - Parents and community members.
 - Local government officials.
 - Engineers or site planners.
 - Health and social workers.
- If a site selection committee is not established, are communities consulted regarding the proposed locations of new schools/classrooms?
- Has the distance from students' homes been considered in the site selection process?
 - Ideally, lower grade primary schools should be located within walking distance so that young children will be able to attend. If the schools are too far from home, parents will be reluctant to send their children. Therefore, the use of multiple, smaller 'feeder' primary schools or 'satellite campuses' should be considered.
 - For upper primary grades, larger schools that take students from multiple 'feeder' schools or 'satellite' campuses in the area can be constructed. These schools can be further from students' homes as the children will be able to walk longer distances.
 - In times of insecurity, older girls should be allowed to attend classes at sites nearer to their homes. (See box on 'Home schools for girls in Afghanistan' in the *Guidebook, Chapter 6, 'Gender'*.)
- Do the proposed sites have water access? (See below for more on water access and latrines.)
- Do the proposed sites allow for expansion of the school as more children begin schooling each year?
- Do the proposed sites have spaces for sports and recreation?
- Is government land available for new schools?
- If government land is not available, who owns the land?
 - What procedures must be followed in order to use the land?
 - What procedures must be followed for the government or the local community to obtain ownership of the land?
- If either temporary or permanent schools/classrooms are to be constructed within the boundaries of a refugee or IDP camp, will the local community also be allowed access to the school (if language and curriculum considerations make this appropriate)?
- In refugee or IDP situations, what procedures will be put in place to ensure that the local community benefits from the school after the refugees or IDPs return home?

7. Prepare guidelines regarding permanent and temporary building standards, if needed.

Semi-permanent or permanent school facilities may be constructed in protracted emergencies or during early reconstruction. The decision of what type of facility to construct should be based on the materials available and their adequacy – both in terms of educational quality and students’ and teachers’ health. Consideration must also be given to how long they will last in the climatic conditions of the place concerned. The *Environmental standards* (UNHCR, 2003) and the *Sphere handbook* (Sphere Project, 2004) should be consulted when setting these standards. Other points to consider regarding new school/classroom construction include the following:

- Have national standards been established for key aspects of classroom size, building design, etc., to ensure good practice in erecting temporary as well as permanent schools?
 - If outside organizations are building permanent schools/classrooms, are they being built to the government’s standards? Are guidelines needed to guide the construction of temporary schools (e.g. classroom size, roof overhang)?
 - If there is not an official school standard, consider establishing one. The standard may reflect the example set by an already existing school, such as a well-run local government school near the capital.
 - Ensure that local building standards or good practice (where standards are not practicable for temporary or semi-permanent structures in rural areas) are followed and that proper permits are obtained when necessary.
 - Encourage local purchase and the use of local materials, such as bamboo or mud.
 - If temporary schools are built, what is the plan for replacing them and building semi-permanent or permanent structures?
- Have the needs of students with disabilities been considered?
 - Schools and classrooms should be accessible to children and teachers with disabilities.
 - Latrines should be accessible to children and teachers with disabilities. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 8, ‘Children with disabilities’.)
- In camp situations, is regular monitoring of the condition of school and classroom structures conducted?
 - This will indicate the types of classrooms that work the best (in terms of durability and classroom instruction) and should be replicated in future construction.
 - It will also indicate the need for repairs and maintenance.

8. Consider the establishment of learning spaces that address the needs of the whole child, including food and health.

- Is a school feeding programme desirable? (For more information on school feeding, see ‘Tools and resources’ in the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, ‘Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction’*.)
- Are health services integrated into the schools? Consider the use of UNICEF’s ‘child friendly space’ concept where routine health procedures, such as immunizations, are also offered on the school grounds.
- Are sanitary supplies for girls made available? This may be important in securing older girls’ access to school and their regular attendance.

9. Promote access to safe drinking water. Schools and health centres should have priority in emergency water-supply programmes.

- Consider the following challenges to providing access to safe drinking water in schools:
 - What is the availability and sustainability of a sufficient quantity of water?
 - Is water treatment required? If so, what is the feasibility of water treatment plans?
 - How much time, technology or funding are required to develop a source?
 - Is the source within the proximity of the affected population?
 - Are there any social, political or legal factors concerning the source?
- Water points should be located in areas that are accessible to all regardless of, for example, gender or ethnicity.
- In urban situations, it may be necessary to supply water into individual buildings to ensure that toilets continue to function.
- In situations where water is rationed or pumped at given times, this should be planned in consultation with the users.
 - Times should be set, which are convenient and safe for women, and others who have responsibility for collecting water; all users should be fully informed of when and where water is available.
 - If children are responsible for collecting water, school hours should be flexible and permit them to do so.
- Schools should have appropriate vessels to collect water.
 - Vessels should be clean, hygienic and easy to carry, and be appropriate to local needs and habits, in terms of size, shape and design.
 - Some hand pumps and water-carrying containers may need to be designed or adapted for use by children, people living with HIV/AIDS, older and disabled people.

10. **Emphasize the need for adequate and well-functioning latrines.**

Standards for school construction and operation should take account of the following:

- Latrines should be at least 50 metres away from the school, 30 metres away from any ground water sources and at least 1.5 metres above the water table. Care should be taken to ensure that “drainage or spillage from defecation systems does not run towards any surface water source or shallow ground water source” (Sphere Project, 2004).
- Schools (and health centres) should have priority in emergency sanitation programmes.
- Latrines should be built separately for boys and girls and for teachers and students. Consider the use of the following WFP standards (INEE, 2002):
 - One toilet cubicle for every 25 girls.
 - One toilet cubicle for every 100 boys and one urinal for every 40-60 boys.
- Consider the type of latrine that is most appropriate for the situation.
 - Pit latrines: These require covers and use of wood ash or soil to prevent flies.
 - Ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines: While more expensive, VIP latrines are preferred because they prevent flies from spreading germs.
 - Flush toilets: If flush toilets are installed, it will be essential to have plans for both maintenance and the supply of spare parts.
 - Defecation fields: These are not an acceptable option as the risk of spreading disease among schoolchildren is too great.
- Soap and water are needed so children can wash their hands immediately after using the latrine. Determine who will provide the soap and how often.
- Incorporate sanitation issues into the health curriculum. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 21, ‘Health and hygiene education’.*)
- Establish responsibility for inspecting, cleaning and maintaining latrines.

11. **Communicate the necessity of establishing waste disposal programmes at the school level.**

- Have head teachers implemented provisions for disposing of waste and keeping the school compound clean?
- Are rubbish bins available or have pits been dug for waste disposal?
- Is there stagnant water close to the school? How will it be drained to prevent mosquitoes?

12. Encourage schools to seek the support of the local community.

- Have head teachers and supervisors received training on working with the local community and encouraging community participation? Possible areas of participation include:
 - Site selection committees.
 - Construction of schools – helping with construction, carrying sand or water, etc.
 - Maintenance and upkeep of schools – cleaning and maintaining classrooms, grounds and latrines.
 - Provision of funds for school construction or maintenance needs.
 - Assistance with school safety and security – providing escorts to children, acting as school guards, if the situation warrants.
 - Responsibility for school gardens.
- Can parent-teacher associations be established to facilitate co-operation?
- Are school facilities available for community events? This will help integrate the school into the community.

13. Determine and prioritize needs for school furniture, equipment and supplies, in collaboration with other education providers and assistance agencies.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section for examples of what can be done 'immediately, sooner, later'.)

- What type of seating is appropriate for students?
 - Seating and furnishings should be based on student needs and local norms, e.g. mats with low tables, desk/bench units for two to three students, desks with individual chairs or chair desks.
 - Furniture should be appropriate for the students' age and height. Care should be taken in multi-age classrooms that both older and younger children in the classroom can be comfortably seated.
 - Consider the use of participatory teaching methods when selecting school furniture. Will children be able to move around the classroom and work together in small groups?
- How many desks, chairs, benches and/or mats are necessary?
- How many and what size blackboards are required?
 - Blackboards should be positioned so that all children can easily see them.
 - Blackboards should be repainted when necessary.

- How many tables and chairs are needed for teachers? In classrooms? In staff rooms?
- What other furniture is needed, for example lockable cupboards for supplies?
- Is school furniture permanently marked with the school's name?
- Are local carpenters/businesses used to build school desks, benches or chairs? Do other local purchase options exist?
 - Can young people assist with furniture production – perhaps through a vocational/skills training or apprenticeship programme?
- What procedures will be put in place to maintain the furniture and equipment?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. INEE minimum standards for access and learning environment¹

Standard 3

Education facilities are conducive to the physical well-being of learners.

Key indicators

- The learning structure and site are accessible to all, regardless of physical ability.
- The learning environment is marked by visible boundaries and clear signs, as appropriate.
- The physical structure used for the learning site is appropriate for the situation and includes adequate space for classes and administration, recreation and sanitation facilities (see guidance note 1).
- Class space and seating arrangements are in line with an agreed ratio of space per learner and teacher, as well as grade level, in order to promote participatory methodologies and learner-centred approaches (see guidance note 1).
- Communities participate in the construction and maintenance of the learning environment (see guidance note 2).
- Basic health and hygiene are promoted in the learning environment.
- Adequate sanitation facilities are provided, taking account of age, gender and special education needs and considerations, including access for persons with disabilities (see guidance note 3).
- Adequate quantities of safe drinking water and water for personal hygiene are available at the learning site (see guidance note 4).

INEE minimum standards guidance notes

- **Structure:** appropriateness of the physical structure should take into account its long-term use (post-emergency), the available budget, community involvement and whether it can be maintained by local authorities and/or the local community at a reasonable cost. The structure may be temporary, semi-permanent, permanent, an extension or mobile.

The following elements should be kept in mind:

- Locally procured materials and labour, when available, should be used to build the structure. Steps should be taken to ensure that structures are cost-effective and that physical features (e.g. roofs, floors) are durable.

1. Source: INEE, 2004: 47-48.

- Adequate lighting, cross-ventilation and heating (wherever required) should be available to promote a quality teaching and learning environment.
- A locally realistic standard should be set for maximum class size, and every effort should be made to provide enough space for additional classrooms if enrolment increases, to enable progressive reduction in the use of multiple shifts.
- Education programmes need not wait until all of the infrastructure components and adequate space mentioned above are secured. These components, however, should be supplied or adhered to as rapidly as possible.
- **Maintenance of the learning environment:** this should include facilities (e.g. latrines, water pumps, etc.) and furniture (e.g. desks, chairs, blackboards, cabinets, etc.).
- **Sanitation facilities:** these should include solid waste disposal (containers, waste pits), drainage (soak pits, drainage channels) and adequate water for personal hygiene and to clean latrines/toilets. Learning environments should have separate toilets for males and females and adequate privacy. Sanitary materials should be available for females.
- **Water:** this should be available within or in close proximity to the learning environment as per local/international standards (see Linkages to Sphere Standards annex on the MSEE CD-ROM for the relevant Sphere water standards).

2. Excerpt from the ‘immediately, sooner, later’ matrix of response

TOPIC	PROGRAMME EXAMPLES		
	IMMEDIATELY	SOONER	LATER
SITE SELECTION AND SHELTER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Safe areas for child-related activities, within walking distance for children • Plastic sheeting and mats or special school tents • Educational areas should be marked and fenced • Male/female latrines for students/teachers • Potable water supply 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost-effective shelter (taking account of climate), typically good roof and floor, low-tech walls • Access for the disabled • Construction with minimal impact on the environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where applicable, construction of schools • For refugee schools, priority to locations where schools can later be used by nationals
FURNITURE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Blackboards and supports, teachers’ chairs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benches/desks of the correct size for students preferably made by refugee youth apprentices • Oldest students receive desks before younger 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chairs and tables for teachers for school administration • Locking cabinets for school books and administration

Source: Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003).

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CHAPTER

10



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **11**

OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To provide access for children, youth and adults who would not otherwise be engaged in educational activities.
- To provide access to educational opportunities, such as post-primary education, that might not otherwise be available.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

WHAT IS DISTANCE EDUCATION?

“Distance education describes a set of teaching and learning strategies (or education methods) that can be used to overcome spatial and temporal separation between educators and learners. These strategies or methods can be integrated into any education programme and – potentially – used in any combination with any other teaching and learning strategies in the provision of education (including those strategies which demand that learners and educators be together at the same time and/or place)”.

Source: Butcher (2000).

Open and distance learning has the potential to dramatically expand access to education in emergencies. Children, youth and adults who are excluded from conventional education because of work or family commitments, geographical distance, insecurity or poor quality or inadequate prior learning experiences may be able to participate through open and distance education. Self-study correspondence courses, radio education, and education with the use of computers and the internet are all possible delivery mechanisms. In addition, in many countries, there is already an educational component to national radio and television programmes, and one or more established (non-open) colleges and universities may have an external/extramural studies department or a correspondence section. There may also be one or more government or private open universities or correspondence schools. Any of these open and distance programmes that exist can be expanded upon during emergencies and early reconstruction. In addition, assistance agencies may also have begun activities such

as community radio or computer centres used for e-learning. Both in acute and protracted emergencies, as well as in the phases of return and early reconstruction, radio can be a powerful communication and education tool, provided that a sufficient number of the population has functioning radios. However, it should be noted that in a conflict situation, radio may equally be used by conflicting parties for disseminating divisive messages and/or instructions of violence.

In many emergency situations, children and youth may be cut off from formal schooling activities as a result of ongoing conflict and insecurity. It may therefore be useful to consider distance education alternatives to enable them to continue learning – even if they cannot physically attend school.

In emergency and reconstruction situations, open and distance learning may also provide additional educational opportunities at the secondary and tertiary levels to refugee and displaced people, as well as non-migrant nationals. It may allow youth and adults who have to work to continue learning. Youth and adults who have no opportunity to work may also benefit from open and distance learning initiatives, such as tertiary or professional training courses that may lead to future employment. However, face-to-face contact or study support is still needed. Among both refugees and IDPs, many students will be too emotionally disturbed and lack study skills and facilities to be able to follow distance-learning courses on their own. In some camps, there may be an insufficient number of refugee teachers with the skills to facilitate distance education in certain subjects. It may also be difficult for refugee and even IDP students to enrol in distance education courses in the host country/area because of language differences or bureaucratic constraints limiting enrolment to national citizens and/or those with documented educational achievements. Establishment of a testing scheme for admission of refugees without school documentation takes time. For secondary education, the establishment of temporary schools is thus likely to be speedier and more effective. However, for returnees, the process of return and reintegration may be facilitated by their participation in a distance education programme prior to their return, provided that it is run by or at least recognized by their home country/area.

While distance education has the potential to reach large numbers of people, there are significant obstacles associated with its implementation. Foremost among these is the lack of resources, particularly funding. Open and distance learning programmes generally require up-front and ongoing investments in the development and revision of course materials. For initiatives that rely on technology, there are also investments associated with the initial acquisition of equipment such as computer servers, television and radio transmitters, as well as for ongoing training, maintenance and operating costs; start up times for technically reliant programmes are therefore often considerable. In addition, there are ongoing costs associated with providing educational support to students in the form of personal mentoring and correction of work. Frequently fellow students, older siblings, parents or teachers can provide this support without cost, but sometimes it requires payment of educators or others who do so.

In general, it is difficult to make distance education programmes self-sustaining as refugee or internally displaced students and their families do not have the resources to pay even modest course fees, such as the cost of returning their materials via post to a distance education

provider. Communications may also be cut off due to conflict or the effects of a natural disaster. The use of mail, emails and the internet may or may not be possible. For the same reason, organizers may be unable to inform people about or co-ordinate such programmes. In an acute emergency, low technology solutions – such as learning worksheets distributed to pupils' homes – may offer an opportunity to continue children's education in situations where formal education has been interrupted, if logistics and security conditions permit.

EXAMPLES OF LOW-COST DISTANCE EDUCATION

Despite the obstacles to distance education, it offers exciting possibilities, some of which can be low cost. Consider the following examples:

In Palestine, the Ministry of Education and teachers developed self-study worksheets for students to use when curfews and insecurity prevented them from leaving their homes to attend school. Teachers delivered the worksheets to their students' homes or students picked up the worksheets at their schools on days when the curfew was lifted and people could travel more freely. (Sultana, n.d.)

Burundian refugees in refugee camps in Western Tanzania learn English through the Southern African Extension Unit (SAEU), based in Dar es Salaam. The course consists of eight modules and is made up of printed materials, audio cassettes, and face-to-face support twice weekly by part-time tutors (Butcher, 2000). The organization had earlier facilitated secondary education by correspondence for South African refugees in camps in southern Africa.

In Guinea and Liberia, Sierra Leonean refugee teachers can take part in a modular distance education project offered by the Freetown Teachers' College. Teachers study the modules with refugees and upon their return to Sierra Leone they can sit for the Teacher Certification Exam to earn a Sierra Leonean teaching certificate (INEE, 2004).

Many young teachers in the Bhutanese refugee camps in Nepal follow degree courses from open universities in India (Brown, 2001).

The Sudan Open Learning Organization has provided various courses for internally displaced people, including a Teacher Assistance Course, using printed self-study booklets and group meetings (Bradley, 2001).

In Burundi, 'Radio Ndragakura' broadcasts for three hours a day throughout the country. In addition to school subjects, the programmes also cover health and interpersonal issues, human rights, reconciliation and HIV/AIDS (NRC, 2002).

In 1995, the Jesuit Refugee Service established Radio Kwizera for **Rwandan refugees in Tanzania**, broadcasting programmes on issues such as the peace education initiative, environment, health and culture. Radio Kwizera later became a mechanism for conducting distance teacher-training courses for Burundi refugee teachers in the camps (Bird, 2003: 60).

In Mtabila refugee camp in Tanzania, volunteers constructed a Community Internet Centre, which is used for programmes for secondary school students, women and professionals. Solar power is used to generate electricity and a VSAT terminal is used for internet access (Global Catalyst Foundation, 2000).

The 'New home, new life' radio soap opera was developed by UNESCO and the BBC to encourage and facilitate repatriation of **Afghan refugees from Pakistan**. The soap opera, a story of returning refugees, found its audience with Dari- and Pashto-speaking refugees both in Afghanistan and in refugee camps in Pakistan. A high proportion of the households listened to the programme, which incorporated health and other messages (UNESCO, 1999).

These examples illustrate the wide range of distance learning opportunities that are available, from low technology to high technology.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

In emergencies, some children and youth have reduced access or are cut off from schooling and other learning opportunities. Distance education may be an option for reaching some of these children and youth. Some possible steps for the development and implementation of distance education programmes are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies Open and distance learning

- 1. Conduct a survey of which distance education programmes are already in operation in the country, run by the government ministries as well as by other organizations.**
- 2. Determine whether some form(s) of open and distance learning could help meet the current educational needs of the population.**
- 3. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry in the field of open and distance learning.**
- 4. Based on consultations with community members and teachers, determine primary target groups for distance education.**
- 5. Review the options for a cost-effective open and distance learning initiative, including potential partners and donors.**
- 6. Review existing materials from various sources and adapt (or if necessary develop) open and distance education materials.**
- 7. Pilot test and revise the programme as necessary.**
- 8. Implement and monitor the programme.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct a survey of what open and distance learning activities and programmes are already in operation in the country, run by the government ministries as well as by other organizations.**

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)

- How can these activities be included in the national reconstruction plan as well as in the national plan for education?
- Which, if any, government ministries or offices have the main responsibility for open and distance learning?
- Has a co-ordination working group been set up among the concerned government ministries/offices and/or with external partners?

2. **Determine whether some form(s) of open and distance learning could help meet the current educational needs of the population.**

Open and distance education may be a tool for providing equal access and inclusion, but will never solve all problems related to this task on its own. Other interventions are necessary, and should be undertaken with due consideration of fundamental issues, such as quality of education provided. See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*, and the point on quality under the 'Tools and resources' section in this chapter for further information.

- Which young people do not have access to education and might benefit from distance learning? (Review the access questions in the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction.'*) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
- Which teachers do not have access to in-service training and further professional studies? (Review the questions in the *Guidebook, Chapter 18, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'*.) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
 - What are the reasons that young people do not have access to education?
 - Is the distance to school too far or the route too insecure for children to travel?
 - Are children and youth engaged in income-generating activities during school hours?
 - Do young women have children of their own or other domestic responsibilities that prevent them from attending formal schooling?
 - Do post-primary opportunities exist locally?

- What are the educational needs/preferences of the children and youth that do not have access?
 - Primary or some form of accelerated learning to re-enter the formal system?
 - Post-primary – formal secondary, tertiary?
 - Basic literacy?
 - Vocational/skills training?
 - General knowledge regarding health issues, citizenship, human rights, environment?
 - For which of the above educational needs/preferences is distance education a viable option?

3. **Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the relevant ministry in the field of open and distance learning.**

- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?
- How can international experience with open and distance learning – in emergencies and in non-emergency situations – be drawn upon?

4. **Based on consultations with community members and teachers, determine primary target groups for distance education.**

- Is distance learning a viable way of providing access to schooling or higher education for out-of-school children, youth and adults, non-formal or informal education for children and adults, or in-service training for teachers?
- Would children, youth, adults or teachers participate in a distance-learning programme in sufficient numbers to make it cost-effective?
 - What options most interest each group (e.g. self-study materials for use at home, radio, television, computer/internet)?
 - What constraints to participation will children, youth and adults face (e.g. no one to provide educational support, lack of time for study, lack of resources, lack of technology, etc.)?



OPEN LEARNING FOR TEACHERS IN SOMALIA

UNESCO's Programme for Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER) used open-learning methods in the 1990s in the form of the Somali Open Learning Unit (SOMOLU). This drew on the experience of the Institute of In-Service Teacher Training, which had previously operated in Somalia for almost ten years, and of the Sudan Open Learning Unit (SOLU). Trainees set their own learning pace and appeared for an examination after completion of 30 course assignments and could then obtain a Certificate of Basic Teacher Training. The SOMOLU centres had resident tutors who conducted tutorials for individuals and groups.

Source: Retamal and Devadoss (1998).

5. Review the options for a cost-effective open and distance learning initiative.

- What is the goal of the programme? For example:
 - Is it to maintain children's learning as part of the formal curriculum at a time when they are unable to attend school?
 - Is it a stand-alone programme for which learning will ultimately be certified (e.g. a distance teacher training or nursing programme)?
- What delivery option(s) best match the goals of the programme?
 - Self-study materials for use in the home, preferably with regular support in face-to-face learning groups, led by a teacher/facilitator/specialist trainer?
 - Radio?
 - Television?
 - Computer/internet?
- What are the barriers to the implementation of each of the options identified?
 - Cost?
 - Limited access to technology and infrastructure to support it? (Note that distance-learning courses that utilize computer technology may be very popular with young people, and may result in greater than anticipated demand.)
 - Lack of support (parent, teachers, etc.) for students studying at a distance?
 - Sustainability?
 - Language?
 - Facilities (e.g. a computer centre will likely be necessary for any kind of internet/computer program)?
 - Lack of access to laboratories for science subjects
- What is needed to begin the programme?
 - Funding? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 37, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms.'*)
 - Development, adaptation, or procurement of materials and equipment? (See below.)
 - Training – for participants, teachers and others who will support the learning process?
 - Construction (e.g. of a learning or internet centre)?
 - Arrangements for the use of local radio or television facilities (e.g. air time, use of equipment, cost, etc.)?

- Have similar programmes been used in other countries that could be adapted to the current situation?
 - Consult with UNICEF, UNESCO, World Bank representatives and NGOs to determine which options have been tried in similar circumstances.
 - Consider submitting a request to the INEE discussion list (via internet at <http://www.ineesite.org/post.asp> or via email to coordinator@ineesite.org) to obtain information and advice from organizational members of the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) who have implemented such programmes or may be currently running such programmes in your country.
 - Contact international organizations supporting distance education such as the Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver, Canada and the *Consortium International Francophone de Formation à Distance*, Bordeaux, France; or distance learning institutions, such as open universities and secondary schools.



CONCLUSIONS REGARDING OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

Open and distance learning has to be matched with the technological level in the country or area in question. The overall experience is that distance education can be less costly than traditional education, depending on the model adopted and the number of students enrolled. The opportunity costs for students are high, since the students have to spend their spare time on studies, and cannot have other jobs. Use of printed materials for distance education correspondence is most common. Some key observations include:

The start-up of an open- and distance-learning programme takes time, especially if there is to be a comprehensive teacher-training programme with national outreach. This approach may be more suited to post-conflict reconstruction or protracted situations than acute emergencies.

Face-to-face interaction is necessary for success. The distance education programme for teacher education in Sri Lanka allows teachers to earn their teaching certificate whilst they continue working, thus ensuring that the teachers can practise their new skills on a daily basis. In addition, trainees have to pick up self-instructional manuals at regional centres and hand in assignments to tutors. Group tutors visit the teachers in their schools to assess their progress.

Steady supervision and follow up is crucial. Lack of interaction between tutors and students lowers motivation and effectiveness.

Source: Johannessen (forthcoming).

6. **Review existing materials from various sources and adapt (or if necessary develop) open learning/distance education materials.**

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

7. **Pilot test and revise the programme as necessary.**

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*).

- Did the programme reach the target population in the pilot phase?
- Of the children, youth and adults who enrolled, how many finished the programme?
- What is the impact of the programme?
 - If the distance-learning programme is an effort to maintain students' academic achievement, consider developing a pre-test and a post-test that can be given to young people who participated in the pilot programme and another similar group who did not. (*Note:* for this type of impact assessment to be valid, programme participants must be selected randomly out of a group of applicants, and the pre-test and post-test should be given to both groups, although it may be difficult to locate and deliver the post-test to the non-participants.)
- Do students who complete the programme obtain a certificate? Will the certificate be recognized by others?
- Will the certificate help programme graduates obtain a job or re-enter the formal system?

- Will it lead to promotions or higher pay for teachers who complete an in-service training course?
- To what extent do the materials need to be revised?
- To what extent do distance learning educators need additional training?
- How can access to the programme be expanded to include more children, youth, adults, and teachers in other areas of the country? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 15, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'*.)
 - Consult with community groups and local educators to obtain their support for the programme.
 - Enlist programme participants in the promotion of the programme to other out-of-school children and youth.
 - Consider developing a public awareness campaign to reach eligible children, youth and adults.

8. Implement and monitor the programme.

- Are there any patterns of enrolment and retention that indicate who is attending and who is not, and why?
- How adaptable is the programme to the security and education needs of its students?
- Are there opportunities for students, parents and educators to provide feedback on the programme?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Cost considerations in technology-based distance education

The cost of a technology-based programme heavily depends on its combination of fixed and variable costs.

- The cost of the hardware represents about a quarter of the total cost of introducing technology to the classroom.
- Distance education systems have higher fixed costs and lower variable costs than the conventional alternative. Consequently, they can achieve economies of scale. However, the numbers of students must be high.
- Cost effectiveness is difficult to measure, but applications exist that are more cost-effective than the conventional alternative. This has been the case for many teacher development programmes and some tertiary education programmes.
- Technologies with higher fixed costs and lower variable costs, such as radio, can be inexpensive if they serve large numbers of students and recurrent costs are managed. Studies have shown that interactive radio instruction in primary schools can deliver learning more cost-effectively than textbooks or increased teacher training.
- Technologies with higher variable costs and that work in conjunction with conventional teachers, such as personal computers, may increase quality but are unlikely to bring any cost advantage. Indeed, they may be prohibitive at the primary school level, where teacher supervision is a requirement. In higher-education institutions and for teacher training, the cost of their use may be lower if they do not require faculty supervision.
- Technologies that rearrange the structure of educational costs and reduce large cost items, such as in-service teacher development, while they maintain or improve quality, are likely to be attractive. Distance education for teacher development is attractive for this reason.
- Low cost applications that increase quality may be justifiable if they fit within cost limitations.
- The issue of who bears the costs and how recurrent costs are covered after a programme goes to scale must be addressed early in the programme design.

Source: Murphy *et al.* (2002: 38-39).

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CHAPTER

11



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **12**

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To provide emergency-affected out-of-school children, youth and adults with educational activities that meet their needs and interests.
- To supplement formal schooling of emergency-affected children and youth with subjects relevant to their protection, well-being and psychosocial needs.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

DEFINITION OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

“Any organized and sustained educational activities that do not correspond exactly to the definition of formal education. Non-formal education may therefore take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the ‘ladder’ system, and may have differing durations, and may or may not confer certification of the learning achieved.”

Source: UNESCO (1997: 41).

In many countries that are affected by emergencies or facing the task of early reconstruction, the formal school system does not have the capacity to enrol all of the country’s children and youth and/or children are not able to take advantage of it. Parents and children as well as teachers and educational authorities tend to seek rapid restoration of formal schooling to avoid losing a year of school studies. The possibilities of non-formal education may be overseen or underestimated, resulting in denied educational opportunities for children and youth who cannot enrol in formal education. Non-formal educational activities give out-of-school children and youth access to structured learning, reinforce their self-esteem and help them find ways to contribute to their communities. In some cases, these activities may serve as a ‘bridge’ to help out-of-school children and youth improve their academic skills

to the point where they can re-enter the formal school system. In emergencies, however, national organizations that already undertake non-formal education may be interrupted by lack of core and stable funding to cope with a greatly expanded scale of operations. Such funding should therefore be sought and also included in project budgets. Non-formal education activities are frequently affected and curtailed during periods of conflict and insecurity and their organization is not necessarily easier than organization of formal schooling.

Non-formal educational activities can take the form of literacy and numeracy classes, cultural activities such as music, dance or drama, sports practices and teams, education regarding child rights or more subject-specific learning. Depending on the provider and the context, non-formal education may also include so-called accelerated learning programmes aimed at getting youth and children who have missed years of schooling back into the formal education system.

ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES

Most accelerated learning programmes (ALP) are 'catch up' initiatives to assist older children/youth, who have missed years of schooling, to complete their basic education and to obtain educational qualifications in a relatively short period of time. For example, an ALP can be a three-year programme that condenses six years of primary schooling. Planned in partnership with educational authorities and covering essential elements of the official curriculum, a programme attempts to cover rapidly education content spanning years of missed schooling. In reality, accelerated learning is difficult to achieve, and will only become possible when effective teaching and learning methods are a strong focus. At the end of the 'catch-up' period, students are integrated into a regular classroom. Specific target populations can include displaced children, girls, or child soldiers. As these children have missed significant portions of schooling, reintegration into formal school is a strong support to demobilization.

Source: NRC (2005: 56); Nicolai (2003: 40).

(See also the 'Tools and resources', section 3, 'Key considerations of accelerated learning programmes'.)

For adolescents in particular, non-formal educational activities may greatly expand their opportunities for learning. Non-formal courses, workshops or vocational training are likely to be in high demand amongst refugees and IDPs who lack other employment opportunities. In situations of conflict, many adolescents will have missed years of formal schooling and may not want or have the time to attend primary classes with younger children. As a consequence, they may drop out of the educational system completely if other options do not exist. Some may want to enter the formal school system but may be prevented from joining because of space constraints or due to legal age restrictions. Adolescents who do not have readily available and accessible educational options are much more vulnerable to dangerous situations, such as recruitment to armed militias, engagement in illegal activities and involvement in unsafe income-generating activities. Non-formal education therefore serves as a positive alternative, and can often be a vital protection strategy.

Even in acute emergencies, in secure camp situations, non-formal education activities can be organized quickly to provide children with positive ways to spend their time until other, more formal, options are put into place. However, co-ordination is vital as non-formal education activities are often organized by a variety of education providers, as well as organizations supporting health programmes, income-generation projects, etc.

Non-formal education may also be a critical supplement for students enrolled in formal schools. In emergency situations, formal school curricula often cover core subjects only or certain topics critical to survival in their new environment. The short length of school days in most early emergency situations makes it difficult to add more subjects to the curriculum. An alternative that can reach some of the students is to offer extracurricular non-formal learning activities. In conflict, or after a natural disaster, non-formal education activities may need to be focused on specific subjects, such as environmental education, landmine awareness, peace education and conflict resolution, reproductive health, hygiene, disease prevention (such as cholera), HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention, psychosocial awareness, and human rights. The case study below gives a good example of specific issues caused or exacerbated by a natural disaster which non-formal education programmes could be used to address.

These themes can be explored through non-formal courses to further students' understanding and to provide them with accepting social environments in which to discuss these issues. Many children who attend school will not participate in non-formal courses, however, due to other commitments, parental concerns about security, etc., and will therefore miss out on life-saving messages. When possible, therefore, these topics should also be included in the formal school programmes.

For returnees and non-migrants, the reconstruction of homes, rehabilitation of fields, etc. may mean that people have little time for non-formal education. This is especially the case if people have to travel long distances to attend courses or workshops. Organizations that provide non-formal education and accelerated learning programmes during protracted emergencies and reconstruction may focus their efforts in only a few locations, leaving many areas uncovered; and co-ordination can be problematic. Although the community may prefer that teacher training and education efforts be directed to re-opening schools, attempts should be made to emphasize the importance of a combination of formal and non-formal educational programmes.

When designing non-formal educational activities, it is important not to overlook or underestimate learner concerns or needs. Some may be unrealistic, but none are unimportant. Learners should know that their concerns have been heard and that their ideas have been incorporated as far as is possible. Quality education is partly a result of gaining buy-in, trust, and participation/ownership from learners.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Whilst school enrolment and the provision of free and compulsory quality education for all will be a priority for educational authorities and providers, non-formal education should be considered a way to complement and strengthen these efforts. Non-formal education is easily organized in refugee and sometimes also in IDP camps since travel distances for government and agency staff are relatively small, and NGOs are often present. Outside camps, the provision and co-ordination of non-formal education may prove to be more difficult. In early reconstruction, funding and expertise may be sought to rebuild the education ministry's programme for non-formal education. When possible, the use of non-formal educational tools such as radio may be considered for maximum outreach. Some key strategies for exhausting the opportunities of non-formal education are noted below.



Summary of suggested strategies

Non-formal education

1. **Prepare a framework for non-formal education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action.**
2. **Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of non-formal education programmes.**
3. **In the immediate aftermath of an emergency, education providers should consider establishing organized sports and recreational activities.**
4. **When setting up non-formal education activities, education providers should consult with children, youth, parents and community groups.**
5. **Education providers should consider enriching formal schooling with non-formal activities.**
6. **Education providers should develop a plan for raising interest in, and pilot testing, the proposed non-formal education activities.**
7. **Education providers should develop a system of monitoring and feedback.**

Guidance notes

1. **Prepare a framework for non-formal education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action.**

Consider the following when designing non-formal education activities:

- According to the educational needs assessment (see the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 4*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction' and *Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources'), how many children and young people are not in school? Based on the current situation and past approaches, assess the demand for non-formal education for adults.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for possible non-formal education activities.)

- Consider a range of activities, from radio programmes to short thematic courses, literacy courses and accelerated learning courses.
- Consider linking non-formal education with sports, recreation and cultural activities.
- Liaise with other ministries that provide non-formal education and training (youth, sport, culture, health, labour, agriculture, etc.).
- Develop a programme for the training of trainers and teachers for non-formal education and youth outreach.
- Address issues of certification for students and teachers.
- Address issues of payment for teachers working full time, part time or occasionally in non-formal education.
- Develop a strategy for involving civil society in providing non-formal education, for piloting and evaluating innovative programmes such as community learning centres, for the use of radio and other communication technologies, etc.
- Are there experienced non-governmental organizations that can manage/ implement the selected non-formal education activities?
 - Consult with United Nations organizations and NGOs (international and national) that are present in the country.
 - If the desired experience is not already present, solicit assistance from UNESCO or UNICEF to locate experienced organizations.



ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES: CREPS IN SIERRA LEONE

The Complementary Rapid Education Program for Primary Schools (CREPS) was set up in May 2000 by the Government of Sierra Leone's Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) with support from UNICEF and the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) as an accelerated learning programme. It was designed to target children between the ages of 10-16, who had been unable to complete their education during the conflict either because of involvement with fighting factions or due to school closures or displacement. It was estimated that 500,000 children were eligible. CREPS condenses the regular 6 years of primary schooling into 3 years, after which the children are able to mainstream into the formal school system. Classes are held in primary schools usually in the afternoons when the buildings are not being used or in temporary shelters. Teachers are trained specifically to deliver the CREPS programme and are supported with ongoing training. All learning materials are provided, children do not have to pay fees to attend classes and uniforms are not compulsory. The programme is functioning in 185 centres across the country, and enrolment in March 2004 was 26,646. Demand for the CREPS programme continues to be growing but expansion is being stymied by the government's inability to pay the salaries of the recruited teachers.

Source: UNICEF (2005).

(For additional information on accelerated learning programmes, see the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter.)

- Who will teach or support the activities?
 - If non-governmental implementing partners are used, how will they be selected?
 - How will teachers/facilitators be identified? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 15, 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'.)
 - Are special qualifications needed?
 - How much training will teachers need? Who will conduct the training?
 - Will teachers be compensated? Who will pay them? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 16, 'Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions'.) How does this relate to previous or current payment schedules for non-formal education in the country concerned (or country of origin of refugees)?
 - Who will support and/or monitor the teaching or programme activities? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 17, 'Measuring and monitoring teachers' impact'.)
- What materials or supplies will be needed for the programme?
 - Adapt existing in-country or international materials to the local environment.
 - Develop new material only when satisfied that appropriate models do not exist elsewhere.
- Is funding available? (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 35, 'Budget and financial management' and Chapter 37, 'Donor relations and funding mechanisms'.)
- Will the non-formal activities lead to something else? For example,
 - (Re)entry to the formal system?
 - Some type of certificate?
 - Better employment options?
 - Better health, and peace-promoting activities?



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN TIMOR-LESTE

The International Rescue Committee (IRC) non-formal education project in the Oecussi district of Timor-Leste "... explored means of mobilizing local resources within schools, youth organizations, and other community groups to increase available education and recreation opportunities. Through an emphasis on a participatory planning process, the activities were community defined and developed in partnership with local organizations. Each initiative undertaken was led by a local group: a children's centre was organized and staffed by the young women's group Grupo Feto FoinSae Enclave Timor; structured sports activities were arranged by the youth group network Juventude Lorico Lifau; and the Oecussi District Education Committee took leadership in district teacher training" .

Source: Nicolai (2004: 81).

2. Provide guidance to civil society organizations on the conduct of non-formal education programmes.

The field of non-formal education attracts many organizations that may lack the pedagogical expertise needed for effective programmes. There may also be a clash between organizational modalities and policies that can cause difficulties, on matters such as payments to teachers, arrangements for in-service training, certification, etc. Some elements of good practice are indicated in points 5-9 below.



COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRES IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION

"In the Asia and Pacific region, Community Learning Centres (CLCs) have emerged as potential grassroots-based institutions for the delivery of literacy, basic and continuing education and other community development activities.

Learning centres are defined in the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All training materials . . . as: local institutions outside the formal education system for villagers or urban areas usually set up and managed by local people to provide various learning opportunities for community development and improvement of people's quality of life. Community Learning Centres are for every citizen and are adapted to the needs of all people in the community through active community participation. The CLC is often located in a simple building. Its programmes and functions are flexible and well adapted to the needs of the community in that they cater to the needs of adults as well as young people, and in particular to disadvantaged groups."

The programmes are found in Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand, Uzbekistan and Viet Nam. CLC activities may include education and training, such as literacy classes, provision of education and skills training activities, promotion of lifelong learning and training of non-formal education personnel. They may also have a function in community information and dissemination of resources, community development, co-ordination and networking between government and NGOs, linking traditional village structures with official administrative structures, etc.

Source: UNESCO (n.d.a).

(For information on how to set up CLCs, see the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter.)

5. In the immediate aftermath of an emergency, education providers should consider establishing organized sports and recreational activities.

Organized activities will help structure children's time and are a valuable part of their psychosocial healing process and (re-)learning of social and emotional skills. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 19, 'Psychosocial support to learners'*.)

- Who can organize sports and arts activities, so that safety, order and supervision are ensured? Can parents be involved?
- Have activities for both boys and girls been considered?
- What supplies are needed?
 - Are they readily available?
 - What can be contributed from parents or the wider community?
 - Can children and youth be engaged in making or collecting the supplies that are needed?
 - Can they be procured locally or can they be accessed quickly through UNICEF?
- Has a system been developed to encourage regular activities and attendance? Who will be responsible for maintaining the schedule?
 - Has a detailed programme been developed in collaboration with the communities, and has the programme been publicized?
 - Are all potential participants able to access the programme? If not, how are barriers to access being overcome?
 - Has a register been developed of who is responsible for running the different activities, and who may be able to provide backup if someone leaves, falls ill, etc.?
 - Has a system been developed by which both facilitators and participants can report if a programme is not running satisfactorily? Who will be responsible for follow-up?

6. When setting up non-formal education activities, education providers should consult with children, youth, parents and community groups.

Consultations should be as inclusive as possible.

- What types of educational activities do people want (see the 'Tools and resources' section for brief descriptions of various non-formal options)? Under which circumstances would they attend?
- What is their educational background?

- What are the reasons that some children and youth are not in school? (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 4, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'*.)
 - Lack of places in formal schooling?
 - Youth are too old to attend primary school or do not wish to attend?
 - Youth are engaged in income generating activities or have domestic responsibilities?
- At which times can out-of-school children and youth or adults (men, women) participate in non-formal education?
- When can the activities be offered? How frequently will they be offered?
 - Will the proposed times conflict with the schedules of working children and youth?
 - Will there be multiple offerings for different groups, e.g. adolescents, teenage mothers, working youth, etc.?



NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FOR WAR-AFFECTED YOUNG ADULTS IN SIERRA LEONE

The Youth Reintegration and Education for Peace Program sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development Office of Transition Initiatives in Sierra Leone emerged as a nationwide, community-based, non-formal education initiative for ex-combatant and war-affected young adults. The programme consists of five modules based on issues that community focus groups considered 'critical components for building peace in Sierra Leone'.

- **Who am I?:** Module 1 is a course for improving self-awareness, designed to facilitate the movement of youth from a world of warfare to an environment promoting values related to peace.
- **Healing mind, body, and spirit:** Module 2 is a life-skills course designed to enable youth to improve their ability to manage their daily lives, improve their ability to take calculated risks, make sound judgements, communicate effectively, manage their emotions, and solve day-to-day problems.
- **Our environment – what it is, preserving it, conserving it, and using it effectively:** Module 3 is a course aimed at raising participant awareness of the need to reclaim the environmental foundation of Sierra Leone, provide knowledge of ways to prevent/reduce environmental hazards, promote good farming practices, and increase awareness about judicious use of the environment.
- **Health and well-being:** Module 4 provides information on the symptoms and treatment of common local diseases, the medicinal use of local herbs and roots, methods for clean drinking water, prevention, identification and treatment of sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS), and maternal and child health.
- **Democracy, good governance and conflict management:** Module 5 focuses on democracy as a form of government, the basic principles of democracy and how they work in action, the causes, costs, and control of corruption, conflict management, and how citizens can contribute to rebuilding Sierra Leone.

Source: Hansen *et al.* (2002: 22-25).

7. **Education providers should consider enriching formal schooling with non-formal activities.**

When considering supplementary non-formal activities for children and youth who are attending formal schools, discuss options with educators, the community, parents, children and youth. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 21*, 'Health and hygiene education', *Chapter 22*, 'HIV/AIDS preventive education', *Chapter 23*, 'Environmental education', *Chapter 24*, 'Landmine awareness' and *Chapter 25*, 'Education for life skills: peace, human rights and citizenship.') Note that these topics should also be included in formal schooling, since many students may not have time or family permission to participate in non-formal supplementary activities.

- Which subjects are needed?
 - Consult with national organizations of civil society (NGOs, religious groups, labour unions, employer organizations, universities, etc.) to determine needs.
- What resources will be needed to introduce these subjects (teachers, meeting places, materials, etc.)?
 - Consult with UNICEF, UNESCO, UNHCR and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) present in the country to determine what materials already exist.
 - Review existing materials and adapt them to meet the local situation. Obtain input from community members and local educators.
- Work with school directors, education leaders, etc., to make sure that the time for testing the modules, training the teachers, and starting the activities does not interfere with core subject work. Under conditions of severe stress and low salaries, efforts must be made to involve teachers and administrators in new initiatives in a way that minimizes strain and resentment. Resentment is especially likely to occur if programmes are seen as imposed from the outside and interfering with the work of running a school and teaching students.

8. **Education providers should develop a plan for raising interest in and pilot testing the proposed non-formal education activities.**

- What type of 'advertising' will be used?
 - Announcements in formal schools that children can pass on to their families and friends.
 - Support from members of parent-teacher associations or school management committees who will agree to tell other community members about the programme.
 - Announcements through community or religious leaders.

- Consider a pilot test of the project to increase interest among targeted groups.
 - Share draft plans with targeted learners.
 - Revise the project according to the concerns, needs and ideas of the pilot participants and community members.
 - Enlist young people from the potential participant group to help with the evaluation of the pilot project.
 - Enlist the support of programme participants to encourage others to enrol/attend.

9. **Education providers should develop a system of monitoring and feedback.**

- Are the non-formal activities reaching the intended target group of children/youth/adults?
- Do the children/youth/adults that enrol attend throughout the programme?
 - If so, why? If not, why not?
 - What adjustments can be made to the programme to encourage attendance/completion?
- Do the activities achieve their intended impact, such as:
 - Behaviour change (e.g. less aggression and anxiety among children, adoption of specific hygiene practices, etc.)
 - Entry into the formal school system: do children/youth that complete bridging/accelerated learning programmes re-enter formal school? For those that enter, do they start at the intended grade level?
 - Literacy: can children/youth/adults read at a functional level after completion of the programme?
 - Employment ability: do employers seek 'graduates' from these programmes? Do 'graduates' succeed in starting their own businesses?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Options for non-formal education activities

Organized recreational and sporting activities. These activities can be started early in the acute phase of an emergency and give children and youth a critical opportunity for play and socialization that will aid in their healing processes. While open access to these activities is critical, social tensions must also be kept in mind. Competitive games, if not organized with peace-building in mind, can support, and not defuse, social rivalries in communities. In addition, organizers of sports and recreational activities must make sure to consider the needs of both boys and girls.

UNICEF has pre-packaged recreational kits that can be made available quickly during an emergency. These kits consist of:

- Balls for several types of games.
- Coloured tunics for different teams.
- Chalk and a measuring tape for marking play areas.
- A whistle and scoring slate.

Organized cultural activities including music, art and drama. These activities can have powerful healing effects on children, youth and adults who have experienced the horror of displacement. In addition, vital messages related to peace, awareness of HIV/AIDS or other health issues could be usefully conveyed via these media. This results in increased knowledge of both programme participants and community members who view their work.

Basic literacy/numeracy training: For children, youth and adults who cannot or will not attend formal school, such training may be the only way they will achieve literacy. These programmes can be offered in people's homes or in community facilities, and programme times can be scheduled around the work schedules of participants.

Foreign-language training: Especially in refugee situations where the refugees and the host community speak different languages, language training may help refugees communicate with their surrounding hosts. Learning or improving competency in an international language increases self-esteem and employability, and may be helpful if formal education is resumed. In some instances, learning the language(s) used in the country of asylum may help refugees acquire jobs and, especially for older students, allow them the opportunity to attend secondary school in the host country.

Bridging programmes: The objective of bridging programmes is to enable older students who have missed years of education to (re)enter the formal school system. In general, these programmes are aimed at adolescents (aged 10-17) who study intensively for one year and then take a national examination to enter the school system. The goal is often for these

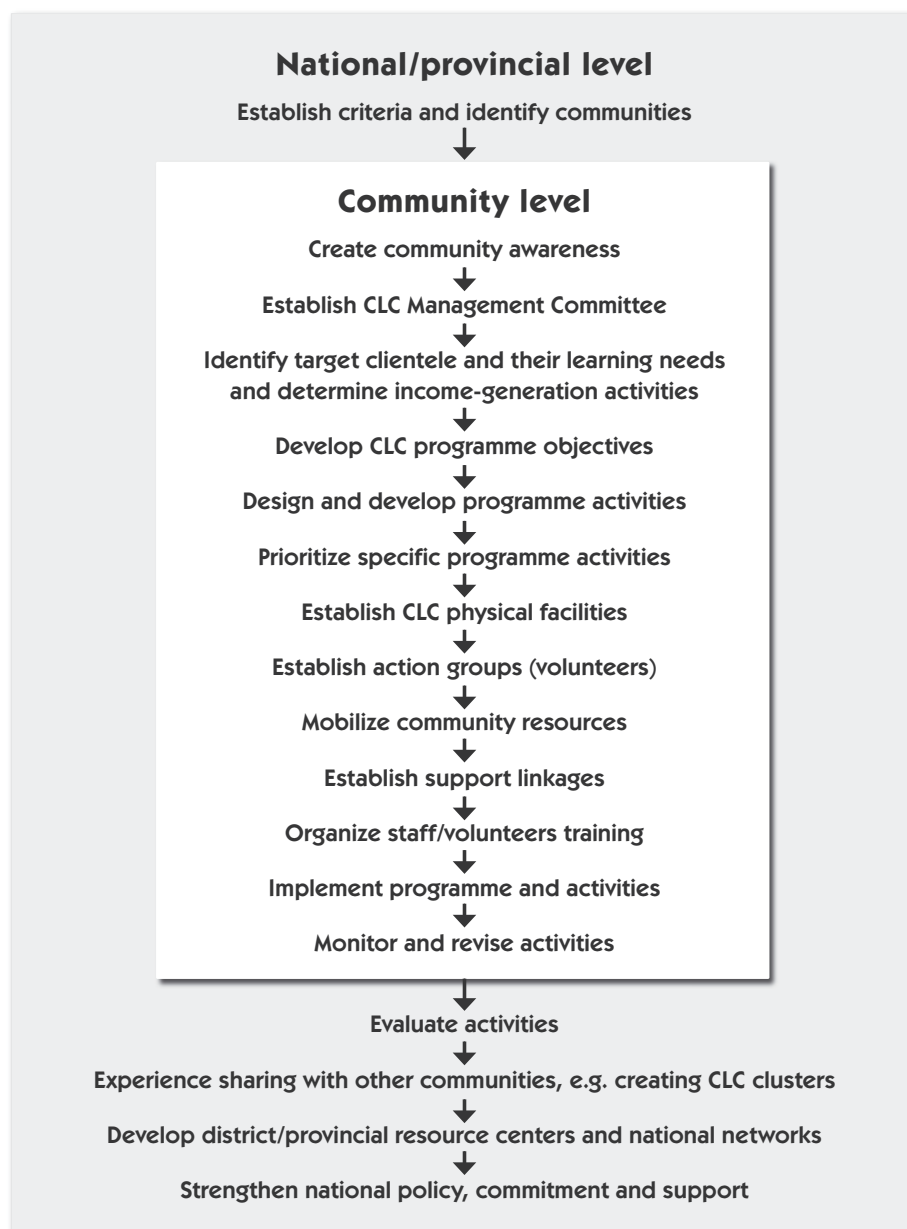
students to begin their formal schooling in grade 2 or 3. Bridging programmes may also be required for students in higher grades who are transferring from one system of education to another.

Accelerated learning programmes: The goal of accelerated learning programmes is to provide educational opportunities to adolescents who have not completed (or started) a primary education. In many post-conflict situations, adolescents have often been denied their right to education. In general, these programmes were developed to enable them to study six years of the standard curriculum in three years. Upon completion of the accelerated learning programme, students should have achieved functional literacy and numeracy and can take an examination in order to (re)enter the formal school system.

Vocational programmes: Non-formal training for emergency-affected programmes can be provided through training centres or, often more effective, sponsored apprenticeships with local craftsmen and businesses. These can be combined with literacy/numeracy and life skills courses where desired. (See the *Guidebook, Chapter 26, 'Vocational education and training'*.)

2. Steps for setting up CLCs and preparing CLC activities

All community learning centres (CLCs) benefit enormously from community involvement. Discussions with the community members precede the establishment of a CLC in order to assess the community's needs. In many cases, local materials and labour are used to build CLCs. In order for a CLC to be self-sustaining, community members are mobilized to establish and manage their centre themselves. Administration of the centre is the responsibility of a management committee, which consists of schoolteachers, retired professionals, community and religious leaders and other community members.



Source: UNESCO (n.d.b).

3. Key considerations for accelerated learning programmes

	KEY CONSIDERATIONS	COMMON ACTIVITIES
ACCELERATED LEARNING PROGRAMMES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With catch-up curriculum, teaching quality is doubly important as there is less time to learn the same amount • Groups targeted are out-of-school for significant periods – this might include child soldiers, girls, or displaced children • Sitting in classrooms with younger children can be a disincentive to attend • To promote integration, where possible, involve other community children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop curriculum based on approved state content • Train teachers in new curriculum and child-centred teaching pedagogy • Co-ordinate with education ministry so that examinations will be recognized and allow for entry into state system • Monitor children’s progress as they integrate into the state school system

Source: Nicolai (2003: 40).

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CHAPTER **12**



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **13**

**EARLY CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT**

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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Chapter 13

EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT



MAIN OBJECTIVES

- To ensure that young children have safe places to play where their developmental and educational needs can be met.
- To prepare children socially, emotionally and intellectually for later education.
- To enable older siblings or adolescent mothers to attend educational activities.

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

“Learning begins at birth. Systematic development of basic learning tools and concepts therefore requires that due attention be paid to the care of young children and their initial education, which can be delivered via arrangements that involve parents, the community or institutions, depending on requirements.”

Source: World Conference on EFA (1990: Art. 5).

Early childhood development is critical for the future well-being of young children. During the first few years, children’s brains develop in ways that have a lasting impact on their binocular vision, emotional control, habitual ways of responding, language abilities and early cognitive skills (UNICEF, 2001: 12). Consequently, early childhood development programmes play an important role in preparing children socially, emotionally and intellectually for later education. “Young children learn through play and exploration ... Early childhood development (ECD) programmes can take place at home with the family, in community groups where carers support one another in providing educational play opportunities, or in pre-schools where children are left in the care of others. ECD efforts should support the carers’ ability to care – by giving practical advice and training or supporting schemes for sharing childcare. Elements beyond education, such as nutrition and health, should also form a major part of ECD projects” (Nicolai, 2003: 45).

In emergencies, very young children are often an invisible group since an assumption is frequently made that they are being adequately cared for

by their parents or other relatives. Yet, emergencies have a significant impact on the care and development of young children because traditional support structures are disrupted and families are experiencing extraordinary stress. In most emergencies, existing EDC programmes are likely to be disrupted, along with other educational programmes, denying young children a chance to learn and grow in a supportive environment during one of the most critical stages of their development (Sinclair, 2001: 33). Because Articles 18 and 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulate that States have an obligation to support parents in raising children and in protecting them from abuse and neglect, support for early childhood development activities during emergencies is a policy requirement. However, in any given emergency situation, there may be no agency responsible for the implementation and running of these activities, and the success of such programmes requires the direct involvement of parents. Their ownership and sense of responsibility for children's learning is critical.

Family roles and responsibilities may change as a result of an emergency, and support of early childhood programmes is important to encourage girls' attendance in schools. As older children may leave the family for various reasons, and poverty generally increases, younger children, particularly girls, may be expected (out of necessity) to take on larger responsibilities at home, or to participate in income-generating activities. Adolescent girls may also have their own children to care for. The provision of early childhood programmes can therefore facilitate girls' access to education.

The outlook of an early childhood development programme will depend on the severity of the emergency, the availability of resources and the level of access of different groups in the programme area. In some camp situations, children often have more opportunities to participate in ECD programmes than they would in their home country, since NGOs may be equipped with greater resources in these areas for the development of home-based, play-group and pre-school programmes. In a conflict-affected country with a scattered population, the most effective action initially may be radio broadcasts to influence parents and caregivers.

BENEFITS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT (ECD) PROGRAMMES

For children, good ECD programmes:

- Can replace, on a temporary basis, familiar routines and child-rearing activities interrupted by conflict.
- Enable children to express their views and be listened to.
- Create a secure and safe environment where children can flourish.
- Enable children to be together in groups, and to develop negotiation and problem-solving skills.
- Enable children to adapt to rapid change.

For families and communities, good ECD programmes:

- Support women as the main carers by providing time for work, other responsibilities or a short break from domestic tasks.
- Build on what is already there, by strengthening existing skills and practices evolved over generations.
- Act as a catalyst for communities to create and build upon social, political and economic networks.
- Provide a sense of continuity in times of change, and an opportunity to reflect and transmit community beliefs and values.
- Provide opportunities for adults to work as volunteers or assistants, thus acquiring valuable child-caring experience.

Source: Save the Children UK (2001).

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

Educational activities in the early childhood years are crucial in preparing children for basic education, helping them acquire skills and increasing performance and retention in school later on. Even in situations of emergencies, and with limited resources, education interventions should begin with investment in early childhood development activities to ensure that basic rights of children to survival, protection, care and participation are fully protected from birth to school age and onwards.

Some of the key strategies and issues are noted below. A checklist of points and ideas for developing and implementing each strategy is provided under the 'Guidance notes' that follow.



Summary of suggested strategies

Early childhood development

1. **Conduct a review of pre-primary education programmes being conducted under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a co-ordination mechanism.**
2. **Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry's department for pre-primary education.**
3. **Prepare a framework for pre-primary education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action, if there is sufficient interest. Ensure that pre-primary education is included in plans for educational reconstruction.**
4. **Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of pre-primary education programmes, including elements such as those listed below.**
5. **Ensure the participation of emergency-affected populations and local communities when planning and designing early childhood development activities.**
6. **Consider establishing training programmes for parents and community members.**
7. **Develop strategies that ensure the sustainability of the early childhood activities.**

Guidance notes

1. **Conduct a review of pre-primary education programmes being carried out under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs, and establish a co-ordination mechanism.**

Organizations with a particular focus on the welfare of young children may have developed high-quality programmes in specific locations. Other governmental and civil-society organizations may benefit from this expertise. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources'.)

- What types of early childhood activities existed in the affected population before the crisis?
 - What activities were offered?
 - What ages were the children who participated in the activities?
 - Was food provided?
 - Was the service half day or full day?
 - In what areas did early childhood education exist?
 - Which children participated?
 - Only children whose parents could pay?
 - Only children whose parents worked for a certain company or the government?
 - Were all children – particularly minorities or children with disabilities – able to access the early childhood education activities?
 - Did the government support the early childhood programme?
 - Who were the early childhood teachers/volunteers?
 - Did they receive special training?
 - Were young people or the elderly trained to provide early childhood activities?



FLUCTUATIONS IN THE PROVISION OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN TIMOR-LESTE

“During the years of Indonesian rule, there were 64 kindergartens in East Timor, the vast majority operated by the Catholic Church. Some 5,000 pupils attended these pre-schools, approximately 10 per cent of those between age 5 and 6. During the transitional period this rate of enrolment fell, according to UNICEF ... partially due to the fact that early childhood was ignored in national priorities – and thus in budgets. In November 2001, the Joint Donor Education Sector Mission found that 4,500 children were attending a total of 41 kindergartens. However, other types of early childhood education have also developed. All eight of UNICEF’s Child Friendly Spaces include a component of early childhood development and Christian Children’s Fund has worked with a number of communities in providing their own early childhood care. Regardless of type, the government does not pay pre-school teacher salaries, which instead must come out of parent contributions and fees. An Early Childhood Forum was brought together beginning in 2000; through UNICEF and Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sports, it counts a draft national policy on Early Childhood Education as one of its achievements.”

Source: Nicolai (2004: 85-86).

- What early childhood activities are currently taking place? Conduct a review of those activities to determine whether additional support is needed. For each site:
 - Is the available space sufficient for both indoor and outdoor play?
 - If space is insufficient, can activities be held in the morning and afternoon in order to accommodate all children?
 - Are the teachers/facilitators/volunteers trained? Where were they trained? Could young people or the elderly be involved in organizing and helping with the activities for children?
 - Is there a system of referral in place for traumatized children or children with special protection needs? Where are they referred? What cases have been referred?
- What is the relationship between the existing activities and the government? Are the early childhood development activities registered with the government?

2. Take steps to strengthen the capacity of the education ministry's department for pre-primary education.

There is a wide range of international experience of education at the pre-primary stage, both in emergencies and in normal situations. External donors may be interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area. (See also the *Guidebook*, Chapter 3, 'Capacity building'.)

3. Prepare a framework for pre-primary education, according to the phase of emergency. At the early reconstruction phase, prepare a national plan of action, if there is sufficient interest. Ensure that pre-primary education is included in plans for educational reconstruction.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for possible needs and responses involved in developing early childhood development programmes.)

4. Provide guidance to civil-society organizations on the conduct of pre-primary education programmes, including elements such as those listed in points 5-7 below.

- Is there sufficient information available on learners' needs and appropriate responses?
- Are organizations invited to co-ordinate their activities within a national/regional action plan?
- Are training events/information campaigns followed by appropriate follow-up and monitoring?

EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN KOSOVO

In 1999, as part of UNICEF's Child Friendly Spaces programme, Save the Children UK assisted in setting up ECD programmes for children of Kosovo refugees in Albania. ECD programmes were considered a priority, and included infant care, pre- and primary school education, recreational activities, psychosocial support for infants and toddlers and counselling for children and their families. The account of the organization's effort to establish an ECD programme in the camp Stankovec 1 provides useful lessons on some of the obstacles to such programmes:

Stankovec 1 had been set up by NATO, and in some respects bore resemblance to an army camp. There was no tent large enough to house a playroom, and no free space to set up a new one. There was an initial attempt to share spaces with other agencies, such as Oxfam, but this fell through with the arrival of new refugees. A tent 5 x 15 metres thus had to serve up to 3,000 young children. As a response, the playroom was run by a shift system, where children could attend an hour at a time, in seven different sessions a day.

Similar ECD tents were later established in five other camps, but requisitioning proved difficult, and the need to fill out request forms and lack of equipment caused much delay.

Among the many problems illustrated in this experience were:

- Difficulty of securing any adequate space.
- Lack of materials and equipment.
- Some agencies providing unsuitable materials and equipment.
- Started programme where the staff had no contacts and people in the camp did not know the team.
- Lack of prepared, informed training programmes.
- Lack of co-ordination with other agencies affecting all aspects of the programme.
- SC team had very little preparation time.
- No agency identified beforehand to look after severely traumatized children.
- Lack of policy regarding volunteers/paid workers.
- Lack of forethought about post-conflict situation.

Amongst the solutions and achievements were:

- The creation of a play space with a clean and homely atmosphere, having replaced the usual plastic sheeting on the floor with a cheap wooden one, to protect from camp mud.
- Avoidance of expensive or inappropriate toys.
- Registration of teachers and other educators, and regular meetings with these.
- Registration of small children and preparation of shift schedules.
- The recruitment and training of volunteers.
- The recruitment of unemployed Albanian caretakers outside the camp for paid positions, so as not to create financial expectations within the camp for reward that were not sustainable.

Source: Save the Children UK (2001).

5. **Ensure the participation of emergency-affected populations and local communities when planning and designing early childhood development activities.**

(See also the 'Tools and resources' section for suggested principles to consider when developing early childhood development programmes and for examples of early childhood activities.)

For each site, consider the following.

- Review existing assessment data to determine which young children are the most vulnerable. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 28, 'Assessment of needs and resources'*.)
 - How many young children (aged 0-5) are present?
 - Are there young children who are separated from their parents?
 - How many child-headed households exist?
- What age groups will be targeted: 0-3? 4-5?
- What parts of the community will be targeted? Are minority and other vulnerable children – children with a disability, children of adolescent mothers, children separated from their parents – targeted for inclusion?
- What activities are most needed for these children (e.g. nursery care while parents are working/siblings are studying or attending educational activities or pre-school activities that focus on children's development and school readiness)?
- How can local culture and child-care customs be used to enhance the acceptance and effectiveness of early childhood development programmes?
 - Can early childhood development activities be built into indigenous education structures such as religious schools, or traditional songs and story telling by elders?
 - What are the local child-rearing customs? How do these affect the planned programme? For example, in some parts of the world, older siblings take care of their young siblings rather than the parents, grandparents or relatives. With this in mind, early childhood development activities should target not only adults but also older children.
- Where and when will early childhood activities take place?
 - In homes?
 - In clearly identified safe spaces?
 - Is there a need for multiple shifts?
- Who will implement the activities and what training/materials/supplies are needed?

- How can early childhood programmes be integrated with other humanitarian services such as feeding, health or immunization programmes (INEE, 2003)?
 - Ideally, early childhood activities should be conducted close to maternal child health (MCH) clinics to ensure that children’s health concerns and immunization needs are addressed.
 - Early childhood development activities for children and training for parents should also be included in therapeutic feeding programmes.

6. Consider establishing training programmes for parents and community members.

- Who will conduct the training of trainers, and trainings of parents and community members?
 - Government education officers (training of trainers)?
 - UNICEF or UNESCO (training of trainers)?
 - Non-governmental organizations?
- What will the training consist of?
 - The importance of parents and caregivers regularly discussing their experiences and the challenges of raising children in a difficult environment. This can be an effective way for parents to reduce the stress of child-rearing.
 - The importance of early childhood development activities.
 - Child rights.
 - Activities that parents can do with their children at home.
- Who will participate in the training?
 - Parents?
 - Older siblings?
 - Grandparents?
- How has the community been sensitized to the importance of early childhood education?

(See the ‘Tools and resources’ section of this chapter for information on how to link home to pre-school and primary school.)

7. Develop strategies that ensure the sustainability of the early childhood activities.

- Do parents and community members serve as volunteers?
- Do they have sufficient training to conduct the early childhood activities without outside support?
- Have educational authorities at all levels been trained to set up and monitor ongoing early childhood development programmes?
- What type of ongoing monetary and material support will be needed?

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Early childhood development programmes: needs and responses

PROGRAMME APPROACH	PARTICIPANTS AND BENEFICIARIES	OBJECTIVES	MODELS/EXAMPLES
DELIVERING SERVICES	Children aged 0-2 and 3-6 years old	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survival • Overall development • Socialization • Caregiver child care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home day care • Formal and non-formal pre-schools
EDUCATING CAREGIVERS	Parents Family Siblings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create awareness and change attitudes of the importance of ECD • Improve practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home visiting • Parental education • Child-to-child programmes
PROMOTING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT	Promoters Leaders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase awareness • Mobilize for action • Change conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical mobilization • Social mobilization

Source: INEE (2003).

2. Creating links between home, preschool and primary school

The first days and months of schooling are traumatic for many young children, and are stressful for most. Upon entering primary school, 6- or 7-year-old children are thrown into situations quite different from what they are used to, and they are expected to adapt quickly. The following are some of the transitions children must make upon entering school:

- They make a shift from learning informally through observation and practice in the home, or through play in a preschool, to more formal modes of learning.
- They are expected to move quickly from an oral culture, in which they are only beginning to gain comfort and competency, to a written culture.
- Most children are expected to sit still and follow a whole range of new rules when they are used to more activity and freedom of movement.
- Many children have to make an adjustment from the practices and behaviour patterns of a minority or popular culture in their home, to the practices and expectations of a majority or dominant culture adhered to by the school.
- They are sometimes required to learn and use a new language, with little or no adjustment time or direct language instruction.
- For some, the shift involves a change from being an only child or part of a small group of children in the family, to being part of a larger group. This requires them to develop new social skills quickly, and to take on new roles, including the role of 'student', which requires greater independence of children who may or may not be developmentally ready for it.

Even one of these challenges can block a child's healthy growth and success in the new setting. When several of these changes are encountered by a child at the same time, the stress of moving into the new learning environment of the school can be overwhelming. The result is often that the child fails to perform well, ends up repeating grades, becomes disaffected with learning, develops a sense of failure and low self-esteem, and ultimately drops out. Thus, the way in which the transition from home or preschool to school is handled can have important effects on children's future success and happiness, as well as on their ability to enjoy and take advantage of schooling in the present.

However, concern with transitions goes well beyond concern for individual children and their futures; it encompasses the entire school system and its ability to educate students successfully, for the greater good of society. Because the disjunction among diverse 'worlds' or 'learning environments' is usually greater for children from poor and disadvantaged or minority backgrounds, the failure to anticipate potential difficulties related to differences between home and school can perpetuate and even create inequities among the 'haves' and the 'have nots' and among different cultural groups in school and beyond. A society that aspires to equity cannot afford to ignore problems that arise in the transition from home to school.

Source: Myers (1997:2-3).

3. Creating links between education, health and child protection interventions

It is vital to recognize that complementary interventions in the areas of sanitation and hygiene, health and nutrition, protection and early stimulation and learning are important for the balanced development of young children. This integrated approach in support of early child development is particularly applicable in emergency situations when children are especially vulnerable.

The implementation of the Integrated Early Childhood Development scheme as part of the Support to War Affected Children and Youth project by UNICEF Liberia provides an excellent example of this approach:

The Support to War-Affected Youth networks (SWAY) is a consortium of six community-based non-governmental agencies that combines education, health and child protection advocacy to children in situations of crisis and instability. In Liberia, the SWAY project facilitates the implementation of youth clubs, focusing on HIV/AIDS prevention, several girls' resource centres, life skills education for teenage mothers, six transit homes for vulnerable youth, early childhood development programmes, vocational skills training and sports and recreation activities. Early childhood development care classes are offered, which contain advice on hygiene, nutrition and the importance of play for the development of the young child. In the IDP camps in which SWAY operates, the integrated approach for early childhood development is applied in the management of the camps and various services related to health, nutrition, early stimulation and learning, water, hygiene, sanitation and protection of young children are available.

Successful projects such as this that co-ordinate and integrate various aspects of childcare provide useful lessons for the future implementation of early childhood development schemes.

Source: UNICEF (2004).

4. Theoretical principles of child development and learning

These principles should be viewed in conjunction with the ‘Teaching and learning standard 3: Instruction’ in the INEE *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction*, which outlines the concept of learner-centred, participatory and inclusive instruction (INEE, 2004: 61).

PRINCIPLE	PRACTICE
Children learn best when their physical needs are met and they feel psychologically safe and secure.	This approach respects children’s biological needs. For example, children are not made to sit and attend to paperwork or listen to adult lectures for long periods of time. The concept calls for active play and periods of quiet, restful, activity. The environment is safe and secure where everyone is accepted.
Children construct knowledge.	Knowledge is constructed as a result of dynamic interactions between the individual and the physical and social environments. In a sense, the child discovers knowledge through active experimentation. Central to experimentation is making ‘constructive errors’ that are necessary to mental development. Children need to form their own hypotheses and keep trying them out through mental actions and physical manipulations – observing what happens, comparing their findings, asking questions, and discovering answers – and adjust the model or alter the mental structures to account for the new information.
Children learn through social interaction with other adults and other children.	A prime example is the parent-child relationship. The teacher encourages and fosters this relationship as well as relationships with peers and other adults by supporting the child in his or her efforts and later allowing the child to function independently. The teacher’s role is one of supporting, guiding, and facilitating development and learning.
Children learn through play.	Play provides opportunities for exploration, experimentation, and manipulation that are essential for constructing knowledge and contributes to the development of representational thought. During play, children examine and refine their learning in light of the feedback they receive from the environment and other people. It is through play that children develop their imaginations and creativity. During the primary grades, children’s play becomes more rule-oriented and promotes the development of autonomy and co-operation that contributes to social, emotional and intellectual development.
Children’s interests and ‘need to know’ motivate learning.	Children have a need to make sense of their experiences. In a developmentally appropriate classroom, teachers identify what intrigues their children and then allow the students to solve problems together. Activities that are based on children’s interests provide motivation for learning. This fosters a love of learning, curiosity, attention, and self-direction.
Human development and learning are characterized by individual variation.	A wide range of individual variation is normal and to be expected. Each human being has an individual pattern and timing of growth development as well as individual styles of learning. Personal family experiences and cultural backgrounds also vary.

Source: Adapted from Bredekamp *et al.* (1992).

5. Suggested principles for early childhood development programmes

TOPS: An easy way to remember the principles of early childhood development programmes

T - for trust, time and talking

O - opportunities to play

P - partnership with parents (and other carers)

S - for space and structure.

T - for trust, time and talking

Points to remember:

- Trust is an early casualty of war.
- Time is needed to re-establish trust.
- Trusting relationships are established through talk, playing and other means of communication.
- Allow time for children to talk – to other children, to staff and to other adults. This is a vitally important element of an ECD programme.

O - opportunities to play

Points to remember:

- Providing opportunity to play is essential to any ECD programme.
- There should be opportunities for children to take part (individually or in groups) in a range of activities that enable them to use their imagination, spontaneity and social skills (e.g. role-play).
- Play should include organized activities allowing for physical expression (e.g. football, dancing), and also 'quiet time' (e.g. drawing, reading, playing with individual toys).

P - partnership with parents (and other carers)

Points to remember:

- Make parents and carers feel welcome in the ECD programme, and encourage them to take part as much – or as little – as they want.
- Give families the chance to do everyday/family activities together, such as preparing a snack/meal, going for a walk, singing songs.
- Give opportunities for elder and younger siblings to play and do other things together.

- Give time and space for carers and children to re-establish their relationships in a safe place, such as an informal play setting.
- Provide opportunities for parents/carers to talk about their hopes, fears and concerns for their children.

S - for space and structure

Points to remember:

- Space must be provided, which is safe, with enough room to be used by young children and their families, for at least an hour or more a day.
- Reliability of staff is absolutely essential to build a steady routine, thus helping psychologically to create feelings of safety.
- Always do what you have said you were going to do and never make promises you know cannot be kept: this is particularly vital when talking to children.

Source: Adapted from INEE (2003).

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CHAPTER **13**



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning

Chapter **14**

POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION

SECTION

3

ACCESS AND INCLUSION



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

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MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To reduce the trauma of emergencies by ensuring that the ladder of educational opportunity remains open, with possibilities for continued education after completion of primary schooling.**
- **To enable refugees and IDPs, whose post-primary education was interrupted by displacement, to resume their studies.**
- **To provide skilled labour for national reconstruction and socio-economic development.**
- **To provide a pool of potential recruits for primary school teaching.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

During times of crises, the number of children (and especially youth) without access to educational opportunities is likely to increase. These children and youth miss out on the vital psychosocial support and protection that education can provide. Whilst donors and agencies, and sometimes ministries, tend to focus on primary education, there are a number of reasons why investment in quality post-primary education should be considered also in situations of emergency and reconstruction. Adolescents have psychosocial needs in and after conflict, just as much as younger children do. Lack of access to adequate educational opportunities may render them more vulnerable to abuse and to abduction, or may force them to take jobs in dangerous working conditions. No longer children, but not yet able to take on adult roles, adolescents without access to further education can be easy targets for those who do want their skills – recruiters from the military, criminal gangs, and the sex industry. Lack of quality educational programmes may be a cause of youth unrest, anti-social behaviour or depression. It is thus central to engage young people in education, which can enable them to play a responsible and positive role in their families and society.

The division between primary and secondary education is essentially an administrative one, with the duration of primary varying from four or five years in some countries to nine in others. The variation reflects historical and demographic conditions. With a largely rural population, there may be advantages in extending the number of grades included in primary school so that more children can have access near their homes. As

the proportion of children proceeding to secondary level increases, this consideration becomes less important, and other matters, such as making the best use of highly qualified teachers in scarcity subjects such as science, mathematics and foreign languages come to the fore.

The different structures of schooling in different countries make it difficult for international agencies to clarify their policies regarding secondary schooling. One approach is to provide priority support to the period of schooling that a country considers all its citizens should complete – which was defined at the Jomtien Conference on Education for All in 1990 as ‘basic education’. In many countries, basic education now includes the first eight to ten years of schooling. This should be the target for universal coverage in emergencies as well as in normal times, since young people will need more skills and self-esteem to tackle the problems of post-emergency reconstruction.

As a result of conflict or natural disaster, secondary schools, universities and technical or vocational institutions may be damaged, destroyed, looted or taken over for other purposes, such as the provision of military accommodation. Staff may be scattered due to displacement and emigration. Provision of salaries, textbooks and other education materials may be interrupted, as may the holding of national examinations. However, access to adequate primary and post-primary education in these times is crucial. If access to the labour market is limited for young people, as it often is in situations of emergency and reconstruction, they need the stimulus and challenge of education to absorb their energies and lessen their frustrations and anxiety about the future.

There are close relationships between primary and secondary schooling that are often neglected by those who seek to emphasize primary education. One is that children from poorer families may be allowed or encouraged by their families to drop out of primary school without completing it if there is limited or no access to secondary education in the area. A major problem, particularly in periods of emergency, is that secondary and tertiary education is nearly always fee-based. Families affected by conflict and disasters are often unable to meet these costs.

Lack of access to post-primary education often impedes the achievement of goals normally associated with primary education. The conditions of primary schooling in many countries are such that those who drop out of education after primary school often do so without having reached sustainable literacy. Indeed, where primary schools are under resourced and lack reading materials, sustainable literacy may not be attained except by those who complete post-primary studies. These problems are exacerbated in emergency situations, where the problems of resource shortages and underpaid and untrained teachers become more acute, and students and teachers themselves face additional challenges such as trauma or physical handicaps.

SIX REASONS FOR INVESTING IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. Programmes to universalize primary education have increased demand.

Access to secondary school will become a major political and social preoccupation in those countries with low secondary enrolment rates and successful universal primary education (UPE) programmes. Over the last decade, secondary enrolment rates have not increased substantially in many of the poorest countries. Access remains highly unequally distributed geographically, and in terms of the socio-economic backgrounds of those who participate. Transition rates from primary to secondary appear to have been falling in Sub-Saharan Africa.

2. Achieving the two most cited millennium development goals (MDGs) can only happen if there is expanded post-primary enrolment.

To attain the first goal of universalizing primary access and completion, countries must maintain or increase their transition rates to secondary: if they fall dramatically, retention in upper primary will decrease as it becomes clear that for many there will be no progression to higher education levels. Universalizing primary access and completion also depends on an adequate supply of qualified primary teachers. Quality, achievement and persistence at the primary level will suffer without adequate numbers of students successfully completing secondary schooling and electing to train as teachers, and pupil/teacher ratios will remain stubbornly high.

To attain the second goal of gender equity at primary and secondary levels also requires greater enrolments at the secondary level. Few countries in Sub-Saharan Africa having gross enrolment rates at secondary (GER2) of less than 50 per cent approach gender parity or have more girls than boys enrolled. On the other hand, most of those countries with GER2 greater than 50 per cent have achieved parity or better.

3. Secondary education has a responsibility in the battle against HIV/AIDS.

The consequences of HIV/AIDS permeate all aspects of educational development: increased morbidity and mortality among teachers, unprecedented numbers of orphans, and impact on the labour force.

Secondary schooling has special roles to play in influencing informed choice related to sexual behaviour, increasing tolerance and support for those infected. A reduced risk of HIV/AIDS is associated with higher levels of education, and children in school are less at risk than those out of school.

4. Poverty reduction has direct links with investment and participation at the secondary level.

As primary schooling becomes universalized, participation at the secondary level will become a major determinant of life chances and a major source of subsequent inequity. Access to and success in secondary will continue to be highly correlated with subsequent employment and income distribution patterns. Many groups are marginalized from attending secondary school. This marginalization will be increased, not reduced, if competition for scarce places in secondary school increases.

5. National competitiveness depends on the knowledge and skills of its citizens; in high value-added sectors these are acquired in secondary school.

There is much evidence to suggest that those with secondary schooling acquire useful skills and increase their chances of formal sector employment and informal sector livelihoods and that export-led growth is associated more with investment at the post-primary than at the primary level.

6. Investment in secondary education is especially critical in post-conflict situations.

Where a generation or more has missed out on secondary schooling, the labour force will be short on members with more than a basic education. Positions in government and productive enterprises, which require analytic skills, will be filled with those lacking formal education and training to an appropriate level. Demobilized militia left with unfulfilled promises of opportunities for employment and livelihoods may well feel excluded and betrayed, with adverse social conditions.

Source: Lewin (2004).

Secondary education prepares the primary teachers of the future. Many secondary school graduates enter teaching. In prolonged emergency situations, the discontinuation of secondary education means that there will be a shortage of primary school teachers in the future. In contrast, a refugee education system, such as that established by and for Bhutanese refugees in Nepal, uses many of its secondary school graduates as teachers for the refugee primary school classes (Brown, 2001).

Other than formal schooling, an option for primary school graduates, and indeed for those who may not have completed primary school, is vocational skills training for work as mechanics, carpenters, tailors, horticulturalists, etc. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 26, 'Vocational education and training'*). Formal courses in such skills are expensive to establish, however, and can only accommodate a very small number of students. These courses also have a poor record of preparing students for waged or self-employment in emergency situations, since they usually have a theoretical bias and often prepare far more graduates than can be absorbed in the local or regional employment market. Sponsored apprenticeship schemes have done better, but again can only take in a limited number of students. If the number of students trained is greater than the number who can obtain work experience under prevailing market conditions, the training is largely lost because the skills are not refined or consolidated.

The importance of post-primary education is acknowledged by national governments. It should be, and often is, acknowledged by international agencies that fund education for emergency-affected persons. Good secondary school programmes for refugees have been established in countries such as Guinea, Uganda, Nepal and Pakistan. However, since it takes longer to establish post-primary institutions in camps than primary schools, primary schooling still tends to get more of the initial attention and is usually more appealing to donors. Other factors such as a severe shortage of experienced, capable teachers and the specialized equipment often required at secondary and tertiary level education, add to the difficulties of creating and sustaining post-primary institutions in situations of emergency and reconstruction. Lack of funding may also force secondary schools to close their doors or reduce the number of students admitted to their institutions (Brown, 2005).

In crises, the best-qualified education personnel tend to be the first ones to leave the area or the country, as they often have the greatest resources and the possibility to do so. In some refugee situations, it has proved more economical to provide scholarships for refugee students to attend national educational programmes than to create opportunities for post-primary education in the camp. Scholarships have been given for secondary schools, technical education programmes and universities, although refugees are often subject to restrictions in terms of enrolment in local/national schools.

Students who have completed primary school, but some time back and in a different location, may need help refreshing and updating their skills before beginning post-primary opportunities. Accelerated learning to complete the primary school curriculum in a shorter period of time may be an important intervention to give emergency-affected adolescents

access to secondary schools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 12*, ‘Non-formal education’, for a definition and important considerations). This may involve using condensed materials, an arrangement of flexible class schedules or the provision of childcare for teenage parents. The pressure to earn a living or contribute to the family income can prevent adolescents from accessing education opportunities. Advocates for post-primary education often therefore include non-formal education for adolescents and young people as part of the educational package needed in emergencies and early reconstruction.

Higher education

Higher education institutions play a vital role in restoring national stability – post-conflict or post-disaster. Higher education is also critical to restoring a highly qualified workforce in the country, which is often depleted by emigration during a prolonged conflict. Because higher education institutions serve students who have often completed basic schooling, which has deteriorated over the course of an emergency or crisis, higher education systems are faced with specific challenges during and immediately after an emergency. Students will have varying academic levels as many students have had their education interrupted while others have been able to continue their schooling, but in different settings. Without a comprehensive national system of primary and secondary education, equitable admission to higher education is difficult, as students are unable to compete on the same level. Academic enrichment programmes may help students whose education has been delayed to catch up to their peers. In crisis settings, many students will have suffered trauma and will need counselling services in universities and other higher education institutions.

Higher education systems are faced with a very diverse population when refugees return home after a crisis. In addition, there may be a significant discrepancy between student demand and availability of places in higher education institutions. As a result, admission may become more selective. Frequently, access is limited or even denied to groups of refugees, ethnic minorities and physically handicapped individuals. Implementation of affirmative action programmes may help to reduce this disparity.

Staffing universities in crisis settings can often be problematic, as professors have often fled, secure working conditions can be difficult to provide, and salaries are often irregular or too low to incite professors to teach. In addition, there may be fewer opportunities for professional development or training. It is important to set up appropriate staff development programmes – academic, managerial and technical – in quantity and quality, through on-campus training but also through provision of a scholarship programme and twinning of universities.

As with secondary schools, the infrastructure and facilities of higher education institutions have often been damaged. Library stocks may have been either partially or completely damaged. Technical institutes may no longer have the necessary materials, which can reduce the number of professions for which graduates may be trained.

Because higher education becomes even more expensive in crises or reconstruction (and is largely fee-based), some universities or donors may provide scholarships for tertiary education for refugee students.



SCHOLARSHIPS IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA

With the help of a German programme set up to commemorate Albert Einstein, a group of young refugees have just completed their first year as DAFI scholars at a teachers' college in Papua New Guinea (PNG). This brings them one step closer to helping other youths in their refugee settlement.

The worldwide DAFI Scholarships Programme, funded by the German government's Albert Einstein German Academic Refugee Initiative, promotes self-reliance among refugees by helping them access tertiary education in their country of asylum and boost their chances of future employment. Since 1992, the German government has donated, on average, more than \$2 million every year to UNHCR for this programme.

In PNG this year [2004], the programme focuses on helping young refugees become qualified teachers so they can in turn teach the younger children in the remote refugee settlement in East Awin. The scholarships are awarded on academic merit and cover tuition and boarding fees, books, clothing, medical and other living costs, as well as travel between East Awin and Wewak, where four refugee scholars are studying at St Benedict's Teachers' College.

Source: UNHCR (2004).

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for a list of eligibility requirements for the DAFI scholarships.)

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES



Summary of suggested strategies

Post-primary education

1. Carry out a review of the programmes being conducted on secondary, technical/vocational and higher education, under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.
2. Take steps to strengthen the government ministry/ministries or councils responsible for secondary, technical/vocational and higher education.
3. Consider establishing a programme of in-service training in subject matter and methodology for teachers.
4. Work to allow students from displaced populations to attend local/national secondary and technical/vocational schools, or set up alternative courses.
5. Take steps to ensure that students in refugee schools can sit examinations recognized by the country/area of origin and/or by the host government.
6. Provide the maximum support possible to national schools in emergency-affected areas and to IDP schools.
7. At the phase of early reconstruction, undertake a school mapping exercise to identify the functioning post-primary institutions and their catchment areas.
8. Undertake a review of labour market conditions, so that the reconstruction of technical/vocational education can be linked to employment opportunities and the need for special skills.
9. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of secondary education, and advocate with donors for funding.
10. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of technical/vocational education, and advocate with donors for funding.
11. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of higher education, and advocate with donors for funding.
12. As part of the reconstruction plan, initiate a feasibility study on the use of open and distance learning to support secondary and tertiary education that would help expand education opportunities in regions that had been affected by conflict.

Guidance notes

- 1. Carry out a review of the programmes being conducted on secondary, technical/vocational and higher education, under government auspices, through civil-society organizations and external agencies and NGOs.**

(See also *Chapter 28*, 'Assessment of needs and resources', and *Chapter 38*, 'Co-ordination and communication'.)

- 2. Take steps to strengthen the government ministry/ministries or councils responsible for secondary, technical/vocational and higher education.**

- Review the current staffing and capacity level. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3*, 'Capacity building'.)
- When approaching donors and agencies for support to the sector, include proposals for staff recruitment and/or training.
- Invite senior management of universities and other large educational institutions to trainings and briefings for ministry/ministries or councils.

- 3. Consider establishing a programme of in-service training in subject matter and methodology for teachers.**

Many teachers will be reluctant to teach at higher grades or in secondary school because they feel that they themselves do not know enough about the subject or how to handle older students. Provide any support possible through local education services.

- Can local trainers provide in-service training in subject matter and/or methodology to teachers or older students?
- Are there distance education courses available that teachers can participate in?
- Can older students or people who have advanced knowledge of a subject or a craft assist in the in-service training of teachers?

4. Work to allow students from displaced populations to attend local/national secondary and technical/vocational schools on equal terms as local students, or set up alternative courses.

Where moderate numbers of refugees have the right language skills to study in local/national secondary and technical/vocational schools, they should be permitted to do so. This is in line with Article 22 of the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees (UNHCR, 1951) and UNHCR's *Education field guidelines* (UNHCR, 2003: 27-28).

CONVENTION AND PROTOCOL RELATING TO THE STATUS OF REFUGEES

Article 22: "The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regards access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships."

- Governments and agencies should negotiate with international donors to provide them with scholarships and/or to provide additional classrooms, furniture, dormitories, equipment and textbooks to expand the schools' absorptive capacity.
- Where admission to local/national schools is impossible, have resources from the local community or from within the displaced population been mobilized to provide alternative secondary and/or technical/vocational education?
- Can a limited number of refugees or IDPs be admitted into local school courses?
 - Is special tuition needed in subjects such as language or mathematics?
 - Can they be offered catch-up classes over a period before entering local schools?
- Where the capacity of local schools are already exhausted, can the refugees or IDPs use a local school on a second shift basis, or can alternative courses be established?
 - Can students from the camp be given occasional access to laboratories or other facilities in a local school, under an arrangement whereby the science teacher is given an allowance for supervising their practical work?
 - If textbooks from the refugees' home country are not available, can the students use host country textbooks?
 - Can specialist teachers from the host country provide help in establishing science and other courses in refugee secondary schools? (It is quite difficult for refugee teachers to get equipment and materials and organize practical work, especially if they are inexperienced.)

- Where there is a shortage of teachers, can older students or people who have advanced knowledge of a subject or a craft be given training in methodology to act as post-primary teachers themselves?
- Ensure that refugee students at secondary and tertiary levels of education do not have to pay fees higher than those charged to nationals.
 - Can international agencies be persuaded to fund scholarships for refugee or IDP students?
 - Have donors and international agencies been approached to provide equipment, textbooks and other supplies to schools and university departments that accommodate considerable numbers of refugee or IDP students?

5. Take steps to ensure that students in refugee schools can sit examinations recognized by the country/area of origin and/or by the host government.

- Can discussions be held with the country of origin educational authorities on this matter?
- Can organizations such as UNICEF, UNHCR and UNESCO assist?
- Can the students sit the host country examinations or a special version of them?
- Are there internationally recognized school examinations that some students could take?
- Are there distance-learning courses that could be taken through the school?
- Could students take examinations in particular subjects, e.g. international language skills?

6. Provide the maximum support possible to national secondary and technical/vocational schools in emergency-affected areas and to IDP schools.

In an emergency situation, local schools – both with and without the influx of displaced populations – are likely to lack the full cadre of qualified teachers, and have insecure supplies of textbooks. Make arrangements so that their students are able to sit the national examinations without expensive and insecure travel over long distances.

- Are supervisors able to reach these schools, and to distribute salaries, textbooks, etc.?
- Is there communication through district offices, by telephone or radio, to pass over information about needs?
- Are the teachers in IDP schools still getting their salaries?
- Can textbooks be redirected to the district where the IDPs are now living?
- What arrangements can be made regarding the holding of examinations?

7. At the phase of early reconstruction, undertake a school mapping exercise to identify the functioning and capacity of post-primary institutions and their catchment areas.

The data emerging from the exercise should be used in comparison with the number of students expected to emerge from primary schools, as well as returnees, if any.

- Are provincial/district education offices functioning, and do they have adequate statistics on enrolment in the different years of schooling?
- Can training be arranged for provincial/district offices in educational statistics and school mapping?
- If school census data has been collected for an EMIS, is this data available at local level?

8. Undertake a review of labour market conditions, so that the reconstruction of technical/vocational education can be linked to employment opportunities and the need for special skills.

At the time of early reconstruction, decisions may have to be made about which courses should be resumed, and in which institutions. In some cases, the previous courses did not lead to employment, and should be discontinued. Which courses should take their place? The best approach is not to undertake a massive survey but to talk to key informants. (See also the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 11*, 'Open and distance learning', *Chapter 12*, 'Non-formal education' and *Chapter 26*, 'Vocational education and training'.)

- Have any labour market studies been conducted by government or other agencies in recent years? If so, obtain copies and incorporate the findings in the national reconstruction plan.
- Is data available on the employment of ex-trainees?
- Gather information from key informants – trainers, employers, students and ex-students – to identify which students get employment and which do not. Identify new areas in which employment opportunities are growing. Remember that labour markets are easily saturated, if colleges produce graduates in a particular subject year after year.
- Review possibilities for work experience placements during and after courses of study, to increase employability.
- If possible, budget for at least one full-time staff member per institution to facilitate the placement of ex-trainees in employment.

9. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of secondary education, and advocate with donors for funding.

- Are renewal proposals relevant to cultural traditions and local economic demands?
- Do plans work to integrate adolescents into the world of work and adult social roles?
- Are private firms involved in training apprentices?
- Secondary educational opportunities should be allocated without regard to social status.
 - Is access to secondary schooling determined by family background, or has primary schooling erased these advantages and placed all students on an even footing?
- Does achievement in school, rather than social status, influence occupational mobility?
- Will secondary schooling be controlled centrally by the government?
 - Can the government financially supply secondary schools at a pace that responds to the growing popular demand?
 - Can the private market participate in the development of secondary schools?
 - Will a greater diversity of secondary educational opportunities increase or reduce any economic benefits from secondary schooling? (If quality of private schools is low, or local social agendas dominate curriculum, benefits will most likely be reduced.)
 - Will the expansion of private secondary schools diminish meritocratic incentives? (If private schools mainly serve affluent families, social-status inequalities will be reinforced.)
 - How will the expansion of private schooling advance national and local social objectives?
- Who will control the structure and content of secondary curricula?
 - Are there enough highly trained teachers to teach the content of the curriculum?
 - Will university professors provide their input of the latest knowledge to the curriculum?
- Is there too great a focus on renewal of primary curriculum when there is an urgent need also for curriculum renewal at secondary and tertiary level?
- How much room for student or parental choice regarding course selection will be permitted?

- Consider using a core curriculum.
 - Uniformity of learning is more easily assured.
 - Targeting specific learning objectives is easier.
 - Resource requirements are more easily organized.
- How specialized will secondary school curriculum become?
 - At what stage of schooling will the curriculum become specialized?
 - When will students make choices about course selection?
 - How many specialized tracks will there be?
 - How easy will it be to move from one track to the other?
- Will secondary schooling include learning from the social and physical environment that surrounds the school as an arena for learning?
 - How can the curriculum be written in such a manner as to draw on the social and physical environments efficiently?
- What can be done to introduce effective education for health and HIV/AIDS prevention through life skills, education for peace, human rights, active citizenship, and environmental responsibility, in secondary and tertiary level institutions?
 - Can a working group be set up to look into this?
 - Can these themes be integrated into other subjects or disciplines?
- Is it possible to reduce the high costs of secondary schooling by using parent-supported self-help schools?
- Is new equipment needed, related to the curriculum and staff training in practical work?

10. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of technical/vocational education, and advocate with donors for funding.

(See the 'Tools and reference' section of this chapter and the *Guidebook, Chapter 26, 'Vocational education and training'*, for more information on planning vocational education programmes.)

11. Prepare a plan and project proposals to support the renewal of higher education, and advocate with donors for funding.

(See the 'Tools and resources' section of this chapter for a sample higher education action plan).

- Use a comprehensive-sector approach for action planning as soon as possible after the crisis.



HIGHER EDUCATION: A TOP PRIORITY IN RWANDAN RECONSTRUCTION

“The damage to the higher education sub-sector was indescribable. The National University of Rwanda (NUR) had been specifically targeted by the perpetrators of the genocide. The toll of deaths among the staff was 153 people; 106 disappeared; 800 fled.

One of the major new government policies developed in the wake of the genocide was to replenish and expand the country’s skilled work force at the highest levels, and in increasing numbers, within country and through studies abroad. The aim was to accelerate economic development. Human capacity development was to receive marked attention in terms of funding. High priority was therefore given to tertiary institutions from the start, justifying the large proportion of the national education budget allocated to higher institutions.

The separate Ministry of Higher Education was maintained as such, to emphasize the priority of higher education, and the sub-sector was run by a series of directives from that ministry, as expansion ran ahead of fully developed policy but within the Government’s overall goals. From an allocation of 2 per cent of the government’s total recurrent budget in 1990 during the lean years, as compared with the 22 per cent for primary and secondary education (Cooksey, 1992: 4), higher education was to receive over one third of the budgetary allocation for the education sector in 2000, to the dramatic disadvantage of primary education (MoE, 2002b: 22).

In early 1994, before the crisis, there were thirteen institutions of higher education . . . In 1997, eleven institutes of higher learning were operational . . . Three of the state institutions were entirely new, started since the war: KHI , KIST (1997), and KIE (January 1999). As early as 1996-97, the National University of Rwanda initiated the first doctoral programme in the university, a four year programme in the Faculty of Medicine.

The development of the tertiary sector was driven by the determination of the Government of Rwanda. External partners offered funding initially, institution by institution, rather than in accordance with an overall plan. The second observation is that considerable funds were spent on bursaries to all first year students for full-time residential one-year language courses – instead of devising a less costly option such as vouchers to students in private sector language schools as a prerequisite for a place in the university. In [the] future, external partners should support higher education planning processes from the start, in an attempt to utilize education sector funding effectively across the sector.”

Source: Obura (2003: 114-121).

- Who will be responsible for deciding the basic structure of higher education?
 - Will a new ministry be created specifically for higher education, or will a department within the Ministry of Education be responsible for higher education?
 - How will this authority prioritize among different types of studies so that the system does not become distorted by too many students entering a particular field?
 - The authority responsible for higher education should be required to give their approval to any institution wishing to establish itself as a higher education institution.
 - This approval should be conditional on explicit accounting for financing, qualification requirements for staff, requirements for admission, and systems of examinations leading to diplomas.

- How much autonomy will be given to universities?
- How will officials ensure the equal distribution of resources to all higher education institutions?
- What new opportunities for tertiary education exist within the private sector?
- How will ministry officials regulate these offers for higher education?



PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN EAST TIMOR

“There were several higher education institutions in East Timor before the consultation: the public university Universitas Timor Timur (UNTIM), one national polytechnic, a teachers college for primary school teachers, one state health academy, the Catholic Pastoral Institute and a private School of Economics (Joint Donor Education Sector Mission, 2000: 28). Under the transitional authority the public university UNATIL opened. On re-opening, its biggest problem was over-enrolment as all comers were admitted. A test was given for second year registration, which reduced admissions and solved this issue for the university. It did not, however, solve the problem for the large numbers who wanted tertiary education. Additional private institutions of higher education have since been set up to cope with demand, or according to some cynics, “to make a fast buck”; the latest count lists 14, an excessive number for such a small population. Half the professors at these institutions have only a Bachelors degree (La’o Hamutuk, 2003). The Directorate for Higher Education (2002) is now putting forward a set of draft regulations to govern private institutions.”

Source: Nicolai (2004: 86-87)

- In what ways will higher education curricula need revising or adapting?
- How will admission to higher education institutions be determined?
 - Based on secondary school results?
 - Upon completion of a preparatory year for all first-year students?
 - Upon completion of a series of foundation courses taken at the same time as regular university courses?
 - After successfully completing a national admissions examination?
- How can female enrolment be enhanced in higher education institutions?
 - Consider implementing a sensitization campaign targeting girls in secondary schools.
 - Make provisions for women’s dormitories in all institutions.
 - Give priority to female students for room allocations, or to attend universities close to their homes.
 - Use staff recruitment techniques that are gender sensitive.
 - Consider using affirmative action programmes to encourage female enrolment.

- Build child-care centres on campus to allow women with children to participate in higher education.
- Consider exchange programmes with foreign universities.
- How can graduates become involved as partners in the development of higher education?
- Will there be provisions for security services on university grounds?
- What types of student services will need to be developed?
 - Counselling services?
 - Monitoring discrimination and harassment?
 - Health care units that deal with HIV/AIDS?
- How will academic staff be recruited?
 - Nationally, or individually by higher education institutions?
- Will staff be employees of the government?
- How will students be evaluated?
 - Continuous assessment?
 - Final examinations?
- How will the academic year be divided?
 - Semesters, trimesters?
- Will evening and weekend courses be available to students?
 - Who are the target students of these courses?
 - University employees?
 - Public and private employees?
 - School leavers?

12. As part of the reconstruction plan, initiate a feasibility study on the use of open and distance learning to support secondary and tertiary education that would help expand education opportunities in regions that had been affected by conflict.

The establishment of open and distance learning programmes is expensive and takes time. Some elements such as radio can be used in emergency and early reconstruction. For the longer term, it is best to undertake a thorough study of the different options, their advantages and disadvantages in the particular context (see also the *Guidebook, Chapter II, 'Open and distance learning'*).

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. Refugee scholarships

UNHCR sometimes supports scholarships at secondary level under its regular budget or trust fund arrangements. Since the early 1990s, it has benefited from a donation from the Government of Germany for funding scholarships at university level.

Who can apply for DAFI scholarships?

In order to be eligible, candidates should normally meet **all** of the following criteria:

- Be a refugee with recognized refugee status.
- Have successfully completed secondary schooling to a high standard in camp-based refugee schools, or in national schools of the country of origin or asylum.
- Have no other means of support for university studies.
- Select a course of study that is likely to lead to employment.
- Not be older than 28 years at the beginning of studies.
- Choice of study course with maximum four-year duration.

Source: UNHCR (2005).

However, these funds are limited. There are also a small number of scholarships available for refugees and IDPs through NGOs.

2. Checklist for planning vocational education programmes in emergencies

(see also the *Guidebook, Chapter 26, 'Vocational education and training'*).

1. Enterprise-based training or apprenticeships are the most recommended method of skills acquisition because trainees are exposed to real constraints faced within a small enterprise, the training is practical and the products will have to be sold.
2. Assess viability of income-generating activities and feed that information into the process of planning vocational training. This will reduce repetition of redundant courses that offer inappropriate skills.
3. Incorporate business skills in vocational training regardless of the skill.
4. In post-conflict recovery and reconstruction, there should be increased linkages between vocational skills training and provision of micro-finance, so that youth with skills will have the capital to apply their trade as self-employed.
5. Community-based training (e.g. taking trainers to the displaced populations in or near their compounds) can attract women into the programmes and allow them to continue with daily life.
6. Cultivate positive attitudes among youths about practical work. Schools should avoid using manual work as a form of punishment.
7. Group-based training enables tools and equipment to be shared, cultivates a spirit of working together and can allow the integration of disabled members.
8. Youth in conflict areas may need life skills training such as landmine awareness, health and conflict resolution to be integrated into vocational skills transfer.

3. Sample higher education action plan in a conflict-affected country

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
1. STRUCTURE AND INSTITUTIONAL ISSUES		
Prepare a national higher education law	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate higher education law • Organize consultation activities • Get law officially ratified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draft law produced • Consultation meetings held • Parliament approves law
Agree on structure for higher education and on the institutions of higher education to be established/developed/merged	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agree on the different types of IHE • Merge geographically close institutions • Affiliate/merge pedagogic institutes with faculties of education at nearest regional universities • Decide on new institutions to be set up. (e.g. regional universities, community colleges) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreement achieved • Number of institutions merged • Number of institutions merged • Decision taken
Develop professional profiles, promote professional co-operation and integration among IHE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decide on specializations of each IHE • Reorganize faculties • Introduce professional training programme for secondary teachers • Set up credit system • Network Ministry of Higher Education and IHE electronically 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document produced by committee of experts • Document produced by committee of experts • Number of teachers trained • Number of institutions using system • Number of institutions linked to internet

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
2. STUDENT RECRUITMENT AND WELFARE SERVICES		
Formulate a student recruitment policy based on merit and equity criteria, social demand, economic need for skills and need for teachers at secondary schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct a study on social demand for higher education • Conduct a work-force needs assessment study including a study on need for secondary school teachers • Conduct a study on disparity • Construct a simulation model for admissions planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies and simulation model produced
Increase access of female students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce affirmative action programmes, including financial incentives to institutions • Organize awareness campaigns • Provide child-care services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage rate of females increases • Campaigns launched • Day-care centres established
Increase access of disadvantaged groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce affirmative action programmes • Organize awareness campaigns • Introduce supplementary instruction for the academically challenged • Make buildings more accessible to physically handicapped 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage of disadvantaged students increases • Campaigns launched • Percentage of disadvantaged students covered • Number of buildings covered
Improve admission procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agree on criteria for selection of students • Increase Ministry of Higher Education's capacity to organize and score entrance examinations • Set up testing, evaluation and measurement centre 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criteria adopted • Number of officials trained, equipment in place • Centre operating
Improve student welfare services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce counselling services • Improve health care and preventive measures (HIV/AIDS) • Set up a committee to watch for discrimination and harassment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of students counselled • Number of IHE covered • Structure being set up

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
3. RECRUITMENT, ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF		
Create a national recruitment system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey the needs of IHE for academic and administrative staff • Decide on qualifications needed • Set up interview boards in IHE 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data secured in EMIS • Decision taken • Boards set up
Improve the working and living conditions of staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide health care for staff and family members • Provide transportation and housing allowance • Provide better work environment (office space, equipment) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage of staff covered
Design a project for staff development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess training and staff development needs • Provide scholarships for further studies and training nationally and internationally • Provide in-country training by regional experts in relevant disciplines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff development needs identified • Number of scholarships provided • Number of staff trained

PROJECT	ACTIVITIES/TASKS	INDICATORS
4. PHYSICAL RESOURCES		
Encourage IHE to acquire, manage and use land for income generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquire land for income generation • Manage and use land for income generation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Area of land acquired • Amount of income generated
Develop a national system of space standards, including a database incorporating additional needs for building and physical facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate an architect's brief • Set national system of space standards • Set up and continuously update database on physical facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brief formulated • Space standards set • Database in use
Encourage co-ordination among departments at IHE for better space management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centralize allocation of space 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mechanism established
Renovate and expand existing IHE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proper sanitation for all IHE • Convert old laboratories into offices and classrooms • Remodel auditoriums and increase their use • Build new laboratories • Refurbish classrooms and libraries • Conduct of needs assessment for computer centres and internet • Improve IT facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of IHEs covered with proper sanitation • Number of laboratories converted • Number of auditoria remodelled • Number of new laboratories built • Number of classrooms and libraries refurbished • Survey completed • Number of institutions with improved IT facilities
Housing for students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-examine policy on student housing • Construct female dormitories in all major institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Housing policy revised • Number of female dormitories constructed
Improve management and maintenance of physical resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create planning, procurement and equipment servicing units at each institution • Introduce incentives for innovations and proper maintenance • Organize workshops on maintenance of physical resources including equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Units created • Number of IHE receiving incentives • Number of participants trained

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Higher Education, Afghanistan (2004: 83-94).

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CHAPTER **14**



SECTION 3



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International
Institute for
Educational
Planning