

Table of Contents

Session 1

Post-conflict reconstruction of education systems: lessons learned from research	5
--	---

Session 2

Curriculum development in fragile states.....	7
---	---

Session 3

Supporting teacher training in fragile states	23
---	----

Session 4

Certification, validation and recognition of the learning attainments of refugee, internally displaced and returnee pupils	35
--	----

Session 5

Education on HIV and AIDS in fragile states	47
---	----

Session 6

Emergencies and reconstruction as opportunities for transforming education systems	59
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Course Agenda

Wednesday 14 November 2007

8:30	<i>Registration</i>
9:00	Welcome and introductions [Mr Tom Hurley, Director, Human Development Department, African Development Bank]
9:15	Opening statement [Ms Zeinab El Bakri, Vice President, OSVP, African Development Bank]
9:30	The policy of the African Development Bank on fragile states [Mr Joseph Eichenberger, Vice President, ORVP, African Development Bank]
10:00	Operational experience of the African Development Bank in fragile states, [Speaker to be advised]
10:15	<i>Coffee/tea break</i>
10:45	Post-conflict reconstruction of education systems: lessons learned from research [Mr Christopher Talbot, UNESCO-IIEP]
13:00	<i>Lunch</i>
14:00	Curriculum development in fragile states [Ms Dakmara Georgescu, UNESCO-IBE]
16:00	<i>Coffee/tea break</i>
16:30	Curriculum development in fragile states <i>continued</i>
18:00	<i>End of Day 1</i>

Thursday 15 November 2007

9:00	Supporting teacher training in fragile states [Mr Awol Endris, UNESCO-IICBA]
11:00	<i>Coffee/tea break</i>
11:30	Certification, validation and recognition of the learning attainments of refugee, internally displaced and returnee pupils [Mr Christopher Talbot]
13:00	<i>Lunch</i>
14:00	Education on HIV and AIDS in fragile states [Mr Christopher Castle UNESCO Headquarters - Education Sector]
16:00	<i>Coffee/tea break</i>
16:30	Emergencies and reconstruction as opportunities for transforming education systems [Mr Christopher Talbot]
17:30	<i>End of workshop</i>

Session 1: Reconstruction of education systems: lessons learned from research

Learning objectives

After this session, you will be able to:

- Recognise the most valuable lessons that have been learned in post-conflict reconstruction in the education sector
- Apply those lessons in a given post-conflict situation

Readings

Readings for this session are supplied separately:

IIEP. 2006. *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction*. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.

Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). 2004. *Minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction*. Paris: INEE.

Sinclair, M. 2002. *Planning education in and after emergencies*. (Fundamentals of Educational Planning, no. 73) Paris: IIEP-UNESCO, pp. 29-30.

World Bank. 2005. *Reshaping the future: education and post-conflict reconstruction*. Washington, DC: World Bank, pp. xv-xx.

Session 2: Curriculum Development in Fragile States

Learning objectives

After this session, you will be able to:

- Recognize the different curriculum models and recent international trends in curriculum development
- Identify some of the key criteria for curriculum evaluation
- List some of the key problems in student assessment, and school and classroom management
- Distinguish factors that need to be considered in designing and implementing a new curriculum.
- Recognise the importance of needs analysis and stakeholder involvement are for developing a sustainable curriculum and explore ways in which this can be achieved.

Paper prepared for the training workshop on Education in Fragile States organized by the African Development Bank (AfDB)

Tunis, Tunisia
14-15 November 2007

by

Ms Dakmara Georgescu,
UNESCO: IBE

d.georgescu@ibe.unesco.org

Reading 2.1: Development of quality curricula: what is specific to fragile states?

Exercise 2.1.1: Expectations from this session

Participants will be asked to exchange for five to seven minutes in small groups by focusing on following questions:

- What are some significant experiences you had with curriculum development in fragile states?
- What do you expect from this session?

Representatives of small groups will then be asked to share the outcomes of their discussions with the plenary.

The concept of curriculum

The curriculum encompasses learning experiences and opportunities that are selected and organized in a *systematic way* with the intention to engender changes in learners (i.e. the development of competencies: knowledge, values, skills, attitudes, behaviours).

In the history of education different models of curriculum and curriculum development occurred amongst which three main patterns can be identified, i.e.

- The *cultural transmission* model focusing on the content of learning and the cultural transmission function of schooling. It is also known as the content/subject/teacher-based model. The curriculum is build based on discrete subjects reflecting different areas of knowledge and human action. Emphasis is put on assessing knowledge and memorization especially via testing.
- The *socialization* model focusing on the social role of schooling. The curriculum is emphasizing issues pertaining to personal and societal development such as empowering citizens to take part in public life, to fight against injustices, to cater for the public good and community affairs.
- The *outcomes/competences-based curriculum* focusing on learning achievements that are important in coping with challenges and opportunities of today's (and tomorrow's) world. Learning inputs (such as subjects, the content of learning, teachers, textbooks) are not anymore considered as important *per se* – they are becoming means to foster competencies in learners. Such competencies are life- and problem-solving oriented thus exceeding the context of examinations and testing. Competencies are being understood more broadly as a *sui generis* articulation of knowledge, skills,

Curricula are at the heart of education systems.

Traditional curricula were defined merely by subjects and were content-driven and teacher-based.

Modern curricula cater increasingly for what students learn.

values, behaviours that learners can mobilize in a personal and independent way in order to address challenges of different nature (in both theoretical and practical contexts).

The curriculum ought to be tackled in its variety of forms, i.e.

- The intended/written/normative/official curriculum;
- The interactive/implemented curriculum;
- The effective/realized/achieved/assessed curriculum;
- The hidden curriculum.

Curriculum development implies both processes and products, such as Curriculum Frameworks; Syllabuses; Textbooks; other learning resources.

Curriculum development and implementation depend on many factors (i.e. traditions; resources; local, national and international political contexts; human capacities and leadership; education policy; pedagogical and psychological advances; legal framework; centralized and/or decentralized systems; economic and social development).

"The 'curriculum', as we use the term in this book, refers not only to the official list of courses offered by the school – we call that 'the official curriculum' - but also to the purposes, content, activities, and organization of the educational programme actually created in schools by teachers, students and administrators."

Walker and Soltis, 2004: 1

"The idea of curriculum-in-use evokes other meanings attained in the curriculum experience: The curriculum is illuminated in teaching and learning; teachers teach the curriculum, students learn it. That shared set of experiences involves a general sense of engagement in *a* curriculum, one that is generic in nature; *the* curriculum, that which is intended and specific to the moment; and *your* curriculum, what is experienced personally. Considered as questions, what does experiencing *a* curriculum, *the* curriculum, and *your* curriculum mean?"

Hewitt, 2006: 35

Exercise 2.1.2: How to define the quality of curriculum?

Participants will be again asked to work for 15 minutes in small groups (3-5). They will focus on following questions:

- Can we assess the quality of both curriculum processes and products?
- What are criteria (and, possibly, also indicators to define the quality of curricula (give 3 to 5 examples in compliance with different 'varieties' of curricula – see above);
- Are such criteria universal or depending on contexts?
- Are there specific quality criteria for fragile states?

Based on responses from groups a list of the most significant criteria relevant for fragile states will be drawn.

Defining the quality of curriculum

Countries do not strive only to *develop a curriculum* – they are, moreover, all interested in developing *a quality curriculum* that ought to meet certain quality standards. Quality standards and criteria vary in time and also according to contexts however there is increasingly an interest to identify ‘international trends’ with regard to education quality and learn from ‘international good policies and practices’.

Some of the most important questions asked in processes of curriculum evaluation are as follows:

- Does the curriculum serve the needs of individuals and society?
- Is it up-to-date?
- Is the curriculum age-, gender- and culture-appropriate?
- Is the curriculum relevant for life and able to foster competencies in learners?
- Can it be taught?
- Can it be assessed? (i.e. Can we assess what is expected to be learnt?)
- Does the curriculum create fair opportunities for all?
- Does the curriculum cater for the future?
- Does the curriculum foster life-long learning?

New challenges and opportunities impacting on curriculum development:

- Globalisation
- ICT & Knowledge society
- Knowledge economy
- Environmental issues
- Health issues
- Intercultural issues
- Violence and armed conflicts
- Social inequity and injustice

Trends in current international curriculum development

What are (international) features of modern curriculum development? And how can such ‘trends’ be identified? While countries are quite different in the way they approach learning and schooling (i.e. with different ‘strategies’ leading to success ranging from supporting students to overcome difficulties and develop

their potential in Nordic countries to emphasising testing and putting pressure on learners in other high-achieving nations) the contemporary pedagogical discourse privileges 'trends' in curriculum development such as:

- *Learner-centred and learner-friendly curriculum.* The curriculum ought to serve learner needs, interests, talents and be adapted to contexts. It should respect different learning styles and stimulate motivation and pleasure in learning. It should be accessible while challenging and common while being also differentiated.
- *Integrated & holistic learning and integrated curriculum.* Integrated and holistic learning give students the possibility to understand and make good use of interconnections in real life and knowledge while attaching meaning to content. While integrated learning can be fostered including through traditional curricula, based on discrete subjects, it has been however proven that an integrated curriculum, if well designed and implemented, is much more effective in developing competencies in learners. Thematic approaches or problem-based curricula are examples of strong curriculum integration.
- *Interactive learning/Participatory approaches.* The curriculum ought to foster active participation of students in the learning process. It should make reference to students' experiences and environments and make sense to their lives more generally. Students should not be seen as only recipients of learning but as constructors of their own learning situations and approaches.
- *Challenging and meaningful curricula.* Curricula should not deliver pre-fabricated knowledge students have to memorize and reproduce accurately. Instead curricula should encourage higher-order intellectual skills and complex competencies, including communication, social, problem-solving, operational/technical/practical and emotional competencies.

Some international 'trends':

- Emphasis on hands-on, integrated and problem-solving-oriented science education
- Language education privileging both national and foreign languages teaching focusing on understanding; oral communication; reading and writing
- Social studies integrating emerging issues, such as HRE; Citizenship; Life Skills; LTLT; Global Education
- Art education gaining more place in the curriculum
- ICT in and through the curriculum
- Cross-curricular approaches
- New modalities of time allocation
- Integration of emerging areas (e.g. HIV and AIDS; Poverty alleviation; Entrepreneurial education; Environmental education; Consumer education; Gender issues; Health issues)

"The organization of formal schooling, long the responsibility of consolidating nation-states, has typically been a powerful means intended to serve changing ideological ends: for example, reinforcing dominant societal values and cultural mores, supporting the growth of national economies, legitimating explicit political principles, fostering new scientific knowledge and technical applications and, more recently, developing the full potential of young learners and their integration into adult life. The school curriculum has reflected the impact of these changing ideological and philosophical bases by integrating, to various degrees, a multiplicity of societal, economic, political, educational and pedagogical viewpoints. While some are less evident and others are highly contested, ideological beliefs about the purposes of schooling and education leave an indelible mark on the design and implementation of the school curriculum."

Banavot and Truong, 2006: 3

Questions:

1. What 'ideological' beliefs could function in the context of fragile states?
2. Are such ideological 'beliefs' threats, opportunities or both?

What is specific for fragile states? (e.g. needs; expectations of stakeholders and cost-effective solutions)

Some 'generic' features of curriculum development in fragile states are as follows:

- Education more generally and curriculum more specifically were isolated from international developments over a significant period of time;
- There is a lack of human capacities and institutional setting to lead and carry out curriculum development processes in professional ways.
- Long-term education policy visions are also lacking in the context of political instability and serious problems with regard to forging national cohesion and consensus.
- The government and local authorities are under a lot of pressure to take emergency action which triggers ad-hoc, unrealistic and scattered attempts to find solutions hampering the establishment of long-term, systematic strategies of bringing about sustainable education change;
- The government and local authorities are confused by many donors whom they cannot coordinate.
- There are many reform initiatives on the ground but there is a lack of national coordination and standards.
- Teachers are not motivated and well-trained to initiate, accept and/or adopt changes.
- Curriculum changes are tackled in isolation from other components of the education system.

Exercise 2.1.3: What problems can be expected in fragile states with regard to curriculum development?

Participants will exchange in small groups for around 15 minutes based on following questions:

- What are the main 'troubles' to be expected with regard to curriculum development and implementation in fragile states?
- What are (more general) priorities of governments and local authorities with regard to curriculum development? And what do they expect from international organizations?
- What is there that one can capitalise on in reconstructing 'curriculum systems'?
- What are most common errors made in curriculum work in such fragile states?

Based on responses from groups, a list of main issues to be considered for curriculum development in fragile states will be drawn.

"Deciding what is important to teach is difficult for all educators. In an emergency, important decisions will need to be made about the nature of education services offered, whether formal or non-formal; the curricula to be followed, whether from the country of origin or host country; and priorities for learning, whether focused on survival, vocational skills or academic studies. There may also be a need for curriculum revision or development."

INEE, *Minimum Standards...* 2004: 53

Question: What would 'minimum curriculum standards' for fragile states have to look like?

Reading 2.2: Curriculum and other components of education systems (e.g. TET; Assessment and Evaluation; School and classroom management)

Curriculum and teaching and learning strategies

Problems to be expected most commonly:

- The curriculum is innovative but teachers are not prepared to teach it properly. Teachers need both content and methodology training.
- There is no proper communication and cooperation between curriculum agencies and TET institutions (especially in pre-service TT).
- Lack of appropriate school facilities and large classes make it impossible even for trained teachers to apply interactive methods.
- Parents are pressuring for rote learning and other 'traditional' methods that are considered solid while interactive learning is eyed with suspicion.

"We believe that interdisciplinary teaching is the way of the future in education. There. We've said it. And we'll restate it as plainly as we can: Interdisciplinary, integrated teaching has the most promise of any movement to revolutionize the schools during the reader's and our teaching lifetimes."

Tchudi and Lafer, 1996: vii

Question: Can integrated teaching function in fragile states?

Curriculum and the assessment and evaluation of learning outcomes

Problems to be expected most commonly:

- The curriculum is innovative but assessment lags behind and is undertaken in a most 'traditional' way;
- There is no appropriate assessment policy, and there are no professional assessment agencies.
- Assessment principles and practices are (implicitly or explicitly) opposed to principles and practices promoted by the curriculum.
- Aspects actually required by the curriculum are not being assessed and vice-versa, students are examined with regard to things they were not taught about.
- There is no external examination and national evaluation standards also lack totally or partially.
- There is no class-and teacher-based assessment, only testing encouraging rote memorization of pre-fabricated knowledge.
- There is no formative and progress assessment taking place.
- The feedback by assessment is not reliable.

- Assessment is not transparent.
- Assessment is linked to corruption.

"Assessment of student's learning, however interpreted, involves questions about the quality of teaching and the curriculum, as well as the student outcomes resulting from their interaction. Drummond (1993:15) supports this encompassing view of assessment by arguing that 'every enquiry into children's learning...will always have something to say about teaching, about the teacher, and about the whole curriculum of which the teacher's teaching and the learner's learning are only two constituent parts.'..."

Brady and Kennedy, 1999: 141

Curriculum and School and Classroom Management

Problems to be expected most commonly:

- Teachers and headmasters are not familiar with the (new) curriculum;
- There is no interest and no know-how with regard to creating a learner-friendly learning environment;
- Teachers and headmasters do not know how to implement interactive strategies (and/or mistrust them);
- Classes are too large to allow for interactive strategies and teachers have no training in applying interactive strategies in difficult circumstances;
- Teachers and head teachers don't have the skills to link theory with practice (and life) in areas such as science education or technology. They think that experimentation is possible only in sophisticated laboratories thus they are not able to facilitate hands-on experiences to students in difficult circumstances (i.e. multi-grade teaching; lack of school facilities; working in crowded shifts).

"There are many different possible causes of learner failure. Some of the more common of these, which have been anecdotally reported by teachers, are as follows:

- inefficient learning strategies
- poor attention in class
- irregular attendance
- faulty teaching techniques
- objectives inappropriate for learners
- materials/learning activities inappropriate for learners
- inappropriate learning arrangement
- personal problems of learners."

Nunan, 1988: 144

Exercise 2.2.1: Plenary brainstorming

Suppose a country (a fragile state) would have the political will to tackle educational changes systematically and by considering links between curriculum, TET, Assessment and Evaluation, School- and Classroom management, etc.

1. How can this be done given the scarcity of resources and the lack of appropriate capacities?
2. What should happen in terms of capacity building in order to empower decision makers and education specialists to think and act with a view to cater for synergies and systemic coherence?

Reading 2.3. Carrying out sustainable curriculum processes in fragile states

Exercise 2.3.1: Stock taking and needs analysis

Participants will be sharing in small groups (10-15 minutes) with regard to following issues:

Suppose you are asked to assist a country to rebuild its curriculum;

1. What would be important to learn about its achievements and shortcomings in the past?
2. How to get a clear picture of needs?
3. How to develop a realistic and sustainable assistance strategy?

Based on participants' suggestions some *key concepts* will be highlighted pertaining to planning and carrying out curriculum processes in fragile states.

Stock taking and needs analysis

Processes of education reconstruction/curriculum development are more successful if they capitalize on achievements and strengths and are based on careful consideration of needs in the country that result from complex analyses and by taking into account views and positions of all relevant stakeholders.

Problems encountered most commonly in fragile states:

- No clear picture of existing curriculum policies, institutions, mechanisms, documents and results of implementation;
- Unrealistic and/or irrelevant demands from country authorities;
- Donor/Assistance-driven processes of curriculum change instead of donor coordination by the government/local education authorities;
- Duplication of efforts;
- Focus on financial aspects and project execution in isolation from other (related) education/curriculum projects.
- Countries are usually expected to take over curriculum processes after a certain period of time but there is no concern for real sustainability.

Types of Analysis:

- SWOT analyses
- (Strengths; Weaknesses; Opportunities; Threats)
- Multi-sectoral analyses
- Feasibility studies
- International exchanges and comparisons
- Negotiating areas of intervention and strategies

Capacity building and institutional development

In order to allow for the emergence of a genuine sense of *ownership* curriculum processes ought to be led and carried out by local actors and not by international assistance.

Most important needs in terms of capacity building and institutional development in fragile states are most commonly as follows:

- To identify local curriculum specialists and decision makers with an excellent potential of learning, open to exchanges and motivated to work hard to bring about changes; access to literature and information in other languages would be also essential;
- To integrate these specialists into the international dialogue on education and curriculum development;
- To seek for stability of institutional settings responsible for curriculum development (i.e. Curriculum Departments of MoEs; Curriculum Councils; Curriculum Institutes; Curriculum Committees);
- To provide an adequate legal framework supporting curriculum development and implementation as part of overall education change/reform processes;
- To seek for political consensus and public support for change.

"Curriculum change can occur by chance or by design and at all levels in a school system. There are many agents of change, both local and national, and most governments have become active players...Reform initiatives however, are expensive and the return on investment is not guaranteed. Support structures are often stratified, making control and direction more difficult. Moreover, although governments recognise that education is an investment of paramount importance, it is a soft target when the economy declines."

OECD, 1998: 55

Curriculum planning: Setting priorities for the short-, medium- and long-term

Some of the most important needs in terms of curriculum planning are as follows:

- To develop an education (a curriculum) *vision* from which different concrete changes and phases of change can be derived. Most commonly however changes occur in the absence of a 'plan' which hinders systemic coherence and any further attempts to plan strategically. This should be avoided by emphasizing on the development of such education visions made explicit in policy (and legal) documents.
- To plan comprehensively and having in mind *affordable resources*;
- To set a realistic yet challenging calendar;
- To set priorities for different timelines;

- To cater for monitoring and evaluation strategies;
- To cater for back-up plans...

Exercise 2.3.2: How to develop a curriculum vision

Participants will work in groups for approximately 10 minutes. They will pretend to be education authorities of a fragile state and develop long-term education visions for their country. They will discuss what would ground such visions, e.g.

- Economic development;
- International relations;
- Political aspirations;
- Technological advances.

Based on their presentations a list will be drawn with elements that might inspire education/curriculum visions.

Involving stakeholders through participatory approaches

Curriculum development encompasses both professional/technical dimensions and political/societal dimensions.

That is why curriculum development should be considered as a matter of public interest with education stakeholders having a legitimate right to participate actively in it.

Public participation can be enhanced in many ways, such as:

- Creating mixed (formal and non-formal) curriculum agencies based on inclusive/win-win approaches;
- Involving stakeholders in different forms of consultations and curriculum making, pilot-testing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation;
- Media coverage and involving the Media as an education partner;
- Dissemination and sharing at local, regional, national and international level;
- Strengthening links between school and communities;
- Being able to negotiate and compromise.

Curriculum design and implementation

Let us suppose there are clear plans to develop the curriculum in compliance with an education/a curriculum vision and according to certain goals, calendars, phases and stages. Let us suppose that both prerequisites (and inputs) as well as outcomes (outputs) have been considered carefully. One has however to still cater for a lot of important aspects, such as:

- How are concrete processes of curriculum change being designed (i.e. what; in what order; can we meet deadlines; do we cater for impacts of changes/consequences; is coherence being preserved);
- Should these processes be 'original' and what can be taken from others/adapted to local contexts? Are such processes cost-effective?
- Who are the people to will design and 'write' the curriculum? Do they have the appropriate understandings and skills?
- Who shall lead curriculum processes? Based on what authority?
- How to validate the new curriculum (i.e. professional/pedagogical validation and political validation)?
- How to implement the curriculum? As pilot projects? System-wide? Which generations? What are expected and unexpected consequences?
- How to monitor and evaluate the quality of curriculum and learning as to obtain reliable results?
- How to undertake periodic revisions of processes meaningfully?

"Lack of coordination between curriculum objectives and materials selection can be avoided if curriculum development is viewed as a total, integrated process that includes material selection as one of its steps. One way to insure this integrated process is to have one group of educators formulate all aspects of curriculum development, including goals and objectives, sequencing, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation... If different committees and departments are to yield an integrated curriculum, it is important that each group be aware of the others' efforts... If materials are selected in disregard of the larger curriculum, the result is likely to be a disconnected instructional program that fractionates students' learning opportunities rather than allowing them to build one upon the other."

Gall, 1981: 13

How to cater for sustainability

Exercise 2.3.3: Sustainability: the impossible dream?

Participants will separate in two groups: 1. 'pros' and 2. 'cons' with regard to the question whether sustainability is possible in fragile states. They will first discuss in their groups for 10 minutes. Afterwards they will exchange on the issues of sustainability in the form of a simulated (public) debate.

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Session 3: Supporting Teacher Training in Fragile States

Learning objectives

After this session, you will be able to:

- identify the factors that need to be considered in planning a teacher training scheme in fragile states
- differentiate the modes of delivery of teacher training
- list some of the contents of a teacher training programme in fragile states
- recognize the major actors in the provision of teacher training in fragile states
- learn about IICBA's experience in teacher training in Africa and its work in the continent's fragile states

Reading 3.1: Supporting Teacher Training in Fragile States

Paper prepared for the training workshop on *Education in Fragile States* organised by the African Development Bank (AfDB)

Tunis, Tunisia
14-15 November 2007

by

Mr Awol Endris
UNESCO IICBA

Introduction

The global commitment to EFA and MDGs stipulates that all school age children and those who have been denied access to basic quality education should be provided with one before 2015. Very many countries have drawn plans and are doing all they can to meet the goals to which they have subscribed. International donor agencies are also being challenged to live up to their promise of providing the financial and technical backing for poor countries to enable them achieve their targets.

One of the important variables that need to be taken into account in the bid to meet the EFA and MDG goals is the number and quality of teachers that are deployed in the schools. The proper training of teachers is therefore given due regard in many countries.

In the midst of all this, there are many countries in the world that may fail to meet the targets set. One of the reasons for this may be lack of sufficient funds to cover the cost involved in providing quality education to their citizens. The other reason is that quite a few countries face political and economic instability that makes it difficult for them to concentrate on the work that needs to be done towards meeting the goals. In fact, for some of these countries, their very existence as a viable political entity is at stake. Thus are they labelled as fragile states. Fragile states are a concern of development agencies, local and international non-governmental organisations, multi-nationals, and UN agencies as they are, "home to a seventh of the world's population, a third of those who live on less than \$1/day and half the children who die before the age of five. More than half of the approximately 115 million children not enrolled in primary school live in fragile states" (Greeley & Rose, no date: 14). That is exactly why nearly all the major donor countries (the US, UK, France, Canada), the World Bank (through its dedicated LICUS Unit), the OECD (through its Fragile States Working Group within the Development Assistance Group), and the EU are all focusing on fragile states (Rose & Greeley, 2006:3-4). The fact that the African Development Bank (AfDB) has also organised this workshop on *Education in Fragile States* attests to the importance accorded to the issue.

This paper discusses the issues associated with supporting teacher training in fragile states. It begins by defining what a fragile state is and lists some of the features of such a state. It then outlines briefly the factors to consider in the design of a teacher training scheme in fragile states and the modes of delivery among which a choice can be made. A brief description of suggested contents of a teacher training course in fragile states is also given. Following that, the roles of the major actors (local and international NGOs and UN agencies working in emergency situations) in the provision of teacher training in fragile states is discussed. Finally, the experience of the UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) is shared to serve as a backdrop for the theoretical discussion preceding it.

What's a Fragile State?

A state is said to be fragile when it lacks the political commitment and/or the capacity to develop and implement policies that are necessary to improve the lives of its peoples. As a result, the citizens of a fragile state find themselves in a situation where basic social services such as education and health care are either utterly insufficient or totally unavailable. It is also the case that a fragile state may not maintain law and order in the country, and this jeopardises the safety of its peoples and the orderly provision of services. Such a situation may obtain in times of crisis such as internal conflicts, or when improper economic policies lead to a general decline in the resource base available for a state to carry out its functions.

A typology proposed by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) categorises fragile states into four. These are states that are in conditions of: 1) deterioration; 2) arrested development; 3) post-conflict transition; 4) early recovery. These designations are arrived at through interplay of *will* and *capacity* where a state may have the will but lack the capacity, or has the capacity but lacks the will (Rose & Greeley, 2006:1). In this connection, a fragile state that is deteriorating may be experiencing a conflict situation (or face an impending conflict), and this is accompanied with declining capacity and/or will. A fragile state that is in a state of arrested development is characterised by lack of will, but may have moderate or even high capacity. A fragile state that is in post-conflict transition may run the risk of renewed conflict and usually has low capacity in terms of human and material resources. Such a state may also have either high or low political will to succeed. Lastly, a fragile state that is in a state of early recovery may have been in a post-conflict situation or not, and also may have a will ranging from high to low.

The above description of four types of fragile states of varying nature should be taken into account in the design of an intervention to provide education, one of which can be the training of teachers. This is important because the nature of the intervention can be affected by the kind of fragility a state is in. As Rose and Greeley (2006: 7) point out:

Will and capacity are influenced by many factors and the fragile states typology is useful in identifying key strategic deficits in different fragile states' conditions. For example, in deteriorating conditions it might not be feasible or appropriate to work with the state, while in early recovery donors can start working alongside the state often through support to non-state actors, with a gradual transition to the state playing a greater role in service delivery.

Meanwhile, the typology is suggested as a general guideline, and should not be taken as a prescriptive modality of analysis. Admittedly, it is not always easy to pin down the multiplicity of features of fragility and the possibilities available for working with fragile states.

Teacher Training in Fragile States

One of the most immediate and important concerns regarding the provision of education in a fragile country is the training of teachers. Firstly, this is so because no educational activity could take place in the absence of a teacher. Secondly, teachers in such countries will have the important role of educating children and adults who are going through (or struggling to come out of) a difficult situation. Thirdly, given the appropriate training and the right orientation, teachers can assist the recovery process in a fragile state greatly by instilling in the youth and adults the values of tolerance, citizenship, and sense of nationhood. Fourthly, teachers are instrumental in the capacity building venture in post-conflict and/or early recovery phases of fragile states by training the skilled labour force that a country that is coming out of a crisis situation demands. These are some of the reasons that teacher training is one of the top priority areas (the other ones are curriculum, instruction, assessment of learning) in the provision of education in fragile states.

Factors to Consider

In the effort to rebuild the education system of a country that is in a fragile state, the training of teachers will have to be planned very carefully. This is because of the significance of the job of teaching to influence events in a country either positively or negatively. As mentioned above, a teacher that is trained with the appropriate skills and values can contribute to the building of a nation. On the other hand, a teacher who is not equipped with the required skills for being a teacher and has not also acquired the values that promote nationhood can play a destructive role and work against the efforts to pull a country out of crisis. In fact, this is even more significant in the case of fragile states than stable ones, as slight provocation from someone who has control of a group of youth or adults can trigger a series of conflict situations that would have been 'challenged' in a country that is stable.

Accordingly, the following variables are considered important in the selection of trainees for a teaching job in fragile states.

The Involvement of Affected Communities: In situations where state structures are breaking down and the rule of law cannot be ascertained, the involvement of affected communities in the decision making process regarding their welfare is very important. This is also true in the selection of individuals who can be recruited to be teachers. It is strongly believed that if broad-based community participation is sought, the danger of picking the wrong recruits is that much reduced. That is why it is important to involve the affected community and make the selection process to recruit would be teachers both transparent and participatory (INEE, 2004: 63)

Possession of Minimum Level of Education: It should not be forgotten that a teacher is required to possess a level of education higher than the level for which he/she may be selected to teach. Otherwise, the quality of instruction shall suffer to a level that the students thus educated may not have the skills and knowledge they are expected to. This in turn will result in the wastage of the meagre resources that most fragile states (or other stakeholders) may put to

education. Meanwhile, it may sometimes be difficult to find sufficiently qualified recruits for the job. In this connection, a pre-deployment training must be given in order to fulfil the minimum criteria (INEE, 2004: 66).

Importance of Gender Balance: Most educationalists recommend that the gender mix of teachers is very important as women teachers have been found to 'attract' girls to enrol in schools (INEE, 2004: 65). In addition, women teachers seem to be less belligerent when it comes to calming the volatile situation that may obtain in post-conflict and early recovery situations.

Appropriate Age Level: It is also important to recruit candidates for a teaching job who are neither too young nor overage. It is recommended that the minimum age has to be eighteen; anyone below that age is considered too young to handle the difficult job of teaching children and adults and be a good influence for them. Conversely, if teachers are much older than their pupils, both parties may find it difficult to 'connect' to each other.

Modes of Delivery

Broadly speaking, there are two types of teacher training: that which is given prior to taking up the job (therefore called pre-service training) and that given while the trainee is on the job (therefore called in-service training). Which of these two modes of delivery suits a particular situation is dependent on a number of factors.

The pre-service option: Usually takes place in teacher training institutions set up for the purpose. Such training also takes much longer than the in-service option as it tries to equip trainees with the theory and practice of teaching over an extended period of time, usually leading to the award of a certificate or diploma. It is therefore the case that in pre-service training, the institutional set up has to be available in order for us to use it. This may be the case in the early stages of deterioration and/or arrested development phase of a fragile state. However, more often than not, a crisis situation does not allow this. One may therefore have to make do with interim arrangements to provide short intensive pre-service training packages to train a cadre of teachers to begin the delivery of education in emergency situations.

The In-service option: In situations where the education system has somehow been kick-started, the in-service option of training teachers must be built into it in order to improve the quality of instruction provided. The obvious benefit of in-service training is that teachers remain on their job while undergoing training and this allows the continuation of the system. It is also believed that when training is provided in-service, the trainees may see the connection between the training provided and their own teaching, allowing them to reflect on their practice. Moreover, because of the fact that most in-service training is given at times when teachers are free (such as weekends, vacations, semester breaks, etc.) it is usually short in its duration. This may in turn make it relatively less costly compared to the pre-service equivalent. In-service training can also be planned in such a way that those who undergo training could be used as trainers of their peers in what is called a cascading model of training.

The Open and Distance option: At this point, it is good to consider the use of open and distance learning (ODL) for the training of teachers. It has now been established through studies that the distance option is both efficient and effective in equipping trainees with the skills and knowledge of a particular field, just as the face to face option does. And the fact that learners can work through a course of study at their own pace and in their own time makes distance education an attractive alternative for those who cannot afford the other options for a number of reasons. Meanwhile, the difficulty in utilising the distance alternative in a crisis situation is that the infrastructure (postal service, Internet access, face-to-face tutorial sites) may not be available or is unreliable to a point that it makes it impossible to continue with the programme. But, it may be worth exploring this possibility during post-conflict reconstruction.

Suggested Contents of Training

What should be contained in a training package for teachers in a crisis situation needs serious thought. This is because what happens during training time will have a significant impact once teachers are deployed on the job. As stated above, teachers can have a lasting effect, either negative or positive, on their students, and this is even more significant in times of crisis. So, a teacher in a fragile situation should not only be knowledgeable in the subjects he/she teaches, but should also possess the positive values that will assist the recovery process. In addition, a teacher dealing with traumatised children and adults must be equipped with teaching methodology that takes this into account. According to INEE (2004: 55), instruction must be "learner-centred, participatory and inclusive".

With regard to the contents of teacher training packages in fragile situations, the INEE minimum standard stipulates the following:

Training curricula may include, but are not limited to: core subject knowledge; pedagogy and teaching methodologies; child development; teaching adults; respect for diversity; teaching of learners with special needs; psychosocial needs and development; conflict prevention/resolution and peace education; human rights and children's rights; codes of conduct; life skills for teachers (including HIV/AIDS); school-community relations; utilising community resources; and identifying and meeting needs of transient or returning populations, such as internally displaced populations or refugees. (2004:60)

While it may not always be easy to incorporate all of the above, they are given here to indicate the holistic nature with which situations will have to be addressed in fragile states when it comes to the contents of a teacher training scheme and eventual teaching in schools.

Roles of Major Actors

The provision of education is the concern of any government as it is an indicator of the legitimacy of the state. It is also argued that education is a public good

and any state is expected to provide education for its citizens. It is therefore necessary to explore possibilities of working with national governments in fragile states. However, in times of crisis, the normal functions of the state are disrupted and service provision is adversely affected. The activities of sector ministries and law and order enforcement bodies will also be severely curtailed. In fact, there may be a need to mobilise and despatch humanitarian assistance to affected communities. In such situations, the only channels of assistance available may be local and/or international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) or international and/or UN aid organisations. The following brief discussion looks into the situations and modalities of intervention of the major actors in the provision of education in fragile states.

National governments

Most governments, even fragile ones, may be particular about issues of sovereignty. They may also like to be seen as being in control and may therefore resent the fact that non-state actors are 'stealing the show' from them. This is particularly true in situations where there are armed opposition groups who have taken control of an area in a country and local and/or international organisations may have to work in such an area to provide emergency and/or development assistance. Relationships between government and aid agencies in such situations may be problematic.

However, the potential for a co-operative undertaking is high with a fragile state that is in early recovery and post-conflict phases. Here, the government may actually be eager to demonstrate its legitimacy by actively seeking support to provide social services (one of which is education) to its citizens. It may also want to use the socialising effects of education in its effort to build a sense of nationhood among its subjects. Donor countries, multilaterals, and other stakeholders should seize such opportunity to work with fragile states that are positively disposed towards them. In fact, ultimate responsibility has to be handed over to the state, and the sooner this happens, the better.

Local and international NGOs

As mentioned above, local and international NGOs may be the first lines of defence in an emergency situation in a country with a fragile state. And the same organisations that provide emergency humanitarian assistance can also, once the initial desperate situation is handled, be useful in the delivery of education. In fact, many of the education related activities in fragile states are carried out by such organisations.

The benefits of working with local NGOs is that they are better placed to provide the service as they have better knowledge of the local situation than international NGOs. They might also have been operating in the area prior to the emergence of the crisis and therefore have established some connection with the local community. It is also assumed that local NGOs have a longer term commitment to the society they belong to, compared to the international ones that may 'withdraw' at the slightest provocation.

While local NGOs may have the advantages mentioned above, it is usually the case that they may not have the required amount of resources to carry out their

activities. It is therefore desirable that they link up with international NGOs who have the resources but lack the local 'touch'. Such a synergy may result in better co-ordination of education delivery, a cardinal part of which is the training of teachers in sufficient number and quality.

But, the intervention of international NGOs is not limited to the provision of resources. They can also bring in innovative ideas, technical skills and a fresh perspective to the ways things are done. And as 'outsiders', they may be seen to be neutral in situations where their local counterparts could be seen as partisan players.

This being as it is, however, the capacity of local and international NGOs involved and the transparency and accountability issues surrounding them and the suspicion some of them are seen in the community with whom they work, may militate against their intentions and contributions. It is therefore good practice to review the activities of the NGOs operating in an area and solicit the community's opinion of them before starting any collaborative work.

It is also good to always realise that NGOs, both local and international, operate on a limited scale and cover only some parts of a country. This would therefore mean that the ultimate aim of the intervention by interested stakeholders should be building the capacity of fragile states, especially those in post-conflict and early recovery phases, in human and material terms to enable them provide education - teacher training being one - at the national level. As Berry et. al. rightly say (2004: 18):

Where possible, even if alternative mechanisms are used, relationships with the government and with state structures should be maintained in order to facilitate possible hand over back to full state oversight. Otherwise there is a danger of creating completely parallel structures that undermine the state's ultimate responsibility for service delivery.

UN agencies and multilaterals

The major UN agencies that work in areas of health, education, food assistance, refugee problems, etc. are established with the expressed mandate to assist countries in times of crisis. Notable ones include UNICEF, UNHCR, WHO, WFP, UNESCO, ILO. The major pre-occupation of these organisations may be emergency assistance in the form of food, medicine, sanitation, shelter, etc. However, most of them also have an education component to their activities. In fact, they consider education, and rightly so, as an effective weapon to fight hunger, disease and general poverty. They therefore either directly involve themselves in providing education - once again, teacher training figures high in their list - or assist other local NGOs and civil society to implement education-related projects, including teacher training schemes.

The most obvious advantage UN agencies have is the neutrality with which they are viewed by their beneficiaries, thereby creating a sense of trust and confidence in what they do (Berry, et. al. 2004: 17).

In concert with UN aid and humanitarian organisations, multilaterals also work with fragile states to try and assist them in the recovery process following a crisis or to avert one from happening. They do this with the realisation that peace and development are intertwined and a crisis in one country will directly or indirectly impact on the stability and development in another. In fact, there is now a consensus among donors and lending agencies that the dichotomy between humanitarian assistance and development aid is an artificial division (Rose and Greeley 2006: 1). Once again, the context in a fragile state will determine whether the intervention by multilaterals will have to be done with or without the state as a partner in the provision of education.

IICBA's Experience

The International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) was established by the General Conference of UNESCO in its 30th session held in 1999. The motivation for the establishment of the Institute emanates from UNESCO's desire to contribute to the development of education in Africa through the building of the capacity of teacher education institutions in the continent.

The Institute is located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and this has given it the physical proximity to the African Union and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, both of which have their headquarters in the same city. In addition, IICBA has two nodes, strategically located in Dakar, Senegal and Pretoria, South Africa. The Dakar node is entrusted with programme implementation in west and central Francophone Africa. The Pretoria node liaises with the SADC countries and the universities of South Africa, whose human and material resources could be utilised by the Institute in its bid to serve all forty six Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries. The four areas of IICBA's mandate are teacher education, curriculum development, distance education and educational planning (UNESCO: 1999:1). But as there are more specialised UNESCO institutes for curriculum development (UNESCO Bureau of Education in Geneva, Switzerland), and educational planning (International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris, France), IICBA concentrates its activities in the use of distance schemes to build the capacity of teacher education institutions in Africa.

In this connection, IICBA has gained a lot of experience in providing relevant teacher education courses for African teacher educators through a collaborative arrangement with distance education providers in Africa and beyond. Accordingly, IICBA has been working with the University of South Africa (UNISA), the University of Pretoria (UP), the Indira Ghandi National Open University (IGNOU) and the University of Montreal (UoM). These institutions provide the content and IICBA does the sponsorship and co-ordination work. Very many African countries have benefited from sponsored courses that lead to a qualification at a level of diploma or a higher degree such as master's.

IICBA also runs short intensive training workshops in relevant areas such as School Leadership and Management, Use of ICT in Education, Women Leadership, etc. In fact, as short intensive training workshops are more suited to situations of crisis, IICBA has run these in many African countries that are (or

were) categorised as fragile. These include the Democratic Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Burundi, and Guinea.

Due to limited resources at its disposal, IICBA has not been able to intervene at a large scale in the countries of its mandate. However, it has tried to offset this limitation through partnerships with other UN agencies and/or bilateral funding sources. As a result, it has had financial support from such UN agencies such as UNAIDS, UNECA and UNDP. Bilateral assistance has also been secured from USAID and Swedish SIDA. IICBA also relies on extra-budgetary funding to run some of its programmes. It is appropriate at this stage to mention the budding relationship IICBA is cultivating with AfDB in the area of teacher training for science and mathematics. A project proposal has been submitted to the Bank to this effect.

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Group Activities

- Form groups of 6-7 in a group
- Choose a moderator for your group
- Assign a rapporteur to the group
- Discuss the exercise in the group
- Take note of the issues being raised
- Report back to plenary

Exercise 3.1

1. It has been said that the type of fragile state will determine the kind of cooperation (or non-cooperation) various actors may have with it. As a member of a multilateral organization, which of the four types are the ones that are more amenable to work with? Why? What could be done with the others?

2. How do you go about establishing the link with a fragile state you think you can work with? What kind of intervention will lead to long term positive effect? Give reasons for your answers.

You have 20 minutes for this exercise.

Exercise 3.2

1. In designing a teacher training scheme for a fragile state you CAN work with, what are the kinds of information you need in order to extend assistance? What are the possible sources of the information?

2. In designing a teacher training scheme for a fragile state that you CANNOT work with, what are the kinds of information you need in order to extend assistance? What are the sources of the information?

You have 20 minutes for this exercise.

Exercise 3.3

Once you decide to support a teacher training scheme in a fragile state, how would you want the selection of trainees to take place, and what are some of the potential areas of content you would like to see included? Why? How do you intend to monitor this?

You have 20 minutes for this exercise.

Session 4: Recognition of pupil attainments

Learning objectives

After this session, you will be able to:

- Define the concepts of certification, accreditation, validation and recognition of learning attainments
- Identify the obstacles to recognition of the learning attainments of refugee and IDP pupils
- Devise strategies to help overcome those obstacles

Reading 4.1: Overcoming obstacles to certification of learning attainments of refugee and IDP pupils

Introduction

According to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), all children under 18 years of age have specific rights without discrimination of any kind (Article 1). Articles 28 and 29 of the CRC refer specifically to the right of children to education. This means that education must be available and accessible to children without discrimination. In addition, Article 22 of the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, refers to the right of refugee children to a public education.

Despite the existence of these instruments of international law, there is a lack of consistency in application of these rights when it comes to the recognition and certification of refugee and IDP children's diplomas and other school attainments. Throughout the world, there are refugee pupils studying in the local schools of the host community. However, much of the education of refugees is conducted in refugee camps, by reputable, experienced non-governmental organisations (NGOs), usually working under UNHCR's mandate and funding. Despite these facts, the recognition of refugee pupils' qualifications by home or host government Ministries of Education is not guaranteed; and even when it is possible, often has to be negotiated on a case by case basis. This wastes the time of Government officials, UN and NGO workers and refugees. Lacking clear public policy guidelines, Ministry of Education officials may question the validity of the curricula followed by displaced pupils and the legitimacy of the training of their teachers. The absence of consistent policy leaves individual children open to arbitrary treatment.

Refugees are not the only people to suffer from the certification challenges. Internally displaced children are usually in an even worse position, as their national government may not recognise the legitimacy of their educational institutions. In addition, there is no UN agency that consistently provides them with education or protection, although UNICEF and UNHCR are often active in

IDP operations. So education attained by IDPs is repeatedly not recognised. For example, the education received by IDPs from southern Sudan, living in camps near Khartoum, was not recognised (Sommers, 2005).

Children returning home, or wishing to settle permanently in the country or province of asylum, frequently find that they cannot use the qualifications gained in exile to move to the next grade or cycle of education, or to obtain employment. For example the UNHCR/UNICEF sixth grade leaving certificates attained by Rwandan refugees while in Tanzania in the mid-1990s were not recognised by the Rwandan government on their return (Bird, 2003), nor, for those who stayed, by the Tanzanian government.

For refugee and IDP pupils and their parents, the lack of recognition of their learning is one of the most frequently expressed frustrations and a major obstacle to educational and economic advancement. Proper accreditation, validation and certification procedures would increase the economic and social contribution of IDPs, refugees and returnees to their respective communities. Knowing that their studies will be recognised gives students hope for the future and contributes to overall individual and community well-being. Having proper accreditation would increase pupils' motivation to continue their education and reinforce resilience and self-reliance.

For international agencies and donors, certification is a critical issue for programme quality, impact and sustainability. The INEE *Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crisis and Early Reconstruction* stipulate that, "Learner achievement is recognised and credits or course completion documents are provided accordingly" (INEE, 2004: 62).

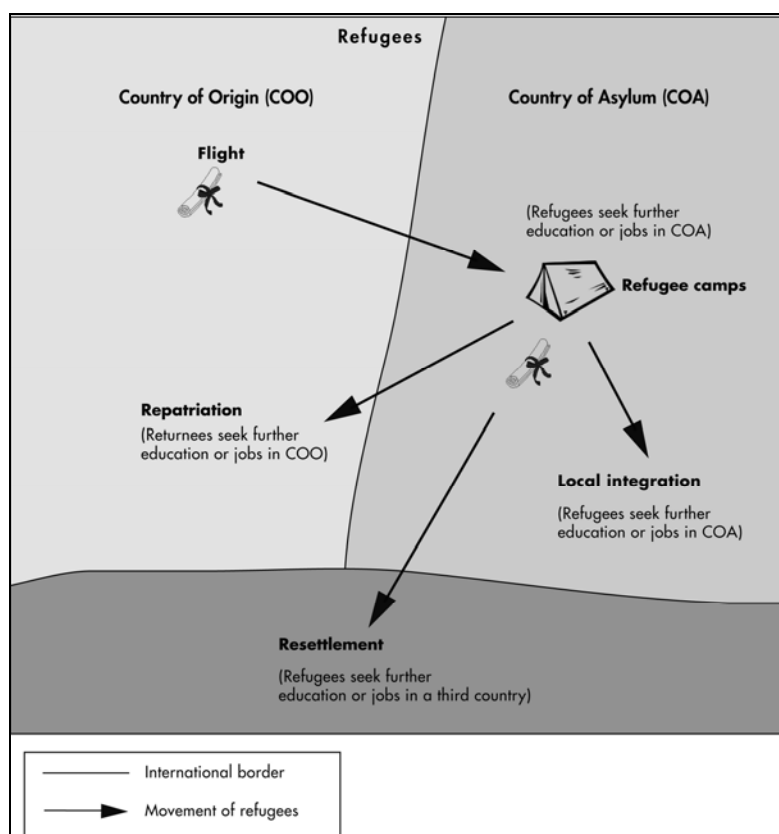


Figure 1

Figure 1, above, shows the types of needs for educational certification that refugees may experience. The needs of internally displaced persons for such certification are depicted in Figure 2 below.

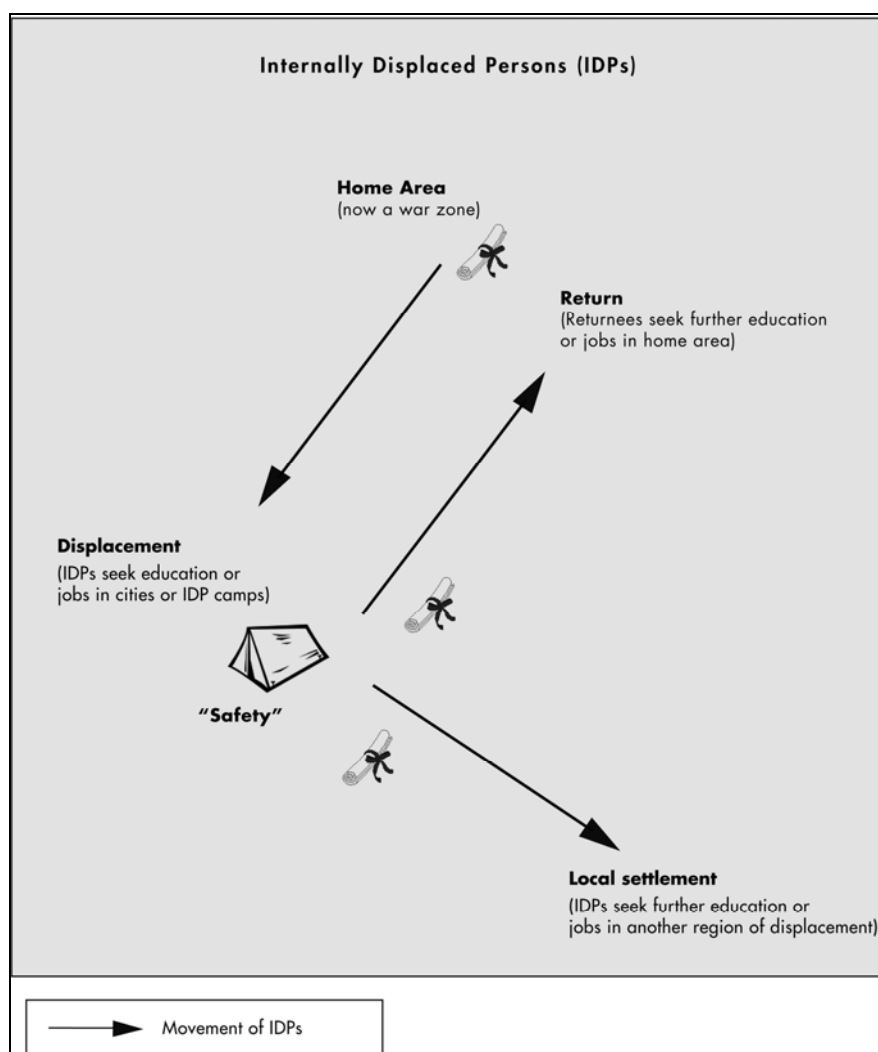


Figure 2

This is a major gap in international educational policy and practice. There is little documentation of the issue. Most is in the form of grey literature – unpublished assessment and evaluation reports of NGOs and UN agencies, which mention the problem in passing.¹ There is no solid published research about what has worked in some field operations and what has failed, on which to base advice on policy formulation to government Ministries of Education, United Nations agencies, such as UNHCR, UNICEF and UNESCO, international NGOs and donors.

¹ The only piece that treats the certification of refugees and IDPs in any systematic detail is a very valuable, yet unpublished, seven-page summary of issues, drafted by Barry Sesnan in 1999 and recently revised (Sesnan, 2006).

Definitions

CERTIFICATION/ACCREDITATION is defined as a mark of quality that publicly attests the worth of a learning programme.

VALIDATION is the process by which the authenticity of the accreditation is ascertained.

RECOGNITION is the acceptance by an outside party of a certificate's worth and validation.

Types of documents and types of education

The lack of certification may be most acute at the end of an education cycle, such as the end of primary, junior secondary or senior secondary school. However, not only end-of-cycle certificates require recognition. Students may also present individual examination results and report cards from years within a cycle. Formal recognition of end of year certificates, for example, is required if students are to be enrolled in new schools at the appropriate grade level.

There is also a major problem of lack of any documents at all. Most refugees and IDPs are forced to flee violence at short notice and often do not have the opportunity to gather the evidence of their past and present studies. When flight or repatriation/return occurs in the midst of an academic term, refugees, IDPs and returnees face particular challenges of documenting their incomplete year.

The difficulties faced by refugees, IDPs and returnees over certification are not limited to formal schooling. Here is a range of educational programmes that may require certification:

- Formal schooling provided by state institutions at every level
- Formal and non-formal learning opportunities provided by any agency, such as NGOs or UN agencies, including:
 - Informal learning in the community and through mass media
 - Vocational training
 - Accelerated learning, bridging and catch-up programmes
 - Educational programmes for out-of-school youth
 - Life skills including human rights education and peace education programmes
 - Educational provision targeted for special groups, such as girls, former child soldiers and the disabled

Technical issues

There are several technical issues frequently cited by Ministries of Education as justification for delaying or refusing to recognise refugees', IDPs' and returnees' qualifications. These include:

- The **curriculum** followed by the students is usually different from that of the Ministry of Education of the jurisdiction in which the students wish to have their studies recognised. This may include differences of syllabus subjects, subject content, pedagogical methods and length of school cycles.
- **Teacher training and teacher certification** processes of the refugee or IDP teachers, if they exist at all, are different from those of the Ministry of Education of the jurisdiction in which the students wish to have their studies recognised.
- **Validation** of the authenticity of certificates presented by students poses problems.
- **Comparability** of certificates issued by many different authorities is very difficult – how to establish equivalences?
- **Language** of curriculum and of certification – Ministry staff are often unable to read or understand the certificates presented and the detailed content of programmes completed.
- **Loss or destruction of certificates**
- How to certify **incomplete academic years**

In addition, parents and pupils themselves may not be clear about how their own standard of attainment compares with that of pupils in the education system into which they are seeking entry. This can complicate the decision-making process.

Specific technical obstacles to certification arise around the **administration of examinations**, which are usually the basis on which certificates are issued. These may include:

- **Rigidity of rules** on nationality and maximum age of candidates, on subject pre-requisites, on the possibility of accumulating subject examination certificates over several years and on the monitoring of examinations by national Ministry of Education officials
- **Rigidity of examination timetables**, which results in exclusion of displaced students, who are unable to sit exams in particular places at particular times
- **Security** – both physical security for the holding of examinations and security of the examination papers, to avoid premature leaks
- **Cost and time** of exam administration
- **Examination fees** for students

Political issues

The technical issues referred to above may be complicated by political challenges. These may include:

- **Authority to certify** – Ministries tend to guard jealously their authority to certify, validate and recognise qualifications.
- **National sovereignty** – Ministries may feel that they are protecting a sovereign prerogative of their national government by insisting on their own qualification and certification processes / refusing to recognise refugees' qualifications.
- **Military, ideological or other political opposition** – Returning IDPs and refugees may have been living in areas under control of political groupings opposed to the government that the Ministry of Education serves. Such political groupings may even have been at war with the government. In these circumstances, Ministry officials may find it difficult to assist people rightly or wrongly perceived as linked with their government's opponents.
- **Funding and staffing** – Dedication of ministerial staff time to certification, validation and recognition of refugees' and IDPs' attainments can be costly. Ministries of Education may not have sufficient budgetary allocations for the purpose. Donors may not prioritise this activity sufficiently highly, or at all, in negotiations over budgetary support.
- **Power and corruption** – In many cases, exercising the authority to recognise refugees', IDPs' or returnees' studies confers real personal power over other people. This power can be abused, with recognition of studies becoming a commodity for sale, for money or for various services, including sexual exploitation.

Potential strategies and solutions

It is unlikely that any single blueprint solution will emerge from the research. One of the main aims of the research is to provide solid evidence-based guidance for policy makers and programme managers. Whatever strategies are identified as most potentially fruitful, they are likely to be characterised by extensive participation of stakeholders: the affected learners, teachers and parents, Ministry employees, NGOs, UN agencies and donors. It is probable that successful solutions will be flexible ones that respond to developments in the conflict, displacement and reconstruction situations. As in other areas of refugee and IDP assistance, successful solutions are likely to 'face both ways' (Sinclair, 2002: 72), that is, they will allow displaced people options for return/repatriation or for local integration into their host communities. With those thoughts in mind, here are some possible solutions for investigation:

1. **NGOs' advocacy and negotiation with Ministries of Education, on behalf of the refugee or IDP populations for whom they provide**

educational services – This is the most frequently adopted approach. The research will examine the conditions for success of such negotiations; the effectiveness of coalitions of NGOs negotiating together; the extent to which refugees' and IDPs' concerns are reflected in the negotiations and their outcome.

2. **UN agencies' role in advocacy and negotiation with Ministries of Education** – The most appropriate roles of UNICEF, UNHCR and UNESCO will be identified, in support of NGOs' efforts and independently.
3. **Testing students upon their entry to a new school** – This is a strategy frequently adopted at local level by Ministries of Education. The research will examine the advantages and disadvantages of this approach.
4. **Working with Ministries of Education to define policy for returning refugees / IDPs or integration into the asylum countries / regions** – Definition and articulation of a clear policy, training of Ministry staff in its implementation and dissemination of its contents gives predictability and accountability to Ministry actions on certification and recognition. Such policy development can provide a framework for the negotiation of recognition of attainments of particular groups. The research will seek evidence of such policy development and identify conditions for its success.
5. **Facilitating examinations for IDPs and refugees** – NGOs and UN agencies have organised for national examinations to be provided and facilitated in camps and then corrected by markers authorised by the Ministry of Education, either of the country of asylum or the country of origin and eventual repatriation. In some situations, refugees are allowed to enrol in national schools for the examination year and thus sit the examination. This permits students to gain certificates issued by the Ministry of Education of the jurisdiction in which the students wish to have their studies recognised. The research will investigate conditions for success of this approach.
6. **Distance learning options** – Small numbers of refugee or IDP students may be enrolled in distance learning courses in their own or other countries. Such programmes may have their own internationally recognised examinations and certificates. The research will examine the effectiveness of this approach.
7. **Regional examination and certification boards** – In some regions, such boards have been established to facilitate accreditation of studies by the citizens of several countries. The mechanisms can be applied to refugees, IDPs and returnees. The research will investigate conditions for success of this approach.
8. **"Refugee Education Passport" or "Displaced Persons' International Baccalaureate"** – One idea that some practitioners have suggested is that a UN agency or agencies might develop a common international certificate, which could be issued by the UN to successful

refugee or IDP students upon completion of different stages of education. The research will consider the feasibility of this approach.

9. **International conventions** – Codifying the practices of certification, validation and recognition into instruments of international law would be the ultimate solution to these problems, providing a basis for the development of national policy and international practice. Conventions may be regional and eventually global. The research will consider the feasibility of this approach.

Useful comparative experience from the higher education sub-sector

Much more work has been done on certification, validation and recognition in the higher education sub-sector, although not specifically on the situation of refugees and the internally displaced. OECD, the World Bank and UNESCO have been active in fostering research and exchanges of experience on cross-border higher education. In recent years, joint guidelines on quality provision of cross-border higher education have been developed and adopted by some agencies. This research partnership should draw upon such lessons learned in higher education to suggest models of certification processes and potential solutions to technical and political problems outlined above.

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Exercise 4.1: Overcoming obstacles to the recognition of attainments of displaced pupils

Based on the reading above and your own experience, answer the following two questions:

1. Consider a particular population group of refugees, IDPs or returnees in the country in which you work. What are the main obstacles to recognition of their learning attainments?

2. Select two of the potential strategies and solutions outlined in the reading above. How might you implement those strategies or solutions in your particular country context?

a)

b)

Session 5: Education on HIV and AIDS in fragile states

Learning objectives

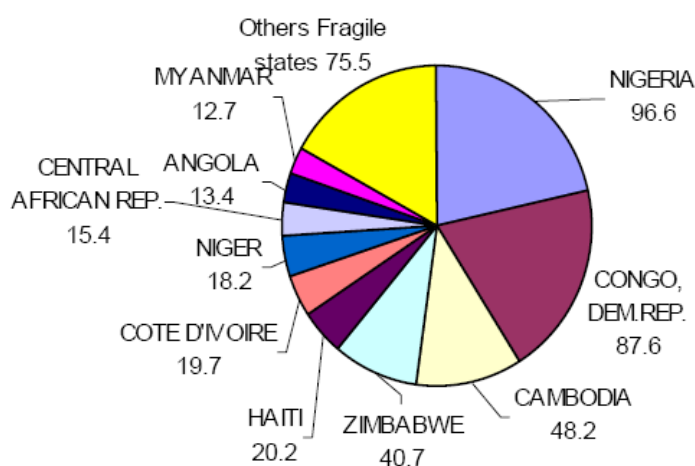
After this session, you will be able to:

- Understand why inclusion of HIV and AIDS needs to be part of education sector reconstruction efforts
- Describe the essential components of a comprehensive education sector response to HIV and AIDS in fragile states
- Analyse the challenges involved in including HIV and AIDS as part of the response, and develop strategies for overcoming these
- Identify opportunities for integrating education on HIV and AIDS in reconstruction efforts

Reading 5.1: Issues and key concepts

Policies and programmes on HIV and AIDS in fragile states may not be addressed in proposals submitted to or funded by major donors.² This may undermine effective education on HIV and AIDS.

Top Ten Fragile States: Aid in support of HIV/AIDS control, average 2003/04.
USD millions (source: OECD)



It is critical that efforts be made to ensure that children and young people have access to educational opportunities as education provides the knowledge and skills essential for the prevention of HIV, and protects individuals, families, and communities from the impact of AIDS. Education also helps to overcome the conditions that facilitate the spread of HIV, and can create the conditions of understanding and tolerance that contribute to reduced stigma and discrimination against people living with HIV.³

² Lubbers 2003

³ UNESCO 2006

To be effective, interventions need to use all educational modalities (formal, non-formal and informal⁴) and ensure multisectoral approaches to address the epidemic in an effective and efficient way.

A comprehensive educational response to HIV and AIDS in fragile states is comprised of five essential components:

- 1) Policy, management and systems
- 2) Quality education (including cross-cutting principles)
- 3) Content, curriculum and learning materials
- 4) Educator training and support
- 5) Approaches and entry points

A comprehensive response is critical – all of these five components need to be in place and working well to ensure optimal success in the response to the epidemic. At the same time, every fragile state context is different, and each programme may be at a different starting point. Staged and scaled-up implementation is necessary to prepare individuals and communities to move from a dire situation to one in which they are in charge and for which they have skills, attitudes and health for success.

Policy, Management and Systems

HIV and AIDS policies and interventions in fragile states need to be coordinated, mainstreamed and integrated with those at country and organizational levels to maximise resources and services. For example, the needs of refugees and IDPs should be an element of national education sector policies on HIV and AIDS, budgeted, and integrated into regular government plans and financial mechanisms.

National legal frameworks and policies including those that promote compulsory education and free schooling should also be applicable to educational programmes for displaced populations. If it is not possible or practical for refugees to attend host country schools, separate educational programmes need to be established in refugee camps. UNESCO and UNHCR support the application of the INEE *Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction* which state that “as part of the emergency response, education authorities and key stakeholders should develop and implement an education plan that takes into account national and international educational policies, upholds the right to education, and is responsive to the learning needs of affected populations”.⁵

⁴ As explained by UNESCO 2005, ‘formal education’ is usually provided by an education or training institution, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and leads to some sort of certification. ‘Non-formal education’ includes learning activities typically organized outside the formal education system. In different contexts, non-formal education covers educational activities aimed at imparting adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children and youth, life skills, work skills, and general culture. Such activities usually have clear learning objectives, but vary in duration, in conferring certification for acquired learning, and in organizational structure. ‘Informal education’ is learning that takes place in daily life with-out clearly stated objectives. The term refers to a lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experiences and the educative influences and resources in his/her environment e.g. family and neighbours work and play, the marketplace, the library and the mass media.

⁵ INEE 2004

Similarly, interventions in fragile states should also figure, wherever possible, in national AIDS strategies and in broader development frameworks and mechanisms, such as poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs). Education networks/ working groups can be a consultative vehicle to incorporate HIV and AIDS education into country AIDS plans by supporting coordination and information sharing among stakeholders.

Combining resources given for refugees with host country resources can provide additional support for the building and operation of primary and secondary schools, especially in rural areas. In areas where there are few schools, combining donor resources and host country resources for school construction can offer increased access to educational opportunities for refugees and host country nationals alike.

The development of policies and plans is most effective when based on timely assessments undertaken in wide consultation with affected populations and consideration of previous experience, policies and practices of affected populations. For the establishment of educational programmes in emergency settings, the INEE recommends that “a timely education assessment of the emergency situation [be] conducted in a holistic and participatory manner” and that this assessment be used to develop a framework “including a clear description of the problem and a documented strategy for the response”.⁶ To be sure that HIV and AIDS are adequately addressed, UNESCO and UNHCR support the incorporation of HIV and AIDS indicators in the situation analysis or baseline assessment and ongoing monitoring and evaluation of educational responses (examples of qualitative and quantitative measurements by population group can be found in Box 1). All data should be disaggregated by sex and age, wherever possible.

Selected HIV- and AIDS-related Indicators for Education Planning, by Population Group	
Learners	Sources of information about sexuality, reproductive health and HIV Knowledge of HIV prevention methods Median age at first sex Relationships: expectations; attitudes to sex; transactional sex; forced sex; age mixing Attitudes toward people living with HIV and AIDS
Educators	Knowledge of HIV and AIDS Attitudes towards people living with HIV, including toward involving people living with HIV in the learning environment Attitudes toward community involvement in the learning environment Training in HIV and AIDS (including pre and in-service training) Comfort with and experience of teaching on sexuality, reproductive health and HIV Extent willing to address HIV and AIDS in curriculum
Community Members	Extent to which leaders and other key groups (e.g. women and youth) are included in the HIV curriculum development process Availability of condoms and other commodities; availability and use of HIV testing services Attitudes towards HIV and AIDS education Attitudes toward people living with HIV, including toward involving people living with HIV in the learning environment

Box 1

⁶ INEE 2004:21. See also See Appendix 2 (Planning in an Emergency Situation Analysis Checklist) and Appendix 3 (Information Gathering and Needs Assessment Questionnaire)

Quality education, including cross-cutting principles

Access to a good quality education on its own, apart from anything else, is widely recognised as an effective means of reducing the vulnerability of learners to HIV and AIDS. Education must be rights-based, proactive and inclusive, with curricula and instructional approaches that are gender-sensitive, scientifically accurate and culturally appropriate. Effective learning is critical, requiring educational programmes to support reforms to address the needs at the level of the learner and at the level of the learning system. For example, at the level of the learner, education systems must acknowledge what the learner brings to the learning environment.

To ensure the quality of formal and non-formal educational services and programmes, the INEE minimum standards call for the active participation of emergency affected community members in programme assessment, planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.⁷ “Community education committees,” comprised of parents and/or members of parent-teacher-associations (PTAs), local agencies, civil society associations, community organizations, youth and women’s groups, and teachers and learners, can be key resources in many settings to prioritise and plan educational activities and develop a community-based action plan.

Efforts should also be put in place to ensure the INEE minimum standard that “learning environments are secure, and promote the protection and mental and emotional well-being of learners”.⁸ This includes working with education personnel and community members to ensure:

- Safe and secure access to educational facilities;
- Appropriate physical structure for the learning site, including adequate space, recreation and sanitation facilities (e.g. water for personal hygiene and clean latrines or toilets for males and females);
- Zero tolerance policies for violence in learning places, including codes of conduct prohibiting sexual relationships between learners and educators; and
- Linkages with health, nutrition and other social services in the vicinity to support the overall well-being of learners. This may include sports and recreation, social clubs and the promotion of mutual support networks.

Content curriculum and learning materials

The development of content, curriculum and training materials for HIV and AIDS education must consider the age or developmental level, language, culture, capacities and needs of learners and include not only prevention knowledge, attitudes and behaviours but also issues related to treatment, care and support as well as stigma and discrimination. It should also follow the INEE Minimum Standard of being “culturally, socially and linguistically relevant... [and] appropriate to the particular emergency situation”.⁹

⁷ INEE 2004: 14-19

⁸ INEE 2004: 45

⁹ INEE 2004: 56

Where curriculum development or adaptation is required, there are a number of important considerations including the curricular approach, core content, teaching and learning objectives and outcomes, pedagogical approach and instructional materials (see Box above). Wherever possible, curriculum development should be conducted with the meaningful participation of stakeholders.

Educational programmes must also consider and address the psychosocial needs and development of learners and educators at all stages of the displacement cycle, including during the crisis and in preparation for integration, settlement in the host country, resettlement in a third country, or repatriation. Educational programmes (including formal, non-formal and informal education) should not only aim to transfer information, but develop skills to help learners make informed decisions about behaviours and relationships.

Educator training and support

In order to address HIV and AIDS in their own lives and in the lives of those they instruct and mentor, educators must be provided with appropriate HIV-related knowledge, skills and resources, and be supported by institutions and communities. This includes both pre-service training and continuing professional development programmes for teachers in school settings and relevant training for non-formal educators, including peer educators, community and religious leaders, and traditional healers involved in HIV and AIDS education.

The development of training curriculum and content for educators should be based on their identified needs and may include: core knowledge on HIV and AIDS, pedagogical and teaching methodologies (including approaches for adult learning or for learners with special needs), curriculum development, psychosocial support to understand trauma related to displacement and promote healthy living, and information on conditions of work and codes of conduct. Provision should be made, wherever possible, for ongoing support, appropriate follow-up, monitoring and supervision and refresher training, as necessary.

Approaches and entry points

To ensure coverage and sustainability, educational programmes should employ a range of approaches and entry points. These can include, for example, community-based learning and outreach, school feeding and school health programmes, behaviour change communication (BCC) and information-education-communication (IEC) programmes, adult education and literacy courses, and life skills education. Extra-curricular activities that integrate HIV messages can also reinforce formal educational programmes, and can promote dialogue and discussion in culturally appropriate fora (such as community theatre, music, dance performances, and sport). The development of women's groups can also support discussions of sensitive issues such as sexual and gender-based violence, although it is important to ensure that these groups protect confidentiality so that no further suffering is caused and lives are not further endangered.¹⁰

¹⁰ UNHCR 1999

In fragile states as everywhere else, attention to equal access to education for women and girls is paramount. There is compelling evidence that more highly educated girls and women are better able to delay sexual debut and negotiate safer sex. A recent analysis of eight sub-Saharan countries showed that women with eight or more years of schooling were 47 to 87 percent less likely to have sex before the age of 18 than women with no schooling.¹¹ There is also evidence that education affects young women's choices regarding the use of condoms or abstaining from high-risk sex. Surveys in 22 countries show a correlation between higher education levels and more condom use.¹² In the DRC, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda, more educated girls and women have been found to have lower levels of HIV infection.¹³ Furthermore, higher levels of education among women are closely associated with lower infant and under-five mortality rates. Better-educated women are more likely than less-educated women to understand the importance of antenatal care, hygienic child care practices and good nutrition for themselves and their children. They are also more likely to know where to access health care and to be able to afford such care.¹⁴

Fragile state situations can change the gender balance in classrooms, with varying consequences. Sometimes insecure routes, endemic violence, household chores and care-giving demands, or low expectations of families keep girls from school. In other situations, refugee and IDP camps achieve increased participation of girls in schooling due to the proximity of learning institutions or structured incentives within the camp setting.¹⁵

The implementation of special initiatives to support and increase the retention of refugee girls and young women in educational programmes can include:

- Provision of uniforms and/or clothes
- Development of safe and gender-friendly learning environments, including separate latrines for girls and boys and the provision of sanitary materials
- Development and enforcement of a code of conduct for educational staff and students
- Use of separate classrooms for girls and boys, if culturally appropriate;
- Recruitment of trained teachers from refugee communities and of female teachers (UNHCR recommends that at least 50 percent of all teachers be female in refugee situations)
- Training of teachers on gender issues, including sexual and gender-based violence
- Facilitation of accessible and confidential access to health and community services, including psychosocial support
- Provision of training and income-generating opportunities

¹¹ de Walque 2004

¹² UNICEF 2004

¹³ Action Aid International 2006. See also UNAIDS IATT on Education 2006a

¹⁴ AGI 2002

¹⁵ Sinclair 2002

Conclusion and Recommendations

- **Coordinate HIV and AIDS education with other educational initiatives at the country, sub-country and organizational levels in order to avoid duplication of efforts and to maximize the efficacy of human, financial and material resources.** This sharing of resources helps to improve overall capacity and strengthen relationships in fragile states. Additionally, this strategy may help to increase HIV and AIDS awareness and reduce the stigma and discrimination often faced by people living with HIV. However, without adequate funding from both the international donor community and host countries, increased access to educational programmes, in particular formal educational programmes, will remain inadequate.
- **Promote the principles put forward in the Dakar Framework for Action, including the achievement of Education for All (by 2015).** The international community must strive to provide adequate and sustained support to fragile states, to provide quality education in these situations. In particular, greater emphasis must be placed on ensuring that girls have access to educational opportunities to stem the transmission of HIV.
- **Meaningfully involve communities in programme development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.** In fragile states, building trust is essential. Educational programmes developed through consultation and consensus with communities have a better chance of success than those imported and implemented directly. Consultation can take place through a committee working with the education providers to discuss how to carry out the programmes and to address concerns about sensitive issues like reproductive health, sexuality and HIV and AIDS.
- **Scale up and make programmes more comprehensive over time and across displacement phases.** Educational programmes may begin with simple community-based activities. However, efforts should be made to develop more formal educational programmes as rapidly as possible, with appropriate materials and educators who have been adequately trained. Structured educational programmes addressing HIV and AIDS should be put in place during the post-emergency or stabilization phase, and efforts undertaken to consolidate achievements and ensure a successful transition for those returning home, resettling in another country or integrating into the host country population.
- **Customise the message in consultation with the community.** Tailoring messages to the specific needs of a population is key to changing behaviour, attitudes and practices. Identified good practices and social change programmes, including HIV and AIDS programming, involve messages specifically designed for the target populations. Effective programming of HIV prevention messages, care and support activities, and stigma and discrimination reduction strategies require messages to be customized to meet local needs and to take cultural and linguistic diversity into account.

- **Monitor and evaluate programmes to guide future actions and take corrective measures when needed.** In fragile states, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) can be viewed by overworked professionals as an unnecessary distraction and a strain on limited resources. It is vital to dispel doubts and to ensure that M&E is undertaken to guide future action and take corrective measures where needed. M&E systems supply a valuable baseline reference to measure the effectiveness of programmes, and thus serve as powerful advocacy tools for successful programmes. They provide useful data which can assist in determining the best way to spend limited resources in order to achieve the best possible results. This can be especially important when developing and implementing new programmes such as HIV and AIDS education. Data collection is nevertheless invaluable to guide programming and make interventions more effective.

Exercise 5.1: Providing education on HIV and AIDS in fragile states

Three scenarios below have been developed as part of a small group exercise. Each scenario includes a specific set of instructions.

Scenario A: Schools and HIV vulnerability

You are working as a district education officer in an area with a large number of internally displaced people and refugees. As an emergency measure, makeshift schools have been set-up. Due to a lack of adequate resources, several grades have been merged into one, leading to young female students studying with older male students. Parents have complained that this has led to an increase in sexual relationships between the students. In addition, you are concerned that because of extreme poverty and other cultural factors, a significant number of the female students are exchanging sex for better grades with some of the male teachers.

Instructions

1. Read the scenario.
2. In your group, discuss the scenario and identify how vulnerability to HIV might be increased or decreased through this educational setting.
3. Discuss practical steps that you could take to reduce the vulnerability of the students to HIV infection
4. Discuss what policies need to be in place to reduce vulnerability to HIV infection and sexual violence in schools.
5. Write your answers on the flip chart

You have 30 minutes for this task

Scenario B: ensuring coverage in the context of weak government structures

You are working at the national Ministry of Education in a country with very weak government structures and consequently, a low level of public education provision. Data suggest that HIV rates are rising quickly and in response, international NGOs and faith-based organizations have started providing HIV and AIDS education in schools. A recent study suggests that this has led to an uncoordinated and piecemeal approach and that students are receiving mixed messages, especially between the NGOs and the different religious groups (Christian and Muslim). As a result, myths about condoms and HIV are becoming increasingly widespread.

Instructions

1. Read the scenario.
2. In your group, discuss the scenario and identify the challenges facing the Ministry of Education in ensuring the provision of quality HIV and AIDS education in schools
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages for the Ministry of Education to assume responsibility for the delivery of HIV and AIDS education in schools?
4. Discuss strategies for ensuring that students receive consistent and evidence-based messages
5. Write your answers on the flip chart

You have 30 minutes for this task

Scenario C: quality education and HIV and AIDS

You are the head teacher in a primary school in a fragile state. Because of poverty and weak government provision of education, class sizes range from 60-100 students per class. The two teachers who are working in the school are local para-professionals who you have trained yourself but are lacking in post-secondary qualifications. The community has been hard hit by HIV and AIDS so you want to start providing education on HIV and AIDS. A local NGO has sent some materials which are in French rather than the local language. In addition, you are worried that the materials are too graphic and one of the teachers has refused to teach them. Two local parents have recently complained that the materials will encourage students to experiment with sex.

Instructions

1. Read the scenario.
2. In your group, discuss the scenario and identify how issues around quality education affect the successful provision of education on HIV and AIDS
3. Discuss the challenges you are facing in providing education on HIV and AIDS and devise strategies to overcome these.
5. Write your answers on the flip chart

You have 30 minutes for this task

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Session 6: Conclusion: emergencies and reconstruction as opportunities for transforming access to education?

Learning objectives

After this session, you will be able to:

- Identify types of opportunities presented by post-conflict reconstruction for deep and lasting improvement of education access
- Identify the limitations of those opportunities and conditions for overcoming the limitations

Instructions

1. Read the introduction and excerpt below.
2. Read the two questions that follow and be ready to discuss them in a small group.
3. Write your group's answers in the space provided.

Reading 6.1: Opportunities for change?

Introduction

In 1999, UNICEF published an influential Working Paper, entitled *Education in emergencies and reconstruction: a developmental approach*, written by Mary Joy Pigozzi. That paper argued that education in such circumstances must not simply consist of stop-gap, short-term relief measures, but must be a development programme that seeks deep and significant change, which addresses some of the root causes of the conflicts in a country.

A vital piece of Pigozzi's argument is that education in emergencies provides an opportunity for positive change, even for system transformation. Here are some representative extracts, which set out the argument:

An emergency can provide a 'crisis situation' in which immediate change is possible. In fact it may be much easier to introduce change into education systems as a result of an emergency than in peaceful, orderly times. Emergencies can thus provide an opportunity for transforming education... (p.4)

This is a time to plan and to consider how to introduce innovations and change that will ensure that all children have access to better primary education in the long run. (p.15)

For example, one aspect of conventional education that can be changed during an emergency is that of the role of the community. Critical to real educational change is the decision to use the human resources within a community in different ways. Parents, adolescents, traditional leaders and healers, and others from outside conventional educational circles can contribute to learning, along with teachers. In this way, times of emergency can provide an opportunity to change schools from bricks and mortar to bases for community learning networks. (p.16)

Exercise 6.1: Analysing emergencies as opportunities for change

For reflection individually and within your small groups

1. What are the strengths of Pigozzi's argument, taking into consideration the various natures of emergencies, the size, geographical location and cultural identity of the affected population, etc.?
2. What are the weaknesses or limitations of the argument, taking into consideration the various natures of emergencies, the size, geographical location and cultural identity of the affected population, etc.?

Exercise 6.2: When has change occurred (or not)?

From your experience, or knowledge of other experiences, list examples of aspects of education systems being transformed, or at least experiencing major change for the better, as a result of conflict. Then list some examples where transformation did not occur. You may choose to focus on issues related to educational access and inclusion. As you write, reflect on which individuals or groups did or did not take part in the transformation process (from global to local levels) and which factors or conditions made this positive change possible or unachievable.

Where/when has transformation occurred?	Individuals or groups involved	Factors / conditions crucial for change

Where/when did transformation <i>not</i> occur?	Individuals or groups involved	Factors / conditions that <i>did not</i> facilitate change

