RAPID EDUCATIONAL RESPONSE IN COMPLEX EMERGENCIES:
A discussion document
By Pilar Aguilar and Gonzalo Retamal
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Foreword

With the fall of the Berlin Wall, the new world order has been challenged by the appearance of religious, ethnic and nationalistic conflicts marked by profound inhumanity and violence. New and old forms of intolerance have generated uncontrollable and complex emergencies. It is estimated that nearly 100 million people are caught up in a cycle of civil strife, while about 50 million of them have been forced to flee their homes. As a response to this need, United Nations Resolution 46/182 created the Department of Humanitarian Affairs in 1994. The associated policy framework defined for the first time the role and importance of inter-agency co-ordination in crisis situations. Intervention in humanitarian emergencies is now adapting to the provision of schools and adult education in order to ensure the education of the next generation.

This document is an attempt to open a dialogue among educators working in the area of complex emergencies. It recognizes that most of the newly tested educational interventions lack a long-term perspective. Education, whether for peace and reconciliation or in the reconstruction of human resources, is hardly addressed at present. The case studies described here provide a vivid account of an approach using kits. Clearly, different contexts and levels of emergency warrant different kinds of response. Thus, there is the need for further research from field experiences, especially at the levels of rehabilitation of formal education systems and curricula and of adult learning.

UNICEF and UNESCO, as well as the other UN agencies, believe in the importance of using a developmental approach from the earliest stage, of working quickly to empower communities to take the lead in identifying their own formal and non-formal educational needs and developing the response. The case studies described here will hopefully fuel a vigorous and constructive debate about a wide range of issues relating to rapid educational responses in emergency and post-conflict situations. While the field-based approaches described here do not necessarily include all the key principles and strategies which UNICEF, UNHCR and UNESCO have developed in the past, they provide a valuable set of experiences for discussion and review. We welcome this document, and the discussion it will generate between partners in improving the situation of children, youth, women and adults—victims of organized violence. Although further action is required in order to establish a strategy in the field of education for complex emergencies and refugees, what emerges as essential is increasing communication among educators in the field.

In this perspective, the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) can contribute from its modest perspective to the assessment of the actual practices and policy considerations in the area of adult and lifelong learning, including young adults, among the populations concerned. We would like to think of this contribution as a first step towards a collective effort for dialogue and a testimony for other educators and humanitarian workers.

UNHCR’s follow-up strategy to the Machel Study—endorsed by the Office’s Executive Committee in 1997—established the provision of basic education and recreation activities for refugee children and adolescents as a principal protection objective in the initial phase of an emergency. UNHCR is therefore eager to develop operational modalities and partnerships to ensure this performance objective is met to the maximum extent possible.

In this way, we hope this book will initiate a broader view of the role and impact of initial as well as further education in the perspective of lifelong learning as a practice for dialogue in the extreme circumstances of political crisis and social confrontation. We are grateful to the International Bureau of Education (IBE), especially to Mr John Fox and Ms Erin Dorsey, for having contributed to the finalization of this publication.

Paul Bélanger, Director, UNESCO Institute for Education
Nils Kastberg, Director, UNICEF/EMOPS
John Horekens, Director, Division of Operational Support, UNHCR
It is estimated that half of the world's refugees are children. According to recent statistics, the total refugee population amounted to approximately 13.2 million people at the beginning of 1997. At that date, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) provided protection and care to over 6 million refugee children world-wide.

The most fundamental challenge for any international organization wishing to mitigate the suffering of children affected by war is to ensure their very survival and well being. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), in 1996, reported that within the last decade 2 million child deaths had occurred due to war. The majority of these victims died during civil wars, indiscriminate attacks and 'ethnic cleansing', such as in Bosnia and Rwanda, where children and young adults were systematically targeted as the enemy's future generations.

The means by which children may be protected from armed conflict was the theme of a recent Graça Machel study presented to the United Nations General Assembly on the 8 November 1996.

The United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) currently maintains field co-ordination arrangements affecting populations in sixteen countries and one region. Inter-Agency Appeals reaching nearly US$9 billion have been sought to satisfy the most urgent needs of these populations.

On-going political and economic instability impede access to regular education for large numbers of war-affected children and young adults. This brochure represents an effort to consolidate a systematic response to the special needs of children from the outset of the crisis until they can attend regular basic education. It also attempts to ensure that at least minimum teaching standards have been met.

The central aim of this document on rapid educational response is to provide a practical tool, and to explain and illustrate each phase of an emergency response using mainly the UNHCR Guidelines. The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is especially highlighted since it has been adopted by UNHCR and UNESCO as a normative instrument.

- **Part One** analyses and illustrates the different phases of emergency response using recent examples of humanitarian educational interventions, including displaced, refugee and returnee situations. Examples of actual field experiences are included. In addition, further information and reading are included in the footnotes.

- **Part Two** shows how the basic core of non-formal education may be expanded to cover threats facing populations every day.

- **Part Three** presents some suggestions for the provision of temporary classrooms. The present book addresses the field practitioners and specialists (as well as non-specialists) who have to implement basic education, especially in situations of complex emergencies. It is modest in scope and does not pretend to provide all the answers to a complex reality. However, due to the increasing problem of children and young adults as victims of organized violence, systems are needed for rapid educational response. This publication intends to contribute to emergency preparedness in the field of basic education.

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Article 28: The child’s right to education

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall in particular:
   (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;*
   (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
   (c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
   (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
   (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international co-operation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 29: The aims of education

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
   (a) The development of the child’s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
   (b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
   (c) The development of respect for the child’s parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from where she or he may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
   (d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
   (e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principles set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article, and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

* = Our emphasis.
I. Basic policy instruments and framework for education in complex emergencies

Part One describes the basic policy instruments in which the rights of children and young adults to education are endorsed, including the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees. The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1989, has become one of the most useful tools to assess and advocate for the needs of children in general, including those children and young adults in war-affected countries.

I.1 The Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) has gained widespread ratification by States Parties. In 1997, almost all States had signed the CRC, which establishes that children under 18 years of age (Article 1) have specific rights without discrimination of any kind. This is particularly relevant to refugee children because it establishes broad standards and may be used as the primary basis for protecting them. However, this only applies when a State is a party to the CRC, and not to another treaty concerned with refugees. The convention tries to take into consideration all aspects of the child's life, from health and education to social and political rights. According to UNHCR’s Policy on Refugee Children (1993), the CRC ‘constitutes a normative frame of reference for UNHCR's action’ on behalf of refugee children. This section’s main focus addresses Articles 28 and 29 of the CRC, which specifically refer to education.

- Article 28 of the Convention establishes the child’s right to education. Education is recognized to be essential for all children. This Article establishes the core minimum targets for education—free, compulsory primary education for all—and different forms of secondary education and vocational guidance available and accessible to all. Higher education must be accessible on the basis of capacity.

- Article 29 describes a general consensus regarding the aims of education. In essence, it addresses learning’s basic aims: to develop children’s full potential and to prepare them for a responsible life in a free society. Furthermore, the Article advocates the rights of individuals and groups to establish educational institutions, as long as they fulfil the aims of education set out in the Article and any official minimum standards. This is particularly relevant in the context of refugee education, for which minimum standards have recently been developed by UNHCR (see Tables 1 and 2, pages 8 and 9).

UNESCO’s MEDIUM-TERM PLAN

With regard to emergency assistance, UNESCO has become a strong advocate in the international community of the idea that humanitarian assistance cannot be reduced merely to the supply of food, medicine and blankets; that there must be a close link between the concept of ‘relief’, ‘rehabilitation’ and ‘long-term development’; and that emergency operations must include from the beginning a local training component. This idea has gained ground: there is growing recognition of the principle that victims of conflicts have an equally inalienable right to education as all other human beings. UNESCO’s strategy therefore consists in endeavouring to set up temporary educational structures in emergency situations, particularly for displaced persons and refugees. There, too, the Organization’s role can only be as a catalyst: it is not so much to build schools or print textbooks as to assess priority needs, formulate strategies to meet them in conjunction with UNHCR, UNICEF and WFP and contribute to the formulation of consolidated appeals for international humanitarian assistance co-ordinated by UNDHA.

By applying Article 28.1(a) of the Convention to all children without discrimination, education must therefore be available and accessible to children who have been victims of organized violence. A State may not actively deny any child the right to an education within its territory.

Article 31 of the Convention promotes the child’s right to rest, leisure, play, and to participate fully in cultural and artistic life. Thus, there is a need to provide operational support in order to develop recreational and leisure activities at camp level and among IDP communities.

Both agencies will co-ordinate with UNESCO in relation to basic education activities.4

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I.2 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951

The right of refugee children to a public education was spelled out in Article 22 of the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees. It established that ‘the Contracting States shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education.’

There have been some examples of how field experience and educational outcomes have changed institutional strategies and programme guidelines. The Ngara experience of educational intervention for Rwandan refugees (see page 19) helped to define options in the UNHCR Guidelines. In the same vein, inter-governmental consensus among ministries of education from the Southern African region was reached in 1990 on the acceptance of using the Mozambican curriculum for refugee school children from Mozambique. The principle of ‘education for repatriation’ applied to the Mozambican refugee population in Zimbabwe and Malawi had a significant impact on the traditional interpretation of the 1951 Convention.5

I.3 Early intervention during emergencies

As education is considered crucial to the development of children, UNICEF, UNHCR and UNESCO apply the Convention on the Rights of the Child6 to their own work by using these rights as guiding principles. As described in the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, refugees and displaced persons are often an ‘underserved group’.

The present publication, although inspired largely by the earlier guidelines and institutional frameworks, also attempts

... vulnerable populations who have been victims of man-made or natural disasters.

PHOTO: EPD/WCC
to widen its potential use in problematic situations where persons have fled their homes but do not necessarily cross borders. Internally displaced persons (IDPs) and other vulnerable populations who have been victims of man-made or natural disasters are confronted with similar situations that refugee populations face.

The new political framework faced by the Post-Cold War era has forced the international community to give priority in its agenda to a new strategy for peace-keeping and humanitarian assistance. As a response to this need, United Nations Resolution 46/182 created guidelines in order to ensure an international mandate that is able to provide ‘a continuum of action from early warning prevention and preparedness to humanitarian relief and the transition to rehabilitation and development.’ However, no clear reference is made to the role education should play in complex emergencies.

This document proposes a step-by-step strategy, taking into consideration the diverse phases in the continuum from relief to development. At the same time it suggests strategies for preparedness, while highlighting some of the recent teaching experiences linked to this phased approach. Nevertheless, one of the main limitations of this proposal is the need for further research and systematic evaluation of the impact of present and past experiences of educational interventions of this kind. As explained by Aguilar and Richmond in the case of Rwanda:

The technical impact of education as a tool for changing behaviours and attitudes of an illiterate or semi-illiterate population affected by cholera or the landmine threat, and in general by the trauma of war, needs to be further assessed. This requires a specific technical knowledge where educational strategies can partially be the result of standardized logistic responses (i.e. school supplies) but also require specific cultural and linguistic adaptations that can only be developed as a rapid response by joint technical teams of local and international educators (i.e. curriculum and educational programme development).

II. Phased development of the basic education programmes

II.1. Introduction

Part Two of this document aims to provide field practitioners/managers, staff of non-governmental organizations, United Nations and other international agencies, refugee community workers, or a relevant institution of the host government, with pragmatic educational strategies for rapid educational response in a post-crisis situation. A specialist—as well as the non-specialist—should consider it a supporting document. It is believed that the strategies offered have been tested in recent emergency situations, especially in Africa, and have contributed to the overall protection of children and young adults. They are drawn from different sources; some directly related to complex emergencies and others associated with wider trends and developments.

Usually, education is perceived as a developmental initiative. Thus, it is often excluded from the ‘emergency preparedness response’. More and more, recent educational humanitarian interventions have been perceived as coherent responses serving two purposes: (a) responding to the humanitarian and psycho-social needs of affected children; (b) contributing to the future economic/human resource development of countries in crisis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY (GRADES 1 TO 6)</th>
<th>IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☑ Provide basic education (sustainable literacy/numeracy and life skills);</td>
<td>☑ Develop professional teaching skills through in-service teacher training;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☑ Meet psycho-social needs of displaced/traumatized children and adolescents;</td>
<td>☑ Update teachers on subject knowledge, psycho-social issues, and life-skills, such as health, environment, conflict resolution and human rights;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☑ Provide foundation for secondary education (high-achieving students);</td>
<td>☑ Prepare teachers for repatriation, reintegration or local settlement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☑ Prepare children/youth for repatriation, reintegration or local settlement.</td>
<td>☑ Teacher selection based on tests, or performance at ‘new teacher workshop’;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☑ Training to include pedagogy, school subjects, meeting children’s psycho-social needs, and messages regarding sanitation, health, environmental awareness, conflict resolution and human rights, etc.;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☑ Teacher training to be documented and recognized by the country of origin, if possible;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☑ In-service training for all teachers in vacations/week-ends/special days, at least ten days per year</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☑ In-school training by project education advisers and school mentors;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☑ Refugee teachers to benefit from national training programmes and vice versa, as applicable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Characteristics of the programme**

| ☑ Pre-school classes for children under 6 years not funded by UNHCR, except for materials and training; | ☑ Teacher selection based on tests, or performance at ‘new teacher workshop’; |
| ☑ School curriculum based on the country or area of origin; | ☑ Training to include pedagogy, school subjects, meeting children’s psycho-social needs, and messages regarding sanitation, health, environmental awareness, conflict resolution and human rights, etc.; |
| ☑ Language used in the schools in the country of origin; | ☑ Teacher training to be documented and recognized by the country of origin, if possible; |
| ☑ Target of primary schooling for all; | ☑ In-service training for all teachers in vacations/week-ends/special days, at least ten days per year |
| ☑ Special afternoon classes for out-of-school children/adolescents, with appropriate curriculum; | ☑ In-school training by project education advisers and school mentors; |
| ☑ Minimum of four hours/day above class 1, six hours/day after class 4; | ☑ Refugee teachers to benefit from national training programmes and vice versa, as applicable. |
| ☑ Minimum of five days a week; | ☑ Teacher selection based on tests, or performance at ‘new teacher workshop’; |
| ☑ Two shifts to increase the number of pupils who can receive schooling each day; | ☑ Training to include pedagogy, school subjects, meeting children’s psycho-social needs, and messages regarding sanitation, health, environmental awareness, conflict resolution and human rights, etc.; |
| ☑ Final examinations recognized by Education Ministry of country of origin; | ☑ Teacher training to be documented and recognized by the country of origin, if possible; |
| ☑ Community support mobilized through a community education committee or a parent/teacher association. | ☑ In-service training for all teachers in vacations/week-ends/special days, at least ten days per year |

TABLE I. Objectives for basic education in UNHCR-funded schools
II.2. Emergency situations

There is a clear relationship between emergency, rehabilitation and development. In order to ensure a smooth transition from relief to rehabilitation and development, emergency assistance should already provide ways that are supportive of recovery and long-term development. Thus, emergency measures should be seen as a step towards long-term development.1

This rationale and a selected number of case studies from emergency situations have to a large extent inspired the phased approach described in the next sections.

In addition, the 1995 UNHCR Revised guidelines for educational assistance to refugees (see footnote 3, page 5) constitute probably the most updated institutional effort to systematize one of the most important aspects of complex emergencies in the education sector. It still remains a valid instrument when dealing with general humanitarian problems.

Regarding the provision of education in complex emergencies, three phases of educational response were described in the 1995 UNHCR Guidelines:

• First phase: Recreational/preparatory;
• Second phase: Non-formal schooling;
• Third phase: Re-introduction of the curriculum.

The three phases can be presented separately for analytical and technical purposes. However, from the point of view of field programme management, especially on aspects concerning procurement, stockpiling and distribution of the educational materials and technical support, it is suggested that the first and second phases are combined.

Initially, the first emergency response, placing emphasis on the non-formal approaches, should be considered as a process that ‘avoids the technology of formal schooling, thus permitting a more diverse and flexible deployment of space, time, and materials and accepting a relaxation of personal qualifications in response to the structure of the workplace’,2 and the community living under special humanitarian situations.

The third phase should be considered within the programme scope of what UNHCR calls care and maintenance activities, or in other words, activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY (GRADES 1–6)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Materials</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Grade 1 to 4: slates, chalk, 2 exercise books;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Grade 5 to 6: at least 6 x 200-page exercise books;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— One reading and one arithmetic textbook per student;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Other reading materials in resource centre;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— At least one set of all other textbooks (50 copies) per school.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Infrastructure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>— Classroom size: about 6m x 7m;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Sanitation facilities and potable water supply in all schools;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Lockable storage room in each school;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Playground sufficient for recreational activities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Staffroom in each school;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Reading room/resource centre in each school;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Community support in site clearing and construction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Equipment</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Simple, clean seating for all students, based on local practice;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Minimum 2.5m blackboard space per class, regularly repainted;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— One portable ABC chart per class;</td>
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<td>— One portable number chart per class;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— One globe per school;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Minimum of one large map, either of the country of origin or of asylum, per school, with smaller versions in classroom for regular reference;</td>
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<td>— Laminated wallcharts in each classroom to make a supportive ‘learning environment’;</td>
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<td>— Other educational materials, as appropriate;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— One mimeograph and one laminating machine per project office;</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Sports equipment in each school;</td>
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<td>— Chair and table for each teacher.</td>
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<tr>
<th>IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Materials</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— One complete set of teaching manuals per school;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>— Materials for preparing teaching aids.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

geared towards the stabilization of educational performance. A stage of transition from non-formal to a more formalized pattern of curricula will be expected to develop as part of the process of reconstructing an educational provision or system in a society emerging from a socio-political crisis or a natural disaster.

What basically is suggested is a flexible continuum of strategies that will be adequate to preserve and maintain a security net for the psycho-social protection of the most vulnerable, and to help reproduce the basic educational skills required for their survival.

While humanitarian relief organizations stretch their efforts and their budgets to meet basic needs, education is hardly ever adequately addressed and is often the first one targeted for cut-backs during times of crisis. Incorporating well-planned and coordinated educational programmes into emergency relief efforts will stabilize the long-term benefits for societies in crisis.

Education in crisis situations:

- helps to prevent conflict and fosters a peaceful society by encouraging conflict resolution, environmental awareness, tolerance of diversity, etc;
- encourages preparedness in the pre-emergency stage by monitoring early warning signs, developing new materials and safeguarding them at an interagency level, as well as generating planning strategies to address the needs of emergency affected groups;
- serves to normalize the situation by establishing routines, thereby decreasing psycho-social stress, addressing the immediate needs and preparing for a better post-emergency society; and
- offers a window of opportunity for educational development, innovation and improvement in the transition from emergencies.

II.3. Rapid response

II.3.1. THE IMPORTANCE OF RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Rapid educational response should begin with mobilizing interested community members to initiate group activities such as games and help undertake a needs assessment.

In many emergency situations, more than 50% of the population are children and adolescents. The majority of these vulnerable groups have experienced trauma due

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THE IMPORTANCE OF RECREATION FOR CHILDREN AFFECTED BY ORGANIZED VIOLENCE

Play is the work of children. Especially during stressful times, parents need to encourage children to play. Play allows children to relate to events around them and to express these events in their own simplified way. Their participation in community activities can raise their spirits and occupy them in meaningful ways. When we realize how important play is for the development of a child, we can recognize the need for providing traumatized children with a place to play, an opportunity to play and things to play with. They can thus re-enter their development cycle, which has been so violently interrupted. It would seem that the sooner we can intervene with play in the life of a traumatized child, the sooner the child can appropriate the healing effects of the play environment and the sooner hope will re-enter the child’s world.

Throughout the emergency situation, it is important to encourage and provide recreational facilities that children need. Immensely popular are socio-cultural and recreational activities, such as musical groups, dance ensembles, art festivals, sports competitions, football games and group outings. Such activities can be organized by the teachers and community workers. These activities may, in some way, compensate for the hardships of an uprooted life and facilitate the healing process that these traumatic experiences require.

For example, in Lebanon there are a number of centres for Palestinian children and young people supported by Save the Children Fund (SCF/UK), which provide a variety of informal activities. These include sports and other activities in clubs, residential summer camps for vulnerable children and programmes for working children. Volunteers of 16-17 years of age help to run the clubs. These activities are seen as having a preventive role, bolstering cultural identity and self-esteem and providing informal support to those living in the most extreme adversity.6

Among children, play is an adaptive mechanism:


**PLAY**

Younger children will repeatedly deal with traumatic events in their play or drawings. They may make toys clearly related to the event, or act out parts or the entire traumatic event in individual and collective play. This, of course, is a way of mastering both the cognitive and emotional aspects of what they have experienced. Play can be very useful in helping the child work through bad events.

While play usually can give children some relief from feelings, especially anxiety, they are unable to get any relief from anxiety when the play is repeated anxiety. Adults need to help the child to alter the pattern of play in a way that will help the child to gain some mastery of the situation. This may be done by joining in the child’s play and altering the sequence of events, helping the child, for example, to give a different ending to the event.

Often children identify with the forces that control the dramatic events. Through play, they are able to handle fear and anxiety in their fantasy and thus change the course of events and exercise control over what is happening. At times, they take the role of those in charge, of those in power. Although play is a preferred activity of younger children, it can also be seen in adolescents. They may seek to master the trauma through written expression.

Play can also involve drawing. Through drawings, children can participate in wish-fulfilment, express feelings that are difficult to put into words, and are able to deal with a traumatic event in a symbolic manner. Role-play and singing also help represent what they have experienced.

Re-enactment of a traumatic situation is more than just dealing with the trauma in play. The traumatized child can include the same physical activity, attitudes or fears that took place right before or during the trauma. The child may also show the same physical reactions during the actual event (for example fainting, daytime wetting, cramps), and they may re-enact things that took place immediately before the event (arguing with friends or adults). Such reactions indicate that the child needs active help.
One of the earliest signs of emotional disturbance in a child is the inability to mix and play with contemporaries. In contrast, psychiatrists learn that if a child has many friends of his/her own age with whom he/she happily plays, it is unlikely that there is a great deal wrong with him/her emotionally, even if the parents have many concerns about the child.8

Expression and play can be fundamental in building resilience for the lives of children who have been the victims of armed conflict. Resilient children have the capacity to make sense of stressful and traumatic events confronting them. Helping children to understand their traumatic experiences and express them is a fundamental operating principle of successful programmes for children living in especially difficult circumstances.9

From an educational point of view, there is a sufficient amount of evidence that justifies these types of interventions. The integration of these recreational and educational activities provides a range of experiences that will offer an opportunity for all children to expand their understanding of the world and to better communicate their new knowledge. Every child is not a visual artist, but some are; every child does not find expanded meaning through poetry and traditional storytelling as children and young adults from nomadic and oral cultures do; and every child cannot represent an idea in movement and sound as naturally, for example, as children can in some African cultures. The challenge, then, is to ensure that the range of experiences is broad enough to reveal each child’s voice, and that those experiences spring from

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I have no doubt whatever that most people live, whether physically, intellectually, or morally, in a very restricted circle of their potential being. They make use of a very small portion of their possible consciousness, and of their soul's resources in general, much like a man who, out of his whole bodily organism, should get into a habit of using and moving only his little finger. Great emergencies and crises show us how much greater our vital resources are than we had supposed.

While many curricula in normal circumstances include lists of textbooks and teacher references, few of them adequately specify logistical requirements in terms of working and instructional materials, consumables and equipment, facilities, human resources, and how to estimate time for implementation and the cost. Communication materials need to be varied, effective, and interesting. If not readily available, they should be provided to teachers as part of the curriculum package.11

Semi-structured packages requiring minimal contribution by the teachers will empower children to set their own pace and become more independent. When the content and recreational activities are likely to be unfamiliar to the teacher, or to teachers in training, a need to differentiate instruction must be implemented so that a subset of them can proceed to adapt it to their new circumstances. The prompt supply of materials will help facilitate a timely response.

The materials may be available in a pre-packed form or may be assembled through local purchasing. They will provide basic recreational material for the first phase of the emergency response. Immediately, a process of identifying possible teachers will be set in motion. Most importantly, it will also create the conditions for their psychological well-being. This step may lead on to the initiation and planning of the second phase.

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The advantages of pre-packaged materials in complex emergencies are:

- they can provide the first building block to initiate the educational response in a systematic fashion (identification of monitors and teachers as well as future schoolchildren through readily available recreation and non-formal responses);
- pre-packing can provide the education sector, like other sectors, with a systematic capacity for preparedness and unit costing. By stockpiling these operational kits, UNHCR, UNESCO and UNICEF have provided community services officers, programme officers and NGOs working at camp-level in refugee affected and IDP areas with adequate materials and management tools for a rapid response in the education sector.

The actual components of the recreational kit—also referred to as ‘RECREATE’—suggested for early recreational and non-formal educational activities are shown in Figure 1 and Table 3.

I.3.2. PRODUCTION OF THE KIT ‘RECREATE’

A standard kit, associated with a standard teacher/ animator/social worker/instructor’s guide, can be produced in an estimated period of four weeks considering local and cultural adaptation. Local variations and customs (songs, folklore, dances, story-telling, amongst other things) can be adapted and/or added to the programme.

A kit was developed in Rwanda with an instructor’s guide in French and Kinyarwanda. Local adaptation to the Rwandan culture was carried out by the local NGO based in Kigali, with the technical and financial support of UNICEF.

Stockpiling, anticipation, and/or the development of a regional capacity after production of RECREATE is feasible. The basic kit consists of a resource box of sports and other recreational training materials for approximately 80 to 160 children. There are usually two to four instructors working with a group of forty children at a time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Skipping-ropes, long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Skipping-ropes, short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Volleyballs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Volleyball nets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Footballs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Balls, small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Tambourines, small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Flutes, cymbals, rattles, triangles, etc.  (depending on local culture)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Drum with drumsticks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Coloured tabards (to distinguish a team of players)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Dance costumes (depending on local culture)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Plastic skittles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pickets with flags (to mark a playing area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal or plastic trunk to contain the above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Padlock with keys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Registration book (lined, 48 pages, A5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Notebooks (lined, 250 pages, A4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher’s guide (in the local language)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Pens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Box of powdered chalk (to delimit a playing area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Handbells</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Whistles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pumps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Puncture repair outfits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tape-measure (long)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Chalk-boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tambourines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Boxes of chalk (144 sticks each)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Duffel bag to contain the above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Padlock with keys</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instructor’s guide (IG) can be used by teachers in any particular situation and should be adapted to the local reality. The development, translation (if needed) and printing of an IG needs to be planned. The IG may contain games, sports, songs, dances or other forms of recreation. A collection of traditional games and songs can be compiled quickly by a group of teachers or community workers. Often, adolescents or community workers can be trained to assist in the first phase of the rapid emergency response. (Non-formal teacher’s guide and instructional materials, see p. 25.)

Training for the use of the kit is designed to be a practical presentation of the IG and by no means sets out to be exhaustive. Creativity and imagination are part of the training process. The duration of the training should be at least one day. However, the kit must never be delivered without previous training. It should be kept together and not dispersed for personal benefit, given the risk that it could be considered by some teachers as a ‘box of goodies’. Training through meaningful and systematic activities will provide the youth with specific roles to carry out. Adolescents and community workers can be trained to assist in its use.

Another advantage of the kit is the possibility of using it for different situations (i.e. games, school tournaments, sports competitions, physical education), in camps for the internally displaced, for street children, and in unaccompanied children centres or rehabilitation centres. Once the peak of the emergency has passed, the material can continue to be part of the regular school activities or normal curriculum. By working through NGOs, teachers and community workers, the promotion of recreational activities can be considered as ‘the first building block’ for advocating peacebuilding initiatives (see page 41).

II.4. Non-formal education

Humanitarian agencies and communities should co-operate to establish non-formal education on a systematic basis as soon as possible. The content should follow the cultural and language patterns of the beneficiaries.

This section aims to describe the educational component of the emergency responses and analyzes some strategies that have recently been used by UNHCR, UNESCO, UNICEF, and other international organizations.

Non-formal education in a humanitarian setting means that pupils learn basic skills through the study of core subjects, but the courses do not necessarily lead to recognized diplomas and certificates. The involvement of humanitarian agencies during this phase is important since it discourages the dissemination of political messages to children and young adults through education. Rather, the international humanitarian community, which is supplying relief goods and funding, should insist on progressively training teachers to convey skills of co-operation, conflict resolution and reconciliation; as well as messages relating to health and to environmental awareness.13

II.5. Emergency response teaching kits and materials

Numerous emergency situations over the last twenty years have resulted in a challenge for field educators to provide an educational response during emergencies. In some situations, agencies have made a collaborative effort. The descriptions of ‘emergency response experiences’ in this section help to illustrate this aspect of the rapid educational response strategy.

II.5.1. UNESCO-PEER TEACHER EMERGENCY PACKAGE

The UNESCO-PEER (Programme for Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction) emergency programme developed a Teacher Emergency Package (TEP) in Somalia in 1993. UNESCO-PEER worked in an inter-agency context and

13 UNHCR, Revised guidelines, op. cit., p. 28.
with other agencies in developing similar emergency projects in Central, Eastern and Southern Africa.

The TEP or ‘school-in-a-box’ consists of a kit of materials and a methodology of teaching basic literacy and numeracy in the mother language of the children.

There is a box containing slates, chalk, dusters, exercise books and pencils for eighty students (in two shifts). The teacher’s bag contains blackboard paint, brush and a tape measure so that teachers can create a blackboard on a wall or plank of wood if necessary; white and coloured chalk; pens, pencils, pencil sharpeners and felt markers; three ‘scrabble sets’ of small wooden blocks so that teachers can create language and number games for the children; three cloth charts (alphabet, number and multiplication), an attendance book, a notebook and the teacher’s guide, which outlines the teaching methods and the content of lessons in order to develop literacy and numeracy (Figure 2 and Table 4, page 18).

The box is designed to cater for approximately eighty refugee children of primary age in a split-shift class situation. It does not have a formal graded curriculum but aims instead to teach functional literacy and numeracy. Where Arabic numerals and Latin script are not applicable, local versions should be purchased or created.

One advantage is that, with the box and teachers’ bag, the teacher and children may
FIGURE 2. The contents of the TEP

TABLE 4. Non-formal educational response as contained in the TEP

The UNESCO team has also developed a training programme for the implementation of TEPs based on a ‘train-the-trainer’ approach. The TEP may be procured from UNESCO-PEER’s office in Somali, Kinyarwanda, Afar, Portuguese, French and English versions. UNESCO-PEER’s current address in Nairobi is: P.O. Box 30592.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Hard slates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Slate crayons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Slate-cleaning cloths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Exercise books (lined, A4, 96 pages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Pencils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Erasers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Pencil sharpeners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Pens (blue ball-point)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Boxes of chalk (144 sticks each)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Wooden clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gameboard (depending on the local culture)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Metal or plastic trunk to contain the above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Padlock and keys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Registration/mark book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Notebook (lined, A5, 96 pages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher’s guide (in the local language)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pens (blue ball-point)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Felt-tipped pens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pencils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ruler (30cm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Erasers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pencil sharpeners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tape-measure (1.5m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
<td>Wooden cubes (2cm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Box of white chalk (144 sticks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Box of assorted coloured chalk (144 sticks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tin blackboard paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Paintbrush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Duster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chalkboard compass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chalkboard set-square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chalkboard ruler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Alphabet poster (printed cloth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Number poster 1–100 (printed cloth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Multiplication table poster 1–10 (printed cloth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Map of the home country (printed cloth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Duffel bag to contain the above</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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UN Complex Gigiri, Nairobi, Kenya. The 1997 unit cost was approximately US$140.

II.5.2 THE NGARA EXPERIENCE, 1994

As a direct consequence of the 1994 Rwanda genocide, population displacement across the border was on a massive scale. In twenty-four hours, 250,000 people crossed to Rusumo to seek safe-haven in the United Republic of Tanzania, and over 470,000 found their way to the Kagera region. At the time, it was the largest refugee population in the world, but soon afterwards the exodus into Eastern Zaire would exceed it in scale. The international community was required to mount a massive effort to try and cope with a displaced population of such proportions.15

Close inter-agency collaboration was its main and distinctive feature from the outset. It was probably the only effective mechanism to address the question of education for refugees. UNHCR, UNICEF, UNESCO-PEER and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) proposed joint support in order to provide an educational programme for the crowded refugee camps in Ngara. The Government of Tanzania agreed and approved a Memorandum of Understanding, and associated sub-agreements with NGOs, as the basis for the development of the education sector in the camps. A Memorandum of Understanding describes which organization shall be responsible for providing particular emergency services to critical refugee camps. In the case that interests us here, the main concern was which relief agency would be responsible for providing an education in each camp. The principle of ‘education for repatriation’ was adopted by all agencies concerned and the main priority was focused towards primary education.

To further explain the Memorandum of Understanding, UNHCR provided the overall co-ordination from which the Education Programme Management Unit (EPMU) was established, comprising UNESCO-PEER, UNICEF and GTZ.16 Through an Education Co-ordination Committee, the EPMU with the community services and education NGOs, coordinated the education programme. At the camp level, a Rwandan refugee Project Development Officer (PDO) was employed to supervise the operation of the schools in the camp. Each school had a director who, with an assistant called the ‘responsible’, had the task of managing the school.

An educational needs assessment was carried out by UNHCR and UNICEF early in the emergency; this greatly stimulated community interest and educational planning. The agencies concerned then planned a phased approach with the following features:

**Recreation:** Specifically in the Lumasi camp, it provided an opportunity for children, teachers and young people to come together for an agreed purpose, and to undertake some basic activities for psycho-social well-being and healing. Teamwork and organized activities were part of the programme, which also provided some opportunity to plan other parts of the education programme.

**The Teacher Emergency Package** was adopted to support the first phase of the emergency education programme in Ngara. Initially, UNESCO-PEER sent 300 kits to Ngara in readiness for the opening of schools in the camps. While Rwandan teachers had no familiarity with the proposed kit, the TEP had been translated into Kinyarwanda and adapted as necessary by UNESCO-PEER specialists, including Rwandan educators (for more detailed information on the contents of the TEP, see opposite). The introduction of the TEP methodology and teacher training always preceded the distribution of kits. Rwandan teachers regarded it as an incentive to resume educational activities. By April 1995, in Ngara/Karagwe forty schools were established in the refugee...
The TEP in use in Rwanda

Camps with an enrolment of nearly 60,000 students, all using a shift system, i.e. half the children attended in the morning and the other half attended in the afternoon. Children in refugee camps in developing countries are mainly concentrated in the first stages of basic education.

Reintroduction of the curriculum:
Delays were experienced in obtaining primary school textbooks, but efforts were made to use duplicated and ad-hoc materials in their absence (see II.7.3 ‘Set-up a low-cost production unit’, page 31).

II.5.3. THE UNICEF-UNESCO TEP PROGRAMME IN RWANDA

In July 1994, UNICEF and UNESCO, in the form of its Programme for Education for Emergency and Reconstruction, decided to join efforts to set-up a rapid educational response both inside Rwanda and in the refugee camps. The inter-agency collaboration had already been initiated in May 1994, with the translation and adaptation into Kinyarwanda of the teacher’s guide and other educational materials contained in the Teacher Emergency Package, that
had already been developed by PEER for its Somali programme.

This early-stage co-operation between the two agencies facilitated the conceptualization, development and implementation of emergency education intervention. ‘An unusual, perhaps, unique degree of close inter-agency collaboration was quickly achieved and subsequently sustained, built on team work, shared aims and objectives, mutual support, and complementarity of roles.’¹⁷

The reconstruction of the national education system started with the implementation of the TEP—or school-in-a-box—as a ‘mobile classroom’. The TEP model was, for the first time, tested on a nation-wide scale. The strategy devised by the UNICEF-UNESCO emergency education programme, in collaboration with the Ministry officials, was based on a phased approach in order to re-establish the education system.

The first phase aimed at rebuilding the almost non-existent infrastructure in order to re-open schools and start reintegrating teachers and children. UNICEF finally provided 9,000 TEPs to meet the initial needs of nearly 720,000 primary school-children, as well as for the teachers in training. There were more than 11,000 teachers trained in the use of the TEP, which represented about 60% of the former primary school teaching force.

The second phase focused on the normalization of the education system in terms of provision of textbooks, teacher’s guides, and regular school supplies, plus the reconstitution of the infrastructure of educational administration services provided by the ministries and the prefectures.

Awareness campaigns (mine awareness and health messages regarding cholera) were conducted at a prefecture level, with the participation of teachers, local community authorities, and so forth. Specific teaching packages in Kinyarwanda for mine and cholera awareness were integrated into the basic literacy and numeracy core of TEP.

II.5.4. TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN RWANDA, 1994–95

In order to re-open the schools, the government used TEP materials and associated teacher training (of a two-day duration).

The first day of training included basic teaching theory and a demonstration of TEP methodology. The second day focused on practical teaching skills for literacy and numeracy using the didactic materials of the educational activities suggested in the TEP, as well as the teacher’s guide.

A training-of-trainers system was set-up in each of the communities using a ‘cascade’ approach, in order to respond to the urgent training needs of Rwandan teachers. The cascade approach means that the trained teachers were required, in their turn, to train their colleagues.

¹⁷ Aguilar and Richmond, op. cit.
A core group of twenty-one national trainers, divided into teams of four or five, were sent out to the eleven prefectures. Each commune was represented by two primary school-teachers who, in turn, trained the other teachers in their own communes. Since it was the first systematic activity to take place at a community level, the emerging local authorities were present in all the training sessions, i.e. district and local supervisors, headmasters, church representatives and local government authorities. It was particularly noticeable that less than 10% participating in the training were women teachers.

II.5.5. NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL RESPONSE

Curricula need to be ‘packaged’ when more than one artifact is provided. As implied above, a minimum package contains something for the student and something for the teacher. More frequently, however, numerous other materials are provided. These materials may provide different instructional methods, or different individual tasks, and may use different formats and media for instruction. For instance, one package may provide a student with a text, a workbook, or set of worksheets co-ordinated...
Phased development of the basic education programmes

NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL RESPONSE

General objective:
To provide children with basic literacy, numeracy and life-skills education pending restoration of normal schooling.

Specific objectives:
• to supply children with basic writing and reading materials in their language of instruction;
• to provide teachers with basic teaching instruments and training;
• to strengthen community-based schooling initiatives.

Activities:
• to develop, produce/stockpile educational teaching kits and materials;
• to identify and/or adapt non-formal educational materials in the teaching language of the community;
• to identify teachers and train them in the use of available materials and teaching aids;
• to co-ordinate teachers and NGOs in order to mobilize parents and youth for the development of basic schooling at community, displaced and refugee camp level.

Educational supplies: The main feature of the kit should be its solidity, capacity for easy stockpiling, and transportation (experience shows that, in the case of Somali, Afar and Rwandan refugees, educational kits were part of the items that the refugees took care to take back with them when they were repatriated). The site of the schools may be moved frequently in the middle of the school programme. Therefore, it is imperative to keep the materials safely in their box.

Replenishments and/or local supplement-ed materials will be needed urgently and according to the kit’s estimated span of use (average of four months). Immediate steps should be taken to budget for and to procure the educational materials, books, and equipment specified on page 18.


In the light of the pervasive levels of trauma exposure, grief reactions and emotional distress in the aftermath of the genocide, the core group of national trainers participated in a third day of training to raise awareness about the impact of psychological trauma among children. This activity followed the two-day teacher training that was developed nationally for the introduction of TEP. A six-page training guide for understanding basic trauma theory, identification of trauma symptoms in children of different ages, and guidelines for methods of verbal and physical expression was provided to the sixty teachers that participated in the initial training. It was expected that a core group of these teachers would continue to train other teachers in both the TEP methodology and trauma awareness at the prefecture level, following a ‘cascade’ approach into the communes.

From a psycho-social perspective, this trauma intervention was designed to acknowledge the need to normalize children’s daily life, which was often symbolized by the re-opening of primary schools, re-establishing previous school routines, and providing educational materials to pupils and teachers.

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19 Article 39 of the CRC states that all children have the right to psychological recovery and social reintegration in situations of armed conflict.

II.5.6. NON-FORMAL TEACHER’S GUIDE22 AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The teacher’s guide is a tool for helping the teacher present the curriculum. Usually a guide is designed for use with a specific textbook. Sometimes, however, guides are independent from the text material and contain sufficient background information, activities, questions and lesson plans for teaching limited topics, such as soccer, songs, landmine and water-borne disease awareness, or environmental issues, etc. A teacher’s guide is not a textbook for students.

Some educationists have aimed at presenting an instructional sequence that is both effective and reproducible. Accordingly, their guides support the idea of a ‘teacher proof’ text by which the teacher is relegated to making an initial presentation of material using pre-specified scripts and to monitoring pupil responses from a list of acceptable answers.

Distribution of supplies to children under the supervision of untrained teachers in emergency situations will result in wastage of the equipment and lack of effective educational activities. Thus, some form of basic teaching guidelines and related teaching aids, such as chalkboards, maps, arithmetic and literacy charts, and so forth, should be provided with the non-formal kit. The lack of these basic guidelines and teaching instruments will render community and camp-level teacher training purely rhetorical.

The involvement of international educators, in-country educationists and education authorities, and possibly writers/translator, will normally be appropriate either in adapting or developing teacher’s guides.

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EMERGENCY RESPONSE EXPERIENCES

TEP FOR ANGOLA, 1996

UNESCO-PEER and the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), in an effort to respond to the educational needs of Angolan returnees (returning refugees and displaced persons), devised a TEP programme in collaboration with the Ministry of Education. The TEP for Angola21 programme was built on the lessons learned from the previous Somali and Rwandan experiences. It consisted of a revised and enriched training manual with model lessons in Portuguese and/or national languages (primarily Kikongo), and with practically the same school supplies that composed the earlier TEP emergency response. This non-formal educational programme was addressed basically to children and adolescents in rural communities who had been deprived of access to basic educational services and/or had to abandon schooling due to civil war. Many rural communities actively participated in establishing ‘TEP schools’ in their villages. UNICEF is now participating in this programme in other regions of the country.

One of the main innovations of the TEP for Angola programme was the in-service teacher training that was expanded to three weeks in order to introduce the enriched teacher’s guide and to meet the needs of the teachers, many of whom had limited formal education. Another innovation, following the success of the NRC-TEP programme in one District of Angola, was when the Ministry of Education adopted the same methodology in order to provide in-service training to upgrade teachers working within the formal primary education system.

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II.6 Implementation procedures, emergency phase education (see Figure 5)

Once the needs assessment is completed and if this information reveals that no conditions do exist for implementing formal schooling, the following steps are suggested.

Production, stockpiling and capacity for distribution of educational kits should be established. The field manager, in co-ordination with implementing partners, should proceed to the identification of potential teachers among the affected community. Technical advice and training will be necessary in order to prepare a programme for distribution of the recreational kit and non-formal education. After in-service training of the identified teachers, the implementation of recreational and the non-formal literacy and numeracy programmes may be initiated. At this stage supplementary educational packages on landmines, pressing health issues, psychological trauma, etc., could be integrated into the educational process. (See the section on Supplementary survival packages, Part III, p. 33.)

II.7 Reintroduction of the curriculum

It is highly recommended that schooling is as much as possible built on the basis of a core curriculum and educational materials that are familiar to the teachers and students.

II.7.1 A NORMALIZED CLASSROOM SITUATION

As noted earlier, the improvement of basic education is of great importance for UNHCR, UNICEF and UNESCO at all times, regardless of whether affected communities are in the earliest stages of an emergency or in a long-standing asylum situation. Objectives and minimum standards for UNHCR-funded schools23 should be implemented in the case of refugees.

This phase refers to a normalized classroom situation, where schools try to operate a normal timetable, incorporating most school subjects and using textbooks. Ideally, in refugee situations, the curriculum and language of instruction should be that of

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23 UNHCR, Review of UNHCR's refugee education activities, Geneva, Inspection and Evaluation Service, June 1997, p. 13. A draft proposal for these standards is at present being considered for a revised version of the UNHCR emergency handbook.
the refugees’ country or area of origin. Sometimes this is not the case and refugees have to follow the curriculum of the host country, e.g. Sudanese refugees in Northern Uganda and Kenya. Experience shows that in some situations where refugee children were forced to follow the country of asylum curriculum, it resulted in negative consequences for their future integration back into regular schools and educational development. For example, Mozambican refugee children who followed the national syllabuses of Swaziland, Zambia and Tanzania, had to learn Portuguese in order to resume schooling in Mozambique. Similarly, the use of the Sudanese curriculum for Eritrean and Tigrean refugee children in Eastern Sudan limited the participation of refugee children in UNHCR funded-schools and, indeed, a parallel non-formal system in the mother-tongue was established by the refugees themselves.

II.7.2.VARIOUS EXPERIENCES

In addition, specific topics that are essential to the question of education in order to raise awareness among children and parents victims of armed conflicts are being considered as pilot programmes in Kenya and the Republic of Kyrgyzstan:

• Reference is made to the Environmental Education Programme that is part of a pilot project in Kenya (REEPP-Kenya).24 Three pupil-books, levels 1, 2 and 3, and a teacher’s guide have been developed as part of the on-going Kenyan school curriculum in association with UNESCO-PEER.

• Peace Education Programme. A teacher’s resource book has recently been drafted to introduce or reinforce concepts related to peace education. The programme aims to be part of the normal school curriculum, and after-school or enrichment activities.25

• Education for Tolerance. In the Republic of Kyrgyzstan the Tolerance Education Programme was developed and funded by UNHCR with full support of the Government.26 A teacher’s guide and four storybooks, plus a general introduction to the teaching of tolerance, have been produced as part of a series of books. The programme is used with students from Grade 6 and above.


26 Simon Jenkins, Teachers’ guide for the teaching of tolerance, UNHCR-Kyrgyz, 1996.
‘At present,’ as Boubacar Camara says, ‘unaccompanied children, orphans, minors with physical and sensorial handicap or children suffering diverse traumatisms, are in urgent need of a multiple assistance; especially in relation to rehabilitation and integration.’

This pilot project is developing an integrated approach to education. The promotion of educational opportunities for the rehabilitation of vulnerable children is directly linked to the achievement of the following objectives:

- To put at the disposal of the education system adequate educational instruments for integrated special educational activities.
- To reinforce the national capacity for training and management in aspects concerning special educational needs.
- To promote local and community based rehabilitation initiatives in favour of children victims of war.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE EXPERIENCES
SOMALIA: REINTRODUCTION OF THE CURRICULUM, 1993-95

By 1990, probably the most successful of the past Somali educational efforts was the development of a curriculum for basic education and the design, production, and publication of textbooks, and related teacher’s guides by the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), Mogadishu. This Centre became the de facto curriculum development department of the Ministry of Education, operating with financial autonomy made possible by the permanent support of external sources.

At that time, the World Bank estimated that, in order to cover the needs of the basic education enrolment, a total of 2.6 million textbooks and 100,000 teacher’s guides had to be produced within a period of five years. Just for the delivery of the first batch of about 300,000 textbooks in 1990, a budgetary allocation of US$1,139,600 was sought.

The teaching materials developed by the CDC had virtually disappeared during the civil war. The acquisition of existing textbooks and teacher’s guides has been a protracted and expensive exercise. UNESCO staff recall fights with merchants in Mogadishu’s Bakara market to recover textbooks whose pages were being used to wrap goods.

Since February 1993, a team of ex-CDC writers and designers began to work on the recovered textbooks/teacher’s guides in the PEER Educational Development Centres (EDCs). A set of twenty-five titles and related teacher’s guides, covering the syllabus of grades 1-4, have been re-edited and, in some cases, re-written. The editing consisted of correcting obvious errors, removing political references in deference to the changed and sensitive political context, and, where needed, writing complete pages. As many as ten teacher’s guides could not be recovered and had to be rewritten. The layout was done anew in an attractive and handy A5 size for all textbooks.

A consortium for developing a partnership with seven NGOs, UNICEF and UNHCR working in Somalia and in the Somali refugee camps in the region was established under the technical supervision of UNESCO-PEER. After an initial print of 152,000 textbooks, several revisions were adopted and currently a fourth printing is in progress, which is totally financed by the European Commission-Somalia Unit. This printing includes not only textbooks for Somalia, but also textbooks specially edited for use in Northwest Somalia.

Although syllabi existed for Grade 5, textbooks and teachers’ guides were non-existent and had to be written anew, with the exception of the environmental education textbook and teacher’s guide which were recovered. Currently, PEER is preparing these 5th grade materials for press, and as no textbooks and teachers’ guides exist for higher grades, a co-ordinated and systematic writing of them is being carried out in each of the EDCs. Textbook writing workshops are conducted in different parts of the country. As there is no textbook authority or curriculum development centre likely to come into existence soon, UNESCO-PEER and UNICEF are the agencies in Somalia that can co-ordinate these activities. Unlike the textbooks that had to be printed in bulk using offset printing facilities abroad, teacher’s guides have always been printed on demand, a few hundred copies at a time, in the low-cost printing facility that is part of the EDCs in Mogadishu, Baidoa and Hargeisa. In addition to textbooks and teachers’ guides, Somali storybooks for children have been jointly published by UNESCO-Somalia and Longman for use in schools and in non-formal educational situations.

Although textbooks are frequently revised and updated, there is a great demand in Somalia, called for the production of textbooks. A set of English primers has been developed especially for Somalia. For use by SOMOLUM teacher trainees and students at the secondary level, English textbooks that were prepared for Somali schools by the erstwhile Ministry of Education have been published by PEER.

The textbooks printed so far could only be distributed following a 1:6 textbooks/students ratio. Efforts are being made to increase the supply of textbooks and arrive at a more educationally acceptable distribution ratio of one complete set per two children in 1996. Schools have boxes to store the textbooks overnight and issue them during class hours.
The pilot experience has developed a ‘train the trainers kit’\textsuperscript{28} that provides basic instruments for training teachers in the task of creating the integrated approach in the teacher-training school’s pilot integrated classrooms. The kit includes: a model teacher’s guide, a video and a book describing the aims and first practical results of the project, as well as follow-up instruments for the students. There are also other materials to be used by a team of \textit{Professores-animadores itinerantes}. Their role is to train teachers and promote the integrated approach in selected schools at the urban and rural levels.

Other experiences that require some form of structured curriculum developed for groups with special needs outside the refugee and humanitarian educational sphere may serve as models for planning and implementing the educational programme in complex humanitarian interventions.

Among these are: the mobile tent school in the Philippines,\textsuperscript{29} the Kejar or catch-up strategy in Indonesia, or specific Child-to-Child experiences such as the Malvani project in Bombay and the experiences of Botswana and Zambia.\textsuperscript{30} Furthermore, over the last three decades, package innovative approaches have been developed and tested in different cultural environments at country level, such as IMPACT and the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee in Asia, \textit{Escuela Nueva} in Latin America and ZINTECH in Africa. While there is considerable value in taking stock of these established experiences and packages, there are a number of reasons why they cannot be strictly imitated. For instance, they are culturally specific, they were created under special historical circumstances, and they all require new and innovative materials that demand medium-to long-term curriculum development and teacher-training strategies.\textsuperscript{31}

\section*{II.7.3. SUGGESTED IMPLEMENTING PROCEDURES FOR REINTRODUCING THE CURRICULUM}

Before commencing the assessment of basic educational needs of refugee or IDP communities, an appropriate implementing partner or partners (IP) should be identified. The role of the IP is primarily to facilitate communities in organizing and managing their own schools. A step-by-step flow chart is included to suggest a systematic task-oriented process based mainly on experiences implemented in Ngara, in Rwanda, in Somalia, in Somali refugee camps and elsewhere (Figure 6).

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{Figure6.png}
\caption{Step-by-step flow chart for reintroducing the curriculum.}
\end{figure}

\textbf{It should be noted that this process must be considered only as a suggested guide and by no means constitutes a definite model. While each situation is unique, experience reveals that some general characteristics are repeated.}

The following checklist, that could take the form of a questionnaire, should be covered for the initial assessment of basic education needs:

- **Number of school-age children** (6-18) requiring to be enrolled in basic education (boys; girls; total). In case the capacity of the school(s) will not initially satisfy the demand, consider how best to select the children who will be admitted first. Explore the possibility of double shifts.

- **Classrooms**: If necessary, locate sites for refugee/IDP schools and procure emergency construction materials. Involve the community on clearing sites and construction. Consider the possibility of adding temporary classrooms onto existing schools to accommodate refugee children where possible. Assess stockpile capacity of tented schools (see Part IV).

- **Teachers**: Identify number of teachers (qualified, non-qualified, gender, numbers). Remember to ensure the recruitment of female teachers—50% if possible—with a female headteacher or deputy headteacher in each school.

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• Depending on the situation, other questions may be considered, i.e. illiteracy of parents; existing skills within the community (carpentry, masonry, sewing, etc.) and so forth.

• When the curricular materials are not readily available, it is necessary to recover a set of textbooks and teacher’s guides. Some places to start looking are: within the refugee or local community, among teachers, parents or women’s groups. This is relevant for future reprinting of materials, if it is not possible to purchase them from the Ministry of Education.

• **Set-up a low-cost production unit.** The device of a production capacity unit under the responsibility of an IP appears as a vital tool for the reproduction of educational materials, i.e. textbooks, posters, brochures, leaflets, teacher training materials, and so forth. It can also be used for the production of materials for other sectors, such as health campaigns, nutrition, water and sanitation, hygiene, etc. The Ngara experience developed a similar capacity revealing that the production unit becomes cost-effective when it serves other sectors. Also, in order to make this production unit operational, infrastructure and personnel will be needed (see box, page 32). All education programmes will require some materials production capacity of this kind.

• When home country materials are available, there may be a need for revision of textbooks, to be carefully carried out by a group of specialists. There may be a need to revise the contents of textbooks and teacher’s guides, leaving out politically sensitive contents or possibly illustrations that may not be acceptable to the educational authorities in the country of asylum (e.g. maps, etc.) or to the refugees themselves. The same applies to IDP communities. In the case where the original teacher-training materials cannot be found, new ones should be developed. UN and NGO management should review the scope for co-operation with the educational authorities in the country of origin regarding the refugee cases.

• Upgrade the **supervisory and evaluation network** at camp or community level.

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**FIGURE 6. Suggested implementing procedures for reintroducing the curriculum**

A distribution system should also be created for the allotment of textbooks, teachers’ guides and other materials.

• **Recognition of studies** undertaken in the country/area of asylum need to be negotiated on behalf of the refugee community with the Ministry of Education of the country of origin for eventual repatriation.
SUGGESTED PROTOTYPE PRODUCTION UNIT

Essential equipment:*  
• Copy-printer (Gestetner) with a production capacity of 120 pages per minute. Current cost: = US$4,800;  
• Desktop editing capacity (one computer, one scanner and one printer). This can be connected on line with the copy-printer. Current cost: US$3,000 to 4,000;  
• Consumables (paper, ink cartridges, etc.);  
• Photocopier (small sturdy Gestetner);  
• Generator (5-8 kva), US$5,000;  
• Personnel to run the Production Unit: 1 production manager; 1 machine operator; 1 graphic designer; 1 secretary (with good knowledge of English and/or French, as required, as well as his/her mother language).

Usually the firm that sells the products also provides the training for operating the equipment. The reason that Gestetner is suggested is because of its proven reliability in similar operations. The Production Unit personnel can be trained by one specialist familiar with the scheme.

* The stated costs are based on 1997 estimates from the UNICEF-Supply Unit in Copenhagen.
Around the basic core of non-formal responses (RECREATE and REDUCARE), important subjects or 'emergency themes' are crucial in order to heighten awareness of the affected populations and especially for the children and youth who have been victims of armed conflicts. The research and assessment of these 'generative themes' are an important part of the dialogue between the educators and the populations affected by the humanitarian crisis. These contents constitute the foundation for developing a basic safety net of knowledge and understanding for these populations that are confronted with extreme situations, and the daily threat of landmines, cholera, water-borne diseases, and/or the degradation of the environment. These 'themes', as Paulo Freire called them, link the message with the actual condition of and the causes that created the humanitarian crisis. They are the concrete 'hinges' for opening the door towards a more complex reflection about peace and reconciliation.

In the words of Paulo Freire:

If the educational programme is dialogical, the teachers also have the right to participate by including themes not previously suggested (by the affected population). I call the latter type of theme 'hinged themes', owing to their function. They may either facilitate the connection between two themes in the programme unit, filling a possible gap between the two; or they may illustrate the relations between the general programme content and the view of the world held by the people.¹

The theme of becoming aware about the horror of war, the desire for peace and reconciliation, can be 'generated' from the active realization of the perils left by these confrontations, such as land mines, cholera, famine, HIV/AIDS, etc.

III.1 Mine-awareness education

The United Nations estimates that over 3 million landmines have been laid in Bosnia and Herzegovina (hereafter referred to as Bosnia) during the four-year civil war. The expensive, time-consuming and dangerous process of demining has already begun. However, now that the conflict has ended there still exists a dire need for land-mine awareness, to help protect the population. The legacy of landmines continues long after the peace accords have been signed. They lie and wait for their victims—unable to discriminate between a soldier on a military mission, a farmer harvesting his crops, or a child at play.

Statistics from other countries demonstrate that landmines pose an extreme post-conflict danger. For example, in Cambodia, one person out of 236 has been mutilated by this type of weapon; in Angola, 1 out of 470; in the northern part of Somalia, 1 in 1,000; and in Viet Nam, 1 in 2,800. Bosnia has one of the densest mine distributions in the world—over 100 land mines deployed per square kilometer. The potential devastation caused by mines in Bosnia could be similar to or worse than the situations in Cambodia and Angola.

Aside from the solution of long-term demining, the short- and medium-term efforts must focus on mine-awareness education—targeting the most significantly affected groups. This requires a special effort to develop better and more effective educational programmes.

Children are the most unprotected victims of land mines. Their natural curiosity and love of play in open areas leaves them highly vulnerable to mines. Children are less likely to survive a mine explosion because they are usually closer to the centre of the blast, and their small bodies cannot survive the loss of blood. Over 50% of mine victims die from the blast,

¹ Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the oppressed, London, Pelican Books, 1985, p. 92 Also see the concept 'generative themes'. In Freire's words: 'I have termed these themes “generative” because (however they are comprehended and whatever action they may evoke) they contain the possibility of unfolding into again as many themes, which in their turn call for new tasks to be fulfilled.'
while the rest are permanently and/or significantly disabled. Building a healthy post-conflict society necessitates equipping its youngest members with the essential knowledge of how to live safely amongst mines.

Some of the earliest programmes that teach mine-awareness education were developed by the International Rescue Committee, the University of Nebraska, and other cross-border agencies operating in Pakistan/Afghanistan, in the late 1980s. The curriculum formulated for the land mine-awareness programme (LMAP) was based on information collected from questionnaires and from conversations with deminers working in Afghanistan. Educational kits were produced, along with cloth

![FIGURE 7. Emergency themes developed from the basic core](image-url)
posters showing the different types of mines most frequently found in Afghanistan.

A similar programme, based on the Afghan one, was introduced into refugee camps on the Thai/Cambodian border in 1990. Once again, a questionnaire was developed and used to collect information to help structure the curriculum for a LMAP. The questionnaire was specifically adapted to the Cambodian context. Additional questions were inserted relating to more technical, mine-related matters, such as identifying and avoiding land mines. As a result of the responses from the questionnaire, changes in the programme’s design were made, thus leading to a flexible LMAP and curriculum.

As the full extent and horror of the mine crisis in Cambodia were recognized, it became increasingly evident that there was an urgent need to provide mine-awareness education and that it was essential to have a well-developed curriculum to deliver such a programme. By 1994, three organizations operating in Cambodia began using the same curriculum and mobile training teams to teach mine-awareness education.

Several problems were identified and lessons learned from experiences with early LMAPs:

- Early programmes tended to focus more on technical information:
  - the physical dangers posed by mines;
  - types of areas where mines were most likely to be found;
  - identification of mines;
  - indicators of the presence of mines;
  - mine avoidance techniques; and
  - what to do in a mined area.
- Programmes were not community based. Often, LMAP educators went into a community, presented their material (with little or no input from the community) and left.
- Curricula were neither interactive, nor age and/or gender appropriate.
- There was (and still is to some extent today) a lack of co-ordination and sharing of information amongst agencies and organizations working in this area.
- In some countries, there is still a need for programmes to be more culturally sensitive and adaptive or flexible, if they are to be effective.
- Regular and ongoing monitoring and evaluation of LMAPs have not been carried out. So, although it is well established that many people have had access to programmes, it is very difficult—if not impossible—to assess the success and impact of the programmes. Traditionally, teaching mine awareness in schools has been complicated by rigidly imposed syllabi. In order to implement the lesson plans in a shorter time period the information had to be condensed. While this approach added another subject to an overcrowded syllabus, it was short, and often was linked to the country’s demining operations. Thus, mine awareness was integrated with local demining operations and not into the school system—still the case for most LMAPs around the world. This is partly attributed to the fact that LMAPs are usually conceived and developed by those who know the most about mines—deminers, and those who deal with mine victims, such as medical personnel. Only recently have national governments accepted that mines will not be cleared quickly and that there is a need to address this long-term problem.
EMERGENCY RESPONSE EXPERIENCES

MINE-AWARENESS IN AFGHANISTAN

Many schools in Afghanistan have been affected by landmines. Some school areas have been cleared, while others remain mined. In the Afghan capital of Kabul, twenty-five schools were heavily mined. Students could not attend these schools in fear that one wrong step might kill them. However, most of these schools were cleared by the deminers of the Afghan Mine Action Programme during 1996 and 1997. As a result, students in Kabul city are now being taught how to avoid mine incidents in these schools.

Still, there are other schools in Afghanistan that are in need of demining. Here are a few we have identified for this project:

**Sufikarim Primary School** is located in Pakita province (eastern Afghanistan) but is presently closed due to mines and destruction of the premises. This school used to provide an education to children from three villages (each with about 300 people). The school is surrounded by 26,000 sq.m. of minefield, which poses a major risk to the children. One demining team could clear this area in approximately one month.

**Alikhiel Secondary School** is also located in Pakita province (eastern Afghanistan) and has some 250 students. Children attending classes range from 5-16 years old. One-third of these are in the 7-10 age group and are usually accompanied at school by their older brothers and sisters. Located on two sides of the school are approximately 14,000 sq.m. of anti-personnel minefield, hence posing a major risk to the children. Several children have already fallen victim to the ever-present menace of mines. Demining teams have recently cleared a footpath to the school. Further work should be carried out by one demining team in the near future.

**Sikander Khiel High School** is also located in Pakita province (eastern Afghanistan) but is presently closed due to mines and destruction of the premises. The school used to provide education to some 500 children from 400 families in the area. The school has some 2,500 sq.m. of minefield in and around it. One demining team could clear the area in approximately one month.

SOURCE: globalschoolbus@un.org

Taking into consideration the above-mentioned concerns, UNESCO designed, in co-ordination with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Somalia, and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) in Rwanda, a mine-awareness campaign (MAC) which has been used in both Somalia and Rwanda. This campaign utilizes a non-formal methodology aimed at schools and young people in their community. The MAC consists of an instructional package that facilitates the training of teachers, as well as a video for public education, and a ‘road show’ in order to bring the educational message to remote, hard-to-reach areas that do not receive the school-based message. Building on these successful programmes, UNESCO/IBE (in co-ordination with UNHCR and UNICEF) designed a mine-awareness education package (MAEP) to meet the need for mine awareness in Bosnia.²

An inter-agency strategy for mine-awareness education must promote the idea that schools have a responsibility to teach chil-

² Retamal and Aedo Richmond, op. cit., chapters 9 and 13.
IV.2 Cholera awareness and waterborne diseases

In many humanitarian crisis settings, the provision of clean accessible water and ideal sanitation facilities are not within the community’s reach. Waterborne diseases, especially cholera, a bacterial infection causing diarrhoea and dehydration, constitute by far as the main killers in refugee and IDP situations. Nevertheless, refugee

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**KEY POINTS FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION ABOUT CHOLERA**

To prevent cholera:
- drink only water from a safe source or water that has been disinfected;
- cook food or reheat it thoroughly, and eat it while it is hot;
- avoid uncooked food unless it can be peeled;
- wash your hands after any contact with excreta and before preparing or eating food;
- dispose of human excreta promptly.

Remember:
- with proper treatment cholera is not fatal;
- take patients with suspected cholera immediately to a health worker for treatment;
- increase the quantities of fluids given to patients;
- cholera vaccination is not effective.

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An anti-cholera poster

and other affected communities and individuals can still adopt improved hygiene behaviours, which can lead to better health. They can also work gradually to improve their sanitation and water facilities. The population’s level of health cannot improve unless those affected by cholera are treated. Education for awareness means helping individuals, families and communities become aware of the links between poor hygiene and disease. It also means encouraging and helping people to improve those attitudes which, when changed, will lead to a reduction in disease. Hygiene education will assist households and communities in discovering ways to design and construct their own facilities, in order to improve and rebuild their community, thus keeping the most important factor of disturbance and fear under relative control.5

It is not sufficient simply to provide hygiene education and then expect a community to accept and use the sanitation technology provided. This should be the first element in informed decision-making and empowerment by the communities themselves, in order to tackle the causes of cholera and other diarrhoeal diseases. This will involve giving the community opportunities to participate in decision-making, particularly the selection of the sanitation technologies that are most appropriate to their cultural customs and to their actual daily realities.

III.2.1. PREVENTING THE SPREAD OF AN OUTBREAK

People contract cholera from drinking water or eating food contaminated with cholera. Prevention is based on reducing the chances of ingesting vibrios. When cholera appears in a community, efforts must be intensified in order to promote sanitary disposal of human waste, the provisions of safe water, and to ensure safe practices in handling food.

Health education is the key to public awareness and co-operation. The quickest way to control an outbreak is to mobilize the people in order to help limit its spread. Experienced teachers, community workers and health educators therefore play an important role in epidemic control. Community and service organizations can also be useful in disseminating health messages through their programmes.

It is particularly important to inform people that, in most cases, cholera can be treated with simple measures; vaccinations are not effective. There is no substitute for drinking only safe water, practising good personal hygiene, and making sure that food is properly prepared.6


III.3. Environmental awareness

Refugees, returnees, IDPs and populations victimized by war suffer greatly from the environmental damage to their surroundings. They endure threats to their health from chemical and faecal contamination of water, soil and air, as well as overcrowding, dust and smoke. The effects of environmental degradation harm women and children disproportionately, particularly those effects connected with gathering of wood for fuel. Women and children must spend long hours seeking and carrying wood, entailing increased exposure to assault. As a result, children are also forced to miss school. As fuel supplies becomes harder to obtain, cooking time may be shortened and water not boiled, thus leading to increased incidences of diseases. Furthermore, refugee families may also be forced to sell part of their food rations to obtain the fuel needed to cook their meals, resulting in malnutrition.

Conflicts between refugees, returnees, IDPs, and national communities over natural resources are a major source of social, political and economic turmoil. Another cause of long-term economic hardship is the deforestation of natural vegetation and depletion of water resources, which then causes deterioration of pasture and agricultural land. Refugees may have begun to play a positive role in the local economies, but it also happens that their presence totally disrupts the local patterns of economic activity. The huge economic cost of such destruction often goes unrecorded.

In the context of the population affected by humanitarian crises, the most practical formulation defines environmental education as: a permanent process in which individuals gain awareness of their environment and acquire the knowledge, values, skills, experiences, and also the determination which will enable

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**AN ACTION PLAN FOR HYGIENE EDUCATION**

Preparation of an action plan for hygiene education includes making the following decisions:

- how the community’s participation will be achieved;
- who the education should be directed at;
- what the content of the education should be;
- what educational methods will be used;
- who will carry out the educational activities;
- what accompanying social and economic programmes will be needed;
- what other field workers or sectors will be involved;
- how technologies can be designed in order to make them affordable and acceptable;
- how the programme will be managed.7

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7 For training the trainers, WHO has developed a series of materials that are most appropriate for field programmes related to teachers, health and community workers:

- WHO, *Teachers’ guide for basic epidemiology*, 2nd. ed., Geneva, 1994. (Available in English and French.) This manual provides an introduction to principles and methods of epidemiology. Starting from an explanation of the causes of disease, with particular emphasis on modifiable environmental factors, the authors go on to show how epidemiology can be applied to the prevention of disease and the promotion of health.

- WHO, *Teacher’s guide for one-week training workshop: basic environmental epidemiology*, Geneva, 1994. This teacher’s guide is intended to empower environmental epidemiologists to organize and initiate a one-week introductory workshop in environmental epidemiology by providing a framework and suggested teaching approaches. Recommended for implementing agencies in the field.

8 This section is mainly based on: Christopher Talbot and Kibe Muigai, *Environmental education for refugees: guidelines, implementation and lessons learned*, in: Retamal and Aedo Richmond, op. cit.
them to act individually and collectively to solve present and future environmental problems, as well as to meet their needs without compromising those of future generations.  

There are four fundamentally targeted populations for environmental education efforts:

- Refugees and internally displaced persons in ‘stable’ situations, where large influxes or massive repatriations are not anticipated;
- Refugees and internally displaced persons in emergencies;
- Local host populations;
- Returnees: education for the reconstruction and rehabilitation of war-ravaged environments.

III.3.1. OBJECTIVES OF REFUGEE AND EMERGENCY ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

The clearest statement of the global aims of environmental education is contained in the final report of the first Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education, held in 1977, at Tbilisi, Georgia, under UNESCO auspices:

- To foster clear awareness of, and concern about, economic, social, political and ecological interdependence in urban and rural areas.
- To provide every person with opportunities to acquire the knowledge, values, attitudes, commitment and skills needed to protect and improve the environment.
- To create new patterns of behaviour among individuals, groups and society as a whole towards the environment.

After adaptation to the refugee and complex emergency context, the aims set out in the Tbilisi final report appropriately express the objectives of environmental education for refugees, national communities and returnees.

III.3.2. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION FOR REFUGEES

The seven broad topics outlined below are the subject matters embodied in most environmental education programmes for refugees:

- Energy conservation;
- Sustainable shelter;
- Conservation of trees and other vegetation;
- Soil conservation;
- Water conservation;
- Environmental health;
- Local laws and traditions on natural resource use.


During 1995, a Pilot Project, incorporating the above principles and practices was launched in Kenya, with significant ‘spillovers’ in Uganda, Ethiopia and the United Republic of Tanzania. These methodological proposals have been implemented and related materials have been developed on the basis of an evaluation of the Kenyan pilot project. Furthermore, environmental education initiatives are being extended to Somali, Sudanese and Rwandese refugee settlements in Uganda and Ethiopia.11

III.4 Education for peace and reconciliation

Through various experiences, peace education and reconciliation have developed with different degrees of success in crisis countries, some of which are described in this section. No systematic evaluation has been carried out in order to assess the relevance of these experiences and the impact of their methodological approaches. This area remains as an evolving one that requires further research and reflection. A big gap remains between educational practitioners working in the field of complex emergencies, and the copious methodological contributions and curriculum development initiatives produced in developed countries on the issue of education, peace and reconciliation.12

III.4.1 SOMALIA: FROM THE PEACE CAMPAIGN TO THE PEACE EDUCATION PACKAGE

The Peace Campaign for Somalia (1994) was conceived as a strategy for stimulating the sensitivity of the Somali people about the impact of violence and the gun culture of Somali society. There was a clear need to provide alternative images and models to what had become an idolization and romanticization of the gun, which was seen as a symbol of machismo and courage. It was necessary to combat the use of the gun not only as an instrument of dealing with conflicts but also as the only means of economic survival for many. A road show on the topic of guns called ‘drop the gun, rebuild the nation’ has been staged, and can also be purchased as a video or cassette tape in English and Somali. To this end, the following action plans were conceived and executed:

• Production and distribution of ‘Education for Peace’ handbills, cloth posters, T-shirts and a Somali map;
• Formation of the Education for Peace Committee in Mogadishu comprising UNESCO, UNOSOM 3D (Disarmament, De-mining and Demobilization), UNOSOM Media Products, Radio SNA (The

A Rwandan boy draws guns during the trauma treatment programme provided by UNICEF

11 UNHCR-UNESCO/PEER. Environmental education programme. Nairobi, 1996. (The programme consists of three pupil books with their corresponding teacher’s guides, see opposite.)
After almost six years of armed conflict, a recent agreement has paved the way for peace in Liberia. The Kukatonon (meaning ‘we are one’ in the Kpelle language) Peace Education Project was launched as a pilot project in fifteen schools, by the Christian Health Association of Liberia (CHAL), with support from UNICEF, in March 1992. The project provides training in conflict resolution for students and asks them to practise their new skills as peer mediators in their schools.

The Kukatonon project was initiated in response to the civil war that had broken out in December 1989. More than 850,000 Liberians fled the country. Kukatonon has evolved over the years, maintaining its emphasis in two main areas:

- **Conflict resolution** training workshops; and
- **Creative expression** through drama, song and dance.

The pilot project gathers teams of student leaders to participate in ten-day training programmes conducted by an NGO partner. The course prepares the students to resolve conflicts between other students in their schools (peer mediation). During training, they learn to:

- handle disagreement, fighting and differences of opinion with a broad range of creative responses for resolving conflict;
- understand the causes of conflict and violence;
- become familiar with methods for building trust within a community;
- strengthen their own and their peers’ self-respect, self-esteem, confidence and sense of responsibility;
- practice skills for communication, co-operation and reconciliation;
- study and apply the techniques of mediation.

Over a six-month period, a total of eighty students were trained, mediation groups were established, and an evaluation set in motion in the schools. At the halfway point, artists and actors selected additional students for training in drama and peace theatre, creating ‘cultural troupes’ in each school.

During the years 1992 to 1995 continuing activities were organized based on peace theatre performances staged in schools by students, and the teacher-training workshops on conflict resolutions, leading to the production of a manual for the training of trainers and the constitution of student palava (conflict) management teams. Also, a training package was developed to assist teachers in integrating the lessons of the Kukatonon training manual into their classrooms.

The manual and the peace awareness workshops were designed to meet important goals, after which full implementation of the programme can commence. The intention was that:

- the rate of conflict within schools will drop substantially;
- children will be empowered to use their artistic talents to educate their peers, parents and communities about peace;
- school and community leaders will be more effective in transmitting the skills and knowledge required for the non-violent resolution of conflict;
- individuals will be encouraged to integrate what they have learned into their daily professional and personal lives.

Unfortunately, due to the deteriorating political situation, the programme has been discontinued.
Package to be used in formal/non-formal education settings comprising songs, stories, activities and games.

III.4.2. THE PEACE EDUCATION PACKAGE (PEP)

The initial objective of the Peace Education Package was to introduce Somali children to the concept of non-violent solutions to conflicts. This training is spread over a period of one year, during which time the children can assimilate peace-related concepts and learn to practice them at home and in the neighbourhood. To this end, some of the lessons have exercises that involve the participation of parents, the family in general and the community at large. For the community, the activities in the PEP will be a continued exhortation to stop fighting and to give peace a chance.

Strategy of implementation and monitoring: The prototype package in English and Somali has been field-tested in Jowhar and Middle Shabelle, in Somalia. A full-time EC-Somalia and UNESCO-PEER consultant made the creation of this package possible over a period of seven months, with the help of part-time writers, graphic artists, typists and others.

In addition to developing this package (which can easily be modified for use in other countries), UNESCO-PEER made available its human and material resources in Somalia and in the camps for the implementation of this project. The Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS) financed the production of 400 packages. At a rate of 40 students per package, a total of 16,000 children and their parents and communities have been reached. As UNICEF and UNDP have shown an interest in the package, these organizations will also become involved and contribute towards the production and dissemination of 1,000 packages, covering a total population of 40,000 students.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE EXPERIENCES

BURUNDI: BATISSONS LA PAIX/ GIRA AMAHORO

The project was designed to teach, ‘youth to learn the skills they need to resolve their conflicts peacefully, to cope with the stress of violent ethnic conflicts, and to prepare for a less violent future by providing them a psycho-social support and educational skills.’

This project was launched in October 1994 at 1,500 primary and secondary schools and learning centres. It was able to reach 100,000 Burundi students with lessons in peace making. The project was designed for either formal or non-formal education. A manual for educators and a book of co-operative learning activities for students has been developed and distributed to educational counsellors and school administrators during conflict resolution training workshops.

Social mobilization campaigns, education programmes by radio and correspondence, and other non-formal education activities take the project beyond the classroom. ‘Let’s Build Peace’ is implemented by the Ministry of Basic Education and Adult Literacy, the Scouts and other NGOs, with support from the UNICEF Burundi Emergency Programme.

• A Peace Kit: This kit contains thirty different activities including games, working/drawing materials, etc. It teaches the concept of peace to children in all schools and other learning centres who are participating in the project. The activities can be integrated into the curriculum in both French and Kirundi as art and sport classes. The most important message in this kit is to learn to build and live with peace.

• A teacher’s guide/activity book for the ‘Batissons la Paix’ programme. This guide gives some ideas of activities to be taught by teachers or trainers. The main objective of education for peace is to let children and adults discover and understand the meaning of solidarity, confidence, equality and justice, in order to develop the capacity to respect one another.

• A handbook of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in Kirundi.
• A handbook of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in French.
III.4.3. THE PEP MATERIALS

- **A teacher’s handbook entitled ‘Let Peace Begin with Me’.** This contained activities focused on the role of the individual in bringing about peace, the rights and responsibilities of children, awareness of others as equals, communication, conflict awareness/resolution, peace, justice and tolerance. Each activity includes objectives, descriptions, comments and teaching aids.
- **Abdi’s dream comes true and other stories:** This is a booklet containing twenty stories, some of which are of Somali origin. Among the values taught are cooperation, friendship and consideration. Each story has follow-up activities and comments meant to help the teacher guide the class toward assimilating its moral meaning.
- **Singing for solidarity:** This is a booklet which features old and new songs that emphasize learning to live with others and learning to live together. An audio tape-containing recordings of these songs accompanies the booklet.
- **Word game:** This contains sixty cards, each one with an image and a word denoting either conflict or peace. On the back of each card, there is a sentence about human rights.
- **Peace wins the game:** A game rather like ‘Snakes and Ladders’ where every peace-related move is rewarded with an advance and every non-peace-related move means the player moves back and has less chance of winning.
- **Maps:** A world map and a Somalia map are aids for the lesson entitled ‘A Peaceful World’.
- **Supplies:** Exercise books, materials needed for drawing/sketching/colouring, erasers, pencil sharpeners, glue, scissors, rulers and an inflatable globe all neatly packed in a blue school bag.

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**EMERGENCY RESPONSE EXPERIENCES**

**MOZAMBIQUE: CIRCO DA PAZ**

As years of conflict have left 1 million people dead, communities in Mozambique have committed themselves to helping educate their children on how to live in lasting peace.

The war, having a massive impact on civilians, forced 1.5 million people to flee to neighbouring countries and led to approximately 5 million persons becoming internally displaced. The war specifically affected children by separating hundreds of thousands of them from their families. Many of the 7 million children under the age of 14 and 1,650,000 under 19 witnessed atrocities or were forced to commit them, causing widespread psychological trauma.

Peace officially returned on October 1992 and was reinforced by the democratic elections of 1994. Now the country is grappling with the relentless challenge of poverty. Mozambique is one of the world’s poorest nations. Its GNP in 1994 was estimated at US$ 5.4 billion. More than 70% of the 16.5 million people live in absolute poverty, which was made worse by the war and a devastating drought. As many as 80,000 demobilized soldiers face bleak prospects as they search for work. The war also destroyed more than 3,000 schools, or left them in a dilapidated condition. Many teachers were killed. In 1995, more than half of school-age children did not have access to a school. Of those enrolled, only 34% completed grade five.

After sixteen years of bloodshed, the people of Mozambique are healing the wounds of war. The Government, UNICEF and other partners are expanding education for peace programmes that prepare health workers to assist traumatized children and offer vocational training to the disabled. The first initiative of the peace education project was launched in 1993 as an experimental project known as *Circo da Paz*, which was a mobile troupe of trainers who conveyed conflict resolution skills through theatre, art and dance. This experience was similar to the Liberian *Kukatonon*. 
IV. The physical educational environment in complex emergencies

IV.1 Site planning and educational shelter

Existing guidelines for resolving the problem of shelter for victims of humanitarian crisis in complex emergencies suggest that only the necessary minimum of time, effort and resources should be committed to temporary emergency shelter. Permanent reconstruction should be promoted as soon as possible. Maximum use should be made of materials that can be rescued from damaged buildings, whenever possible. However, tents should be available in stockpiles and, if necessary, will provide adequate temporary shelter against the weather and/or when the improvisation of other shelters is not feasible.

One advantage of tent schools is that they can rapidly focus effort in providing assistance and care to children. Another advantage is that they may be stockpiled and re-used as part of emergency preparedness.

Site planning in refugee and IDP camps is essential and should reflect a decentralized small-community approach, preserving past social arrangements as much as possible. Given that no previous structures and buildings are available under these conditions, the prefabricated tent and/or poles, and plastic sheeting are currently the most utilized responses in emergency situations.

IV.2 Tented schools

Very few systematic experiences exist that emphasize the use of tents and other forms of mobile schools.

Two case studies are considered: the Philippines Mobile Tent School (MTS) and the UNESCO Mobile Tent Schools for children of deprived groups in the Arab world.

IV.2.1. MTS IN THE PHILIPPINES

In the case of Philippines, the basic educational needs of seven ethnic groups, whether migrants or hard-to-reach populations, were covered using mobile tented units. The MTS was an answer to the mobile nature of the ethnic tribes, who migrate periodically in search of food. The teacher of the MTS moved from one settlement to the next, holding classes in tents or makeshift shelters. Thus, the teacher became a government ‘broker’ who not only looked after the educational needs of the learners, but also assisted in food production, health, civics and other concerns. The course content of the MTS was limited to the basic essentials of survival, and basic literacy and numeracy.

Instructional facilities and materials consisted of temporary facilities, such as a collapsible tent, collapsible chairs, tables and boards, that are locally produced. A mobile library together with multimedia instructional materials also provided support to the MTS teacher.

IV.2.2. MTS IN THE ARAB WORLD

Several projects have been developed in the Arab World to provide children, young nomads and displaced populations with a basic education. Three types of solutions have been considered: (a) schools that provide special schooling to nomad children near Bedouin encampments; (b) boarding schools; or (c) MTS. Special schools for nomads or boarding schools cause families to be separated from their children, a fact that tends to disrupt the fabric of family life. Moreover, these schools are not likely to attract girls due to the Bedouins’ disinclination to part company with their young daughters.

These disadvantages do not arise in the case of mobile schools, for the simple reason that these structures move with the tribe and can provide services to the entire community—children and adults alike. However, mobility does have its disadvantages too. Contacts between the schools and the central educational authority become difficult, thus leading to the possibility of breakdowns in supplies, inspection, backstopping and so on.

The use of the classical tent hanging from stayed poles has continued throughout the centuries. It did not differ in essence from the present Arab tent, the so-called beit-elsba’r = house of (goat) hair, but this traditional Arab tent was not able to meet the space standards needed for teaching. A new, larger prototype, free from internal supports, is needed for this purpose.

To substitute the internal columns by a system of external supports designed to lift the tent from the outside is structurally feasible, but the large thickness of the horizontal transverse beams required to resist bending and prevent deflection make the structure too heavy to transport and handle. What is needed is a self-supporting membrane whose geometric form does not create downloads needing columns or transverse beams to carry them. A saddle-shaped, three-dimensional form, the so-called hyperbolic paraboloid, is proposed for the design of the tent school.

The design is illustrated on the back cover. The basic unit is an 8-metre square on the plan, and is 4 metres high. The supporting structure consists of hollow aluminium pipes joined together by means of T and elbow connectors to facilitate erection, dismantling and transportation. The gross area of the basic unit is 64 m². One part is curtained off to form a classroom with a door and seven transparent windows. The net area of the classroom is 40 to 50m², large enough to accommodate 20–40 pupils. Seating may be on mats or on chairs.

Furniture should be light, and easy to pack and transport. The wall partitions are unable to support wall hangings. However, a device proposed to perform this function consists of a pipe suspended from the external structure to carry maps, visual aids, notice boards, etc.

A set of canvas pockets for storing pupils’ belongings is also included. Repeating the unit as required can generate larger schools. In this case, one unit at least is to be reserved for use as a staff room. In larger schools, a storeroom and activity room will also be needed.

The prototype shown incorporates a canopy, which is also a membrane structure, positioned to define an outdoor play and assembly area. The tent school has the potential of being used as a multi-service centre for the community providing literacy classes, skills training, club facilities, as well as health and veterinary services.

Running a mobile school demands flexibility from the teaching staff. Bedouins sleep early and rise early. The school day could adapt to this pattern by starting and ending earlier than normal, thus permitting pupils to help their parents with their daily work.

(For the specifications and approximate costing of this model tent, see box.)

**SPECIFICATION FOR A MOBILE TENT SCHOOL**

Framework: aluminium hollow pipes (made up of 1.6m. sections) joined by elbow connectors.

Canopy: single-piece construction in the form of a hyperbolic paraboloid. Water resistant polyvinylchloride in red, green, blue or yellow.

Walls: free hanging membrane in white polyvinylchloride welded to canopy, with seven transparent windows and a door.

Floor: polyvinylchloride with eyelets and pegs.

Cost estimate (1997): US$6,500 per unit (including shipping and insurance to destination).
List of acronyms and abbreviations

BRAC Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CDC Curriculum Development Centre
CHAL Christian Health Association of Liberia
CRC Convention on the Rights of the Child
COPE Complementary Opportunity for Primary Education
EC European Commission/European Union
EDC Educational development centre
EPMU Education programme management
ESCC Education Sector Co-ordination Committee
GINIE Global International Network in Education
GOR Government of Rwanda
GNP Gross national product
GTZ Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
IBE International Bureau of Education
IP Implementing partner
IGA Income-generating activities
IG Instructor’s guide
IP Implementing partner
JRS Jesuit Refugee Service
LMAF Land-mine awareness programme
MAC Mine-awareness campaign
MAP Mine-awareness education package
MOE Ministry of Education
MTS Mobile tent school
NGO Non-governmental organization
NRC Norwegian Refugee Council
OCHA Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs
PDO Project development officer
PEER Programme for Education for Emergency and Reconstruction
PEP Peace education package
PTA Parent/teacher association
PTSS Programme and Technical Support Section
REEPP Refugee Environmental Education Programme
Kenya Pilot Project in Kenya
SOMOLU Somalia Open Learning Unit
TEP Teacher emergency package
TTC Teacher-training college
UN United Nations
UNHA United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
UNOPS Office of Emergency Programmes
UNHCR United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNOSOM United Nations for Somalia
WFP World Food Programme

Select bibliography


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FIGURE 8: An example of a mobile tent school