Chapter 2.1

RURAL POPULATIONS

MAIN OBJECTIVES

- **To ensure that all emergency-affected children and youth, irrespective of whether they are in a rural or urban area, have access to educational opportunities.**

- **To provide children and youth in rural areas with learning opportunities that are relevant to their context and that may lead to further education or employment opportunities.**

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Even before conflict, rural areas tend to have fewer economic and human resources, and thus a greater prevalence of those household risk factors associated with reduced access to education: poverty and hunger, poor health, greater gender inequities, a high proportion of child labour and often reduced private and public funding for education. There is often a lack of awareness amongst educational planners and officials as well as within the international community about the educational needs of rural people. Schools that do exist will most frequently be primary schools, and with only limited opportunities for both preschool and post-primary education. Moreover,

the curriculum in place may not be relevant to rural economic opportunities. Because rural areas are often populated by minority groups and indigenous peoples who may already perceive themselves to be socially disadvantaged, it is crucial that existing social and economic tensions are not exacerbated by the neglect of education in rural areas.

Emergencies and civil conflict tend to aggravate these difficulties, and quite often educational systems in rural areas are the hardest hit. One reason is that rural-urban migration is frequently intensified during emergencies as cities are generally safer and provide more income-earning opportunities. Because teachers are among the most educated members of rural society and often have either more income or more income-generating options than others, during conflict they tend to migrate, either to urban areas or to a safe place in another country. Teachers that do not migrate may have less teaching experience or fewer educational qualifications. In situations where education has been politicized, teachers may be the targets of attacks and therefore may migrate to save their lives. As a result, education services in rural areas will normally require particular attention during emergencies and reconstruction.

Physical access in rural areas is, by its very nature, often particularly difficult. Rural areas often have a poorer infrastructure in place due to urban biases in the allocation of resources. Rural education, even in times of peace and stability, often suffers from lack of teaching materials and remoteness from information sources, and the fact that children must often travel long distances through difficult terrain to reach schools. These problems will also be compounded by emergencies. Rural areas are more likely to be cut off by fighting, landmines and other manifestations of conflict, or to be under the control of forces in conflict with government. This will make the route, and thus physical access

to school, very dangerous or even impossible for many rural children. Teachers, teacher trainers, school supervisors and even supplies may be cut off from rural areas. Similarly, centralized educational authorities and other education providers will have greater difficulties undertaking needs assessment, supervision and monitoring.

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

📖 SIERRA LEONE: LESS ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS

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

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

Source: Lowicki and Pillsbury (2002: 18)

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

In the reconstruction phase of an emergency, refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) may be reluctant to return to rural areas unless they are secure and present economic opportunities. Also, if difficulties of access or insecurity make it difficult to establish or expand schools in rural areas, refugees

or IDPs may further delay their return home. Moreover, the lack of resources and access to paid employment in rural areas after an emergency will discourage families from sending their children to school. Many families will focus their resources on rebuilding homes, restoring agricultural or other economic activities, and will have limited time and resources to help with school restoration. They may also use their children's labour for economic or domestic purposes.

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

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

For organizations seeking to assist urban refugees, IDPs, or nomadic peoples, the task is complicated; these populations are quite often dispersed and difficult to locate. In addition, urban

refugees or IDPs often refuse to be identified for fear of being sent back to their home country or to another refugee camp with fewer income-generating options, or simply out of fear for their security. Refugees and IDPs living in camps, which are frequently located in rural areas, are much more likely to receive an education. Whilst this topic focuses on the relative disadvantages of rural areas, many of the issues discussed will also apply to urban areas.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

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

Summary of suggested strategies
Rural populations

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

2. **Prioritize teacher recruitment in rural areas.**

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

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

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

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

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

8. Involve local communities in the education planning process.

9. Establish a policy on education for nomadic peoples.

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

Guidance notes

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

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

   Also, consult the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.1,* 'Assessment of needs and resources'. *Chapter 1.5,* 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', will also provide some general considerations related to needs assessment and access to schooling.

📖 NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN RURAL TIMOR-LESTE

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

Women's learning	Men's learning
Learn personal hygiene	Help look after animals
Go to school	Work in the gardens/help in the fields
Learn to cook	Learn to ride a bicycle
Learn to make *tais* (traditional weaving)	Work by themselves in the field

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Get married and look after children	Build houses
Learn to use a sewing machine	Sell in the market
Teach daughters to make *tais*	Get married
Pass on traditional knowledge to children	Learn traditional laws
	Teach children

When asked what education issues they found important, some villagers discussed language difficulties in schools that arise because many teachers do not speak Portuguese. Others highlighted the need for adult literacy classes in Tetum (one of the two official languages). Still others talked about the long distances their children have to travel to attend junior high. Issues of youth leaving rural areas and moving to more urban areas were also mentioned, with those surveyed emphasizing that villages were losing some of their best talent, and that large numbers of young people in urban areas were unable to find work. As Fox (2002) explained, "the educational system rapidly draw[s] youth from the countryside and train[s] them for non-existent positions in urban areas". While parents see that literacy is important in their changing world, those youth in rural areas who are successful in formal education often leave villages and do not return.

Source: Nicolai (2004: 91-93).

📖 NEWLY ACCESSIBLE AREAS IN ANGOLA

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

Source: Bethke and Braunschweig (2003: 12).

- Ensure that national education statistics are disaggregated by region and, if possible, by district. See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.7,* 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS).'
  - Seek differentiation between educational statistics for urban and rural areas.
  - Train educational planners in use of such differentiated statistics in the design of differentiated educational offers.

2. Prioritize teacher recruitment in rural areas.

(See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 3.1,* 'Identification, selection and recruitment of teachers and education workers'.)

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

- Consider offering teachers incentives such as higher pay, a housing or food provision, or subsidies to work in difficult rural areas. Especially in areas of return, teachers may need a guarantee of income and security/job stability to agree to teach there. One solution would be for the Ministry of Education to agree to finance teacher salaries for a minimum period (for example for at least a year).
- Provide teacher-training programmes for those living in rural areas. Recruitment of new teachers locally, especially women, may be necessary.
  - If the newly trained teachers are already from the area, they may be more likely to stay.
  - Training can be offered on the condition that teachers stay in the area after completion of the programme.

- Programmes that train community members to teach will ensure that teachers speak the same language as their students.
- Women should be recruited even if their education level is less than that of some male candidates, provided they have the aptitude for the work. They may stay in the area for family reasons, and will encourage girls' enrolment in school by providing positive role models.

• Explore the possibility of developing distance-learning programmes, countrywide, especially for teachers in inaccessible areas. This may facilitate the training and supervision of a large number of untrained teachers.

📖 **ATTRACTING TEACHERS TO REMOTE AREAS IN SRI LANKA**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- If necessary, solicit support from the international community for building or rehabilitating schools and classrooms in emergency-affected rural areas as well as for providing teaching and learning materials, uniforms/clothing and other supplies to affected rural and, in some cases, urban populations.

- Consider abolishing documentation and registration requirements, as they may force children and youth to travel long distances for registration, or may prevent access to education for those children without documents.

- Consider abolishing or relaxing rules about school uniforms that are costly for poor families.

- Consider the implementation of school feeding programmes (see also the 'Tools and resources' section in the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', for more information on school feeding). Look for ways to make these programmes sustainable, for example by establishing school gardens supported by the parent-teacher association.

ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR INTERNALLY DISPLACED CHILDREN

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

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

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

- Consider the possibility of compensating families for the loss of their child's income through school feeding programmes.
- Consider implementing both flexible school hours and a school calendar that do not conflict with children's family obligations such as chores at home or in the fields, or other tasks which may contribute to the family's income.

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

(See the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5,* 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction', and *Chapter 2.6,* 'Learning spaces and school facilities', for general considerations related to school safety.)

Access can be organized in the open air (in some climatic conditions), with temporary shelter (e.g. tents or plastic sheeting)

or school buildings. Issues to be considered by national and local educational authorities, as well as other education providers, include the following:

- Are the schools in an area of ongoing fighting?
  - Has there been communication with all parties to the conflict regarding the schools' designation as a 'safe area'? The Rome Statute of 1998, which outlines the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court, includes protection for educational institutions under Article 8. Therefore, the targeting of schools and educational institutions can be prosecuted as a war crime.
- Are parents afraid to send their children to school, as they fear for their safety en route? (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 2.2,* 'Gender', and *Chapter 2.5,* 'Former child soldiers', for a discussion of how to make schools safer from recruitment/abduction.)
  - Have landmines been removed from paths leading to schools?
  - Is it possible to enlist adult escorts or older children to escort young children to school?
  - Can a 'buddy system' be implemented so children never walk alone?
  - Can the community organize transportation for children from particular areas?
  - If children must walk in the dark, how are they seen? Do they have reflectors or reflective tape on their clothing or school bags?
- If there is a shortage of classrooms, what alternative, safe learning spaces can be used on a temporary basis?
  - Shelter provided by trees.
  - Roof or frame constructed of wood or bamboo and covered with a plastic sheet or tarpaulin.

- School tents.
- Non-school property such as gyms, warehouses, unused government buildings, or religious buildings – if such facilities are safe.

- What spaces can be used for recreation and sports, preferably in proximity to schools?
- Who must grant permission for such spaces to be used?

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

- When possible, recruit teachers that:
  - Know the local language and customs.
  - Are accountable and acceptable to the local community.
- Recruit local volunteer teacher aides, if possible.
- Allow flexibility in curricula and vocational training so that specific rural skills and needs may be addressed in schools, for example local agricultural, environmental, local and health topics.
  - Does the curriculum relate to local content, customs, livelihoods and development activities?
  - Does the curriculum take teachers' qualifications and training into account?
  - Does the curriculum make use of locally available skills, knowledge and other resources?
- Give early attention to material supports for learning.
  - What materials are already available?
    - Chalkboards, writing slates, exercise books, pencils and pens?
  - What materials can learners, particularly older children or adults, develop?
    - Maps, calendars, or diagrams?
    - Core reading materials?

- Ensure the best quality possible for educational facilities.
  - Are educational facilities well maintained?
  - Do educational facilities have good ventilation and lighting?
  - Do they have separate toilet facilities for boys and girls?
  - Is safe drinking water available?
  - Can local leaders and parents help maintain school facilities?

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

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

(See the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 2.7*, 'Open and distance learning' and *Chapter 4.7*, 'Vocational education and training'.)

- Which teachers do not have access to in-service training and further professional studies? (Review the questions in the *Guidebook*, *Chapter 3.4*, 'Teacher training: teaching and learning methods'.) Make sure to consult with children, youth, teachers, parents and community groups.
- What are the educational needs/preferences of the children and youth that do not have access?
  - Primary or some form of accelerated learning to re-enter the formal system?
  - Post-primary – formal secondary, tertiary?
  - Basic literacy?
  - Vocational/skills training?
  - General knowledge regarding health issues, citizenship, human rights, environment?

- For which of the above educational needs/preferences is distance education a viable option?

- Are external donors interested in supporting the strengthening of ministry capacity in this area?

- How can international experience with open and distance learning – in emergency and in non-emergency situations – be drawn upon?

- Who will adapt/develop the learning materials – existing teachers and administrators or an outside organization in consultation with educational authorities? (*Note:* adaptation is much quicker than developing new materials and testing them. It is crucial that content and examples fit the local context, however.)

  - Consider if existing materials from a country with similar conditions, curricula and language of study could be adapted, with permission from the authorities concerned (this saves time, cost and benefits from the pilot testing, evaluation and improvements already carried out).

  - Train the writing team of educators on the objectives of the programme, and how to prepare the materials. If possible, provide them with examples of existing programmes, guidelines and templates for open and distance learning.

- How will the distance learning materials incorporate the existing curriculum?

- Are the certifications obtained by distance education courses valid in the student's home/host country?

- Who will produce and deliver lessons that will be offered via radio, television, or online?

  - Identify teachers or other educators.

  - Provide them with training relative to the instructional medium to be used.

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

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

- Create mechanisms that can be used for periodic consultation and planning among different sectors.
  - Consider establishing a common working group within the ministries of education and agriculture (and other ministries where relevant) to deal with rural people's education and training needs.
- Encourage the development of strong links between rural employers and the schools.
- Encourage rural employers to offer apprenticeships and work placements.
- Encourage rural employers to identify and communicate unmet basic learning needs to education administrators.
- Allow for flexibility within rural schools. Given that many children will be involved in labour on the land, the system could allow for seasonal shifts in labour demands or operate on an alternating school/work schedule. This is not to say that child labour should in anyway be encouraged, but rather that the economic realities of conflicts and early reconstruction should be acknowledged if children are to be allowed meaningful access to education.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN RURAL BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA

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

Source: White (2002: 28)

- Collect data on rural people's economic activities, education and training needs, and review their relevance in reference to current and future labour market requirements. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 4.7,* 'Vocational education and training', *Chapter 5.1,* 'Assessment of needs and resources' and *Chapter 5.7,* 'Data collection and education management information systems (EMIS)'.)

- Promote a lifelong learning approach by developing and implementing policies that enable schools and educational institutions to offer 'second-chance' education and learning programmes. This may involve a combination of formal and non-formal activities within existing schools and institutions, for both out-of-school youth and adults.

- Establish an overview of all relevant formal and non-formal education and training providers in rural areas. The list may include:
  - Primary and secondary schools.
  - Private companies and individuals.
  - University outreach programmes.
  - Agricultural research institutes and extension services.
  - Commodity based institutes.
  - NGOs.
  - Farmer associations and organizations.
  - Employers.

8. Involve local communities in the education planning process.

See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.6*, 'Structure of the education system', for more information.

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

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

rate decreasing to 4.5 per cent, and the annual promotion rate increasing to 87 per cent.

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

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

Source: World Bank (1998).

- Encourage a high level of community involvement through the promotion of parent-teacher associations and other such groups that demonstrate community support for schools. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 5.5, 'Community participation'*.)
  - What opportunities will community members have to express their ideas on education?

- Encourage community volunteers to ensure schools are safe and to help with school projects such as constructing new classrooms or rehabilitating existing ones.
- Encourage school clustering to facilitate peer exchange of experience, information and resources.

9. Establish a policy on education for nomadic peoples.

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

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

Urban and self-settled refugees need formal recognition and a status that grants them access to education. (See also the *Guidebook, Chapter 1.5*, 'Education for all in emergencies and reconstruction'.)

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

📖 URBAN CHILDREN LIVING ON THE STREETS

The direct and indirect impacts of conflict can drive rural children out of their homes into urban areas and on to the streets of big cities. Without family or local community support, these children lack the protection, supervision, and direction of responsible adults. Urban street children are often at a higher risk of HIV/AIDS infection due to sexual exploitation and substance abuse. They depend upon the informal sector and often on the sex industry and petty crime to survive. In addition, depending upon the nature of the conflict, street children may be predominantly from particular religious or ethnic backgrounds, making them more vulnerable to abuse and stigmatization. For children living on the streets, education therefore becomes particularly important as a

tool of protection. Carefully designed education programmes for urban street children are needed. These may include apprenticeships that allow children to earn money whilst learning and provide them with practical skills. Links should be formed with local companies and industries so that once these children are trained in useful skills, they will then have a better chance of entering the formal job market.

Source: Limmat Foundation (1999)

TOOLS AND RESOURCES

1. ATTRIBUTES OF A GOOD SCHOOL

AS SEEN BY:

PUPILS

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

PARENTS AND COMMUNITY

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

TEACHERS

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

ADMINISTRATORS AND INSPECTORS

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

Source: World Bank (2000)

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