Education for Crisis-Affected Youth: A Literature Review

INEE Adolescent and Youth Task Team (AYTT)
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Summary

Few emergency education programmes cater to the unique needs of youth. Of those that do, little is known about their impacts and successful strategies. Through a review of research, programmatic evaluations and case studies, this paper attempts to capture the impact of programs and draw out salient themes, gaps and lessons learned in the field. This review contributes to building the evidence base to help stakeholders effectively articulate, and advocate for quality education programming for youth affected by crisis.

This document reviews the field of education for youth in crisis using three categories: Secondary and Tertiary Education; Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and Livelihoods Training; and Life Skills, Peace Education and Recreational Activities. A review of the lessons learned in each category is presented, followed by a summary of lessons across all three categories.

The review finds a near universal call for holistic approaches that offer a continuum of services to facilitate the transition from education/training to income generation, and that have strong family and community linkages. Such linkages are also important for programme relevance and sustainability. Addressing young people’s participation rights by creating friendly environments and involving them in all stages of the project cycle has proven successful and has led to various forms of empowerment. Programmes engaging youth must be well-structured, yet remain flexible, recognising that the post-crisis phase is dynamic and that the needs of young women and men are diverse.

Success of any programmatic intervention depends on creating conducive economic, political and socio-cultural environments where female and male youth can safely explore, prove their skills and gain agency. This approach requires strong and effective cross-sectoral partnerships. To successfully monitor and evaluate programmes, more disaggregated data on the characteristics of the diverse youth population is needed.

This review finds that, if provided with meaningful opportunities and equipped with relevant skills, a community’s youth may be its most abundant asset in times of crisis. In many instances, youth have initiated their own crisis response actions, and have proven a vital liaison between INGOs and communities. Unlocking the potential of young people reinforces the recovery and empowerment of society at large.
Introduction

Crises such as armed conflict and natural disasters can devastate the education and livelihood prospects of youth and perpetuate their fragility in the post-crisis setting. Developing and implementing effective youth education and training presents many challenges, but is essential for promoting the recovery, self-sufficiency and long-term stability of communities and nations.

During adolescence and youth, people assume new responsibilities, lay the foundation for moral judgements, set goals and make decisions that affect their lifelong potential, as they transition into adulthood. The normal challenges of adolescence and youth are exacerbated by conflict and instability, as they lose opportunities to contribute to their family and community. Under extreme conditions, youthful optimism may turn into bitter pessimism, presenting a host of risks. Physically stronger than children, youth may be targeted for violence, abuse, exploitation, sex trafficking and recruitment into armed forces. Girls are especially vulnerable.

Because humanitarian assistance has typically focused on the urgent health and nutrition needs of under-five and primary school-age children, the adolescent age group is the least likely to receive assistance or protection during conflict, despite the evident vulnerabilities (UNICEF, 2004). Assistance rarely recognizes the internal diversity of the young population or "the importance of identifying key events across the life-cycle that bring promise but also may drive vulnerability." (Ghati, 2009) Adolescent girls, in particular, are in need of targeted assistance that they rarely receive.

This literature review uses the standard United Nations definition of youth as aged between 15 and 24 years. The exact age range of the youth category may vary widely depending on socio-cultural, institutional, economic and political factors in the country. In societies affected by conflict, the concept of youth may radically change as boys and girls are forced to take on adult responsibilities (Stern, 2007). This should be taken into account when developing specific contextual policies and programmes.

Rationale

Youth represent roughly one quarter of the world's population. Nearly 70 percent live in poor countries, which see the majority of conflicts and crises. According to the Failed States Index (Foreign Policy, 2007), the vulnerability of countries rises with successively younger populations. The demographic 'youth bulge' is often erroneously seen as a threat to stability and security (Curtain, 2007; Hendrixson, 2004; UNDP, 2006; Urdal, 2006). On the contrary, youth are a tremendous asset for all societies. When education, healthcare and employment are available, young people renew and revitalise a country's economy and institutions.

Some 47 per cent of the global unemployed are youth. In many countries, young women are more likely to be unemployed than young men (ILO, 2005). The relationship between the marginalisation of disadvantaged youth from relevant education, training and livelihood opportunities, and the potential for cycles of instability and conflict has long been acknowledged.

In contravention of educational rights for youth, even in non-emergency contexts, youth, and especially female youth, often have more difficulty than children in accessing education (Lowicki-Zucca, 2005). The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), as the major international framework for development, make no direct mention of post-primary education. However, the 1951 Refugee Convention states that "hosting nations should accord to refugees a treatment...as favorable as possible...with respect to education other than elementary education." Further, Goal 5 of the Dakar Education Framework aims at "eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality."

Funding for emergency programmes explicitly targeting young women and men—especially those who are not in school—remains scarce. An overview of World Bank lending to conflict-affected countries in
2005 found that less than 8% of lending was directed specifically to secondary education projects, compared to 43% for primary and 12% for tertiary education (Chaffin, 2009a).

The problem is compounded in crisis and post-crisis contexts, and further compounded in refugee settings, where only 5% of all refugee students are in secondary, 6% in non-formal education programmes and 3% in vocational or tertiary education programmes (UNHCR, 2003; World Bank, 2005).

Statistical data are almost never disaggregated according to sub-categories of age that would help policymakers and programmers respond to youth needs. When they can access education programs, youth are typically grouped either with younger children or with older adults, where they may not belong. Where effort is made to provide age-appropriate programmes, they may not be appropriate for the realities of females and males, or youth living in situations of conflict or disaster (Chaffin, 2009a). While many would benefit from access to ‘second-chance’ or non-formal educational options, governments often see these approaches as somehow less legitimate than formal school, and tend not to prioritise them (Chaffin, 2009a).

With a paucity of program experience to draw from, little is known about which youth education programmes are most effective in crisis contexts. This review aims to contribute to the evidence base so that stakeholders can articulate and advocate for successful, quality education programming for female and male youth affected by crisis. Through a review of research, programmatic evaluations and case studies, we seek to outline the scope of educational programmes for youth in emergencies, highlight the impact of programmes reviewed and draw out salient themes, gaps and lessons learned.

**Methodology and Limits**

The list of documents reviewed is by no means exhaustive; it represents material shared with the authors by members of the INEE Adolescent and Youth Task Team, or was available online. The selection criteria were broadly defined as any text reviewing, analysing, evaluating or describing educational programmes catering specifically or partially to youth and adolescents in situations of emergency, protracted crisis, post-crisis or recovery.

The term *impact* is used only colloquially, as rigorous research on youth education in emergencies is nearly non-existent. With only a handful of methodical external impact evaluations, the review relies mostly on observational research and the ‘gray literature’, practitioner self-reporting, and anecdotal information.

Questions of gender and age are inadequately considered in the literature, and—at least in their presentation, data are rarely disaggregated by sex and even less so by sub-categories of age.

The review considers only reports written in English.

**Review of Educational Programming for Crisis-Affected Youth**

This document reviews the field of education for youth in crisis using three categories:

- Secondary and Tertiary Education;
- Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and Livelihoods Training; and
- Life Skills, Peace Education and Recreational Activities

Under each category, key terms are defined and the rationale for implementation of this type of programming is briefly presented. A review of the lessons learned from the field is then summarized, followed by an analysis of the challenges and gaps to be addressed. The review concludes with a summary of lessons across all three categories.
Secondary and Tertiary Education

Definitions and Rationale

Secondary and post-secondary education equips learners with the skills to develop into responsible citizens. Those learners provide the country's human resource pool and leadership base for recovery and sustainable development. Secondary education expands on existing skills and knowledge in order to prepare young people for higher education, or to enter directly into a vocation. Tertiary education at college or university is critical for advancements in technology and science, and the preparation of teachers and trainers for the specialised skills needed in any economy. They also increase people's capacity and motivation to plan their own fertility, improve the survival of their children, and care for their own and their families' health (Cohen, 2008). In situations of conflict, in post-conflict, reconstruction and recovery, such skills are especially important.

Post-primary and post-secondary education leads to self-reliance and self-esteem. Students develop peaceful attitudes and a critical consciousness that allow them to better communicate with international NGOs working with their communities. This is empowering not only for youth but for their communities at large. Those who manage to pass Secondary or Tertiary levels are seen to play key roles in their local communities, whether in host nations or in their countries of origin upon repatriation (Windle Trust, 2009), which has lasting impacts on reconstruction and development (Morlang and Watson, 2007).

Yet apart from a few refugee camp-based programs, post-primary education is rarely provided, much less rigorously evaluated. Few reports were found documenting the impact of emergency Secondary or Tertiary Education programmes. For its part, Tertiary Education is one of the most neglected fields in situations of emergency, post-crisis and reconstruction. The overwhelming focus on basic education has had adverse effects on the education system as a whole (Purnell, 2008), and in the long term, the lack of higher education incentives weakens motivation for students to complete even primary education. This leaves communities with a pool of teachers only educated up to secondary level, contributing to a decline in the quality of basic education, in a vicious cycle.

Promising Practices

In situations of conflict or prolonged displacement, where young people's future may include repatriation or third-country resettlement, students must be equipped with skills that are transferrable to various contexts. Considering that globally the average length of displacement is now 17 years (Women’s Refugee Commission, 2009a), educational opportunities must be made available during displacement rather than waiting until a durable solution is found (Zeus, 2009).

Distance education programmes have proven promising, especially those that follow a mixed-mode in combining online learning with face-to-face tutoring and learning support (MacLaren, 2010). Peer support, regular feedback mechanisms, and locally relevant and culturally appropriate learning materials are crucial components of distance learning.

Accredited learning and exams have proven successful tools to motivate learning and open doors to further learning and employment (RET, 2009). As it is difficult for young refugees to a university degree upon resettlement to third countries (Dunford, 2008; Women's Refugee Commission, 2009b), accreditation is vital (Kirk, 2009) for young people to be prepared for future pathways.

Challenges and Gaps

In crisis and post-crisis, even when equal access to secondary and higher education is a policy priority, it is rarely delivered upon. The higher tiers of education see the greatest gender gaps, and marginalised...
groups are rarely sought out for their inclusion. Establishing quotas to ensure equity leads to frustration of the best qualified. Instead, equal opportunity should begin at the pre-primary level, through creation of “friendly” learning environments for girls and vulnerable groups; targeted awareness-raising to boost demand; inclusive participatory programme design; and provision of accelerated and remedial programmes. Evening classes for young mothers have proven successful especially where female graduates act as role models to younger peers (Morlang and Watson, 2007).

Refugees’ lack of official documentation, and host country restrictions on freedom of movement and the right to work, often limit the potential benefits of higher education, further marginalizing refugee populations from host nations’ education systems (Lanzi Mazzocchini, 2008). While UNESCO (2006) has presented a sample higher education action plan for a conflict-affected country, in general the field lacks clear policies and guidelines. Donors have been reluctant to invest in higher education for crisis-affected youth, a situation which must be addressed by enhanced evidence-based and action-oriented research and advocacy.

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) & Livelihoods Training

Definitions and Rationale

Livelihoods comprise the physical, natural, human, financial, social and political capabilities, assets and activities required for households to obtain and maintain access to the resources necessary to ensure their immediate and long-term survival.

The term Livelihoods Training refers to training in fields of lower-skilled, especially informal types of work in mostly home-based or “cottage” industry: sewing, knitting, vegetable gardening, and the like (Chaffin, 2010). Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) prepares for work related to a specific trade such as carpentry, plumbing, or electrical. Completion of such programmes usually leads to a qualification recognised by authorities (Ministry of Education, employers’ associations, etc.) in the country in which it is obtained.

Both forms of training may also include training in the “soft skills” or employability skills such as job-seeking skills, business and money management skills. Through either type of training, youth attain capabilities, resources and opportunities to pursue individual and household economic goals.

The longer a crisis continues, the more important it is to equip the youth with livelihood skills, so they can make a meaningful contribution to their community during the recovery period. The conventional wisdom holds that the lack of a viable livelihood or inequitable access to resources is a primary factor motivating violence, and that offering livelihood support can even avert conflict (USAID, 2004a). Alongside other interventions, Vocational Training is seen as necessary to ensure youth self-sufficiency, empowerment and sustainable development of whole communities. Youth must be given the opportunity to access vocational and professional training, as well as apprenticeship programmes to help them acquire entry-level jobs and adjust to changes in labour demand.

TVET is seen by many as critical for youth to obtain the skills to secure wage employment, gain self-esteem and become active citizens (Moberg and Johnson-Demen, 2009). Vocational Training combined with work placement, Life Skills training and microcredit can lead youth to formulating clear future objectives, securing employment or establishing business (Attanasio et al., 2009; Burge, 2009; Chikanya, 2009; Project Baobab, 2009).

Many TVET curricula are out-dated, irrelevant to the needs of out-of-school youth and current market needs. Unfortunately, many youth are trained in (or even choose to train in) skills for which there is inadequate demand, leading to labour market saturation (ILO, 2005; Women’s Refugee Commission et al., 2008b).

Targeted youth livelihood programmes do generally not reach adolescent girls, especially those most in need. Unless programs put girls at the center from the beginning, they do not “get” to girls. (Ghati, 2009)
A few scholars have questioned the wisdom of allocating major resources to skills training for conflict-affected youth as a peace-building measure, citing the high cost and modest demonstrated gains in social stability and reducing male aggression (Blattman, 2011; Wolfe, 2011).

**Promising Practices**

Successful programmes take a holistic approach, offering TVET in combining with Life Skills, numeracy and literacy, entrepreneurship training and provide start-up kits to facilitate transition from training into the labour market (Burge, 2009; ILO, 2005; Krzysiek, 2010; Moberg and Johnson-Demen, 2009; Project Baobab, 2009; Valle, 2010; Wallenborn, 2008; Women's Refugee Commission, 2009a). Such approaches have positive side effects on youth engagement and leadership, which in turn lead to empowerment of their communities (Krzysiek, 2010; Witherite, 2007). Youth equipped with the necessary skills are positive actors in community reconstruction. For instance, youth-led organisations in Sierra Leone have advocated for their rights with the central government (Burge, 2009).

The best approaches are locally rooted, locally supported, financially viable, and developed on clear articulation of national socio-economic goals. They use local know-how, and build on local structures and performance capacities of national institutions to ensure local ownership (Wallenborn, 2008).

For training to be effective, it must lead to increased income. This requires determining beneficiaries' needs, carrying out market analysis and combining local knowledge with marketing expertise (ILO, 2005; Witherite, 2007). Holistic approaches require inclusion of post-training linkages, and linking the strategy for youth employment promotion to macro policy to promote economic growth. The Women's Refugee Commission and Columbia University (2008a) have developed a toolkit for gathering information on market demand for TVET providers and youth.

**Challenges and Gaps**

Non-academic training including Livelihood Training and TVET are still often seen as sub-standard by many governments, communities and learners, thus undermining efforts to implement programmes (Atari et al., 2010). In some cases the fears are warranted; curricula have often failed to keep up with dynamic markets and changing realities.

Generally weak labour markets in target areas complicate beneficiaries’ endeavours to use their newly-acquired skills for increased income (Moberg and Johnson-Demen, 2009; Women's Refugee Commission, 2009a). Even with sufficient training programmes in place, one report on Sierra Leone found the market could only absorb another five per cent of youth in addition to the ten per cent currently in formal employment (Stern, 2007).

TVET programmes can succeed in providing out-of-school youth and ex-combatants with livelihood skills and income-generating opportunities as an alternative to warfare (Atari et al., 2010; Malik, 2008), but challenges remain in equity of opportunity for young women and girls and the most vulnerable (World Bank, 2008).

Data on youth employment at national levels are weak (ILO, 2005; Lyby, 2001). Ideally data should depict disparities and links between education, sex, social background and youth unemployment. Data collection processes should be participative, encouraging local civil society to get involved, with greater coordination between NGOs and academic institutions (Witherite, 2007).

Many reports complain that monitoring is limited to basic reporting on outputs rather than impacts of TVET. Longitudinal impact research using control groups is the ideal, but such approaches are often unfeasible in an emergency context. Whatever the method, to the extent possible, young women and men should be engaged in all stages of programme M&E.
Life Skills, Peace Education and Recreational Activities

Definitions and Rationale

Life Skills comprise a large set of psychosocial and interpersonal skills and abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of life (WHO, 2001). These can include communication and interpersonal skills; decision-making and critical thinking skills; and coping and self-management techniques to help individuals make informed decisions, communicate effectively and help them lead a healthy and productive life. Life Skills training lets young people engage constructively with their communities and develop positive influence on their peers (Ketel, 2008). It can build the capacity and skills for employment and also help youth find psychological healing (Otieno, 2009).

Peace Education is a long-term process of developing knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. It aims to affect relationships, behaviours and structures that promote peace and encourage conflict prevention and resolution (Baxter, 2001). In conflict-affected societies, youth benefit by learning to become more accepting of others (Krech, 2005). Peace Education programmes have also led to spontaneous youth-led services and activities, allowing youth to take on leadership roles in facilitating workshops and resulting in a greater sense of self-confidence and empowerment (Obura, 2002).

Recreational Activities are aimed at psychosocial rehabilitation and the restoration of independent functioning in the community. They include sports and arts activities that provide room for crisis-affected youth to express themselves freely. They can also include Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) activities meant to minimise a community’s vulnerabilities (UNISDR, 2009). Recreational Activities can help young people better define goals for the future and develop a sense of purpose (Awad et al., 2009; Betancourt et al., 2008; Fauth and Daniels, 2001).

Life Skills, Peace Education and Recreational Activities usually take place in non-formal contexts, but can also be integrated into formal classroom learning. In some humanitarian contexts, a majority of the population is out-of-school youth who cannot or will not attend school in a formal classroom setting. Non-formal programming may be the only access they have to education and training.

Promising Practices

Flexible programmes designed in consultation with communities and youth have proven to ensure local ownership and sustainability (Rahim and Holland, 2006; UNHCR, 2001). While simpler to accomplish, the disproportionate targeting of community elites has proven counterproductive as it strengthens existing inequities. Since training is a form of empowerment, the most vulnerable youth must be identified, approached and engaged, and parents and guardians must be involved in programme activities for programmes to be successful (Sommers, 2001a). Programmes cannot rely solely on beneficiary demand but must make concerted efforts to reach girls, especially, who may be “invisible” in the community. Involving local communities and youth may require the adoption of simpler language and the translation of materials into local languages (Sommers, 2001a). While participatory and inclusive approaches can delay programme implementation, they are essential to achieving sustainable success (Hayden, 2007).

Text-heavy curricula and classroom settings have generally been ineffective in attracting or retaining out-of-school youth. (Hansen et al., 2002; Tiedemann, 2000) Programmes adopting rights-based approaches have shown promise, though teachers need support to understand them. Using culturally-sensitive and accessible educational material, open-ended questions and encouraging creativity and participation are keys to success. (Baxter, 2002; Betancourt et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2002; UNHCR, 2001) Role play can be used to teach skills and positive attitudes and behaviours that help youth make informed decisions in their lives (UNHCR, 2001).
Training youth as peer educators; as peace-builders in Multiplier Teams (Plan International, 2009); or as parent outreach workers (Avery, 2009) has proven powerful and cost-effective in reintegration processes, as youth are able to reach marginalised groups in sharing a common youth language (UNHCR, 2001). Peer education has led to increased levels of confidence to work as peace-builders or agents of change, if provided with structured supervision (CEDPA, 2008a). Participants improved their communication, leadership and group facilitation skills and developed the capacity to resolve conflict and advocate for their rights (Plan International, 2009). They were able to make a positive impact on their communities and contributed to adults shifting their attitudes and behaviour (Avery, 2009). One evaluation credited peer education with having prevented teenage pregnancy (Hayden, 2007).

For ex-combatants, remedial and accelerated learning in peer groups, in combination with apprenticeship programmes and integrated psychosocial services, have proven more promising than traditional TVET programmes (Betancourt et al., 2008). In working with this group, sports and arts activities in particular have been successful in providing critically important neutral ground for self-expression, leading to increased self-confidence and community integration (Abdalla et al., 2002; RET, 2010a). In Somalia, sports and recreation provided an entry point for community development as adolescents came together through sporting events and then began to expand their activities, creating friendly community spaces and initiating leadership and vocational training (UNICEF, 2004). Such approaches have strengthened youth organisations and enabled youth to feel more confident to raise ‘taboo’ issues (FGM, HIV, narcotics) with elders in their communities (UNICEF, 2004). Sport combined with non-formal basic literacy, numeracy and Life Skills has proven a successful strategy especially for the most vulnerable and marginalised to learn.

Challenges and Gaps

In societies dominated by generational hierarchies, youth face many challenges realizing their potential. In crises, they tend to be seen as victims or threats rather than as agents of positive change. Youth in DRR are said to be helpful in both building their resilience and improving DRR governance (Plan International and World Vision International, 2009). When adults do not engage youth in positive processes, youth participation is limited to passive roles, leaving them vulnerable to manipulation by elites.

Youth in civic organisations exhibit more self-confidence and ability to relate to elders. In Burundi, the youth committee is considered a formal stakeholder in sub-district government consultations. (Abdalla et al. 2002)

Although non-formal Life Skills programmes generally better serve marginalised youth, there are still challenges in reaching the neediest (Johannessen, 2005). As in other areas, the gender imbalance in access must be addressed by providing remedial learning and evening classes (UNICEF, 2004), as well as child care for young mothers. The failure to do so means retarding the recovery process as a whole (Obura, 2002). As Parsons (2008) writes, it is not only important to ensure young women’s participation but to ensure they are engaged in program resource management and control, as well as policy making.

The body of literature in this sector also makes reference to adopting holistic approaches and linking Life Skills training and conflict management with livelihood skills and methods of income generation (Ketel, 2008). Challenges remain if programmes aim to be holistic and specific goals get lost and programmes become too general (UNICEF, 2004) or if programme objectives adapt over time without a systemic response for these goals (NRC, 2008). This in turn hinders effective monitoring and evaluation. The development of effective evaluation tools remains challenging for this sector as well. Quick quantitative evaluation is necessary for donors’ records but does not reveal the level of long-term sustainable behaviour change taken place during Peace Education programmes. Baxter (2002) states that the best programmes involve refugee, local, national staff in evaluation and use a combination of quantitative and qualitative indicators and evaluation tools as well as developing case studies to examine how people struggle to solve problems before and after training.

A few reports emphasize the importance of facilitating informal youth education programs through cooperation between NGOs as well as between NGOs and local government agencies (NRC, 2008). Developing materials for Ministry staff and involving them from early stages ensures smooth phasing out and handing
over from foreign NGOs to local agencies as experienced by the Refugee Education Trust (RET) in its Peace Education program in Burundi. Information exchange, inter-agency collaboration and cross-border coordination would open up opportunities for lesson and practice sharing between staff teams. Furthermore, information exchange will ensure coherent and consistent programme strategies that are vital for the success of reintegration programmes (Hayden, 2007; Parsons, 2008).

Key Lessons Learned

The promising practices and challenges identified in this review show some major commonalities across the three programmatic areas.

Many reports call for education systems that are more closely linked to future economic opportunities, where responsibility does not end with implementation and project evaluation, but includes the provision of some combination of services that facilitate the transition to work: post-training internships or apprenticeships; nationally- and internationally-recognised accreditation; access to land or facilities for businesses; capital and credit; business start-up kits, etc. Many of these services will necessarily come through cross-sectoral partnerships between agencies and with government, ideally with private sector involvement.

Using participation—involving young people as active participants in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of programs—is not only a basic tenet of any human rights-based approach, but is seen in the literature as essential to ensuring the relevance of programmes to local realities and for long-term sustainability. Youth participation has positive knock-on effects in areas outside of the immediate program goals (Chaffin, 2009b). Further, failing to engage youth as the principal agents of change translates into disappointing programme outcomes (Chaffin, 2009b).

Reports emphasise the need for programmes that are inclusive of both refugee and host community youth (RET, 2009). In protracted contexts, parallel service systems have proven ineffective and have led to inter-group hostilities (Purnell, 2008).

Another common theme is that of inclusion of marginalized and female youth. Emergency situations can provide ‘windows of opportunity’ for previously excluded groups by opening up systems for reform and development, mobilising awareness of and funding, and generating changes in societal attitudes and behaviours, sometimes forever (Lloyd and Young, 2009). NGOs and donors are unlikely to ensure gender parity in programming without employing girl-friendly approaches including ensuring the safety of the school environment and routes to and from school (Lloyd and Young, 2009).

Ensuring full inclusion requires building educational systems that include both formal and non-formal approaches. With uncertain futures that could include repatriation or resettlement to a third country, emphasis on transferable skills is a must. Educational approaches must be flexible enough to keep up with fast changing realities in emergency and post-crisis contexts, while at the same time being structured enough to allow for effective evaluation.

Research and data collection efforts must work to “see” the many excluded female and male youth with age- and sex-disaggregated data, and programmers must engage young people to develop strategies to reach their more marginalised peers. Monitoring and evaluation processes must seek to feed into a wider set of qualitative and quantitative data documenting programmatic response to youths’ educational needs. More longitudinal studies will be necessary to develop an effective research and advocacy base on education for crisis-affected youth. This, again, will require partnerships among NGOs and between NGOs, government, academic institutions and beneficiary communities. Without greater such collaboration, it will remain largely unclear as to what particular programmatic approaches work, and why or why not.
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