



EDUCATION IN
EMERGENCIES AND
PROTRACTED CRISES

Toward a strengthened response

Background paper for the Oslo Summit on Education Development
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1 Introduction

1.1.1. This paper on education in emergencies and protracted crises is a background note for the Oslo Summit on Education Development to be held 6-7 July 2015.¹ The summit aims at mobilizing a strong and renewed political commitment to reach the 58 million children who are denied their right to education and to strengthen learning outcomes for children and young people of all ages. It will explore deliverables in four areas: investments in education, girls' education, education in emergencies, and quality of learning.

1.1.2 Education is a fundamental right of all people.² It is the most effective way of reducing poverty and inequality and is integral to people fulfilling their life goals (High Level Panel, 2013). However, 25 years after the adoption of the World Declaration on Education for All and 15 years following the Dakar Framework for Action, more than 58 million children remain out of primary school and a further 63 million out of lower secondary school (UIS, 2015). Moreover, a worrying number in school across the developing world are not learning to an adequate standard (EFA GMR, 2014).

1.1.3 Some of the most egregious violations in regards to the right to education occur in contexts of emergency and protracted crises. As pointed out in the Special Rapporteur's report of 2008, "Education, a basic human right, is frequently found to be interrupted, delayed or even denied during the reconstruction process and early response to emergencies." (Muñoz, 2008). More than half of primary school age children live in fragile and conflict-affected countries, more than two-thirds of those out-of-school are in these countries. It would cost over \$7.5 billion a year to educate these children, a low estimate given the range of other costs linked to those out of school due to natural disasters and others affected in conflict and other types of emergencies. Moreover, between 2009 and 2013, at least 70 countries experienced attacks against schools,³ and in 2014 over 5 million children were forced out of school due to the Ebola crisis.

1.1.4 Awareness of the importance of education in situations of war, natural disaster and other emergencies has been growing for some time, yet concerted action to address the needs still falls short. Recently, a clear call to address this challenge have been made by Gordon Brown, UN Special Envoy for Global Education, and a number of other actors have indicated greater ambition in this area.

1.1.5 This paper first outlines the challenge of education in emergencies and protracted crises, exploring four main questions: how the issue is defined, how many are affected and where, what is the impact of crises on education, and what kind of costs are involved. It then goes on to explore the current architecture, looking at who provides education response, how it is coordinated, and

¹ The Summit takes place alongside other events held this year and next to inform and set the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and related agendas: World Education Forum in Incheon; Financing for Development in Addis Ababa; the UN General Assembly in New York; and World Humanitarian Summit in Istanbul.

² As enshrined in article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, articles 13 and 14 of The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and article 28 of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child.

³ Six countries were particularly heavily affected - Afghanistan, Colombia, Pakistan, Somalia, Sudan and Syria – each experiencing either 1,000 or more attacks on schools or education personnel each (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014)

how it is planned and financed. Finally, the paper identifies key gaps and sets out consultation questions to inform a range of possible solutions that will be proposed as part of the final paper.⁴

2 The challenge

2.1 What is 'education in emergencies and protracted crises'?

2.1.1 There is a relatively broad scope and understanding of what constitutes 'education in emergencies', which can vary across type, phase and scale of crisis.⁵ The term is often used as a catch-all, but other expressions might be used, such as education in humanitarian response, protracted crises (DFID, 2015), or fragile contexts (GPE, 2015). Here we use the term 'education in emergencies and protracted crises' to emphasise both the immediate and on-going nature of the challenge, shortening it to 'education in crises' at times.

2.1.2 Education can occur across three broad typologies of humanitarian crises: conflict (i.e. war, insurgency), natural disasters (i.e. earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts) and epidemics (i.e. Ebola, HIV). Complex emergencies involve a combination of several types, and may not fit neatly into a predefined taxonomy (IFRC, 2015). Fragility is often an underlying factor – particularly in complex and protracted crises – and includes countries that are characterized by weak institutional capacity and governance, political instability and in many cases persistent violence (Shields & Paulson, 2015).

2.1.3 The phase of a crisis is a key determinant of the type of education response and can include preparedness, acute emergencies, protracted crises, and recovery (INEE, 2010). Prior to an emergency, education actors may work on preparedness, which can involve scenario planning and simulations, disaster risk reduction activities, and pre-positioning of supplies. When an acute crisis occurs, immediate response kicks in, and is a much more visible phase that can include surge capacity, joint rapid needs assessments, strategic response plans, emergency schools/tents, emergency supplies such as 'school in a box', and child friendly spaces. During a chronic and protracted phase of a crisis, there would be a stronger focus on teacher training, psychosocial care, and support for administration and supervisors. A recovery phase occurs when the immediate threats are mainly over (i.e. peace agreement signed, flooding ends) and might involve developing longer-term recovery plans, re-building of infrastructure, and systems strengthening for resilience (UNICEF, 2006).

2.1.4 The scale of crisis – in terms of numbers affected, geographic scope and population movement – is also a key aspect of education response. Emergencies can be large-scale with significant media attention, or they can be small scale 'forgotten emergencies', and these elements often somewhat determine capacity to respond. The geographic scope and accessibility of affected populations is another important issue. In addition, the extent of population movement and whether they cross borders are key issues, with internal displacement and refugees, for instance, falling under different mandates for international agencies.

⁴ The paper draws on and consolidates a range of published and unpublished analysis. It will be informed by a short formal consultation process taking place from 11-22 May 2015, and then go through a process of revision and finalisation based on this input in order to be ready by mid-June. Because of the short timeframe set out to prepare the paper, further analysis of numbers, architecture and suggestion solutions remains on-going throughout the consultation period. The final paper will be reduced in length, but not in scope.

⁵ The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) states that education in emergencies encompasses "quality learning opportunities for all ages in situations of crisis, including early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education... and provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives" (INEE, 2010).

2.1.5 Understanding the broad scope of ‘education in emergencies and protracted crises’ is integral to the challenge of moving the sector forward. Emergencies are unpredictable along several dimensions – typology, scale and timeframe – meaning the system must be flexible enough to respond to the needs of all varieties of emergencies. The INEE’s inclusive definition signals that it should cover quality learning outcomes from early childhood to adult education in all situations of crisis.⁶

Box 1: A large-scale education emergency for Syria

The war in Syria started over 4 years ago and efforts to provide adequate education for the children of Syria have fallen far short. Almost 3 million children still are out-of-school, with the long-term impact to the economy of these children never returning to school reaching 5.4% of GDP. Half of refugees are not receiving education and at least a quarter of schools have been destroyed or damaged. Three million Syrian children out of school, with enrolment has falling from close to 100% to 50% on average, with areas of prolonged conflict such as Aleppo falling to as low as 6%. This is possibly the most severe case of a protracted crisis currently.

Source - (Save the Children, 2015)

2.2 How many children are affected and where?

2.2.1 Estimates of how many children miss school because of emergencies vary.⁷ UNESCO found that in 2012, although only 22% of primary aged children live in conflict-affected countries, half of all children not in primary school, or 28.5 million, live there (EFA GMR, 2015a). Jones and Naylor (2014) argue this is nearer 39 million, or over two-thirds of primary out-of-school children. In terms of lower secondary, 20 million of the 69 million who were not in school globally lived in conflict-affected countries in 2011 (EFA GMR, 2013). In terms of refugees, in 2013 50% of the world’s 16.7 million refugees were 18 years old or younger (UNHCR, 2014a), with estimates indicating that in 2009 the primary level enrolment (gross) was only 76% for refugees, compared with a global average of 90%, which falls dramatically at secondary level with only 36% enrolment compared to 67% globally. It is estimated that natural disasters affect around 175 million children annually, with an unknown number of children out of school in these contexts (UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2012).

2.2.2 Conflicts occur predominantly in low or lower middle income countries around the world. In 2014, wars or limited wars occurred in 28 countries (Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research, 2015). However wars and crises tend to be protracted in nature, lasting for an average of 17 years (see Table 1). It is also important to note that conflicts are unpredictable. Figure 1 provides figures on the numbers of displaced people globally, showing that since 2000 the figure has more than doubled and may rise from 41 million in 2013 to close to 70 million in 2030. As more and more people are affected by crises, the strain on education systems and need for support will only increase.

Table 1: Number and average length of conflict episodes, 1999–2008, by region and income group

	Number of conflict episodes (1999-2008)	Average length (years)
Region		
Arab States	6	19
Central and Eastern Europe	3	14

⁶ The reality is that education responses to crises fall far short of this, focusing predominantly on primary education with little attention, if any, given to pre- or post-primary education, or learning outcomes.

⁷ While education should be available across all age groups, the focus for this paper is on primary and secondary school age children.

Central Asia	1	17
East Asia and the Pacific	6	31
Latin America and the Caribbean	1	45
South and West Asia	11	24
Sub-Saharan Africa	20	9
Income Group		
Low income	20	12
Lower middle income	23	22
Upper middle income	5	21
Total	48	17

Source: (Kreutz, 2010)

2.2.3 The education of refugees around the world is problematic as well. In addition to the numbers of those out of school cited above, the quality of this education is also very low with pupil-teacher ratio averages as high as 70:1 and the proportion of trained teachers being extremely low (UNHCR, 2011). The global burden of refugee populations also falls largely on developing countries, meaning that international assistance and support will be even more necessary. In 2014 there were 34 countries hosting more than 100,000 refugees – many in the Middle East, Africa and Asia – and in total developing countries were hosting some 86% of the world’s refugees. The capacity of poorer countries may also be a concern, given that almost half of refugees in UNHCR’s mandate are hosted by countries where GDP per capita is below US\$5000 (UNHCR, 2015a).

Box 2: Education in the protracted crisis of DRC and CAR

DRC and CAR are key examples of how education systems suffer in fragile states and are affected by conflicts. In DRC the government’s inability to provide education has led to a system that is predominantly household funded with very low primary completion rates (39% for boys, 35% for girls). Recurring armed conflict in CAR since 2003 has led to a situation where in a country of 4.6 million people there are only 9,000 teachers (half of which are unqualified), 7% of schools are being used as shelters, and up to 80% of children are out-of-school. DRC and CAR represent two of the most protracted crises with severe long-term impacts on education, which creates a negative feedback mechanism where lack of education and protection fuels further violence and fragility.

Source - (INEE, 2014); (Nicolai & Hine, 2015); (INEE, 2015a)

2.2.4 In terms of natural disasters, countries most at risk are mostly in Oceania, Southeast Asia, Central America and the Southern Sahel as shown in Table 2. There are 10 countries with populations over 10 million with the highest annual risk of natural disasters occurring. Countries with large out-of-school populations also experience a range of risk.

Table 2 - The 10 countries (population 10m+) most at risk of natural disasters and risk of 10 countries with largest out-of-school populations (2014)

Top 10 countries at most risk of natural disasters (populations 10 million+)			Top 10 countries with largest out-of-school populations and their annual risk of natural disasters			
Global risk ranking	Country	Risk (%)	Global risk ranking	Country	Out-of-school average (2000-2014)	Risk (%)
2	Philippines	28.25	52	Nigeria	7,482,108	8.24
4	Guatemala	20.68	73	India	7,434,721	7.04
5	Bangladesh	19.37	72	Pakistan	6,650,470	7.07
9	Cambodia	17.12	63	Ethiopia	5,636,672	7.57
17	Japan	13.38	75	Kenya	1,385,422	7.00
18	Vietnam	13.09	2	Philippines	1,331,537	28.2
21	Haiti	12.00	55	Tanzania	1,290,438	8.11

23	Dominican Republic	11.50	127	USA	1,278,862	3.88
24	Niger	11.45	24	Niger	1,186,796	11.45
25	Benin	11.42	41	Burkina Faso	1,078,286	9.62

Source: (Alliance Development Works and UNU-EHS, 2014), UNESCO UIS [accessed May 8th 2015]

Box 3: Impact of natural disasters in the Philippines

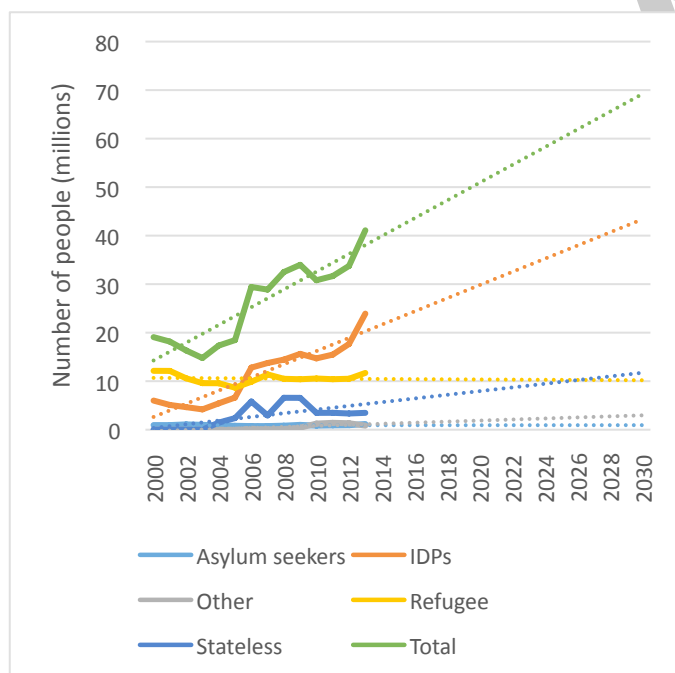
Some countries are at high risk of recurring natural disasters. The Philippines is the country with the second highest risk of natural disasters after Vanuatu (Alliance Development Works and UNU-EHS, 2014). Yet often these disasters are small and have a local impact, meaning the response is often lacking. Between 2007 and 2011 schools in the Philippines recorded 6.7 billion pesos worth of damage, yet only 2.6 billion pesos was assigned for school damage repair over the same period.

Source - (INEE, 2013)

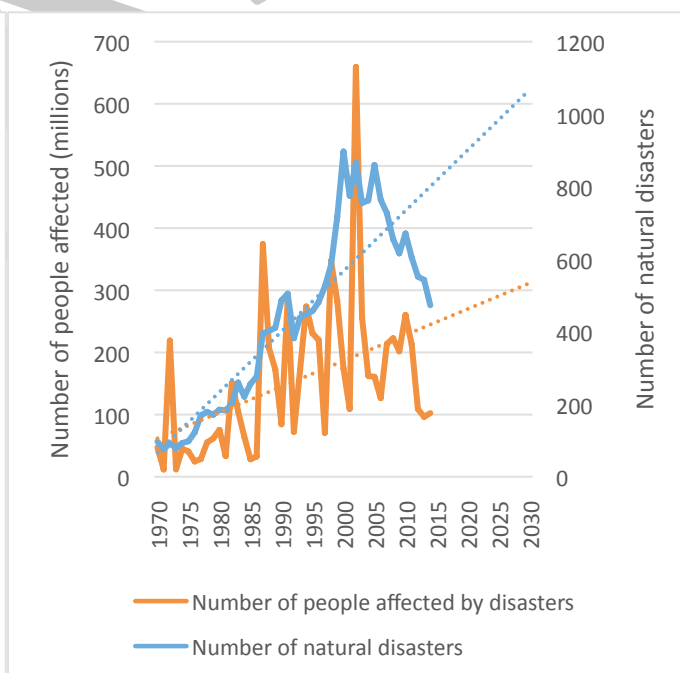
2.2.5 The number of natural disasters and those affected year on year is equally unpredictable. Figure 2 shows the rapid increase in both the number of disasters and those affected by disasters since the middle of last century. This cannot be explained simply by population growth, which has only doubled since 1970. Although there has been a dip in recent years, long term trends suggest that globally as many as 600 million people could be affected annually by natural disasters by 2030 compared to around 450 million in 2015. Factors that will likely contribute to the increasing numbers of people at risk of natural disasters and conflict include climate change, demographic change, urbanisation, and inequality (The Government Office for Science, 2012).

Figure 1 - Global refugees, asylum seekers, IDPs, stateless and other, projected to 2030

Figure 2 - Number of natural disasters and those affected globally, projected to 2030



Source: UNHCR Popstats Database [Accessed 22nd April 2015]



Source: EM-DAT [Accessed 20th April 2015], projections are author's calculations

2.3 What is the impact of crises on education?

2.3.1 The impact of emergencies and protracted crises on education varies. We have already discussed that estimates suggest between 50% (EFA GMR, 2013) and 68% (Jones & Naylor, 2014) of primary school children out-of-school live in conflict-affected countries, while many more have been affected by natural disasters and other emergencies. This shows the widespread nature of impact,

which affects individuals and families, the education system and society as a whole. Education response can be important in three ways: firstly it mitigates future risk, secondly it enhances both emotional and physical protection, and thirdly it fosters resilience (Burde, et al., 2015).

2.3.2 Current estimates of the global learning crisis indicate that 250 million children are either not completing primary school or completing it without learning the basics of literacy and numeracy (EFA GMR, 2014). The amount of education they missed out due to emergencies and protracted crises is likely contributing significantly to poor quality of education across a number of systems.

Box 4: Disruption to education in Bangladesh, Pakistan and the Ebola crisis

Extended closure is common due to both natural disasters and conflict. In cyclone and flood prone areas of Bangladesh in 2007, it was found that 84% of sampled schools had extended closures (averaging 26 days), and disasters resulted in at least 3% of students dropping out. In Pakistan, research on the Swat Valley found that the school closure rate increased from 3% before the conflict in 2006 to 9% just 3 years later. However, when looking at the union councils within Swat, half were unaffected whereas others were severely affected with the closure rate for Ultror increasing from 0% to 24% and from 8% to 31% in Shamozi. In 2014/15 Ebola wreaked havoc on the education systems in Guinea, Sierra Leone and Liberia. This impacted 8.5 million children and young people under 20, 2.5 million of which are under 5. Schools in the three countries remained close for over 7 months. Primary school attendance was already low before the crisis (Guinea – 58%, Sierra Leone – 74%, and Liberia – 34%). While out-of-school for significant time, many children will never return as they often end up working, marrying or becoming pregnant earlier.

Source - (Alam, 2010); (Education Policy and Data Center, 2010); (INEE, 2015b).

2.3.3 A recent review of evidence finds that the education of already vulnerable or marginalised groups almost always suffer worst in emergencies. These groups include girls (Jones & Naylor, 2014) and the poor (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2010). Children with disabilities before an emergency are more vulnerable than those without and there is an increased risk of children becoming disabled during a conflict or natural disaster. Inclusive education therefore becomes even more important in these situations (International Disability and Development Consortium, 2009).

2.3.4 Emergencies can also have disastrous system-wide effects. These might include direct costs of damaged infrastructure, or costs of retraining teachers and replacing learning materials. There are also the indirect costs of interrupted learning and loss of human capital formation. Education has been found to be a key component to peacebuilding in Sierra Leone, Liberia and Nepal (United Nations Peacebuilding Support Office, 2012). Without education (or with inadequate education) social tensions are at risk of increasing.

Box 5: The Haiti earthquake and impacts on the education system

The 2010 earthquake in Haiti had a devastating effect on the education system. Half of schools and three universities were either severely damaged or destroyed, 1,500 education personnel lost their lives and the Ministry of Education building itself collapsed. This is a devastating example of an acute onset emergency that had a huge impact on the functioning of an already weak education system.

Source - (IASC, 2010)

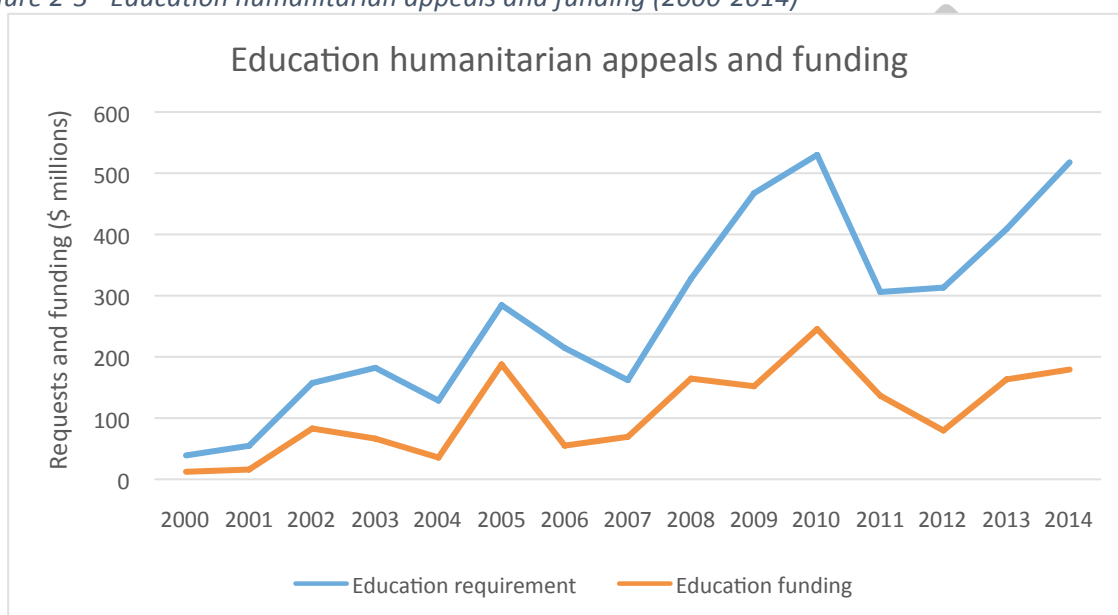
2.4 What kind of costs are involved?

2.4.1 There is little evidence on what the total cost would be of providing education for all those lacking education due to emergencies. Using the lower estimate of 28.5 million children out-of-school in conflict-affect countries it would cost over \$7.5 billion a year to educate them, based on the average cost of educating children in each country (see appendix). This is a low estimate for several reasons. Firstly the cost of educating children in emergencies is higher than the cost of

educating the average child in a country. Secondly the number of children out-of-school in conflict-affected countries could be as high as 39 million (Jones & Naylor, 2014). And thirdly this does not include all those affected by other types of emergencies in countries not affected by conflicts.

2.4.2 Although the \$7.5 billion per year is a low estimate, the actual amounts requested in international appeals is far short of this figure. As shown in Figure 2-3 the highest amount requested through the appeals process was just under \$530 million in 2010. The amount actually received through these appeals is even smaller, with the highest amount received being just over \$245 million in 2010. These figures are orders of magnitude below what is actually required to adequately provide education in emergencies.

Figure 2-3 - Education humanitarian appeals and funding (2000-2014)



Source: UN OCHA Financial Tracking Services [accessed 28th April 2015]

2.4.3 Some limited work carried out to estimate the costs of lost education due to emergencies has been done at country level. Jones and Naylor have estimated the 'long-term negative impact on national income of reduced educational attainment due to conflict' for the years 2009-2012 for two countries. For DRC this amounts to \$470 million and for Pakistan \$2.9 billion, the equivalent of 1.7% and 1.3% of GDP respectively. These costs include destruction or damage of infrastructure and learning materials, the cost of training new teachers, the loss of future earnings due to missed education, and compensation to teachers or their families due to death, disablement or trauma (Jones & Naylor, 2014). In Syria, the direct (destruction of infrastructure, costs of training new teachers) and indirect (wider costs to society due to disruption of education and loss of future earnings) costs of these attacks on education are estimated to reach \$6.4 billion (Save the Children, 2015). These figures will only rise unless significant efforts are made to provide good quality education in these most challenging environments.

3 Understanding the architecture

3.1 Who provides education in emergencies and protracted crises?

3.1.1 Overall responsibility for education sits primarily with national governments. In UN General Assembly resolution A/64/L.58 on 'The right to education in emergency situations' (2010), member states were urged to:

“implement strategies and policies to ensure and support the realization of the right to education as an integral element of humanitarian assistance and humanitarian response, to the maximum of their available resources, with the support of the international community, the United Nations system, donors, multilateral agencies, the private sector, civil society and non-governmental organizations.”

3.1.2 The capacity of national governments and the extent of co-ordination within them varies, with some countries having set up emergency units addressing education as either a part of their national disaster management bodies or within the Ministry of Education.

Box 6: National response mechanisms in the Philippines and Pakistan

With the Philippines on both the typhoon belt and the Pacific Ring of Fire, it is particularly at risk from multiple recurring hazards including cyclones, earthquakes, floods and landslides. It's National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council (NDRRMC) operates using the cluster model to bring together various actors to co-ordinate efforts. Under this model the Department for Education has a Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Office (DRRMO) and DRRM Core Group, who are responsible for formulating policies for education in emergencies and proposing programmes and projects to mitigate and reduce the impact of disasters on education.

Pakistan developed a National Disaster Response Plan (NDRP) and associated structures in 2010. The National Disaster Management Authority is the lead implementing, co-ordinating and monitoring body for disaster management, including not only government institutions such as the Ministry of Education, but also UN agencies and international and national NGOs. The Ministry of Education and its provisional bodies are responsible for emergency preparedness plans, developing modes of response for education in emergencies and assessing needs and plans for rehabilitation. They are represented at the National Emergency Operations Centre, as well as its provisional level agencies.

Source – COA (2014), NDMA (2010)

3.1.3 Responsibility for protection and care of refugees does not lie with national governments, but instead is the mandate of two UN agencies. The UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) leads international efforts to safeguard the rights and well-being of refugees, an aspect which includes education, given prominence by the launch of a new education strategy for 2012-2016. Precise figures for the numbers enrolled in refugee schools are lacking, but as of 2009 the average primary gross enrolment rate in refugee camps and urban settlements was 76%, while the figure for secondary stood at 36% (UNHCR, 2011). Despite significant coverage there is clearly further room for improvement. The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA) has a mandate for those displaced by the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict and their descendants, including responsibility for education provision. UNRWA runs a network of over 700 schools and colleges in the Middle East, with just under half a million students enrolled.

3.1.4 A range of other multilateral agencies contribute to supporting education in crises. They provide additional resources, expertise and capacity that can augment state-led efforts or when there is contested responsibility due to displacement. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) plays a particularly important role, both in terms of its reach – responding to as many as 200 emergencies every year – and serves as a co-lead for the Global Education Cluster as well as lead or co-lead for 41 of the 42 countries that have had established clusters (GEC 2011). The United Nations

Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the World Bank, and the European Union also make important contributions in different places and phases of response.⁸⁹¹⁰

3.1.5 Bilateral development agencies, such as the United Kingdom’s Department for International Development (DFID)¹¹, the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA)¹², the United States Agency for International Development (USAID)¹³, Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation (NORAD)¹⁴ and the German Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ)¹⁵, are also key players of the provision of education in crises in different environments.

3.1.6 A wide range of international NGOs and humanitarian agencies support education in crises. These include Save the Children, who ran the global “Rewrite the Future” campaign on education in conflict-affected states and co-leads the Global Education Cluster, as well as the International Rescue Committee (IRC), Plan International, and the Norwegian Refugee Council.

3.1.7 Moreover, national and sub-national NGOs are often an important part of education response, with a range of actors likely to be operating around any given crisis with varying degrees of international partnership. The INEE lists a total of 259 members from national NGOs and 49 from community organisations, including at least 125 uniquely named organisations. In Pakistan the national education cluster has almost 40 national and regional NGO members working in different provinces, while in the Central African Republic there are fewer than 10 national NGO members, with the majority of cluster members and implementing agencies being international.

3.2 How is response coordinated?

3.2.1 The myriad of actors operating at various levels in providing education in emergencies and protracted crises has created a clear need for coordination mechanisms. The three most significant groups in this regard are highlighted here – the IASC Education Cluster, the Global Partnership for

⁸ UNESCO has a mandate that covers all levels of education and plays a key co-ordinating role in international efforts to achieve EFA and strengthen global education systems. Its role in crisis contexts varies, and is sometimes led through specialist institutions such as the Institute for International Education Planning (UNESCO- IIEP), which works with member states to plan and manage their education systems, including improving their resilience to the impacts of crises and unanticipated emergencies.

⁹ The World Bank plays an important role in the architecture for providing education in crisis contexts. It was a founding member of the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), and has a key role supervising activities funded by GPE grants. It has an increasing focus on addressing the needs of the poorest and most disadvantaged children, including those in fragile and conflict-affected states.

¹⁰ European Union operates largely through the European Commission’s Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection department (ECHO). Specifically on education in crisis contexts, it has set up the EU Children of Peace initiative, initially funded by the proceeds of the 2012 Nobel Peace Prize and a matching contribution from the EU’s humanitarian agency (ECHO), but since expanded by funding from a range of member states.

¹¹ In 2010, DFID pledged to spend around 50% of its bilateral education programme aid in fragile and conflict affected states as part of its 2010-2015 strategy (DFID, 2010) and has placed a strong emphasis on girls’ education over the last five years (DFID, 2013).

¹² SIDA introduced guidelines for humanitarian assistance in the education sector in 2002, played a major role in supporting education, and particularly girls’ education, and continues to provide considerable support through multilateral organisations such as the Global Partnership for Education and UNICEF.

¹³ USAID’s current education strategy includes education in crisis contexts as one of its three overarching goals (USAID, 2011).

¹⁴ A recent white paper produced by the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs gave education in situations of crisis and conflict as one of the five goal areas for Norway’s international assistance (MFA 2014).

¹⁵ GIZ founded the BACKUP Education Fund in 2012 with the aim of improving the ability of decision makers and civil society actors in Africa involved in education to effectively access and co-ordinate international funding.

Education (GPE), the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) – each with different mandates – but all spanning global and country level reach.

3.2.2 Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), led by the Emergency Relief Co-ordinator (ERC), who is also the head of the United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)¹⁶, is a forum for co-ordination, decision-making and policy development between different humanitarian agencies. The IASC Education Cluster, created in 2007, sits alongside a set of 10 clusters focused on coordination for other sectors, which sit both at the global level and are activated in the field in response to particular emergencies. The Global Education Cluster is co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children and has 21 organisational members. The Education Cluster Unit (ECU) serves as its secretariat, providing guidance to country education clusters and managing the deployments of a Rapid Response Team. Clusters are activated and de-activated at country level based on need and the stage of emergency through a formal call by the UN Humanitarian Coordinator. There are currently 23 active education clusters, with a further 6 clusters having become dormant over 2006-2015, as well as Working Groups operating in a further 24 countries over the same period.¹⁷ Education Clusters do help to coordinate country level Strategic Response Plans (SRPs), which include appeals, but do not distribute funding, which instead happens directly between bi-lateral and operational agencies.

Box 7: Education clusters operating across acute and protracted crises

National education clusters are currently operating in four countries or regions classified as L-3, the highest level of crisis severity. These include the Central African Republic (CAR), South Sudan, Syria and the region affected by the Ebola crisis (based in Liberia). In Liberia, in response to Ebola, the Education Cluster placed three Rapid Response Team members and worked closely with the Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Save the Children and other partners to conduct needs assessments, implement safe school protocols, conduct training for teachers and provide hygiene kits. Efforts co-ordinated more than 20 agencies to assure Liberia's 1.2 million children return to school. This cluster also supported working groups in Sierra Leone and Guinea.

In Somalia, where there is a protracted crisis, the education cluster faces a significant challenge in implementing programmes due to a lack of funding. It operates in partnership with the Ministry of Education in Somaliland and Puntland, and has successfully expanded access to protective learning spaces for over 250,000 children, as well as providing learning and recreation supplies. It has also engaged in training of teachers and community education committees, although it has fallen short of its overall targets. In addition to a lack of funding the cluster also faces challenges with the limited number of education agencies who have the necessary technical capacity and a lack of data collection, particularly in southern and central Somalia.

Source – Global Education Cluster¹, OCHA (2013), UNICEF (2014)

3.2.3 The Global Partnership for Education (GPE), originally established in 2002 as the Education for All Fast Track Initiative (FTI), adopted its new name in 2011. Not typically active in acute emergencies, it is present in a number of fragile states and thus active in protracted crises. Funded by a combination of large institutional multi-lateral and bi-lateral donors (e.g. DFID, EU, SIDA,

¹⁶ OCHA performs a wide range of roles in the humanitarian sphere, including co-ordination, advocacy, policy development, information management and co-ordinating humanitarian financing. This last role includes both the mobilisation and management of pooled funds for humanitarian crises, including the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) and Country-based Pooled Funds (CBPFs), and the tracking and publishing of humanitarian expenditures through the Financial Tracking Service (FTS) database, all discussed further below.

¹⁷ Information also gathered from GEC website and accurate as of April 15th, 2015

<http://educationcluster.net/country-coordination/education-clusters-and-working-groups/>

UNESCO and the World Bank), developing country governments and civil society actors, it acts as a de facto co-ordinating body pooling funds from a range of donors and then making grants to countries and organisations to support and improve education. Since 2002 it has allocated US\$4.3 billion in grants for education programmes in 60 countries. Globally, GPE is governed by a board of directors comprised of 19 members. 6 of these represent developing country partners (3 of which represent groups of African states), 6 represent donor countries, 3 represent CSOs (one international or northern, one developing and one from a teaching organisation), 3 represent multilateral agencies (UNESCO, UNICEF and a representative of multi-lateral and regional banks), and 1 represents the private sector and private foundations. Julia Gillard, former-Prime Minister of Australia, is the current Board Chair. At country level GPE plays a long term co-ordinating role, bringing together donors in a Local Education Group (LEG), which provide a collaborative forum to promote public policy dialogue, mobilise financing support and co-ordinate between actors through developing, implementing and monitoring education sector plans.

Box 8: GPE in fragile states

While GPE does not have a specific focus on education in crisis, in the mid-2000s it began to consider how to better provide support for fragile countries. A Progressive Framework was adopted in 2008 and began to change the focus of the organisation.¹⁸ Since 2010, GPE has increased its allocation of funds to fragile and conflict-affected countries. This has given it a stronger focus on working with humanitarian agencies to bridge gaps between emergency response and long term development of education, including providing up to 20% of indicative allocation amounts on an urgent basis to respond to crises and adopting greater flexibility, both in terms of implementing partners at the country level and allowing them to shift funds to meet emerging needs in crisis situations. Currently over 50% of GPE disbursements are made through partners (e.g. UNICEF and the World Bank) to member states that are classified as fragile or conflict affected. However, it has historically accounted for only a relatively small proportion of total external aid for education allocated to fragile states, making up only 6% over 2010-2012.

Source – Brannelly et al. 2009; GPE, 2013b; GPE, 2015 [Unpublished], UNESCO, 2015

3.2.4 The Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), formed in 2000 as a result of the Dakar World Education Forum's Strategy Session on Education in Emergencies, serves as an informal coordination structure to facilitate collaboration and share information on the sector. In 2004 the INEE produced the *Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery* (INEE, 2010). These set out the framework under which all work in education in emergencies should be carried out, just as *Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response* does for the rest of the humanitarian sector (The Sphere Project, 2011). It currently has over 11,000 individual members across over 170 countries with a wide-ranging membership from UN agencies, national and international NGOs, donor organisations, governments and ministries of education, as well as individual researchers, teachers and students. Current working groups include the INEE Minimum Standards Working Group, the Education and Fragility Working Group, and the Education Cannot Wait Advocacy Group.

¹⁸ Thus changing the criteria for eligibility for funding to allow countries that had more limited political stability, coherence and institutional capacity to apply for interim financing of plans to improve their education systems. It also broadened the types of bodies that could apply for and receive funding to include sub-national units, consortiums of NGOs and UN agencies, and cross-border groups (Turrent, 2009). This opened up the possibility of financing education in crisis and fragile contexts through this mechanism, whereas prior requirements would have been unwieldy or inappropriate.

3.3 How is education planned and financed in crises?

3.3.1 Providing for the education needs of populations in crisis contexts requires, as a first step, an accurate and credible assessment of needs. Within the existing system this is provided initially through the mechanism of joint education needs assessments (JENA), and is often facilitated by the cluster. These draw together all active agencies and actors both within and across sectors to create a single process of data collection, processing and analysis that produces a single report detailing the needs of the population within the crisis context. The actors involve pool their assessment resources and agree not only on the design and methodology, but also a single interpretation of its findings. Work on strengthening the methodological basis of these forms of assessments and building capacity for their conduct in national and international bodies is ongoing with a number of actors working on developing toolkits and compiling examples of best practice and lessons learned.

Box 9: The JENA, PDNAs, and PCNAs

Joint Education Needs Assessments (JENA) are generally undertaken as an immediate response to an emerging crisis or, in areas with ongoing crises, in response to a request from a country-level education cluster. JENA's are generally co-ordinated by the Education Cluster or Education sector working group using the model developed by the GEC, and include all relevant actors in the education sectors (e.g. government ministries; local and national NGOs, UN agencies, non-state providers etc.). They are designed to understand the impact of a given crisis or emergency on education provision; identify locations and populations that are severely affected; assess the existing capacity and resources of the education system; and, on the basis of these, identify educational priorities that require external assistance.

Post-Disaster Needs Assessments (PDNA) and Post-Conflict Needs Assessments (PCNA) are two areas in which UNDP, the European Union and the World Bank collaborate and develop a common approach. They were the subject of a joint declaration by these bodies in 2008 to establish a common approach on assessing needs in the immediate aftermath of crises. PDNAs are government-led exercises to bring together national and international stakeholders to align recovery efforts and take place with the support of the EU, UN bodies and the World Bank. It collects data on economic damage and losses and defines recovery priorities, also taking into account the human development needs of populations. This information and prioritisation is then consolidated into a single assessment report that is used as the basis for a comprehensive recovery framework.

PCNA's are multi-lateral exercises that are undertaken by a similar group of agencies, but with the inclusion of Regional Development Banks and in co-operation with national governments and donor countries. Their role is similarly to provide an entry point for negotiating and financing common strategies for recovery and development in post-conflict and fragile contexts. PCNA's incorporate needs assessments, national priorities and costing of needs in a transitional results framework. They have been used to mobilise and co-ordinate funds in a range of contexts including Iraq, Liberia, Haiti, Sudan, South Sudan, Somalia, Pakistan and Yemen.

Source – GEC (2010), UNESCO (2011), UNHCR (2015b)

3.3.2 Strategic response plans (SRPs) are used to co-ordinate responses to humanitarian crises whenever there is more than one agency involved. They are prepared by humanitarian country teams (HCTs) based on an overview of humanitarian needs in the crisis context, who also set strategic objectives for the response. They are used primarily by the OCHA humanitarian co-ordinator and HCT, but are also used for resource mobilisation purpose and by agency and NGO directors, managers and cluster coordinators. Cluster plans, including those of the education cluster, operate within the framework of the SRP and are drawn up by the members of the education cluster, led by the cluster co-ordinator. Cluster plans consist of detailed objectives, activities and

accompanying projects for implementation, including costings, planned outputs and targets. OCHA guidance (OCHA, 2014a) notes that the strategic response plans should be constructed in such a way as to be coherent with other national frameworks, as well as agreed recovery and transition plans, such as those produced by the PDNA and PCNA processes.

Box 10: The Syria Regional Refugee and Resilience Plan (3RP)

3RP is a relatively recent initiative that was launched in late 2014 and is scheduled to have a two-year time frame (2015-2016). It is a country-driven plan to address refugee and humanitarian needs surrounding the Syrian crisis, whilst also attempting to build resilience. It aims to be regionally coherent, with an integrated multi-sector response in countries across the region, including Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Turkey and Egypt, and to combine humanitarian responses with a development-oriented approach by bringing together work in the humanitarian and development sphere into a single strategy. It also aims to provide a broad platform for building partnerships, allowing joined up planning, advocacy, fundraising and data sharing across a range of actors.

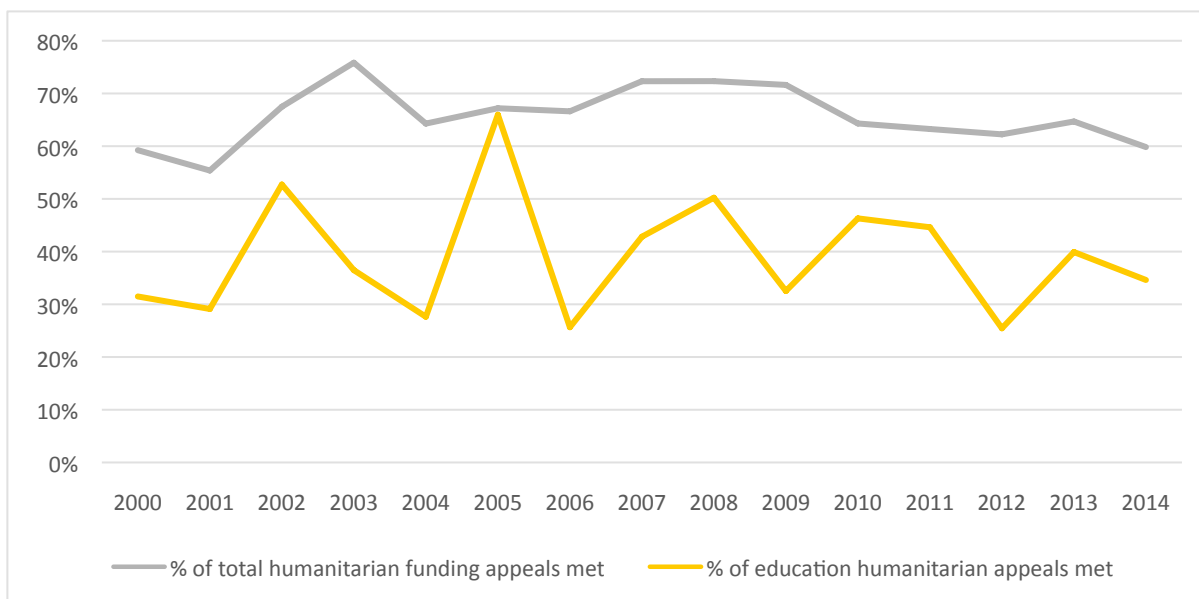
Source – Bennett (2015)

3.3.3 There are four main sources of funding for education in crisis contexts – domestic public spending; humanitarian aid; development aid; and private household expenditure. The first of these, public expenditure on education, has risen over the last fifteen years in many development countries – rising by 1 percentage point or more of national income in 38 countries over 1999-2012 (UNESCO, 2015).¹⁹ However, data on domestic public spending for education in crisis contexts is limited. Given this, it is hard to be clear on important of an element it is at different stages of a crisis or how it is allocated. It is also likely that the ability of the government to raise revenue domestically may be more limited in contexts that are fragile or conflict affected. Nicolai and Hine (2015: 34) note that *“While domestic expenditure is the single largest source of funding on education across all types of countries, no research was found that clearly analyses this before, during and after emergencies...It may be that certain governments have set aside budgets to support education in emergencies, but this is not documented or explored in any depth in any cases.”*

3.3.4 The prioritisation of education in humanitarian aid is still relatively limited. Of the US\$12.9bn requested by humanitarian appeals in 2013, only 3.19% was intended for use in the education sector, and the share of education in actual funds received was even lower at 1.95%. This is well below the target of 4% earmarked humanitarian funds for education that was called for by the UN Secretary-General’s Education First Initiative in 2012 and signed up to by 20 stakeholders, including government, UN agencies, CSOs and the private sectors (UN, 2012). Based on these figures, only some 40% of education requirements were covered, compared to an average of 65% for all humanitarian appeals (GEC, 2014).

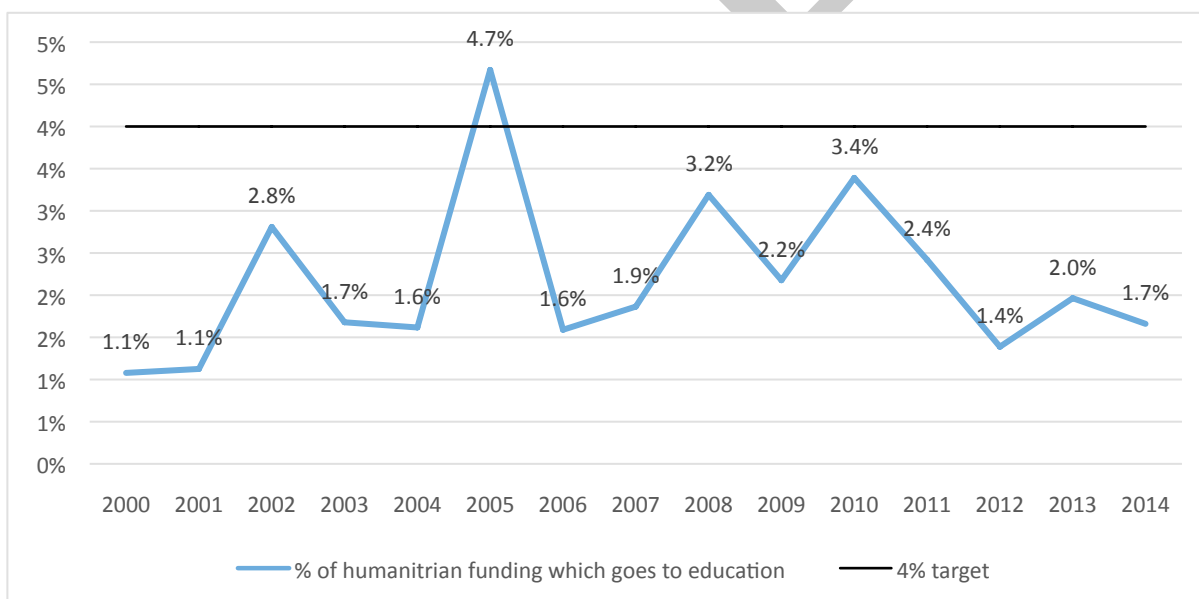
Figure 4: Percentage of humanitarian funding appeals met – education appeals versus total appeals (2000-2014)

¹⁹ Although domestic resources are increasingly important to overall financing, it is not a high priority in many national budgets – remaining largely unchanged over 1999-2012 at around 13.7% of government expenditure



Source - OCHA Financial Tracking Services [Accessed 24th April 2015]

Figure 5 – Percentage of total humanitarian funds allocated to education (2000-2014)



Source - OCHA Financial Tracking Services [Accessed 24th April 2015]

Box 11: Pooled humanitarian funds and education

There are three major types of pooled funding mechanisms for disbursing humanitarian aid. The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF); Common Humanitarian Funds (CHF); and Emergency Response Funds (ERFs). Of these only CERF is an international standby mechanism, with CHF and ERFs being country-specific and responsive – for protracted crises in the case of CHFs and for rapid response in the case of ERFs. The CERF has particular criteria for funding education, acting as a standby pooled funding mechanism that can make money available for relief when need arises, such as the for provision of school tents, education and recreational materials, emergency repair of education facilities, teacher training in emergencies and provision of lifesaving skills.

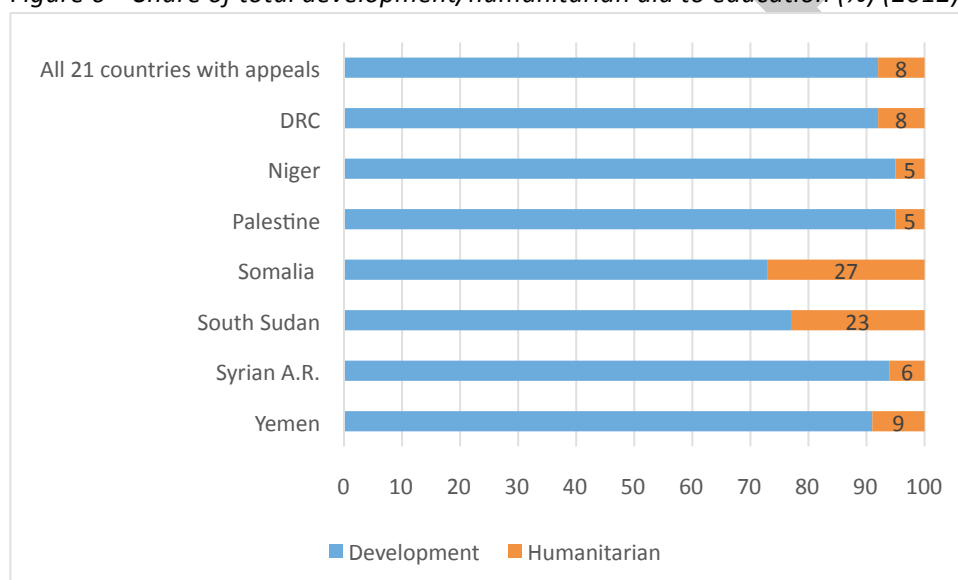
The share of humanitarian funding for education being channelled through the CERF, CHF and ERF mechanisms has varied considerably, from 6.7% in 2010 to 22.1% in 2012, before falling to 11.7% in

2013 (OCHA 2014b). Of these resources the CHF's provide the bulk of humanitarian aid resources for education, with standby funding from CERF making up only an average of 1.37% of humanitarian funding to education over 2006-2014 (United Nations, 2014c).

Source – Ellison (2013), UNESCO (2011)

3.3.5 The overwhelming majority of international funding for education in crisis contexts comes from development aid. In 2012, humanitarian funding for education in conflict-affected countries was US\$105m, while development funding in these contexts was US\$1.1bn over the same period. Across the 21 countries that appealed for humanitarian aid for education in 2012, only 8% of education aid was humanitarian, while 92% was provided by development aid. The highest proportions of humanitarian funding were found South Sudan and Somalia, where humanitarian aid accounted for 23% and 27% of total aid to education respectively (UNESCO 2015). Development aid is sometimes delivered through pooled fund mechanisms, with prominent examples including the multi donor trust funds (MDTFs); UN Peacebuilding Fund (PBF); UN Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS); MDG Achievement Fund; and the World Bank State and Peacebuilding Fund (SPF). Between 2006 and 2009 around 7.5% of development pooled funds for beneficiary countries were allocated to education spending – considerably more than the ratio of humanitarian spending, tallying with the fact that education is often seen as more long term and so a development priority (Nicolai and Hines, 2015).

Figure 6 – Share of total development/humanitarian aid to education (%) (2012)



Source – UNESCO (2015); OECD-DAC (2014); OCHA (2014b)

Box 12: Multi Donor Trust Funds and the Syrian Crisis

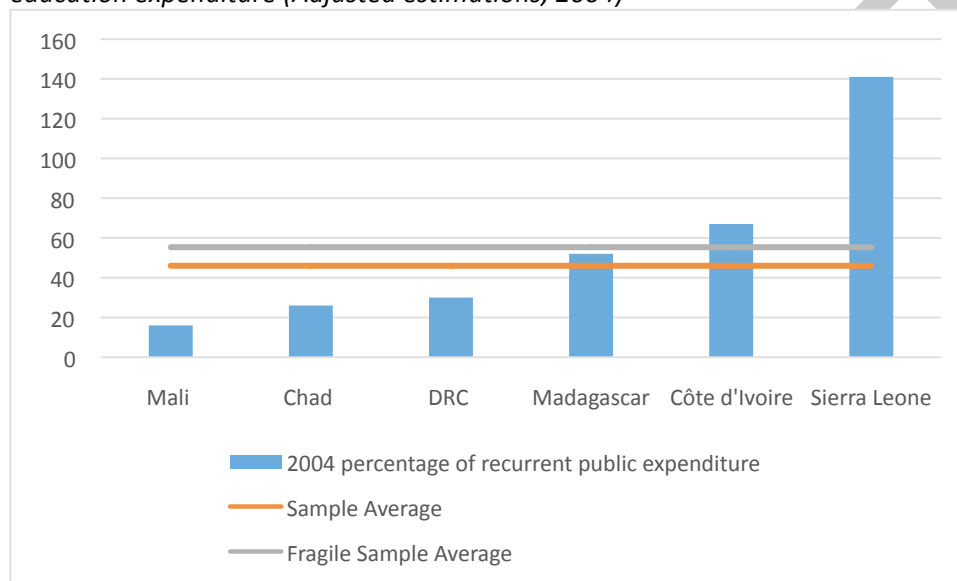
Donors responding to the Syrian refugee presence in Lebanon have worked with a World Bank MDTF in order to build the Emergency Education System Stabilisation Programme. This allows donors to use government systems in a way that gives them improved public financial management, value for money and confidence in the results. This accompanies increased investment in research within Lebanon on how to improve education access, quality and efficiency for both domestic Lebanese and Syrian refugee populations, as well as efforts to build a broader coalition for education reform in Lebanon.

Source – DFID (2015)

3.3.6 Evidence on household expenditure on education in crisis contexts is limited. UNESCO analysis of household survey data covering 15 African countries in fragile and non-fragile contexts

found the average sampled household spent 4.2% of total household expenditure on education, with considerable variation within the sample and the fragile states sub-sample from 0.9% in Chad to 6.1% in Côte d'Ivoire (UNESCO-BREDA, 2012). Further analysis suggests that there is a general pattern whereby households in low income countries²⁰ generally contribute more to education provision than those in high income countries²¹ (UNESCO, 2015). Evidence also suggests that while households do prioritise education in certain contexts they do not have considerable resources to dedicate to the sector and that households in poorer countries tend to bear a greater burden in terms of costs (Nicolai and Hine, 2015). Remittances to crisis contexts can generate significant flows and so may be a potential – but likely limited – source of additional finance for education.

Figure 7: Household education expenditure in selected countries as a percentage of recurrent public education expenditure (Adjusted estimations, 2004)



Source – Reproduced from UNESCO-BREDA (2012)

²⁰ Across 14 low income countries household education expenditure accounts for 49% of total expenditure on education.

²¹ Across 10 high income countries household expenditure accounted for an average of 13% of total expenditure on education.

4 Exploring potential solutions

4.1 What limits the quality of education provision in crisis contexts?

4.1.1 Given the complexity of the various actors involved in education response, the *lack of agreement on key principles* for implementing and prioritising education in crisis contexts which are shared by domestic actors, humanitarian and development actors is a key gap. Standards exist at the technical level in the form of the INEE Minimum Standards (INEE, 2010), but these do not guide the coordination of overall response and flows of both human and financial resources across a number of the gaps below. More recently, DFID has proposed a set of principles for “an effective international approach to education in protracted crises” which might be starting point for a more widely agreed set of principles. (DFID, 2015).

4.1.2 There are a number of issues related to *funding of education in crises*. Globally, there is a shortfall in overall education funding with estimates suggesting that the shortfall in external aid for meeting global education goal will be US\$22 billion per year over 2015-2030 with almost half of this pertaining to low income countries (UNESCO, 2015). There is a shortfall in overall humanitarian funding with appeals consistently not achieving their targets for funding. Donors are typically only able to contribute 50-60% of requirements each year (Bennett, 2015) and in the case of education appeals this has averaged at around 38% (Avenir Analytics, 2014). Of the US\$12.9bn requested by humanitarian appeals in 2013, only 3.19% was intended for use in the education sector, and the share of education in actual funds received was even lower at 1.95%. This compounds the low overall prioritisation of education in the humanitarian sector where it is often not seen as an immediate need.

4.1.3 The *humanitarian and development divide* presents challenges across the international aid architecture as a whole, with many of the broader issues of differing mandates, conceptual approaches, as well as separated architecture and budgets, are equally reflected in the education sector (Bennett, 2015). In education, the fully separate coordination structures of the Education Cluster and GPE are a case in point. Not only do they focus on different ends of the spectrum, they also have very different functions and capacities – the Education Cluster is an operational coordination structure only active in a globally designated emergency and does not distribute funds (Papadopoulos, 2010), while GPE supports countries to develop education sector plans in low- or lower-middle income countries and small island or small landlocked countries, with primary completion rates below 85%. GPE also distributes funds through program development and program implementation grants to these countries if they have approved education sector plans (GPE, 2015). Moreover, the cluster is often led by the MoE in name but by one of the co-lead agencies in practice, while country level leadership for GPE funds, and work of the country level LEGs clearly sits under MoE leadership.

Box 13: The humanitarian and development divide within bilateral donors

Co-ordination within bilateral donors can be complicated where there are internal divisions between their work in the development sphere and dedicated humanitarian departments and response units. The internal links and relationships between these teams and those engaged in development work on education varies considerably, and a lack of joined up thinking within agencies is often cited as one of the challenges in efforts to provide education in crisis contexts. Various strategies have begun to be utilised within agencies to close these gaps – varying from the Swiss Development Agency (SDC) policy of joint scenario planning at the country office level every three years, SIDA establishing

joint humanitarian and development offices, and DFID experiments with decentralisation of planning to country offices – although experiences as to their effectiveness have been mixed.

Source: Bennett (2015)

4.1.4 In instances where *crises are cross-border*, and are not nationally bounded but instead have regional movement and impact, there is often a lack of co-ordination between national governments and inefficiencies rooted in a lack of clear lines of responsibility. This is particularly the case with prolonged refugee crises where the emphasis is generally placed on returning refugees to their place of origin. Governments may be reluctant to engage with the prospect of long-stay refugee populations and so will not engage in long-term planning or take steps to integrate refugees into the national education system. Similar problems may also occur in terms of the willingness of governments to invest seriously in preparedness and planning for disasters. These incentives can compound the challenges donors face in terms of long term planning and funding by making it considerably more difficult to co-ordinate with national governments and integrate with their systems.

4.1.5 Finally, actual implementation of provision for education in crisis contexts can be hamstrung by a *lack of capable partners for delivery*. In some cases this is due to underlying issues of weak state capacity and the damage that emergencies and conflict inflict on institutional structures (Sommers, 2004). In acute crises this may related to lack of emergency response personnel with expertise in education. However, these difficulties are also partly linked to a relevant technical capacity that in turn is related to the incentives created by a lack of multi-year plans and funding arrangements²². These lead to high transaction and administrative costs for implementing agencies given the number and variety of funding sources and so can undermine the ability of humanitarian implementing agencies to invest in their own capacity and the incentives they have to improve the capacity of their local partners. Issues can also arise from the lack of alignment between funding cycles and the school cycle that complicates the mobilisation and co-ordination of school and teaching resources.

4.1.6 Education response is also hindered by the *lack of consistent and objective needs assessments*, particularly in terms of prioritisation for funding and programming. With multiple needs assessments and no common approach across both humanitarian and development actors, there is not an agreed standard for needs assessment, costing or adjudication of proposals, monitoring and tracking expenditure or the evaluation of outcomes. This has led to agencies developing their own approaches and so proposals and processes are not necessarily aligned. DFID (2015) notes that this has led to “a form of needs bargaining” where adjudication and funding allocations are based on rough estimates, with some appeals understating and others overstating needs. This then leads to inefficiencies in spending and poor coordination of funds.

4.1.7 *Common and coherent education sector planning* is also difficult, as there are a lack of agreed tools, mechanisms and capacities to cost and budget for education needs and plans. This is particularly an issue in terms of aligning these factors across the whole spectrum of crisis needs from humanitarian preparedness to response, transition and development. Again, the separation of institutions and cultures between development and humanitarian organisations is an issue here as agreements on structures and forms that bridge these actors are necessary to ensure a smooth transition from the early phase of a crisis, when humanitarian concerns dominate, to the later

²² For example, across four countries and 114 grants managed by Save the Children to support education in conflict/crisis situations, 80 were for fewer than 12 months (DFID, 2015)

stages, where the knowledge and capacities of development actors become more important. The importance of building resilient education systems is also key.

4.1.8 *Limited data collection and information management systems* can also be debilitating for efforts to provide education in crisis contexts (DFID, 2015). These issues apply both at the beginning of the response – where information necessary for full needs assessments may not be standardised or may simply be lacking – and in the later periods of more protracted crises where a lack of data sharing and agreed formats can undermine attempts to coordinate efforts and reduce the effectiveness of interventions. Low capacity and prioritisation of data gathering, as well as poor linkages and a lack of alignment between development and humanitarian information systems, can also create barriers to collecting and collating data. When combined with the incentives noted above in terms of needs assessments and costing this can be particularly problematic, particularly given that there is often a lack of proper monitoring and reporting in terms of spending and effectiveness of delivery. The potential for duplication, missed synergies and inefficiencies is therefore high in the absence of coordinated data management and transparent access.

4.2 What ‘solutions’ could be proposed?

For the final paper submitted as part of the Oslo Summit, a set of proposed solutions will be included. It is important that those solutions be informed by the views wider community, with a wide consultation being conducted throughout mid-May 2015.

At the same time, we are working on building and testing a data model to more clearly frame the potential demand and cost to educate children living in crisis contexts, a logical framework of drivers that influence cost and demand, and will attempt to set out options in terms of level of ambition for any type of finance facility.

The broad outline of a possible proposal includes the creation of a ‘common’ or ‘bridging’ platform for education and crises, which would identify and act to address blockages in aid architecture that cut across both global and country levels. This would include to:

- Work across humanitarian and development actors and contexts
- Agree and operate under a common set of principles
- Establish a global fund or finance facility for education in crises
- Set out a common approach to needs assessment and education planning
- Include a data collection and analysis arm
- Implement some of the above approaches initially in a small number of crisis contexts (2-3)
- Take forward advocacy and governance through a ‘high level panel’ or ‘champion’s group’

There are, of course, a number of both framing and more detailed questions in terms of how any type of ‘platform’ might work. The following questions should be used as a guide and starting point for consultation between 11 and 22 May, both online and as a part of any face to face discussions.

The Challenge - There are a large number of ‘challenges’, involving different issues depending on type, phase and scale of a crisis, as well as impacts ranging from children out of school long-term, shorter-term but extended disruption, poor quality of teaching-learning, harm to the teaching force, and damage to school infrastructure. Moreover, there are significant gaps in funding available and economic impacts of failing to support education in crisis contexts.

1. What challenge, or aspect thereof, needs the most attention by high level political actors at the Oslo Summit and beyond?

Architecture - The aid and response architecture for education in emergencies is not fit for purpose. There are issues surround the humanitarian and development divide, unclear implementation of mandates in cross-border crises, at times a lack of capable partners for delivery, gaps in terms of assessment and planning, limited data collection and analysis, and often, a shortage of funds to fully address education needs.

2. What are the top 2-3 issues in terms of response architecture that should be addressed in order to better ensure quality education is available to all children and youth in crises?

Solutions - A number of solutions are being discussed to bridge some of the gaps in terms of humanitarian and development architecture.

3. Would a set of *principles* agreed at a high political level make a difference? How could they be used to hold governments, UN agencies and other partners to account?
4. What will it take to guarantee that *additional funds* are in place to support education and crisis? Is a global fund or financing mechanism for education and crises a good idea? If so, how should it be organized and used?
 - a) In what types of crises
 - b) Over what kind of timeframe
 - c) Who leads request (organization, coordination group, etc.)
 - d) Who is eligible to receive funds
 - e) Who should be involved in (i) in-country and (ii) global governance
 - f) How would a new fund interact with existing architecture?
 - g) Other suggestions
5. How might we better improve the functioning and capacity of current architecture, as described above, in other ways? What key changes could:
 - a) Link humanitarian and development coordination
 - b) Lead to better response in regional crises, in particular for refugees
 - c) Increase number of capable partners for delivery
 - d) Improve needs assessment
 - e) Advance recovery and transition planning and costing
 - f) Strengthen information management / monitoring and reporting
 - g) Further address the issues you raised in question 2 or 3 above?
6. Other comments

Appendix

Table 3: Costs of schooling out-of-school children in conflict affected countries using country average

	Out-of-school primary children	Cost per student	Total Cost (\$ millions)
Afghanistan	1,900,000	143	272
Algeria*	71,430	269	19
Burundi	160,000	146	23
Central African Republic	214,350	76	16
Chad	770,000	241	186
Colombia*	435,106	269	117
Cote d'Ivoire	1,160,732	410	475
DRC	3,500,000	118	412
Ethiopia*	1,702,685	110	186
India	712,156	252	179
Indonesia	111,524	610	68
Iran*	7,800	269	2
Iraq*	7,000	269	2
Liberia	385,726	143	55
Libya*	11,000	269	3
Mali	849,651	216	184
Myanmar	430,000	119	51
Nepal	333,824	166	55
Niger	957,170	199	191
Nigeria	4,484,850	481	2,158
Pakistan	2,312,527	214	496
Philippines	1,460,431	491	717
Russia*	220,707	269	59
Somalia	1,500,000	75	113
Sri Lanka	125,347	403	50
Sudan	2,600,000	336	874
Syria	8,229	744	6
Thailand*	611,222	269	164
Turkey*	68,456	269	18
Uganda	439,143	169	74
Yemen	948,934	329	312
Total	28,500,000		7,541

* No data for cost per student, so average of \$269 used for these countries

Source: (EFA GMR, 2015b) and authors calculations

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