Education in Emergencies and Early Reconstruction

UNICEF Interventions in Colombia, Liberia, and Southern Sudan

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACORD — Agency for Cooperation and Research in Development
ADRA — Adventist Development and Relief Agency International
AEC — Annual Education Census
AED — Academy for Educational Development
AET — Africa Educational Trust
ALP — Accelerated Learning Program
BRAC — Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BTS — Back to School
CAFF — Children Associated with Fighting Forces
CAP — Consolidated Appeals Process
CEIP — Community Education Investment Program
CEO — County Education Officer
CETC — County Education and Training Council
CFS — Child Friendly Spaces/Schools
CFSNS — Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey
CRS — Catholic Relief Services
CBO — Community Based Organization
CCC — Core Commitments for Children
CEC — County Education Center
CFS — Child Friendly Schools/Spaces
CGS — Community Girls' Schools
CO — Country Office
CODHES — Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento (Advisory Office for Human Rights and Displacement)
CPA — Comprehensive Peace Agreement
CSC — Curriculum Steering Committee
CWG — Component Work Group
DDRR — Disarmament, Demobilization, Rehabilitation and Reintegration
DEO — District Education Officer
DHC — Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator
EC — European Commission
ECOWAS — Economic Community of West African States
EFA — Education for All
EMIS — Education Management and Information System

EMOPS — Office of Emergency Programs
ERDF — Education Reconstruction and Development Forum
ERP — Education Rehabilitation Project
ESN — Education Support Network
FACPEL — Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Liberia
FAWE — Forum for African Women Educationalists
GEM — Girls' Education Movement
GEMAP — Governance and Economic Management Assistance Program
GEPP — Gender in Education Policy and Program
GER — Gross Enrollment Rate
GoL — Government of Liberia
GoNU — Government of National Unity
GoS — Government of Sudan
GoSS — Government of Southern Sudan
GTS — Go to School
GTZ — Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
HIPC — Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
HQ — Headquarters
IDP — Internally Displaced Person
IEA — International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
INGO — International Non-Governmental Organization
IOM — International Organization for Migration
IRC — International Rescue Committee
IRI — Interactive Radio Instruction
JAM — Joint Assessment Mission
JRS — Jesuit Refugee Service
LSMC — Local School Management Committee
MALP — Monitoring Learning Achievement Program
MDG — Millennium Development Goal
MDTF — Multi-Donor Trust Fund
MoE — Ministry of Education (State-level in Southern Sudan; National in Colombia and Liberia)
MoEST — Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (Southern Sudan)

List of Acronyms

MoF	Ministry of Finance
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NCA	Norwegian Church Aid
NER	Net Enrollment Rate
NETC	National Education and Training Council
NFI	Non-food item
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NTGL	National Transitional Government of Liberia
NNGO	National Non-Governmental Organization
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
NSCSE	New Sudan Centre for Statistics and Evaluation
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OLS	Operation Lifeline Sudan
OREALC	Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe (Regional Office of Education for Latin American and the Caribbean)
PEI	Proyecto Educativo Institucional (Institutional Education Project)
PM&E	Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation Working Group
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
RALS	Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces
RO	Regional Office
RTTI	Regional Teacher Training Institute
SBA	School Based Assessment
SBEP	Sudan Basic Education Program
SC-S	Save the Children - Sweden
SC-UK	Save the Children – United Kingdom
SFP	School Feeding Progams
SoE	Secretariat of Education
SPLA	Sudanese People's Liberation Army
SPLA/M	Sudanese People's Liberation Army/ Movement
SPLM	Sudanese People's Liberation Movement
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia
UNMIS	United Nations Mission in Sudan
UNOPS	United Nations Office for Project Services
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WAEC	West African Examinations Council
WHO	World Health Organization
WIT	Women into Teaching
WFP	World Food Program
WVI	World Vision International

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Broad access to quality, child-friendly education in emergencies is a critical component of early reconstruction and development. As a class of graduate students at the Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs at Princeton University, our goal is to make a modest contribution to the field of education in emergencies by working with UNICEF to analyze the ways in which its policies are reflected in education programming in emergency relief and reconstruction phases. Colombia, Liberia, and Southern Sudan were chosen as cases because they vary in context such that comparatively they provide a perspective on the provision of education at different stages of the development spectrum. We hope to draw conclusions with a range of applicability to many types of conflict and crisis situations. To do so we highlight areas where information sharing might provide for improvements in the education of vulnerable children, while keeping in mind the differing contexts. The report provides a series of country specific and general conclusions that illustrate which programmatic and contextual factors lead to effective provision of education services in emergencies.

This report describes in detail the state of the education sector in each of the three countries followed by an analysis of UNICEF programming. Descriptions of the education systems focus on the policy framework and constraints, administration and finance, service delivery, and curriculum. The analysis of UNICEF in each case is based on a set of policy directives underlying the agency's work, which include the commitment to re-establish and sustain basic education services, a focus on the quality of education including aspects of psychosocial development, a commitment to target the most vulnerable children, the provision of an integrated approach to education, and a leadership role in coordination among agencies. Several central themes that emerge from these descriptions and analyses of each country are summarized below by country and in our overall findings. We also briefly summarize our recommendations.

Main Findings and Recommendations

This report focuses on seven main findings and recommendations. More details on these points are provided in the General Recommendations section and Introduction section 4.

Findings

1. Though the decentralized structure of UNICEF facilitates the development of context appropriate education responses, there is limited knowledge sharing across countries.
2. The integration of psychosocial components into the education response is highly varied across the cases.
3. UNICEF has a unique opportunity to influence government policy by leveraging its proven models in the education sector as tools for advocacy.
4. Investments in education at both the policy and program levels during a conflict can significantly accelerate the process of reconstruction, though the scope of feasible early interventions is constrained by context.
5. Current UNICEF policy guidelines do not appear to provide a clear roadmap for bridging the emergency - reconstruction gap in the education sector.
6. In bridging the emergency – reconstruction gap, there seems to be a tradeoff between efforts to build government capacity and the efficacy of service delivery.
7. The success of donor coordination varies across contexts and represents a key issue, especially when there exists a funding gap between the emergency and post-conflict development stages.

Recommendations

Based on the general findings summarized above, this report offers recommendations that UNICEF focus on as outlined below in the Executive Summary.

Executive Summary

1. Making a concerted effort to improve institutional memory and to share models of good practice among country offices.

2. Developing strategies to ensure an integrated psychosocial approach to education delivery throughout the conflict and post-conflict phases.

3. Strengthening the role of UNICEF as a technical advisor and an advocate through the development of successful, scaleable models.

4. Identifying and capitalizing on elements of the education system that can be strengthened during the conflict in preparation for peacetime reconstruction.

5. Strengthening the programmatic links between education interventions developed during conflicts and those implemented as part of the reconstruction effort.

6. Ensuring an equitable balance between capacity building and the effectiveness of service delivery through phased support to governments in early reconstruction.

7. Prioritizing the development of a mechanism for donor and agency coordination for the education sector in the post-conflict phase, especially in countries where there is limited government capacity for coordination.

Country-Specific Findings

Colombia

Providing Integrated Quality Education for Children Affected by Conflict (see *Colombia sections* 1.2, 3.1, 3.6, 4.1)
The provision of education services in Colombia is greatly affected by the ongoing conflict that has caused the displacement of an estimated 3.8 million people within the country's borders. The central government in Colombia provides comprehensive education policies for IDP children; however, varying degrees of capacity at the local level hinders the implementation of effective programs based on these policies. The Colombia case in this report presents three education programs for vulnerable children, which strengthen the national education system. The programs include Learning Circles, coordinated by the Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation, *Escuelas Amigas* (Child-Friendly Schools) and *Retorno de la Alegría* (Return to Happiness), both supported by UNICEF.

Learning Circles offers a flexible curriculum with a strong focus on cognitive skills yet it does not integrate psychosocial components. UNICEF programs, on the other hand, have a stronger focus on incorporating psychosocial healing into existing curriculum, and integrating sanitation, nutrition, health, community and infrastructure components into quality education services. Yet UNICEF programs are not as effective as Learning Circles in improving the cognitive skills of vulnerable students. The programs could benefit from each other strengths through increased cooperation.

Coordination Among Agencies (see *Colombia sections* 4.2.5, 4.2.6)
While UNICEF has been successful in creating strong partnerships with the Catholic Church and municipalities, its coordination with UNHCR and Escuela Nueva Foundation remained relatively weaker. The Catholic Church is UNICEF's primary partner in reaching conflict-affected areas. The Church generally acts as the administrative body in areas where the government is weak or virtually non-existent. UNICEF also works closely with municipalities in the provision of education for IDPs. The most successful partnerships with municipalities occur when local governments recognize the need for psychosocial healing and safe spaces as a means to fortifying stability and peace. The comparatively weaker relationships with UNHCR and Escuela Nueva Foundation are illustrated in the fact that the Ministry of Education (MoE) has strong but separate links with UNICEF and these other agencies. As a result, these parallel lines of communication create an unnecessarily complex system of lobbying the government for the provision of quality education to displaced children.

Recommendations (See Colombia section 5)

Based on the analysis above, this report recommends that UNICEF Colombia focus on:

- *Coordinating efforts and information sharing among partners*
- *Preserving institutional memory and sharing good practices*
- *Monitoring and evaluation to improve programs and advocacy initiatives*

Liberia

The shift toward a system and capacity building (see *Liberia sections* 1.1, 2.6, 3.6, 4.2, 7.2.7)

The transition to a systemic, government led education system was a key aspect of the context in Liberia. In contrast to Southern Sudan, the absence of a clear, cohesive government counterpart until the successful elections of October 2005 prohibited early efforts toward concerted policy development and institution building at the central level. It is only as of 2006 that there has been a marked shift toward greater government ownership and responsibility for education. This has required the development of new mechanisms of coordination and the need to strike a balance between emergency programs and a focus on capacity building. UNICEF has worked closely with the MoE in building an education management information system, phasing out support for procurement and distribution of school materials, and gradually shifting the responsibility for education sector coordination to the government. However, low levels of capacity and unclear institutional arrangements continue to represent a barrier to effective service provision.

Education, psychosocial support and building on experience (see *Liberia sections* 2.1, 3.6, 5.4, 6.2, 7.2.1-4, 7.3.3)

During the conflict, education was conceptualized as a protective space where psychosocial support was a priority. However, in the post-CPA period educational development has progressively become divorced from this kind of focus despite continuing need. This appears to have left an important policy gap in the formal primary education subsector. Though post-CPA programs like the Back-to-School Campaign, the Accelerated Learning Program and the development of the Girls' Education Policy naturally feed into the broader reconstruction process, there was limited evidence to suggest that UNICEF and partners had actively capitalized on the psychosocial elements of programming developed during the emergency phase. As a result, while certain groups are targeted for psychosocial support (i.e. Children Associated with Fighting Forces), there has been limited attention to addressing the emotional needs of the general students population through the education system.

Decentralization, equity and the effectiveness of service delivery (see *Liberia sections* 4.1, 4.3, 4.7, 5.1-8)

A third theme that emerged in Liberia was the move toward a more decentralized education system. The research found that the practice of decentralization was varied, but generally very weak. In terms of school inputs, there continues to be an important absence of all of the basic components for schooling, especially trained teachers, though significant progress has been made since the end of the war. With regard to equity, the quantity and quality of school inputs was highly varied across counties. In the current period, UNICEF and other partners are working on rehabilitating and strengthening decentralized administrative structures. This kind of exercise is likely to be a fundamental piece of making the education system work for Liberian children.

Recommendations (see *Liberia sections* 8.1-6)

Based on the analysis above, this report recommends that UNICEF Liberia focus on:

- *Monitoring the effectiveness of service delivery as responsibility shifts to the MoE*
- *Bringing back the concept of Child-Friendly Schools to the center of Agency's programming*

Executive Summary

- *Reassessing the UNICEF seven county focus*
- *Supporting the process of decentralization and monitoring the impact*
- *Using the curriculum review as an opportunity to embed structural change*
- *Promoting the Girls' Education Unit in the MoE as a mainstreaming vehicle*

Southern Sudan

Poor infrastructure and inadequate educational systems (see *Sudan sections* 1.1, 1.4, and 3.1.1)
Southern Sudan continues to have one of the lowest primary school enrollment rates in the world. The recently completed Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces in Southern Sudan shows an education sector with immense challenges. Of the 2,922 learning spaces in Southern Sudan, only 18percent are in permanent structures and 36percent are in the open air. The "school under a tree" is by far the most common type of learning space in Southern Sudan. These schools accommodate 758,207 enrolled students, only 34percent of which are girls. Forty-four percent of teachers in these schools have no training, and often an education little better than the students they teach. In Southern Sudan, UNICEF decided to call its Back to School program Go To School because for most of the children there was no school to go back to in the first place.

Pre-CPA planning and capacity building (see *Sudan sections* 1.2, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.6)
Under the leadership of Dr. John Garang, the SPLA/M placed a strong emphasis on education, leading to the initiation of curriculum development and education planning processes well before the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed. Once the final move towards a peace agreement became evident, UNICEF and USAID bolstered this process with capacity building, planning assistance, financial support, and direct technical assistance to the Secretariat of Education of the SPLA/M. This process gave the education sector a head start. The continuity of policy and personnel from the Secretariat of Education to the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MoEST) has allowed MoEST to build on early efforts, develop coherent sectoral plans, and remain the leader in the education sector.

Constant Need to Balance Quality and Access (see *Sudan sections* 3.1, 3.1, 3.3.2)
UNICEF is expanding education to areas and populations that have never had access before, while simultaneously working to ensure that quality facilities, teachers, and materials are present in every learning environment. Limited funding and staff time, however, require a constant assessment of priorities. For example, although UNICEF is committed to expanding access to education for girls through Community Girls' Schools, it is currently working to ensure that these schools are not in second-rate facilities served by unqualified teachers. Given the large numbers of returnees, UNICEF is also balancing the need to address the countrywide shortage of teachers while dealing with the need for teacher training and certification. In both of these cases, UNICEF has supported innovative programs, such as the fast-track teacher training, to help achieve that balance.

Recommendations (see *Sudan section* 4)

Based on the analysis above, this report recommends that UNICEF Southern Sudan focus on:

- *Supporting education quality through technical assistance*
- *Capitalizing on teacher training as a window of opportunity to improve education quality*
- *Developing a clear roadmap for cross-sectoral integration within UNICEF*
- *Ensuring the usage of standardized systems for program implementation and monitoring*
- *Conducting internal human resource development*
- *Optimizing opportunities for synergy with other stakeholders*
- *Working with MoEs and NGOs to promote optimal utilization of education materials*

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation #1:

Making a concerted effort to improve institutional memory and to share models of good practice among country offices.

UNICEF has extensive expertise in education in emergencies. The decentralized nature of UNICEF's organizational structure, however, necessitates headquarters and regional offices to take on the critical role of ensuring that country offices are able to draw on these good practices and technical expertise.

- *Employing staff members who have extensive exposure to UNICEF programs* in different countries is the most effective way of preserving and sharing institutional memory. UNICEF in Southern Sudan stands out in this particular aspect. The chief education officer has both a technical background in education and an extensive exposure to UNICEF programming in other countries. Her technical contribution is strengthened by the presence of a national program officer who, having worked with UNICEF in Southern Sudan for several years, acts as the Agency's local source of institutional memory for education.

- *Putting in place effective systems for creating and sharing institutional memory* for education in emergencies is necessary given the fact that recruiting highly experienced staff is not always a viable option due to the difficult nature of emergency work. UNICEF's partnership with the University of Pittsburgh represented an important step in creating institutional memory for better practices in education in emergencies. This partnership can be replicated as a model for creating institutional memory for UNICEF's better practices in rebuilding education systems in post-conflict periods.

  Given the time pressure in planning for education interventions in emergencies, sharing institutional memory through written documents requires an easy-to-use and easy-to-access repository of information. To aid this, UNICEF can create an information database of staff members with expertise in specific components of education programming, especially in emergency settings.

- *Developing guidebooks on best practices, local adaptation strategies, and challenges of implementation* of particular components of education systems such as construction of CFS, RALS, and girls' education projects, is another option for sharing institutional memory across UNICEF country offices. Implementation-oriented guidebooks with clear steps and possible adaptations to different contexts would particularly benefit those staff members with limited technical knowledge in education. Furthermore, guidebooks can overcome the language barrier to sharing models and better practices between country offices. UNICEF in Colombia, for instance, has documented their successful programs and models only in Spanish, which limits their circulation to mainly Latin American countries.

Recommendation #2:

Developing strategies to ensure an integrated psychosocial approach to education delivery throughout the conflict and post-conflict phases.

The psychosocial support that UNICEF can provide through education programs such as Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness is fundamental for addressing the psychosocial needs of children affected by conflict. To that end, it is essential for UNICEF to keep child-friendly spaces at the core of its implementation efforts and also advocate to governments and key stakeholders on the use of CFS as a model for primary education in conflict affected countries.

Colombia is a model of success for the implementation of both the Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness programs on a large scale. In contrast, UNICEF in Liberia is neither involved in the implementation of Child Friendly Spaces nor places the model at the core of its program planning in the rebuilding of the education sector.

General Recommendations

- *Ensuring UNICEF staff at the country office level is familiar and committed to the concept of child friendly spaces* is a necessary precondition for successful implementation and advocacy with the government on the use of CFS. Given the challenges of institutional memory and technical expertise in education present at the field-level, additional training can be provided to familiarize key program staff on the concept of CFS and experience of other countries that have implemented CFS.

- *Working with teaching methodologies and teaching guides* remains a viable and effective option for operationalizing child friendly concepts in learning spaces even when UNICEF's ability to influence government policies on construction standards or the content of the curriculum is limited.

Recommendation #3:

Strengthening the role of UNICEF as a technical advisor and an advocate through the development of successful, scaleable models.

While recognizing that UNICEF's ability to influence governments is related to its financial capacity, there are still significant windows of opportunity to influence education policy.

- *The provision of technical expertise in a timely manner* is vital to influencing government policies for the education sector, especially as government policies are often developed in the immediate aftermath of a conflict. The paucity of technical expertise within the government during these periods provides UNICEF with a window of opportunity to support the development of national policies along UNICEF principles, such as CFS. The development of the National Girls' Education Policy in Liberia is a case in point.

- *Demonstrating the success of CFS models through pilot programs and advocating to governments* for their wider implementation is another approach to influencing government policy. Return to Happiness supported by UNICEF in Colombia, and Community Girls' Schools (CGS) supported by UNICEF in Southern Sudan are two good examples. Both of these models have been accepted and implemented on a large scale by local or national governments. UNICEF is well-placed to directly advocate to governments for policy changes based on the successful models and the strong ties it has been able to establish with bureaucrats and politicians.

Recommendation #4:

Identifying and capitalizing on elements of the education system that can be strengthened during the conflict in preparation for peacetime reconstruction.

Civil conflicts do not transition from war to peace in linear stages. Periods of heightened violence are often followed by periods of calm. Even at the height of violence, there are pockets of stability and peace. Our research has underlined the importance of capitalizing on these periods of stability in order to get a head start on investing in the education system. Depending on the operational context, early investment in the education system by international actors can focus on *policies and institutions, education models,* or *human resources.*

- *Developing policies and institutions* in the midst of conflict requires the presence of a counterpart with some degree of cohesion and administrative capacity. In the case of Southern Sudan, international actors like UNICEF and USAID were able to support the SoE for the development of education policies and systems because the SPLA/M had an administrative presence in most of the areas it controlled militarily. This early start established the foundations of an education system that facilitated the rebuilding process after the CPA. In contrast to Southern Sudan, early investment in education policies and institutions was limited

in Liberia. Though some effort was made to address education policy and planning during the late 1990s through the Education Sector Master Plan, the resurgence in conflict after 2001 devastated the system and for the two years following the CPA, fractionalization within the transitional government made policy development an infeasible enterprise.

• *Developing and implementing education models* in the midst of conflict is also facilitated by the presence of an implementing counterpart. In Colombia, UNICEF was able to introduce the Escuelas Amigas and Return to Happiness models in several departments affected by the conflict because of the presence of strong local governments or the Catholic Church. Even in the absence of a strong counterpart, however, developing new education models is still viable if the participation of NGOs and CBOs can be sustained. In Southern Sudan, UNICEF was able to introduce Community Girls' Schools in several communities during the conflict through its cooperation with local NGOs and CBOs.

• *Investing in human resources* during prolonged conflicts is also a key component of preparing for peace. Meeting the education demands of returnees and achieving high enrollment rates in the aftermath of a conflict requires the creation of an adequate pool of teachers during the conflict. Refugee and IDP camps are particularly effective points of entry for large-scale teacher training programs. The teacher-training program in Kakuma refugee camp organized jointly by UNHCR and the Kenyan Ministry of Education could serve as a model in other emergencies if applied earlier and on a wider scale.

Another strategy is to utilize the existing human resources by capitalizing on youth and community members and training them to work in learning spaces. In the case of Colombia, UNICEF trained young people in areas of conflict to serve as student volunteers to support the teachers and psychologists serving in Escuelas Amigas and Return to Happiness. In Southern Sudan, the Community Girls' School program recruited members from the community and trained them in child-centered teaching methodology to work in CGSs.

• *Minimizing the interruption of education services* is also an important component of preparing for peace during conflict. A generation deprived of education is an immense challenge to any reconstruction process and the future development of a nation. Hence, this disruption should be minimized at all cost. In all three countries, international actors identified various points of entry in order to support the existing education efforts as well as introduce new spaces for learning. Their choice of counterparts and approaches depended on issues of access, security and capacity.

In Colombia, UNICEF chose to work extensively with the Catholic Church given its ability to gain access and deliver education services in conflict-affected areas. In Liberia, most international actors focused their service delivery efforts in IDP camps mainly due to the security concerns and the limited access to areas outside of camps. In Southern Sudan, the unique operational framework of OLS allowed international actors to gain access to pockets of stability by using humanitarian flights. UNICEF was able to utilize this access to provide critical support to existing civil society and community efforts for the creation and preservation of learning spaces in these pockets of stability. Even when sporadic, the distribution of learning supplies, organization of teacher trainings, and provision of teacher stipends all play a critical role in preserving learning spaces in prolonged conflicts.

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General Recommendations

Recommendation #5:

Strengthening the programmatic links between education interventions developed during conflicts and those implemented as part of the reconstruction efforts.

International actors have increasingly challenged the traditional divide between relief and development and aimed to bridge this gap by creating stronger programmatic links between emergency and post-conflict phases.

- Our field research has highlighted several successful cases where agencies were able to *bridge the relief-development gap through program continuity.* In both Liberia and Southern Sudan, the Accelerated Learning Programs initiated during the conflict were used as the foundation for the post-conflict ALP programs for reintegrating uneducated youth and demobilized soldiers. In Southern Sudan, Community Girl's Schools were introduced during the conflict and remained as the primary model for girls' education in the post-conflict period.

- While Colombia is still in a conflict phase, the current success of UNICEF interventions in conflict-affected areas and the strength of local ownership are strong indicators that the programs will continue even after a final peace agreement is signed.

- Ensuring continuity of education programs organized in IDP camps has been particularly challenging. As IDPs return to their communities, the location-specific nature of these programs often make their transfer complicated as demonstrated in Liberia, in which CFS was a successful program in IDP camps but did not carry over to the places of return in the post-conflict phase. Pilot projects that explore possible adaptations to the CFS model to encourage its continuity into the post-conflict phase could provide valuable lessons.

Recommendation #6:

Ensuring an equitable balance between capacity building and the effectiveness of service delivery through phased support to governments in early reconstruction.

While international actors recognize the necessity of ensuring government leadership and ownership in building education systems, working through the government may hinder the pace and effectiveness of such efforts. In the cases of Liberia and Southern Sudan where governments are constrained by limited administrative capacity and technical expertise, international actors have been able to undertake various effective measures to mitigate the negative impact that working through the government may have on service delivery.

- In the case of Liberia, UNICEF has undertaken a *phase-in approach to transferring responsibilities* to the MoE for the procurement of education materials such as textbooks and classroom furniture.

- In both Liberia and Southern Sudan, *seconding of technical experts* to ministries of education has been widely used to ensure adequate technical expertise in key positions. In Liberia, two MoE staff members have been sent to work in the UNESCO office in Paris and to the UNICEF office in Monrovia for direct coaching on technical issues.

- *Joint implementation of technical projects* is another measure commonly used in Liberia and Southern Sudan. RALS and the initiation of EMIS are particular cases of joint implementation as a measure of working through the government without risking the efficiency of service delivery.

General Recommendations

In the case of Colombia, which has a strong central government and a decentralized education system, UNICEF has built ownership and leadership at the municipal level. The QuidArte initiative of the Municipality of Bello, Antioquia supported by UNICEF is a good example.

Recommendation #7:

Prioritizing the development of a mechanism for donor coordination for the education sector in the post-conflict phase, especially in countries where there is limited government capacity for coordination.

In most conflict and post-conflict periods where the central government has limited coordination capacity, it is critical for donors and agencies to be coherent in their approaches and policies.

- *Establishing a donor financing model* that ensures aid harmonization is key. The Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDTF) emerges as a possible financing model to facilitate donor coordination. In the case of Southern Sudan, MDTF has proven to be a relatively effective model for prioritizing interventions and ensuring sector-wide donor coordination. Based on the earlier sectoral plans of SPLA/M and the JAM reports, MDTF has ensured critical coherence in donor funding and agency interventions despite problems posed by the delays in the release of funds and initiation of projects.

- *Working with the government to establish sectoral and thematic coordination mechanisms* has been shown to have positive results. In Southern Sudan, international actors provided extensive support to MoEST for the establishment of official sectoral coordination mechanisms only two months after the ministry was founded. Currently, various thematic working groups and coordinating forums are active to ensure consistent policies and standards as well as effective collaboration. In Liberia, the MoE initiated a monthly education sector meeting, with the support of UNICEF, that brings together all key stakeholders working in the education sector.

- *Memorandums of Understanding* (MoU) seem to have less success in ensuring effective coordination and collaboration in the absence of a sector-wide mechanism. This is the case in Colombia where each individual donor and UN Agency has negotiated a separate MoU with the Ministry of Education in the absence of an overarching coordination mechanism.

INTRODUCTION

Background

1.1 Why Education In Emergencies And Early Reconstruction?

Conflict affects lives in many ways, but when it disrupts the provision and quality of education, it has a particularly acute affect on children. One hundred and fifteen million children globally are estimated to be out of primary school and nearly one in three of these children are from countries affected by conflict.[1] Moreover, war does not only affect a child's education during crisis, but has a lasting impact on both the individual and the country's prospects for development. Providing education in emergencies, therefore, is not only necessary as an immediate humanitarian response—it is fundamental for promoting the successful emergence and recovery from conflict and the long-term development of a nation.

Education in emergencies and early reconstruction is pivotal from both the humanitarian and reconstruction perspectives for six primary reasons. First, education is lifesaving. Learning spaces represent a key venue for disseminating life-saving messages to children, and serve as a protective environment amidst violence. Second, education is a key strategy for decreasing psychosocial stress for traumatized children by helping them reestablish a sense of normalcy in their lives. Third, education is a catalyst to mobilize communities. Because education brings parents and children together, it is an important gateway to addressing issues such as health, water, sanitation, and other critical problems that communities affected by war face. Fourth, education is a foundation for structural change in a society. Education during periods of conflict offers a platform to address the structural causes of conflict and inequality. Innovations that emerge during the period of crisis can serve as a foundation for attempts to "build back better" once peace has been established. Fifth, education improves the development potential of a country or region by ensuring that there is a critical mass of educated citizens ready to begin development and reconstruction. Finally, education is a right as defined by the Convention on the Rights of the Child implying an international commitment to education for all children including those affected by conflict.

1.2 Who We Are

Each year the Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs at Princeton University offers graduate students the opportunity to engage in direct research and consulting on an issue of global importance through a Graduate Policy Workshop. As Master in Public Affairs candidates with diverse backgrounds, we decided to focus on education in conflict and post-conflict areas not only because education is a central tenet of larger development goals, but also because it is an area that may benefit from further research and analysis. Therefore, the goal of our Graduate Policy Workshop is not only educational, but also intended to provide a modest contribution to the field and in particular, to to our client organization UNICEF. As the workshop client and a global leader in the field of education in emergencies, UNICEF has graciously lent us its support and expertise during the course of our research.

1.3 What We Have Done

The workshop team first conducted an extensive review of published and grey literature on the general subject of education in emergencies and early reconstruction, and on the specific cases of Colombia, Liberia and Southern Sudan, which comprise our three cases studies. Research teams spent seven to ten days in each country conducting fieldwork composed of more than seventy interviews in total, the extensive collection of official reports and additional grey literature, and limited site visits to schools. In addition, workshop teams met with experts from UNICEF, UNHCR, and WFP in the United States, who helped design and focus research strategies and our analytical framework before the fieldwork was conducted.

1.4 Why These Countries?

Our analysis focuses on Colombia, Liberia, and Southern Sudan in part because they represent very different conflicts in very different contexts. By looking at such a diverse sample we seek, on the one hand, to maximize the potential for replicability among our findings. The more diverse the contexts we explore, the more likely our findings will be relevant and transferable to other countries and regions around the world. At the same time, we intend to address the important question of the possibility of replicability in education policy in emergencies and early reconstruction given the diversity of contexts. To that end, models developed in Colombia are considered in terms of their potential replicability in the Liberian and Southern Sudanese contexts. More generally, by comparing these three distinct situations and the corresponding responses, we try to offer some hypotheses about the conditions under which successful programs from one country might be relevant in another.

2. The Analytical Framework

Each case provides a description of the operating environment for humanitarian agencies. This is followed by a descriptive analysis of the state of the education sector and an analysis of UNICEF's role in the provision of its services within that context. Each section ends with country specific recommendations.

2.1 Describing The State Of The Education Sector

To compare the education sector across countries we use an analytical framework that looks at four fundamental rubrics of education provision. This then serves as the foundation on which to analyze the UNICEF intervention and generate recommendations for each country. The rubrics of analysis are the following:

- **Policy framework and constraints** *provides a background to the existing educational policy in each case and an analysis of the constraints to policy development and implementation.*
- **Administration and finance** *is principally concerned with the government institutions and the financing of the education sector.*
- **Service delivery** *focuses on the effectiveness of education provision. In particular, we look closely at the existent systems of data collection, school facilities, teachers, and other key inputs to the education system.*
- **Curriculum** *highlights issues of educational quality, defined both in terms of cognitive and psychosocial outcomes. We look at the associated internal factors of curriculum that help ensure educational quality, focusing on the areas of curriculum objectives, method and content, pupil evaluation/assessment and the management of curriculum design.*

2.2 Analyzing UNICEF Programming

With the above elements as background, we then analyze the UNICEF intervention in each case. As the lead UN agency in the education sector in each of these countries, UNICEF is the most logical agency on which to focus our analysis. UNICEF policy then provides the overarching framework for this analytical component. In particular, five policy directives derived from the agency's Core Corporate Commitments (CCCs) and its broader mandate are employed to provide clear points of comparison between the interventions realized in each country.

- **Re-establishing basic education services** – *The CCCs concentrate on the basic education sub-sector as the focus of emergency response. Thus, each case study addresses the COs programming with respect to the main inputs necessary for effective basic education including the construction and rehabilitation of learning spaces, provision of scholastic materials and training of teachers, as well as the agency's contribution broader education systems development as it relates to the emergency response.[2]*

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Introduction

- **Improving the quality of education** – *UNICEF policy principles imply a commitment to the quality of education as measured by cognitive outcomes, life-skills, and protection concerns.[3] In this vein, the CCCs emphasize the importance of integrating "psychosocial support in education and protection responses."[4] The report addresses this concern by examining the degree to which psychosocial issues have been effectively reflected in UNICEF's education programming.*

- **Targeting the most vulnerable** – *UNICEF's emphasis on providing "care and protection" to the most vulnerable children is a third pillar of the analysis of each country case. To that end, the report looks at how UNICEF education programs have effectively defined and targeted the children who have been victims of violence during both the immediate response and as part of broader systems development within the sector.[5]*

- **Taking an integrated approach** – *The CCCs advocate for the application of "an integrated approach to education by establishing community services around schools (such as water supply and sanitation), where appropriate." The report addresses this aspect of the agency's policy by considering the degree to which integration of programs has been deemed appropriate and effectively carried out in each CO.[6]*

- **Coordination with government and partners** – *Finally, each case study addresses the effectiveness with which UNICEF has fulfilled its role as the primary coordinating body in the education sector. Here, the report looks at the way in which UNICEF has provided a platform for inter-agency coordination, as well as how the agency's collaboration with government has evolved as a function of the different stages and characteristics of the respective humanitarian emergencies.[7]*

3. Constraints To Implementing The Analytical Framework

During the course of the research and analysis a significant number of obstacles emerged to applying the analytical framework described above across the three countries. While these did not preclude a comparative analysis, they are important to highlight as a preface to the report. The constraints to comparison fall in four broad categories; contextual diversity inherent to the countries, the varying roles of UNICEF in each country as a product of these differences, the time dedicated to field work, and the lack of comparable data across countries. These limitations should be considered as a general caveat to report's conclusions insofar as we feel that they represent, more than definitive answers, a foundation for further debate both within UNICEF and in the education sector of each country.

3.1 Differences In Context

In comparing Colombia, Liberia and Southern Sudan, it is important to take into account the varying social and political situations. In particular, it is important to highlight differences in five areas that have a significant relationship to both the delivery of education in each case, as well as the role of UNICEF as a primary stakeholder in the sector.

3.1.1 The Effect Of Conflict On Policy And Service Delivery

The nature and current state of conflict is undoubtedly different in the three cases. Southern Sudan faces a fragile peace that makes long-term planning for the provision of education a difficult task. Liberia enjoys relatively better stability though it depends largely on the presence of UN peacekeeping forces. Colombia's position is much different in that its conflict is ongoing and primarily rural, although the conflict has important implications for the country as a whole. These variations in the state of conflict present different challenges in providing education to vulnerable groups and greatly affect the access that is available to areas that UNICEF serves. In Colombia, access is a great concern in reaching conflict-affected areas dominated by armed actors, in Liberia access is dictated less by insecurity and more by infrastructure, and in Sudan access is dictated by both insecurity and infrastructure.

3.1.2 The Role Of Government In Education Administration

The variation in government capacity and reach plays a large role in the ability of governments and other organizations to provide effective education programs. Colombia and, to a lesser extent, Southern Sudan have strong central governments in which the institutionalization of the education sector has been well established. In Liberia, this institutionalization has only begun to effectively occur since the successful elections of 2005. All three governments share a decentralized approach to education administration that confronts significant practical challenges given the low levels of capacity at the local level. As a result, in areas with high concentrations of internally displaced persons in Colombia, and countrywide in both Southern Sudan and Liberia, the quantity and quality of service delivery suffers. On a comparative basis however, the struggle to ensure sufficient qualified education personnel necessary for a decentralized system is greater in Southern Sudan and Liberia where literacy rates are 24percent and 37percent respectively compared to 92.8percent in Colombia.[8]

3.1.3 The Role Of The International Community

The degree of dependence on international financing for education is another area where the variance between the three countries is important to highlight. While Colombia and Southern Sudan have the benefit of significant domestic financing for the sector, Liberia is comparatively more dependent on the international community. In terms of implementation, Southern Sudan and Liberia depend heavily on international agencies, while these play a much lesser role in Colombia, which depends on decentralized units of education administration, the Church and other domestic actors in civil society.

3.1.4 Socio-Economic Context

Differences in socio-economic contexts also warrant significant attention when considering the research findings. For example, disparities in enrollment rates between male and female students are a key issue in Southern Sudan and Liberia, but not as central a concern in education programming for Colombia. Poverty levels and their impact on education is another significant consideration in all cases, though it is comparatively more extreme in Liberia and Sudan. In Liberia, 76.2percent[9] and in Southern Sudan 92percent[10] of the population live on less than one dollar a day compared to 8.2percent[11] in Colombia. In all cases however, poverty represents an important constraint to consider when analyzing the state of access and quality of education.

3.1.5 Demography And Geography

Finally, the three countries differ in population and physical area, each of which has important implications for service delivery. Colombia has a population of 44.9 million people with a land area of over one million square kilometers, while Liberia is much smaller with a population of 3.4 million in an area of 111,340 square kilometers. Southern Sudan has a population of 7.5 million people in an area of approximately 640,000 square kilometers, which is indicative of a large dispersion of the population[12] complicating the provision of services.

3.2 Differences In The Role Of UNICEF

In all three countries, UNICEF plays a varying but primary role in serving vulnerable populations. UNICEF is a key partner with the government in both Southern Sudan, where it has had a central role in supporting the policy development process, and in Liberia, where it has begun to play a more active role in policy development. In Colombia, UNICEF is strong with regards to providing education options, but does not play a major role in the national policy arena with regard to serving vulnerable groups. Thus, the UNICEF role understandably differs in each country, in part as a function of the contextual variation described above. These differences represent a challenge to the applicability of findings in one country to the others.

Introduction

In order to deal with this variation, the report provides analysis and recommendations at two analytical levels. At the Country Office (CO) level, we present a critical description of the state of the education sector and provide specific recommendations that are framed by the context and current programming priorities of the CO itself. At the headquarters (HQ) level, the goal is to provide general recommendations geared towards identifying broader lessons learned and good practices that can help the agency as a whole as well as respective COs improve their education response in situations of conflict and early reconstruction.

3.3 Constraints Of Limited Time For Field Research

Given the short period dedicated to fieldwork, the research teams were unable to use structured surveys or other original research tools that require more resources and time in the field. Though site visits were conducted in each country, grey literature and research conducted by other agencies was an important source of information that provided a foundation for much of the analysis. The interview process also served as a fundamental strategy for data collection insofar as it provided a further complement to the data collected and an opportunity to test hypotheses and view points with a range of different stakeholders in the education sector of each country.

3.4 The Lack Of Comparable Data Across Countries

Education data was understandably sparse, in large part due to the respective conflicts and in the cases of Southern Sudan and Liberia, as a consequence of the transitional stage in which the education systems are currently operating. Moreover, a great deal of emphasis was placed on the education systems as a whole. In contrast, the Colombia team focused less on the education sector as a whole and more so on UNICEF education programs for vulnerable groups during their field research. As a result, the degree to which comparable analysis is possible in the areas of policy and planning, administration and finance and service delivery, as it relates to the entire education system, is limited to Liberia and Southern Sudan. However, more concrete comparisons of the three regions were possible in the aspect of curriculum.

While the Colombia team was able to conduct a more comprehensive analysis of UNICEF curriculum from a technical perspective, it did not address the national curriculum in the same way. Liberia and Southern Sudan are both currently in the process of revising or developing their national curriculums. As a result, they could not be analyzed at the same level or using the same method across countries. However, personal observations in classrooms, interviews and grey literature analysis did provide a vehicle to gain some insight on the issue of curricula and the quality of education in Liberia and Southern Sudan.

4. Comparative Findings

Despite the limited comparability of the contexts in the selected cases, a cross-country analysis still provides the basis for some comparative findings that parallel the general recommendations of the report. These findings, relevant for both UNICEF and other stakeholders, can be grouped into seven categories.

Finding #1: Though the decentralized structure of UNICEF facilitates the development of context appropriate education responses, there is limited knowledge sharing across countries.

The decentralized structure of UNICEF operations around the world is a major strength, allowing UNICEF to adapt to local situations and build local expertise. However, this same structure creates challenges for using and sharing the wealth of knowledge in the agency. For example, the offices in Southern Sudan and Liberia are not strongly connected to the implementation strategies for child-friendly spaces used in Colombia. Similarly, the offices in Southern Sudan and Liberia are not able to optimally use each other's experiences in addressing the problems of girl's education in their respective countries. Better adaptation and replication of successful models from other countries and UNICEF offices

could improve success of education interventions as demonstrated by the experience of the Community Girls Schools program in Southern Sudan, which was based on the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) model. Additionally, recruiting key staff members with extensive exposure to the agency's programs in other countries could contribute significantly to taking advantage of existing institutional experience as also demonstrated in the case of Southern Sudan office.

Finding #2: The integration of psychosocial components into the education response is highly varied across the cases.

Ensuring the integration of a psychosocial approach to education services in the early reconstruction phase has proven to be particularly challenging for UNICEF country offices in Liberia and Southern Sudan. In the case of Liberia, the psychosocial approach and the Child Friendly Spaces model do not appear to be internalized and integrated into UNICEF programming. In the case of Southern Sudan, the urgency of the need to construct schools, deliver learning supplies and train teachers has postponed the psychosocial dimension to later stages of reconstruction. The UNICEF experience in Colombia with Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness programs could potentially serve as a model for Liberia and Southern Sudan.

Finding #3: UNICEF has a unique opportunity to influence government policy by leveraging its proven models in the education sector as tools for advocacy.

Because the decentralized structure of UNICEF builds expertise, credibility, and coordination with governments, UNICEF is well placed to influence government policy as a technical advisor and advocate. The Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces (RALS) is one case where UNICEF led the process to fill a gap in baseline education information that was critical for reconstruction efforts in Liberia and Southern Sudan. UNICEF has also strategically piloted education models like the Return to Happiness program in Colombia and Community Girls Schools in Southern Sudan to persuade the government to implement these programs on a wider scale.

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Finding #4: Investments in education at both the policy and program levels during a conflict can significantly accelerate the process of reconstruction, though the scope of feasible early interventions is constrained by context.

In Southern Sudan, early investment by UNICEF in the education system during conflict enabled a successful post-conflict reconstruction phase by preparing policies and institutions, creating education models, strengthening human resources, and ensuring the continuance of education services. In Colombia, working with municipal-level governments and local non-governmental actors has allowed UNICEF to develop innovative education models even during the conflict, which will provide a solid foundation when the conflict comes to an end. In addition, UNICEF Colombia has prepared a comprehensive education model for the post-conflict period. These examples indicate that education interventions during a conflict, including policy development, are feasible and can be critical to effective reconstruction. However, the scope of early intervention is constrained by context. Early investment in Southern Sudan was partially possible because the timetable for the peace process was more certain than in Liberia, and the post-conflict leadership was identified early on. In contrast, the discontinuities in Liberia's leadership and the interim power-sharing agreement lasting until 2006 made the same kind of investment less possible and have consequently hampered the reconstruction process.

Finding #5: Current UNICEF policy guidelines do not appear to provide a clear roadmap for bridging the emergency - reconstruction gap in the education sector.

Despite some successful examples of preparation for peacetime education during conflict described above, continuity between emergency and post-conflict education programming appears inconsistent in many cases and the current UNICEF policy guidelines do not appear to provide a clear roadmap for bridging this gap. Hence, planning education

interventions in emergencies with a clear and strategic perspective about the post conflict period remains a challenge. For example, while child-friendly spaces were integrated into IDP camps in Liberia during the conflict, the psychosocial elements of these spaces seem to have not carried over to the post-conflict period and instead have given way to a focus on access and cognitive outcomes.

Finding #6: In bridging the emergency – reconstruction gap, there seems to be a tradeoff between efforts to build government capacity and ensure the efficacy of service delivery.

As part of its mission, UNICEF works through the government in post-conflict settings. While this approach builds government capacity in the longer term, it can reduce the speed and effectiveness of education services delivery in the short term. In Liberia, capacity problems are evident in the lack of coordination in education sector meetings, materials distribution, and the gradual transfer of responsibility of RALS to the government. Similar issues exist in Southern Sudan. It is therefore important to closely track outcome and performance indicators to ensure that a balance between capacity building and effective delivery is maintained.

Finding #7: The success of donor coordination varies across contexts and represents a key issue, especially when there exists a funding gap between the emergency and post-conflict development stages.

Facilitating effective donor and interagency coordination has had mixed success. Sectoral and thematic synchronization mechanisms with government agencies at the leadership position could be successful, as observed in Southern Sudan. In Liberia, however, limited management capacity and donor concerns around fiscal responsibility have proven to be obstacles to this process, indicating that addressing initial donor concerns may be a prerequisite to establishing a stable funding mechanism. In addition, Southern Sudan and Colombia have domestic revenue streams not present in Liberia.

COLOMBIA

1. Overview Of Armed Conflict and Displacement

During the past forty years in Colombia, violence has been used by guerrilla groups, drug traffickers, and paramilitary forces for political and economic gain; by police and military forces to assert control; and by criminals for direct personal gains.[13] As a result of this violence, 3,000 people are estimated to die every year and over the decades at least 3 million civilians have been forced to flee their homes and communities, though estimates vary dramatically.[14]

1.1 Historical Context

The evolution of competing armed factions over the years has produced complicated dynamics of violence and displacement. While players in the conflict have expanded and consolidated their control over large extensions of rural land, waves of displaced migrants have transformed the nation from a largely rural to a predominantly urban society.[15] Although the armed conflict has affected almost all municipalities to some degree, most of the violence has been localized, with some regions, departments and municipalities much more affected than others.[16]

The complete absence of the state in some parts of both rural and urban Colombia, and its weak presence in other areas, has also contributed to the expansion of violence and displacement. In geographically marginalized areas where the government does not exercise decisive and authoritative legitimacy and where high levels of impunity persist, many people take justice into their own hands.[17] Forced displacement occurs not only as a deliberate strategy of war, but also due to the fear of being caught in the crossfire, as well as to escape from being blackmailed, kidnapped or recruited, or to desert one of the armed factions.[18] There is also an increasing number of civilians who are displaced multiple times.[19]

The power and influence of drug traffickers, who have supported paramilitaries, guerilla groups and private interests, have also fueled the escalation of violence and displacement. The cultivation of coca in the 1990s and the subsequent boom in drug exports provided the resources for increased military capacity, technological expertise, geographic mobility, recruitment and armed actions, all of which have helped perpetuate the vicious cycle of violence. In areas where the state has been effectively absent and private authorities have predominated, drug-traffickers have formed an alliance with guerrilla forces. Narco-traffickers have also promoted right-wing paramilitary forces or militia units that have been set up to safeguard and increase the holdings of private interests.

Paramilitary groups have become a significant force in the conflict during the past two decades. In addition to the support of large landowners, drug interests, and businesses including multinational corporations, paramilitaries are also known to have the support of the army to conduct their actions.[20] The government, however, denies the accusations that link the military to the paramilitaries, and that it has overlooked the crimes committed by the latter. Although paramilitary groups have declared a ceasefire, many of them have not abided by it. While thousands of them have surrendered their weapons, many others still remain strong.[21]

While guerrilla actions have contributed to forced displacement, paramilitary actions are responsible for the majority of Colombia's current displacement. Paramilitary operations have spread rural violence and displacement to all but two of Colombia's 33 administrative departments.[22] Paramilitaries are responsible for about 49 percent of the displacement, while guerrillas account for about 20 percent, other factions 22 percent, and the military forces about one percent.[23]

On the other side of the political spectrum are guerrilla groups. They initially organized to represent the poor against Colombia's wealthy, however over the years their political ideology has blurred. It is argued that they have changed their character from being a purely ideological insurgency with a political agenda, to being commercially driven and mainly concerned with making money through illegal trade.[24] The majority of guerrilla groups have not been defeated[25] and continue to be one of the major players in Colombia's protracted conflict.

Colombia

1.2 Internal Displacement

While the number of civilians directly affected by the conflict is certainly large, the exact number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) varies according to the reporting entity.[26] The Advisory Office for Human Rights and Displacement (Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento or CODHES), a well-known non-governmental human rights organization that monitors forced migration, and the Episcopal Conference of the Roman Catholic Church both insist that the number of internally displaced exceeds 3.8 million. On the other hand, Social Action, the Colombian presidential agency of humanitarian help, estimates the number of displaced to be around 1.9 million.[27]

One explanation for the difference between the numbers provided by CODHES and the government is the fact that the government registry does not register intra-urban and intra-municipal displacement or people displaced by coca-crop fumigation as IDPs. Another explanation underlines the fact that the government started systematic registration of displaced populations only in 1994 while CODHES estimates go back to 1985.[28] Lack of a standard method to track displaced populations over time has made it difficult to determine who has returned to their place of origin, who has settled in other places, and who continues to be displaced.[29] Government statistics on the displaced also omit those who do not want to register for fear of repression from one of the armed factions. After a family member has been killed or has received death threats, some displaced people choose to protect themselves by maintaining a low profile, as it is not uncommon for members of guerrilla or paramilitary groups to track displaced families to threaten them.[30] Other displaced Colombians choose not to register because they fear the government might collaborate with paramilitaries and reveal their identities. [31]

The inconsistency of information on IDPs is significant since it hinders the provision of adequate services to them. The classification of individuals as displaced or poor is also a factor in determining whether international forces and government agencies provide humanitarian assistance or development assistance.[32] The fact that the Colombian government does not recognize the magnitude of the displacement problem limits the ability of international actors to provide services to the affected population. Were the conflict to be recognized as a humanitarian crisis, more resources could flow to alleviate the suffering.

1.3 Challenges of Meeting the Basic Needs of Displaced Populations

The conditions for many of the IDPs are precarious. In Colombia IDPs often live in shanty-towns where conditions are generally worse than the poorest urban communities inhabited by non-IDPs in terms of access to food, health, education, and housing.[33] It is estimated that 70 percent of IDPs have two or more unmet basic needs, including housing, access to services, living conditions, school enrolment and economic dependency, compared to ten percent among the poorest urban populations. A major source of psychological stress is due to IDPs being uprooted from a way of life based on subsistence agriculture to a market economy in urban centers where their work skills are in most cases irrelevant.[34]

The above mentioned factors limit IDPs to an estimated household income of slightly more than the equivalent of 100 USD per month, or 65 percent of the legal minimum wage. Out of the 100 USD, an average of 60 USD is spent on food, while the remainder is spent on housing and public services like water, electricity and gas. Given their financial constraints, many displaced families make ends meet by reducing the number of meals per day and the quality of food consumed, resulting in higher rates of anemia and malnutrition. While the law entitles IDPs to free and unlimited access to health care and medicines, only an estimated 22 percent of displaced populations benefit from these services.[35]

2. Education and Displaced Populations

2.1 Challenges of Meeting the Education Needs of Displaced Populations

Colombia has a reasonably effective education sector when compared to other Latin American countries. The national indicators however hide the large disparities between regions, urban and rural populations and different income quintiles. These disparities are particularly stark between the areas affected by the ongoing armed conflict and the rest of the country.[36] The national net primary enrollment rate was 83.6 percent in 2003, with almost equal access for both boys and girls. While the average dropout rate for primary education was 6.8 percent, in rural areas the dropout rate was twice as high. Similarly, the repetition rate in rural areas was three times higher than the national rate of 4.9 percent in 2003. Furthermore, the average level of education for the first quintile group (poorest) is 6 years less than the average level of education for the fifth quintile group (richest).[37]

The disparities created by the ongoing conflict have a particularly detrimental effect on the education of IDP children. According to CODHES, about 50 percent of the estimated 3.8 million displaced individuals in Colombia are under the age of 15.[38] This has placed a tremendous burden on the education system leaving the vast majority of IDP children without access to public education. Actual statistics on the school enrollment of displaced children do not exist. Save the Children Canada however estimates that up to 85 percent of displaced children do not have access to education.[39]

2.2 Common Barriers to School Attendance

Field research and literature reviews reveal a number of barriers that prevent IDP children from attending school. One common reason is that there simply are not enough schools in the urban areas to absorb the thousands of school-aged children being displaced every year. IDP children live in poor areas where schools already tend to be overcrowded and lack resources and teachers. This is compounded by the fact that IDP children often arrive when the school year is well advanced and administrators are unwilling to let them into their already crowded school.

Another barrier is the burden of documentation needed for enrollment, including a national identity card, IDP card, or prior school transcripts. Many IDP children do not have these documents as they are often left behind in the haste to flee their communities. While the government has waived these requirements for IDPs through Decree 2562/ Nov. 2001, in practice many schools still require them.

An additional barrier is the cost of education. Although the law guarantees free education for IDPs, it is common for schools to require payment for books, uniforms, and miscellaneous school fees, averaging the equivalent of 64 USD a year per student in primary school and 100 USD a year in secondary school. These expenses, combined with the increased need for many IDP children to contribute to support the family through domestic duties and informal child labor, keep many of them from attending school. Another factor is the lack of importance that parents place on education, since many of them do not see the relevance of education for their children.

In conflict areas a major obstacle to the provision of education services is the lack of trained teachers. Not only are teachers often displaced, but they are also a group targeted by both guerrillas and paramilitaries[40] since they are not viewed as neutral actors in the conflict. It has been estimated that 2,900 teachers were forcibly displaced and 82 teachers and school employees were killed during 2002[41].

Colombia

2.3 Responses of the Ministry of Education to Displaced Children[42]

The Ministry of Education (MoE) has been slow to respond and the allocated resources have been insufficient to meet the needs of displaced children. Table 1 and 2 show the results of recent MoE efforts to increase access to basic education (grades 1-9) for children affected by armed conflict. Table 1 shows the number of new spots created with resources from the Central Government under the *Sistema General de Participaciones* (SGP) and staffed with official teachers. Table 2 shows the total number of displaced students who attended the public education system financed by the SGP and other resources.[43] The MoE fell short of meeting its targets to reach the displaced children in both of these cases.

Table 1. New spots created for populations affected by the armed conflict with resources from SGP			
Year	Goal	Realized	%
2003	25,000	8,125	32.50
2004	20,000	16,238	81.19
2005	20,000	6,468	32.34
2006	8,000	1,898	23.73
Total	73,000	32,729	44.83

New spots for students affected by armed conflict through the implementation of projects financed by outside investment but taught by official teachers. Source: Colombian Ministry of Education

Note: SGP (Sistema General de Participaciones) are resources that the Central Government transfers to the territorial entities to finance the services they are required to provide by Law 715 of 2001.

Table 2. Number of displaced students reached by the Education Sector			
Year	Goal	Realized	%
2003	0	0	0
2004	0	0	0
2005	164,414	0	0
2006	260,000	234,018	90.01
Total	424,414	234,018	55.14

Number of displaced students attended by the education sector with resources from SGP and other additional resources. Source: Colombian Ministry of Education

The government has also implemented a variety of other projects for displaced children such as "Accelerated Learning" and "Learning Circles." However, these projects are on a smaller scale and insufficient to reach the hundreds of thousands of children out of the schooling system.

3. Overview of the Education Sector and its Challenges

3.1 Administration

Education in Colombia is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education (MoE), which sets the standards for public and private education at all levels. The administrative model based on the decentralization laws adopted during the 1990s assigns the following responsibilities to each layer of government:

1) at the national level, the ministry of education is responsible for policies, objectives, sectoral planning, system wide assessment, inspection, oversight and funds transfer to lower levels of government;
2) at the departmental level, education secretariats administer their own funds and those transferred by the national government, appoint and transfer teaching staff, provide training and advisory support to schools, and inspect and supervise education services in the area;
3) at the municipal[44] and district[45] levels, local authorities provide technical assistance to schools, administer their own funds and those transferred by the national government, and maintain the physical infrastructure and facilities of the schools;
4) at the school level, principals and teachers provide educational services, and construct the curriculum (*Proyecto Educativo Institucional* – PEI) based on technical curricular and pedagogical norms established by the Ministry of Education. [46]

Table 3. Competencies and Decisions made at the Different Administrative Levels					
	Level of Decision Making				
	National	Department	Certified Municipalities and Districts	Non-certified Municipalities	School
Formulation and evaluation of education policies and objectives	x				
Definition of parameters of service delivery: human resources, curricular guidelines and pedagogical norms	x				
Inspection and oversight	x				
Technical Assistance	x[1]	x[2]	x[3]		
Service Delivery		x	x	x	x
Teachers					
Hiring and firing of teachers and principals		x	x		
Formulation of salaries for teachers and principals	x				
Evaluation of teachers		x	x		x
Evaluation of principals		x	x		x
Teacher Promotions	x	x	x		
Appointment or transferring of teachers		x	x	x	x
Definition of teachers who will receive training					x
Finance					
Budget and use of resources	x[4]	x[5]	x[5]	x[5]	x[6]
Cost regulations, school fees	x				
Building and equipping of schools			x		
Maintenance of schools		x	x	x	
Quality and Assessment					
Promotion and execution of plans to improve quality		x	x	x	x

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Table 3. Competencies and Decisions made at the Different Administrative Levels (cont.)					
	Level of Decision Making				
	National	**Department**	**Certified Municipalities and Districts**	**Non-certified Municipalities**	**School**
Curriculum (Institutional Education Project – PEI)					x
Classroom organization and schedules					x
Books			x		

Source: Preal (2003) Informe de Progreso Educativo and Law 715 of 2001

1. From the nation to the departments
2. From the departments to the non-certified municipalities
3. From certified municipalities to schools within their jurisdiction.
4. Corresponds to the value assigned to each student annually and that is transferred to the departments, and municipalities.
5. Corresponds to the funds of each political unit.
6. The nation will co-finance the 80 percent of the quality evaluations that will take place every three years; the departments and certified municipalities will pay the remaining 20 percent.

With this decentralized system, municipal governments have the responsibility of implementing national policy. Many schools however criticize the provincial and national education departments for not providing adequate resources to carry out these policies. Furthermore, the distribution of responsibilities between each level is still not clear, which has generated administrative inefficiencies and the inappropriate use of resources.[47] These factors have contributed to the inefficiency within the system and the inability of schools to meet the needs of children affected by conflict.

3.2 Financing Education and Challenges with Resource Allocation

Colombia's spending on education is relatively strong with public spending in education as a proportion of GDP increasing from 3.15 percent in 1990 to 4.9 percent in 2004, which is above the average for lower-middle income countries. In 2004, education accounted for 11.7 percent of total government expenditure.[48] Primary education receives 40 percent of this funding while 29 percent goes to secondary education, 13 percent to tertiary education, and 2 percent to pre-primary education.[49] The education budget shows that some 90 percent is devoted to wages, and less than one percent to materials.[50]

Public expenditure on education and distribution per level

- 11.7% — Total gov expenditure / Exp on education as % of total
- pre-primary
- primary 40%
- secondary 29%
- tertiary 13%
- unknown 16%
- 2%
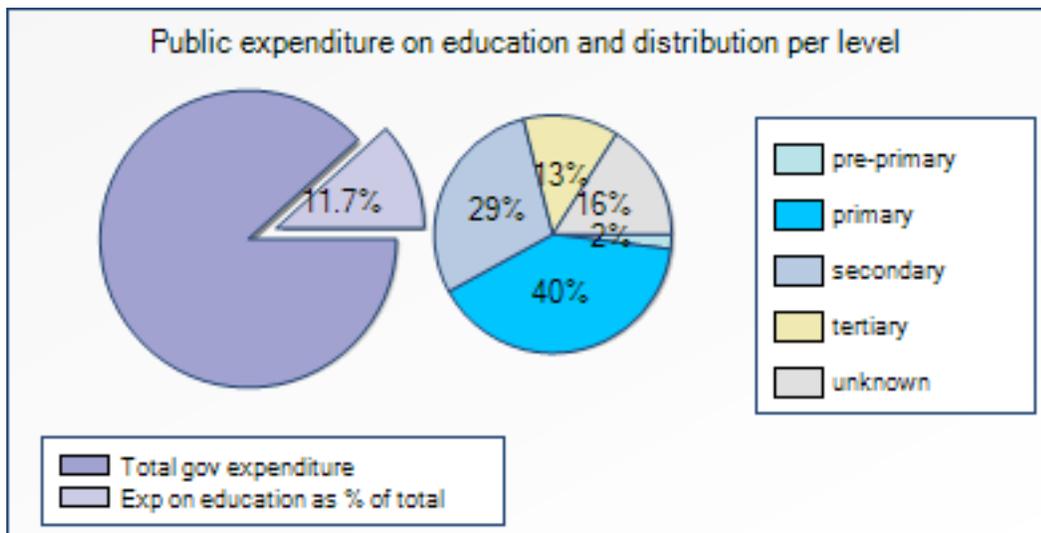
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics – 2004 data

3.3 Assessments

Colombia has developed a national test known as *Saber* to measure student learning. Law 715/2001 requires that every three years all students in the fifth and ninth grade be tested in language, math, science, and citizenship.[52] The mere fact that the country is actively taking steps to create a culture of assessment deserves praise as it shows commitment to a broader concern about education quality. Testing on civic values is another positive aspect, given the growing consensus that education is vital to encourage peace and citizenship in the context of conflict-stricken countries like Colombia. This not withstanding, the test still faces challenges.

In interviews conducted in the field, teachers admitted that once the tests were administered, the results were rarely used to make changes. It was explained that information on the results does not reach the people who can use it, in a timely and accessible manner. Among the education community, there seems to be a poor understanding of what testing can reveal.[53] These obstacles prevent the principals, teachers and parents from integrating results or from making the necessary changes to improve the education system. The Saber test has the potential of being an effective tool for comparing learning achievements between diverse populations, as well as measuring the learning advancement of IDP children through flexible learning methodologies. However, for this to occur, data collection processes would need to be expanded to collect more information on student background in order to be able to disaggregate by categories, including the experience of displacement.

In addition to Saber, other pedagogical tools have been introduced to establish an assessment culture. These include co-assessment, self-assessment, and hetero-assessment among students.[54] Colombia has also participated in global tests including the TIMSS for mathematics and science in 1995, OREALC 1997, and IEA – Civic Education in 2000. Although the performance of students has been lower than countries with comparable levels of income and development, Colombia can be credited for participating and being open to learning about the performance of its students as compared to students in other countries.[55]

3.4 Policy and Planning in the Education Sector

The education framework in Colombia is established by the 1994 General Education Law 115. The current education policy is embodied in the "Revolución Educativa" (Education Revolution), which is the education sector plan for 2002-2006. The principal objectives set out in the Education Revolution plan are to increase coverage and improve the quality and efficiency of education. Basic primary education was expanded by 1,419,427 new spots in four years (of the 1.5 million goal), which allowed the total gross enrollment rate to increase to 90 percent. A little over half of these new spots were created through "contracted education" while the rest were created by the use of flexible education models and restructuring, including the merging of educational institutions and increasing the pupil and teacher ratios.[56]

Contracted education is a means by which the national government pays private actors such as Churches and NGOs to contract teachers who then work within the public school system.[57] These teachers are supervised, trained and paid by the private actors and are not subject to teacher union benefits or requirements. For example, the Diocese of Montería was contracted to provide education to 5,000 students through the provision of 340 teachers.[58] The Church hires teachers who have completed high school but have not yet completed their three years of teacher training for certification. The teachers are expected to continue their education at the local university on weekends and attend additional trainings provided by the Diocese. The Church is considered one of the main strategic alliances for the Ministry of Education because of its vast outreach, transparency, credibility and acceptance among community members.

3.4.1 Free and Compulsory Primary Education (Grades 1-9)

The 1994 Education Law 115 establishes four categories of schools for universal education in Colombia: Early Childhood Education, Basic Primary Education, Basic Secondary Education and Secondary Education. The law also establishes compulsory education from preschool though 9th grade, or up to age 15. Basic education, where this analysis is focused,

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consists of five years of basic primary school and four years of basic secondary school. Free primary and secondary education were constitutional rights from 1938 to 1991. The new Colombian Constitution of 1991, however, made education free except for those able to pay for it.[59] The 1991 Constitution, as well as the Education Revolution 2002-2006 plan, affirms the responsibility of the family, community and government in providing education. This allows schools to charge enrollment fees based on each school's assessment of a family's ability to pay. A law was enacted to exempt IDP children from paying school fees; however, field research and literature reviews reveal that most schools still charge a fee, albeit less than the fee for other students.[60]

3.4.2 Policies Concerning Basic Education for Children Affected by Conflict

Colombian laws establish a fairly comprehensive policy and legal framework to protect the education rights of vulnerable populations including IDPs. The Ministry of Education identifies populations affected by violence as "internally displaced populations, demobilized (ex-combatants) children and youth, and school aged children of demobilized adults."[61] The right of these children to receive basic education is established by Law 387 and further delineated in Decree 2562 (2001) and 250 (2005). These laws are currently outlined in the "Lineamientos de Política para la Atención Educativa a Poblaciones Vulnerables" (Political Guidelines for the Education of Vulnerable Populations)[62], which give the guidelines and legal framework for working with IDP children as well as other vulnerable populations. These laws and policies give IDP children priority admission to schools, exempt them from paying school fees and wearing school uniforms, and relieve them from the need of providing documentation from previous schools. Furthermore, the institutional education project (PEI) of educational institutions that are attended by children affected by the conflict are required to give adequate attention to the needs of children affected by conflict. By and large, however, the policies in regards to IDP children have not been effectively implemented on the ground.

3.5 National Curriculum and its Organizational Influences

The government's national curriculum geared towards displaced children provides for choice among a variety of programs at the local level.[63] Generally, the efficacy of this flexible approach depends upon the strength of the local government and local organizations that are responsible for the provision of education. In other words, if there are no strong organizations to manage the education system locally, as is often the case in areas of high conflict, the system fails to operate regardless of the strength of the actual curriculum.

Colombia's Institutional Education Project (PEI) based on Law 115 1994[64], provides the overall guidance for curriculum. As a result of this law's mandate for school autonomy, the Ministry of Education also provides a series of optional education models for areas of conflict and recipient communities of displaced populations. These education models have been designed to move away from the status quo, which has been a regimented style of teaching that is focused on rigid cognitive lessons that stress repetition and memorization.

Law 115 emphasizes that "curriculum is the grouping of criteria, study plans, programs, methodologies and processes that contribute to the integral formation and construction of the national, regional, and local cultural identity, including human resources, both academic and physical, in order to put into practice the politics that will carry out the institutional education project".[65] The effectiveness of each of these policies has been difficult to measure. However, field research shows that while flexibility has allowed for innovation in some areas, in others it has proved to be a reason for leaving out important components necessary in creating an integrated approach to learning.

3.6 Education Models

3.6.1 Accelerated Learning

The accelerated learning program in Colombia was modeled after Brazil's accelerated learning program as a response to statistics that showed that 23 percent of Colombian children enrolled in primary school were of an age that did not

correspond to their grade level. In rural areas this rate reached up to 40 percent.[66] The implementation of accelerated learning through formal government channels was done in connection with the Escuela Nueva model that is discussed below, and expanded throughout the country after a pilot program in 2000.[67]

Accelerated learning has three dimensions: policy, pedagogy and operatives[68], which emphasize the role of all levels of government and other organizations in making the children the center of learning in order to build their self esteem.[69] The accelerated learning approach was adapted for use in areas of conflict and displacement, training[70] teachers in physical and psychological healing as well as the reintegration of children into school.[71] The program has been used in both rural and urban areas and operates in three phases. The first phase is recreation and preparation, which allows the child to adjust to the environment. The second phase is the provision of non-formal education, and the final is the re-introduction of the child to the curriculum. The accelerated learning program is utilized as a process of reintegration in conjunction with other models, including the Escuela Nueva model and UNICEF's programs discussed below.

3.6.2 Learning Circles – Adapting Escuela Nueva for Displaced Out-of-School Children

Escuela Nueva, or New School, is a model for primary education that has integrated curricular, community, administrative, and teacher training strategies in rural and urban Colombian schools since the mid-seventies. During the mid eighties, when the designer of the model, Vicky Colbert, became Colombia's Vice-Minister of Education, the Escuela Nueva approach was incorporated as a national education policy in 20,000 of Colombia's 34,000 rural schools.[72] Since then, it has been recognized by the Ministry of Education as one of the flexible models that schools can adopt. As a result, it has been adapted to urban settings, post-primary grades and most recently to work with displaced children. Escuela Nueva has also inspired other educational models in Colombia such as UNICEF's Child-Friendly Schools and has served as a "chassis" for educational programs in other countries around the world. Currently the Escuela Nueva movement is led by the Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente, which is a foundation established in 1987 to promote the model and adapt it to new populations. [73]

Learning Circles is an adapted model for displaced populations, which takes many of the applicable concepts of Escuela Nueva, and uses them to address the unique educational needs of this group. Like Escuela Nueva, the Learning Circles are multi-grade spaces with one or two teachers working with 12 to 15 children of different grades in the same classroom. The program is rooted in a child-centered approach that includes interactive and participatory learning, as well as the teaching of values and life skills together with cognitive skills. Even though Learning Circles operate in community settings, they are formally part of the education system. Children participating in the Learning Circles are officially registered in a "mother school" (a local primary school) that grants students certificates when they are promoted from one level to the next, and guarantees their admission when transitioning into the regular schools. [74]

The curricular component of Learning Circles is organized in modules or self-contained units that are managed by the students. The teaching and learning materials are combined versions of a textbook, workbook and teacher guide, allowing teachers to serve as facilitators of cooperative learning and permitting students to follow the curriculum at their own pace. The guides are produced by the Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente and cover the topics of health, culture, conflict-resolution, reading, writing, math, and life skills. The material encourages the practical application of new information to the student's realities, identity, self-esteem, learning environment, and community. Since students do not write on the guides, they can be used and re-used by multiple students. The program also supports peer instruction, where students that have mastered a material can coach other students that have yet to learn the given topic.[75]

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Diagram 1

Curriculum of Learning Circles (Escuela Nueva Model)
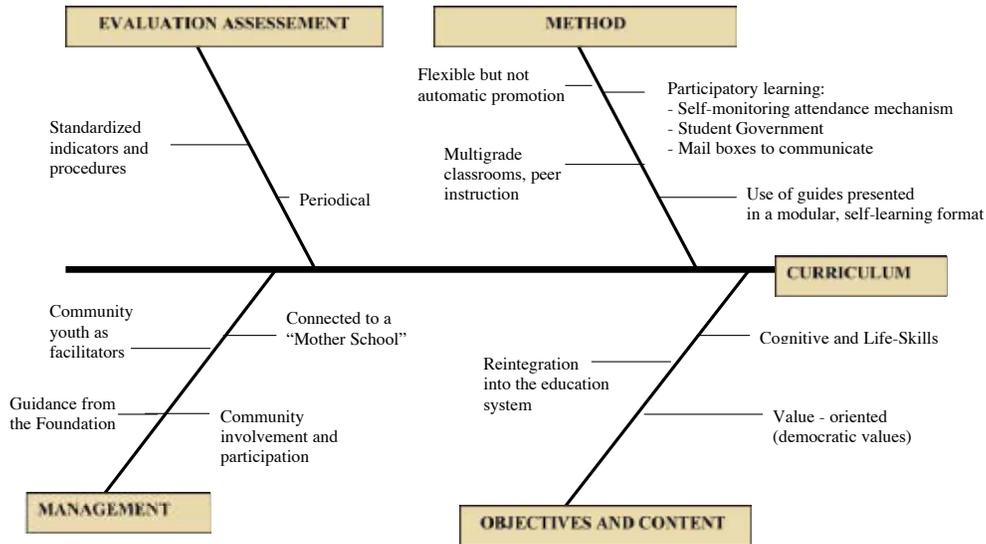
The flexibility of the curriculum and the management of the program are of great importance to displaced children because it means they can incorporate into the Learning Circles at any time of the academic year. Even though the program operates from monday through friday, students can attend as many or as few days of schools and still be part of the educational system. Although in an ideal world, children attend school regularly, this is unrealistic for many displaced children who often have to miss school to work and earn an income, and who also may end up moving a second or third time after their initial displacement. Consistent with these elements, promotion from one level to the next is flexible although not automatic. The child is promoted to the next level when he or she accomplishes the educational competencies that are required for the given grade. In a regular school system, a displaced child who misses too many school days would simply be penalized by having to repeat grades.

The Learning Circles program also offers an educational opportunity for displaced children who have been expelled from a public school because of behavioral problems or who are too old to enter the grade level that the educational system requires. Another flexible characteristic of the program is that children do not have to pay fees nor wear uniforms. This again is of great significance because as mentioned before, the financial burden of school is identified as one of the primary barriers that prevent displaced children from continuing their education.

The teachers or facilitators of the program are community youth that are pursuing an education degree at the college level. This is an important program component not only because they serve as role models but also because they are in a better position to understand the social realities of their students as they themselves experience them daily. In field interviews, facilitators expressed satisfaction from learning new teaching methodologies that are not taught at the university as well as receiving respect from other community members. In one of the Learning Circles visited in Altos de Cazucá, in Soacha (Department of Cundinamarca), the teacher facilitates and maintains one room in her house as a classroom.[76]

Peer Instruction - Learning Circles –Soacha *Photo credit: Mariana Salazar, WWS*

Learning Circles are created upon the request of a department, municipality or organization that identifies the educational needs in a given community and demonstrates a desire to support the program. The national government evaluates the need, i.e. the number of out-of-school displaced children, as well as the local support.[77] Once the area is approved to receive the program and the financial resources have been secured, the requesting body has access to the model, training materials and training assistance provided by staff of the Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente. Learning Circles can be funded with resources from government agencies, local and international donors as well as the private sector. The 52 Learning Circles that are currently operating receive funds from a belgian School, the Norwegian Refugee Council, UNHCR, the Education Secretariat of the Municipality of Soacha, the Ministry of Education, and the International Organization for Migration.[78]

The Foundation Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente names the following results as achievements of the program: improvement in school retention and attendance rates, facilitation of the social reintegration of highly transient families, larger academic progress than would have occurred in official schools, improvement in behavior and expressed self-esteem, increased participation of parents in educational activities, and improvements in the learning environment. Another achievement is the advancement of children into the regular education system by the second semester of the 2005 school year: 54 percent of children participating in the pilot phase of the Learning Circles moved on to their "mother school" or other comparable schools.

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Learning Circles in Altos de Cazucá

Altos de Cazucá, a severely underdeveloped marginal zone in the municipality of Soacha, bordering Bogotá to the south, is one of Colombia's major settlement areas for IDPs. It has been estimated that 65% of IDPs arriving in Bogotá end up in Soacha slums and over 250,000 IDPs have moved into Altos de Cazucá since the late 1980s. [2] This is the site where many of the Learning Circles are operating. Living in a context of material deprivation, violence and insecurity, children who participate in Learning Circles find flexible spaces to restore their psychosocial welfare and gain cognitive skills in a manner that adapts to their realities. Through activities such as the election of a student government, the usage of mail boxes to communicate with the teacher and other students, and through a self-monitoring attendance mechanism, children embrace self-learning and participation at the same time.

Photo credit: Mariana Salazar, WWS

Sources:
[1] Department of Cundinamarca.
[2] Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre. Population Figures and Profile of the Department of Cundinamarca.

4. Education Interventions and UNICEF

UNICEF is the primary actor for the United Nations in responding to the educational needs of IDPs in Colombia. Although its official mandate is not to work specifically with IDP children, through its work in areas of conflict UNICEF is indirectly leading much of the UN's work for displaced children living in conflict areas.

UNICEF functions among a relatively strong web of national and international NGOs, and acts as a facilitator in providing much needed educational services to displaced children. Among this web of organizations are the sister UN agencies that partake in the provision of educational services at varying levels. They include the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the World Food Program (WFP) and the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA).

In understanding the education programs of the UN, it is important to consider two main elements of UNICEF's service provision. The first, as already mentioned, is that UNICEF's educational programs are not targeted solely to displaced children. Their approach has been to serve areas that coincide with high incidence of conflict, which correlate to many of the departments with high concentrations of displaced populations. The map below indicates UNICEF's general presence in Colombia.

Secondly, although UNICEF's presence is large in providing education to Colombia's vulnerable population, it is the mandate of UNHCR to provide services directly to internally displaced populations. This presents several challenges in how each agency implements its programs in areas of conflict.

Figure 1: UNICEF's General Presence in Colombia[79]

Para toda la infancia
Salud, Educación, Igualdad, Protección
ASÍ LA HUMANIDAD AVANZA

SOURCE: http://www.unicef.org.co/mapa.htm
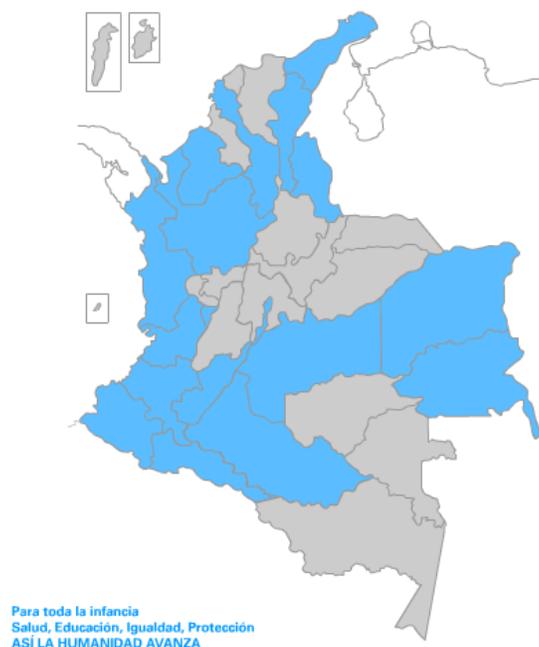
4.1 UNICEF Education Programs

Through collaboration with partnering organizations and government agencies, UNICEF provides and supports a myriad of programs in Colombia that are focused on providing formal education, preparation for social and family reintegration, health care, legal protection and psychosocial support. UNICEF's main role is to provide technical support to governmental and non-governmental partners to enhance the quality and efficacy of these services.

UNICEF's target population comprises children in areas of conflict and aims to reach this population through two main programs: Escuelas Amigas and Retorno de la Alegría. Community development, family health, Escuelas Amigas (Child Friendly Schools) and Retorno a la Alegría (Return to Happiness) comprise UNICEF's services in education as shown in the figure below. Although these are represented as individual pieces, they are often delivered as one, complementing each other to create a healthy learning environment and ultimately leading to the recovery of the social fabric and psychosocial well-being of the community.

Figure 2: Focus of UNICEF Education Programs

35
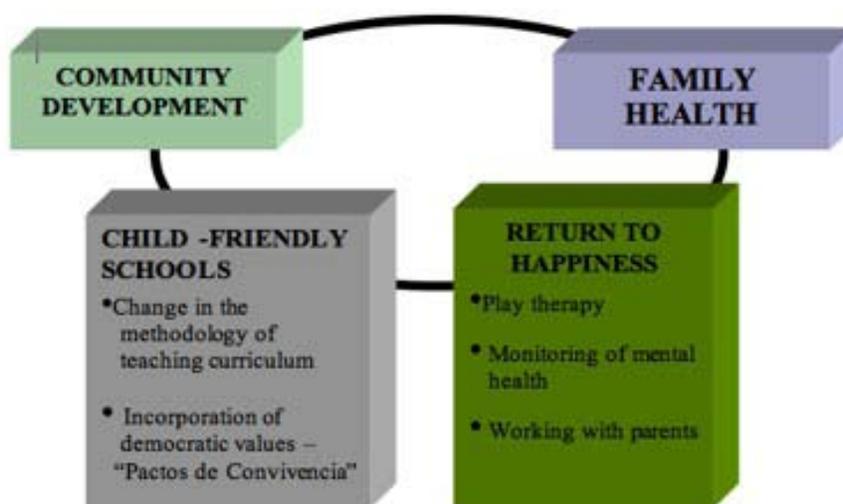
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4.1.1 Escuelas Amigas de la Niñez (Child Friendly Schools)

Escuelas Amigas, also known as Child Friendly Schools, were developed to provide an environment conducive to learning by focusing on the child, and reinforcing democratic ideals and the rights of children. Classrooms are reconfigured to enhance student participation. Older students are trained and supervised by a teacher to mentor younger children. The steps taken to enhance the learning environment create a safe and healing environment for a child.

Escuelas Amigas is based on six main components: 1) the pedagogical component that focuses on learning and life skills, 2) the curricular component that focuses on the rights of the child, 3) communication and relationships to support democratic ideals, 4) health and hygiene, 5) community, and the integration of the family and local community into the learning process, and 6) infrastructure, to improve the physical environment for learning.[80]

In selecting the schools for Escuelas Amigas, the criteria that UNICEF uses include commitment of the local government to the project, the commitment of educators, adequate space that can be renovated, and indicators of access, which include the percentage of out-of-school children in the community. Implementation follows a five-phase process involving consultations with the community partners, conceptualization, design, the action plan and finally execution, monitoring and evaluation.

Figure 3: Escuelas Amigas Presence in Colombia

SOURCE: http://www.unicef.org.co/mapa.htm
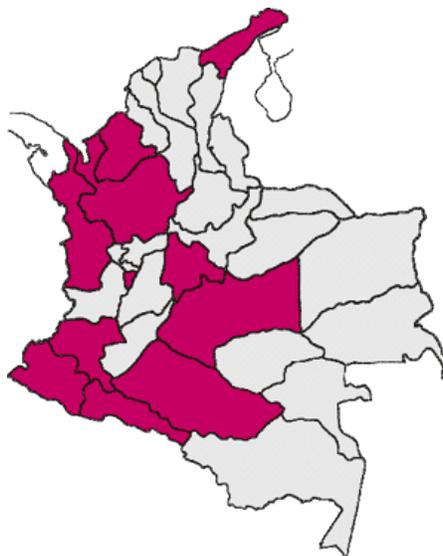
In 2003, Escuelas Amigas de la Niñez was serving 38,000 students in 161 schools in the provinces of Antioquia, Córdoba, Coquetá, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Chocó, Guajira, Metá, Nariño, Quindio, and Putumayo[81] as displayed in the map above. In Antioquia province alone, UNICEF provided technical assistance for a strategy to improve school quality in 32 municipalities.[82] "Overall, the Escuelas Amigas had a 15 percent increase in school acceptance."[83] Qualitatively, UNICEF reported the program a success in correcting problems of methodology in which children no longer faced punishment and mistreatment, and they were allowed to openly participate. Escuelas Amigas has been credited for building self-esteem among adolescent volunteers. It also ameliorated the physical environment by providing clean sanitation facilities and recreation areas as well as improve the classroom environment.

UNICEF also cited a reduction in school violence by 70 percent, a reduction of dropout rates from 40 percent to 6 percent and a reduction in the number of students repeating a grade from 35 percent to 7 percent.[84] UNICEF also found that Escuelas Amigas strategies were more cost-effective than other international programs outside of Colombia, because

of its partnership approach that facilitates cost-sharing with NGOs, government agencies and communities.

During field visits, students, teachers, parents, administration and local officials consistently praised the improvements in facilities and its contribution to creating an environment conducive to learning.[85] The physical changes of the buildings observed by the authors of this report were astounding, changing from dilapidated buildings with poor facilities to clean, maintained and organized centers for learning.

UNICEF has been able to increase the number of child-friendly spaces by partnering with local organizations such as the Catholic Church, municipalities and private enterprise. In Montería, for example, UNICEF works directly through the Dioceses of Monteria, which provides technical support for schools within its jurisdiction. This partnership was used to leverage increased funding from the municipality and was used in conjunction with a new partnership with Home Center, a Colombian hardware store, to construct a new school in a neighborhood inhabited primarily by displaced families.

4.1.2 Retorno de la Alegría (Return to Happiness)

In the late 1990s, the Return to Happiness program was imported[86] to Colombia to address localized violence in the areas of Metá and Urubá. In 2000, the program was implemented in the Colombian departments of Caquetá, Metá, Córdoba and Putumayo to compliment the Escuelas Amigas program. Return to Happiness is designed specifically to support psychosocial healing of children affected by conflict. Diagram 2 offers a visual representation of the program's curriculum components. The program utilizes adolescent volunteers, parents, teachers, church parishioners, and various community leaders to participate in a process of healing for the child. A curriculum complete with activities, songs, and materials encourages children to resolve their fears through play therapy. The resources for this program are extensive with detailed training and curriculum materials.[87]

Diagram 2

Curriculum of Return to Happiness (UNICEF)
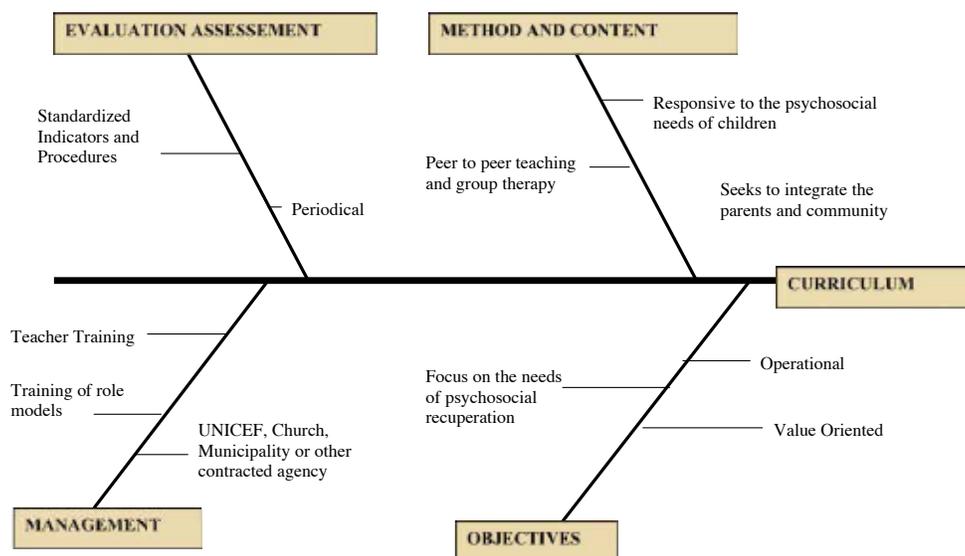
The schools that use Retorno de la Alegría most often implement it simultaneously with Escuelas Amigas to enhance both the learning environment and the process of psychosocial healing making little or no distinction between the applications of the two models. Due to this fact, it is difficult to ascertain the separate impact of Return to Happiness and Child Friendly Schools. UNICEF reports that it has reached almost 70,000 children and trained 5,580 volunteers as peer therapists in eight departments during a six-year period. [88] When compared to the estimated 400,000 displaced children, it becomes evident that the program has much room to grow.

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Achievements of the program presented in recent reports of UNICEF's partner organizations include improved sanitation in schools, improved nutrition and health.[89] Many children are noticeably cleaner and take pride in their well being and in their school. Impacts mentioned during field interviews in Montería and Antioquia also included improved levels of self-esteem, increased participation of parents in the education of the child, decreased domestic violence, and improved attendance.

Number of Children and Volunteer Participants of Retorno de la Alegría (1997-2003)		
Department	Number of Children	Number of Volunteers
Antioquia	5,278	484
Caquetá	4,826	169
Caucá	3,550	
Chocó	3,987	269
Cordóba	28,155	2,075
Metá	8,210	1,761
Nariño	4,995	420
Putumayo	9,288	402
TOTAL	**68,289**	**5,580**

Source: www.unicef.org

The Return to Happiness program uses a diagnostics form that records the student's basic statistics and their progress in cognitive, language and motor skills, as well as psychological well-being as observed by a psychologist.[90] [See Appendix 2] The data from these forms are used limitedly and have not been analyzed in a formal report.

4.2 Core Policy Directives and UNICEF Programs in Colombia

In assessing the provision of education in Colombia in areas of conflict, this report offers an analysis of the links between UNICEF's core policy directives and its programs in Colombia.

4.2.1 Prioritization of Basic Education

In the Colombian case, prioritization of primary education is a responsibility taken by the State, allowing UNICEF to focus on other aspects. As previously mentioned, Colombian legislation on education for IDPs is among the world's best; however, implementation and enforcement of the legislation is not as strong. This presents a problem not in prioritizing primary education, but in the access and quality of education. The programs of the Escuela Nueva Foundation and UNICEF attempt to provide methods that complement the curriculum offered by the Ministry of Education. The programs do this by targeting areas that are affected by conflict and/or have high concentrations of IDPs, and by coordinating with community agencies. In this respect, UNICEF programs are focused on prioritizing quality, among other aspects of basic education.

4.2.2 Focus on Quality of Education

UNICEF's focus on quality of education is exemplified by its focus on integrating child friendly spaces and psychosocial support. The most valuable contributions Escuelas Amigas and Retorno de la Alegría offer in terms of improving the quality of education is the integrated approach that brings improvements in school facilities, nutrition, health, community development, pedagogical methodologies and psychosocial therapy. The cognitive aspect of the programs stand to benefit from the strengths of the Learning Circles program, which offers a strong cognitive base for displaced children.

4.2.3 Targeting the Most Vulnerable Populations

UNICEF is mostly successful in targeting the vulnerable children in Colombia. The organization's primary focus has been to work in areas of conflict and, as previously mentioned, this often overlaps areas with high concentrations of internally displaced. There is, however, a vulnerable population of children that live outside of these mostly rural areas in the peripheries of the larger metropolitan areas. UNICEF is not serving this population, primarily because UNHCR holds the mandate to serve these children. UNHCR cannot provide the same quality of education models that have been developed by UNICEF. In some regard, UNICEF is politically blocked from serving children in the "jurisdiction" of UNHCR and a lack of cooperation between these organizations has not allowed for an exchange of ideas and expertise that would allow UNICEF programming to reach this population.

4.2.4 Integration of Programs Across Sectors

UNICEF programming provides a strong base in integrating cognitive learning with psychosocial healing. As described earlier, Child Friendly Schools is an effective model for an integrated approach to learning that includes sanitation, nutrition, curriculum, health, community and infrastructure. In spite of these qualities, the approach lacks a strong psychosocial component, which is why Return to Happiness' emphasis on psychosocial therapy couples nicely with the program.

In this respect, Escuela Amiga and Return to Happiness should be formally united to serve as a cohesive method to improve the overall school environment. In practice this is already occurring and if formalized as one program, its ability to be replicated and expanded to serve vulnerable groups in more areas of Colombia and perhaps in other countries will be greatly enhanced. In the municipality of Tierra Alta,[91] the school visited by the research team has utilized aspects of both of the programs to integrate vocational and cognitive learning while addressing the psychological needs of the children. The rights of the child are emphasized, which brings value to their being and leads to a stronger ability to help the child heal from psychological trauma. It has also been a force in instilling the idea of peace in children as was observed in Tierra Alta.[92]

4.2.5 Coordination With Other Stakeholders

Improved coordination among the actors of these programs has great potential benefits for strengthening their ability to serve children in conflict. UNICEF has been successful in creating strong partnerships with the Catholic Church and municipalities. Its coordination with other UN agencies and other organizations working in education response to vulnerable groups, namely the Escuela Nueva Foundation, is in need of fortification.

4.2.5.1 The Catholic Church
UNICEF's ability to leverage its partnerships has been successful in reaching out to communities in conflict. The Catholic Church is their primary partner in reaching areas that UNICEF or its sister UN organizations would not be able to easily access. The Diocese of Montería in the department of Córdoba and UNICEF maintain an impressive relationship, which they use to leverage support to provide education that offers psychosocial support and an environment that respects the rights of the child. The UNICEF staff is based at the Diocese and works closely with the local municipalities and schools to monitor UNICEF programs. The Bishop, Monsignor Julio Cesar Vidal Ortiz, is a strong stabilizing force for the programs to operate in the area.[93] In this case, the Church collaborates closely with the municipality managing contracts that allow them to play an administrative role in the area schools as they work closely with the municipalities to push for infrastructure, technical and financial assistance.

4.2.5.2 Municipalities
UNICEF also works closely with municipalities in the provision of education for displaced children. In the rural municipality of El Peñol, UNICEF provides assistance to schools that operate both the Return to Happiness and Escuelas Amigas programs. This community enjoys a strong local government that plays an active role in the development of Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness as a means to address the needs of the children affected by conflict. This

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has been feasible because of the local government's pragmatism in recognizing the need for psychosocial healing and safe spaces as a means to fortifying stability and peace. The municipality formulated a strategic plan (Proyecto Educativo de El Peñol) for the localities education system and has integrated UNICEF programs for vulnerable populations into this plan.[94] This recognition has led to a commitment by the municipality to not only implement the programs but also to enhance the infrastructure and assistance provided by UNICEF. The mayor led an effort to bring computers and provide landscaping to these schools that has created a great sense of pride in the schools' staff, students and communities. The tight knit social fabric of this community plays a strong role in its success, but nevertheless, the municipality's success in instituting and maintaining the two UNICEF programs is an example of the important role a strong local government can play in providing high quality education programs to vulnerable populations.

Use of Multimedia – Rural School in the Municipality of El Peñol,
Photo credit: Simon Tafoya, WWS

In the city of Bello just outside of Medellín, the program has taken a different shape. The local urban municipality modified Return to Happiness into a program called QuidArte Para la Vida. The program focuses on using forms of art and performance as a means of psychosocial healing. These forms of partnerships with municipalities demonstrate the Agency's ability to collaborate with local governments by allowing flexibility in the implementation of its programs.

QuidArte—A Model of Successful Collaboration

QuidArte was started in 2002 by the Municipality of Bello, UNICEF and Comfenalco Antioquia (a Colombian NGO) as a means of promoting adolescent rights, peace and psychosocial healing through art and performance. The Secretariats of Education, Health and Family Welfare finance the program in collaboration with UNICEF. The different actors work together to provide a variety of artistic platforms including music, theater and painting. Both adults and adolescents in the community view the program as a successful way to build peace and an appreciation for life, as well as overcome the violent past the community had suffered.

Recently the QuidArte program was used as a platform through which the Municipality of Bello, with the support of UNICEF, elaborated extensive policies for adolescents and youth. Community input on the formulation of these policies was obtained through working groups, forums, thematic discussions and debates, and included widespread participation of youth. The central goal in the process of creating these policies was to educate youth of their rights to life, education, protection and participation. The resulting policies establish the framework that will guide public and private institutions in providing an integrated approach to youth development in Bello until 2014.

4.2.6 Coordination with UNHCR and Escuela Nueva Foundation

The Ministry of Education (MoE) has a strong yet separate link to UNICEF and each of its sister organizations. Likewise the MoE has a strong independent connection with the Escuela Nueva Foundation. These parallel lines of communication create an unnecessarily complex system of lobbying the government to utilize a specific method in providing education to displaced children. It is also apparent that turf in the field of education provision is an issue that may be keeping the organizations from communicating fully with each other across all programs. Each of the organizations has its "pet" program, which creates an unnecessary competition that need not exist in an environment that would benefit from increased cooperation.

This is not to suggest that these organizations do not work together at some level. Escuela Nueva and UNICEF have previously looked at the similarities between Escuela Nueva and Escuela Amiga (Child Friendly Schools) and began to outline possibilities of integration.[95] The primary difference between these two organizations in serving the internally displaced is that Escuela Nueva has a strong program with a particular weakness in integrating psychosocial aspects into Learning Circles. Contrastingly, UNICEF's programs have a stronger focus on integrating the psychosocial aspects in educating the displaced and could benefit from the cognitive strength found in the Escuela Nueva model. Nevertheless, the organizations have relatively weak linkages that inhibit the programs from building on one another.

Beyond the relationship between UNICEF and the Escuela Nueva Foundation, UNICEF at the country level appears to have limited channels of information sharing with UNHCR, the agency mandated to work with IDPs. UNHCR has its own channel of communication with the MoE and seeks to offer its own competing pedagogical model as a policy option for providing education to this vulnerable population. UNICEF and UNHCR must reinforce their common goal of serving vulnerable populations in areas with high concentrations of IDPs. Similarly, UN agencies could benefit by better defining their roles and creating an interagency appeal or a similar alternative to address the growing needs of displaced populations.

Colombia

5. Lessons Learned and Suggestions Going Forward

5.1 Coordinating Efforts and Information Sharing

Through field interviews with UNHCR and UNICEF staff, it was clear that their education responses lack effective coordination. Each agency has separate relations and parallel communication links with the Ministry of Education. It was also clear that there was little or no information sharing among the different actors providing models of interventions for children affected by conflict. In order to build strategic clarity and coherence between the different actors, UNICEF might consider the following suggestions:

- *Forging a unified voice among UN agencies.* A unified voice among principal UN agencies working in education in emergencies would reinforce their ability to more effectively influence government policy initiatives that have so far been stymied by competing messages to the Ministry of Education. A unified voice would also aid in providing joint support for policy that consists of strong replicable programs with an integrated approach to providing quality education to Colombian children affected by conflict.

- *Improving information sharing and cooperation among UN agencies.* A unified effort can also help each agency develop a coordinated effort based on each other's comparative advantage. Given that UNHCR is the mandated organization to work with IDPs and UNICEF possesses the expertise in providing education to vulnerable groups, their cooperation and ability to build on each other's strengths and learn from each other's challenges could be greatly beneficial in targeting vulnerable children. In specifying these roles, accountability for progress and results in provision of education programs for vulnerable groups could be clearly delineated among the agencies.

- *Improving information sharing and collaboration with other actors.* UNICEF and Escuela Nueva would benefit mutually from a strengthened relationship in which they could share the strengths of their education programs for vulnerable children. For example, where appropriate, Learning Circles could be created in spaces where Child Friendly Schools operate in order to incorporate the accelerated learning and multi-grade approaches of the Learning Circles model. Similarly, Learning Circles would benefit from the systematic incorporation of the psychosocial support component of the Return to Happiness program.

5.2 Preserving Institutional Memory and Sharing Better Practices

Colombia's progress in the area of education policy has been monumental, and the organizations and individuals that have labored to bring it to this point are to be commended. There is great potential for Colombia's experience and programs to serve as models for other regions with similar challenges, while recognizing the contextual differences among these areas. To that end we suggest:

- *Preserving Institutional memory.* The wealth of anecdotal information and data provided in field reports give great insight on the implementation of the programs in the field. Synthesizing this information into a general report could prove useful in maintaining valuable institutional memory that risks being lost in the transition of staff.

- *Making Colombia's good practices known internationally.* The Colombia experience of Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness has been a success in creating child-centered learning spaces and providing psychosocial support to children affected by conflict. However, the majority of the materials that document this success are in Spanish. We therefore suggest making the documents describing these models available in other languages, particularly English, so other countries facing similar experiences could learn from UNICEF's experience in Colombia.

5.3 Monitoring and Evaluation

The use of monitoring systems and regular impact evaluations that allow measuring the outcomes of a program intervention in isolation of other possible factors has become more commonplace among development agencies. UNICEF's programs for vulnerable children would benefit from using these instruments to assess the extent of their impact and improve the design of their program.

• *Using rigorous monitoring systems and regular impact evaluations to improve program design.* A comprehensive evaluation can help programs such as Child Friendly Schools and Return to Happiness assess their impact, adapt the program if needed, and determine whether resources are being spent efficiently. Although impact evaluations can be thought of as time consuming and costly, they can be achieved at a relatively low cost if regular monitoring mechanisms are put into place. This will in turn produce the necessary information needed to carry out the impact evaluations regularly.

5.4 Programmatic Considerations

In most areas the Escuelas Amigas and Return to Happiness operate in tandem; however, it often occurs that only pieces of either of the programs are implemented in practice. We thus suggest:

• *Formally integrating Escuelas Amigas and Return to Happiness into one cohesive program whenever possible.* When working with displaced children, Escuela Amigas and Return to Happiness would benefit from being formally unified to serve as a cohesive method to improve the school environment. Unifying the programs and identifying fundamental components that cannot be excluded would ensure greater quality in the provision of education for children affected by conflic

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LIBERIA

SOURCE: www.nimacliberia.org

The Context of Early Reconstruction

Between 1989 and 2003 Liberia was engaged in a civil war brought on by a complex set of social, political and economic factors involving domestic, regional and geo-political interests.[96] The war was characterized by various periods of widespread fighting between government and multiple rebel forces, interspersed with periods of low-intensity conflict and relative calm. Approximately 500,000 people were killed over the course of the war and nearly all of Liberia's 3.4 million people were displaced at some time during the fourteen year conflict.[97] Moreover, the combination of protracted hostilities and corrupt governance had devastating implications for the country's development in all sectors – a challenge that the government and the international community has only begun to manage in a cohesive manner since the Comprehensive Peace Agreement was signed in August of 2003.

In order to understand the context of early reconstruction in Liberia, however, it is important to consider not only the

impact of conflict, but also the historical legacy of state manipulation of resources that engendered a dynamic of dramatic inequality in which power was concentrated among an elite class principally located in the capital.[98] Thus, reconstruction has been obliged to consider how government can build capacity at all levels to ensure a greater degree of equity in the distribution of public services. This concern has led to a general consensus around the importance of progressive decentralization such that social services are more efficiently and effectively provided. However, according to UNDP's 2006 *Human Development Report*, "at present, the capacity of local government throughout Liberia is very weak – in line with the centralization of power that has characterized the history of the country and reinforced by the destruction of infrastructure during the years of war."[99]

This lack of institutional capacity, at both the central and local level, has hindered the implementation of a decentralized system.[100] Basic processes of policy development, planning and budgeting have operated in a relative vacuum, and communication within and between ministries has been undermined by the lack of resources and clear operating procedures. The Liberia Local Government Capacity Assessment found that "local governments can hardly perform 20 per cent of their expected roles and functions."[101] Furthermore, a 2005 European Commission (EC) report noted that although "it has been intended to devolve responsibility from some of the central ministries to the local authorities in the Counties...this devolution of authority and responsibility has not yet shown tangible results and remains questionable in terms of its impact."[102]

The deficit of institutional capacity is also linked to another key theme in early reconstruction – Liberia's financial dependence on the international community.[103] From UNDP figures, the country's economy currently operates at around one-third of its pre-war level with a GDP of less than 500 million USD, compared to over 1 billion USD in 1988.[104] Its external debt as a percentage of GDP was 567.89 as of 2005.[105] Moreover, Liberia has yet to develop a comprehensive Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), a requisite to access Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) debt relief. This situation has driven two significant trends in early reconstruction. First, the lack of structures to ensure fiscal accountability, systems to provide reliable budget projections and capacity to conduct regular monitoring and evaluation has hindered Liberia's ability to mobilize resources.[106] Donors have been reluctant to provide direct budgetary support to line ministries preferring instead to operate through international non-governmental organizations providing emergency programs.[107] UNICEF-Liberia's 2004 Annual Report noted the difficulties derived from "the deliberate policy of the main donors not to support the National Transitional Government of Liberia (NTGL) while there are such low levels of efficiency and accountability."[108] Second, attention has focused on strengthening transparency in the Ministry of Finance through the Government and Economic Management Assistance Program (GEMAP), a program developed by the NTGL, UN, World Bank, EC, USAID, Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), and other members of the international community as a "response to international concern at mismanagement of public finances in post-conflict Liberia and the threat it potentially represented to the implementation of the peace process underway since August 2003."[109]

The unstable security situation was also an influential factor defining the immediate post-conflict response from the international community. Portions of the country were not initially accessible and the long-term stability of the government was unclear. Furthermore, the complex character of "the all-inclusive transitional government" comprising "the previous three warring factions, eighteen political parties, civil society and county representatives, with government positions having been allocated on a proportional basis"[110] severely constrained the potential for long-term planning. Though the security and stability situation has improved since the successful elections of October 2005, the continued presence of around 15,000 international peacekeepers is indicative of Liberia's limited capacity to police its own territory.[111]

The devastation of infrastructure resulting from the war has been another fundamental constraint to the reconstruction effort. Roads and bridges are in immediate need of rehabilitation and many areas of the country are barely accessible, especially during the rainy season from May to October. In 2006, UNDP estimated that "major bridges and nearly 800 kilometers of primary road network [still] require immediate rehabilitation."[112] This situation implies not only difficulties in distributing key inputs such as materials and salaries for basic social services, but also that the cost of doing so is inevitably magnified.[113] Furthermore, the disparity in access to different areas of the country means that interventions must be particularly wary of exacerbating regional inequities.[114] This then highlights the emphasis on, and importance of the process of decentralization in the context of reconstruction in Liberia.

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Finally, the reconstruction effort is taking place in a context of extraordinary poverty indicative of the need for a holistic approach to basic social services. A 2006 CFSNS, spearheaded by WFP, focusing on rural and semi-rural communities found that "the majority of communities have neither a functioning school nor a basic health facility within their boundaries" and that "68 percent of households have no access to improved water sources and 76 percent have no access to sanitary facilities".[115] Moreover, only 9 percent of households were found to be food secure.[116] The war also had a dramatic impact on income-generating capacity such that "the proportion of people living on less than 1 USD per day had increased from 55.1 percent in 1997 to 76.2 percent in 2001."[117] As of 2006, the unemployment rate for the formal sector was estimated at 85 percent.[118]

The inauguration of President Ellen Sirleaf-Johnson in January of 2006 marked an important shift in the dynamics of reconstruction. In contrast to the initial response described above that focused on emergency programs operated by non-governmental agencies, the current period is defined by an overarching concern for the development of durable and systemic approaches in which government ownership and coordination is the primary focus.[119] To give one example from the health sector, 65 percent of health facilities are currently funded and managed by NGOs, 18 percent by private individuals or institutions and only 14 percent are run or funded by government.[120] Thus, greater government responsibility implies both a significant effort toward more comprehensive coordination, and also a shift in the kinds of interventions that are prioritized and how they are implemented.

2. Overview of the Education Sector

2.1 The Effect of War on the Student Population

The prolonged conflict has had clear impacts on the characteristics of the student population, which is fundamental to understanding the state of the education sector today. First, lack of access to schooling throughout the 14 years of war has resulted in a situation where "65 percent of boys and 62 percent of girls now over-aged for primary school grew up with no access to education."[121] As a result, Liberia is one of only a few countries with a large portion of the population under 20 years old[122] where the adult literacy rate, estimated at 37 percent, is actually higher than the child literacy rate.[123] Recent research found that of enrolled children, 50& of 6 – 10 year olds and 24 percent of 11 – 14 year olds are in kindergarten. Moreover, the median ages for kindergarten, primary and high school were 7, 14, and 22 years of age, respectively.[124] Thus, the war has created a situation where large numbers of over-age learners must be accommodated either within formal or non-formal education programs.

The exposure to violence is a second definitive characteristic of Liberia's children and youth. In a 2005 Save the Children UK (SC-UK) assessment of the situation, it was estimated that "one in every ten children was recruited into rebel fighting groups and many were left traumatized after witnessing rape, murder, separation and other atrocities."[125] In addition, a 1997 UNICEF-Liberia funded study found that 16 percent of Liberia's population is physically disabled, in terms of mobility."[126] Among girls, many were subject to "abduction by fighters during the war to be treated as sex slaves and often raped."[127] Moreover, the experience of war has had a profound impact on the attitudes and behavior of children. UNICEF reports note that "as a result of children's engagement with the fighting forces, new societal values emerged…harassing and killing elderly persons, or raping and looting, became more acceptable practices that led to the satisfaction of certain needs. Child soldiers came to be dreaded by communities due to their excessively aggressive behavior and disregard for community values and norms."[128] Thus, one fundamental challenge to Liberian education is the need to accommodate the diverse physical and emotional needs of children whose profile is that of victims of war.

> *"I was raped by rebels and was later rejected by my elder sister. When I was in Lofa, Kolahum District, the rebels entered our village at the hour of 1:00 A.M. on February 3, 2001. They raped me and I ran in the bush for three days without eating. Because of that, I planned to move from that village to the next village. My mother died when I ran in the bush because she was very old and had no one to cater to her. To conclude, war is very bad."* - Voices of the Liberian Girls, FAWE, 2004

2.2 Access to Education Before and After the War

The effects of war described above have figured prominently in the school enrollment rates over the last decade. Though data during periods of conflict is often unreliable, official statistics show a gradual increase in primary school enrollment in the pre-war period from 200,070 in 1980 to 337,330 in 1990. During the ensuing violence this number decreased to 289,883 in 1998, but quickly rose again during the relative calm to 507,192 in 1999. Due to the resurgent violence beginning in 2001 enrollment decreased significantly and schools were closed for six months in the first half of 2003. Since the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), progressive stability and resettlement has allowed for the improvement and gradual normalization of primary schooling. While the total current enrollment is not known, Figure I presents the results of the 2003/4 RALS conducted by UNICEF, which estimated a total of 787,671 primary school students. [129]

Figure I

School Enrollment by Gender for 2003/4			
Schools	Female	Male	TOTAL
Primary	374,566	413,105	787,671
Junior Secondary	57,987	69,085	127,072
Senior Secondary	19,687	26,684	46,371
Total	452,240	508,874	961,114

Source: MoE/UNICEF[130]

Though the unavailability of accurate population estimates and school enrolments make calculating rates of access difficult, recent estimates for enrolment among children of school-going age are around 50 percent.[131] Enrollment also differs significantly by region and to a lesser degree by gender as evidenced by Figures II and III. To that end, the recent Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS) found that of children ages 6 – 18, enrollment rates ranged from 40 percent in Grand Bassa to 81 percent in Grand Gedeh[132] and UNICEF-Liberia's 2005 annual report estimated that 53 percent of the total student population was male.[133] While these numbers should become more precise with the completion of the ongoing school census and forthcoming population census in 2008[134], it is clear that there are still large numbers of children with no access to schooling, implying a significant and continuing challenge for Liberia in the dimension of access.

Figures II and III

Figure II: School Enrolment by Age Group

Figure III: School Enrolment by County
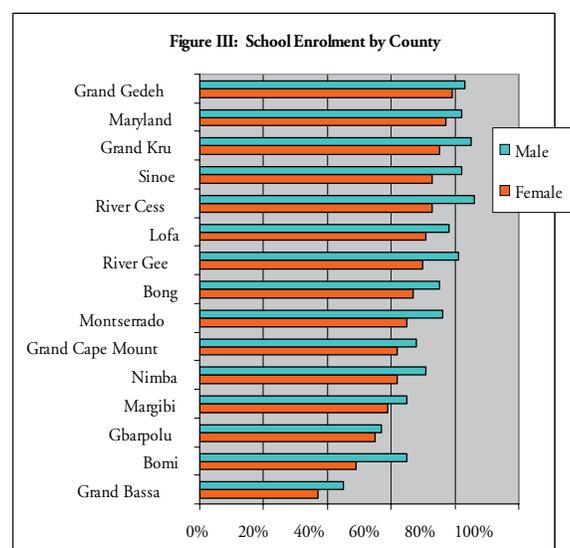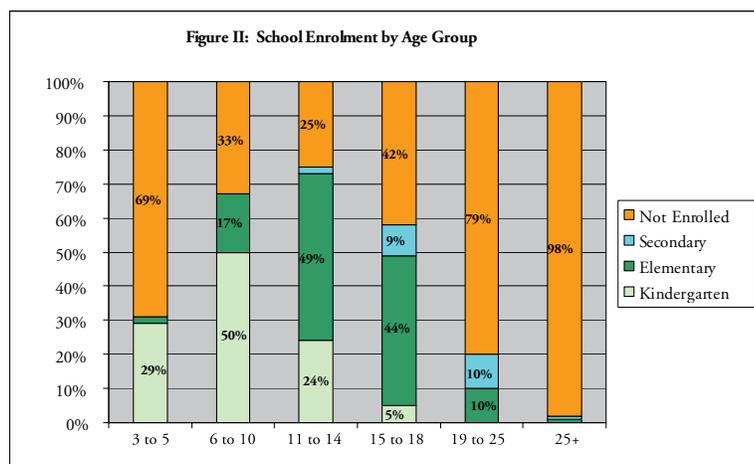
Source: CFSNS Final Report[135] (figures for children 6 – 18 years old)

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2.3 Common Obstacles to Access

During the war, conflict represented the fundamental barrier to educational access. Massive displacement combined with the destruction of infrastructure and prevalent insecurity engendered a situation in which the quantity and quality of school inputs were significantly diminished. "The large majority of schools with the exception of some faith-based schools underwent large scale looting—leaving just the physical school buildings."[136] Despite improvements in access, major barriers continue to exist. SC-UK reported that the lack of schools in high areas of return is projected to be a particularly important constraint[137] and the 2006 CFSNS found that 26 percent of non-enrolled children identified "lack of school in the community" as a main barrier.[138] School fees and other economic constraints were noted in interviews and document review as a central obstacle to enrollment, and were further identified in more than 1/3 of cases in the CFSNS.[139] To that end, SC-UK concluded that "children and young people are providing the majority of resources for their own education, largely generated through small/petty trade."[140]

For girls, the barriers to access are even greater and the disparity seems to increase with age, as economic considerations and teen pregnancy become more determinant factors in school participation.[141] According to the CFSNS, enrolment rates for boys and girls remain similar until age 14 when girls' enrollment rates drop off as shown in Figure IV below.[142] The fact that only 35 percent of boys and 27 percent of girls reach fifth grade[143] is also indicative of this trend, as well as problems in retention. In terms of barriers specific to girls, a recent UNICEF-Liberia report identified poverty, the need for girls' labor at home, fear of girls engaging in sexual activities, and socio-cultural beliefs that place little value on girls' education as significant factors.[144] SC-UK identified transactional sex as a common practice among girls in order to pay school fees.[145]

Figure IV
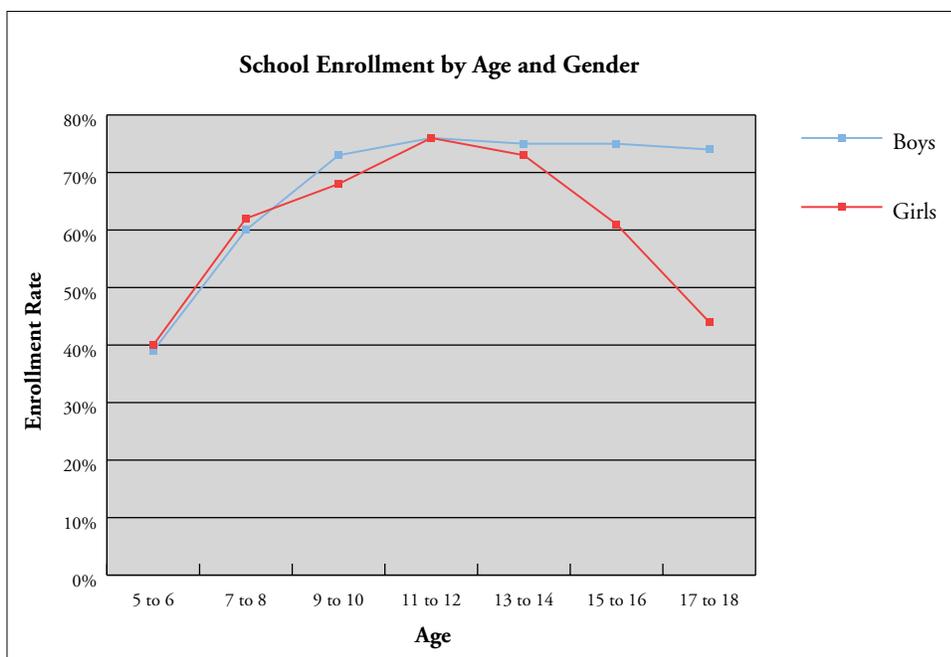
Source: CFSNS Final Report[146] (figures for children 6 – 18 years old)

2.4 The Quality of Education

Very little quantitative evidence with respect to the quality of education (in terms of cognitive outputs) exists since "the [West African Examinations Council] WAEC is only taken by a small percentage of students and there is no other

functioning system to measure learning achievement."[147] However, what does exist indicates that quality is extremely low and has declined as a consequence of the conflict's impact on school inputs. A 2001 MoE/UNICEF Monitoring Learning Achievement Program (MALP) pilot report stated that only 42 percent of children completing primary school had obtained minimal levels of learning achievement.[148] The same report concluded that girls' performance was nearly equivalent to boys and that girls scored considerably better on the life-skills components of the exams. While these results may have been biased since the testing was only conducted in Montserrado (where girls typically have better access to schooling relative to other regions), it indicates that the issue of gender inequity in terms of education quality is unclear.[149] The overall quality of the education system, however, appears quite low as indicated by "the results of the 1998-1999 West African Education Council [which] show that that over 75 percent of all candidates from secondary schools in Liberia failed."[150]

The anecdotal evidence regarding the quality of education tells a similar story in terms of low levels of child-centered teaching methods and protective environments within schools. SC-UK reports indicate generally "limited opportunities for participatory processes, leading to increased self esteem, confidence and ability to apply knowledge and skills in diverse circumstances."[151] The 2001 MALP identified "pupils' frank confession that very few of them do enjoy learning in school."[152] Only 4.5 percent of pupils expressed that they enjoyed learning at school and 10.7 percent reported that they liked their teacher.[153] Both parents and teachers have expressed the importance of improving "content and methods to help foster good relationships and emotional recovery from trauma."[154]

2.5 Determinants of Education Quality

The lack of qualified teachers is a significant obstacle to the quality of education, as is the general dearth of other school inputs. The EFA Action Plan estimated that "as many as 65.2 percent of the children in primary and secondary schools in Liberia are taught by unqualified teachers. The sector is left with an insignificant 6.5 percent who have college or better education. Another 28 percent are certified by the Ministry of Education to teach and a huge 65 percent have attained no more that secondary education."[155] For girls, the dearth of female teachers and administrators may be an additional determinant of school quality. This is, in part, a reflection of the historical gender disparities in access to education which has inevitably limited the quantity of females with sufficient qualifications to teach. To that end, recent countrywide research found that 31 percent of men compared to 62 percent of women report never having attended school.[156]

The fiscal constraints on schools are also a major problem as lack of personal financial security hampers "teachers' efforts to implement quality teaching methods and to produce free quality learning resources."[157] Interviews with UNICEF-Liberia staff and teachers clearly identified problems with salary payments.[158] Recent research conducted by the IRC noted that the need for teachers to engage in multiple income-generating activities leaves little time for lesson planning and the lack of training opportunities "forces reliance on 'outdated' teaching methods."[159] Financial concerns were also reported to be detrimental to pupil motivation for learning.[160] In terms of school facilities, an estimated 75 percent of schools were destroyed or damaged during the war.[161] Though this situation has improved, it still represents a barrier to pupils' learning. The UNICEF-Liberia 2004 Annual Report affirmed the importance of all of these factors, also highlighting "little or no supervision or quality control…lack of teaching and learning materials [and] over-crowded classes".[162]

2.6 Shifting Towards a System for Education

All of the issues described above must now be managed by a MoE whose capacity to provide public education was almost entirely destroyed by the conflict. Even as of the end of 2005, UNICEF-Liberia reports noted that, "the MoE has barely functioned, and virtually all of the necessary components associated with a government's administration of a school system are simply not in place."[163] Monitoring and evaluation came to a complete standstill during the war[164], records were destroyed and the procurement and distribution of school supplies was done almost entirely by international agencies.[165] Though private schooling was significant even before the war, the reduced presence of the MoE during the conflict gave way to an additional rise in the private provision of schooling. A UNICEF-Liberia commissioned situational analysis of girls' education found that "[prior] to the war, the government managed 66 percent of primary schools, 58 percent of

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lower secondary schools and 51 percent of upper secondary schools."[166] As of early 2005, however, "53.7 percent of all schools [were] privately owned."[167] This situation raises serious concerns about socio-economic equity in education.

The overarching post-war challenge facing the MoE has been the development of an inclusive, comprehensive, systemic approach to education amidst low government capacity and in a context where many schools have had little formal or informal connection to the central MoE. The 2006 CAP Mid-Year Review noted that the "most urgent priority in the [education] sector is for active and strategic involvement of the Ministry of Education. Leadership by the MoE is required in this sector particularly with respect to the establishment of an official sector coordination mechanism."[168] The shift toward MoE leadership and ownership, however, has been hindered by high dependence on donor financing, weak data management systems (though they are being developed), limited management and human resource capacity and unclear institutional arrangements for policy development and implementation.

3. Policy And Planning In The Education Sector

Education in Liberia is guided by the Education Law 2002, which is personified in the Liberia Education Sector Master Plan 2000 – 2010, the EFA National Action Plan 2004 – 2015 and the Girls Education Policy (2006). While the documents differ in some respects, they establish a fairly coherent policy framework under which the education system is intended to operate. However, these policies have not been effectively implemented on the ground, largely due to financial and capacity constraints, and a lack of sufficient infrastructure that allow for the adequate delivery of educational services and material. While the policy-practice gap is to be expected given the current transitional period, this section provides an overview of the major policy guidelines and a brief analysis of some of the main factors hindering the processes of policy development and planning, focusing on the lack of relevant data as one of the central constraints. Furthermore, it highlights the relative absence of policies in the primary education sub sector designed to address psychosocial trauma.

3.1 Basic Education as a Human Right

The Education Law establishes six categories of schools for universal education within the Liberian system: Early Childhood Education, Primary Education, Junior Secondary School, Senior Secondary School, Junior College and other post-secondary educational institutions, and Colleges and Universities. Basic education is identified "as a human right" guaranteed for all Liberians and consists of "all education up to the 9th grade" or through Junior Secondary School.[169] Primary education, where this analysis is predominantly focused, consists of 6 years for which the ages of school entrance and completion are 6 and 11 years old respectively.[170] The Education Law identifies three principal educational achievements that learners should possess upon the completion of this phase of basic education – academic competency, survival empowerment and the possession of marketable skills and computer literacy.[171]

3.2 Policy Provisions Concerning Private Institutions

Since private schools constitute a large percentage of learning institutions, it is significant that the law clearly establishes that "all institutions set up for the purposes of primary education, whether public or private, shall comply with the education law, the policies and regulations of the MoE."[172] In particular, the legislation highlights that both private and public schools must receive official accreditation from the MoE in order to operate and all teachers must be licensed by the government.[173] Moreover, the classification of schools, regulations and the supervision of national policies and programs within both private and public institutions fall within the purview of the MoE. However, the Master and EFA plans neglect to address the "consequences of non-public schools for the poorer groups in society in terms of equitable access and quality of education."[174] In addition, the strength of MoE authority is still questionable given its limited historical presence in private schools. As an indication of this, a number of private schools refused to participate in financial reporting component of the ongoing school census.[175]

3.3 Free and Compulsory Primary Education

Primary education is mandated to be free and compulsory such that parents and guardians that impede children's access to school and public schools that charge fees can be fined by law.[176] However, it is generally agreed that the implementation of this policy is very weak. SC-UK identified school fees as one of the major obstacles to educational access[177], particularly for girls, as did the more recent CFSNS analysis. In interviews with UNICEF-Liberia staff, this perspective was also expressed insofar as the government had yet to provide conditions propitious to the implementation of Free and Compulsory Education (FACPEL).[178] A 2006 UNICEF-Liberia reports adds, "Students are expected to pay various forms of levies and provide stationary for the functioning of the schools."[179] The MoE Annual Report for 2004 acknowledges this situation and comments that "the sustainability of Back to School (BTS)/FACPEL programs and the rehabilitation of the educational sector widely depend on the total involvement of PTAs and the communities, taking responsibility for their children as well as seeking outside assistance to address the needs of schools."[180]

3.4 Language of Instruction

The only official language of Liberia is English, despite the presence of 20 indigenous languages and 16 ethnic groups for whom English is often not a mother tongue.[181] Though English is the official language of instruction, the Education Law adds, "the effective teaching of French shall be required for all public and private schools throughout the Senior School Level. In addition, at least one written local language shall be taught."[182] In interviews with MoE staff the "institutionalization of French" was identified as significant consideration for the ongoing process of curriculum review[183], but no attention to the issue of local languages was demonstrated. Moreover, the 2004 MoE Annual Report provided conflicting views regarding the use of local languages in schools.[184]

3.5 Policies for Girls' Education

Gender equality is a clear consideration in all policy documents beginning with the Education Law, which states that the MoE will "design special programs and policies to ensure gender equity at all levels of school that will bring both sexes on parity, and in harmony."[185] This is further reflected in the Master and EFA plans and most recently elaborated in the 2006 Girls' Education Policy. This document outlines policy guidelines designed to increase access and retention for girls including provisions in the following key areas: sexual abuse and harassment, roles and responsibilities of school teachers and administrators, the provision of scholarships and grants, gender-sensitive school environments, the recruitment and training of female teachers and administrators, the provision of free textbooks and learning materials, guidance and counseling services, and the strengthening of girls' clubs, PTAs and regulatory bodies, among others. In addition, this policy document is the first to introduce "making the educational process child-centered"[186] as one of the cardinal principles of Liberian Education. However, according to interviews with UNICEF-Liberia staff little progress has been made in determining a practical definition of this concept.[187]

3.6 Analysis of Policy and Planning Processes in the Current Period

While Liberia has integrated many of the international trends in education policy by embracing the EFA framework and is clearly in a period of transition where policy implementation is weak, some basic problems are evident in the policy and planning process. The field research and document review identified two principal problem areas– the impact of unreliable planning data and the lack of planning capacity derived from low levels of human resources and unclear institutional arrangements. With respect to the analysis of the content of policy documents, the research is limited in scope, though one area that appears considerably underdeveloped is of policy within the primary education sub-sector that addresses psychosocial trauma across all learner groups.

The lack of available education data has undermined the MoE's ability to develop policies and plans that accurately reflect the reality on the ground. During UNICEF-Liberia's 2005 Annual Education Review, stakeholders cited the "lack of current, reliable and culturally relevant data in areas of Net Enrollment Rate (NER), Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) and internal efficiency"[188] as a major constraint to planning. The EC assessment reiterated that the "root cause of the

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problems is the lack of reliable information on the situation in education in terms of access and quality."[189] Though the UNICEF/MoE RALS provided an interim foundation for planning, large population movements, limited disaggregation of data and unreliable population estimates have proved important obstacles.[190] The ongoing school census should improve this situation, though the lack of population and longitudinal data still inhibits the calculation of basic education statistics fundamental to planning.

Capacity, both in terms of human resources and institutional arrangements, has been a critical area in understanding the policy development and planning processes. The EC assessment noted, "a problem analysis done with key staff of the Ministry also indicates poor policy-making and planning capacity of the MoE. Staff seemed to be unclear about their function and tasks i.e., expected (tangible) contributions to policy/decision-making and planning."[191] Interviews with MoE staff also identified the lack of effective communication between the planning unit and the rest of the MoE as problematic.[192] A FAWE representative confirmed that the issue of policy dissemination is of high priority for the implementation of National Girls' Education Policy.[193] Finally, the EC report noted that "there is little or no relation between the human capacity available and the human capacity required for implementing the programmes proposed."[194]

In terms of psychosocial support for learners, the EFA Action Plan states that "programmes aimed at reconciliation, trauma healing, and other psycho-social rehabilitation will continue to feature prominently in current and future national reconstruction and development plans for some years"[195] and that education should "deliver skills which equip human beings to be able to take into consideration a culture of peace, democracy and humans rights education."[196] While the content aspects of human rights and civic education are being addressed through the process of curriculum review,[197] interviews with UNICEF staff indicated that efforts to integrate pedagogical processes for psychosocial development into national policy for the formal primary education sub-sector were given limited attention. This was attributed (in part) to the difficulties merging these issues as line ministries have become increasingly separate in their policy development and program implementation processes.[198]

4. Administration and Finance

In interviews with senior MoE staff, the issues of education administration and financing came to the forefront as two of the principal challenges in the education sector. On the side of administration, the Education Law dictates a "high degree of decentralization by the delegation of a wider scope of authority and responsibilities to the 'grassroot' (i.e. counties and districts),"[199] which is further reflected in the Master and EFA plans.[200] This section outlines the structure of the MoE focusing on the mechanisms of decentralization and the obstacles to effective administration. In particular, emphasis is placed on limited capacity and resources at the central and local levels and a lack of effective communication. In the area of financing, the MoE's limited ability to mobilize, coordinate and disburse resources has been a fundamental obstacle to improving educational access and quality.

4.1 Administrative Organization of the MoE

The MoE is headed by a Minister followed by three Deputy Ministers that oversee the Departments of Administration, Instruction, and Planning, Research & Evaluation. Each Department is further divided into Bureaus headed by Assistant Ministers. These bureaus include Planning and Management, Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Education, Vocational and Technical Education, Curriculum Development and Textbook Research and Administration. Bureaus are then further disaggregated into units defined by sub-sector or functional specialty.[201] County Education Officers (CEOs) and District Education Officers (DEOs) are the MoE representatives at the county and district levels respectively. They are responsible not only for the supervision and implementation of national education programs, but are also intended to play a key role in the development of locally adapted complementary curricula and the negotiation and payment of teacher salaries.[202] Legislation also establishes advisory and regulatory bodies at the national (NETC), county (CETCs) and district levels (LSMCs) that enjoy autonomy from the MoE and are designed to promote active participation from the public and private sectors in all matters relating to the education sector. Finally, the law mandates that all schools maintain a PTA or equivalent governing body in which parents and community leaders are involved.[203]

Basic MoE Structure

Minister of Education

Deputy Minister for Planning

Deputy Minister for Instruction

Deputy Minister for Administration

Assistant Minister for Planning and Management

Assistant Ministers for Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Education, Vocational and Technical Education, Curriculum Development and Textbooks

Assistant Minister for Administration

Instructional Supervisor

County Education

District Education

Source: MoE. See appendix for more detailed organigram

4.2 Procurement and Distribution

The central MoE has only recently (re)assumed the primary responsibility for the procurement and distribution of materials for schools. Prior to the war the MoE procured supplies, which were "mainly for teachers and not students"[204] and delivered them to each county headquarters. Some materials were also provided through international aid agencies. However, during the war, the MoE ceased to perform these functions and the procurement and distribution of educational materials was exclusively provided by UNICEF and other humanitarian relief groups. In July of this year, UNICEF procured and delivered a large consignment of educational supplies to the MoE for distribution to all public and community schools in the country, and is providing logistics in the form of vehicle rental and allowances for MoE personnel for the distribution of these materials.[205] This process is particularly difficult and expensive for three primary reasons: First, the weak road network means that more expensive vehicles carrying fewer supplies are required for distribution.[206] Second, the lack of accurate data makes planning for distribution an imprecise exercise. Third, the limited functionality of county offices is an obstacle to efficient distribution.

4.3 Challenges to the Process of Decentralization

The EFA Action Plan acknowledges resource allocation as one obstacle to the process of decentralization. It states that "in principle, the administration and management of education is decentralized…Yet, while responsibilities have been decentralized downwards, commensurate powers and authority have not been devolved, and the policy is not backed

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up by matching grants for the counties and the district to carry out their statutory education functions at the sub-national levels."[207] This situation was evident in the interviews and observation in field visits to Bomi County. Lack of financial resources for transportation and the implementation of programs had severely undermined the CEO's ability to conduct his duties, leaving schools with very limited guidance and supervision.[208] UNICEF's 2005 Annual Report stated, "Virtually no real monitoring or supervision occurs in the schools, as a result of little or no support at the central level for even basic operational supplies such as gas for motorcycles."[209] SC-UK indicated that this situation was improving as "the capacity of the Education Officers to be able to offer quality support to teachers is gradually increasing," but identified similar resource constraints in their consultations with DEOs and CEOs.[210]

County Education Office, Bomi County

Working with no resources: The Bomi CEO led us through the building that used to house the County Education Office. This building was destroyed during the conflict, leaving it without walls or a roof. Currently, he uses a room at a nearby secondary school where, due to teacher shortages, he also teaches several classes. He noted that he has no transport, nor guidelines for monitoring and reporting on the 55 schools under his supervision. UNICEF-Liberia is currently planning to rehabilitate this building as part of their work in supporting the capacity development of CEOs.
Photo credit: Michael J. Feigelson, WWS

A lack of communication with the central ministry and limited technical capacity at the county, district and school levels were identified as other significant obstacles to decentralization. The Bomi CEO commented that he had no formal guidelines to orient his supervisory and reporting functions nor were these guidelines available to DEOs under his supervision or school principals. The EC report stated, "there is no educational and financial planning capacity at school, district or county level. Schools do not plan and cost school improvement."[211] This situation has begun to improve as partners, including UNICEF, have begun to provide additional training opportunities to local representatives of the MoE.[212] PTAs similarly suffer from limited capacity, especially in the context of extreme poverty. SC-UK commented that "most places said the PTA does not function or it hadn't for years. Most rural schools said the parents would support the school, but they are spending all their time on the farms to make a basic living."[213] Obstacles to the effective involvement of women in decentralized structures were also identified as a product of traditional patriarchical administrative cultures led by chiefs.[214]

4.4 Policy Provisions For Education Financing

The Education Law establishes domestic financing mechanisms for the education system among which the allocation of 25 percent of annual government revenue for education financing figure most prominently.[215] Significant portions of taxes on major sources of revenue including forestry and natural resources, luxury goods, national lotteries and gasoline are also earmarked for education financing. However, in practice the actual percentage of government revenue provided to the MoE is significantly less. Though we were unable to see the current MoE budget, senior MoE staff estimated that is was currently closer to 7.9 percent.[216] MoE staff also identified inefficiencies in tax collection as a principal concern in terms of ensuring sufficient domestic financing for the education system[217] which creates a situation where the MoE continues to depend on international financial support. SC-UK emphasized this point, commenting that "as a result of serious financial constraints, part of which are a result of fears of corruption, [the MoE] is presently unable to implement programmes and projects autonomously; its vibrancy is therefore currently reliant on international inputs from UN agencies and NGOs".[218] UNICEF's 2005 Annual Education Review identified lack of resources provided by the Government of Liberia (GOL) and "over reliance on donor funding and UNICEF" as a key constraint.[219]

4.5 The Burden Of Recurrent Expenditures

Though no precise figure was obtained regarding the percentage of the education budget allocated to recurrent expenditures, paying salaries was commonly acknowledged as the central problem for educational financing. The EC and SC-UK reports identify the problem of ghost teachers as a major constraint to ensuring teacher salaries are funded. The latter comments, "one of the most draining financial issues is that of the salary-bill. Excessive numbers of 'ghost names' remain on the government payroll—names of individuals who have left the profession, who have either been killed in conflict, left the country or remain displaced and not working."[220] UNICEF also notes that "the non-payment of salaries to teachers and health workers is the single-most constraint to successful and efficient programme implementation."[221] Interviews with UNICEF staff,[222] as well as the Master Plan,[223] cite the need for verification of the teacher payroll as a key priority for the MoE.

4.6 Limited Budgeting Capacity And Lack Of Data

Another significant constraint to securing international funding is the limited capacity for budgeting and financial planning at the central level and its impact on the relationships with both donors and the Ministry of Finance (MoF). The EC assessment notes "the desired goal for both EC and possibly other development partners is to move towards Sector Budget Support (SBS). Therefore, there is a need to develop a framework of minimum school quality indicators, linked to sustainable unit costs and for use at district, county and national levels."[224] However, the EC assessment comments that limited costing rationale in funding proposals and the lack of relevant data to support financial plans "weakens the negotiation process with the MoF and with Ministries and other institutions which are legally compelled to contribute to education."[225] The 2004 MoE Annual Report expressed related problems with the MoF on various occasions.[226] Interviews with USAID-funded consultants based at the MoE explained that one of their key objectives was to help identify clear financing priorities and develop budgeting capacity with a focus on clear costing rationale so that interactions with donor agencies would be more effective.[227] Thus, there seems to be a general consensus around the importance of financial planning capacity in the MoE and efforts to address this situation by the international community and the government.

4.7 Analysis Of Administration And Finance In The Current Period

Inefficiencies in the processes of administration and finance are key to understanding the lack of effective policy implementation described in the previous section. However, the main stakeholders have identified deficits in institutional capacity as an important obstacle to securing international financial support and effectively administering educational resources. To that end, efforts are underway in the areas of capacity development and the procurement of baseline data necessary to resolve these constraints over the long-term. In terms of mechanisms of coordination, an education sector meeting chaired by the MoE has been established with the support of UNICEF as the lead agency in the sector as have independent donor coordination meetings to intend to ease the harmonization of donor interventions.

One area that did not emerge consistently in interviews with stakeholders, however, is the potentially troubling impact of decentralization as a mechanism to manage the limited financial capacity. The EFA Plan comments that "strategies are adopted to align the costs with feasible expectations from the Government, the public, the private organizations and partners."[228] Expectations of local community financial contributions to educational development remained unclear from the field research and document review. Given the context of extreme poverty and its effects on community participation, the degree to which decentralization can reasonably allay the MoE financial burden is unclear. This is a particularly important topic for future analysis given the establishment of Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Liberia (FACPEL) as a national policy.

5. Service Delivery In The Education Sector

During the war and through the end of 2005, international agencies were responsible for the vast majority of education provision. Since the inauguration of the new President, however, this responsibility is gradually being transferred to the MoE which has advocated for progressive decentralization as outlined above. However, the weak local capacity has meant

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that in practice, the central MoE (with the support of international agencies) still maintains a strong role in multiple aspects of service delivery. Though progress has been made since the end of the war, the basic inputs to the education system still remain scarce throughout the country. This section provides an overview of the state of service delivery in the education sector today focusing on key inputs such as school facilities, teachers, learning materials, school feeding and other related services and the corresponding implications for access and quality of education.

5.1 Conditions Of School Facilities

The condition of school facilities is one of the areas where the education system was most visibly affected by the 14-year conflict. In 1980, there were 1,830 schools in the country. By 1999, that number had fallen to 1,765, and half of all classrooms were rendered non-functional due to looting that destroyed the basic structures of the school including the walls and roofs, as well as damaging the furniture, general school supplies, and textbooks.[229] Estimates suggest that as much as 75 percent of existing schools had been destroyed.[230] In 2006, this situation remains a major concern. Recent research found that 1,150 educational institutions needed "important repairs, including water and sanitation facilities."[231] A coordinated response chaired by the MoE which holds review meetings for the 22 partners that are working to rehabilitate public, community, faith and private schools[232] have made significant progress in this area. Preliminary results from the ongoing school census indicated that approximately 58 percent of primary schools were intact, repaired or had only minor damage.[233]

The still limited availability of school facilities has had important consequences for access and quality in various dimensions, among them the overcrowding of schools. While the MoE "recommends" that classrooms be at least 24 square feet in size and have no more than 45 students per classroom[234], many classes are larger. 58.8 percent of schools visited by WFP were identified as overcrowded with an average observed pupil-teacher ratio of 72 to1.[235] The excess number of desks in classrooms (which is still less than the number of pupils) impedes movement prohibiting effective opportunities for collaborative learning. In addition, overcrowding means most schools struggle to maintain an adequate ratio of pupils to sanitary facilities. For example, in two schools that were visited during the field research, the ratio of pupils to latrines was roughly 60 to 1 for boys and 70 to 1 for girls.[236] Compounding this issue is limited access to water. WFP research estimated that only 54.9 percent of schools have access to safe drinking water within their school facilities. [237]

Children without teachers and books: Though the school was in good physical condition, the principal at Gule Town Primary in Bomi County explained that aside from himself, none of the teachers working in the school were trained and that school had no copies of the curriculum or textbooks since they had been destroyed in the war. All of the teachers were male.
Photo credit: Michael J. Feigelson, WWS

5.2 Teachers And Training

Perhaps the most significant deficit of the educational system is the lack of trained teachers. During the war, many teachers were killed or fled the country leaving most children to be taught by volunteer educators, who often had no formal training. In addition, the lack of competitive salaries has created an environment in which teachers have incentives to pursue other occupations.[238] Though exact figures are not available, all estimates agree that the majority of teachers working in Liberian schools still do not have adequate training. As of mid-2005, the MoE indicated that approximately

60 percent of primary and secondary school children were taught by teachers with insufficient qualifications.[239] The 2006 CAP estimated that only 20 percent of teacher in public primary schools were qualified to teach.[240] However, as a result of emergency in-service teacher trainings by UNICEF and other NGOs in collaboration with the MoE, this situation has also improved since the end of the war.

The gender imbalance in education personnel is also a constraint on the ability of the MoE to provide quality education. Though precise figures were still unavailable, UNICEF estimated that females represent about 20 percent of all teachers.[241] This contributes to a school environment which is less conducive to learning amongst girl pupils as they may be less comfortable and more prone to exploitation by males. This issue is proactively being addressed by the MoE and UNICEF. Recent teacher trainings have targeted female teachers and the Girls' Education Policy includes provisions geared toward increasing the quantity of qualified women in classrooms, as well as positions of education management.[242] The generally low literacy rates for women, however, represent a structural constraint to the potential magnitude of a supply-side intervention in this area.

5.3 Curriculum, Learning Materials And Textbooks

Access to educational materials has also been scant since the end of the war leaving pupils in the hands of untrained teachers who employ a "chalk and talk" instruction style. One school in Bomi visited during the research had no copies of the curriculum, nor any textbooks or learning materials (or trained teachers other than the principal). The Bomi CEO explained that similar situations existed in many of the 55 schools under his supervision as schools had been looted during the resurgent conflict in 2003.[243] Recent WFP research concluded that the distribution of educational materials throughout the country was weak.[244] Preliminary figures from the school census tentatively confirm this trend, reporting an average pupil-to-textbook ratio of 3 to 1 with respect to the four core curricular subjects.[245]

This issue has an important impact on both education quality and access. A USAID report commented that "the lack of finances also creates a lack of school supplies, texts, furniture, or good infrastructure, and their absences or poor conditions or few numbers are depressing to all involved and a disincentive to go to school."[246] SC-UK's 2005 sector assessment also noted the negative impact on students' motivation for learning.[274] Moreover, for the most poor, the absence of educational materials represents a barrier to school participation. Many schools that have no supplies require students' to provide paper in order to participate in tests. For children who cannot afford to purchase paper, this can be an obstacle to accessing education.[248] Further complicating matters is the fact that there is limited local capacity to print textbooks such that they must be imported from outside of the country at a much greater cost. However, senior MoE staff suggested that printing textbooks locally might be a feasible option in the future, especially if they were to be produced in a more economical format than what has been done historically.[249]

5.4 The Accelerated Learning Program

ALP was developed in order to address the needs of over-age learners that had missed out on the opportunity to access primary education during the period of conflict. ALP condenses the standard six years of primary education into three levels. Under the auspices of the MoE, UNICEF has operated as the lead agency for the program while other agencies, notably Creative Associates, have also played a significant role in implementation. Though strong donor support has provided consistent resources to ALP, in 2005 SC-UK commented that "[while] the programme will faciliate access and increase literacy for up to 60,000 children and young people, there is likely to be a significant shortfall with large numbers".[250]

Despite its success, ALP may potentially have some unintended consequences with respect to the delivery of regular primary education. The program enjoys comparatively better funding relative to the primary education sector as a whole and continues to be implemented primarily by international agencies. As a result, ALP schools are better endowed when compared to regular primary schools, which depend more heavily on the MoE for direct distribution.[251] Preliminary statistics from the school census indicate that approximately 25 percent of schools operating ALP were classified as

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having facilities "destroyed" or "with major damage" compared to 43 percent of non-ALP schools.[252] This imbalance may create a disincentive for regular primary education insofar as school administrators may be inclined to lobby for ALP and integrate younger children into these classes in order to improve their resource-poor environment.[253] The failure to ensure appropriate targeting in the ALP program exacerbates this situation.[254] Amidst extreme poverty, regular school-age children may also prefer ALP to complete primary education more quickly.

5.5 School Feeding Programs And Take-Home Rations For Girls

The MoE, primarily though WFP, is actively providing School Feeding Programs (SFP) throughout the country. As part of the transition, the MoE is currently overseeing the transformation of their SFP from an emergency program into normal school activities serving as the principal enforcer of rules and regulations and, along with WFP, overseeing monitoring and coordination of school feeding programs. WFP provides food and funds in order to run the logistics and management of school feeding. At the school-level, principals in coordination with PTAs are responsible for delivering food to the appropriate people.[255] WFP also provides take-home rations targeting girls in grades 5 and 6, though schools often provide these rations to girls in other grades as well.[256]

The SFP has established broad coverage and is currently reaching 2,078 schools in 14 of the 15 Liberian counties and providing meals for 607,408 beneficiaries of whom 26,912 are school staff.[257] Take-home rations for girls, initiated in 2005, are currently provided to 13,773 girls in 9 counties.[258] This is significant given that recent research on food security estimated that stunting, an indicator of chronic malnutrition, was around 39 percent among children under five and WHO reported that "chronic malnutrition rates are 'critical'—over 40 percent—in nine of the fifteen counties."[259] A self-evaluation conducted by WFP has concluded that the SFP has had a significant and positive impact in the education sector as have the take-home rations for girls. In households benefiting from SFP, enrollment rates for children (6-18 years old) were 85 percent for boys and 81 percent girls compared to 62 percent and 53 percent in non-beneficiary households.[260] No data was available regarding the relationship between the SFP and learning achievement.

5.6 Equity Issues In Service Delivery

Preliminary data from the school census suggests that there are large variations in the distribution of school inputs (and associated educational outputs) across different counties in Liberia. For example, while only 8.7 percent of primary school facilities in Montserrado were registered as "destroyed", the comparable figures for River Cess, Grand Gedeh, and Lofa were 59.26 percent, 52.94 percent and 48.97 percent respectively as highlighted by Figure V. In terms of textbook-to-pupil ratios, Maryland and Gbapola County had the highest averages of 2.5 and 2.1 to 1 respectively compared to Nimba and Grand Gedeh which each averaged less than 1 textbook for every ten pupils.[261] While this research was not of sufficient scope to explain these disparities, it is possible that they are a function of both the urban-rural disparity[262] and the considerable focus of humanitarian agencies on certain areas of the country.[263] To that end, it may also reflect the positive impact of the relief effort though w do not have sufficient baseline data to establish a causal relationship.

A second area where the unequal distribution of school inputs was evident from analysis of the school census data was among the different types of schools: public, private, community and mission. Private and mission schools were comparatively better resourced than public and community schools. Approximately 31 percent of public schools and 22 percent of community schools were registered as "destroyed", while the corresponding figures for private and mission schools were roughly 7.5 percent and 10 percent respectively. This trend also appears to have a regional component insofar as the distribution of school type by county was also highly variable. While an estimated 72 percent of Montserrado schools were registered as private or mission, the corresponding figures for Bomi and Gbapolu were 9.34 percent and 4.85 percent respectively.

Figure V

IDP/Refugee Return Rates by Areas of Return and Primary Schools by Condition

Areas of return of registered refugees and IDPs

	0 - 1500
	1501 - 5000
	5001 - 10000
	10001 - 50000
	50001 - 100000
	100001 - 150000

Primary Schools by Building Condition

		Total
	% destroyed	22.76%
	% intact	19.01%
	% major damage	17.18%
	% minor damage	39.25%
	% No Data	1.80%

Source: IDP/Refugee data taken from Humanitarian Information Center for Liberia at *www.humanitarianinfo.org/liberia/*. Enrollment rates taken from EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data).

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Interestingly, however, there is conflicting evidence regarding the relative quality of education in private and public schools. While the 2001 MALP report in Montserrado concluded that performance in literacy was marginally better in mission and private schools[264] (when compared to public), more recent qualitative assessments noted that "while the quality of teaching is reportedly better [in private schools], still the validity of test marks is questioned by some who believe that students are rushed through, to make way for more paying students."[265] Monitoring the private school market (and its potential to increase socio-economic inequity) will therefore be a key issue for the MoE in the area of service delivery.

5.7 Challenges to Effective Service Delivery in the Education Sector

Infrastructure and transportation are significant constraints to the effective provision of education services. The limited road network impedes the efficient disbursement of materials, especially in areas that are rendered entirely inaccessible

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by roads during the rainy season. Furthermore, the MoE does not have enough vehicles to allow for adequate supervision and delivery of materials. MoE staff commented that while they were formally responsible for ensuring the delivery of the official curriculum and monitoring its implementation, the responsible unit did not have access to any vehicles.[266] Similarly, UNICEF staff commented on the difficulties of equipping schools with basic hardware given the poor road network. Even with 4-wheel drive vehicles, the quantity of furniture that can be transported is extremely limited making the provision of basic items such as benches very difficult and expensive.[267] These limitations are even more severe with regards to the construction and rehabilitation of schools, which requires the transport of large quantities of materials.

The lack of accurate baseline data to support procurement and distribution processes has also hindered the effective delivery of services. The finalization of the ongoing school census should make a significant contribution to alleviating this obstacle. However, as the census was done with a survey methodology[268], it is unclear whether it has provided a sustainable foundation for the regular updating of education statistics. This is a necessary component not only for the distribution of school inputs, but also for evaluating whether these inputs lead to improved enrollment rates and learning achievement. The virtual absence of monitoring and evaluation in schools by the MOE[269] is also an obstacle to effective service delivery, as the MoE has limited ability to systematically ensure that school managers and teachers optimize school inputs.

Low salaries and infrequent payment of teachers emerge as significant determinants in the process of service delivery. This was commented upon in all assessments and interviews with relevant education partners, most notably at the senior level in the MoE.[270] Previously, teachers were paid 10 USD per month[271] and though salaries have since increased to between 15 USD and 20 USD,[272] this is still not sufficient to afford teachers (and their families) a basic standard of living.[273] As a point of reference, a bag of rice costs 30 USD.[274] While the MoE initially proposed salaries closer to 100 USD, this was deemed infeasible given the state of education financing.[275] Moreover, as shown in Figure VI, teacher remuneration has declined substantially since the pre-war period contributing to a general decline of morale in the profession. Recent research conducted by IRC stated "an absence of incentives to enter or remain in the teaching field, combined with the deficiency of resources for teacher training, has resulted in an uncertain future for the teaching profession in Liberia."[276]

Figure VI[277]
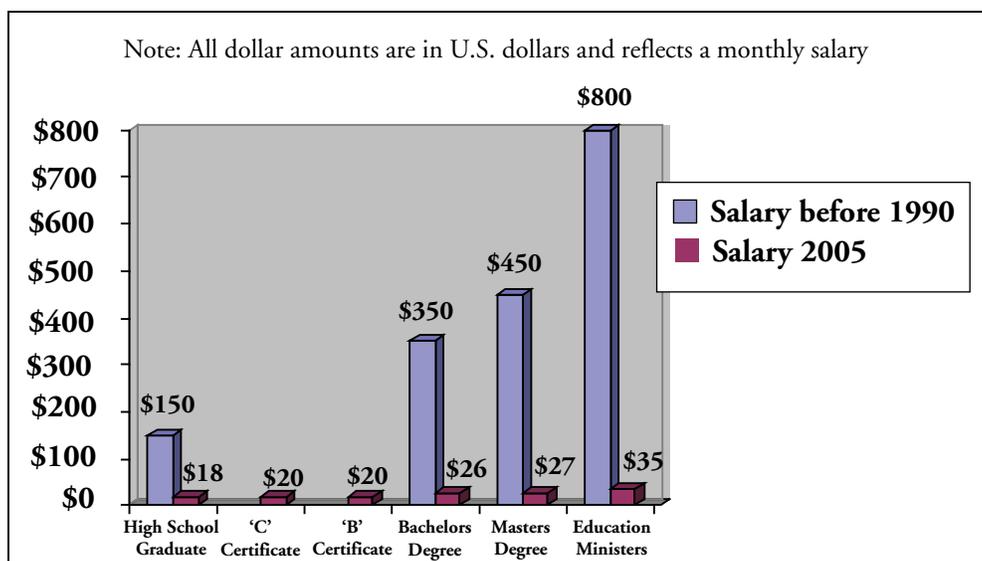
Compounding the issue of low base pay for teachers is the problem of irregular payment. Prior to the war, CEOs were responsible for picking up their counties monthly salaries from the MoE and then distributing those monies to the DEOs, who would then give the monies to individual school principals.[278] During the war, teachers would have to travel

to Monrovia, leaving their classes potentially for weeks at a time. While the responsibility has returned to the CEOs, their lack of mobility is a problem. Depending upon the area where a teacher lives, they may have to walk several hours in order to receive their payment; and because salaries are so low, some teachers feel as though it is not worth the cost of travelling to pick up their salary.[279] "Some teachers would have paid more to collect their salaries than the salary itself, resulting in them actually paying to be paid."[280] Further complicating the matter is the issue of teacher verification which constrains both the payment process and the financing for teacher salaries as it is unclear who should be receiving money from the MoE.[281]

> **Teaching for a living isn't easy:**
> During a school visit in Monrovia, a teacher left the classroom in the middle of the lesson, leaving the students with no supervision. The teacher who was leading the tour of the school explained that this teacher had left because he had heard that his pay check was available for pick-up at a local high school gymnasium. This situation illustrates how the uncertainty of payment can be detrimental to teacher performance and ultimately student achievement.

Low base pay and problems with salary delivery contribute to low teacher motivation.[282] There is no incentive for teachers to hone their craft or put in time and energy into professional development in order to improve their teaching.[283] "Teachers express frustration that salaries are not based on qualifications or levels of experience and that there is no regulated system of benefits."[284] Additionally, low salaries and lack of incentives has caused an extremely high turnover rate in the educational sector.[285] According to IRC research, 97.1 percent of teachers interviewed said that the salary they earn impacts their well-being negatively.[286] "Teacher salaries were seen as a disincentive for both attracting bright minds and dedicated persons to the profession, and for keeping them as teachers once trained."[287] SC-UK noted "morale and thus commitment of teachers was found to be poor—confirmed by children who said teachers will come and go out of class."[288] Moreover, the low base salary has also led to corruption amongst teachers in the form of extortion of pupils, and principals seem to have a difficult time monitoring teachers and ensuring that this does not take place.[289]

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> **Who pays what to whom?**
> Payment of ALP teachers creates a whole different set of problems. While UNICEF and other donors typically do not pay for salaries, preferring rather to make capital investments and allow the local government to pay salaries, UNICEF and other donors have been paying ALP teacher salaries. The reason for this is that ALP teachers are regular government teachers who receive regular teacher salaries paid for by the government. UNICEF then gives them an added "incentive" in the form of 10 USD per month in order to take on the added work of being an ALP teacher. At the same time, USAID pays ALP teachers 15 USD per month. And the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) pays their teachers 50 USD per month in their similar, yet not government sanctioned, accelerated schooling program. Part of this discrepancy results from the fact that the NRC does not hire public school teachers, so they do not receive a government salary. This 50 USD per month is still more than government paid ALP teachers who would receive approximately 30-35 USD per month total, including their ALP incentive and regular base teacher pay.

5.8 Analysis of Service Delivery in the Current Period

While there has been progress since the end of the war, it is clear that the quantity, quality and mix of inputs to schools continue to merit close attention in order to improve school performance and ensure an equitable distribution of resources. While baseline data provided by the ongoing school census is an important first step, sustainable systems for monitoring and evaluation are key to understanding the relationship between school inputs and education quality. Moreover, while emergency programs continue, the ability of the MoE to strategically coordinate its relationships with implementing partners within the context of a comprehensive policy framework will be fundamental to improving the delivery of education services.

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6. Curriculum

A key issue in the post-war education sector is curriculum reform in order to better address the needs of learners. The current curriculum is considered outdated and more importantly, was not consistently used across schools due to limited access to the curriculum itself and supporting materials. Currently, Liberia is conducting a review process such that any statements about the appropriateness of the new curriculum will be only conjecture. Thus, this section takes a different tack by first describing the progress of the review process and its objectives, then discussing issues of relevancy within the current curriculum and finally looking ahead to some of the possible constraints that exist to the smooth implementation of the revised curriculum when it is completed.

6.1 Overview of Current Curriculum for Primary Education and the Review Process

The current curriculum for primary education was originally developed in 1980, revised in 1996 and put into circulation in 1997. This curriculum was developed centrally and was created to reflect the specific developmental goals of Liberia.[290] It consists of four core subjects: Language Arts, Social Studies, Math and Science. However, it is currently undergoing a revision led by the MoE and UNESCO in recognition of the unique challenges for education in post-war Liberia - a process intended to introduce key areas such as peace, human rights and citizenship as content areas.[291] Though we were unable to see the revised text, MoE staff commented that substantive revisions in content will include several new components such as Physical Education, Human Rights, Arts and Crafts, and HIV/AIDS.[292]

The process of curriculum revision is currently ongoing. It began with the creation of a national curriculum advisory committee, headed by the MoE, and represented by a wide-range of stakeholders, including universities, UNICEF, UNESCO and other international agencies among others. The MoE oversaw a one-day workshop for curriculum writers with 53 participants, most of who were subject specialists. This was then followed by a 2-day national curriculum meeting with over 200 participants, in which the desired outcomes for curriculum review were discussed. There was then a 10-day writer's workshop during which task force members developed a draft of the revised curriculum.[293] None of the agencies with whom interviews were conducted had seen the revised draft and the MoE was unable to provide a copy for the purposes of this analysis. As such, it is beyond the scope of this report to comment on the degree to which revision reflects the needs of Liberian education. However, interviews and document review did shed light on what some of these needs may be, as well as what challenges exist for the completion and implementation of the new curriculum. An analysis of these issues then may provide a useful starting point for critiquing forthcoming drafts as they become available.

6.2 The Relevancy Of Content And Pedagogy

Various stakeholders identified the need to improve the relevance of both curriculum content and associated pedagogy in order to addresses the psychosocial and cultural profile(s) of Liberia's children. SC-UK argues that "large numbers of children remain excluded from main stream formal education as a result of disabilities largely caused by the conflict…The capacity of the Ministry is limited in supporting mainstream government schools to incorporate more inclusive policies and practices; this would require more training for teachers, review of the national curriculum and some adaptation at community level."[294] USAID also commented that because so few teachers and administrators are formally trained in education or certified, most do not know the appropriate pedagogy needed to appropriately address the psychosocial needs of many of their students.[295] UNICEF, which is providing training in psychosocial support for teachers in some areas, also noted the importance of this issue, but the Child Protection Section expressed concern that psychosocial content was isolated from the broader processes of policy development and curriculum reform.[296] Interviewees acknowledged that in the current period the focus of the education sector has become increasingly on improving cognitive skills.[297]

Relevancy concerns were also raised with regard to the current curriculum's failure to adequately address the diversity of Liberian society. USAID notes "students and parents feel that it is not relevant, especially with sustaining Liberian cultural norms."[298] SC-UK also addressed this point commenting that "as a quality education meets the needs of all learners, to

achieve quality education in Liberia, the characteristics determining diversity amongst children and the communities in which they live, should be clearly identified."[299] Before the war, curriculum and materials development was carried out in all counties with qualified and specialised staff attending to the needs of subject-specific concerns. Though policy provisions do exist to increase participation in educational development at all levels, including the development of complementary curricula, it is unclear to what degree this has been reflected in the process for curriculum revision given the limited functionality of the mechanisms of decentralization. Thus, the degree of inclusiveness in the review process was unclear in our research.

The gendered dimensions of curriculum (and the review process) were also raised in the field research. In Forum of African Women Educationalists (FAWE's) 1999 situational analysis of girls and education, an audit of images and text in official textbooks concluded "a conscious effort has been made by the Ministry of Education to portray both sexes for all grades and subjects."[300] Notably absent from this report, however, is any discussion regarding pedagogical aspects of curriculum delivery and the degree to which these are designed to be gender-sensitive. To that end, a 2006 UNICEF-Liberia funded study on girls' education included among its recommendations the inclusion of "gender sensitisation in teacher training programmes."[301] However, interviews with UNICEF staff acknowledged the dearth of ideas as to what gender-sensitive teaching would look like in practice.[302] Also noted was the general lack of participation of women in the review process itself.[303] As the educational development process moves forward into developing teacher guides, it will be important to analyze the degree to which the concept of gender-sensitive teaching is translated into tangible classroom practice.

Similar issues were raised in discussions around the practice of child-centered teaching. Among interviewees, there was little clarity with respect to the implementation of the concept of child-centered teaching introduced in the Girls' Education Policy.[304] In practice, classroom observations and sector-wide assessments conducted by other agencies confirmed that child-centered teaching was rare in Liberian classrooms. While students often prefer to learn in small groups[305], the bulk of teaching continues to be teacher-centered with limited interaction opportunities for active student participation. In this vein, SC-UK noted a lack of participatory processes in the classroom and no evidence of collaborative, shared learning in groups[306] despite the fact that "teachers often noted that student-centered learning made their work easier and more effective."[307] Moreover, there are few qualified teacher trainers with sufficient backgrounds in child-centered teaching to allow for substantive professional development to take place regarding best practices.[308] As with the issue of gender-sensitivity, the forthcoming development of teacher guides will need to arrive at a concrete definition of child-centered practices in order to ensure that it does not remain at a purely conceptual level.

6.3 Future Challenges For Curriculum Implementation

Teacher orientation in the new curriculum will be a foremost challenge given the weakened state of decentralized structures and limited training among education personnel. As a result, the feasibility of a cascading system for orientation is compromised. The MoE recently wrote a grant proposal seeking funding to hold a national workshop regarding implementation of the new curriculum. If their proposal is accepted, they would invite representatives from every school, along with CEOs and DEOs to attend the workshop. They hope that approximately 50 percent of teachers at every school will be able to attend. Those that do attend the workshop are expected to return to their schools and orient the teachers who did not attend the workshop to the new curriculum.[309]

Limited resources and lack of infrastructure are also significant obstacles to the smooth distribution and implementation of the new curriculum once it is introduced. Currently, teachers noted that limited access to the national curriculum negatively affects their ability to plan lessons and teach effectively.[310] As with other aspects of delivery, CEOs and DEOs will be primarily responsible for overseeing curriculum implementation. In order for this to be a successful strategy, they will require further training not only in the curriculum itself, but also in terms of guidance for monitoring and evaluation. This research did not identify any concrete plans on how this process will be conducted, though this may be a function of its limited scope.

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Objective and comparable testing mechanisms will also be a significant challenge for curriculum implementation. For the current curriculum, "there is no nationwide terminal examination to monitor the quality of primary education."[311] Exclusively school-based test development means that there is little or no consistency between teachers, schools, districts and counties. The degree to which tests reflect the intended content of the official curriculum is also in question since teachers, often without current textbooks or curriculum, have little in the way of a reference point. Furthermore, the validity of testing in private schools is questionable, requiring the MoE to play a more comprehensive role in regulating the private sector.

6.4 Analysis of Curriculum in the Current Period

The state of curriculum in the education sector is presently undetermined, though the process of revision is a positive sign. Though this research was unable to assess the progress of the revision in any substantial way, the above analysis highlights a number of issues perhaps worth further examination. Some questions to consider include:

- *To what degree is the process of curriculum reform genuinely inclusive insofar as the outcome addresses the educational needs that correspond to Liberian pupils and teachers.*
- *To what degree will the curriculum address these needs not only through the inclusion of new context areas, but also through the process of curriculum delivery?*
- *How will the MoE manage the minute logistics of curriculum implementation given the extremely weak capacity for service delivery, especially at the county and district levels?*

7. The Role of UNICEF In The Liberian Education Sector

7.1 The Context of Analysis: Evolving Program Strategy from Emergency to Development

Prior to August 2003, UNICEF operated an emergency program with the primary objective of ensuring the provision of "access to quality basic education and social skills for children and youth to redress the impact of conflict and displacement, gender discrimination, chronic poverty and the impact of war and injustice".[312] The bulk of UNICEF's programming during this time was focused on relief and humanitarian services for the internally displaced.

However, as the stability of the government has progressively improved—first with the resettlement process and most recently with the successful presidential elections—UNICEF has increasingly been more able to take a long-term view for planning. This is reflected in the gradual shifting of roles that UNICEF-Liberia is playing in the education sector in which considerable emphasis is now placed on developing MoE capacity and MoE ownership of the education sector. To that end, UNICEF-Liberia's current work plan—which is developed annually to accommodate the rapidly changing work environment characteristic of emergency settings—is considered a bridging program that will lead to a 3-year program strategy for 2007-2009. This changing role of the country program in the transition to development-based programming has implied a series of challenges unique from the previous emergency period where the government counterpart was difficult to identify.

The first section presents UNICEF-Liberia's major interventions in the education sector, including both supply-side interventions, which target educational inputs such as schools, teachers, textbooks, etc., and demand-side interventions, which target communities and children. The second section addresses the extent to which UNICEF's education sector programming is coherent with the CCCs and general policy principles and highlights areas of relative strength and weaknesses. This provides the basis for our recommendations, which are presented in the third section.

7.2 UNICEF-Liberia Interventions

7.2.1 Back to School Campaign

The re-establishment of basic primary education services has been the main focus of UNICEF's programming. Despite the evacuation of key international staff from June to August 2003 during a bout of heavy fighting in Monrovia, in November the country program was able to successfully launch a Back to School (BTS) campaign, in collaboration with the MoE, to return children to the schools after a 6-month closure. With a target of re-enrolling 750,000 students, the campaign was the first UNICEF Back to School campaign of its scale in Africa.[313]

To assist with the implementation of the BTS campaign, UNICEF, in coordination with the MoE, conducted a RALS to determine student-teacher numbers and assess the condition of the educational infrastructure in order to plan for distribution of learning materials, teacher training needs, and school rehabilitation. The first RALS was conducted in October 2003 with MoE educational officers and community members in six accessible counties, and the second RALS was completed in early 2004 as other areas of the country became accessible. [314]

To ensure an adequate teaching force that could address the multiplicity of student needs, especially psychosocial, in the immediate aftermath of a violent conflict, a large-scale Teacher Orientation Training was developed and implemented to familiarize teachers with the principles of Rapid Educational Response. An emergency education training manual was also developed and distributed and master teachers trained in literacy, numeracy, sports and recreation, psychosocial and counseling principles, and music/drama. Between October and December 2003, 7,200 teachers were trained in rapid educational response; an additional 5,018 were trained in 2004.[315]

Given the immense challenges in infrastructure and MoE capacity, the country program's ability to re-open schools and meet their target is a demonstration of UNICEF's strength in logistics.

> **Back to School Highlights**
>
> - Two successful RALS completed in October 2003 and early 2004.
> - From late 2003 to end 2004, teaching and learning materials have been distributed to 830,000 students in 11 counties
> - 12,018 teachers trained in rapid educational response, representing more than half of the estimated 20,000 teachers in the country.

7.2.2 Rehabilitation Of Schools And Distribution Of Materials

Since the war, UNICEF and other humanitarian organizations have taken over the responsibility of material procurement and distribution from the MoE and were involved in direct distribution of educational supplies such as copybooks, pencils, erasers, etc. to schools. In addition to the materials distributed for BTS and ALP, in 2005 1,916 schools received school supplies supporting 450,000 students and 12,565 teachers.[316]

As part of the transition from an emergency to development program, UNICEF has begun to devolve this responsibility back to the MoE. Since July 2006, UNICEF began to shift responsibility for the distribution of materials, but due to capacity issues at the MoE, the country program still provides significant technical and logistical support, including vehicle rentals and allowances for MoE personnel during distribution runs. While UNICEF would like to move away from this activity as soon as possible, they are expected to provide support for another year before being able to phase out.[317]

UNICEF also collaborates with WFP to provide school feeding and food-for-work programs since 2003 and UNDP and UNOPS for school rehabilitation/renovation.

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7.2.3 Teacher Training

Beginning with the training of 7,200 teachers in emergency educational response during the Back to School Campaign, UNICEF has focused on teacher training as an important component of providing basic education services, given the high level of uncertified teachers in the country. In addition to those trained for BTS, UNICEF also trained 1,715 teachers in ALP methodology and curriculum. Both of these trainings included psychosocial components.

In 2004, UNICEF began work on improving the basic "C"-level teaching credential for primary schools. Two of the three teacher training sites, including the Kakata Teacher Training Institute were restored to functioning levels and in 2004, 220 teachers graduated from the program in Kakata.[318] In 2005, recognizing the lack of female teachers, UNICEF focused on training only female teachers and produced 606 graduates for the C-level certificate.[319] The same year, UNICEF also began to support the revision and reestablishment of the B-level teacher training curriculum.[320]

7.2.4 Accelerated Learning Program

In addition to the provision of basic education services to the general student population, UNICEF re-launched the ALP Project in 2004 to serve the needs of over-age children who had missed out on years of primary school due to the civil war. UNICEF provides both ALP services in the country and serves as the overall coordinator for the five implementing agencies for ALP funded by USAID. By the end of 2005, 223 schools were providing ALP services, each receiving one set of textbooks. A total of 22,300 students have benefited, 1,615 teachers trained, 2,000 training manuals distributed and 114 ALP schools received either minor or major renovation.[321] Despite these positive outcomes, interviews with UNICEF staff and other ALP implementing agencies have identified some concerns regarding implementation of the ALP program. In addition, UNICEF is currently re-evaluating the duration of the program since it is considered a transitional initiative.[322]

7.2.5 Girls' Education

As a crosscutting issue for the organization worldwide, UNICEF collaborated strongly with the MoE to develop their girls' education response early. In 2002, UNICEF worked with FAWE (a local NGO), the MoE, and the African Girls' Education Initiative to develop girls' clubs and "centers of excellence". Since 2006, UNICEF has shifted their strategy away from girls' clubs to mothers' clubs as community-based initiatives to promote girls' education and work with different NGOs to run the desired 500 mothers' clubs in the country.

The Education Section dedicated a significant amount of time and resources to working with the MoE to develop a national education policy in support of girls' education. The policy, formally launched in April 2006, was the culmination of a year of meetings with a 13-member committee comprised of representatives from MoE, including the Education Minister herself, Ministry of Gender and Development, Ministry of Planning, two secondary school girls from both public and private school, FAWE, University of Liberia, and the UNMIL Gender Unit, which was initially introduced by UNICEF. The representative from UNICEF chaired the meetings and led the coordination of the entire process. After the first draft was written a stakeholder meeting with 200-250 people was organized to review the draft. The final document was approved by the house of legislature and officially launched in the spring of 2006.

Since the launch of the official policy, the Education Section remains active and successfully advocated for the creation of a Girls' Unit within the MoE to operationalize the policy and coordinate the activities of the implementation task force. Though the unit is part of the MoE, UNICEF has seconded a UNICEF staffer to work part-time at the MoE for a period of 2-3 months to help set up the Girls' Unit due to capacity issues at the Ministry. Work is currently underway to recruit the national coordinator for the unit. The initial task of the task force and the Girls Unit will be to disseminate the policy throughout the country. UNICEF has also agreed to provide a vehicle for the Girls Unit and pay the first year's operating costs.[323]

7.2.6 Community Education Investment Program (CEIP)

UNICEF, with its mandate focused on children, was given the lead role in the demobilization and reintegration of children associated with fighting forces (CAFF). Launched in 2004, the Community Education Investment Program (CEIP) provided formal education to CAFF through support to schools with operations in four counties that requested formal education as part of the demobilization process. Teachers working with CAFF were trained on the concept and implementation of CEIP and how to provide psycho-social support, and members of the community including principals, members of PTAs, and district and county educational officers were trained on how to monitor CEIP activities. In addition, Child Welfare Committees and children's clubs were established in various communities near cantonment sites and in locations where demobilized children have been reunified. It is important to note that these activities were overseen by the Child Protection Section and not the Education Section, which lends an aspect of separation to the programming for former child soldiers and for the overall education sector.

7.2.7 Education Data Collection and Information Management

The original RALS conducted as part of the BTS campaign by UNICEF and the MoE was important because it not only provided the necessary data for successful implementation of the campaign, but was used by all agencies operating in the education sector as the baseline data for planning of their interventions. In addition to the RALS, UNICEF is currently working with the MoE, with support from UNESCO and other partners, to conduct the first national school census since the end of hostilities. This school census is an outgrowth of the RALS and intended to provide the foundation for the development of an Education Management Information System (EMIS) that will contain regularly updated education statistics collected from throughout the country. UNICEF has integrated into this process an element of capacity building. The MoE has seconded a person to work out of the UNICEF office where the EMIS, which includes the school census data, is housed. The ultimate plan is to house the EMIS in the MoE in the near future.

7.3 Analysis of UNICEF-Liberia Education Interventions

7.3.1 Linking Core Policy Directives To Programming In Liberia

Given the extreme operational challenges of the Liberia context resulting from 14 years of heavy conflict, UNICEF has had to adapt the global UNICEF policies to their particular context. Similar to the UNICEF program in Southern Sudan, the programs in Liberia are largely coherent. However, the difficult operational context, in addition to the country program's current transition to a development-oriented program that requires more involvement and collaboration with the government and relevant line ministries, has presented additional challenges.

While the early educational response from 2003-2005 focused on the access to basic educational services, since 2006 UNICEF-Liberia has begun to turn to issues of quality of education and learning achievement.[324] Interventions to promote access to education continue to be a core element of UNICEF's education programming, but focus has been shifting away from the direct delivery of services towards capacity building at the MoE and policy development. The transfer of responsibility for the distribution of school materials illustrate this change in roles, but UNICEF does continue to provide support for logistics and planning. The successful development of the national girls' education policy and national school census are examples of UNICEF efforts to strengthen the planning and policy-making capacity of the MoE. At the local level, UNICEF is providing basic equipment, technical expertise, and logistical support to CEOs and working with local PTAs to better support the schools through trainings.

7.3.2 Re-Establishing Basic Education Services

From the start, UNICEF has focused on addressing all necessary components for a functioning primary education system, including teacher training, curriculum development, school rehabilitation, learning materials development and distribution, and policy creation. While the BTS campaign was initially targeted towards immediate provision of inputs to re-establish primary education services, UNICEF's subsequent actions have been geared towards building a sustainable education system run by the MoE. From 2003-2005, considerable attention was devoted to integrated early childhood development, but this has become less of a priority in UNICEF's current work plan.

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7.3.3 Providing Psychosocial Services to Children

While UNICEF had been active in providing psychosocial services to children affected by the war in IDP camps, the country program has been less successful in incorporating psychosocial services in the re-establishment of the formal education sector. During the initial period of response, UNICEF's desire and ability to target beneficiaries located in IDP camps was conducive to the incorporation of psychosocial activities in close connection with the education program. In the IDP camps, UNICEF worked actively on psychosocial and life-skills training with programs such as "Let the Children Play", in which play therapy and practical training were provided for 2,500 children. In addition, emergency training for teachers highlighted the importance of addressing the psychosocial needs of learners.

In the current period, however, the education program has been less successful in addressing psychosocial needs as acknowledged by UNICEF staff in interviews. In the 2006 annual work plan for the Education Section, there is no mention of psychosocial activities though Life Skills training for ALP and "C"-level teachers is an ongoing project.[325]

Given that psychosocial activities fall under the responsibility of the Child Protection Section, coordination between the two units for psychosocial activities within the schools is crucial. The lack of physical proximity between the two offices (a change from the previous period) was also cited as a reason for lesser collaboration. In the current period, as the Child Protection Section is responsible for psychosocial programs targeting CAFF and providing training to teachers designed to help them identify and manage emotional trauma among children, this activity is isolated from the policy arena because the Child Protection Section does not have direct ties to the MoE and instead relies on the Education Section to facilitate those contacts. This can inhibit advocacy on behalf of the psychosocial needs of the general student population leading to a gap in policy development for primary education in that area.

Another major challenge of integrating psychosocial services with the education program is related to the context of transition. As the Education Section has begun to work through the MoE and the Child Protection Section with the Ministry of Gender and Development and the Ministry of Justice, there has been lesser scope for integration at the level of policy development, especially when the line ministries often do not communicate or collaborate in joint planning. The degree to which the MoE prioritizes psychosocial components of education is one of the drivers of UNICEF programming in the sector and interviews suggest that the MoE is currently focused on quality as defined by learning achievement.[326]

7.3.4 Taking An Integrated Approach

UNICEF had more integrated programming during the period from the late 1990s to 2003-4 when much of the programming focused on services in the IDP camps because all services were in close proximity to one another.[327] For example, Child Friendly Spaces were set up in four IDP camps in Monrovia, which supported the provision of early childhood development activities, primary and post-primary formal and non-formal education and awareness raising activities. Girls and boys youth groups were formed and assisted in setting up youth friendly centers and trained in monitoring child abuse. However, by 2005, services in the IDP camps were being scaled down as IDPs were returning to their communities and the notion of CFS was not carried forward in the rehabilitation of the primary education sector.

In the current period, however, interviews with UNICEF staff highlighted the lack of integration and coordination among the different units in recent programming.[328] Though monthly planning meetings help to facilitate communication within the agency, there is little programmatic effort to integrate service delivery. As noted by the SPO, during the emergency phase of the program there was an emphasis on CFS principles and education because the school is seen as an important space to protect children given the prevalence of violence. However, in the present period, the priorities of the MoE have shifted towards rebuilding the basics of the education sector, such as teacher training, rehabilitation of schools, curriculum development such that play and other psychosocial services are not prioritized.[329]

UNICEF's mandate to work with the government thus also complicates the integration of services because as each unit works specifically with the relevant government ministry, if the ministries themselves favor a sectorally defined response, UNICEF's programs will reflect that bias. Moreover, as funding is often unpredictable and sectorally-based, planning integrated projects is compromised if certain activities go unfunded. In the same vein, ministries may exhibit various levels of capacity and operate at different speeds, which also complicate the integration and coordination of UNICEF activities as they are done in conjunction with the ministries.

7.3.5 Targeting The Most Vulnerable

Though the country program does not use explicit language of rights in their programming, the country office has made a strategic effort to target vulnerable groups. One of the challenges of a rights-based approach that comes from the government, as a duty-bearer, is that with the lack of capacity issue at the government level, the ministries have very limited ability to fulfill its role.[330] Given the transitional nature of the government until the beginning of 2006, it is not surprising the government has not yet taken up the mantle of a rights-based approach.

After a mid-term review in 2004 and based on the results of the Real-Time Evaluation, UNICEF focused activities primarily in seven counties: Bomi, Bong, Grand Gedeh, Lofa, Maryland, Montserrado and Nimba. These areas were selected because they suffered the most destruction to basic services and included the majority of the children associated with fighting forces (CAFF), as well as returning refugees and the internally displaced.

Though UNICEF has a program (CEIP) to address the needs of CAFF, including their educational needs, it is not managed by the Education Section but rather falls under the Child Protection Section. In contrast, UNICEF's current work targeting girls is figured prominently in the Education Section's focus on the promotion of girls' education, which is a central component of their overall education strategy and one of their strongest activities. Unlike the other units such as Health and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) who do not have specific programs targeting girls, increasing access and enrollment of girls is embedded in the Education Section's annual work objectives. Since the launch of the official policy in June 2006, the Education Section continues to be an active player and has succeeded in advocating for the creation of a Girls' Unit within the MoE, which will operationalize the policy and coordinate the activities of the implementation task force that was created when the policy was launched.

Though there are issues related to the feasibility of operationalizing all aspects of the girls' education policy when the education sector and even the MoE itself are in a rebuilding process, it nevertheless is impressive that UNICEF-Liberia has been able to succeed in pushing for a broad progressive policy that can allows for the development of a profile around the issue of girls' education.

7.3.6 Coordinating With Government And Partners

Though there is no cluster for education, UNICEF is considered the lead agency for primary education in the country.[331] With the other UN agencies, UNICEF has four memorandums of understanding. The MOU with WFP covers a wide range of collaboration from using common premises to nutrition and school material distribution. The MOU with UNHCR, WFP and UNDP makes a formal relationship on joint planning at the field level. The agreement with UNOPS outlines the contractual work for UNICEF on school, health-unit and police women and children's protection unit rehabilitation. The final MOU with UNDP outlines the relative roles in the reintegration of adults (UNDP) and children (UNICEF) who were demobilized in the disarmament, demobilization, rehabilitation and reintegration (DDRR) program.

However, despite the existence of the MOUs, actual cooperation is often problematic and the monitoring of activities done in conjunction with other partners has been difficult. In an internal "real-time" evaluation of UNICEF's emergency response from May 2003 to March 2004, it was noted that in a review of the management practices for 16 NGO agreements the "staff did not assess implementation against plans. Similarly, field visits have not been used systematically

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to monitor activities supported by cash assistance or supplies."[332] The disparity in teacher salaries for ALP is a testament to this challenge as neither the government nor UNICEF were in a position to enforce common incentives. Similar coordination difficulties were also experienced in standardized screening procedures for students and teacher training for ALP.

In the current period, playing a coordinating role has become even more challenging as UNICEF is focused on promoting the MoE as the primary body of coordination. However, due to limited capacity, UNICEF must walk the line between promoting ownership and ensuring effective coordination of services. The UNICEF driven process to establish an education information management system provides a concrete example. Creating an EMIS was fundamental to effective coordination, but the MoE did not have the resources or the technical capacity to take full responsibility for this function. UNICEF's efforts to help the MoE establish a Girls' Education Unit is another example of the complexity of the transition. While the unit, among other duties, is intended to coordinate activities of all partners working on girls' education, the limited resources, management capacity and technical knowledge on this issue represents an important challenge; to assist the MoE, a UNICEF staffer has been seconded to the MoE for a limited period of time to set up the unit and ensure it is functioning.

7.3.7 Staffing and Funding Challenges to UNICEF Programming

High staff turnover, especially in senior-level positions, has hampered the continuity of programming and leadership within the UNICEF-Liberia program. The Real-Time Evaluation of UNICEF-Liberia's response from May 2003 to March 2004 highlighted the problems associated with staffing. For example, "UNICEF['s] strong lead in the sectoral coordination was not adequately backed by staff in posts in Education and WES and is arguably inadequately attended for Nutrition….[The] staffing of section head positions has changed frequently and/or been confused as senior level consultants, TFTs and secondees from other offices have come and gone. Up to March 2004, the sector coordination roles for Education, Protection and WES were filled by staff members on short-term contracts or secondments or in an acting capacity while staff members manage other full-time responsibilities."[333] Even with the staff that was present, the Real Time Evaluation noted that a "disproportionate number" were either in their first emergency posting, first international posting, or first time with the organization, highlighting also the challenges in finding appropriate replacement staff.[334] It is not unusual for senior level positions to remain open for a few months as international staff transition to other posts.

The lack of timely funding of programs also poses significant challenges to program coherence, continuity and ultimately effectiveness, as mentioned in the discussion of program integration. In addition, as noted in the Real-Time Evaluation, "low funding also had potentially significant implications for CO capacity to maintain a strong sector leadership role, which is particularly important in this early phase of transition."[335] Almost every major activity has faced funding shortfalls including the Back to School campaign, the Accelerated Learning Program, as well as smaller supporting projects such as the provision of technical assistance to the MoE in the development of county education plans or the provision of youth-friendly health services. In 2005, the UNICEF country office had to postpone a planned HIV/AIDS programme because of lack of funding despite a comprehensive programme plan and funding proposals.[336] While funding did come in late November that year, the 2005 workplan was already disrupted. By July 2006, UNICEF-Liberia had only received 47 percent of the total funds originally requested as reported in the mid-year CAP review.

Another challenge for programmatic coherence has been the communication between UNICEF headquarters, the regional office and the country program. During the initial emergency response in mid-2003, it was noted that "gaps in CO leadership and CO-RO-HQ coordination led to unclear priorities in bringing in and using surge support in the technical clusters. This ultimately undermined the effectiveness of programme delivery in general, and the timeliness of measles vaccination, one of the most urgent programme responses required."[337] Given the multiplicity of actors involved in coordinating emergency responses including individuals from headquarters, the regional office and EMOPS, often "each [were] unaware of some of the significant activities at another level."[338]

8. Lessons Learned And Suggestions Going Forward

8.1 Monitoring The Effectiveness of Service Delivery As Responsibility Shifts To The MoE

The change in UNICEF's role and its focus on supporting capacity building for the MoE and its county and district representatives represents a positive step towards building ownership of the education system. However, this shift makes UNICEF's role in monitoring and evaluating the efficacy of the transfer of responsibility of paramount importance. To that end, UNICEF could consider the following areas going forward:

- *Monitoring and evaluation of the transfer of procurement and distribution to the MoE in terms of its effectiveness in order to ensure that service delivery does not suffer undue setbacks during the period of transition.*

- *Ensuring that the methodology used for the development of the EMIS can be translated into a sustainable practice in terms of cost and time.*

- *Monitoring and evaluating the interplay between the broader development of the education system and emergency education programs (notably ALP) that continue to be implemented by NGO partners. For example, the resource imbalance between ALP in terms of teacher salaries and other inputs may create a disincentive to run (or attend) regular primary schools, especially given the problems ALP may experience targeting overage learners.*

8.2 Bringing Back The Concept Of Child-Friendly For Schools

As the interventions in IDP camps have shut down and focus has shifted to general education policy, there seems to have emerged an evolving gap between the Child Protection and Education Units. While this is understandable given the government's sectoral focus, UNICEF might consider the degree to which this may have a negative impact on education delivery insofar as the predominant focus of psychosocial interventions is currently targeting CAFF, but not comprehensively addressing the psychosocial needs of the general student population. UNICEF could consider the following potential actions:

- *Using Child Friendly Schools as an organizing principle through which the Education Section can actively solicit internal collaboration from the Child Protection, Health (especially HIV-AIDS) and WASH units. While coordinating cross-sectoral interventions may be difficult, the Education Section can serve as a conduit through which psychosocial and other relevant issues can be integrated into UNICEF's advocacy in the education sector. One concrete step in this area would be the development of a CFS checklist for monitoring school improvement (in collaboration with the MoE) in which each unit could provide input corresponding to their area of expertise.*

- *Assessing the relevance of other proven models in which UNICEF has successfully integrated the "child-friendly" concept in a school-based environment. UNICEF-Colombia's Escuelas Amigas and UNICEF-Kenya's Stimulating Classrooms and Gender-Responsive Classrooms are two potential references, though further collaboration with other UNICEF offices in order to identify successful models of Child and Girl Friendly Schools is warranted.*

- *Conducting comprehensive research on the levels of psychosocial trauma among the general student population (i.e. non-CAFF) and the effects of this trauma on schools access and learning achievement. This research may provide a basis for both policy advocacy and the assessment/design of potential interventions.*

8.3 Reassessing The Seven Target Counties As Inequities In Service Delivery Emerge

While focusing on areas of high return and those counties most affected by the conflict still appears to be a reasonable approach for UNICEF, the agency may consider reassessing this targeting strategy as more comprehensive education data becomes available. This report highlights the distributional inequities in educational inputs (which do not uniformly correspond to the seven counties in which UNICEF is primarily operating) and rates of access based on preliminary data from the school census and the CFSNS. Once the census is complete, UNICEF might consider the following:

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- *Conducting an analysis of distributional equity in school inputs as compared to educational outputs. This might entail mapping school facilities per capita, textbooks, percent of teachers trained, and other relevant indicators in relation to gendered measures of access, retention, repetition, and learning achievement. This analysis could serve to assess current UNICEF strategy and/or as a capacity building exercise for the MoE with an eye towards improving horizontal equity.*

- *Conducting a supply chain analysis by county and district in order to systematically identify the unique sources of distributional inefficiency as they vary by county and district and work with the MoE (and other relevant ministries) to address them accordingly. This is a potential area of collaboration with WFP given their strong logistical presence across the country.*

8.4 Supporting The Process Of Decentralization And Monitoring The Impact

MoE policy clearly indicates an intention toward the decentralization of the education system. While this seems appropriate given the lack of administrative capacity at the central level, it remained unclear (given the limited scope of this study) what specific functions will be decentralized to the county and district levels. Moreover, in order to make decentralization feasible, UNICEF and partners should continue to address capacity issues at both the central and local levels. The agency might consider the following actions in this sphere of the education sector:

- *Identifying models of school decentralization that have been effective in other contexts and assessing their relevance for the Liberian system. Though not a comprehensive list, Colombia's Escuelas Amigas, Bangladesh's BRAC program and El Salvador's EDUCO schools are some initial reference points.*

- *Clarifying the character of decentralization with regard to the administrative, fiscal and political spheres, as well as the functional division of labor in terms of the organization of instruction, personnel management, planning and structures and resources. This clarification might serve as a framework for UNICEF's continued efforts to train local MoE representatives, school principals and PTAs. Moreover, it is particularly important given the limited benefits of decentralization on school performance when real decision-making power (as opposed to purely supervisory or advisory roles) is not allocated to the school level. Initial reference countries in sub-Saharan Africa that have experimented with different levels of decentralization include Ethiopia, Nigeria, South Africa (devolution to regions), Tanzania, Uganda (devolution to localities) and Burkina Faso, Mali and Senegal (devolution to schools).*

- *Assisting the MoE in monitoring the impact of decentralization in terms of distributional equity, especially given the large private education sector in Liberia. Though there is little in the way of definitive conclusions in this area, one important emerging hypothesis is that schools most likely to benefit from the process may be those that have greater existing management capacity and autonomy. In this vein, the role of central government in identifying and compensating for these kinds of pre-existing disparities in community level capacity is a key element of the process.*

8.5 Using The Curriculum Review As An Opportunity To Embed Structural Change

One notable absence from the 2006 Education section work plan was any specific reference to the process of curriculum review. Given UNICEF's traditional technical strengths and leadership in the areas of girls' education and child-centered teaching methodologies, this process appears to be an excellent venue for promoting structural change in the way education is done in the classroom. UNICEF might consider a more central role in the curriculum review process in the following areas:

- *Analyzing the draft curriculum and participating in the development of instructional materials, especially teacher's guides, with an eye toward both content and pedagogy as it relates to child-centered teaching techniques, psychosocial support for the general student population, and ensuring that teaching styles are girl-friendly.*

- *Leveraging UNICEF's strengths in logistical planning and teacher training to support the MoE in developing a plan of action for curriculum implementation. Given existing administrative capacity deficits, both the distribution of the new curriculum and the orientation of teachers will require significant attention. In terms of teacher orientation, if a cascading system is the preferred method, it would be beneficial to minimize the number of levels in the cascade to ensure that training leakages do not negatively affect those teachers most remote from the initial training sites.*

- *Supporting the MoE within this context to develop an objective and comparable tool for measuring educational achievement at the primary level. While the 2006 Education section plan intended to complete an assessment of WAEC as a tool for this process, it remained unfunded as of our visit. Moreover, a tool designed for primary education and based on the new curriculum will be fundamental to evaluating the effectiveness of the primary sub-sector. Prueba Saber, the Colombian model described in this report, could serve as an initial reference point in considering how to approach this process.*

- *Considering the use of radio technology as an instructional device in primary school classrooms. Given the lack of trained teachers, complementary radio technology could potentially represent an inexpensive and interactive method of improving the quality of education. During the 1980s and 1990s comprehensive evaluations of Kenya's radio-based instruction found the intervention extremely beneficial for achievement, especially in language competencies. USAID has supported radio training for teachers in Liberia and might represent a useful point of collaboration for exploring the feasibility of this approach. In Southern Sudan, USAID is currently promoting the use of such technology in primary schools.*

8.6 Promoting The Girls' Education Unit As A Mainstreaming Vehicle

UNICEF's work in promoting the establishment of the Girls' Education Unit represents an excellent opportunity to push for the mainstreaming of girls issues through the MoE as a whole. Since UNICEF is already clearly considering how to do this effectively and has recently received a consultant report on this issue, it seems that this process is well underway. However, there are a few possible strategies that we believe are worth highlighting:

- *Using the unit as a platform for collecting and assembling a document of best practices in girls' education from partner agencies in Liberia and disseminating these through trainings to the county, district and school levels as part of the policy dissemination exercise.*

- *Providing the leadership of the unit and other senior MoE staff with the opportunity to visit best practices in other countries in the region.*

- *Using the unit to conduct more comprehensive research on the actual disparities in access and achievement between boys and girls. To that end, evidence thus far is mostly anecdotal and in some cases conflicting. For example, whether there is in fact a gender gap among primary school age children is unclear, as is the question of whether there is a significant gap in learning achievement and what causal variables in the school setting are related to this gap if it exists.*

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The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

SAUDI ARABIA

EGYPT

Lake Nasser

Administrative boundary

RED SEA

NORTHERN STATE

Nubian

Desert

Selima Oasis

Semna West

Kumma

Wadi Halfa

Salala

Halaib

Muhammad Qol

Laqiya Arba'in

Abu Hamed

RED SEA

Port Sudan

Suakin

Jebel Abyad Plateau

Nukheila

Kerma

Dongola

Karima

Merowe

Old Dongola

RIVER NILE

Haiya

Tokar

Karora

El'Atrun

Ed Damer

Atbara

Gadamai

CHAD

Wadi Howar

Jebel Nagashush

Wadi el Milk

Meroe

Shendi

ERITREA

NORTHERN DARFUR

Abu 'Uruq

KHARTOUM

KASSALA

Bahia

Omdurman

Khartoum

Halfa al Gadida

Kassala

Tine

Miski

NORTHERN KORDOFAN

GEZIRA

Asmara

Kulbus

Umm Badr

Wad Medani

Gedaref

Tekeze

El Geneina

Al Fasher

Sodiri

Dar Hamid

GEDAREF

WESTERN DARFUR

El Obeid

Kosti

Sinnar

Gonder

En Nahud

WHITE NILE

SINNAR

Nyala

Abu Zabad

T'ana Hāyk'

Ed Da'ein

SOUTHERN KORDOFAN

Renk

Ed Damazin

BLUE NILE

Tullus

Al Fula

Nuba Mts.

Famaka

Buram

Muglad

Kologi

Kadugli

Talodi

SOUTHERN DARFUR

Radom

Bahr el'Arab

Abyei

Palolch

UPPER NILE

ETHIOPIA

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Kafia Kingi

Lol

NORTHERN

UNITY

Malakal

Ādīs Ābeba (Addis Ababa)

WESTERN

Aweil

BAHR

Bentiu

STATE

Kigille

Raga

AL GHAZAL

WARAB

Fathai

Akobo

BAHR

Wau

AL GHAZAL

JONGLI

Rumbek

Ukwaa

BUHEYRAT

Bor

Towot

Administrative boundary

Li Yubu

Amadi

EASTERN EQUATORIA

WESTERN EQUATORIA

Kapoeta

Ch'ew Bahir

Yambio

Maridi

Juba

Torit

L. Turkana (L. Rudolf)

BAHR AL JEBEL

Yei

Nagishot

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

UGANDA

L. Albert

KENYA

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- ⊛ National capital
- ⊙ State (wilayah) capital
- ○ Town
- ✈ Major airport
- —·—·— International boundary
- —··—··— State (wilayah) boundary
- —— Main road
- ----- Track
- ＋＋＋＋ Railroad

| 0 | 100 | 200 | 300 km |
| 0 | 100 | 200 mi |

1. The Educational Context

Southern Sudan is transitioning out of a prolonged conflict and into a period of reconstruction and development. Decades of conflict not only destroyed the base of physical and human capital for the education sector, but it has also politicized education. Therefore, the political legacy of conflict is to a large extent determining the educational policies and priorities formulated in the transition period. A close examination of the education sector in this transition period highlights several constraints and challenges that are unique to Southern Sudan, and which are confronting the transitional government and the international actors.

1.1 The Legacy of Conflict on Education

Violent conflict has been a defining characteristic of post-independence Sudanese history. The most recent episode of the north-south conflict between the Khartoum government and the Sudanese People's Liberation Army/Movement (SPLA/M) lasted for 21 years. (See Appendix 1 and 2 for a history of the conflict). The humanitarian and political legacy of this conflict has largely determined the outlook of the education sector today.

The conflict had an appalling humanitarian toll: an estimated two million deaths, over four million internally displaced persons and refugees,[339] and an under-five mortality rate of 25 percent.[340] The humanitarian legacy of the conflict on the education sector has been particularly severe. Mostly as a result of massive displacement and decades of insecurity, at several points in recent history Southern Sudan has had the lowest enrollment rates in the world. While efforts such as the School Based Assessment (SBA) have existed for years, only with the recently completed Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces (RALS) report is an accurate, up-to-date picture of education in Southern Sudan emerging. The data show immense challenges. RALS identified 2,922 learning spaces[341] in Southern Sudan and 758,207 enrolled students. Girls represent only 34 percent of enrollment, vulnerable children[342] make up 13 percent of all learners, and only 56 percent of teachers have even a basic level of training. Only 18 percent of all learning spaces are in permanent structures and 36 percent of all learning spaces are in the open air.[343]

These statistics, however, still understate the educational problems Southern Sudan faces. First, there are significant distributional disparities in the education sector among areas of Southern Sudan. Stronger educational systems in the former garrison towns skew education statistics, creating a picture that is not representative of the majority of areas. For example, the three garrison towns of Juba, Malakal, and Wau account for over a quarter of all schools with permanent structures in all of Southern Sudan, though they enroll fewer than 10 percent of all students.[344]

Second, while 56 percent of teachers have a basic level of training, often such training consists only of a short course. Community members cite lack of teacher training as a major reason for low enrollment.[345] Moreover, only 14 percent of teachers are women, and most of these women teachers are concentrated in the former garrison towns. The lack of female teachers in rural areas is another reason for the low girl-to-boy enrollment ratio. To quote the 2004 UNICEF/NSCSE report *Towards a Baseline*, "It is shocking that in a country with 7.5 million people, 500 girls finish primary education each year." Finally, there is currently no population baseline from which to construct enrollment rate metrics in order to fully understand education coverage and access.

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Enrollment and School Data from the Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces

RALS 2006	Lakes	Central Equatoria	Eastern Equatoria	Western Equatoria	Jonglei	Upper Nile	Northern Bahr el Ghazal	Western Bahr el Ghazal (many counties inaccessible)	Warrap	Unity
Total Enrollment All Levels	82,528	92,590	50,174	67,200	117,571	93,571	74,085	38,304	89,087	53,097
No. of Permanent /Non-Permanent Learning Spaces	38/219	99/259	38/110	58/364	32/233	59/98	37/304	44/48	27/261	25/182

Even within Juba, despite a higher number of permanent structures and a body of teachers with higher than average training, site visits reveal clear challenges still confronting the school system. Headmasters at Buluk A Primary School and Juba One Girls School indicated that they faced high repetition and dropout rates. At Juba 1 Girls, dropout rates were about 20 percent and repetition rates were 30 percent, partially because over 10 percent of all sixth grade students were reported to be pregnant.[346] Buluk A was reported to have a high absenteeism rate at 30 percent,[347] and there were no health activities, sex education, or HIV/AIDS awareness activities. The only extracurricular activity the students were involved in was volleyball. If these are the conditions at Southern Sudan's best schools, rural schools clearly face a much greater challenge.

Observations of the classroom environment at Buluk A and Juba One Girls, however, did reveal positive aspects of those schools and gave reason for optimism. At Buluk A, the teacher observed by the research team not only was able to teach effectively, but commanded the respect of his students as well. The lesson was well-organized and presented, class discussion and interaction was effectively fostered, and respect was shown for all students. This led to a disciplined environment where achievement and personal expression were rewarded. However, the conditions at these schools are not at all representative of the "schools under a tree" found in most areas of Southern Sudan.

photo credit: Thu Nguyen

Buluk A Classroom Observation

"My brothers, which one of you can tell me what 'temptation' is," the P4 Christian Religion teacher asked his class, after writing the word 'temptation' on the board in response to a student's question about the word's definition. Walking to the back of the class while maintaining eye contact, the teacher smiled and nodded encouragingly to his students. After receiving an answer from one student, he turned to the class and asked for their opinion on whether the answer was right or wrong and if it could be elaborated on. He wrote down all the answers offered and then proceeded to explain the correctness of each answer, while also referencing other students' answers. The teacher only moved on to another question when it was clear the whole room was satisfied – students and teacher alike.

The political legacy of the conflict has shaped the education policies of the Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS) in unique ways. The conflict grew out of deep-seated issues rooted in the themes of mineral resource access, limited political influence and power, and general underdevelopment in the South. These economic and political roots of the conflict were further complicated by the clash of identities around religion, race and language[348] so that it was seen as a war between the mostly English speaking Christian and African South, represented by the SPLA, and the mostly Arabic speaking Muslim and Arab North. Consequently, education as a tool for building a nation and reinforcing cultural identity has become highly politicized: issues of language of instruction and the content of those subjects that are key to the nation-building process have been particularly sensitive.

The conflict has also determined the outlook of curriculum implementation across Southern Sudan. By the time the final round of peace negotiations began in 2002, the SPLA had established military and administrative control over most of the rural areas in the South. While the Khartoum government (GoS) was in control of several garrison towns throughout the conflict, including Juba, Wau and Malakal, the so-called Three Areas of Southern Kordofan state, Blue Nile state, and Abyei state remained disputed and only eventually gained special status under the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) signed on 9 January, 2005. (See Appendix 3 for details on the CPA).

The particular curriculum implemented in a given county during the conflict was therefore determined by three factors:

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(1) whether a county was controlled by GoS or SPLA/M, (2) whether a county was on the 'front-lines', and (3) whether a county was close to a border. Depending on these factors, a county might have Sudanese national curriculum with Arabic instruction in public schools and English instruction in private schools, SPLA/M curriculum with instruction in English, Ugandan, Kenyan or Ethiopian curriculum with instruction in English, no coherent curriculum given lack of teaching material, or a combination of any of the above. This varied background has created major challenges for curriculum development, teacher training, and the integration of returnees with various language skills and educational backgrounds.[349]

Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS) and Education Services

The United Nations established OLS in response to the famine in Bahr el Ghazal in 1989 through a tripartite agreement of negotiated access between the Government of Sudan, the SPLM and the United Nations. The operation continued until the stabilization of the security situation and the establishment of UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS).

The OLS Southern Sector was operated out of Kenya by a consortium of UN agencies, and international and national NGOs with UNICEF as the lead agency. The UNICEF Chief of Operations also served as the UN Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator (DHC) for the South until late 2004. Agencies working under OLS could access program areas in Southern Sudan only through humanitarian flights and under strict ground rules.

Throughout the life of OLS, education programs remained secondary to food, security, and health operations given the dire humanitarian situation on the ground and the limited donor interest in education services. In the earlier years of the operation, education interventions were characterized by sporadic support to existing community efforts on the ground through the provision of school supplies and training materials. Much of the education interventions outside of garrison towns targeted those areas of peace.

Throughout the course of the conflict, few schools were built outside of the garrison towns. Those that were built outside of garrison towns were constructed without supervision and had poor structural integrity. Many of them have since collapsed.[350] Most of program implementation was carried out by NNGOs and CBOs with minimal monitoring and support from international agencies. Overall, formal education took place mainly through the efforts of communities with some critical yet sporadic support from humanitarian agencies. The private schools run by the Catholic Church were particularly successful in maintaining a continued presence until today.

Only in the early 2000s did USAID and UNICEF start to become more involved in the rehabilitation of the education sector on a more systematic basis. UNICEF and USAID-funded CARE and AED worked directly with the Secretariat of Education in the development of institutional capacity for the education sector. With funds under the USAID-funded Sudan Basic Education Program (SBEP) program, several of the INGOs could begin focusing on school construction and education inputs for improved quality.[351]

1.2 Transitional Context - Government

Perhaps the most stabilizing force for the education sector during the transition phase from conflict to peace has been the institutional framework built prior to the CPA. These strong foundations were put in place mostly as a result of the high priority SPLA/M, under Dr. John Garang's leadership, placed on education. When interviewed, Minister of Education, Science and Technology Dr. Michael Milli Hussein declared, "Education is the priority of all priorities"[352] for GoSS. International actors such as USAID and UNICEF also had an important role in catalyzing the development of a formal education sector early on as they increased direct technical assistance to SPLA/M once it became more evident in 2002 that a final peace settlement would soon be reached.

The administrative transition process has been cited as an important cornerstone for education efforts.[353] Because the SPLA/M had already established a political presence in most of the southern states prior to the CPA, GoSS had a head start in building administrative institutions and capacity. The retention of key personnel, particularly William Ater who used to be the Secretary of Secretariat of Education (SoE) and is now the Undersecretary of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST), has provided the continuity in institutional knowledge that was vital for MoEST to build on the foundations laid by the SoE.

Throughout the conflict, SoE's dedication to remaining the leader in relations with external actors has transformed into the defining feature of the post-CPA environment. Reports from coordination meetings prior to the CPA stated repeatedly that SoE was the education leader, and the role of the organizations working inside Southern Sudan would be to assist SoE in implementing the Master Plan and the Education Sector Plan.[354]

Following the legacy of the SoE, MoEST is now visibly the leader of all reconstruction efforts in the education sector, despite its administrative and financial capacity challenges. MoEST officials emphasize that the role of external partners should be to provide assistance in filling gaps while respecting the priorities of the Government.[355] It is crucial that a relatively strong government, and one that emphasizes its central role as the leader of education in Southern Sudan, implements education policies.

The leadership of MoEST has been strengthened by the fact that the positions within both GoSS and the bureaucracy have been dominated by SPLM, which has facilitated uniform and coherent policy making processes. Instead of an extremely divided and unstable coalition of parties, GoSS has fixed representation from SPLM (70 percent), other southern political parties (15 percent) and the National Congress Party (15 percent).[356] Similarly, the bureaucracy is composed of mostly former SPLA members. Only some positions are staffed by officials formerly appointed by the Khartoum government or returnees from the diaspora. Capacity issues, however, will continue to remain a major challenge to effective implementation given the limited experience of most former SPLA members in public administration.

1.3 Transitional Context – International Actors

The two-year period since the signing of CPA has been a time of transition for all international actors working in Southern Sudan. The operational and funding framework, programmatic priorities, and personnel have been in flux, particularly in the earlier months of the post-CPA period.

The signing of the CPA in January 2005 has transformed the nature of UN presence and policies in Southern Sudan. During the sixteen years preceding the CPA, the UN policies were shaped by Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS), which was a unique humanitarian operation for a highly inaccessible population suffering from famine, war and displacement. Since the establishment of UNMIS in March 2005, the UN activities in Southern Sudan have been brought together under a unified mission that has the dual purpose of peace-building and humanitarian assistance/development. (See Appendix 4 for more details on UN operations in Southern Sudan).

During the same transition period, the tripartite Operation Lifeline Sudan agreement, which was the operational framework and legal basis of all humanitarian agencies prior to the CPA, was mandated to be replaced by the Status of Mission Agreement for UN Agencies and an NGO Regulatory Framework for INGOs.[357] The operational framework has been further complicated for political reasons as many donors and UN agencies have had to practice caution in their cooperation with GoSS in order to not undermine national unity. Consequently, some agency headquarters have increasingly advocated merging planning and monitoring processes for Southern Sudan with overall programming for Sudan.[358]

The funding for operations prior to the CPA was appealed for and received through the annual Work Plan process, mostly for relief activities. Since the CPA, the funding framework for developmental reconstruction activities is supposed to be increasingly from the Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDTF). (See Appendix 5 for more details on MDTF). The

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delays in the release of reconstruction funds through contracts under MDTF, however, have affected the operations of UN agencies and INGOs. As most donors have already contributed to the MDTF, the availability of longer-term development funds has been limited to USAID funding and a handful of other transitional programs including the EC-funded Recovery and Rehabilitation Program.

In the absence of longer-term development funds, the humanitarian organizations have remained dependent on the emergency funding mechanisms of the Sudan Work Plan. The Work Plan for 2006 created the "recovery and development" category as an addition to the conventional "humanitarian action" category. While Southern Sudan has been the recipient of large amounts of emergency funding, the inherently unpredictable nature of funds available through the Sudan Work Plan has remained a major impediment to long-term financial and programmatic planning at this critical period of reconstruction. In the case of UNICEF, the annual Work Plan remains a major source of funding although the organizational planning process is transitioning from an annual to a three-year cycle.[359] Hence, funding remains a challenge in terms of both the mismatch between planning versus funding periods, and the shortfall between requested and received funds. As of September 2006, UNICEF received only 24 percent the amount it appealed for education in Southern Sudan.[360]

In addition to the transition in the operational and funding framework, international actors have also had to change their office locations. Because Juba was declared the capital of Southern Sudan, external actors had to physically move their main offices and administrative staff from Nairobi and Rumbek, the SPLA/M capital, to Juba. Similarly, agencies with parallel management structures in Khartoum and Nairobi during the conflict had to transfer responsibility of those programs in former garrison towns from their Khartoum offices to their newly established offices in Juba.[3361]

A less visible transition has occurred in the characteristics, mindsets, and personnel needs of international agencies in Southern Sudan. The transition from emergency to development operations has brought about more institutionalized administrative procedures and the necessity to work with GoSS in program implementation. The changes in both funding and administrative procedures have slowed operations and required a shift in the mindset of operational personnel. This transition has also created a need for an increasing number of administrative and management personnel based in Juba and an increasing number of operational staff based across Southern Sudan to keep up with the growth in programming. Recruitment processes have been challenging given the difficult living conditions and limited pool of national human resources.

1.4 Transitional Challenges

1.4.1 Returnees

A major challenge to the planning and implementation of reconstruction efforts has been the return of IDPs and refugees. With more than 4 million people displaced during the conflict, the return process not only poses tremendous logistical challenges but also hinders effective planning for physical infrastructure investments. While estimates on numbers and locations of returnees are constantly updated, planning for physical infrastructure without clear information on the final destination of the returnees remains challenging.

Physical infrastructure investments, however, constitute a major pull-factor for IDPs and refugees. Hence, if GoSS and international actors fail to establish adequate pull-factors outside of urban areas, they risk encouraging massive urban migration and creating volatile conditions in town areas. This massive population movement is expected to continue through the scheduled 2007 census, which will determine the voters for the 2011 referendum.

For the education sector, accommodating the needs of the returnees will require increased provision of school facilities whether permanent structures, semi-permanent structures or tents. It will also require appropriate measures to address the diverse backgrounds of the returnees in terms of their language, culture, prior education, and psychosocial needs. Large returnee populations also hamper planning efforts by creating unpredictable fluctuations in school enrollment. These

fluctuations introduce variables making both adequate supply of educational inputs, and monitoring and evaluation of program outcomes problematic.

1.4.2 Physical Conditions

The physical conditions in Southern Sudan present a uniquely imposing challenge for reconstruction operations. Interviews with UN agencies, INGOs and donors in Southern Sudan time and again highlighted transportation as the biggest challenge to ongoing operations for the delivery of goods and services, as well as monitoring activities. The lack of accessible road networks in the region either completely restricts logistical operations, or makes them extraordinarily expensive and time-consuming. Until a stable transportation infrastructure is built in Southern Sudan, costs of school construction, supply delivery, teacher training, and monitoring projects will continue to be vastly inflated as a result of transport expenditures. Air operations enable access only to those few spots with a functioning airstrip. Similarly, climatic conditions remain a major determinant of the schedule of both delivery operations and schooling especially in the rural areas. Because heavy rains make many dirt roads impassible, certain operations come to an absolute halt during the rainy season. [362] Children with long distances to travel frequently cannot get to school during the rainy season.[363]

1.4.3 Security

Reconstruction efforts have suffered in the face of a fragile peace and a fluctuating security situation. The fragility of the peace agreement and its implementation has made planning for reconstruction particularly challenging, especially as tension over oil fields and revenues and the fighting of un-integrated armed groups continue. Sporadic attacks by the Lord's Resistance Army and inter-clan conflicts have made operations extremely difficult. Prevention and/or interruption of access to certain areas, and the necessity of using armed convoys in others, delay implementation plans, disrupt operational continuity in service delivery, and hinder monitoring efforts. For example, during the month of September 2006 certain areas in Jonglei, Unity, Warab, and Lakes states were inaccessible, and traveling in several areas of the Greater Equatoria required armed convoys.[364] More recently, any travel by UN personnel to the areas east and southeast of Juba has been prohibited.

The destructive legacy of the 21-year civil conflict presents seemingly insurmountable obstacles for development of the education sector. The challenges of the transitional context illustrate why in the short term Southern Sudan is unlikely to meet the Millennium Development Goals of providing universal access to primary education and increasing gender equality. However, a close study of Southern Sudan's education sector unveils promising potentials. Strong, embedded and sustained commitment to education describes the government's pre-CPA and current efforts in the education sector. Similarly, the continuous engagement of international stakeholders in the peace period adds significant financial and technical capital to the government's efforts. Against this uniquely challenging backdrop, the complementary and effective collaboration between GoSS and the international stakeholders will be key to the successful development of the education sector in Southern Sudan.

2. The GoSS Education System

The Government of Southern Sudan exhibits clarity in planning its policies and programs, but faces significant challenges with regards to administering and financing the education system in accordance with these plans and policies. GoSS has formulated in detail a decentralized system of administration and financing that largely falls in line with its planning objectives for the education system. GoSS has also taken major steps in the areas of curriculum development, coordination of the education sector, and education policy formulation.

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2.1 Administering the Education System

GoSS has a decentralized system of governance that consists of a national level, a state level and a local level (county/payam).[365] For the education system, MoEST serves as the policymaker in setting the education budget and developing the curriculum. Created in October 2005, MoEST is working with the State Ministries of Education (MoE) to establish institutional capacity at state and county levels as part of the decentralization process. (See Appendix 6 and 7 for organizational charts of MoEST and State Ministry of Education). MoEs are responsible for funding distribution to counties, human resources recruitment and development, school-community relationship building, and data collection and processing.[366] The State MoEs are also responsible for monitoring the counties and reporting to the central government. Finally, County Education Offices are responsible for implementing central and state government policies.

This decentralized system necessitates strong multi-level coordination between local, state, and national levels. In construction for example, the states are responsible for mapping out sites and constructing temporary and semi-permanent buildings while the national government and partners agencies construct the permanent buildings.[367] For curriculum, the national government designs a common curriculum and the states have the authority to adapt it to suit their context and emphasize different areas.[368]

While decentralization is a progressive long term goal, current capacity challenges make implementation difficult. Since 2005, GoSS has taken major steps towards the establishment of an administrative structure with clear definitions of decentralized responsibilities between national, state and county levels. However, many state governments have to carry out their responsibilities with limited staff and resources. MoEST is also subject to many of the same constraints as the states. MoEST is currently operating out of a few prefabricated office spaces while a building is being renovated for its use. The biggest challenge for MoEST will be to ensure that lower positions in the government offices are created and staffed with qualified personnel.

In order to address capacity issues in the system, several partners such as SC-UK, EC and UNICEF have seconded technical experts to MoEST. Similarly, the diaspora program funded by USAID has seconded returning Southern Sudanese to state-level ministries. A component of the Multi-Donor Education Rehabilitation Project proposal addresses this issue by proposing long-term technical assistance to MoEST at two levels. Generic training programs for personnel will be provided at the administration and management level, and institutional capacity development of curriculum and examination centers at the teaching level.

2.2 Financing the Education System

The financial resources for the education system are derived from domestic funds and foreign aid. Oil revenue comprises nearly the entire GoSS revenue base, as oil revenues are split evenly between the north and south, and there is a minimal tax base in Southern Sudan. The availability of oil revenues presents a tremendous opportunity for investing in human and economic development,[369] though there is concern over whether the Government of National Unity (GoNU) will deliver the agreed share of the oil revenue. The fluctuations in oil prices and the limited transparency around oil revenues also create uncertainty for the financial stability of GoSS.[370] Foreign aid is provided through the MDTF, which is administered by the World Bank, and through technical assistance grants from international development partners.[371] The financial capacity and operations of GoSS have been further complicated by the delays in the implementation of programs funded by the MDTF.

Funds for the education sector constitute 10.7percent of the GoSS overall budget.[372] While budget estimates have varied significantly across various planning documents of SoE and MoEST, the revenue for the education sector was projected to be around 150 million USD in 2006.[373]

In accordance with the constitutional requirement that resources be equitably allocated to all states "without discrimination",[374] education funds are to be distributed to the states either directly or indirectly through MoEST. In this context, direct allocation supports salaries for educational staff, other recurring costs, and capital costs. Indirect allocation includes funds for school construction and rehabilitation, as well as textbook printing and distribution. According to budget projections for 2006, only about one percent of funds were allocated toward financing MoEST's operation and activity at the national level.[375] One-third of the funds were directly allocated, and two-thirds were indirectly allocated to the states.

2.3 Planning the Education System

Originally SoE and now MoEST have established coherent and comprehensive planning practices that have materialized in the 2002-2007 Education Master Plan and the 2005-2011 Strategic Plan and Policies for the Education Sector. Other important planning documents include the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) report and the MDTF proposal for the education sector. The Multi-Donor Education Rehabilitation Project proposal is clearly linked to the 2005-2011 Strategic Plan and Policies for the Education Sector, which has strong linkages to the JAM report – itself based on earlier strategic plans.[376] The critical component of this continuous development process is that education policies are directly derived from education planning documents, producing continuity and consistency in policy and program targeting and planning. This lays an important groundwork for future capacity building and cooperation.

The most recent of these planning documents, the 2005-2011 Strategic Plan and Policies, outlines the goals, objectives, and strategies of the education sector as follows:

1. Increasing access to education
Objectives: Increase enrollment to 41 percent for general population and 30 percent for girls; reduce dropouts for girls 20 percent; enroll 15 percent of out of school children in ALP, 10-20 percent of adults in adult education, and 50 percent of SPLA soldiers in alternative education.
Strategies: Build more schools; focus on girls and early childhood education; increase community ownership of schools; expand ALP; improve teacher training; and implement appropriate technology.

2. Quality and relevant education
Objectives: Increase the overall quality of education; implement technical and vocational education focusing on practical skills; establish facilities for technical, vocational, secondary, and tertiary education; increase teacher education and development; implement an examination and certification system for students.
Strategies: Develop infrastructure; integrate technical curriculum in education; build schools; provide continuous teacher development; provide tertiary education.

3. Equity in provision
Objective: Fairness and achievement of regional, gender, and ethnic balance.
Strategies: Focus on underprivileged/hard to reach areas and on girls and women; apply alternative modes of education

4. Enhanced local capacity for ownership and sustainability
Objectives: Capacity building at all levels; fostering of discipline, work ethic, and self-reliance.
Strategies: Develop human resources; strengthen capacity of authorities and institutions; strengthen community organizations (such as PTAs); develop and operationalize local financing and support schemes; develop entrepreneurial talent; develop infrastructure.

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2.4 Curriculum

2.4.1 Curriculum Development

SPLA/M initiated the formulation of an education policy for Southern Sudan in 1992. Subsequently, the curriculum development process began in September 1993 in Lokichoggio where experienced teachers came together to deliberate on a curriculum development process.[377]

Prior to the CPA, the Curriculum Steering Committee (CSC) was set up to coordinate and monitor the development of curricula, syllabi, textbooks, teacher guides, and other relevant materials.[378] A large number of teachers, subject experts, and experts from neighboring countries participated in the development of the syllabi.[379] ACROSS was contracted to develop the curriculum while the Sudan Library Center was contracted to develop the subject areas under the supervision of the CSC.[380] In 2002, the CSC published syllabus for primary schools volume 1 and 2 (for classes P1-P5 and P6-P8 respectively). The curriculum has been completed for Primary 1-4 but only for the core subject areas of English, Math, Science, Social Studies, and Agriculture. Close to four million textbooks based on this curriculum were printed and distributed by UNICEF for the 2006 education year.

The curriculum for P5-8 was also completed in 2006 but has yet to be printed. MoEST has contracted MacMillan Publishing Company to prepare the second edition of the P1-4 curriculum, edit the P5-8 curriculum, and publish both.[381] There is no contract in place for future textbook distribution. Printing may be subcontracted to several printing companies to speed up the process.[382] MoEST will continue to develop curriculum for non-core subjects, and more funding is expected to be available for curriculum development under MDTF.[383]

There has yet to be a full review of the curriculum from the perspective of non-cognitive components. UNICEF in cooperation with other UN Agencies plans to conduct such a review when all subject materials are all completed in 2007 to ensure that life skills, gender education, and psychosocial issues are integrated.

2.4.2 Curriculum Transition

Given the multiple curricula used prior to the CPA, a transitional policy has been put in place at the primary school level for the 2006-2009 period to meet the needs of students in the former garrison towns and other areas formerly controlled by the Government of Sudan. According to this transitional policy,[384] English pattern primary schools began introducing the Government of Southern Sudan curriculum in P1 and P2 as soon as it became available. Arabic pattern schools started introducing the GoSS curriculum in P1 and P2 on April 1, 2006. By 2007, all schools in Southern Sudan are expected to follow the GoSS curriculum for P1-4. For P5-8, schools will continue teaching those grades currently using the Government of Sudan curricula until 2009, phasing out one grade each year.

Implementing the new curricula and new subjects means that all teachers will need additional professional development. A staggered implementation is suggested as a strategy to reduce the scale of the training challenge.[385]

2.4.3 Analysis of Primary School Curriculum

2.4.3.1 Objectives

The *Education Sector Plan of the New Sudan* describes New Sudan as requiring "a literate population that is educated, conscious of its rights, tolerant of others, actively participating in the governing of its life, and working together to eliminate the cycle of poverty." The guiding principles of the education system, therefore, require that education be accessible to all children and that the system integrate peace education, respect for diversity, promotion of skills and knowledge to enhance national development, awareness of human and child rights, and cultural development.

The following are the objectives of primary education as listed in the curriculum:[386]

a) To enable the learner to acquire skills of numeracy, literacy and communication

b) To inculcate in the learner good health habits

c) To develop in the learner the cultural, moral, and spiritual values of life

d) To promote acquisition of skills for making a living, respect for work, and attitudes to protect public and private property

e) To instill in the learner the spirit of unity, nationalism, tolerance, and respect for others

f) To develop the basic faculties and abilities of the individual by stimulating initiative, creativity, objectivity, and rationality

g) To inculcate in the learner the understanding of, and appreciation for, conservation and utilization of environment

h) To nurture in the learner a positive attitude of self-reliance, cooperation, and interdependence

i) To create awareness of one's rights, obligations, and civic responsibilities

j) To inspire the learner to appreciate lifelong learning.

2.4.3.2 Content and Method

The subject structure and periods per week for primary education is as follows:[387]

	Mother Tongue	English	Kiswahili	Arabics	Mathematics	Science	Religious Ed.	Home Science	Arts and Crafts	Social Science	Music	Physical Ed.	Agriculture	Business Ed.
P1	10	5	-	-	5	4	4	-	2	4	1	5	-	-
P2	10	5	-	-	5	4	4	-	2	4	1	5	-	-
P3	10	5	-	-	5	4	4	-	2	4	1	5	-	-
P4	4	8	5	-	7	4	4	3	4	4	2	3	3	-
P5	2	7	4	4	7	4	3	3	4	4	2	3	3	-
P6	2	7	4	4	7	4	3	3	2	4	2	2	4	2
P7	2	7	4	4	7	4	3	3	2	4	2	2	4	2
P8	2	7	4	4	7	4	3	3	2	4	2	2	4	2

The objectives of the curriculum place a strong emphasis on the non-cognitive components of learning such as self-reliance skills, civic rights and responsibilities, cultural and religious values, and creativity. In the absence of a full review of teaching materials and teacher training manuals, it remains difficult to comprehensively assess how the subject materials will fulfill these objectives, especially when non-cognitive outcomes require a more holistic approach than just inclusion as a subject.

A quick review of P1-P4 textbooks for social science reveals that the objectives for cultural value and nationalism remain at the forefront of the curriculum for this subject. The science curriculum, on the other hand, addresses other objectives of the curriculum such as inculcating good health habits and an understanding of environment. In its analysis of the science curriculum, the Sudan Basic Education Sub-Sector Study highlights particularly the emphasis on the practical aspects of science, the inclusion of a sub-unit on HIV in the health education unit, and the presence of a unit on environment as positive points.

Another analysis has highlighted the knowledge-oriented nature of the curriculum where subjects are many in number and heavy in content.[388] The same analysis contends that the language subjects take up too many teaching periods at the expense of other learning domains.[389] While practical skills are dispersed over a number of subjects, they suffer from a lack of integration and streamlining.

The inclusion of arts and crafts, music, and physical education as compulsory areas of study is a positive step given their contribution to the wholesome development of a child and his/her psychosocial wellbeing. It is important to note, however, that the objectives of the curriculum do not make any direct reference to the role of primary education in addressing the psychosocial needs of the children who have experienced war and displacement. Considering most of the students in Southern Sudan have had some level of traumatic experience from violence, displacement, or extreme poverty, the absence of discussions on the psychosocial support role of education is worrying. Schools remain the only spaces in Southern Sudan where children's psychosocial needs can be addressed systematically. In the absence of a holistic approach to learning that focuses on the psychosocial wellbeing of students, children are less likely to learn, less likely to remain in school and less likely to become productive members of society.

UNICEF has recently begun to work with local NGOs to systematically identify vulnerable populations and determine what life skills need to be integrated into the curriculum, not only for the students, but also for teachers, parents, and community members.[390] Components of life skills may include self-understanding, communication, peace building, critical thinking, HIV/AIDS education, and gender-based violence.

Overall, however, the curriculum development process is near completion and even a major partner like UNICEF sees its role as limited to reviewing the content of the curriculum for aspects of gender equality and child friendliness. This role highlights the need to adapt the curriculum to the various needs of the students. For example, the large population of returnee children will require a modular curriculum that enables them to be co-opted into the school system at any point during the school year. Establishing a flexible curriculum will be necessary to effectively meet their needs.

A review of P1-P4 textbooks for core subjects demonstrates that participatory methods and self-learning methods are encouraged through the inclusion of activities and exploratory questions at the end of each unit. The paucity of teaching materials, equipment, and facilities, as well as the limited training opportunities for teachers remain major challenges to the effective implementation of these teaching methods.

In an effort to overcome these limitations of teacher training and teaching materials, USAID initiated the Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) program in 2004 in partnership with the Education Development Center in Nairobi. The program provides support to teachers through radio instruction based on the MoEST curriculum for English and mathematics subjects. IRI has proven to be effective as a tool for improving education quality in various countries including Kenya and Bolivia, and its implementation in Southern Sudan is a positive development.[391]

2.4.3.3 Evaluation and Assessment

Although the National Center for Curriculum Development and Education Research is supposed to be responsible for the Basic Education Certificate Examination, there is currently no comprehensive system in place for assessment and examination. The Education Rehabilitation Project proposes to "hire a consultant to facilitate exam setters, exam managers, and exam processors to train staff and design the examination certificate process for primary and secondary levels," all of which are state level responsibilities.[392] Yet, as of April 2006, numerous states still did not have examination boards and P8 exams were conducted at the school level instead of the state level.[393] Because exams are not available, students travel to neighboring countries, such as Uganda, which can cost up to 270 USD per student including travel costs and examination fees.[394]

2.5 Coordinating the Education System

MoEST is the lead coordinator for the education system. It encourages partners to fill in funding and programmatic gaps in line with the priorities of the Ministry.[395]

The Southern Sudan education sector is coordinated through five forums:

1. Thematic working groups – construction, teacher education, higher education, secondary education, primary education, alternative learning programs, vocational/technical education.
2. Planning, monitoring and evaluation (PM&E) working group
3. State coordination forums
4. Southern Sudan Education Coordination Forum
5. Education Reconstruction and Development Forum (ERDF)

Thematic working groups establish lead partners for coordinating planning and service delivery, while the PM&E working group creates opportunity for government-donor coordination. The ERDF is the primary coordinating forum for all partners and stakeholders to create linkages and exchange information.[396]

2.6 Education Policies

The GoSS education policy is guided by a rights-based approach of providing equal access to a universal and free primary education. Three areas of policy support this mandate. They concern free education, language of instruction, and gender equality.

2.6.1 Guiding Laws

The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan indicates that "education is a right for every citizen and all levels of government in Southern Sudan shall provide access to education without discrimination as to religion, race, ethnicity, HIV status, gender, or disability." It also indicates that "all levels of government in Southern Sudan shall promote education at all levels and shall ensure free and compulsory education at the primary level; they shall also provide free illiteracy eradication programs."[397] Such policies are clearly manifested in MoEST's mission statement: "We cherish education for all our people equally and aim to provide a lifelong education for all children and adults of Southern Sudan, an education that is relevant and based on the needs of the people, to enable them to be responsible and productive citizens."[398]

These policies are also a direct outgrowth of the principles laid down in the pre-CPA period by SPLA/M. The *2002 Education Policy of the New Sudan and Implementation Guidelines* established many of the same principles under the SoE. These policies, which are directly in line with UNICEF's core policy directives, are also evidence of early and sustained capacity building support from UNICEF and SBEP.

2.6.2 Specific Policies

2.6.2.1 Free Education
The official GoSS policy is to provide free primary education to all children. However, free education does not preclude community cost sharing.[399] As a result, some schools require various fees, with some exceptions for poor children. At Buluk A, for example, there is a 10,000 Sudanese Pound (1,000 Sudanese Dinars or about 5 USD) registration fee and a 1,000 Sudanese Pound (100 Dinars or about 0.5 USD) per month fee for cooking supplies for feeding. School uniforms are also generally required. At both Buluk A and Juba One Girls, the uniform requirement is waived for the first couple months if the student demonstrates need, after which it becomes mandatory.[400] Sometimes Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) will provide uniforms for needy families. Particularly in rural communities cost sharing can take the form of community provision of construction material and labor.

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2.6.2.2 Language policy

While the Interim Constitution makes clear that the indigenous and tribal languages of Southern Sudan are to be "respected, developed, and promoted," English is the official working language and is mandatory in the education system.[401] According to official policy, primary school is to be taught in indigenous languages until the third year, with English as a required subject. From the fourth year on, all instruction is to be in English, with indigenous languages as a subject through the eighth year and Arabic and Kiswahili as a subject beginning in the fourth year.

While indigenous languages are supposed to be the language of instruction until the third year, MoEST educational materials are available only in English. This will result in a period of English-only instruction in primary schools. In Arabic pattern schools in the former garrison towns, there has been a phased transition from Arabic to English instruction.[402] By the beginning of the 2007 school year, Arabic will be officially phased out.[4003]

2.6.2.3 Gender Policy

Gender equity policy has been consistently included in SoE and MoEST planning and policy documents. The most recent *2005-2010 Strategic Plan and Policies for the Education Sector* states that "emphasis shall be placed on girls' education in order to achieve equality in education." This is the official gender equity policy. The same document lists the following implementation guidelines:[404]

- *Establishment of a department for girls' and female teacher education and female teacher development*
- *Sensitization of the community with regard to girls' education*
- *Formulation of regulations for deterring culture hindering girls' access to education*
- *Encouraging boarding schools for girls' especially upper primary and secondary schools*
- *Provision of scholarships for girls and female teachers*
- *Establishment of pre-schools and enrolment of girls*
- *Reducing entry age for girls*
- *Affirmative action programs such as quotas*
- *Adopting deterrent measures against early drop-outs including early marriages*

3. Education Interventions and UNICEF

The education programs in Southern Sudan have a dual focus on both supply-side and demand-side interventions. While in some areas supply-side interventions include expanding existing educational capacity and building quality, in most of the areas in Southern Sudan it requires building facilities and training education personnel where none previously existed. Demand-side interventions, on the other hand, target communities and children in order to facilitate access to education services.

This section of the report outlines the major supply-side and demand-side interventions in Southern Sudan that are either supported or implemented by UNICEF. The first part of this section describes the various programs and the challenges they face. For primary education, GoSS and UNICEF launched the Go to School Campaign (GTS) in 2006 as the centerpiece of efforts to build the primary education system. In addition to GTS, GoSS and its partners have promoted programs to open up access to previously marginalized and hard-to-reach groups. Such programs include the Accelerated Learning Program (ALP), Community Girls' Schools (CGS), and the Girls' Education Movement (GEM). Agencies also seek to enhance and sustain the demand for schooling by introducing programs such as school feeding and scholarship initiatives.

The second part of this section describes the operational measures that are necessary to make education programs effective. The four main operational measures are procurement and distribution of materials, school construction, teacher training and remuneration, and program evaluation. Analyzing both program inputs and operations provides a clearer picture of the efforts on the ground.

3.1 Program Inputs

3.1.1 Go to School Campaign

GoSS and UNICEF launched the Go to School (GTS) Campaign in Juba on April 1, 2006 with the overall goal to ensure that 1.5 million children will be enrolled in primary school by 2007.[405] Target setting under GTS was developed without access to reliable baseline data and was therefore more of an estimation than a systematic target-setting exercise.[406] According to RALS completed in May 2006 as part of GTS, 700,448 students are currently enrolled in primary-level education across Southern Sudan. Supply delivery, construction of new schools, rehabilitation of existing schools, provision of tents, and the recruitment and training of new teachers constitute the other components of GTS.

The Minister of Education, Science, and Technology captured the importance of GTS to the government's efforts to build the education system when he said, "We cannot allow children to continue sit under a tree."[407] Only 18 percent of all learning spaces in Southern Sudan are in permanent structures and 36 percent of all learning spaces are in the open air.[408]

UNICEF has faced massive challenges during the implementation of GTS. One of these challenges that UNICEF has successfully overcome is the transportation of educational materials, kits, and textbooks from abroad into Southern Sudan and their timely delivery from storage points to children via trucks, air transport, barges, animals, and even human carriers.[409] In 2006 alone more than 3.8 million textbooks, teacher guides, and basic school supplies have been delivered under GTS. According to RALS, most learning spaces now have access to learning materials. Another key challenge that UNICEF has successfully addressed is the mobilization and involvement of the states, counties, and payams for the implementation of the GTS components. Part of these mobilization efforts included the preparation of 84 county micro-plans for GTS implementation with UNICEF support.[410] Finally, the successful completion of the RALS exercise under GTS represents a major accomplishment of information gathering given enormous constraints.

Also under the GTS campaign, UNICEF has set a goal to create 1,500 new learning spaces in 2006, and recruit and train 9,000 teachers to accommodate the increasing number of students in primary schools.[411] These two components of GTS have proven to be particularly difficult and will be taken up later in this section.

> **Go to School Highlights**
> • 700,448 students are currently enrolled in primary-level education across Southern Sudan as of May 2006.
> • RALS, as a component of GTS, was successfully completed in May 2006.
> • More than 3.8 million textbooks and teacher's guides and basic school supplies have been delivered under GTS, allowing most learning spaces to have access to materials.
> • Eighty-four country micro-plans for GTS implementation have been prepared.

3.1.2 Girls' Education

UNICEF implements complementary strategies to promote girls' education in Southern Sudan. Since 2002, Community Girls' Schools (CGS) have been the primary strategy to promote access and equality in girls' education. CGS have been strengthened by the recent initiation of Girls' Education Movement (GEM) program as well as the Program for Advocacy for Girls' Education (PAGE) and the Gender in Education Policy and Program (GEPP). Together these four strategies promote the objectives set out for girls' education.[412]

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3.1.2.1 Community Girls' Schools (CGS)

Started in 2002 by UNICEF as the Village Girls Primary School Project, CGS Program is designed to increase girls' enrollment in primary school. Based on the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) model, the project has developed an innovative curriculum that allows for the completion of the first four years of primary school education in three years. The CGS curriculum is child-centered with a strong emphasis on the non-cognitive components of education. Teaching aids, co-curricular activities, child psychology, parent-teacher relations, and mother tongue are particularly highlighted as part of the teacher training program for CGS.[413]

The CGS project has experimented with different modalities of community participation in support of girls' primary education in an effort to identify effective interventions for implementation on a national scale. Project sites have been selected in areas without easily accessible learning spaces.[414] UNICEF, as the leader of CGS, has worked with over 30 agencies for the establishment of CGS. In 2005, UNICEF supported a total of 393 CGS, benefiting 11,800 girls.[415]

As of December 2006, UNICEF provides ongoing funding to CGS supported by the German National Committee in Lakes, Western Equatoria, and Northern Bahr el Ghazal states. As of April 2006, UNICEF discontinued paying teacher salaries as the government has agreed to assume this responsibility for both regular and community schools.[416] This is a positive step towards sustaining the development effort in the education sector.

Despite its successes, the implementation of CGS has provided second-rate facilities for girls, which does not advance the cause of equality. Before 2006, community classrooms for girls were constructed as temporary shelters. Because these one-room, thatched classrooms have to be rebuilt almost every year after the rainy season, they have become quite costly. Consequently, UNICEF plans to construct permanent two-classroom structures with girl-friendly facilities. Although these structures cost about twice as much as temporary structures, long term cost savings and the benefits of the improved environment created by the new structures will outweigh the initial outlay.[417] Overall, the CGS program is a supply-side strategy to promote girls' education, and a revitalization of CGS through physical design and implementation will signal UNICEF's continued commitment to providing and expanding access to education.

3.1.2.2 Girls' Education Movement (GEM)

UNICEF's second strategy aims to address the demand for primary education among girls. The GEM strategy has been incorporated into the CFS framework to increase enrollment, retention, and participation of girls in school in eighteen African countries.[418] According to UNICEF's Chief Education Officer, "GEM is not just about girls – it is about empowering girls."[419] While GEM does not directly address provision of education for girls, it is a critical tool for outreach and advocacy. GEM seeks to address the root of the inequality in education access – skewed power relations manifested in the education system can only be addressed through empowering girls and involving boys as strategic allies. GEM is considered a revolutionary tool for creatively facilitating gender empowerment in Africa.[420]

Workshops organized under GEM leverage peer support to come up with creative ways to identify out of school children, and bring them back to school.[421] Participants for the GEM clubs are recruited from primary schools, secondary schools, and youth groups at a ratio of three girls to two boys. Initiated by UNICEF in 2006 as a new initiative for girls' education, GEM is now active in five out of ten states.[422]

3.1.2.3 Program for Advocacy for Girls' Education (PAGE) and Gender in Education Policy and Program (GEPP)

Besides GEM, UNICEF utilizes PAGE to advocate awareness and support for girls' education at the highest levels of government and society, including advocacy from the President and First Lady. In addition, under GEPP, UNICEF has lobbied GoSS for the creation of a Thematic Working Group on Gender and Social Change, which will further highlight issues of gender equality. UNICEF has also agreed to advocate for expanding the Women into Teaching (WIT) pilot project underway in some counties in Northern Bahr el Ghazal.[423]

3.1.3 Other Major Education Interventions

Other major education interventions that are not directly implemented by UNICEF include the Accelerated Learning Program and School Feeding Program.

3.1.3.1 Accelerated Learning Program (ALP)

While UNICEF is not an implementer of ALP, the program provides an important linkage for meeting UNICEF's efforts towards equal access. ALP was designed by the Center for International Education at the University of Massachusetts under SBEP, and has been implemented through partner agencies such as Save the Children – UK (SC-UK) and the Norwegian Refugee Council since 2002. The program was designed to allow completion of eight-years of primary-level education in four years and targeted older out-of-school adolescents and youth. ALP interventions have generally proven to be successful and have become a major part of the education system in Southern Sudan under GoSS.

During the conflict, the ALP did not have a unified curriculum and implementing agencies used any material that was available.[424] Starting in 2001, SoE and SC-UK began to develop a more formal ALP program to address particularly the demobilization of child soldiers.[425] The ALP curriculum has been completed but condensed versions only exist for the four core subjects. Other subjects, including Arabic and religion, are only available in the non-condensed version.

Despite its overall success, recent reports have highlighted some unexpected issues around ALP implementation.[426] The availability of textbooks and other learning materials for ALP programs has led to some traditional-age children switching from standard primary schools to ALP classrooms. Second, MoEST stipulates that ALP programs shall operate at times when primary school classes are not in session in order to maximize usage of limited learning facilities. Currently most ALP programs are run concurrently, if not in competition, with primary school classes. [427] Third, an influx of adult learners above the original target of 13 to 18 years old has in some instances deterred targeted groups from attending.[428] Finally, providing a transition for ALP learners into formal education and/or vocational training programs continues to present an immense challenge. [429] This will entail the development of relevant policies, learning assessment tools, and accreditation procedures.

3.1.3.2 School Feeding Program[430]

The World Food Program (WFP) is the main provider of school feeding in Southern Sudan. WFP currently provides school feeding in Central Equatoria and it plans to expand the service to Western Equatoria in the near future. Given this limited geographic coverage and the sanitation and facility requirements WFP imposes on schools, only 16 percent of schools in all of Southern Sudan are covered under this program.[431] For schools that do not meet the criteria, UNICEF helps with funding and facilitates construction efforts.

WFP also implements community programs such as food for work, food for training, and food for asset to encourage community participation in building the education system at the local level. These programs are implemented for classroom rehabilitation and construction, latrine and feeder road construction, and other school-related activities.

Two issues are worth mentioning with school feeding. First, some children choose to transfer from schools that do not have feeding programs to schools that do. Second, UNICEF has not been able to partner with WFP for delivery of education materials because WFP has largely used private contractors for food delivery. However, as WFP starts to do its own delivery, room for coordination between the two agencies may emerge.

3.2 Operational Measures

3.2.1 Procurement and Distribution of Materials

Procurement and distribution of school materials are immense tasks in their cost and operational challenges.[432] Currently, UNICEF distributes school materials according to a formula that is dependent on each school's level of

student enrollment. To maintain a minimum 2:1 student to textbook ratio, textbooks are distributed in sets of 160. So any school with an enrollment of 320 or less will received one set of 160 books. Because sets are not broken down, the student to textbook ratio could be closer to 1:1 if learning spaces are smaller. This formula simplifies the logistical preparation immensely.[433]

UNICEF's zonal offices work directly with the state ministries and implement distribution plans developed by the ministries. Under this scheme, the zonal offices do not work directly with the schools. Although distribution of school supplies is a difficult task given the lack of road infrastructure, UNICEF has still found itself under immense pressure from schools and state ministries for timely delivery of school materials. Developing ministry distributional capacity will remain a key area for improvement.[434]

In general, UNICEF demonstrates impressive capacity for the procurement and distribution of education materials in difficult terrain. One UNICEF officer, who has worked in several post-conflict countries including Afghanistan and Cambodia, commented on the state of the transportation infrastructure in Southern Sudan as being "the worst of them all." Given this context, UNICEF should be recognized for its success.

3.2.2 School Construction and CFS

Currently, while school rehabilitation and construction are priorities for partner agencies, they remain logistically challenging and financially costly activities. Consequently, in those counties where permanent school facilities exist, the number one priority is to maintain and expand these schools.[435] In all other counties, the need to construct new schools is dire. There is also increasing emphasis on expanding rural schools and boarding schools to prevent in-migration to urban areas given the imminent return of large numbers of IDPs and refugees.[436]
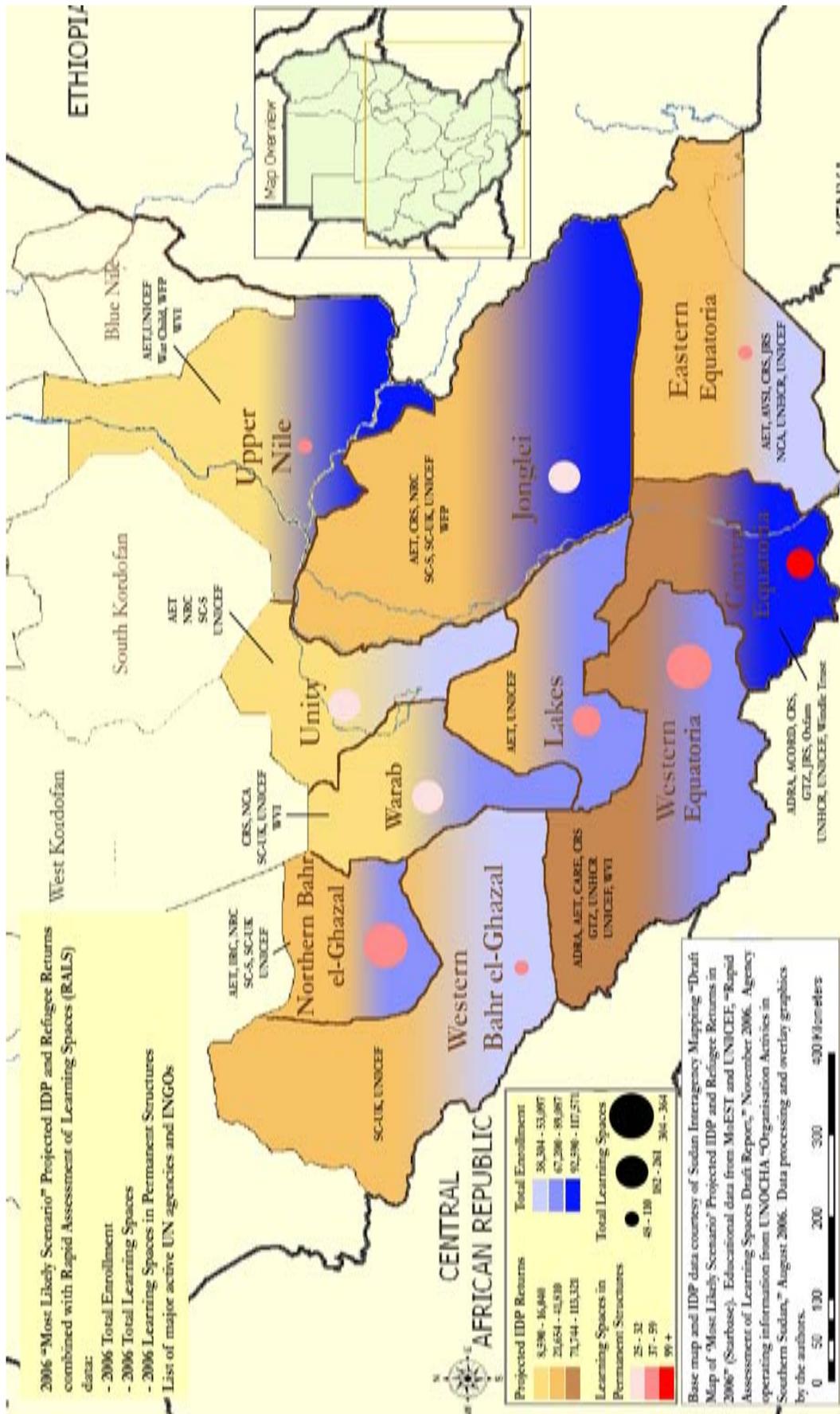
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The main source of funding for school construction will come from the Education Rehabilitation Project (ERP) funded by GoSS and the MDTF. The ERP[437] plans for the rapid assessment of the rehabilitation requirements of schools in former garrison towns and war-affected areas as well as detailed planning of new constructions. Based on this assessment a pool of resources would be made available to rehabilitate and build instructional facilities. These resources would be administered by MoEST. Under the MDTF's school construction component, a Component Working Group (CWG) will approve the list of schools for rehabilitation, the scope of rehabilitation, the cost, and proposed contracting approaches. GoSS plans to start constructing schools under ERP in 2007 and has already set targets for each state.[438] A thematic working group led by the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) has been working on coordination for school construction among international stakeholders and GoSS.[439]

The MoEST Policy Handbook drafted in 2006 outlines infrastructure guidelines for school construction.[440] Some basic guidelines are:

- *Primary schools shall have 8 classrooms, 2 offices, and 1 space for staff, library, etc.*
- *Toilets should be flush for urban schools and ventilated improved pit (VIP) toilets for rural schools. They should be separate for boys and girls, with a safe location for girls' toilets. A separate washing/clean up area must be built for girls.*
- *Rural schools shall be at least 500 meters from the road. Urban schools must provide safe movement on the school ways and safe crossing for children.*
- *Schools must ensure a safe environment by providing: fencing, a safety guard, and garbage disposal sites. Each school will have its own water point and supply. Schools are to be built on legally approved land and involved in the community.*

Although school construction has not been a conventional component of UNICEF programming in other countries, given the unique conditions in Southern Sudan, UNICEF has funded the construction and rehabilitation of several primary schools. As deeply involved as UNICEF is in school construction, it is acknowledged that this area is not one of UNICEF's strengths and thus its involvement is out of necessity.[441] Given the technical limitations and logistical challenges on the ground, UNICEF has not been able to meet its targets for school construction under the Go to School Campaign.

More recently, UNICEF has started to integrate child friendly space (CFS) components into its planned school construction projects. What is notable about UNICEF's CFS designs are the specific details that go into making schools more friendly and conducive to learning and teaching.[442] (See Appendix 8 for more details on CFS.) UNICEF has just completed a tender for 21 schools as of November 2006 with local and international bidding. Every school built by UNICEF must be CFS, though partners may not have the funding to build CFS schools. Thus, there is a tension within the school construction community regarding quantity of provision versus quality of building.

3.2.3 Teacher Training and Remuneration

Teacher training is a high priority for the education sector as only an estimated 6 percent of teachers are qualified and the demand for qualified teachers is multiplying.[443] Presently, the teacher training apparatus is structured to present a menu of options given the diverse qualifications and needs of individual teachers. The two basic approaches of teacher training are pre-service and in-service (See Appendix 9 for schematic representation of the teacher training structure).[444] The focus now is on training teachers who are currently serving but are untrained or under-qualified.[445] In-service training enables teachers to continue teaching while attending training programs. Furthermore, pre-service teacher training programs that are centralized in larger towns have a pull-effect on migration. Focusing on in-service training keeps teachers in the communities where they are most needed.[446] (See Appendix 10 for details on the teacher training program.)

The Education Support Network (ESN) established by MoEST is the main framework for implementing training

programs and services.[447] At the core of ESN are County Education Centers (CECs) where various training programs such as in-service, fast track, and non-formal programs will be coordinated. Currently, the MDTF is expected to fund 20 CECs for program and infrastructure. Under ESN, the CECs are closely linked to the Regional Teacher Training Institutes (RTTIs) where program trainers reach out to counties with technical support and training. However, there are many counties and very few RTTIs, and the RTTIs themselves are facing capacity problems. As a result, there is a need for an alternative source of support for the CECs. Currently, the model is being amended to include the state MoE.

UNICEF has recently started focusing on teacher training and increased its funding for these efforts. UNICEF has been working closely with MoEST, particularly for the design of the Fast Track Training Program. The Fast Track Training Program has been developed as the first step in a career development path for new teachers, most of whom are unqualified. UNICEF has also been active in English language training programs that mainly target teachers in former garrison towns. Windle Trust has been a strong implementing partner of UNICEF in this area of teacher training.[448]

It is unlikely that the urgent demand for teachers and UNICEF's targets for teacher training will be met given the constraints on training and recruiting capacity. The ambitious GTS plan has necessitated an expansion in teacher supply that, in the end, might undermine the emphasis on recruiting and training quality teachers. For instance, the fast track training program was developed as an initiative in response to the rapid expansion in school enrollment.[449] Concerns have been raised about the linkage of fast track with the other programs and the ways to channel teachers trained through fast track into other training programs.[450]

There is also some uncertainty regarding the potential successes of the current recruitment strategy.[451] The mandatory national service method of teacher recruitment proposed by MoEST is likely to encounter major implementation and enforcement problems. As for sourcing teachers from neighboring countries, only 200 of the promised 8000 total teachers have been secured so far from Kenya and Uganda. Moreover, a relatively small number of displaced teachers have expressed a desire to return, leaving recruiting within Southern Sudan as the only option. MoEST has not yet articulated clear guidelines and formulas for recruiting, which has led to uncoordinated recruitment processes among some states. This may lead to an equity problem in teacher distribution.[452]

Teacher remuneration remains a major challenge for establishing an adequate and qualified teacher force. In April 2006, GOSS distributed a one-time payment, which was the first monetary remuneration for teachers in Southern Sudan. This payment was seen largely as an early peace dividend – a reward for teacher volunteers who had served without pay over the past decades. Discussions on the salary system for teachers are currently in progress at the national level. The salary system is expected to be tiered by qualification levels,[453] and state governments have been asked to establish payroll lists.[454] Issues confronting the establishment of a salary system include questions of sustainability, logistics of payment delivery, and the currency of payment. Whether all teachers should be public service personnel and whether minimum education qualifications should be enforced at the time of appointment continue to be debated within the education sector.[455]

Establishing a teacher salary system will depend on the successful implementation of the certification and verification processes.[456] In the pre-CPA period, no enforcement mechanism was in place for a standardized certification system. Various agencies issued different certificates for trainings that varied by length and quality. MoEST is currently trying to integrate a unified certification system. The verification exercise will be critical to setting up the payroll system given the unknown quantity and quality of the existing pool of teachers and the vast expansion of teacher supply in the near future. This will determine levels of pay, minimize the numbers of 'ghost' teachers and help determine training needs. In October 2006, MoEST began to hold workshops with all states and released a manual for the verification process. [457]

3.2.4 Education Data Collection and Information Management

Collection of data specific to the education sector and a general population census are pivotal to planning and monitoring the reconstruction efforts in Southern Sudan. Before the CPA, reliable data collection was nearly impossible making

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strategy and policy planning imprecise. Education data collection began with the Sudan Baseline Assessment (SBA) in 1990s, which was a joint AET and UNICEF effort.[458] Since the first SBA, several other assessments have been conducted with varying degrees of coverage and reliability.

The completion of RALS in 2006 under UNICEF leadership provides dependable baseline information for the formulation of policy and strategy. RALS also constitutes a bridge into the Annual Education Census (AEC). Although AEC was initiated under SBEP in 2005, it has not yet been completed.[459] Poor data collection and problems with integration of information limited the usefulness of the 2005 AEC. RALS is intended to bridge the gap between the pilot AEC and a formalized AEC that will feed into the Education Management and Information System (EMIS). It is important to note that AEC will collect more detailed information and data than RALS.[460] The EMIS and the final report for the 2005/2006 AEC are expected to be completed by February 2007.[461]

A general population census is one of the critical building blocks for reconstruction in Southern Sudan. Population figures are urgently needed for a variety of purposes, including parliament seat allocation, a baseline for polls and surveys, as well as guidelines for prioritizing infrastructure and investment.[462] Without a population census rate metrics cannot be constructed. However, politics related to the upcoming referendum have resulted in strong pushes for delaying the census until after its scheduled date in 2007. In addition, a two-year country-wide household survey is planned, which will allow for comparability between the North and the South. Moreover, the results from the household survey will help put the data from RALS in context.[463] However, the current survey includes only one inadequate indicator for education, making it necessary for UNICEF to conduct another household survey separately.[464]

3.3 Analysis Of UNICEF Education Interventions

3.3.1 Evolving Program Strategy in Southern Sudan from Emergency to Development

Given operational limitations during OLS, the focus of UNICEF's education interventions remained mostly on ensuring access to primary education through supporting school construction, teacher training and supply distribution in pockets of peace. Under OLS, UNICEF also facilitated the introduction of the CGS program based on the BRAC model as part of its goal to increase access for girls. With peace in sight after 2002, UNICEF became increasingly involved in capacity building and strategic planning activities with the Secretariat of Education and also in collaboration with the USAID-funded SBEP consortium, which was the leading stakeholder in the field of education quality at the time. Their activities targeted improvement in the quality of education through curriculum development and teacher training. It was this farsightedness of UNICEF and USAID that enabled the creation of an institutional foundation for education on which the reconstruction efforts are currently building.

Two years after the signing of the CPA, UNICEF has made significant strides in expanding access to primary educations for children. Using the linkages between UNICEF's core policy directives and programming in Southern Sudan, and between UNICEF's programming and their implementation on the ground as the frames of analysis highlights several areas that can be strengthened when going forward.

3.3.2 Linking Core Policy Directives and Programming in Southern Sudan

UNICEF has adapted its core policy directives in guiding its programming in Southern Sudan to respond to the paucity of educational inputs. The four pillars of UNICEF's education program are access, quality, capacity building, and accountability and visibility, and these pillars frame UNICEF's current education interventions to a large extent. However, the sequencing and integration of these pillars have been adapted to respond to the unique challenges on the ground.

The most visible adaptation to UNICEF's policy directives in the context of Southern Sudan has been the separation of access and quality components since the CPA,[465] given the high demand for education and the minimal supply. UNICEF has focused largely on the distribution of school supplies including textbooks, teacher kits, student kits, school

kits, and recreation kits. Although school construction is not part of UNICEF's traditional operations, UNICEF has undertaken various school rehabilitation and construction activities in Southern Sudan in order to respond to the dire supply gap on the ground.

Starting in 2006, however, UNICEF began strengthening its focus on the quality of education, education systems and management structures.[466] New program staff has been recruited and new programs have been designed. Based on the recognition of the need to "build back better," UNICEF has started to become increasingly involved in the development of teacher training programs, the design of child friendly schools, and the creation of a gender education strategy with MoEST. UNICEF also undertook RALS in order to establish a baseline for enrollment, educational facilities and personnel to improve the quality of planning and monitoring activities. Part of the delay in UNICEF's focus on education quality may be explained by the strong presence of the USAID-funded SBEP consortium in this area up until 2006. With the phasing-out of SBEP in 2006, UNICEF is stepping in to take over some of these functions and providing technical support to MoEST.

3.3.2.1 Re-Establishing Basic Education Services.
In line with the policy directive to prioritize basic education, the focus of UNICEF's education programs in Southern Sudan has remained on primary education both during and after the conflict. Although there has been an overall shift in the education sector since CPA to focus on both primary and secondary education,[467] UNICEF has continued to promote only primary education.

3.3.2.2 Improving The Quality Of Education
UNICEF's efforts to promote an education that addresses more than cognitive outcomes are mostly in planning stages. The textbooks that were produced and distributed by UNICEF under the Go To School Campaign were not reviewed extensively for content relating to human rights, peace building, gender equality, or psychosocial support, as that would most likely have led to significant delays in the receipt of textbooks by students and teachers.

There now exists an important window of opportunity for UNICEF to become more actively involved in improving the quality of education in Southern Sudan in line with this policies. UNICEF is certainly well-placed to influence curriculum and teacher training mechanisms both because it funds the production and distribution of textbooks and because MoEST is receptive to inputs from major partners.[468] Two UNICEF program staff members are currently working on teacher training and life skills programs. Yet there is certainly need for more personnel to work on these programs in order for UNICEF to effectively influence government policies and programs to address more than cognitive outcomes. This work is crucial to ensuring that the new education system in Southern Sudan meets the needs of war-affected children and communities. Therefore, UNICEF should consider making appropriate arrangements so that the current program staff receives adequate support to effectively seize this window of opportunity.

3.3.2.3 Taking An Integrated Approach
UNICEF's efforts to promote an integrated approach to education are also in the planning stages. During the OLS period, the nature of access and operation brought about an almost complete separation of operational sectors and hindered inter-sectoral program integration.[469] Since the CPA there have not been substantial internal cross-sectoral integration efforts within UNICEF. The implementation of child-friendly schools in the near future is seen by UNICEF staff as the main opportunity to integrate health, nutrition and child protection components into education.[470] Efforts around external cross-sectoral integration have been more visible, particularly with WFP's school feeding and food for construction programs. Finally, the necessity of inter-sectoral integration has been highlighted in sector-wide program proposals, such as the Education Rehabilitation Program of MDTF,[471] for which UNICEF had provided significant technical assistance.

3.3.2.4 Targeting The Most Vulnerable
UNICEF's efforts in Southern Sudan for targeting the most vulnerable in accordance with its rights-based approach to education, have been mainly limited to internal guidelines for prioritizing interventions and to programs for girls' education. While UNICEF does not have a fixed planning or funding formula given the absence of reliable baseline

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data, prioritization of programs do take into account vulnerable populations by looking at the expected return of IDPs, number of child soldiers and prevalence of nomadic populations using a less systematized scale system.[472] Even when UNICEF prioritizes its program interventions to serve areas with larger numbers of vulnerable populations, however, the final decision for the location of a certain intervention is made through negotiations with MoEST.

UNICEF's efforts in Southern Sudan to improve access and quality for girls' education must be particularly highlighted given the recent expansion in program strategies. For CGS, UNICEF is directing its focus on building more permanent and girl-friendly school structures given that reports prepared in 2005 by Martha Hewison for Education Access Africa and by Elaine Furniss for UNICEF highlighted the problems of quality and integration of CGS into the primary school system.[473] Thus, physical structure asides, there are other critical problems confronting CGS and it is unclear whether in UNICEF's redirection these issues will be addressed. Possible interventions for improvement could focus on establishing stronger integration between community girls' schools and primary schools, improving the quality of teaching in community girls' schools through in-service training programs, and actively enrolling boys in the community schools without losing the focus on girls.

3.3.2.5 Coordinating With Government And Partners

UNICEF's efforts for coordinating with government and partners have been a major success. All the main non-state stakeholders interviewed identified UNICEF as the clear leader in the education sector and as their main partner.[474] Particularly given the delays in major supply-side interventions under MDTF, UNICEF has been described as the agency "holding [the education sector] together," particularly with GTS.[475]

Yet, there are still opportunities for improving coordination and optimizing collaboration. Regarding the development of a fast-track teacher training program, for example, certain partners have raised concerns about the limited consultation process and the consequent confusion.[476] Interviews with UNHCR and WFP highlighted possibilities for further collaboration particularly regarding the distribution of school supplies either as part of non-food item packages for returnees or through WFP's delivery networks. Another possible area of collaboration between WFP and UNICEF is around the construction of the sanitation and water facilities that are requirements for school feeding programs.

In its relations with GoSS, UNICEF has taken on a support role instead of a leadership role, as all UNICEF operations require the approval of GoSS.[477] While the central role of GoSS in policy making is integral to the sustainability of current efforts, it also introduces limitations to UNICEF's ability to influence education policies and practices. MoEST has been receptive to input from UNICEF in areas such as the development of a gender strategy,[478] but it has been less receptive to UNICEF's earlier proposals for school facilities, as it conflicted with the GoSS vision to provide modern, concrete schools for all Southern Sudanese children.[479] Overall, however, the planning and strategy documents of SoE and MoEST closely parallel UNICEF's core policy directives, which has enabled effective collaboration and coordination between the two agencies.

UNICEF's ability to influence policy making and implementation at the national and state level seem to be dependent to a large extent on the personal ability of the staff member working with GoSS officials. Therefore, selection of the appropriate personnel for carrying out the relations with GoSS officials and building their negotiation and facilitation skills through coaching or training may be a valuable investment for UNICEF.

3.3.3 Linking Programming and Implementation in the Field

Effective implementation of UNICEF programming throughout Southern Sudan is uniquely challenging given the immense size of the target area as well as problems of inaccessibility and limited human resources. While the design of several UNICEF service programs takes place at the national level in Juba, their implementation occurs through a partnership between the zonal offices and the local education officials. By 2007, UNICEF Southern Sudan will have six zonal offices located in Malakal, Rumbek, Wau, Yambio, Juba and Aweil. Each zonal office is proposed to have an education program officer and an education assistant program officer. Recruitment and relocation processes are ongoing for several of the positions at the zonal offices as well as in the Juba program support office.

For UNICEF services to reach learners in the way they were envisioned by the program designers, there has to be coherent communication and effective monitoring processes between all levels of implementation including national staff, zonal staff, MoEST, state and county education officers, and schools. A common vision and uniform understanding of UNICEF policies has to be established across all these levels of implementation. A feedback mechanism is necessary as well to ensure that this vision and these policies are able to adapt to the changing realities on the ground.

During visits to schools and implementing agencies, the authors of the report observed certain instances where there were visible discrepancies between program design and implementation. Examples included a UNICEF zonal staff member providing policy information to a school about textbooks that was inconsistent with the original policy, a dusty recreational kit locked up in the storage room of a school indicating that it was not being used in accordance with its purpose, and a local organization unaware of UNICEF services available to schools, such as tent provision. Particularly with tent provision, authors of the report were able to observe a wide variation in the level of effectiveness of the intervention.[480] Some of these discrepancies between program design and implementation can be overcome through the introduction of relatively straightforward information and transparency tools while others require more institutional efforts.

UNICEF Southern Sudan is conscious of these problems of implementation and is currently in the process of establishing more effective monitoring and feedback mechanisms. Each zonal office is to strengthen its own monitoring and evaluation system in 2007 through the systematization of the now ad hoc end-user monitoring surveys. Such surveys and other monitoring instruments can encourage more regular visits to schools by zonal offices and the timely identification of and response to problematic implementation practices. Efforts are also in place to introduce a results-based management model in UNICEF Southern Sudan in coming years.

4. Lessons Learned and Suggestions Going Forward

4.1 Strengthening the Link between UNICEF Policies and Programs

• *Supporting education quality through technical assistance*

UNICEF has recently begun to work more directly with MoEST to ensure that new programs address more than cognitive outcomes for children. Support for the development of the teacher training programs and the creation of life skills training programs have been the main UNICEF interventions guided by this commitment to quality education.

Currently, there are only two program officers working on these initiatives. In recognition of the importance of these programs, UNICEF has begun to recruit additional staff to support their work. Given the time pressure on designing these programs and the difficulty in recruiting qualified staff quickly, UNICEF may seek the option of contracting consultants to strengthen its efforts.

Technical consultants could play a key role in helping analyze several key components of teacher training programs and life skills training programs. They include:

- teacher training guides, supplementary materials, and radio programming to facilitate child-centered teaching even in the absence of close supervision;
- appropriate monitoring systems to ensure that contracted NGOs carry out fast-track training programs at CECs and transfer child-centered teaching methodology to teachers effectively;
- determining the most effective means of implementing life skills training programs, among the options of offering as a complementary subject, incorporating into existing subjects, or integrating into school clubs' activities;
- models for teacher support networks in urban and rural areas.

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• Capitalizing on the "window of opportunity" to improve education quality

The current national emphasis on teacher training provides a window of opportunity for UNICEF to proactively promote CFS. UNICEF has the opportunity to engage in the development process of the teacher training materials and advocate for the incorporation of psychosocial and child-friendly elements in the final product.

 Based on the idea that good teaching and learning practices are good psychosocial practices, UNICEF can seize the opportunity to encourage child-centered teaching and learning practices in teachers. UNICEF can support NGOs that implement teacher training programs to incorporate psychosocial components into their teaching methodology for teachers. If teachers observe first-hand learner-centered models of teaching methodology in their own trainings, they will be able to internalize and apply these new concepts more easily. The English training program for teachers implemented by Windle Trust may be an appropriate pilot project for this approach.

Training teachers to use recreation kits not simply as "sports equipment" but as a tool to address the psychosocial well-being of children is one way to promote non-cognitive outcomes. To successfully capitalize on this opportunity, effective entry points in the teacher training apparatus need to be identified. Fast track training programs and Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) teacher training programs emerge as possible entry points. Alternatively, GEMs could use recreation kits in their efforts to create a child-centered school environment and mobilize students for activities.

Although the development of the national curriculum is almost complete for the core subjects, UNICEF still has the opportunity to focus on the content of non-core subjects through seconding technical expertise to the curriculum development process. Through its involvement, UNICEF can ensure that the curricula for the non-core subjects are flexible and modular to address the needs of highly mobile returnee children and nomadic children.

• Developing a clear roadmap for cross-sectoral integration within UNICEF

Child Friendly Schools provide the primary framework for cross-sectoral integration within UNICEF. Promoting this critical integration will require a coordinated and planned approach. UNICEF should continue to advance the process of cross-sectoral integration, focusing on the development of a clear roadmap for implementation.

4.2 Strengthening the Link between Programs and Implementation

• Developing and coordinating the usage of standardized systems

A possible response to the challenge of accurate information flow from UNICEF to schools on UNICEF policies and services is the preparation of information sheets to be distributed with the textbook delivery process and to be displayed publicly in the school. Similarly, UNICEF can improve information flow to local NGOs and CBOs regarding its policies and programs by distributing pamphlets. UNICEF can also encourage the preparation of similar information sheets and pamphlets on WFP school feeding programs and State MoE's policies.

UNICEF is currently in the process of establishing more effective and systematic monitoring and feedback mechanisms. Experiences from other UNICEF country programs may present readily-available tools and systems to facilitate this process. UNICEF could investigate whether tools available in other countries could be adapted to the Southern Sudan context.

• Conducting internal human resource development

UNICEF's ability to influence policy making and implementation seems to be also dependent on the technical capability and interpersonal skills of the staff members working with GoSS officials. Therefore, building the communication, negotiation and facilitation skills of staff members in both Juba and zonal offices through coaching or training may be a

valuable investment for UNICEF. Given the decentralized nature of the education system in Southern Sudan, UNICEF will have to establish strong capacity in the zonal offices in order to encourage effective local policies that fall in line with the core commitments.

• *Optimizing opportunities for synergy with other stakeholders*

Interviews with other stakeholders have highlighted few areas where existing collaboration can be strengthened or new opportunities for synergy can be explored. UNICEF could potentially collaborate with IOM and UNHCR to use the IDP return process as an opportunity for initiating education services for returnees, as well as ensuring children's security and emotional wellbeing. Transition camps can provide a point of stability and security for the introduction of education services. Establishment of child-friendly spaces in transition camps based on the successful experience of the Lologo transit camp in Juba is one option. UNICEF could also consider including certain educational materials and comfort kits in the UNHCR non-food item (NFI) packages for children for girls.

• *Working with MoEs and NGOs to promote optimal utilization of education materials*

Field visits to two primary schools in Juba have highlighted the importance of creating the right conditions for the optimal utilization of educational materials and tents delivered by UNICEF. In Buluk A, tents were in dismal condition because school vicinities were not secured at night. Working with State MoEs and NGOs to organize the provision of adequate security for protecting school vicinities is a possible option to optimize the lifetime of materials distributed by UNICEF. Similarly, recreation kits were not put to optimal use in Buluk A. UNICEF could consider working with MoEs, NGOs or newly formed GEMs to ensure the appropriate use of recreation kits as tools for psychosocial support for students.

ENDNOTES

[1] Save the Children. "Rewrite the Future."

[2] CCCs, pg. 14, Re-establish and/or sustain primary education. Provide education and recreation kits and basic learning materials and teacher training.

[3] CCCs, pg.14, Promote the resumption of quality educational activities in literacy, numeracy and life skills issues such as HIV/AIDS, prevention of sexual exploitation and abuse, conflict resolution and hygiene.

[4] CCCs, pg.13, Support the establishment of safe environments for children and women, including child-friendly spaces, and integrate psychosocial support in education and protection responses.

[5] CCCs, pg. 13 To promote access to quality early learning and education for all children in affected communities, with a specific focus on girls

[6] CCCs, pg. 14, establish community services around schools (such as water supply and sanitation), where appropriate.

[7] CCCs, pg.6, In partnership with UN agencies, national authorities and others, ensure capacity to assume a coordinating role for: Public health, Nutrition, Child protection, Education, Water, sanitation and hygiene

[8] UNDP Liberia 2006 Human Development Report; UNDP Colombia 2006 Human Development Report UNDP MDG Interim Report for South Sudan, 2004

[9] UNDP Liberia 2006 Human Development Report

[10] UNDP MDG Interim Report for South Sudan, 2004

[11] UNDP Colombia 2006 Human Development Report

[12] UNDP MDG Interim Report for South Sudan, 2004

[13] Holly, M. & M. Sommers. "A Charade of Concern: The Abandonment of Colombia's Forcibly Displaced." New York: Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, May 1999. pg. 3.

[14] BBC – Q&A: Colombia's Civil Conflict [on-line]; available from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/1738963.stm; internet; accessed October 11, 2006.

[15] Holly, M. & M. Sommers. "A Charade of Concern: The Abandonment of Colombia's Forcibly Displaced." New York: Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, May 1999: 3.

[16] Springuer, Natalia. "Colombia: Internal Displacement Policies and Problems." Writenet Report June 2006: 8.

[17] Moser, C. "Violence in Colombia: Building Sustainable Peace and Justice." In Colombia Essays on Conflict, Peace, and Development, Solimano, Andres. (Ed.). Washington D.C.: The World Bank 2000.

[18] Springuer, Natalia. "Colombia: Internal Displacement Policies and Problems." Writenet Report June 2006: 6.

[19] Springuer, Natalia. "Colombia: Internal Displacement Policies and Problems." Writenet Report June 2006: 6.

[20] Holly, M. & M. Sommers. "A Charade of Concern: The Abandonment of Colombia's Forcibly Displaced." New York: Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, May 1999: 4.

[21] BBC – Q&A: Colombia's Civil Conflict [on-line]; available from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/1738963.stm; internet; accessed October 11, 2006.

[22] Holly, M. & M. Sommers. "A Charade of Concern: The Abandonment of Colombia's Forcibly Displaced." New York: Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, May 1999: 3.

[23] ACNUR and OCHA. "Estado de Situación del Desplazamiento." 2001: 9.

[24] Williams P. and J. Picarelli. "Combating Organized Crime in Armed Conflict." In Profiting from Peace – Managing the Resource Dimensions of Civil War, Ballentine, K & Nitzschke, H. Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers, Inc.

[25] BBC – Q&A: Colombia's Civil Conflict [on-line]; available from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/1738963.stm; internet; accessed October 11, 2006.

[26] "Desplazados: Cifras", BBC Mundo, February 4, 2005.

[27] "Cifra de desplazados en Colombia es mayor que lo que admite el Gobierno, afirma ONG," El Tiempo, September 13, 2006.

[28] Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre: Country Report on Colombia.

[29] IDPs in Colombia: a joint needs assessment by the ICRC and the World Food Programme, Geneva, 22 April 2005 [on-line]; available from http://www.icrc.org/Web/eng/siteeng0.nsf/htmlall/6B2KER/$File/Colombia_220305.pdf#search=%22colombia%20and%20IDPS%22; internet; accessed October 11, 2006.

[30] Springuer, Natalia. "Colombia: Internal Displacement Policies and Problems." Writenet Report June 2006: 6.

[31] Springuer, Natalia. "Colombia: Internal Displacement Policies and Problems." Writenet Report June 2006: 6.

[32] Holly, M. & M. Sommers. "A Charade of Concern: The Abandonment of Colombia's Forcibly Displaced." New York: Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, May 1999: 3.

[33] ACNUR and OCHA. "Estado de Situación del Desplazamiento." 2001: 14.

[34] Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre: Country Report on Colombia.

[35] Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre: Country Report on Colombia.

[36] Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre: Country Report on Colombia.

[37] PREAL. Informe de Progreso Educativo Colombia 2003.

[38] PREAL. Informe de Progreso Educativo Colombia 2003.

[39] Conference of Bishops of Colombia and Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento (CODHES) (2006). Challenges for Nation Building: Displacement, Armed Conflict and Humanitarian Crisis 1995-2005: 61.

[40] Save the Children Canada [on-line]; available from http://www.savethechildren.ca/wherewework/southamerica/colprojects.html; accessed October 13, 2006

[41] Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children. "Unseen Millions: The Catastrophe of Internal Displacement in Colombia. Children and Adolescents at Risk." March 2002.

[42] Norwegian Refugee Council/Global IDP Project (February 2004). Profile of Internal Displacement: Colombia: 131.

[43] Colombian Ministry of Education Website. Available from: (http://menweb.mineducacion.gov.co). internet.

[44] Colombian Ministry of Education Website: "Proyecto Acceso a la Educación de la Población Vulnerable". http://menweb.mineducacion.gov.co/proyectos_men/web_graf_indi.asp#. Internet. Accessed: November 20, 2006.

[45] The responsibilities listed are for municipalities with more than 100,000 residents. Those with less than 100,000 inhabitants receive their financing from and report directly to the department level.

[46] The districts are Bogotá and the coastal cities of Cartagena, Santa Marta and Barranquilla.
Villa Leonardo and Jesús Duarte. "Concessionary Public Schools in Bogota: An Innovation in School Management in Colombia." In Private Education and Public Policy in Latin America, Juan Carlos Navarro, ed. Washington DC: Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas (PREAL), 2005.

[47] PREAL. Informe de Progreso Educativo Colombia 2003: 6.

[48] UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

[49] UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

[50] Villa Leonardo and Jesus Duarte. "Concessionary Public Schools in Bogota: An Innovation in School Management in Colombia." In Private Education and Public Policy in Latin America, Juan Carlos Navarro, ed. Washington DC: Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas (PREAL), 2005.

[51] Giovanni Upegui Monsalve (Director of the Secretariat of Education, Municipality of Bello) interview by authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Bello, Colombia.

[52] Ministry of Education Website http://menweb.mineducacion.gov.co:8080/saber/ and Law 715 of 2001.

[53] Teachers (Institución Agroecológica Nuevo Oriente), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Tierra Alta, Dept. of Cordoba, Colombia.

[54] Dussel, Inés. Curricular reform in Latin America: assessment and future prospects. UNESCO, 2006.

[55] Preal (2001). Lagging Behind – A Report Card on Education in Latin America: 34.

[56] Ministry of Education. Informe de Gestion a 7 de Agosto 2006 [on-line]; available from http://www.mineducacion.gov.co/1621/articles-104306_archivo_pdf.pdf; accessed November 17, 2006.

[57] The Ministry of Education pays 74,000 USD Colombian pesos per student, of which 34,000 USD goes to the private actor and the rest is supposed to be used for infrastructure, training, and materials.

[58] Mery Montiel (Coordinator of the Education Program of the Diocese of Monteria) interview by authors, written notes, 31 October 2006, Monteria, Colombia.

[59] Commission on Human Rights Report October 2003 [on-line]; available from http://www.right-to-education.org/content/unreports/unreport13.html#44_1; accessed October 20, 2006.

[60] Site visits to schools in the municipalities of Tierra Alta and Monteria in the department of Cordóba and Interviews with school personnel.

[61] Ministry of Education. "Lineamientos de política para la atención educativa de populaciones vulnerables." July 2005.

[62] See Appendix.

[63] Law 115 of 1994. Chapter 2 Article 77. "School Autonomy. Within the fixed limits of the said law and the istituional education project, the formal institutions of education enjoy autonomy to organize fundamental areas of defined

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understanding for each level, introducing optional coursework with in established areas of the law, adapting some areas to the regional necessities and characteristics, adopting methods of learning and organizing formative activities, culture and sports, within the guidelines that the National Ministry of Education establishes."

[64] Law 115 of 1994 [on-line]; available from http://www.mineducacion.gov.co; accessed November 15, 2006.

[65] Law 115 of 1994, Chapter 2. Article 76. [on-line]; available from http://www.mineducacion.gov.co; accessed November 15, 2006.

[66] "Portafolio de Modelos Educativos". Ministerio de Educación Nacional: Dirección de Poblaciones y Proyectos Intersectoriales.

[67] The pilot program was operated in the departments of Boyacá, Cauca, Caldas, Cundinamaraca, Huila, Risaralda, Santander and the marginalized urban population in Bogotá. Funders of the expansion of the program were the Ministry of Education, the World Bank, The National Federation of Coffee growers, and the Departmental and Municipal Secretaries of Education.

[68] Policy dimension recognizes that the student's falling behind is a policy problem and the involved actors need to confront. The pedagogy dimension integrates various theoretical approaches to the issue and highlights the student as the center of learning to strengthen the student's self esteem and develop basic competencies. The Operative dimension recognizes the importance of implementation and implements a system of checks to facilitate the process of evaluation.

[69] "Portafolio de Modelos Educativos". Ministerio de Educacion Nacional: Direccion de Poblaciones y Proyectos Intersectoriales: 7.

[70] Training for teaching staff consists of two or three day workshops with the purpose of understanding methods of facilitating children's capacity to express, communicate and trust and learn in environments without discrimination. The workshops also seek to help define strategies for the recuperation of the identities of children. "Portafolio de Modelos Educativos". Ministerio de Educacion Nacional: Direccion de Pobalciones y Proyectos Intersectoriales. p 46.

[71] "Portafolio de Modelos Educativos". Ministerio de Educacion Nacional: Direccion de Poblaciones y Proyectos Intersectoriales: 46.

[72] Vicky Colbert (Director of Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Bogota, Colombia.

[73] Vicky Colbert (Director of Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Bogota, Colombia.

[74] Gloria Ayala (Project Coordinator of Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation), interview by authors, written notes; observations from field-visit to Learning Circles in Altos de Cazucá, Soacha, November 3, 2006

[75] Gloria Ayala (Project Coordinator of Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation), interview by authors, written notes; observations from field-visit to Learning Circles in Altos de Cazucá, Soacha, November 3, 2006

[76] Gloria Ayala (Project Coordinator of Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente Foundation), interview by authors, written notes; observations from field-visit to Learning Circles in Altos de Cazucá, Soacha, November 3, 2006

[77] "Portafolio de Modelos Educativos". Ministerio de Educacion Nacional: Direccion de Poblaciones y Proyectos Intersectoriales.

[78] Informational Brochure: Círculos de Aprendizaje – Escuela Nueva Activa; As well as information available from http://www.volvamos.org/index.php; assessed on November 15 2006.

[79] Available from http://www.unicef.org.co/mapa.htm; accessed on October 14, 2006.

[80] Memorias Primer Congreso Internacional de Escuelas Nuevas. Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente. Aremnia, Quindío - Colombia. April 2003: 243.

[81] Memorias Primer Congreso Internacional de Escuelas Nuevas. Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente. Aremnia, Quindío - Colombia. April 2003: 34.

[82] UNICEF Annual Report 2005. Bogota, Colombia. December 2005.

[83] "Child Friendly Space/Environments: An Integrated Services Strategy for Emergencies and Their Aftermath". UNICEF: University of Pittsburgh. December 2004: 35.

[84] Available from http://unicef.org.co/Escuela/resultados.htm; accessed on November 17, 2006.

[85] Site visits to schools in the municipalities of Tierra Alta and Monteria in the department of Cordóba, and El Peñol in the department of Antioquia.

[86] Return to Happiness was developed by UNICEF and the Red Cross of Mozambique in 1992 to address the psychosocial effects on children during the Mozambican conflict.

[87] Available from www.unicef.org.co. Accessed October 15, 2006.

[88] Available from http://www.unicef.org.co/retorno/01-organizacion.htm#; accessed on November 17, 2006.

[89] "Resumen Informe Anual Año 2004 Convenio Col/AH/2004/007 Entre UNICEF Diócesis Sonson-Río Negro Parroquia San Luís Programa Retorno de la Alegría" 2004.
"Informe Trimestral Área Psico-Afectiva" Diócesis de Montería.
"Informe Final: Programa de Recuperación Psicosocial de los Niños y las Niñas afectados por la violencia en la Región del Bajo Atrato". Equipo Pastoral Social-Unicef. 30 December 2004.

[90] "Ficha Diagnostica" UNICEF-Monteria. Obtained 31 October 2006.

[91] Interviews and Site visit by authors, written notes, 30 November 2006, Tierra Alta, Colombia.

[92] Nydia Quiroz also affirms that Return to Happiness has been a vital force in contributing to lasting peace and building the idea that education can foster peace. "Displaced Children and Adolescents: Challenges and Opportunities. Forced Migration Review. 15 October 2002: 12.

[93] Convenio Interadministrativo Entre el Municipio de Montería y La Diócesis de Montería. Obtained from the Diócesis de Montería, October 31, 2006.

[94] Proyecto Educativo Municipal de El Peñol. Obtained from the education office for the Municipality of El Peñol, Colombia. November 2, 2006.

[95] Memorias Primer Congreso Internacional de Escuelas Nuevas. Fundación Escuela Nueva Volvamos a la Gente. Aremia, Quindío - Colombia. April 2003: 248.

[96] See Appendices A and B for more detail on the historical roots of conflict and the Liberian civil war.

[97] Dick, Shelly. "Forced Migration Online Research Guide: Liberia." June 2003. Available from: http://www.forcedmigration.org/guides/fmo013/; Internet.

[98] See Appendices A and B for more detail on the historical roots of conflict and the Liberian civil war. Also see the Millennium Development Goals Report (2004). "According to the Liberia five-year NRDP: 2002-2007, there is a consensus amongst Liberians that persistent bad governance during much of the country's history has been among the root causes of its long-term economic and social decline, as well as the political crisis that culminated into the civil war. Decision-making and management processes were neither participatory, transparent nor accountable. Consequently, there had been violations of human rights, pervasive system failures and lack of sound strategy for sustainable socioeconomic development", pg. 11.

[99] UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[100] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005. "The extension of state authority beyond the capital remains a challenge. The establishment of functioning effective municipal structures continues to be constrained by poor or altogether absent infrastructure, communication, logistics, lack of qualified personnel and limited financial resources."

[101] UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[102] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[103] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005. "As a result of serious financial constraints, part of which are a result of fears of corruption, it (MoE) is presently unable to implement programmes and projects autonomously; its vibrancy is therefore currently reliant on international inputs from UN agencies and NGOs."

[104] UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[105] UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[106] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005. "As of mid-June 2006, 28% of the 2006 Liberia CAP had been funded and a total of 40,593,747 USD

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had been contributed. The MYR entailed relatively minor revision of some projects' budgets, as well as including additional high-priority projects, bringing the total amount requested for the remainder of 2006 to 144,719,299 USD."

[107] Margaret Sancho-Morris (USAID), interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Ms. Sancho-Morris commented that they are providing no direct budgetary support for lack of a formal agreement with the MoE. Also see Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005. "The government cannot fund the education sector without the assistance of development partners. Ideally the government and EC would wish to provide funding through SBS to support the sector wide strategic approach. It is acknowledged that at the present time this is not possible, and therefore the recommended approach is to support the education sector by a direct project approach through a PMU under the budgetary control of the EC."

[108] UNICEF-Liberia, "2004 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2004.

[109] Dwan, Renata and Laura Bailey. "Liberia's Governance and Economic Management Assistance Programme (GEMAP). A joint review by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations' Peacekeeping Best Practices Section and the World Bank's Fragile States Group, May 2006.

[110] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[111] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005. "Liberia is generally stable but with a fragile security situation."

[112] UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[113] Rozanne Chorlton (UNICEF), interview by the authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. She discussed the fact that only 25 benches can be transported to schools at one time given the condition of the roads. Also see UNDP, "National Human Development Report 2006 Liberia: Mobilizing Capacity for Reconstruction and Development. Monrovia, Liberia, 2006. "Given the state of the roads in the country, special vehicles would be required to move survey teams into the different enumeration areas. For example, at least 600,000 USD is earmarked just for vehicles in a 2.2 million USD budget to execute the planned 2006 Liberia Demographic and Health Survey."

[114] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005. "The south-eastern region of Liberia (Grand Kru, River Cess, River Gee and Sinoe Counties) is far less populated. Historically it was neglected by the administration in Monrovia, and could pose a threat to stability if not actively supported to develop, in line with the rest of the country." UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2005: "The humanitarian interventions have been focused on the return of IDPs and refugees, the reintegration of demobilized fighters and the provision of PHC service and WES facilities. This has led to a concentration of activities in about half of the country."

[115] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[116] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[117] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005.

[118] United Nations, "Liberia 2006: Mid-Year Review." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005.

[119] Keith Wright and Björn Forssen (UNICEF), interviews by the authors, written notes, 31 October 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Both commented on the shift to a capacity-building approach where the line ministries are responsible for coordinating sector-based interventions.

[120] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[121] The Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, "Help Us Help Ourselves: Education in the Conflict to Post Conflict Transition in Liberia," New York, NY, March 2006.

[122] "Population Reference Bureau." Available from: http://www.prb.org/pdf06/06WorldDataSheet.pdf; internet. 2006. 47 percent of the population is less than 15 years of age.

[123] The Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, "Help Us Help Ourselves: Education in the Conflict to Post Conflict Transition in Liberia", March 2006

[124] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[125] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[126] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[127] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia.

[128] UNICEF-Liberia, "Evaluation of the Disarmament and Demobilisation Programme for Children Associated with Fighting Forces." Monrovia, Liberia.

[129] "Data for 1980, 1990, 1998 and 1999 is from Ministry of Education, "Liberia Education Sector Master Plan 2000 - 2010." Data for 2003/4 is from Ministry of Education, "Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces." 2003/4..

[130] Data for 1980, 1990, 1998 and 1999 is from Ministry of Education, "Liberia Education Sector Master Plan 2000 - 2010." Data for 2003/4 is from Ministry of Education, "Rapid Assessment of Learning Spaces." 2003/4.

[131] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[132] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006

[133] UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2005.

[134] Rozanne Chorlton (UNICEF), interview with authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[135] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[136] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[137] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[138] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[139] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[140] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005. pg.11.

[141] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia. "The rates of teenage pregnancies are alarmingly high (23%). Despite teen pregnancy being highlighted in a number of interviews, a USAID youth survey found that 6% of women quit school because they are pregnant. 69% quit school because of economic reasons."

[142] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[143] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[144] Abdullah, Hussainatu J. "Situation Analysis of Girls' Education in Liberia." Monrovia, Liberia, May 2006.

[145] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[146] "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006.

[147] UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2005.

[148] UNICEF, "Child Friendly Spaces/Environments (CFS/E): An Integrated Services Strategy For Emergencies and Their Aftermath." University of Pittsburgh, December 2004.

[149] Ministry of Education and UNICEF, "Report of Pilot Program on Monitoring Learning Achievements in Montserrado County, Liberia, West Africa." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2000.

[150] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia.

[151] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[152] Ministry of Education and UNICEF, "Report of Pilot Program on Monitoring Learning Achievements in Montserrado County, Liberia, West Africa." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2000.

[153] Ministry of Education and UNICEF, "Report of Pilot Program on Monitoring Learning Achievements in Montserrado County, Liberia, West Africa." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2000.

[154] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

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155 Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia.

156 "Republic of Liberia: Comprehensive Food Security and Nutrition Survey (CFSNS)." April 2006. "Adults" refers to individuals 19 years or older.

157 Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

158 John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Also Wilmot K. Mason (Principal, Guie Town Primary School), interview with authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Bomi County, Liberia.

159 INEE, "Roundtable on Teacher Compensation in Fragile States, Situations of Displacement and Post-Conflict Return." World Bank, Washington D.C., United States, October 2006.

160 Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

161 United Nations, "Liberia 2006." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005.

162 UNICEF-Liberia, "2004 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2004.

163 UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2005.

164 Josephine Porte, interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. She commented that monitoring and evaluation was not conducted during the war, nor in the current period.

165 John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

166 Abdullah, Hussainatu J. "Situation Analysis of Girls' Education in Liberia." Monrovia, Liberia, May 2006.

167 Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

168 United Nations, "Liberia 2006." Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP). Geneva, Switzerland, October 2005.

169 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

170 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

171 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

172 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

173 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002. "No institution of learning shall be engaged in the teaching-learning process within the republic of Liberia, either as a public or private institution unless having been duly permitted to operate by the Ministry of Education and later being accredited by the Board of Accreditation." "No person shall engage in the profession of teaching in a public of private school unless after being duly licensed for this purpose by the Ministry of Education."

174 Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

175 Farwenee Dormu (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. He noted that based on the school census the MoE would provide accreditation numbers to schools.

176 The "Education Law" states that primary education will be compulsory from 2003 and fines will be imposed on parents/guardians that impede access to schooling. In an Interview with John Sumo (UNICEF) he commented that FACPEL established penalties for both parents/guardians and schools that charge fees.

177 When the document Free and Compulsory Primary Education (FACPEL) was published in September 2003, the expectation of many was that education costs would be reduced. Children and young people continued to struggle to pay the costs for education, with school registration fees and other associated costs amounting to no less that 15 USD, including the uniform.

178 John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. He commented that the MoE had not provided sufficient resources to schools for this to be feasible as of yet.

179 Abdullah, Hussainatu J. "Situation Analysis of Girls' Education in Liberia." Monrovia, Liberia, May 2006.

180 Ministry of Education, "2004 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2005.

181 About 95 percent of the population is from 16 ethnic groups while the other 5 percent are descendants of freed slaves from the United States and the Caribbean. Liberians speak some 21 languages but English is the national language. About 40 percent of Liberians follow traditional African belief systems, 40 percent are Christian and 20 percent are Muslim. CIA World Fact Book. Found at: https://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/li.html; Internet.

182 Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[183] Christopher Sawpoh (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[184] Ministry of Education, "2004 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2005. In one section it notes that a consultation was held regarding the "development of a mother tongue policy," while a later section states an objection to the supposition that English language textbooks pose a problem for learning for certain students. In this vein they ask, "What is meant by the language of pupils? To date there is no other official language in Liberia."

[185] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[186] Ministry of Education, "National Policy on Girls Education." Monrovia, Liberia, April 2006.

[187] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Sumo commented that no indicators for child-friendly or child-centered teaching had been developed.

[188] "Early Childhood and Basic Education Programme Annual Review." Monrovia, Liberia, November 2005.

[189] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[190] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. He commented that they did not have good population estimates for the catchment areas by age.

[191] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[192] Josephine Porte (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[193] Dr. Evelyn Kandakai (FAWE), interview with the authors, written notes, 30 October 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[194] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[195] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia.

[196] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia.

[197] Christopher Sawpoh (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[198] Fathuma Ibrahim and Keith Wright (UNICEF), interviews with the authors, written notes, 31 October 2006, Monrovia, Liberia, and John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Sumo commented that psychosocial work in education had not been so successful in the post-conflict phase. Ibrahim commented on problems they had encountered collaborating with the MoE on psychosocial issues as part of the curriculum review. Wright commented that the line ministries see themselves as topically distinct so it is often difficult to integrate concepts that they see as outside of their sector.

[199] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[200] Ministry of Education, "Liberia Education Sector Master Plan 2000 - 2010", pg.vii. "retains and elaborates the principles of partnership and decentralization". Also see Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft." Monrovia, Liberia, pg.4 "The EFA National Action Plan 2003-2015 retains and elaborates the principles of partnership and decentralization for the support and implementation of the programmes"

[201] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[202] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[203] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002. "Schools, among other requirements, shall have a governing body, or Board; Parents and Teachers Association; or Committee which shall include parents; community leaders; teachers and representatives of the Local School Management Committee."

[204] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[205] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[206] Rozanne Chorlton (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[207] Ministry of Education, "Education for All (EFA) National Action Plan, 2004-2015, Draft."

[208] Amos Fuller (Bomi County Education Officer), interview with authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Bomi, Liberia.

[209] UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report."

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[210] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005. Also see Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005. "Although decentralised units of public services exist (County and District Offices headed by County and District Education Officers respectively) they are not operational."

[211] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[212] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Also see UNICEF-Liberia, "2006 Education Programme Annual Workplan." Monrovia, Liberia, 2006.

[213] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005. Also see Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005. "Partnerships between school and community have been built such as Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and Local School Management Committees but they do not function at the moment. Their role was mainly to encourage parents to send their child to school or to collect school fees."

[214] Abdullah, Hussainatu J. "Situation Analysis of Girls' Education in Liberia." Monrovia, Liberia, May 2006. "The Liberia social and administrative structure is governed by chiefs, who are deeply attached to their cultural norms and values. These chiefs have always played a key role of the administration of the tribal people and their duties and responsibilities in the hinterland have been the foundation of Government. Traditional chieftancy is currently considered as a domain of men and it is difficult for women to break the chain."

[215] Government of Liberia, "Education Law of A.D. 2001." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2002.

[216] Josephine Porte (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia. Also see Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005. "The MoE receives its budgets through the Ministry of Finance (MoF). For the Financial Year 2004/05 the MoE estimated a budget of 8.15 million USD. The degree to which the budget can be met remains uncertain. For the period February to June 2004, the budget already had to be revised to 2.7 million USD; this also has had a significant negative impact on the availability of funds for the payments of salaries. By March 2005, the originally allocated budget for the education sector of 8.2% dropped to 4.6% in real terms with the prospective of dropping even further."

[217] James Roberts (Ministry of Education), interview with the authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[218] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[219] UNICEF-Liberia, "Early Childhood and Basic Education Programme Annual Review." Monrovia, Liberia, November 2005.

[220] Save the Children, "Education Assessment Liberia: Assessment of the Capacity of the Education Sector in Meeting the Needs of Children in Post-Conflict Liberia and a strategic response." Monrovia, Liberia, September 2005.

[221] UNICEF-Liberia, "2005 Annual Report." Monrovia, Liberia, December 2005.

[222] John Sumo (UNICEF), interview with the authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[223] Ministry of Education, "Liberia Education Sector Master Plan 2000 – 2010."

[224] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[225] Pfaffe, Joachim Friedrich and A.E.M. Smulders. "Preparation of EDF 9 Education Sector Draft Financing Proposal Liberia." European Commission, July 2005.

[226] Ministry of Education, "2004 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education." Monrovia, Liberia, January 2005: "the delayed in processing vouchers from the various divisions by the Ministry of Finance posed a serious problem to purchase needed office materials, logistic and…" These problems with the Ministry of Finance are reiterated: "fund from vouchers prepared in favor of the division for program implementation are never forthcoming."

[227] Dr. John H. Night (USAID Consultant), interview with the authors, written notes, 30 October 2006, Monrovia, Liberia.

[228] "EFA Action Plan 2004-2015, Draft."

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Endnotes

[463] Sibeso Luswata (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[464] Sibeso Luswata (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[465] Douglas-Graeme Higgins (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[466] Sibeso Luswata (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[467] Emily Oldmeadow (EC), interview with authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan; Menbere Dawit (UNHCR), interview by authors, written notes, 31 October 2006, Juba, Sudan; William Emilio Cerritelli (MDTF), interview with authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Juba, Sudan; and Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) Sudan. "Volume II1: Cluster Reports." 18 March 2005; that states: "Basic education has been identified as a priority but a holistic approach is taken where the objective is to rejuvenate secondary education, teacher training and university education to respond to the needs of society." (pg.184)

[468] Saul Murimba (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006.

[469] Douglas-Graeme Higgins (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[470] Sibeso Luswata (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[471] The ERP proposal states that to ensure proper coordination for the purpose of an integrated delivery strategy of Social Service to the communities, discussions with the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation, the Ministry of Social Services, the Ministry of Health and Ministry of Environment, Wildlife Conservation and Tourism will be required. Integrated Social Service Delivery includes: school location at the community level selected with to maximize benefits from proximity to water points, health centers, and roads; location and construction of pit latrines and washing facilities; and a school code of conduct to ensure a safe learning environment free from harassment, abuse, and violence.

[472] Sibeso Luswata (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[473] Furniss, Elaine, "Education in South Sudan." 17 March 2005.

[474] Emily Oldmeadow (EC), interview with authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan; Menbere Dawit (UNHCR), interview by authors, written notes, 31 October 2006, Juba, Sudan; William Emilio Cerritelli (MDTF), interview with authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Juba, Sudan; Mona Idriss (OCHA), interview by authors, written notes, Juba, Sudan, 30 October 2006.

[475] Emily Oldmeadow (EC), interview with authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[476] MoEST. "Report of the Thematic Working Group on Teacher Education and Training." 7-8 March 2006.

[477] Douglas-Graeme Higgins (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[478] Rose Njagi (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 30 October 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[479] Rachel Beck (UNICEF), interview by authors, written notes, 1 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

[480] In a transition camp visited, the tent schools appeared to be serving a large group of students with an active teacher. In a local primary school visited in Juba, there was no ongoing teaching in any of the tents provided by UNICEF, and the tents were in visibly poor condition. A local organization visited in Juba, whose private primary school classes had tripled from inflow of returnees, was unaware of the possibility of receiving tents from UNICEF.

APPENDIX 1 (Colombia)

Laws and Decrees Concerning Basic Education for Children Affected by Conflict Return to Happiness Assessment Form

1997 Law 387 Article 19.10: "The National Ministry of Education and the district, municipal, and departmental Education Offices shall adopt special educational programs for the victims of displacement by violence. These programs shall be in specialized basic and middle education and they shall be carried out in less time and differently from the conventional ones in order to guarantee their rapid effect on the rehabilitation and productive, labor, and social integration of victims of internal displacement by violence."

Circular Conjunta July 2000 states that the departmental, district and municipal secretariats of education must ensure that education services are offered to displaced children at any time during the school year, issue academic certifications to displaced children who do not have it, and exempt all displaced children from paying school fees.

Decree 2562 of November 2001 establishes that territorial entities must:•

- Guarantee public education for displaced children for preschool, primary school, and secondary school.
- Register IDP children in the education centers without demanding the required documents if they are unable to present them.
- Provide adequate infrastructure during emergencies in order to implement education programs.
- Develop programs to train teachers for serving the displaced populations.
- Guarantee admission to displaced children in schools.

The Decree 250 of 2005 establishes that the education sector must:

- Expand education coverage by increasing the number of learning spots.
- Implement flexible and pertinent education models that support the right to education for displaced children.
- Strengthen the supply of education services in areas of return or relocation for displaced populations.
- Improve education quality by developing plans and programs to train teachers to effectively serve children affected by conflict.
- Support the construction and the repair of physical infrastructure of schools so that they can offer services to displaced populations.

Sources: MoE document on vulnerable populations; [2] Law 387 of 1997, Article 19.10. Colombian Official Gazette No. 43,091 of July 24, 1997

FICHA DIAGNOSTICA

Niñez
consenso
Paz
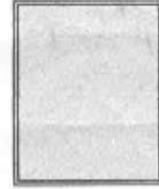
Código No. _____

ESCUELA O INSTITUCION _____
MUNICIPIO _____ DEPARTAMENTO_____

1   DATOS DE IDENTIFICACION

1.1 Nombres y apellidos: _____
1.2 Fecha de nacimiento: Dia ___ Mes _____ Año _____ 1.3 Lugar _____
1.4 Edad:_____ 1.5 Sexo: _____ 1.6 Escolaridad: _____
1.7 Dirección: _____ 1.8 Teléfono: _____
1.9 Distancia de la casa a la escuela

_____

2.   ESCOLARIDAD

	PLANTEL	LUGAR	AÑO	GRADO	CAUSA DE RETIRO
2.1					
2.2					
2.3					

3.   DATOS FAMILIARES

	PARENTESCO	OCUPACIÓN	EDAD	LUGAR DE NACIMIENTO	ESTUDIOS	RELIGIÓN
3.1	PAPA					
3.2	MAMA					
3.3	HERMANOS					
3.4	ABUELO					
3.5	ABUELA					
3.6	Otro. Cuàl?					

3.7 nombre del la madre _____.   3.8 Nombre del padre: _____
3.9 Vive con sus padres? 3.10 Si_____   3.11 No:_____ 3.12 Con quien:_____

Marque en las casillas con S para SI y   N para NO

4.	DESARROLLO COGNOSCITIVO	PRE-ESCOLAR		1°		2°		3°		4°		5°	
		I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F
4.1	Lee bien												
4.2	Escribe bien												
4.3	Entiende ordenes básicas												
4.4	Participa en actividades de grupo												
4.5	Es responsable en sus trabajos												
4.6	Se distrae en ocasiones												
4.7	Manifiesta iniciativas												
4.8	Su habla es coherente.												
4.9	Identifica verbalmente las partes del cuerpo												

5. DESARROLLO DEL LENGUAJE	PRE-ESCOLAR		1°		2°		3°		4°		5°	
	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F
5.1 Presenta alteración en la fluidez de habla, (repetición de sonidos y sílabas, prolonga sonidos)												
5.2 Presenta incapacidad para hablar en situaciones específicas												
5.3 Presenta retraso o dificultad en el habla												
5.4 Habla en forma continua sin parar												
5.5 Presenta Incapacidad para utilizar sonidos propios de la edad (errores en producción, utilización, representación y organización de sonidos tales como sustitución de un sonido por otro).												

6 Motricidad fina	PRE-ESCOLAR		1°		2°		3°		4°		5°	
	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F
6.1 Agarra lápiz y papel												
6.2 Copia figuras												
6.3 Abotona y desabotona la camisa												
6.4 Corta con tijeras												
6.5 Traza líneas y un círculos identificables												
6.6 Hace dibujitos y letras toscas												
Motricidad gruesa												
6.7 Maneja el sentido de la orientación												
6.8 Puede pararse en un pie												
6.9 Salta con facilidad y alternando los dos pies												
6.10 Atrapa una pelota												
6.11 Se tropieza excesivamente												
6.12 Para, gira, y se detiene con eficacia en los juegos												
6.13 Se moviliza con agilidad												

7. Ansiedad	PRE-ESCOLAR		1°		2°		3°		4°		5°	
	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F
7.1 Presenta inseguridad ante diferentes situaciones.												
7.2 Se preocupa constantemente.												
7.3 Presenta sudoración ante diversas situaciones.												
7.4 Presenta temblor ante diversas situaciones.												
7.5 Se tensiona con facilidad .												
7.6 Presenta repetición continua de movimientos en manos y pies												
7.7 Presenta tics (constantemente parpadea, frunce las cejas, mueve la barbilla, encoge los hombros, dedos, gruñe, tose)												

7.9	Presenta apego a personas o cosas													
8	**Miedos Temores**													
8.1	Hace contacto visual													
8.2	Permanece con Hombros y cabeza caída													
8.3	Presenta llanto frecuente y sin motivo													
8.4	Quiere jugar													
8.5	Quiere hablar													

9	Comportamiento	PRE-ESCOLAR		1°		2°		3°		4°		5°	
		I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F	I	F
9.1	Se reprime de hablar o actuar en presencia de personas no conocidas												
9.2	Frecuentemente esta malhumorado, alterado e irritable	✓											
9.3	Es agresivo verbal y fisicamente.	✓											
9.4	Llanto sin motivo												
9.5	Se comporta destructivamente consigo mismo o con los demás, con sus propios objetos o con los ajenos												
9.6	Se comporta como un niño de menor edad con relación a su edad real												
9.7	Se muestra extremadamente triste												
9.8	Presenta problemas de interacción por retraimiento												
9.9	Presenta problemas de interacción por Inquietud extrema												
9.10	E s poco cooperador												
9.11	Le gusta compartir sus pertenencias												
9.12	Su presentación personal es buena												
9.13	Se fatiga y pierde energía con frecuencia												
9.14	Presenta dificultad extrema para concentrarse												
9.15	Presenta timidez, inactividad y retraimiento de las actividades usuales. (no quiere jugar, hablar, entre otras)												
9.16	Presenta sentimiento de desesperanza y abandono												
9.17	Mira al piso y presenta hombros y cabeza caídos en la mayor parte de sus actividades												

10.	PARA REMITIR AL ESPECIALISTA	SI	NO
10.1	Llora constantemente y se siente profundamente triste		
10.2	No quiere comer, cada vez está mas delgado		
10.3	Siempre se presenta cansado y quiere permanecer en cama todo el tiempo		
10.4	Cuando no puede dormir en las noches, aumenta el periodo de alerta		
10.5	Pensamiento negativo y habla de cómo acabar su vida		
10.6	Está seriamente herido con deficiencias fisicas		
10.7	Presenta dependencia a las drogas		
10.8	Baja tolerancia a la frustración		
10.9	Extremadamente nervioso		
10.10	Total desinterés por actividades agradables		

11. **OBSERVACIONES GENERALES**

_____

Sugiero realización de
Talleres: _____ Reuniones: _____ Convivencias: _____ Otros: _____ Cual? _____
Días:_____ Horas: _____

_____
VOLUNTARIO

_____
DIRECTOR

_____
PADRE DE FAMILIA O ACUDIENTE

_____
PSICÓLOGO

CR/2000/RPSA/5000

APPENDIX 1 (Liberia)

The Historical Roots of the Conflict

An analysis of Liberia's history is a helpful starting point toward understanding the dynamics of the conflict. In particular, Liberia's unique relationship to the United States, the character of its political and economic development, and the seeds of ethnic tension that evolved as a consequence of these factors are important issues to consider. These aspects of Liberian history help to elucidate not only the roots and evolution of the conflict, but also the progressive destabilization of governance structures which the reconstruction effort continues to confront today.

Liberia was founded in 1820 by freed American slaves known as Americo-Liberians under the umbrella of the American Colonization Society from which it later gained its independence in 1847. From that point on, the Americo-Liberian minority essentially controlled the country's politics despite the presence of some 16 indigenous ethnic groups.[1] They established an environment in which "the Americo-Liberians' dominance over indigenous African peoples has been the central social and political issue in Liberian society."[2] This social dynamic was reflected in the colonial-style indirect rule instituted by the Americos during the 19th and part of the 20th century, which was designed to use the country's resources for their own benefit. In fact, indigenous Liberians only gained formal citizenship in 1904[3] and it was not until the government of President William V.S. Tubman, who was elected in 1944, that the government removed a ban on education for indigenous groups as part of his "Unification and Open-Door" social policies.[4]

The Tubman period from 1944 – 1973 firmly established the Liberian government as "an exclusive club through which the [Americo] elite advanced its own interests."[5] Despite the improved opportunities for indigenous Liberians and increased recognition of the legitimacy of the state, economic policy was "predominantly the management by the state of the exploitation of natural resources with the use of foreign capital."[6] This strategy was feasible given Liberia's rich endowment of natural resources, notably rubber, timber and iron ore, and the ability of the government to act as an "extensive and encompassing 'patronage machine'" in which "authority was personalized as the presidency became 'the ultimate source of individual livelihood.'"[7] The unequal distribution of resources, propagated by powerful presidential leadership, would continue up to and throughout the recent conflict.

Tubman's Vice President, William R. Tolbert, became President after Tubman's unexpected death in 1973, and initially experienced some success in his attempt to bridge ethnic divisions by bringing indigenous Africans into his administration. However, his attempts ultimately failed as a consequence of a range of factors including the economic stagnation brought on by the oil crisis, internal resistance within the Americo-elite community and the rise of "radical indigenous ethnonationalists through student movements".[8] In 1980, Tolbert was killed during a military coup and the 28-year old indigenous Liberian Samuel Doe took power, forming the People's Redemption Council (PRC) and suspending the Liberian Constitution. Despite initial widespread support among indigenous Liberians, failures to fulfill public expectations and the continued use of the government as a mechanism for political patronage saw Doe's support quickly decline. Doe, a Cold War ally of the United States, increasingly came to rely on his own Krahn ethnic group as a base of political power and after an attempted coup in 1985, his political and military actions became increasingly repressive and devised on ethnic lines, further exacerbating public opposition to his government.[9]

1   95 percent of the population is from 16 ethnic groups with the other 5 percent descendant of freed slaves from the United States and the Caribbean. Liberians speak some 21 languages, of which English is the national language. 40 percent of Liberians follow traditional African belief systems, 40 percent are Christian and 20 percent are Muslim. CIA World Fact Book. https://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/li.html. Accessed 4 October 2006.

2   Egerton, F., "*Explaining African Conflict: The Wars in Liberia and Sierra Leone*", Dalhousie University, September 2004, p.1.

3   Sei-Goryor, F., "*Ethnonational tensions in Liberian Education, 1944 – 1996*", May 2001, Loyola University Chicago, p.42

4   Ibid., p.6.

5   Egerton, F., p.1.

6   Ibid, p. 44.

7   Ibid, p. 44

8   Sei-Goryor, F., "*Ethnonational tensions in Liberian Education, 1944 – 1996*", May 2001, Loyola University Chicago, p. 61.

9   Egerton, F., p.52 – 53.

APPENDIX 2 (Liberia)

The Liberian Civil War[10]

In 1989, Libyan-trained Charles Taylor, an Americo-Liberian recently escaped from a US detention center where he was held on embezzlement charges after publicly criticizing the Doe government, led an invasion of Liberia from neighboring Cote d'Ivoire under the auspices of the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL). While the NPFL did not espouse an ideology along ethnic lines, the brutality of Doe's military forces, particularly against the Gio and Mano ethnic groups, helped swell the ranks of the NPFL. Thus, while the civil war may not have been explicitly about ethnic politics, "the political landscape had been ethnicised" and the NPFL began to seek out "Krahn and Mandingo for terminal retribution"[11] making ethnic violence a prominent characteristic of the fighting on all sides.[12]

As the hostilities spread and the state lost virtually all control over its territory, international pressure for a resolution strengthened. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) set up the Monitoring Observer Group peacekeeping mission (ECOMOG) in Sierra Leone and Monrovia, which helped avert a full Taylor victory, but break-away rebel groups were able to kill Doe in September 1990. In 1991, Taylor exacerbated the intensity and scope of the conflict by backing the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) in their invasion of Sierra Leone and using his control over the majority of Liberia's natural resources to secure financial support from foreign private firms that allowed him to sustain his fighting forces. The political landscape continued to splinter even further when Guinea and Sierra Leone supported Liberian refugees (many of whom were former Doe loyalists from the Krahn and Mandingo ethnic groups) in the formation of the United Liberation Movement for Democracy in Liberia (ULIMO).

In 1993, the United Nations, United States, European Union and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) helped negotiate a ceasefire with Taylor and the UN Security Council established the first United Nations Observer Mission in Liberia (UNOMIL). In 1997, Taylor was elected President amidst widespread fears that an alternative result would imply a return to hostilities. Taylor's presidency was characterized by broken promises to invest in the country's infrastructure and promote stability in the region. When Sierra Leonean President Kabbah was overthrown by a coup in 1997, the Taylor supported RUF formed part of the new military government. As a result, Kabbah supporters moved into Liberian territory where ULIMO rebels enjoyed significant control. Despite a relatively stable period between 1998 and 2001, in which many displaced Liberians returned home, Taylor continued to back neighboring country guerillas and participate in the "illicit trade of diamonds, lumber and weaponry while amassing a personal fortune."[13]

In early 2003, expanded fighting resumed when two rebel groups—the Liberians United for Reconciliation and Democracy (LURD) and the Movement for Democracy and in Liberia (MODEL)—began a renewed attempt to drive Taylor out of power. The fighting involved massive human rights violations and displacement on all sides, but was short-lived. Taylor was forced to take exile under mounting international pressure and a LURD offensive on Monrovia during August of the same year. Peace agreements were signed on August 18, 2003, establishing a power-sharing, two-year National Transitional Government (NTGL). The UN Security Council then authorized the deployment of a second UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) replacing the temporary ECOWAS peacekeeping forces in September.

The NTGL was faced with serious challenges regarding the disarmament and reintegration of ex-combatants, the large numbers of refugees and IDPs, and a devastated national infrastructure. Moreover, widespread fears of Taylor's continued capacity to generate instability from exile were an important consideration for the NTGL as Liberia moved toward elections in 2005. Donor aid, attached to extensive international conditions for Liberian economic policy, increased

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10 International Crisis Group (ICG) (http://www.crisisgroup.org/home/index.cfm?action=conflict_search&l=1&t=1&c_country=64).
      Accessed on 4 October 2006. Portions of this section are based on the country history provided by the ICG.
11 Egerton, F, p.55.
12 95 percent of the population is from 16 ethnic groups with the other 5 percent descendant of freed slaves from the United States and
      the Caribbean. Liberians speak some 21 languages, of which English is the national language. 40 percent of Liberians follow traditional
      African belief systems, 40 percent are Christian and 20 percent are Muslim. CIA World Fact Book. Available from https://www.cia.gov/cia/
      publications/factbook/geos/li.html). Accessed 4 October 2006.
13 The Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, "*Help Us Help Ourselves: Education in the Conflict to Post Conflict Transition in Liberia*", March 2006, p. 3.

Appendix 2 (Liberia)

rapidly during this period, which ended with the democratic election of Ellen-Johnson Sirleaf who was inaugurated in January of 2006. Concerns about Taylor's influence in the region abated when he was transferred to The Hague to be tried for his involvement in war crimes in Sierra Leone and a Liberian Truth and Reconciliation Commission was established covering the period from 1979 – 2003.

APPENDIX 3 (Liberia)

Educational Statistics by County

Total School Enrollment (6 - 18 years) and INGO/UNICEF presence by County and IDP/Refugee Return Rates by Areas of Return

Lofa
M
75%

Gbarpolu
L
56%

Grand Cape Mount
65%
L

Bong
71%
H

M
67%

L
57%

70%

62%

Bomi

H
Montserrado

M
Margibi

M
41%
Grand Bassa

Nimba

L

L
81%
Grand Gedeh

80%
River Cess

L

78%
Sinoe

River Gee
76%
L

L

80%

L

Maryland
80%
Grand Kru

Areas of return of registered refugees and IDPs

	0 - 1500
	1501 - 5000
	5001 - 10000
	10001 - 50000
	50001 - 100000
	100001 - 150000

= UNICEF target counties

of INGO Projects Implemented / Planned

H	High (7 - 11)
M	Medium (4 - 6)
L	Low (1-3)

Sources: Enrollment rates taken from CFSNS, October 2006. IDP/Refugee data taken from Humanitarian Information Center for Liberia at *www.humanitarianinfo.org/liberia/*. Enrollment rates taken from EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data).

Total Number of Schools and Estimated Population by County

Lofa 194

Gbarpolu 103

Grand Cape Mount 130

Bong 304

532 Nimba

Bomi 75

Margibi 736

Montserrado 164

Grand Bassa 246

River Cess 108

Grand Gedeh 102

159 Sinoe

River Gee 112

Grand Kru 76

Maryland 131

Estimated Population

- 0 - 50,000
- 50,001 - 100,000
- 100,001 - 200,000
- 200,001 - 500,000
- 500,001 - 1,000,000

Total: 3,454,657

= UNICEF target counties

Sources: Population estimates from MPEA/MOH 2005 and number of schools from EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data).

IDP/Refugee Return Rates by Areas of Return and Primary Schools by Condition

Areas of return of registered refugees and IDPs

- 0 - 1500
- 1501 - 5000
- 5001 - 10000
- 10001 - 50000
- 50001 - 100000
- 100001 - 150000

Source: IDP/Refugee data taken from Humanitarian Information Center for Liberia at www.humanitarianinfo.org/liberia/. Enrollment rates taken from EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data).

Primary Schools by Building Condition

	Total
% destroyed	22.76%
% intact	19.01%
% major damage	17.18%
% minor damage	39.25%
% No Data	1.80%

Type of Primary Schools by County

Primary Schools by Type

		Total
■	% private	18.35%
■	% public	56.56%
■	% mission/religious	12.48%
■	% self help/community	39.25%

Source: EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data)

Textbook per Pupil Ratio in the Primary Schools

Source: EMIS, 2006 (based on preliminary data)

APPENDIX 4 (Liberia):

Detailed Organizational Diagram of the Ministry of Education

Minister of Education

Legal Council
Prof. Staff
Support staff   SCS

Internal Audit Section
Prof. Staff
Support staff   SCS

Special Assistant to the Minister

Liberia National Commission for UNESCO (NATCOM)

Deputy Minister for Administration
Support Staff DA

Asst. minister for Administration
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director of School Health
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director of Transport
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director of Communications
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director of Security
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Comptroller
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director of Personnel
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director of Procurement
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director Of Building & Grounds
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Of Records
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Deputy minister for Instruction Support

Asst. minister for Curri. Dev. & Textbook Research
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Coordinator Material Center
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

County Education Material & Resource Center

Director Curriculum Dev.
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Textbook Dev.
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director Physical Education Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director Media Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Asst. minister for Vocational & Technical Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Science & Technology
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Music
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director Vocational Education Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Director Agricultural Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Home Arts
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

Asst. minister for Teacher Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Teacher Accreditation.
Prof. Staff
Support Staff   TCA

Director Teacher Certification
Prof. Staff
Support Staff   TCA

Director Teacher Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Asst. minister for Secondary Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Students Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Guardians & Counseling
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Adult Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Adult Education
Prof. Staff
Support Staff

County Education Officer

County Education Officer

Asst. minister for Primary Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Primary Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Pre-Primary Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Material Development
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director Special Education
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Instructional Supervisor

Deputy Minister for Planning & Development
Support staff

Asst. Minister for Planning & management
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director of Planning
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Director of Research
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Info. System & Data Anal
Prof. Staff
Support staff

Educ. Facility. Devel.
Prof. Staff
Support staff

APPENDIX 5 (Liberia)

Consolidated Appeal (9 OCTOBER 2006[14])

Project Domain	Original requirements (in US dollars)	Revised requirements (in US dollars)	Funding (in US dollars)	Percent (%) covered
Agriculture	8,863,400	9,597,921	2,241,138	23
Coordination and Support Services	626,806	1,326,864	553,172	42
Economic Recovery and Infrastructure	4,950,000	11,300,250	4,302,719	38
Education	**7,382,732**	**4,883,482**	**678,164**	**14**
Health	23,371,136	39,318,480	2,806,309	7
Multi-sector	51,414,650	46,147,896	11,301,539	24
Protection/Human Rights/Rule of Law	10,488,213	13,414,258	4,252,261	32
Shelter and non-food items	7,110,395	6,370,395	0	0
Water and sanitation	6,784,325	12,359,753	4,023,766	33
Grand Total	**120,991,657**	**144,719,299**	**53,029,356**	**37**

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14   "Consolidated Appeals: Liberia 2006." Table E: List of Appeal Projects (grouped by sector), with funding status of each as of 09-October-2006. Available at http://ocha.unog.ch/fts/reports/daily/ocha_R3_A699___06100821.pdf. Accessed 8 October 2006.

APPENDIX 1 (Southern Sudan)

Timeline of Conflict in Southern Sudan[15]

1881 – The Sudanese revolt against the Turco-Egyptian administration.

1899-1955 – Sudan is under joint British–Egyptian rule.

1956 – Sudan becomes independent.

1958 – General Abbud leads a military coup against the elected civilian government.

1962 – Civil war begins in the south, led by the Anya Nya movement.

1964 – The 'October Revolution' overthrows Abbud and a national government is established.

1969 – Jafar Numayri leads the 'May Revolution' military coup.

1972 – Under the Addis Ababa peace agreement between the government and the Anya Nya, the south becomes a self-governing region.

1978 – Oil is discovered in Bentiu in southern Sudan.

1983 – Civil war breaks out again in the south involving government forces and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement, led by John Garang.

1983 – President Numayri declares the introduction of Sharia Law.

1985 – After widespread popular unrest, Numayri is deposed by a group of officers and a Transitional Military Council is set up to rule the country.

1986 – A coalition government is formed after general elections with Sadiq al-Mahdi as prime minister.

1988 – A coalition partner, the Democratic Unionist Party, drafts a cease-fire agreement with the SPLM, but it is not implemented.

1989 – The National Salvation Revolution takes over in a military coup.

1993 – The Revolution Command Council is dissolved after Omar al-Bashir is appointed president.

1998 – The US launches a missile attack on a pharmaceutical plant in Khartoum, alleging that it was making materials for chemical weapons.

1998 – The new constitution is endorsed by over 96percent of voters in a referendum.

1999 – President Bashir dissolves the National Assembly and declares a state of emergency following a power struggle with parliamentary speaker, Hassan al-Turabi.

1999 – Sudan begins to export oil.

2000 – Bashir is re-elected for another five years in elections boycotted by main opposition parties.

2001 – Islamist leader, Hassan al-Turabi, is arrested one day after his party, the Popular National Congress, signed a memorandum of understanding with the southern rebel Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA).

The failed Nairobi peace talks are attended by President al-Bashir and John Garang.

The government says it accepts a Libyan/Egyptian initiative to end the civil war.

The United Nations lifts largely symbolic sanctions against Sudan.

US President George W. Bush names Senator John Danforth as special envoy.

2002 - SPLA joins forces with rival militia group, Sudan People's Defence Force, to pool resources in campaign against government in Khartoum.

The Government and the SPLA sign a landmark ceasefire agreement providing for a six-month renewable ceasefire in the central Nuba Mountains - a key rebel stronghold.

The government and the SPLA sign the Machakos Protocol on ending the 19-year civil war. The government accepts the right of the south to seek self-determination after a six-year interim period. Southern rebels accept application of Shariah Law in the north.

President al-Bashir and SPLA leader John Garang meet face-to-face for the first time, through the mediation of Ugandan President Yoweri Museveni.

The government and the SPLA agree to a ceasefire for duration of negotiations.

2005 January – The government and southern rebels sign a peace deal. The agreement includes a permanent ceasefire and accords on wealth and power sharing.

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15   Appendix 1 is based on "Timeline: Sudan" from BBC website.

APPENDIX 2 (Southern Sudan)

History of Conflict in Southern Sudan[16]

The Ottoman-Egyptian administration collapsed in the 1880s as a result of a national-religious revolt and the Anglo-Egyptian forces captured Khartoum in 1898. The British kept the north and the south separate until 1947 but gave political power to northern elite ahead of independence in January 1956. Fearing marginalization by the more populous north, southern army officers mutinied in 1955, eventually forming the Anya-Nya guerrilla movement.

General Abboud seized power in Khartoum in 1958 instituting a policy of Islamisation. After Abboud was forced out by popular uprising in 1964, a number of Arab-dominated governments succeeded each other until the coup of General Nimieri in 1969. Following the failed coup attempt by Communists in 1971 that left Nimieri politically isolated, he began to seek peace with neighboring countries and southern rebels. The Addis Ababa peace agreement was signed with Anya-Nya in 1972, allowing for Anya-Nya's integration into the national army and autonomy for the south.

However, systematic violation of the agreement by the Khartoum government, combined with an increasing Islamic shift in late 1970's, and the discovery of oil in southern Sudan, eventually led to the resumption of war in 1983. The agreement was unconstitutionally revised in 1977 and northern troops were deployed to the oil-rich town of Bentiu. Southern troops mutinied against the government in early 1983. Nimieri abrogated the Addis Ababa agreement in June 1983, dissolving the south's constitutional guarantees and declaring Arabic the official language. Islamic Sharia law was announced as the sole source for Sudanese law in September 1983. Southern grievances crystallized around the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) group led by John Garang. Nimieri was overthrown by a popular uprising in 1985 and a democratic government, led by Umma Party's Sadiq al-Mahdi, was voted into power in 1986.

Moves towards a peace agreement between the SPLA and the government were dashed when the National Islamic Front (NIF) led a bloodless coup in June 1989, the day before the bill to freeze Sharia law was to be passed. Led by General Omer al-Bashir, NIF unraveled steps towards peace, revoked the constitution, banned opposition parties, and moved to Islamisize the justice system. NIF simultaneously stepped up the north-south war, proclaiming jihad against the non-Muslim south.

The SPLA was weakened in 1991 by the fall of the Mengitsu regime in Ethiopia and by a major split within its ranks, which led to serious inter-ethnic fighting in the south. The SPLA nevertheless kept afloat through alliances of convenience with northern movements opposed to the NIF, and strong regional support.

On and off negotiations between the government and the SPLA under the Kenyan-led regional Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) body had little progress from 1994-2001. The Machakos Protocol of July 2002, which granted the self-determination referendum for the south after a six year interim period, provided the framework for future negotiations. The Naivasha Accords, which brought peace between North and South Sudan for the first time in 20 years, was officially signed on 9 January 2005.

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16   Appendix 2 is based on International Crisis Group's Sudan country analysis.

APPENDIX 3 (Southern Sudan)

Summary of the Key Features of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) [17]

The **Power Sharing Agreement** provides for a mostly autonomous government for Southern Sudan, as well as a role for Southern Sudan in the Northern Government, with a view towards making unification attractive to the Southern Sudanese population before the self-determination referendum in 2011. Positions in the Government of National Unity will be split 70:30 in favor of the North, positions in the Government of Southern Sudan will be split 85:15 in favor of the South. The SPLM holds the Vice- Presidency post in the Government of National Unity based in Khartoum and the Presidency post for the Government of Southern Sudan based in Juba. The Government of National Unity will have fixed representation from the National Congress Party (52percent), from the SPLM (28percent), from other northern parties (14percent) and other southern parties (6percent). The Government of Southern Sudan will have fixed representation from the SPLM (75percent), from the National Congress Party (15percent) and other southern parties (15percent). Sharia will remain applicable in the North and parts of the constitution will be re-written so as to not apply to any non-Muslims throughout Sudan.

The **Wealth Sharing Agreement** provides a framework for resource allocation and sustainable decentralization. It establishes comparative underdevelopment and war-affected status as the key criteria for prioritization of public revenue allocations. The Agreement assigns non-oil revenues and a 50:50 share of oil revenues to the South. The South also has the right to collect additional domestic revenue and external assistance and to have its own banking system within the framework of the Central Bank of Sudan.

The **Security Protocol** outlines a collaborative approach to security issues by providing for two separate armed forces for the South and the North, as well as joint integrated units that will become the nucleus of a future national army. This arrangement is designed to allow the parties to gradually downsize their forces. The North is to withdraw 91,000 government troops from the South within two and a half years, while the SPLA is to withdraw its forces from the North in eight months. The integrated units of 21,000 soldiers formed during the six-year interim period will be deployed to sensitive areas. These units will be stationed jointly but with separate command and control structures.

The particular factors that precipitated conflict in **Abyei, Southern Kordofan and Blue Nile** (also referred to as the Three Areas) are recognized, and special power and wealth sharing arrangements have been agreed upon. These include the establishment of the State Land Commissions, special provisions on education and security, the right to solicit external resources, and popular consultation rights for the local population. Abyei has a unique administrative status, including a referendum on its final status within the North or the South.

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17   Appendix 3 is based on Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) Sudan, "Volume 1: Synthesis, Framework for Sustained Peace, Development and Poverty Eradication." 18 March 2005, the International Crisis Group report "The Khartoum-SPLM Agreement: Sudan's Uncertain Peace," the Draft Constitutional Text of 16 March 2005, and the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan.

APPENDIX 4 (Southern Sudan)

UN Operations in Southern Sudan[18]

The United Nations established OLS in response to the famine in Bahr el Ghazal in 1989 through a tripartite agreement of negotiated access between the Government of Sudan, the SPLM and the United Nations. The operation continued until the stabilization of the security situation with the signing of CPA and the establishment of UNMIS. OLS Southern Sector was operated out of Kenya by a consortium of UN agencies, and international and national NGOs with UNICEF as the lead agency. The UNICEF Chief of Operations also served as the UN Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator (DHC) for the South until late 2004. The limited access to Southern Sudan due to humanitarian flight and the strict ground rules of the operation encouraged particularly strong logistical coordination among UN agencies and the NGOs. The main tool for longer-term programmatic coordination and funding was the annual Work Plan for Southern Sudan prepared under the leadership of UNICEF.

The United Nations established UNMIS in March 2005 with Security Council Resolution 1590, as requested by the parties to CPA, and under Chapter VI of the UN Charter. UNMIS has three pillars - making peace sustainable, guaranteeing human rights, and reducing poverty and economic inequality. UNMIS is a fully funded multidimensional peace support operation that coordinates all components of the UN system in Sudan under a single mandate.

The management structure of UNMIS includes the Special Representative of the Secretary General (SRSG), two Deputy SRSGs and a Force Commander. The Principal Deputy SRSG is responsible for the functional areas of political and civil affairs, human rights, rule of law, UN police, and electoral matters. The Deputy SRSG, on the other hand, is the UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator (RC/HC); he heads the UN Country Team to ensure coordination among UN Agencies and other partners in humanitarian assistance, recovery and development.

The UN Country Team is comprised of two parallel country teams based in Khartoum and in Juba. The Khartoum-based team is led by a Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator who is responsible for areas in the north of the country, the transitional areas and Darfur. The Juba-based team led by a Deputy Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator (Deputy RC/HC) works on humanitarian and recovery programming in Southern Sudan. The Deputy RC/HC in Juba is supported by UNOCHA in Juba in the overall coordination of humanitarian relief and development programming.

In accordance with the "one country, two systems" governing structure, UNICEF has also restructured its office and program management systems for Sudan with two Directors of Operations, one for the North and one for Southern Sudan, supporting the Representative on policy, program matters, and management issues. This approach envisages one Country Program with two distinct program areas for the North and the South. The Director of Operations for Southern Sudan is based in Juba and works directly with GoSS.

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18   Appendix 4 is based on *Sudan Unified Mission Plan* (2005) and *UNICEF Sudan Annual Report 2005.*

APPENDIX 5 (Southern Sudan)

The Multi-Donor Trust Fund

The financing and aid management modality for reconstruction efforts in Southern Sudan is the Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDTF) administered by the World Bank. This financing mode was decided during the Joint Assessment Mission process through extensive discussions with the northern Government, Government of Southern Sudan and major partners.[19] The key objectives of the Fund are aid harmonization and donor coordination that would facilitate flexible and swift responses for the financing of priority expenditures as highlighted by JAM. MDTF is a pooled funding vehicle that does not allow for the earmarking of funds by donors. The oversight committee of MDTF determines priority areas of interventions based on the sectoral proposals prepared by technical teams in consultation with GoSS. The committee is composed of representatives from GoSS, donors, and the World Bank.

The Multi-Donor Education Rehabilitation Project (ERP) is the umbrella program for all reconstruction efforts in the education sector.[20] MDTF's role under the ERP is supplementing the Sudanese government budget and building the capacity of education institutions. GoSS is expected to provide more than 80percent of the necessary budget, 543 million USD, for the 2006-2008 period. MoEST is the overall implementing ministry for the ERP, but several components of the umbrella project will be contracted out to private companies, NGOs, research organizations and universities. Under the ERP, MoEST will be developing policies, preparing, managing and supervising service provider contracts, and coordinating rehabilitation efforts.

The principal outcomes of the ERP include: (1) building twenty County Multi-Purpose Education Centers (CEC) and providing approximately 4,000 teachers with in-service upgrading; (2) building capacity for 50,000 demobilized soldiers, returning school age children, overage learners, females and other non-formal learners to participate in alternate learning programs or basic skills training to facilitate their integration into a post-conflict society; (3) rehabilitating schools in war-affected areas to provide an improved learning environment; and (4) strengthening MoEST capacity in the areas of policy formulation, education system management, curriculum development and learning assessment.

The direct flow of funds from donors into GoSS for the Education Rehabilitation Project has been minimal so far. In order for the MDTF funds to be used, the financial management capacity of MoEST has to be strengthened first, which involves a particularly steep learning curve for all parties involved.[21] During 2006, a task team leader and a technical expert for ERP were stationed in Juba to facilitate and oversee the implementation of the ERP. As of October 2006, financial and project management structures within MoEST have been approved and put in place, and the shortlisting of contractors is ongoing for the construction of CECs.[22] This delay in the fund flow for ERP highlights the inherent tension between the three key components of post-conflict reconstruction process: the speed of reconstruction, the need to work through the government, and the need to put in place systems and procedures in order to strengthen institutional capacity and minimize corruption.

The direct transfer of funds from MDTF to UN Agencies under ERP has also experienced delays, which has been mostly due to the global-level contractual issues between UN Agencies and the World Bank for financial management and procurement processes.[23]

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19   Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) Sudan, "Volume 1: Synthesis, Framework for Sustained Peace, Development and Poverty Eradication." 18 March 2005.
20   South Sudan Multi-Donor Trust Fund. "Project Proposal Document for a Proposed Grant in the Amount of 51.0 Million USD to the Government of South Sudan for the Multi-Donor Education Rehabilitation Project."
21   Emily Oldmeadow (EC), interview with authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.
22   William Emilio Cerritelli (MDTF), interview with authors, written notes, 2 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.
23   Emily Oldmeadow (EC), interview with authors, written notes, 3 November 2006, Juba, Sudan.

Organizational Diagram of Ministry of Education, Science and Technology[24]

GoSS Minister

GoSS Under Secretary

Planning and Budgeting Directorate

Departments
- Planning and Monitoring
- Data and Statistics
- Policy Analysis and Support
- Physical Planning
- Development Partner Coordinator

Administration and Finance Directorate

Departments
- Efficiency, Quality and Financial Compliance Audit
- Financial Management
- General and Personnel Administration Establishment Unit
- Procurement & Distribution

Quality Promotion and Innovation Directorate

Departments:
- Grades and Standards
- Human Resource Development
- Teacher Education
- Curriculum Development
- National Languages

Gender and Social Change Directorate

Departments:
- Civic and Peace Education
- Girls Education
- Life Skills and Nutrition
- Special Needs
- Land Mine Awareness and Information
- Child Protection and Psychosocial Needs

General Education Directorate

Departments:
- Early Childhood Development
- Primary Education
- Secondary Education
- Vocational Education
- Alternative Education System
- Special Education

Higher and Tertiary Education Directorate

Departments:
- Science and Technology Research
- Technical Education
- Universities
- Community Colleges

Examinations Secretariat

Departments:
- Basic Exams
- Secondary Exams
- Tertiary Exams

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24   Appendix 6 is based on Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST). "Policy Handbook Draft." September 2006.

APPENDIX 7 (Southern Sudan)

Organizational Diagram of State Ministry of Education [25]

State Minister

State Director General

General Education Department

Units
- Early Childhood Development
- Primary Education
- Secondary Education
- Vocational and Technical Education
- Alternative Education System
- Special Education

Gender and Social Change Department

Units
- Civic and Peace Ed.
- Girls Education
- Life Skills and Nutrition
- Special Needs
- Land Mine Awareness and Information
- Child Protection and Psychosocial Needs

Quality Promotion and Innovation Department

Units
- Standards
- Human Resource Development
- Examinations
- Curriculum, Teacher Education and Training, Scholarships
- Community Education Centers

Administration and Finance Department

Units
- Efficiency, Quality and Financial Compliance Audit
- Financial Management
- General and Personnel Administration
- Establishment Unit
- Procurement & Distribution

Planning and Budgeting Department

Units
- Planning and Monitoring
- Data and Statistics
- Physical Planning
- Development Partner Coordinator

25 Appendix 7 is based on Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST). "Policy Handbook Draft." September 2006.

APPENDIX 8 (Southern Sudan)

UNICEF's Child Friendly Schools[26]

Although the number one priority for MoEST is maintaining and expanding existing schools, UNICEF has the additional priority of creating child friendly learning spaces. The general idea is to maximize all spaces to be used as learning spaces to ensure multiple opportunities for new learning and teaching methods. Learning spaces should allow for and stimulate innovative ways of learning and teaching while making conventional methods - rows of desks with a teacher in front - possible in the same space.

Components of the CFS to be constructed by UNICEF in Southern Sudan include the following:
- Each classroom should have a learning/play-deck for project-based learning.
- A teacher's office for the teacher to prepare lessons, mark exams, etc.
- A small loft is built-in for storage purposes.
- A micro-library that can also serve as a multi-purpose room that is left open to the users.
- Side-benches can be used as an intermediate space between inside and outside
- A blackboard should be fixed to a wall but could also be put on wheels so the teacher can put it anywhere he/she wishes (on the learning decks or in the gardens).
- A ramp for wheel-chaired children or children using crutches.
- School furniture that has been designed to be child friendly. Pieces can be re-arranged for either small work-groups or used in conventional rows.
- The 'barrier' between in-and outside should be kept as small as possible so the walls can open up fully, and therefore, inside learning space is extended towards the outside learning space.
- The exterior space between classrooms should be used for outside school theatre sessions, gatherings, singing, and dancing. Ideally, there should be brick steps alongside the classroom where the children, parents and staff can sit, watch and enjoy.
- The school grounds should contain dedicated areas for extra-curricular activity, sports and other games, and an eco-school farm and wood lot. Large parts of the school ground landscaping should be planned and built by the users (the children, teachers and parents).
- A water bore-hole and child friendly sanitary facilities should be installed, including girl-friendly toilets with an extra hygiene room, a ramp, a hand-washing facility, rain-water harvesting, and an extra-wide handicapped toilet for children in wheel-chairs.
- Teacher housing, a nursery or an early childhood care center should be built.

The UNICEF design also incorporates bio-climatic analysis in the various geographical areas of southern Sudan for planning climatically appropriate designs of the school grounds, buildings, and spaces. There are (i) the 'louvered walls'; (ii) the open pattern of the brick-walls; (iii) the orientation on the solar-path and prevailing winds in dry and rainy season; (iv) the local vegetation (trees, shrubs, flowers), the soils, level/drainage of the sites, and adjacent water bodies. The design also takes into consideration traditional and current perceptions towards the change and development of space, building materials, and the layout of the extended family life.

These plans were discussed during several sessions of the thematic working group on educational facilities that included representatives from MoEST and other education partners. Although the CFS concept with its holistic view on balancing the hardware and software in education is quite new, it received general acceptance from stakeholders.
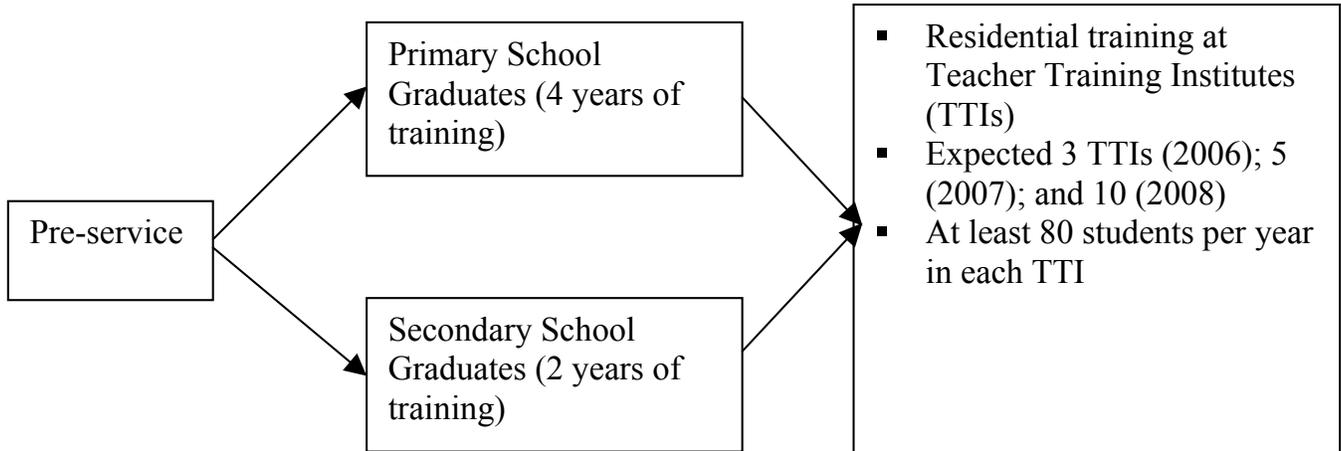

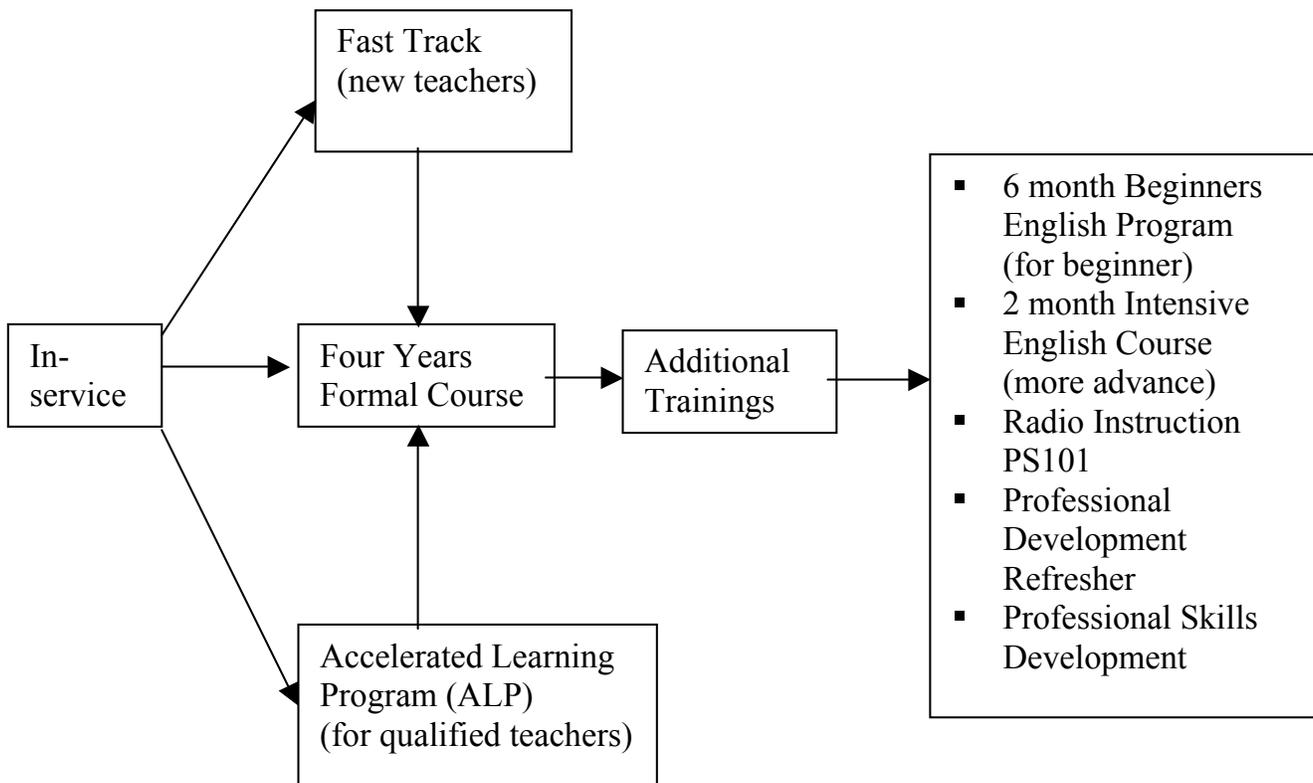26   Appendix 8 is based on interviews with and documents provided by Rene John Dierkx, Architect at UNICEF.

APPENDIX 9 (Southern Sudan)

Structure of Teacher Training and Qualification Programs[27]

Pre-service.

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Pre-service ──┬──► Primary School Graduates (4 years of training) ──┐
              │                                                      ├──► ▪ Residential training at Teacher Training Institutes (TTIs)
              └──► Secondary School Graduates (2 years of training) ─┘      ▪ Expected 3 TTIs (2006); 5 (2007); and 10 (2008)
                                                                            ▪ At least 80 students per year in each TTI
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In-service.

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                    ┌──► Fast Track (new teachers) ──┐
                    │                                 ▼
In-service ─────────┼──► Four Years Formal Course ──► Additional Trainings ──► ▪ 6 month Beginners English Program (for beginner)
                    │          ▲                                                ▪ 2 month Intensive English Course (more advance)
                    └──► Accelerated Learning          │                        ▪ Radio Instruction PS101
                         Program (ALP) ────────────────┘                        ▪ Professional Development Refresher
                         (for qualified teachers)                               ▪ Professional Skills Development
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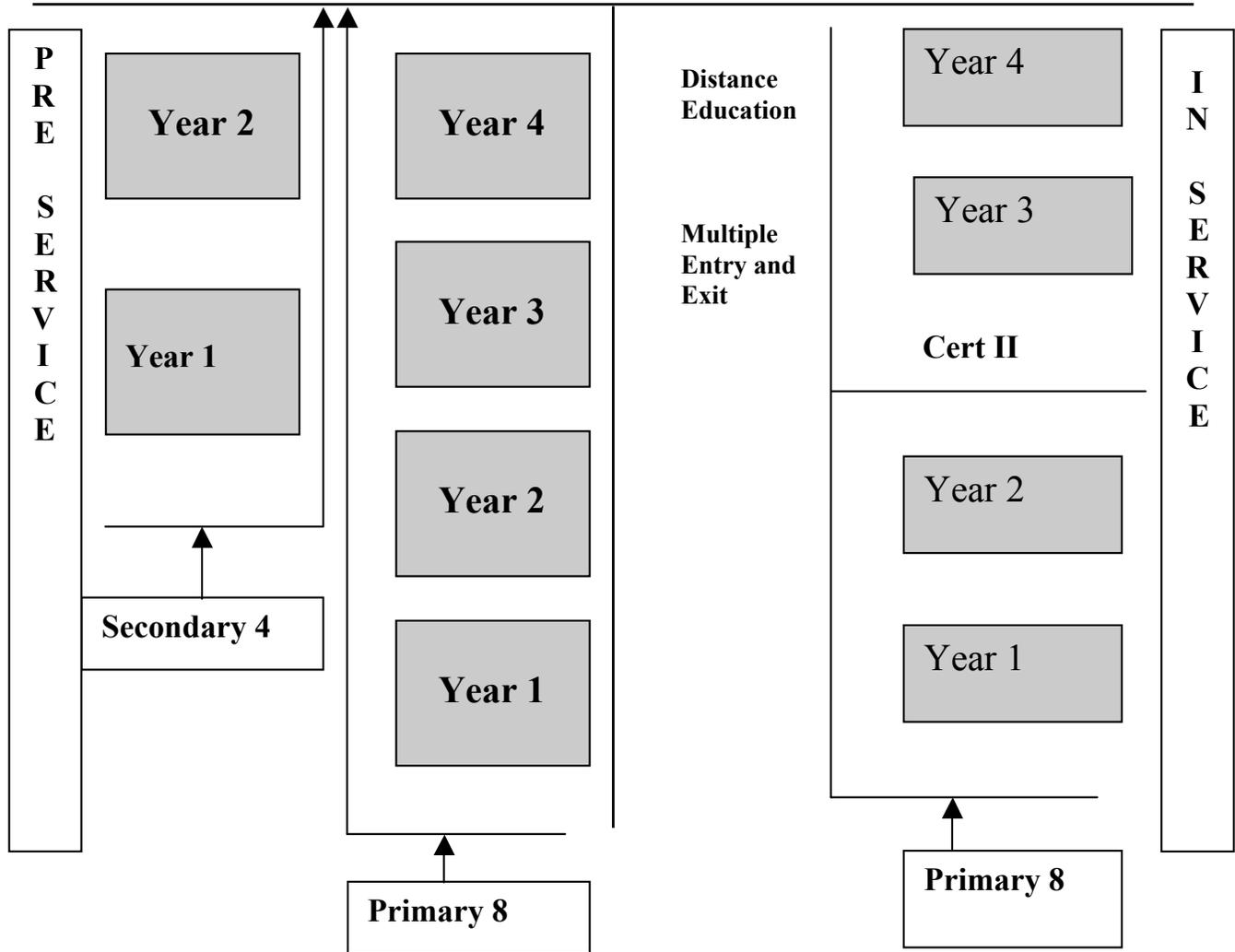
27   Appendix 9 is based on MoEST. "Strategic Plan and Policies (2005-2010) for the Education Sector." Juba, Sudan, March 2006.

Southern Sudan General Primary Teacher's Certificate

PRE SERVICE

Year 2

Year 1

Secondary 4

Year 4

Year 3

Year 2

Year 1

Primary 8

Distance Education

Multiple Entry and Exit

Year 4

Year 3

Cert II

Year 2

Year 1

Primary 8

IN SERVICE

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APPENDIX 10 (Southern Sudan)

MoEST Teacher Training Program[28]

MoEST has recently completed the design of a teacher training program to replace the earlier phased system and level system, both of which lacked consistent implementation and clear certification processes. The new teacher training program includes an initial orientation and training for teachers, and follow-up opportunities to become fully certified. The program includes the following elements:

1. There are set standards, curricula, and examinations for teacher certification;
2. Teachers can be certified through either pre-service or in-service programs;
3. The current pre-service program is a two-year residential course for secondary school graduates. The proposed four-year residential course for primary school graduates is replaced by in-service training program for the time being.
4. The in-service program is a four-year course. A primary school completion and basic English competency are minimum entry requirements.
5. The fast track program for new teachers will provide initial orientation and training. Upon the completion of the fast-track program and assignment to a school, the new teachers will join the formal in-service training program or, if not meeting the entry requirements, will enroll in the prerequisite programs of ALP and/or English.
6. The fast-track and in-service programs, as well as the ALP and English programs, are administered by the CECs.

The Fast Track Training Programs will be packaged into a services contract and tendered for bids by NGOs, universities, research organizations or any agency with field service delivery experience.[29] The package of activities includes general development of the CEC, training of tutors, initial training for new teachers, and follow-up options for teachers leading to their full certification.

Two significant changes are noted for the new pre- and in-service teacher training programs.[30] First, due to the high demand for teachers, the primary school graduation requirement for the four-year pre-service training program might be relaxed in the short term in order to recruit more teachers. For instance, those who completed P-7 and P-6 might be accepted over time as the need arises. Second, the Fast Track Training Program is developed as the first step in a career development path – an entry point for new teachers, most of whom are unqualified. Fast track is not a replacement or an alternative to the new in-service program. Though designed for new teachers, in 2006 the target group will be current teachers who have either never received training or are new to the SPLM curriculum. This is due to the urgent need to train teachers who are already serving.

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28 Appendix 10 is based on MoEST. "Strategic Plan and Policies (2005-2010) for the Education Sector." Juba, Sudan, March 2006, and Saul Murimba (UNICEF), interview by authors, 1 November 2006.
29 MoEST. "Report of the Thematic Working Group on Teacher Education and Training." 7-8 March 2006.
30 Saul Murimba (UNICEF), interview by authors, 1 November 2006.