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Education in Emergencies: challenges of providing quality education to young people affected by humanitarian crises and conflict situations

Universidade Fernando Pessoa

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ABSTRACT

The present work deals with the issue of quality of education in emergency situations, humanitarian crises, armed conflicts and/or insecurity contexts. It consists of two essential parts: a theoretical part and a practical one. In the theoretical part, are presented essential contents which will allow to better understand the object of study – the quality of the education response in emergencies, with particular emphasis in the Teaching and Learning domain (Education Curricula essentially). This theoretical part deals with issues directly related with the right to education; education as a human right and as an enabling right; international legal framework and international legal instruments protecting both education and special and more vulnerable groups of people (children, refugees, among others); global agendas and global action plans protecting, promoting and advocating not only for the right to quality education, but also to concrete measures that enable to work on the progresses already achieved, among some other issues.

On the other hand, in the practical part, are addressed issues such as: the specific nature and contexts of Education in Emergencies (EiE); main concepts and definitions of EiE; key global statistics in EiE; international legal framework specific to EiE, including the three different bodies of international law – International Human Rights Law, International Humanitarian Law and International Criminal Law; brief overview of the INEE Minimum Standards handbook, with a particular focus in the Teaching and Learning domain and with an in-depth analysis of Standard 1 – Curricula. Finally, there is a presentation of the questionnaires that seek to answer the central question of this study, its results are discussed and analysed, and the main conclusions are drawn up, including possible recommendations to improve practices and the quality of the educational response in the EiE sector.

Keywords: Education; Emergency; Humanitarian crisis; Armed conflict.
RESUMO

O presente trabalho aborda a questão da qualidade da educação em situações de emergência, crises humanitárias, conflitos armados e/ou contextos de insegurança. Consiste em duas partes essenciais: uma parte teórica e uma prática. Na parte teórica, são apresentados conteúdos essenciais que permitirão compreender melhor o objeto de estudo – a qualidade da resposta educativa em emergências, com particular ênfase no domínio do ensino e da aprendizagem (currículos educacionais essencialmente). Esta parte teórica lida com questões diretamente relacionadas com o direito à educação; a educação como um direito humano e como um direito que capacita; quadro jurídico internacional e instrumentos jurídicos internacionais que protegem tanto a educação como os grupos de pessoas especiais e mais vulneráveis (crianças, refugiados, entre outros); agendas globais e planos de ação globais, protegendo, promovendo e defendendo não só o direito à educação de qualidade, mas também a medidas concretas que permitam trabalhar nos progressos já alcançados, entre outras questões.

Por outro lado, na parte prática, são abordadas questões como: a natureza específica e os contextos de educação em emergências (EiE); principais conceitos e definições de EiE; principais estatísticas globais em EiE; quadro jurídico internacional específico do EiE, incluindo os três diferentes órgãos do direito internacional – direito internacional dos direitos humanos, direito internacional humanitário e direito penal internacional; breve visão geral do manual de normas mínimas da INEE, com particular ênfase no domínio do ensino e da aprendizagem e com uma análise aprofundada do padrão 1 – currículos. Finalmente, há uma apresentação dos questionários que buscam responder à questão central deste estudo, os seus resultados são discutidos e analisados, e as principais conclusões são elaboradas, incluindo possíveis recomendações para melhorar as práticas e a qualidade da resposta educativa no setor da EiE.

**Palavras-chave:** Educação; Emergência; Crise humanitária; Conflito armado.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACDI / VOCA – Agricultural Cooperative Development International / Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance

ACTED – Agency for Technical Cooperation and Development

AGE – Advancing Girls’ Education in Africa

ANCEFA – Africa Network Campaign on Education for All

ArtHum – Artists for Humanity

BIICL – British Institute of International and Comparative Law

CADE – UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education

CEDAW – Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women

CERD – Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination

CESCR – Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

CMW – Committee on Migrant Workers

CR – UNESCO Committee on Conventions and Recommendations

CRC - Committee on the Rights of the Child

CRC – Convention on the Rights of the Child

CRPD – Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

CRS – Catholic Relief Services

DRR – Disaster Risk Reduction

EAA – Education Above All

ECCN – Education in Crisis & Conflict Network

EDC – Education Development Center

EDN - Edition

EDT – Education Development Trust

EENET – Enabling Education Network

EFA – Education for All

EiE – Education in Emergencies
GADRRRES – Global Alliance for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience in the Education Sector

GCE – Global Campaign for Education

GCN13 – General Comment No. 13 regarding the right to education on the Implementation of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

GCPEA – Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack

GEM – Global Education Monitoring

HDI – Human Development Index

HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus

HRC – Human Rights Committee

IASC – Inter-Agency Standing Committee

ICC – International Criminal Court in The Hague

ICCPR – International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

ICESCR - International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

ICL – International Criminal Law

ICRC – International Committee of the Red Cross

ICTR – International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda

ICTY – International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia

IDPs – Internally Displaced Persons

IFRC – International Federation of the Red Cross

IHL – International Humanitarian Law

IHRL – International Human Rights Law

INEE – Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies

LGBT – Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender

LVQ – Long-version Questionnaire

LWF – Lutheran World Federation

MDGs – Millennium Development Goals

MS – Minimum Standards
MSH – INEE’s Minimum Standards Handbook
N/A – Not Applicable
NGOs – Non-governmental Organization(s)
NY – New York
ODI – Overseas Development Institute
OHCHR – Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
PEIAC - Protecting Education in Insecurity and Armed conflict: An International Law Handbook
PEIC – Protect Education in Insecurity and Conflict
PSS – Psychosocial support
RNA – Rapid Needs Assessment
SDG4 – Sustainable Development Goal nº 4
SDGs – Sustainable Development Goals
SVQ – Short-version Questionnaire
UDHR – Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UIS – UNESCO Institute of Statistics
UK – United Kingdom
UN – United Nations
UNCHR – United Nations Commission on Human Rights
UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNGA – United Nations General Assembly
UNHCR – United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNHRC – United Nations Human Rights Council
UNICEF - United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
UNOCHA – United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
USA – United States of America
WASH – Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
I. Introduction

In today’s modern world, much is said and talked about regarding education and the right to education. In fact, in terms of economic, and specifically educational and learning opportunities, the world today is better off than ever before. This may seem a very broad statement to analyse from an objective perspective, and in scientific terms, it may seem very subjective to be opened for discussions, but the truth is that there are many evidences supported by major studies that can prove how the world is getting better in many crucial dimensions of development and of human material well-being – poverty, literacy, health, freedom, education, among other dimensions, when compared, for example, with a timeframe of one century ago. This may seem a provocative assumption given that today many people all over the world are enormously exposed to the influence of social communication, which is itself one of the greatest global powers, capable of reporting on everyday life, but also capable of emphasizing too many political and social issues which tend to have a negative content and most of the times, also being disconnected directly from the lives of the common citizen. People watch daily news about issues and realities such as economic stagnation, recessions, financial bubbles and crashes, structural unemployment, economic migrations, violence, conflicts, nuclear weapons, terrorism, xenophobia, disrespect for human rights, and the list goes on... So given this scenario, it is almost certain that most people would not tell that the world is getting better. In fact, all of those aspects mentioned above that are reported by social communication are ultimate challenges that global leaders, national leaders, organizations and civil society will have to deal with and find out adequate solutions and responses for each of them. There is a powerful recent study designated by “The short history of global living conditions and why it matters that we know”\(^1\) conducted by Max Roser, an economist at the University of Oxford and the founder of Our World in Data. That study aimed to understand the state, changes and evolution of the world in a historical perspective having into consideration dimensions that are related with the measure of human development at a global level. For that purpose, the study had as a departing point a large survey\(^2\) directed to people from nine high-income countries (Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Norway, USA, Great Britain, Germany, Australia and France) and asked: “All things considered, do you think the world is getting better or worse, or neither getting better or worse?” The results were that very

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1 For more information about this study, please click here: [https://ourworldindata.org/a-history-of-global-living-conditions-in-5-charts](https://ourworldindata.org/a-history-of-global-living-conditions-in-5-charts)

few people considered that the world is getting better. For example, in Sweden, only 10% thought things are getting better, in Norway, it was only 8%, the USA it was 6%, in France and in Australia it was only 3%. So, looking at the answers and the results presented by respondents in that survey, an even more intriguing question arises: if these are the results presented by respondents from nine high-income countries from the so-called “developed world” where it is known to have more economic, social, education opportunities, greater accountability for human rights, peace and freedom, what would be the answers and results presented from people living in low-income countries, from the so-called “developing world”, where it is known to be affected by poor economic and social conditions, poor economic and educational opportunities, marked by high levels of conflict and violence, generally more vulnerable to natural disasters and other crises, where human rights are often not respected nor peace and freedom prevails?

Nevertheless, the study mentioned above showed surprising results, contrary to the negative trends and responses presented by survey respondents. Taking up the starting point presented in the first paragraph on education and the right to education, two dimensions deserve attention: literacy dimension and education dimension. Regarding literacy, data presented by that study shows that in less than two centuries literacy in world population has increased significantly. For instance, in 1800, 87.95% of the world population were illiterate, while only 12.05% were literate; in 1900, 78.6% of world population were illiterate, while 21.4% were literate; in 1999, the graphic shows an inverse trend to those presented previously: 81.88% of world population were literate, while only 18.12% were illiterate. In 2014, the positive trend of increasing literacy among world population continues: 85.3% were literate, while 14.7% were illiterate. By other words, literacy has gone from a privilege of small elite to a need of global population, where 8 out of 10 people can now read and write. Regarding education, according to that same study, it also shows very positive results in terms of progress throughout the years. In this dimension, data on education is interrelated with another dimension that is global fertility, in which researchers expect that it will peak in 2070, and then, start to decline. In this regard, data shows “projected world population by level of education”, and there it can be seen that, for instance, in 1970, the world had a total population of 3.68 billion people, in which the vast majority were under 15 (1.38
billion). 852.02 million had no education, 213.28 million had incomplete primary, 533.87 million had primary and only 101.46 million had post secondary education. In 2000, the total population almost doubled (6.1 billion people) and all the higher levels of education, starting for example, in “lower secondary”, begin to bend farther to the right, getting larger, meaning that more people have access to those levels of education. Fifteen years later in 2015, the trend of a growing world population continues, making a total of 7.25 billion people, and so does the trend regarding progress on education among world population, with more people pursuing more education and at higher levels. In 2015, 767.77 million had no education; 316.24 million had incomplete primary; 932.09 million had primary education and 725.52 million had post secondary education.

This evolution reflects a progress of great significance to the world not only to the economic, social and cultural dimensions, but also and most importantly, to the development and improvement of the living conditions of human beings and their inherent well-being dimensions.

However, there are some aspects of crucial importance that must be noted. In spite of many studies, including the previous one mentioned above, recognising the great evolution and tangible progress that the world has gone throughout the last years and even from the last century, this is not the same as ignoring and underestimating the many difficult and complex global and transnational challenges that plague the world today.

People and societies are nowadays more demanding in aspects that directly or indirectly affect their lives. Long periods of history marked by authoritarian political regimes, repression, dictatorships, wars, famine and widespread misery, little or no possibility of social mobility, among many other negative factors have contributed to shake up the popular masses over generations, making them less submissive, less domineering and more propitious to engage in protests and to fight for more rights in various social, political and economic aspects.

The very definition of human rights has undergone enormous and profound transformations throughout the centuries, and more precisely, over the last two decades, with the inclusion of new rights such as LGBT rights, migration rights, environment rights in most Human Rights declarations and conventions. If at the beginning of intellectual debate among humanists on the notion of Humanism and the first notion of human rights, they focused mainly on the fundamental questions of life, liberty and
property (natural rights), today the notion of human rights is very much more extensive, incomparably more comprehensive, extending to areas and rights that would perhaps be unthinkable in the societies of humanists of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. If in the sixteenth century mere debate and philosophical discussion of the full right to life and liberty of human beings was in itself a desecrating element of suspicion and political persecution, one could not even imagine that in those societies there was room to think about the universal right of education to all citizens, to quality education and equal opportunities for all. In this sense, it is possible to say that today the world evolves at two speeds, in which two stand out: on the one hand, there are greater and better international development efforts in the most vulnerable regions of the world at a steadier and stable pace, creating positive results in several dimensions related to human development, in particular in terms of schooling and education, and on the other, there is a growing number of complex challenges producing effects (most of the times negative effects) at global, transnational and regional levels that now require much more attention from various stakeholders, including political decision-makers, big entrepreneurs, civil society organizations and citizens. For this reason, it is important to point out that while governments, international organizations, NGOs and other decision-making stakeholders take important steps to create stable, sustainable and long-term opportunities that can benefit both the beneficiaries, particularly the poorer, the most disadvantaged, and the population and economies in general, it is important to create adequate opportunities that meet the needs of the populations, the various economies and having into consideration the challenges facing each region, to avoid creating even more gaps and being distant to address development challenges efficiently.

This issue of creating sustainable, durable and long-term opportunities for present and future generations and in particular opportunities in the Education dimension, leads us to the aim and purpose of this study – to understand **how is the quality of the education response in emergencies, with particular emphasis in the Teaching and Learning domain (Curricula) being addressed** across different geographical regions, sociocultural contexts and teaching and learning patterns. In order to understand the teaching and learning practices that are being (or were) used in these different regional, geographical, socio-cultural and educational contexts, the **Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies’ (INEE) minimum standards handbook** has been used as the main reference in literature review. It is currently believed to be the leader in the definition of minimum standards and guidelines in Education practices. Subsequently,
two versions of questionnaires focused on key issues relating to the INEE’s minimum standards in the Teaching and Learning domain (in particular school curricula) were planned and developed. They were then distributed by a very diverse range of participants involved in the field of Education in Emergencies.

In order to better understand the methodology adopted in this work project, as well as the methods used in the collection, treatment, analysis of data and results, below it is presented the next chapter that is dedicated to this question.

II. Methodology

Regarding the methodology used in this work project, as well as the instruments for data collection and analysis, firstly it is important to highlight a fundamental point.

First of all, in its broadest sense, the present work project aims to know the reality of Education in contexts of humanitarian crises and emergency situations, namely armed conflicts and/or insecurity. In parallel, it also seeks to know more specific issues related to the scope of Education in situations of humanitarian crises and emergencies, or by other words, in the field of Education in Emergencies. Therefore, in its strictest and narrowest sense, the object of study of this project is the quality of the education response in humanitarian crises, namely armed conflicts and/or insecurity, and it aims to understand and analyse how is the quality of the education response being addressed in these contexts, across different geographic, sociocultural and demographic dimensions, taking into account the testimonies of experience and survey results of professionals (and/or students) who have worked (or studied) in this particular area and cluster of humanitarian action, within their last and most recent year (of intervention / studies).

Secondly, the research question that led to the knowledge about the object of study is as follows: “How is the quality of the education response in emergencies being addressed?” Through the research question, it was possible to know better the field and the universe of the object of study, which became more and more strict and delimited; to know more clearly and more deeply the state of the art of the object of study; to know the most appropriate literature and well as to review it, in order to produce the necessary knowledge for the elaboration and development of data collection instruments that would later allow us to respond and satisfy the central question of the research project. Therefore, in this way, and as previously mentioned in the third textual period regarding
the search for knowledge on more specific issues and subjects in the field of Education, it should be pointed out that the initial research question has made the object of study increasingly narrow and delimited, so that it would then seek to know and analyze the quality of the education response in emergencies in the light of quality minimum standards, focusing on an exclusive domain of Education – the Teaching and Learning domain – and within it, Curricula in particular.

Thirdly, in order to know and to answer the research question and the research problem, this work project was designed to comprise two key component parts: a theoretical part and a practical part. In the theoretical part, essential contents are presented and addressed which, in addition to introducing the theme and the literature review related to the object of study, allow a deeper understanding of the theoretical and scientific framework on which this project is based. Thus, in this way, in order to know the universe of the object of study, these theoretical contents that are presented aim to present and address central issues, such as for instance, the right to Education; the perception of the right to Education as a human right and as an enabling right; the international legal framework and international legal instruments protecting the right to Education, vulnerable groups of people and/or specific situations and contexts affecting the right to Education; global agendas and international action plans which aim to solve and fill the problems arising from Education at the global level, among some others. Differently, in the practical part, are presented and addressed subjects directly related to the object of study: the quality of the education response in emergency situations, focused on the Teaching and Learning domain, particularly in the Curricula standard. For this reason, this part includes an analysis on issues such as: the specific nature and contexts of Education in Emergencies (EiE); main concepts and definitions of EiE; key global statistics in EiE; international legal framework specific to EiE; brief overview of the INEE Minimum Standards handbook, focused on the Teaching and Learning domain and with an in-depth analysis of Standard 1 – Curricula and, of course, the presentation, analysis of results and discussion of the questionnaires. Nevertheless, regarding this point on the presentation of the questionnaires, analysis of results and discussion, it is important to emphasize that, since the two versions of the questionnaires are different either in the purposes and objectives, either in the structure or in the average response time, these will naturally present distinct results. Thus, although two versions were initially developed, it will only be presented, analyzed and discussed the version that obtained the highest rate of responses and participation.
(short-version questionnaire). In the end, conclusions and possible recommendations for improving practices in the EiE education response sector will also be presented.

In fourth place, regarding the methods and the methodology approach itself used for this work project, it is important to mention that this is a mixed scientific methodology. In this work project both quantitative and qualitative data are analysed and studied, based, for example, on the method of semi-closed questionnaires focused on key-questions and assessment-based analysis regarding the quality of education response (in Teaching and Learning domain). In addition to the method of collecting data through the use of questionnaires, other methods were also used such as: bibliographic analysis, documentary evidence (pre-existing data). Therefore, taking into account the research objectives that this work project aims to achieve (as previously mentioned) and the relationship between the research question and the object of study, these methods used in the collection of data and information, as well as the methodology used in the analysis of them, seem to be the most appropriate because in addition to being methods that allow the collection of information in a very diversified, personalized and discerningly rigorous manner and that even allow analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data, thus broadening the scope of knowledge of the object of study (e.g. the questionnaires addressed to professionals / students within the EiE framework), they are usually the most used either in the literature review between the academic community that studies these subjects and that allows them to arrive at their conclusions, or between the scientific and professional community that develops studies on issues regarding Education in Emergencies. Moreover, the results obtained through the use of the semi-closed questionnaires do not intend to be nor can be generalized, thus, the sample is symbolic and not necessarily representative. However, the diverse and rigorous criteria used in the development of the questionnaires, allow to reach a target audience of carefully selected respondents (although from different geographical, socio-cultural, demographic, professional contexts, among others) that contribute with valid experiences and testimonies that reflect reality in the contexts in which they live and work. In addition, the method of bibliographic analysis and documentary evidence combined also allow having a more solid basis in order to complement the existing gaps and/or failures that the questionnaires alone cannot demonstrate in the scope of the study universe.

In fifth place, regarding the literature review, up until very recently the field of Education was a neglected cluster of humanitarian action both from the point of view of
the development of projects in professional context and from the point of view of research. However, especially since the last decade, there has been an increase in the amount of research in this area: from thesis / dissertations focusing on the study of EiE as an integral part of humanitarian assistance (Haines, D. 2013); to case studies on organizational processes of emergency youth education (Norgaard N. F., 2011), to coordinating EiE through the Education cluster (Müller, G., 2017), to dissertations focusing on the rise of Education in Emergencies as global field and profession (Lerch J. C., 2017), among many others. For these reasons, the literature review, in addition to focusing on these most recent dissertations and researches already published, has also focused mainly on scientific manuals on best practices within the EiE, namely the INEE Minimum Standards, the Sphere’s Project Handbook, the PEIAC Handbook, among many other supporting and peer-reviewed documents that appear referred to throughout this work project.

In sixth place, it is also important to draw attention to the method of questionnaires, its type and procedures that involved all the work from the planning, development, publication and distribution, to the analysis and examination of the results, discussion and conclusion. Regarding this matter (about the procedures and methodology used in the questionnaires), only the essential points will be mentioned here. The comprehensive and exhaustive description of the procedures is presented in point 3 of Chapter V. In order to know, study and obtain answers to the object of study which has as a central research question “How is the quality of the education response in emergencies being addressed?” two types of questionnaires with different versions and purposes were developed. The first version is the long-version and it has six different sections (two sections are intended to personal information and the other four are intended to each of the four Standards of the Teaching and Learning domain). This long-version seeks to study and analyse all the subject matters from the Teaching and Learning domain in-depth. This long-version, as the name implies, is longer, more extensive, more comprehensive in this study, and so, it takes a longer response time: about 25-30 minutes on average. It is also important to mention that both versions of the questionnaires are semi-closed. This means that in addition to the predefined close answers (mostly “Yes” or “No” questions and/or N/A), the respondent has the chance to add a comment in order to elaborate his/her answer on each question if he/she intends to. Thus, if the respondents elaborate more on their answers, the average time may increase depending on the answers they give. On the
other hand, **the second version is the short-version.** It has **three different sections** (two sections are also intended to personal information and one is dedicated exclusively to Standard 1 – Curricula – of the Teaching and Learning domain). The decision regarding the focus on Curricula Standards and its subject matters is due to two main reasons. First, because of the importance they have in the acquisition of learning contents and knowledge that play a crucial and decisive role for the **future continuation of a good schooling and professional path.** Secondly, because this particular Standard allows a **greater participation of all actors involved in the EiE sector,** whether teachers, students, education programmes manager and/or coordinators, various education authorities, etc. This second and short-version has a shorter response time, about 10-15 minutes on average. Regarding the type of questionnaire, like previously mentioned, this short-version is identical to the long-version: it is also a semi-closed questionnaire, it presents questions with predefined close answers (also mostly “Yes” or “No” and/or N/A in some cases), it also gives the respondent the opportunity to elaborate his/her answer on most questions if he/she so wishes. Regarding this short-version, the questions and issues presented in the first and second sections are the same as the long-version. The third section corresponds to the Standard 1 – Curricula – and consists of **21 questions in total.** Regarding the type of questions, most of them are **semi-closed questions.** These semi-closed questions correspond to **“long-answer texts”** and have predefined answers such as “Yes” or “No” (or even “Not applicable” (N/A) in some cases). In addition to these predefined answers, the respondent is free to elaborate and develop his/her response if he/she so wishes. The others which are not “long-answer texts” are **closed questions.** For instance, section 3 (Curricula) consists of **12 semi-closed questions** / **“long-answer texts”**, 3 **“multiple-choice grid”** questions; 2 **“tick box grid”** questions; 3 **“multiple choice”** questions and 1 **“checkbox”** question.

Another aspect of great importance that needs to be mentioned in regard to the questionnaires has to do with the **criteria** used for accepting and/or rejecting respondents. Only two groups of people were considered eligible to answer the questionnaires that were then distributed. One group was **professionals and/or volunteers in the EiE sector,** and the other group was **students/researchers who lived and studied under humanitarian settings** (armed conflict and/or insecurity). In the first group (professionals/volunteers), all professions and positions were eligible to participate and answer, as long as they were connected and had experience in the EiE sector...
sector. Regarding the second group (students / researchers), all students / researchers were eligible, as long as they have lived and studied in a context affected by a humanitarian crisis and/or conflict situation. Moreover, it is also important to mention that, besides this, no other restrictive criteria were applied, in order to allow this work project to be as open to participation as possible. Thus, in the first section of both questionnaires, there is a key screening question that is: “Have you ever worked (either as a professional or volunteer) in the field of emergency education in the area of humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work? Or recently lived (as a student) in a country affected by a humanitarian crisis / armed conflict?” This is a multiple choice question with four possible answers: “Yes, as a Worker”; “Yes, as a Student”; “Yes, as Both” and “No”. Based on the answer that the respondent gives, he/she is forwarded to a particular section. If he/she answers “Yes, as a Worker” or “Yes, as Both” he/she is forwarded to the second section (section 2). Section 2 consists of four questions that also ask for personal information but regarding the respondent’s experience in “Education in Emergencies – humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work”. The questions in both the first and second sections are the same in both versions of the questionnaire. If he/she answers “Yes, as a Student”, he/she is forwarded to the third section (Section 3) which presents questions regarding the Standard 1 – Curricula (the questions in this section are also the same in both versions of the questionnaire). Otherwise, if he/she answers “No”, he/she is sent to the end of the form and the questionnaire ends there. Unlike the short-version questionnaire that consists of only 3 sections, the long-version consists of 6. Therefore in the long-version questionnaire, the other remaining three sections (fourth, fifth and sixth) each correspond to the other Standards of the Teaching and Learning domain (Training, Professional Development and Support; Instruction and Learning Processes; and Assessment of Learning Outcomes respectively).

Still in relation to this point (questionnaires), it is also important to mention the places and networks where these questionnaires have been announced and published to catch the attention of the interested public and respondents. Initially, some contacts were made mainly for international NGOs (and civil society organizations; foundations, and other international organizations)\(^5\) that work or are dedicated to

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\(^5\) Examples of international NGOs that were contacted: ACDI / VOCA, ACTED, Action Aid, Advancing Girls’ Education in Africa, (AG E Africa), Africa Educational Trust, Africa Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA), ChildFund, Children in Crisis, Education Development Trust (EDT), Global Partnership for Education, War Child, Education Cannot Wait, among others.
(exclusively or not exclusively) to the area of Education, and especially to Education in Emergencies (or humanitarian / reconstruction and development contexts). Therefore, these contacts to the various international organizations (NGOs, civil society organizations, etc.) were essentially made by email to the respective contacts of each Organization. Some Organizations were also contacted by email and Facebook messages on their official Facebook pages. Despite the contacts that were made, only some Organizations showed interest in collaborating in the questionnaires and have taken the necessary steps to distribute the questionnaires by the different employees and colleagues from their Organizations. Notwithstanding, some Organizations despite not being able to collaborate (due to lack of organizational capacity) showed interest in being notified about the results of this work project. Additionally to the international NGOS, some civil society associations, global movements and organizations, foundations, consultancies were also contacted. At the same time, some international networks directly related with the object of study of this project were also contacted. Examples: Enabling Education Network (EENET), Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA), Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action, Education in Crisis & Conflict Network (ECCN), Global Alliance for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience in the Education Sector (GADRRRES), Protect Education in Insecurity and Conflict (PEIC), and the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). The questionnaires were also published in some of these networks, namely INEE (through a “Call to Action” item in a Bi-Weekly Bulletin (April 2019).

In addition, the questionnaires were also published in several groups related to this sector in social media (Facebook essentially). Examples: Network for Research in Education in Conflict and Emergencies; International Connections in Education and Development; Education for all; Sustainable education for all; Education and International Development IOE; Society for International Education; PEACE EDUCATION – Special Interest Group; I am a TEACHER . . .; TEACHERS FORUM & USEFUL INFORMATIONS (TF&UI); Conflict Resolution Education in Teacher Education; Quality Education; QUALITY EDUCATION (Q-Education); ISA Project for Global Education; Innovative Global Education; Conflict Research; PACT – Peace

6 Examples of various types of entities/ Organizations contacted: Global Campaign for Education (GCE), Right to Play, Education International, Education Above All (EAA), Education Development Center (EDC) among others.
Lastly, regarding the **limitations** of the chosen methods, firstly it is important to mention that the most recurrent limitations are derived from several aspects related to, on the one hand, (a lack of diversified) literature review more specifically directed at the quality of education in situations of humanitarian emergencies (armed conflicts and/or insecurity). And on the other hand, limitations arising from the scope and applicability of the results obtained through the questionnaires.

Regarding the **literature review limitations**, although there is a growing increase in the number of publications (thesis / dissertations and also research projects) in the field of Education in Emergencies, which is in itself a very vast field, there are still few studies that focus on the quality of education in humanitarian emergencies situations such as armed conflict and insecurity contexts (and even fewer using minimum standards as a referential background for analysis and assessment). The vast majority of academic publications in the field of EiE go from case studies focusing on refugee education and integration in fragile environments; case studies focusing on forced migration and/or displacement; studies addressing conflict-sensitive education in particular fragile geographical areas; practices and policies in post-conflict contexts; studies focusing on various dimensions that affect the enjoyment of the right to education (gender issues; cultural issues; early and/or forced marriage, terrorism; religious fundamentalism; among others); early childhood interventions in education; studies focusing on particular project’ interventions led by major NGOs, among some others. However, despite the difficulties initially encountered in this aspect, it was possible to find and use relevant, appropriate and helpful bibliographical references that allowed developing the central question of this project based on the state of the art already analysed, and which supported the various points under study in this work.

Regarding the **scope and applicability of the results obtained through the questionnaires**, and as already previously mentioned, the universe of answers and results obtained cannot be generalized and extrapolated to other contexts outside those that were an integral part of the analysis of the different standards and criteria studied in the questionnaires. This is because it is not necessarily a representative sample, and where the results were collected from professionals who work (or worked) in diverse and multiple contexts of humanitarian emergencies (whether geographically, socially, culturally, professionally, among other dimensions).
III. Right to Education – Understanding Education as a Human Right

First, it is important to understand that education is seen globally and internationally as a human right, and not as a privilege. In this sense, international human rights laws define and set duties and obligations for States to respect, protect, fulfil and guarantee this human right for all. It is also important to highlight that human rights are universal, indivisible, interdependent and interrelated (Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, 1993, para. 5). Besides, equality and non-discrimination are foundational and crucial principles in human rights law. This means that at least theoretically, education is legally guaranteed for all without any kind of discrimination. This also means that States that recognize education as a fundamental human right in the various official documents of normative instruments (treaties, conventions, covenants, among others) they sign, have the obligation to protect, respect and provide the right to education for all, regardless of their socio-economic, cultural, political, individual, or other background. There are many important international legal instruments that formally recognize education as a human right, for example, the milestone document of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)\(^7\), 1948. Additionally, there are other important legal instruments especially relevant for geographical purposes which are those based on the regional legal frameworks. Different regions of the World such as Africa, Arab countries, the Middle-East, Europe, Americas, Latin America, Asia, among others have their own regional legal frameworks that only apply to each of those territories (and of course can legally apply and/or adapt to other sub-regional or country-level situations). However, those regional legal frameworks and instruments will not be analysed or studied here because this work project does not intend to study any region of the World in particular.

In this context, in order to give a brief common understanding of these normative instruments and other legal frameworks that support and protect this right, below, it will be presented some that provide legal basis to understand and take action regarding the right to education.

1. International Legal Framework

1.1. International Legal Instruments

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As previously mentioned, education is globally seen as a human right and not as a privilege. This means that in order for it to be recognized as a human right, there are several instruments of normative and political action (binding or non-binding; with more or less pressure) that advocate and/or impose certain rules that guide the rights and duties inherent to the field of education. These normative and political instruments are generally international human rights laws (but also domestic laws whether hard laws or soft laws) that protect and promote the right to education, generally with a view to achieving these rights progressively, or with a view to reaching further and new rights also in a progressive manner. These instruments are generally official documents (treaties; conventions; covenants; pacts; plans of action, etc.) signed in high-level contexts and in multi-lateral agreements by representatives of States, International Organizations among other high-level representatives of civil society and communities. Especially since the adoption of the UDHR, the right to education has been widely recognised and developed by a great number of international normative instruments, elaborated at the UN, for instance, such as: International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR, 1966); UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (CADE, 1960); Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989); among others.

The right to education has also and significantly been recognised in other legal instruments covering specific groups, generally of vulnerable people (children; women and girls; persons with disabilities; refugees; migrants, etc.) and specific contexts (education during armed conflict; protracted crises; education in emergencies). Lastly, the right to education and its recognition as a human right has been widely and progressively incorporated into many regional legal instruments and adopted in the vast majority of national constitutions and domestic laws.

i.) Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), 1948

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a milestone document with a great importance for the history of Human Rights. It was mainly a result of the tragic experiences of the Second World War. It was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly at its hundred and eighty-third plenary session on the 10th December, 1948 as Resolution 217 in Paris. At that time, there were 58 members of the United Nations and from those, 48 voted in
favour, none against, eight abstained and two did not vote. The Declaration consists of 30 articles expressing an individual’s rights in many human, social, economic, political and other relevant dimensions, and although in the beginning it was considered a non-binding document (it is not a treaty), it has unexpectedly become such a powerful document that it is now considered a binding legal document as part of the international customary human rights law, by many experts in international law, and has been the basis for many subsequent international treaties, covenants, other human rights instruments and laws. Regarding the right to education, the Article 26 of the UDHR says the following: “Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.”

ii.) International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), 1966

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) is a multilateral international treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 16th December 1966 through the General Assembly Resolution 2200A (XXI), it was signed in the UN headquarters in New York and it came into force in 3rd January 1976. In general, this treaty commits its parties to promote, adopt and work toward more and better economic, social and cultural rights both to Non-Self-Governing and Trust Territories and individuals, including, for instance, labour rights, the right to health, the right to education, the right to an adequate standard of living, among others. Until now, as of September 2018, this Treaty has in total 173 States Parties from which only 169 are States Parties that have signed and
ratified the Convention. This means that there are four States Parties that have signed the Convention but have not yet ratified (The United States of America, Cuba, Comoros and Palau). This Convention is monitored by the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

Regarding the right to Education, the Article 13 (1.) states the following: “The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to education. They agree that education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. They further agree that education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society, promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations and all racial, ethnic or religious groups, and further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.” The Article 13 also presents some key directives of how it considers that the main levels of education should be internationally. For instance, in 2. (a), it considers that “Primary education shall be compulsory and available free to all”; in 2. (b) “Secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational secondary education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education”; in 2. (c) “Higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education”; Regarding the right to free universal primary education, it must be noted that Article 14 invokes and delegates to States Parties that if they do not yet have free primary education in the territories under their jurisdictions, they must commit to work out on a detailed plan of action for the progressive implementation of it in order to respect the principle of compulsory education free of charge for all. However, regarding the other levels of education (secondary education, higher education, etc.) it must also be noted that this Convention does not provide for any mandatory mechanism or action plan that obliges States Parties to this Convention to implement measures in their administrative territories that meet, for example, the establishment of compulsory and free secondary education (or even higher education) for all.
iii.) **UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (CADE), 1960**

The UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (CADE) is a multilateral international treaty adopted by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) on the 14th of December 1960, signed in Paris, at the General Conference of UNESCO at its 11th session. It later came into force on the 22nd May of 1962. In general, the Convention reinforces the principle on non-discrimination as asserted in the UDHR, and it aims to prevent, combat and eliminate all possible forms of discrimination that may exist in the field of education. In its Article 1, the Convention defines “discrimination” as “*any distinction, exclusion, limitation or preference which, being based on race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, economic condition or birth*”, and if further adds its purpose (of discrimination): “*has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing equality of treatment in education*”. In its Article 2, the Convention presents and describes a series of situations that, under certain terms and conditions, may not be considered “discrimination”, as for instance, the “*establishment or maintenance of separate educational systems or institutions*”; the “*establishment or maintenance of separate educational systems or institutions*” for linguistic or religious purposes, since participation and/or attendance in such systems is optional and according to the wishes of the pupil’s parents (or guardians); and lastly, the “*establishment or maintenance of private educational institutions*”. In article 3, State Parties commit to undertake all the necessary measures, whether legislative, administrative and/or political in order to prevent and eliminate all forms of discrimination in the field of education (access; admission; equality of opportunities and treatment; quality standards; etc.). Besides this, it is also important to know that State Parties to this Convention had, at that time, to formulate, develop and apply a national policy that meets all of these criteria in order to prevent and eliminate discrimination but also that promoted equality of opportunities and treatment for all in the matter of education (Article 4). They also had and still have to pay attention to any recommendations adopted by UNESCO (Article 6) and
report the “results achieved and the obstacles encountered in the application of that policy”.

As previously mentioned above, the right to education has progressively been incorporated into many different legal instruments (essentially hard law, but also soft law) that focus especially on vulnerable groups such as, children, women and girls, migrants, refugees, indigenous people, people with disabilities, and also adapted to different contexts, not only at the geographical point of view, such as regional instruments, but also to contexts marked, for instance, by instability, political and social disorder, insecurity, conflict, violence, protracted crisis, natural disasters, in sum, in situations of emergency. Therefore, below it will be presented two examples of international instruments related with these vulnerable groups, such as, for instance, children, and refugees, and later, it will be presented a more detailed analysis of the emergency situations, its context, main characteristics, and how is the right to education protected (according to specific international legal instruments) in situations of insecurity and armed conflict.

iv.) Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is an international human rights treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, in New York, on the 20th November 1989 through the resolution 44/25, and that lays down the individual, civil, social, economic, political and cultural rights of children. The Convention defines a child as “every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier.” Currently there are 196 State Parties to the Convention, although some have reservations or declarations. State Parties that ratify this Convention are bound to it by international law and it is monitored by the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. Besides recognizing a series of child-specific needs and rights, the Convention also focuses on the right to education. It recognizes education as a legal right to every child on the basis of equal opportunity. Article 28 guarantees free and compulsory primary education for all; regarding secondary education it should be “(...) available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need”; regarding higher education, it should be accessible on the basis of
capacity; it also encourages the information about the vocational and educational guidance; it calls for more measures to ensure regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates; also importantly, it emphasizes the special attention that developing countries should have in these matters. The Article 29 defines the aims of education and recognizes the liberty of parents to choose the kind of education they want to give to their children and the liberty to establish and direct educational institutions, in conformity with minimum standards laid down by the State.

v.) Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951 / Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees, 1967

The Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (or 1951 Refugee Convention) is an international multilateral treaty, set out by the United Nations, signed on the 28th of July of 1951 in Geneva, Switzerland. The Convention entered into force in 1954 and currently has 145 State parties. This Convention builds on the Article 14 of the UDHR of 1948, which recognizes the right to seek asylum in other countries for people who face persecution, threats to their lives and/or freedom. Essentially, the Convention defines who is a refugee or can be qualified as a refugee and sets out the rights of these individuals, of the displaced, as well as the legal obligations and responsibilities of States to protect them. The core principle underlying is that of non-refoulement (fundamental principal of customary international law8) which forbids a country receiving asylum seekers from returning them to a country where they would be in likely danger of being persecuted, facing threats to their lives and/or freedoms. Article 1 of the Convention, as amended by the 1967 Protocol, defines refugee as “A person who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is

8 As non-refoulement is a fundamental principle of customary international law, this means that it applies even to States that are not parties to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and/or its 1967 Protocol.
unwilling to return to it.”. Regarding the right to education for refugees and displaced people, the Convention, in its Article 22 on Public Education, distinguishes between elementary education and other than elementary education. Article 22 (1) says the following: “The Contracting States shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary education.” And in its number 2, the article states that “The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regards access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships.” Besides this, it is also important to mention the question of non-compliance. Although this Convention is “legally binding”, there is no official committee or body responsible for monitoring its compliance. The same can be said about the 1967 Protocol. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has supervisory responsibilities and serves as the “guardian” of both the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol, but it cannot enforce any of them and there are not any formal mechanisms for individuals to complain.

2. Other International Legal Instruments

There are, of course, many more juridical categories and frameworks of international legal instruments that promote the respect and protection of the right to education, generally through the use of soft law (general comments; recommendations; declarations; frameworks and plans for action, among others) as well as bind State parties to protect, guarantee and regulate that right in their respective administrative territories, (and/or under their jurisprudence), usually through the use of hard law (such as treaties; conventions; covenants; charters, etc.)

Additionally, it is also important to mention the existence of international human rights mechanisms. In relation to these mechanisms, and before heading to them, it is important to understand first that there is often an underlying approach to the issue of the obligations and responsibilities of States regarding the protection and fulfilment of
the right to education. For example, in this matter of the States’ obligations and duties, Part II of the “General Comment No. 13 regarding the right to education on the Implementation of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights” (GCN13) reflects clearly and objectively what are the States’ general legal obligations and specific legal obligations. Focusing on the general legal obligations, for instance, point 46 of the GCN13, expresses this idea very clearly: “The right to education, like all human rights, imposes three types or levels of obligations on States parties: the obligations to respect, protect and fulfil. In turn, the obligation to fulfil incorporates both an obligation to facilitate and an obligation to provide.” And then, in the next point, point 47, it explains the three main obligations of respecting, protecting and fulfilling: “The obligation to respect requires States parties to avoid measures that hinder or prevent the enjoyment of the right to education. The obligation to protect requires States parties to take measures that prevent third parties from interfering with the enjoyment of the right to education. The obligation to fulfil (facilitate) requires States to take positive measures that enable and assist individuals and communities to enjoy the right to education. Finally, States parties have an obligation to fulfil (provide) the right to education. As a general rule, States parties are obliged to fulfil (provide) a specific right in the Covenant when an individual or group is unable, for reasons beyond their control, to realize the right themselves by the means at their disposal. (...)”. Regarding the specific legal obligations, point 50 is especially relevant: “(...) States have obligations to respect, protect and fulfil each of the “essential features” (availability, accessibility, acceptability, adaptability) of the right to education. By way of illustration, a State must respect the availability of education by not closing private schools; protect the accessibility of education by ensuring that third parties, including parents and employers, do not stop girls from going to school; fulfil (facilitate) the acceptability of education by taking positive measures to ensure that education is culturally appropriate for minorities and indigenous peoples, and of good quality for all; fulfil (provide) the adaptability of education by designing and providing resources for curricula which reflect the contemporary needs of students in a changing world; and fulfil (provide) the availability of education by actively developing a system of schools, including building classrooms, delivering programmes, providing teaching materials, training teachers and paying them domestically competitive salaries.”. In this matter of States’ obligations and duties, it must also be noted that States have immediate and progressive obligations. In this sense, and in the light of the GCN13, not all obligations
have the same degree of urgency and of operability. “While the Covenant provides for progressive realization and acknowledges the constraints due to the limits of available resources, it also imposes on States parties various obligations which are of immediate effect (...)” (Point 43 of the GCN13). In this way, some examples of immediate obligations regarding the right to education are, for instance, the “guarantee” that the right “will be exercised without discrimination of any kind (art.2 (2))”, and the obligation “to take steps” (art. 2 (1)) towards the full realization of article 13. In addition to the immediate obligations, GCN13 also provides a caveat for the issue of progressive obligations. In this matter, point 44 draws attention to the following: “The realization of the right to education over time, that is “progressively”, should not be interpreted as depriving States parties’ obligations of all meaningful content. Progressive realization means that States parties have a specific and continuing obligation “to move as expeditiously and effectively as possible” towards the full realization of article 13”.

In this context, international human rights mechanisms are of great importance because without them, it would not be possible to analyse and monitor the respect and general protection of human rights. It would be the same as living in a state of absolute anarchy where there were no minimum standards that would guarantee the safeguarding of the rule of law, democracy, accountability, justice and peace. This scenario would seem an absolute chaos. This is one of the reasons why the international human rights mechanisms are fundamental to guarantee justice, peace and freedom in the world. Therefore, at the international level, there are some human rights mechanisms that monitor the implementation of the right to education. Some mechanisms are competent and have legal powers to receive complaints or reports of violations on the right to education. Below it will be presented some examples of these human rights mechanisms.

1. **UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education** – According to the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), “The mandate of the Special Rapporteur on the right to education was originally established by the Commission on Human Rights in April 1998 by resolution 1998/33. Subsequent to the replacement of the Commission by the Human Rights Council in June 2006, the mandate was endorsed and extended by the Human Rights Council resolution 8/4 of 12 June 2008.” The Special Rapporteur on the right to
education is an independent expert appointed by the United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) of the UN system that has as main roles the examination, investigation and monitoring of the right to education, and also has to report what he/she discovers regarding the right to education either on a country situation or on a specific issue of education. This position is honorary and the expert is not United Nations staff nor paid for his/her work. In order to accomplish his/her work, he/she undertakes country visits; responds to information on allegations concerning violations of the right to education, as he/she can receive individual complaints; develops and maintains constructive dialogues with governments, organisations, civil society and other relevant actors, in order to get solutions for the problems identified; he/she also submits annual reports related with the activities of his/her mandate to the Human Rights Council and to the General Assembly of the UN. The Special Rapporteur writes both country specific reports and thematic reports.

2. **UN Treaty Bodies** – Treaty Bodies are committees of independent experts and that are created under a particular UN treaty. Their main role is to monitor how States – which have ratified a given treaty – comply with their responsibilities and obligations to implement the human rights guaranteed by that treaty, including the right to education. Some of them can receive individual complaints in case of human rights violations. They periodically analyse reports of a determined State party and do observations regarding the State’s compliance with the treaty, including recommendations. They can also adopt General Comments which are an authoritative interpretation of the treaties’ provisions. Examples of Committees: Human Rights Committee (HRC); Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR); Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC); Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW); Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD); Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD); Committee on Migrant Workers (CMW).

3. **United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC)** – The Human Rights Council is an inter-governmental body within the UN system that has as a core role the promotion and protection of human rights around the world. The UNHRC has 47 states that are elected for three-year terms on a regional group
It was created by UNGA in March 2006, by the resolution A/RES/60/251 to replace the UN Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR) that at that time had been severely criticised for allowing countries with poor human rights records to be members. It was created with the main purpose of addressing situations of human rights violations. The UNHRC has two different human rights mechanisms: the Universal Periodic Review and the Complaint Procedure. Regarding this UN body, it is also important to emphasize that recently this body has been facing a series of criticisms by many world leaders because they accuse UNHRC of giving an undue and disproportional attention to the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. In fact, the UNHRC has resolved more resolutions condemning Israel than the rest of the world combined.10

4. UNESCO Committee on Conventions and Recommendations – The Committee on Conventions and Recommendations (CR) is a subsidiary organ of UNESCO’s Executive Board. It has authoritative powers to monitor the implementation of UNESCO legal instruments (including two Conventions and seven recommendations in the field of education) and to examine cases of human rights violations within UNESCO’s field of competence, through its communications and complaints procedures.11

Finally, in order to conclude this point and having into consideration what has been mentioned previously in point number 1.1. regarding the specificities that characterise situations of emergency and its specific contexts, the international legal framework and instruments that protect the right to education in situations of emergency, insecurity and armed conflict, they will not be analysed in this point because of its very specific nature, juridical contexts and frameworks which distinguishes it from the education in general. Therefore, the contexts and specificities affecting situations of emergency, insecurity and armed conflict, as well as its international legal framework and instruments, will be analysed later in the next chapter.

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9 In the context of the United Nations system, Regional Groups can be understood as the geopolitical regional groups of member states of the United Nations. Initially, UN member states were unofficially grouped into five geopolitical regional groups. Then, it become progressively more expansive and nowadays, depending on the UN context, regional groups control elections to UN-related positions, on the basis of geographical representation and are also responsible for coordinating substantive policy. As of November 2018, there are five regional groups in which members states of the United Nations are divided: African Group; Asia and the Pacific Group; Eastern European Group; Latin America and Caribbean Group; Western European and Others Group.

10 For more information on this issue, please consult the website of the UN Watch non-governmental organization here. https://www.unwatch.org/updated-chart-of-all-unhrc-condemnations/


Unlike laws and legal instruments, the main purpose of which is usually to recognize, guarantee, preserve and enforce what initially, and from a normative point of view, is recognized as a right, and hence mechanisms and laws to safeguard it, there are other international instruments, although not legally binding, that create a major influence in the international community through campaigns, activism movements and frameworks, and awareness for certain causes (including the right to education, and even education in emergencies) and which are usually associated with international political and social action plans and commitments to achieve certain predetermined global goals and/or targets. A good example of these global political commitments and action plans is, for instance, the adoption of the United Nations “2030 Agenda”\(^ {12} \) (abbreviation for the full term known as: “Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”) and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) or by other words, Global Goals for Sustainable Development. With this, were created other subsequent agendas that are directed and related to a specific (broad) SDG. For instance, regarding the right to education (SDG4), there is the Education 2030 Agenda (which, in turn, is also part of a global commitment of the Education for All (EFA) movement by UNESCO). Up to the present time, the United Nations 2030 Agenda in general, and its Education 2030 Agenda (as an integral part of it) in particular, are clearly and effectively one of the most important, ambitious, comprehensive universal action plans. The UN 2030 Agenda and its 17 SDGs were adopted by the UNGA Resolution A/RES/70/1 on the 25th of September 2015 at an historic UN Summit – the UN Sustainable Development Summit at the UN headquarters in NY. The goals of this Agenda are broad and interdependent and each one of them has a separate list of targets to achieve (169 targets in total) and indications of the means to achieve them and follow-up. The SDGs cover essentially social and economic development issues such as poverty, hunger, health, education, gender equality, water and sanitation, energy, among some more. This Agenda is intended for the Post-2015 Development period, and was set to be implemented by the end of 2030, over the next 11 years. It was set for the Post-2015 Development period also because that period coincided with the end of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that had been established in 2000 following

\(^ {12} \) For more information and for full access to the official document of the UN “Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, please click here. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld
the adoption of the **United Nations Millennium Declaration** in the Millennium Summit. For this reason, the UN 2030 Agenda and the 17 SDGs build on (and it’s a continuation of) the MDGs. These MDGs (that were 8 and were intended for a period of 15 years, until 2015), are however, much different from the SDGs. The **17 SDGs** (which are obviously more, and more diverse) are **broader in scope and go further** than the MDGs by addressing the **root causes of poverty and the universal need for development that is common to all people in all parts of the world.** The 17 SDGs are **universal and apply to all countries**, whereas the MDGs were intended for developing countries only. There are also some more differences between the two, for example, the SDGs have a stronger focus on the means of implementation, the mobilization of financial resources, better coordination of capacity-building and technology, as well as better coordination of actors and institutions.

Besides being based on the MDGs, the UN 2030 Agenda and the SDGs are also based in some other relevant international agreements, such as the guiding principles presented in the “**The Future We Want**” **UNGA Resolution - Resolution A/RES/66/288** – and the **Rio+20 United Nations Conference**.

In this way, and going back to the part that addressed the **Education 2030 Agenda**, it must also be mentioned that this Education Agenda (as part of the UN 2030 Agenda) is the **operational mean to achieve the SDG 4 – Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all – and its specific targets** (in total there are 10 targets). The SDG 4 is composed of **10 targets**, from which **7 are targets of expected outcomes** and **3 are means of achieving those targets**. For instance, target number 1 aims to “**ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes**” by 2030.13 In order to achieve the Education 2030 Agenda, the **Incheon Declaration**14, adopted at the World Education Forum in Incheon, Republic of Korea, in May, 2015 was essential not only for entrusting UNESCO, as the United Nations’ specialized agency for education to lead this Agenda with its global partners, but also to lay down the guiding principles to achieve that Agenda. Point number 5 of that Declaration is especially relevant in reflecting clearly the vision that wants to be created and achieved. Besides that, the **Education 2030 Framework for Action**15, adopted in November 2015, is the main driver and guiding of

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13 For more information and for full access to the official document of the SDG4, please click [here](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4).
14 For more information and for full access to the official document of the Incheon Declaration, please click [here](http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002338/233813m.pdf).
implementation which provides guidance to governments and partners on how to transform commitments into actions. Previously there were some other global agendas focusing on reaching goals related with the right to education, such as the already mentioned Millennium Development Goals, and, for instance, the Education For All (EFA) movement led by UNESCO and aiming to meet the learning needs of all children, youth and adults by 2015. This last one, the EFA was adopted at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000, under the “Dakar Framework for Action. Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments”.

Although there are more agendas focusing on specific issues (such as education) at the global level, none can be compared to the UN 2030 Agenda in terms of ambition of the proposed objectives to reach, detailed plans of action and of implementation, scope, mobilization of resources, follow-up, among others. Therefore, the UN 2030 Agenda is in fact, the most broad, comprehensive, ambitious and detailed so far.

4. Why is the right to education fundamental?

As has been seen so far, the universal and international right to education is guaranteed in many international legal instruments and frameworks, whether they are hard law (and so, binding for States that ratify binding treaties) or soft law (although they are non-binding, they can assume an intense political and moral pressure upon States and Governments). Nevertheless, it is important to note that although that right is guaranteed in so many international legal instruments, that does not mean that education is free and/or compulsory... nor does that mean that by guaranteeing that right, it is safeguarded with the same level of quality and appropriateness everywhere, following the same patterns and minimum standards. In theory, each State is free to adopt its minimum standards regarding education as long as they respect and fulfil the responsibilities and obligations to which they are legally bound by the treaties they have ratified.

Furthermore, we know that education nowadays faces enormous challenges throughout the world not only regarding the issues often on debates on the best, most productive and optimized education systems, or on the education systems best suited for this new digital era, but essentially challenges that are truly worrying, such as the total absence of any level of education, in formal terms, by millions of children, young people and adults worldwide. According to the last statistics available of
UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNESCO Global Database on the Right to Education (2018)\(^{16}\), currently 750 million youth and adults cannot read and write; 262 million children and youth are currently out of school globally; 1 child out of 11 does not go to school and 1 adolescent out of 5 is left out of a secondary education. These are major challenges that remain unaddressed. In this context, of tremendous difficulties and challenges in achieving the realization of the full right to education for all, an essential question arises, which at first sight, may seem obvious, but makes sense to be put, which is “Why is the right to education fundamental?” In order to answer this question, it is important to look at the GCN13, point nr. 1, regarding the right to education which says the following: “Education is both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realizing other human rights. As an empowerment right, education is the primary vehicle by which economically and socially marginalized adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities. Education has a vital role in empowering women, safeguarding children from exploitative and hazardous labour and sexual exploitation, promoting human rights and democracy, protecting the environment, and controlling population growth. Increasingly, education is recognized as one of the best financial investments States can make. But the importance of education is not just practical: a well-educated, enlightened and active mind, able to wander freely and widely, is one of the joys and rewards of human existence.”

In this sense, the Comment presents many essential reasons in answering the question on “why is the right to education fundamental?” Although there are many more vital reasons that can justify that, this point can be concluded with reference to the most obvious and decisive reasons:

- It is an empowerment right and it allows for the realization of other fundamental human rights;
- It lifts marginalised (and vulnerable) groups out of poverty, allowing them to fully participate in all aspects of society and of their communities;
- Quality education can contribute to the full development of the human personality and of a fully-rounded human being in “sense of dignity”;

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\(^{16}\) For more information regarding UNESCO statistics/data on the Right to Education, please consult Image 1 presented in the annexes and consult the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) website [here](http://uis.unesco.org/).
Furthermore, and according to UNESCO, for this human right to work “there must be equality of opportunity, universal access, and enforceable and monitored quality standards.” (UIS / UNESCO Global Database on the Right to Education, 2018)

4.1. The four As of the right to education

Taking into account the last considerations as defined by UNESCO, there are also some remarks present in the GCN13 regarding the Article 13 (2) of the ICESCR that matter to present for this purpose, and which is related with the 4As of the right to education. In this regard, Point 6. of the GCN13 states the following: “While the precise and appropriate application of the terms will depend upon the conditions prevailing in a particular State party, education in all its forms and at all levels shall exhibit the following interrelated and essential features:”

- **Availability** – Quoting the Comment, “functioning educational institutions and programmes have to be available in sufficient quantity within the jurisdiction of the State party.” (GCN13, point 6, (a) pp.2 ) The comment makes reference to the fact that in order to be functional and available, it depends on many factors, for example: the development context under which they operate; the existence of buildings; sanitation facilities for both sexes; safe drinking water; trained teachers receiving domestically competitive salaries; teaching materials; eventually a library; the existence of computer facilities and of information technology, etc.

- **Accessibility** – “educational institutions and programmes have to be accessible to everyone, without discrimination, within the jurisdiction of the State party. Accessibility has three overlapping dimensions” (GCN13, point 6, (b) pp.3) These dimensions are:
  
  o **Non-discrimination** – according to the Comment, “education must be accessible to all, especially the most vulnerable groups, in law and fact, without discrimination on any of the prohibited grounds” (GCN13, point 6, (b), (i), pp.3); Regarding this aspect of non-discrimination and of equal treatment, there are many aspects and provisions in GCN13 that safeguard the protection against discrimination and its derivatives (see paragraphs 31-37 on non-discrimination, GCN13).
- **Physical accessibility** – “education has to be within safe physical reach, either by attendance at some reasonably convenient geographic location (e.g. a neighbourhood school) or via modern technology (e.g. access to a “distance learning” programme)” (GCN13, point 6, (b), (ii), pp.3);

- **Economic accessibility** – “education has to be affordable to all. This dimension of accessibility is subject to the differential wording of article 13 (2) in relation to primary, secondary and higher education: whereas primary education shall be available “free to all”, States parties are required to progressively introduce free secondary and higher education” (GCN13, point 6, (b), (iii), pp.3).

- **Acceptability** – “the form and substance of education, including curricula and teaching methods, have to be acceptable (e.g. relevant, culturally appropriate and of good quality) to students and, in appropriate cases, parents; this is subject to the educational objectives required by article 13 (1) and such minimum educational standards as may be approved by the State” (GCN13, point 6, (c) pp.3).

- **Adaptability** – “education has to be flexible so it can adapt to the needs of changing societies and communities and respond to the needs of students within their diverse social and cultural settings.” (GCN13, point 6, (d) pp.3).

These are, indeed, the 4 As of the right to education, they have a fundamental importance and they are always interrelated. “When considering the appropriate application of these ‘interrelated and essential features’ the best interests of the student shall be a primary consideration.” (GCN13, point nr. 7)

It is also important to note that these concepts were developed by the first UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education, Katarina Tomaševski, and then adopted by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) in the above-mentioned General Comment No. 13 on the right to education.\(^{17}\)

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\(^{17}\) For more information regarding these concepts (4 A’s of the right to Education) developed by Katarina Tomaševski, please click: [here](https://www.right-to-education.org/sites/right-to-education.org/files/resource-attachments/Tomasevski_Primer%201.pdf).
IV. Education in Emergencies: Understanding the specific nature and contexts of Education in situations of Emergency

As previously mentioned in the last paragraph of point number 2 (chapter III), education in situations of emergency, more commonly and formally known as “education in emergencies” (eie), addresses a very specific context, nature, environment and characteristics that are different from the “education in general”. In this sense and as the name implies, “education in emergencies” can be understood as the functioning of an education system, with educational learning opportunities geared to all levels of education, for all ages and involving different types of education but intended to address failures and circumstances arising from crisis situations, usually armed conflicts (man-made) and/or natural disasters. In this context, it is important to identify, determine and highlight the difference between the two educations discussed here: “education in general” and “education in emergencies”. Thus, “education in general” can be understood as one in which the absence of situations of crisis, conflict, a climate of violence, danger, instability and general insecurity predominates. In addition to the absence of man-made crises, such as armed conflicts, wars, guerrillas and recurrent threats of violence that make it impossible for the normal functioning of an education system, there is also the absence of natural disasters, or better, the absence of significant effects and major impacts resulting from possible natural disasters. In relation to this last aspect, about not having repercussions of significant effects or of great impact resulting from natural disasters that preclude the normal operation of an education system, it is important to note that the resilience levels of a country or region against natural disasters (regardless of what they are) dictate their level of development, including their Human Development Index (HDI). Therefore, it is important to take into consideration that the most economically, socially, technologically and environmentally vulnerable countries and regions suffer the most from the harmful effects of natural disasters and for that reason, and especially if they are already moving towards a more durable and more resilient development, more capable of progressing towards optimizing better education systems, with higher quality of teaching, and less effort expended in preparing for conflict issues, any natural disaster with potentially stronger and devastating impacts can undermine these already achieved efforts and compel communities starting again from scratch, starting again in new post-disaster management cycles. Thus, “education in general” means
education and all learning systems that occur in normal circumstances, with no human-induced crises and/or natural disasters that make it impossible for the normal functioning of education on a regular basis. On the contrary, “education in emergencies” means the provision of education and learning opportunities in situations of emergencies, or by other words, in situations of crisis (usually protracted crisis), that generally covers all sorts of man-made and/or natural disasters capable of destroying and/or disrupting normal conditions of life, including the economic, social and human conditions of individuals and communities, and capable of destroying and/or disrupting the macroeconomic dimensions of a State, its economic development, the infrastructure, the rule of law, democracy, respect for human rights, accountability, justice, and overall progress and other relevant dimensions of Human Development.

Normally, education in emergencies occurs more often in man-made crisis situations than in crisis situations brought about by natural disasters. However, the occurrence and intense propensity for the onset of natural disasters can and often hamper further efforts in the most diverse areas of humanitarian action and development aid, including emergency education. Common and recurrent situations of man-made crises include, for instance, armed conflicts, widespread violence and high levels of threat of violence, forced displacement, wars, guerrillas, among other violent crisis situations. The nature of armed conflicts can be very diverse, as conflicts can be both international, including military occupation, and non-international, with post-conflict situations to reignite, emerge and proliferate. However, emergency situations do not only apply to man-made crisis or natural disasters, it also applies to situations where public health disasters occur and/or disasters caused by technological/biological/radioactive/nuclear means. If States’ obligations to respect, protect and fulfil the right to education in “normal” situations, according to the various international treaties they ratify, are not an easy task, and generally falls far short from the goals agreed to meet, essentially due to a lack of available resources, then, it is not difficult to conclude that in situations of emergency, those obligations to respect, protect and fulfil the right to education are even harder, not only for States but also for other stakeholders who have other responsibilities in achieving the realization of that right. In this regard, there are many reasons that explain why in emergency situations the difficulties in fulfilling the right to education at all levels and in all its aspects are increased, depending, of course, on the nature and specificities that may characterize each emergency situation. For instance, when conflicts strikes and the levels of violence spread and intensify, communities,
authorities and the various actors involved, including States, remain alert and begin to spend much of their efforts, resources and energies to curb the levels of violence and contain or minimize the risks of threats to human lives and property. Depending on the emergency situation itself, and the level or degree of severity it presents, States may spend more or less resources, which would otherwise be spent in other areas of the State or even in other economic sectors where they would be needed and because of the escalation and/or intensification of the conflict or emergency they will no longer be allocated for those purposes. Besides the allocation and redirection of resources to contain or minimize the negative effects of an emergency situation, there are other reasons (which in this particular context can be also understood as consequences of a crisis or emergency situation), such as, for instance, loss of autonomy and control by local, national and State institutions and powers, degradation and/or weakening of the authorities’ power, lack of control and order, opening the way for lawlessness, lack of the rule of law and accountability, disruption and failure of judicial institutions with the consequent failure of the justice system (which can be more or less democratic, depending on the State and on the ruling power), among many more negative disruptions that may have significant impacts on the various political, social and economic dimensions of a State, sub-State, and/or transnational regions. In these contexts, emergency situations greatly increase the likelihood of the right to education being violated.

From this point, it is important to note that if achieving the right to education in situations of emergency is harder than in normal situations, then, it is also even harder for people coming from disadvantaged backgrounds such as social, cultural and ethnic minorities, religious communities in danger of persecution, people with disabilities, among others. For all these reasons, it is imperative that the international law and the international community work together to prevent and reduce negative impacts resulting from the most varied types of emergency situations and also to ensure that such emergency situations do not interfere with or hinder the full realization of the right to education.

Previously, the anterior points focused on the international legal and political instruments and frameworks that protected, safeguarded and promoted the full realization of the right to education (“education in general”). However, the focus of the next points will essentially fall on the issue of the protection of the right to education in emergency situations, its international legal and political framework, as well as a brief
reflexion based on key statistics related with education in emergencies, the importance of it for the prevention of conflict and promotion of peace and peace building, and later, it the following chapter, attention will be given to the main guidelines recommended by reputable organisations dealing with global best practices in meeting the educational rights and needs of people affected by conflict and disasters situations, among other related and relevant aspects in this matter.

1. Education in Emergencies: main concepts and definitions

Previously, in the introductory part of this chapter in the first paragraph and second period, the concept of “education in emergencies” was briefly defined as: “(...) the functioning of an education system, with educational learning opportunities geared to all levels of education, for all ages and involving different types of education but intended to address failures and circumstances arising from crisis situations, usually armed conflicts (man-made) and/or natural disasters.” However, it should be noted that there is no clear and consensual definition among the scientific, academic, humanitarian and professional community involved in this particular area of humanitarian action. There are, however, very satisfactory and objective definitions that clearly explain the concept of this growing area of performance, given its importance and need for the outside world. Perhaps one good example is, for instance, the definition presented by the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) which is “an open, global network of UN agencies, NGOs, donors, governments, universities, schools, and affected populations working together to ensure all persons the right to quality education in emergencies and post-crisis recovery.”. In this sense, INEE, being a well-known global organization recognized for its specialized work in the area of emergency education, responsible for the publication of the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook that is considered the great reference and the best global practice in meeting the educational rights and needs of people affected by disasters and crises, defines education in emergencies as follows: “‘Education in emergencies’ refers to the quality learning opportunities for all ages in situations of crisis, including early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education. Education in emergencies provides physical, psychosocial, and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives. Common situations of crisis in which education in emergencies is essential
include conflicts, situations of violence, forced displacement, disasters, and public health emergencies. Education in emergencies is a wider concept than 'emergency education response' which is an essential part of it.”

2. Key global statistics arising from Education in situations of Emergency

In the last point of the previous chapter, point 4., some statistical data related with the right to education were briefly presented taking into account the last statistics available by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNESCO Global Database on the Right to Education (2018).

Nonetheless, in this particular point, it is important to have a more specific notion about the statistical reality affecting education in emergency situations. Once education in emergencies is not disconnected with situations involving crises (conflicts, violence, war, among others), great part of the statistical data that will be presented below demonstrate the impacts caused by these crises, and at the same time gives space to reflect on the transformative power of education and the very important role it plays in preventing or restraining these crises. The data that will be exhibited below are as updated as possible and are presented by different official sources.

1. **263 million children and youth are out of school globally** for the school year ending in 2016. This number includes 139 million youth (aged about 15 to 17). (UNESCO/UIS Factsheet 48, p.1).

2. **75 million children and youth** aged 3 to 18 live in countries facing war and violence and need educational support (2016). (ODI Education cannot wait. Proposing a fund for education in emergencies, p. 7).


5. **52% of refugees** are children under the age of 18 (2017). (UNOCHA (2018) Global Humanitarian Overview 2018: Six months on.).

6. Girls are almost **two and a half times** more likely to be out of school if they live in conflict-affected countries, and young women are nearly **90%** more likely to
be out of secondary school than their counterparts in countries not affected by conflict. (*GEM Report/Policy Paper 21, p. 3*).

7. **On average, conflicts last 20 years.** This is longer than most children and youth would typically spend in school. (*UN Secretary-General Antonio Gutteres/UN Wire (2017)*).


9. **In countries with twice the levels of educational inequality, the probability of conflict more than doubles.** (*The Learning Generation, Executive Summary, p. 4*).

10. **Each year of education reduces the risk of conflict by around 20%.** (*World Bank, Paul Collier (1999). Doing well out of war, p. 5*).

3. **International Legal Framework regarding Education in Emergencies**

Before heading directly to the presentation of international legal framework and instruments that protect the right to education in emergency situations, it is important to note first some imperative considerations.

Firstly, it is important to understand that **human rights laws applies in all contexts, all situations** and since they are signed and ratified, they apply **in all times** from then on. From this point, it must be emphasized that **people do not lose their human rights** because conflict arises and/or remains, famine takes place and natural hazards harms populations. However, in addition to the human rights laws that remain, **depending on the emergency situation, there may be other international legal regimes that also apply**. To better understand this issue, this matter will be based essentially, from a theoretical and juridical point of view, on the references presented by the “*Protecting Education in Insecurity and Armed conflict: An International Law Handbook*”18 (2012) (ahead designated shortly by PEIAC handbook). It is a legal research document commissioned by **Education Above All**19 (EAA) on partnership and collaboration with

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18 For more information and for a comprehensive knowledge on the issue of applicable law during insecurity and conflict, please consult the full handbook available on the website of the British Institute of International and Comparative Law (BIICL) [here](https://www.biicl.org/files/6099_protecting_education_handbook.pdf).

19 EEA is an independent NGO chaired by Her Highness Sheikha Moza bint Nasser of Qatar, UNESCO Special Envoy for Basic and Higher Education and that is focused on policy, research and advocacy work essentially on the protection of education during insecurity and armed conflict. For more information about this organisation, please click [here](https://educationaboveall.org/).
the British Institute of International and Comparative Law\textsuperscript{20} (BIICL) on the protection of education during insecurity and armed conflict.

In this way, it is important to note that the emergency situations that will be considered in this point and in the work project, are essentially those of \textit{man-made nature}, and this is mainly due to the fact that man-made situations can be avoided because of their \textit{human nature} unlike natural disasters that are more or less unpredictable and often impossible to prevent. By other words, the emergency situations that will be considered here are essentially those responsible for \textit{education-related violations}. Briefly, these violations can configure situations of \textit{insecurity} or situations of \textit{armed conflict}. To begin with, it is necessary to define first what is meant by “education-related violations”. According to PEIAC handbook, these violations refer to any attacks against education during situations of insecurity and armed conflict. Moreover, an attack on education means an \textit{act against education, students, education staff and/or educational facilities}. Secondly, it is essential to distinguish between what is considered a situation of insecurity and a situation of armed conflict. Succinctly, one of the main differences between the two is that while insecurity may be perceived as any situation of disturbance, tension, within a State, often disrupting the normal functioning of social, political and legal institutions, it does not reach the threshold of armed conflict. Therefore, armed conflict can be understood as any type of conflict involving \textit{violence} and the use of \textit{armed force}. Armed conflicts can be both \textit{international armed conflicts} and \textit{non-international armed conflicts}.

Furthermore, and stressing an observation as outlined in PEIAC handbook, “\textit{There has been very little examination of the different areas (or regimes) of international law and their intersection on issues concerning education-related violations during insecurity and armed conflict}” (PEIAC handbook, p. 2). For this reason, PEIAC handbook explores the international legal protection concerning the right to “education in general” and also and more specifically, in situations of emergency as those of insecurity and of armed conflict. In this point, it is only necessary to analyse the latter aspects. Thus, in order to explore the international legal protection of education in emergencies, particularly those of insecurity and armed conflict, it is important to consider three fundamental regimes of international law: international human

\textsuperscript{20} According to the above-mentioned reference (Handbook) on the last textual period, BIICL “is one of the leading independent research centres for international and comparative law in the world, and is the only organization of its type in the UK.” (pp. xiv, Preface). For more information about this organisation, please click \href{https://www.biicl.org/}{here}. https://www.biicl.org/
rights law (IHRL); international humanitarian law (IHL) and international criminal law (ICL). Although they are very distinct from each other, and have different objects and purposes, they have significant similarities regarding their protective role on education in situations of emergency. Each of them contains rules that either protect education directly or protect the necessary conditions for education to exist and thrive.

Without the intention of including an exhaustive analysis of its components, each of these legal regimes and their most significant contributions will be presented below very briefly.

3.1. International Human Rights Law (IHRL)

With regard to this legal regime, many significant aspects have already been mentioned throughout this work, including at the beginning of point 3 of this chapter when it says that Human Rights always applies. “IHRL applies to all situations at all times. While primarily applied in peace-time, IHRL also applies to situations of insecurity and armed conflict”. (PEIAC handbook, p. 15) This broad application makes the IHRL with the most general scope of the three regimes. Another important point worth to remind and highlight is that States are bound to IHRL either through their agreement and ratification of a particular human rights treaty, or, in some cases, through customary international human rights law (this applies to all States regardless of whether they have ratified a relevant treaty). Two human rights treaties are crucially relevant and worth to emphasize because their adoption and ratification by a large number of States made many human rights binding obligations. Those human rights treaties are:

- The already analysed International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), 1966 and its Optional Protocol, 2008;


In this context, human rights laws and treaties can focus either on the protection against a particular form of a human rights violation – by way of example are notable the already mentioned Convention Against Discrimination in Education
3.2. International Humanitarian Law (IHL)

Regarding IHL, first it is important to note that unlike IHRL that applies to all situations at all times, IHL only applies in situations of armed conflict (not even in situations of insecurity). It is a regime of international law that regulates the conduct of parties to an armed conflict. It is also known as the “law of the war” or the “law of armed conflict”. IHL applies to all parties to an armed conflict, whether they are States or non-State armed groups. “IHL aims to make war more humane and its rules and restrictions embody the international ideal that military victory ought not to be achieved at any cost.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 31)

In short, IHL encompasses mainly the following international treaties:

- The four Geneva Conventions for the Protection of War Victims of 1949 (the Geneva Conventions);
- The three protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions (Additional Protocols): Additional Protocol I of 1977 applicable in international armed conflict; Additional Protocol II of 1977 applicable in non-international armed conflict; and Additional Protocol III of 2005 relating to the adoption of a new distinctive emblem (the ‘Red Crystal’);

In addition to those above-mentioned, IHL is comprehended of customary international law. “In 2005 the ICRC published its Study on Customary International Humanitarian Law, which examines relevant State practice and identifies rules of IHL which have attained customary international legal status, including those applicable in non-international armed conflict.” (PEIAC handbook, pp. 31-32)

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21 Besides those, there are also other important international treaties such as: 1) the Hague Conventions, and their Regulations, of 1899 and 1907, regulating the conduct of war on land, sea and air (The Hague Conventions or Regulations); 2) various treaties prohibiting the use of particular weapons, including the Ottawa Convention on the Prohibition of Land Mines of 1997; 3) and also various treaties establishing special protection for groups of persons or objects, such as the UNESCO Convention of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict of 1954.
22 For more information about ICRC’s Study on Customary International Humanitarian Law, and to access it, please click here: https://www.icrc.org/en/
Another fundamental element is the principle of *distinction* (foundational protection element): “(...) parties to a conflict must at all times distinguish between civilians (and civilian objects) and military objectives and may only target military objectives.”

(PEIAC handbook, p. 32)

After this brief introduction to IHL, the question that stood behind comes up: **How does IHL effectively protect the right to education in situations of armed conflict?**

Firstly, it is important to note that IHL is a legal regime that does not lay out particular rights. Instead, it protects people and guarantees the necessary conditions (by prohibiting certain conducts) for the rights of people and the rights of things to be fully enjoyed. For this reason, IHL does not set out any “right to education”, although many of its rules are intended to ensure “that education, where it exists before the outbreak of an armed conflict, continues” (PEIAC handbook, p. 101).

As previously mentioned, the foundational protection of IHL is based on the principle of distinction. Therefore, students, education staff and facilities are protected by the **rule of distinction** because they are civilians and/or civilian objects.

Moreover, IHL sets rules relating, for instance, to targeting, when civilian protection may be lost, situations and conditions of internment, special protection of children (especially orphaned children and those separated from their families) and vulnerable people in situations of armed conflict, among many others.

“Each of these rules reinforces the general protection afforded to students, educational personnel and facilities and seeks to protect the conditions necessary for education to be available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable in armed conflict.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 101)

In the following lines, it will be analyzed very briefly and succinctly how IHL protects the right to education in both international armed conflict and non-international armed conflict, taking into account the situations described above.

### 3.2.1. Protection of Education in International Armed Conflict

23 To better understand this matter, it will be quoted the explanation presented in PEIAC handbook: “In international armed conflict, IHL distinguishes between, on the one hand, those persons who are combatants (members of a State’s armed forces) and those participating directly in hostilities and, on the other hand, those who take part in hostilities. This second group includes civilians (those not in the armed forces of State or organized armed group) who do not engage directly in hostilities and those combatants who are no longer willing or able to fight (hors de combat). In non-international armed conflict, however, IHL distinguishes only between those who participate directly in activities and those who do not; it does not recognize ‘combatant’ status. IHL places a special emphasis on protecting civilians and those not directly participating in hostilities from direct attack, as well as the general effects of hostilities, in both international and non-international armed conflict.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 32)

24 Much of the rules are concerned with the issue of targeting, for example, the prohibition of indiscriminate attacks. (In this regard, see: Art. 51 (4) Additional Protocol I; Art. 85 (3) (b) Additional Protocol II; Rule 11 Customary IHL Database (ICRC) available [here](https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v1_rul_rule11)

25 Regarding this issue, see for example: Art. 51 (3) Additional Protocol I; Art. 13 (3) Additional Protocol II; Rules 6 and 10 of the Customary IHL Database (ICRC) (rule 6 available [here](https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v1_rul_rule6) and rule 10 available [here](https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v1_rul_rule10)

26 Regarding internment, see for example: Parts 3 and 4 of the Fourth Geneva Convention.

27 Regarding the special protection of children, see for example: Art. 23, 24, 38, 50, 76, 89 of the Fourth Geneva Convention;
In this point, it will be analysed three main situations: i.) **Orphaned children and those separated from their families**; ii.) **Internment**; iii.) **Special protection for children**.

i.) Orphaned children and those separated from their families

The **Fourth Geneva Convention** safeguards the protection of education of the most vulnerable children in armed conflict, this includes those who have been **orphaned** or **separated from their families as a result of the armed conflict** (does not include those who are in those situations for any other reasons besides armed conflict). Article 24 of the Fourth Geneva Convention is especially relevant for this matter. It states the following: “The Parties to the conflict shall take the necessary measures to ensure that children under fifteen, who are orphaned or are separated from their families as a result of the war, are not left to their own resources, and that their maintenance, the exercise of their religion and their education are facilitated in all circumstances. Their education shall, as far as possible, be entrusted to persons of a similar cultural tradition. (...).” In addition, there are other provisions regarding the safeguarding of the right to education of children that are important to highlight, for instance, the provisions contained in Articles 50 and 94 of the Fourth Geneva Convention.

ii.) Internment

During international armed conflict, the parties are allowed to detain civilians for **security reasons**. It is important to emphasize that this detention cannot be arbitrary or used as a punishment. It may happen on **precautionary grounds** due to security reasons. Article 94 of the Fourth Geneva Convention sets out obligations for the detaining party regarding **education of internees** (in particular children and young people). Article 94 states the following: “The Detaining Power shall encourage intellectual, educational and recreational pursuits, sports and games amongst internees, whilst leaving them free to take part in them or not. It shall take all practicable measures to ensure the exercise thereof, in particular by providing suitable premises. All possible facilities shall be granted to internees to continue their studies or to take up new subjects. The education of children and young people shall be ensured;

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28 Article 50 states the following: “The Occupying Power shall, with the cooperation of the national and local authorities, facilitate the proper working of all institutions devoted to the care and education of children. (...) Should the local institutions be inadequate for the purpose, the Occupying Power shall make arrangements for the maintenance and education, if possible by persons of their own nationality, language and religion, of children who are orphaned or separated from their parents as a result of the war and who cannot be adequately cared for by a near relative or friend.”

29 Regarding this matter, see, for example, Art. 42 of the Fourth Geneva Convention.

30 Aspects of Article 94 have attained customary international law legal status.
they shall be allowed to attend schools either within the place of internment or outside. (...)” In this way, Article 94 ensures that educational opportunities are not used for **propaganda purposes** and that the education provided is acceptable to those in internment situations.

iii.) Special protection for children

Besides the above-mentioned articles of the Fourth Geneva Convention, there are other crucial provisions regarding the **special protection of children** in international armed conflict, as those presented in the Article 77 of the Additional Protocol I. **This special protection is customary international law.** In this matter, Article 77 states the following: “1. Children shall be the object of special respect and shall be protected against any form of indecent assault. The Parties to the conflict shall provide them with the care and aid they require, whether because of their age or for any other reason. 2. The Parties to the conflict shall take all feasible measures in order that children who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities and, in particular, they shall refrain from recruiting them into their armed forces. In recruiting among those persons who have attained the age of fifteen years but who have not attained the age of eighteen years, the Parties to the conflict shall endeavour to give priority to those who are oldest. 3. If, in exceptional cases, despite the provisions of paragraph 2, children who have not attained the age of fifteen years take a direct part in hostilities and fall into the power of an adverse Party, they shall continue to benefit from the special protection accorded by this Article, whether or not they are prisoners of war. (...)”

3.2.2. Protection of Education in Non-International Armed Conflict

Firstly, it is important to note that: “(...) in most cases the rules of IHL that apply to non-international conflict are different from those that apply in international armed conflict, although the basic principles of IHL, including distinction, remain the same.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 106)

Article 4(3)(a) of Additional Protocol II relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts states the following: “3. Children shall be provided with the care and aid they require, and in particular: (a) they shall receive an education, including religious and moral education, in keeping with the wishes of their
parents, or in the absence of parents, of those responsible for their care;” Still in relation to this article, it is emphasized that: “The individual needs of children must be considered when a party to a non-international armed conflict seeks to fulfil its obligations under Article 4(3)(a). This strongly suggests that the educational needs of children, including whether or not they suffer from learning difficulties, disability or trauma from the armed conflict, ought to be taken into account in providing education in accordance with Additional Protocol II.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 107)

3.3. International Criminal Law (ICL)

According to the definition presented by PEIAC handbook, we can understand ICL as “the set of rules proscribing conduct that is considered criminal by the international community, and the procedures by which these criminal violations are enforced in both international and domestic courts.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 54) In this way, ICL perceives that individuals (and not States) should be held accountable for deemed criminal conduct, or by other words, and citing the preamble of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998), “unimaginable atrocities that deeply shock the conscience of humanity”. (Preamble, Rome Statute, paragraph 2). This conduct includes international crimes such as aggression, genocide, crimes against humanity, trans-national terrorism, war crimes, torture, enforced disappearance, among many more (Khan and Dixon (eds), Archbold International Criminal Courts, Practice, Procedure and Evidence, 3rd edn, pp. 21–22). With regard to this subject of criminal responsibility of the individual, it is important to mention that ICL is a relatively new discipline and among many circumstances that were on the basis of its creation, it can be mentioned, for instance, the persecutions following the Second World War. Regarding these persecutions (leading Nazi trials, for example, among others), it opened up room for a great reflection at the time, that of “individual criminal responsibility, regardless of whether the criminal acts were committed by perpetrators in their official State capacity.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 55) In this context, many of those persecutions led to the creation of a number of ad hoc regional courts and tribunals, each of which has been given specific powers and mandates to investigate and prosecute individuals for international crimes in a given geographical area and over a period of time. For example, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) were both established
through United Nations Security Council Resolutions. One of the most important developments to date in ICL has been the creation of the International Criminal Court in The Hague (ICC) in 1998. It is a permanent court with jurisdiction over international crimes committed by individuals (PEIAC handbook, p. 55).

Regarding the protection of education under ICL, it is important to note first that there are no provisions or case law dealing with the protection of education itself. According to PEIAC handbook, “Education is only mentioned within the targeting and/or destruction of educational property, which is listed in the Rome Statute as a war crime.” (PEIAC handbook, p. 108) However, there are some provisions in ICL that protect education within current crimes through either persecution or incitement to genocide.

The Rome Statute defines persecution as follows: “intentional and severe deprivation of fundamental rights contrary to international law by reason of the identity of the group of collectively” (Art.7(2)(g) Rome Statute). However, “the Rome Statute also requires that persecution be committed in connection with another crime or at least one inhumane act” (PEIAC handbook, p. 109). Nonetheless, certain conditions and criteria must be fulfilled in order for deprivation or prevention of education to be considered persecution, and therefore a crime against humanity under the Rome Statute. As an example, “the ICTY has recognized that the exclusion of members of an ethnic or religious group from educational institutions can potentially constitute persecution under the ICTY Statute (...)” (PEIAC handbook, p. 109).

Regarding the crime of incitement to genocide, there are also some provisions that offer protection regarding the content of education. However, in this regard, it is important to note that once again ICL does not offer protection to the right of education (or the maintenance of its conditions) alone. Instead, it offers protection against certain crimes or situations that may attract individual criminal responsibility. Regarding the crime of persecution we have seen that it offers protection against it (but only if certain criteria are previously met, such as, for instance, education being considered a “fundamental right” among other criteria). With the crime of incitement to genocide, it is the same procedure. It does not protect the right to education (or the maintenance of

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32 Those criteria are as follows: education must be defined as a “fundamental right”; its deprivation must be intentional and severe. Further, it must be contrary to international law, and not, for example, consistent with limitations permitted by IHRL; the denial of education of a particular group must be on discriminatory grounds based on a group’s political, racial, national, ethnic, cultural, religious, or gender identity or other grounds universally recognized by international law, potentially including disability; the deprivation of education must be part of a widespread or systematic attack directed against any civilian population or in connection with any other act prohibited by the Rome Statute; and the perpetrator or perpetrator of this deprivation knew it was part of a widespread or systematic attack. (PEIAC handbook, p. 109)
its necessary conditions) alone. Instead, it protects the contents of education materials (school curriculum, lessons, textbooks, etc.) from anything that might be related with the crime of incitement to genocide. It is important to stress the following: "Where the content of education amounts to incitement to genocide it is unquestionably a violation of the students’ right to education" (PEIAC handbook, p. 110).

Moreover, we are not interested in studying the necessary conditions for a crime to be considered as an incitement to genocide or the provisions that are inherent in it, since that is not the purpose of this point in relation to ICL. For this reason, and in conclusion of this point related with ICL, it is important to take into account that the full protective power of ICL regarding education has not yet been realised. Therefore, many violations of ICL which affect the protection of education need to be recognized as education-related violations. This is undoubtedly a measure that needs to be taken with some urgency, because in the meantime ICL will be incomplete and education in conflict and emergency situations less protected from the point of view of international criminal law.

4. The importance of Education in Emergencies

Finally, in order to finish this chapter, it is imperative to make a brief reflection on the importance of education in emergencies. Previously, on point 4., "Why is the right to education fundamental?" of the III chapter, we have seen a critical analysis on the importance of “education in general”. Thus, in addition to the main reasons presented at that point, now it is necessary to focus on the main contributions and benefits of providing education in emergency situations as well as the reasons for its importance not only in terms of humanitarian response to a crisis or emergency but also, and above all, for reconstruction towards better and sustainable development.

In order to briefly list the main benefits of education in emergencies, references will hereinafter be mainly used in accordance with the INEE’s Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response and Recovery handbook (2010).

Firstly, it is important to note that until very recently education was not considered an integral part of humanitarian aid and assistance. Thus, humanitarian relief generally included the provision of food, shelter, water and sanitation and health care. Education was therefore seen as part of longer-term development work rather than as a necessary response to crises and emergency situations. However, over time,
education has gradually been recognised as a sector of humanitarian response of enormous importance in crisis situations and emergencies, not only because it is an end in itself, but also because of its life-sustaining and life-saving role. This role has been especially critical in including education as an integral part of the humanitarian response and is now considered a key part of it. There are many reasons that justify education’s life-sustaining and life-saving role.

- In emergency situations through to recovery, quality education provides physical, psychosocial, emotional and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives.

- In emergency situations education “(...) ensures dignity and sustains life by offering safe spaces for learning, where children and youth who need other assistance can be identified and supported. Quality education saves lives by providing physical protection from the dangers and exploitation of a crisis environment. When a learner is in a safe learning environment, he or she is less likely to be sexually or economically exploited or exposed to other risks, such as forced or early marriage, recruitment into armed forces and armed groups or organised crime. In addition, education can convey life-saving information to strengthen critical survival skills and coping mechanisms. Examples include information on how to avoid landmines, how to protect oneself from sexual abuse, how to avoid HIV infection and how to access health care and food.” (INEE’s Minimum Standards for Education handbook, p. 2)

- In emergency situations, education plays a crucial role in strengthening problem-solving, survival and coping skills. This “(...) enables learners to make informed decisions about how to survive and care for themselves and others in dangerous environments.” (INEE’s Minimum Standards for Education handbook, p. 2)

- Education mitigates “(...) the psychosocial impact of conflict and disasters by providing a sense of routine, stability, structure and hope for the future.” (p. 2.)

- In emergency situations, “schools and other learning centres can act as an entry point for the provision of essential support beyond the education sector such as protection, nutrition, water and sanitation and health services.” (p. 2.)

- “Quality education contributes directly to the social, economic and political stability of societies. It helps to reduce the risk of violent conflict by enhancing
social cohesion and supporting conflict resolution and peace-building. However,
while the chances for long term peace-building increase significantly if a
conflict-affected population is educated, education can also have a negative
impact on peace and stability.” (p. 3)

- Additionally, in emergency situations, education “can build a culture of safety
and resilience through teaching about hazards, promoting schools as centres for
community disaster risk reduction and empowering children and youth as
leaders in disaster prevention.” (p. 3)

As we see, there are many reasons that highlight the importance of education in
emergencies, both as an end in itself and in its life-sustaining and life-saving role. For
these reasons, education is now part of the planning and provision of the humanitarian response, being a sector in steep rise and continuous development. Another aspect worth to highlight has to do with the importance of coordination and collaboration between the different sectors of humanitarian and emergency response. This is especially critical for providing an adequate response that addresses the rights and needs of all learners and it is expressed in the Sphere-INEE Companionship Agreement33 and the work of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)’s Education Cluster34.

However, there is another crucial issue that should also be emphasized: emergency education is important only if the educational response is relevant, appropriate, present good quality standards and meets the needs, rights and expectations of students. Otherwise it is useless and may even be counterproductive. “It is imperative that education in emergencies through to recovery is appropriate and relevant. It should teach basic literacy and numeracy skills, provide curricula that are relevant to the needs of learners and encourage critical thinking.” (INEE’s Minimum Standards for Education handbook, p. 3)

As the question regarding the quality of the educational response in emergency situations is the focus of this work project, therefore, the next chapter and the next sections will be devoted entirely to studying and analysing these issues, which increasingly raise concerns not only among populations affected by humanitarian crises but also by organizations providing services in this area of humanitarian action.

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33 For more information about this issue, please click here: https://www.spherestandards.org/the-sphere-project-and-innee-sphere-project-
34 The IASC’s Education Cluster is co-led globally by UNICEF and Save the Children (NGO). It is a key coordination mechanism that supports States in
determining education needs in situations of emergencies. For more information about this issue, please click here: https://educationcluster.net/.
V. How is the quality of the educational response in emergencies being addressed?

Previously in the Introduction and Methodology chapters, it was mentioned that the main purpose of this work project was to know the reality of Education in Emergencies in the context of humanitarian action and to understand how is the quality of education (in the domain of Teaching and Learning) being addressed and assured in countries / communities that are marked by contexts of insecurity, humanitarian crises and/or armed conflicts. In order to achieve this goal, a scientific mixed methodology was used to analyze quantitative and qualitative data, based on the planning, development and distribution of semi-closed questionnaires\(^{35}\) that were focused on key-questions and assessment-based analysis regarding the Quality of Education (Teaching and Learning domain). Besides the questionnaires, the method of bibliographic analysis and documentary evidence were also used in order to complement and to bridge the existing gaps and flaws of the study universe whose questionnaires alone cannot study with due depth. Thus, the literature review in support of the planning and development of the questionnaires was essentially based on references, scientific articles and the Minimum Standards Handbook of the INEE network (MSH) which, like the work developed by the Sphere Project more commonly in the area of Health, Hygiene and WASH (among others), presents a solid and specialized basis in the definition, planning and development of Education, particularly in humanitarian emergency contexts. “(...) the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook has proved to be an effective tool in over 80 countries for the promotion of quality education from the start of an emergency through to recovery. The standards provide a common framework and facilitate the development of shared objectives between different stakeholders, including members of governments, communities and international agencies.” (MSH, p.13)

In this way, for the purpose of planning and developing the questionnaires, the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook (MSH) was widely used as a main reference. Therefore, in order to understand and interpret its application correctly and comprehensively, it is first necessary to understand what it is about. According to MSH, “Crises can offer an opportunity for national authorities, communities and international stakeholders to work together for social transformation by creating more equitable educational systems and structures. (...) This can be a dividend of a crisis, resulting in improvements in access to and quality of education.” (MSH, p. 3)

\(^{35}\) More information regarding the questionnaires is available in point 3. of the current chapter.
1. INEE Minimum Standards Handbook: A brief introduction

First, with regard to the core goal, it is very clear and straightforward: “The focus of the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook is on ensuring quality, coordinated humanitarian response: meeting the educational rights and needs of people affected by disaster through processes that assert their dignity.” (MSH, p. 4)

Second, as the Handbook itself indicates, it was developed based on a “consultative process that engaged national authorities, practitioners, policy-makers, academics and other educators around the world in the development of this handbook in 2004 and its update in 2010 (...). The guidance in the INEE Minimum Standards Handbook is designed for use in crisis response in a range of situations, including disasters caused by natural hazards and conflict, slow- and rapid-onset situations and emergencies in rural and urban environments.” (MSH, p. 4)

Third, regarding its content and purpose: “The INEE Minimum Standards Handbook contains 19 standards, each with accompanying key actions and guidance notes. The handbook aims to enhance the quality of educational preparedness, response and recovery, increase access to safe and relevant learning opportunities and ensure accountability in providing these services.” (MSH, p. 4)

Fourth, the INEE MSH is based on a Human Rights framework (including the humanitarian law and refugee law). At the same time, the MSH are also derived from the Sphere Project’s Humanitarian Charter which itself expresses the belief “that all people affected by disaster and armed conflict have a right to receive assistance and protection to ensure the basic conditions for life with dignity and security.” (MSH, p. 6)

In this way, many of the international legal instruments that guide INEE Minimum Standards are already known, since they have been presented here previously.  

1.1. Who is responsible for providing and guaranteeing access to and quality of education?

Regarding those international legal instruments (presented in Image 2 in the annexes), it is important not to neglect one of the fundamental functions for which they serve, which is precisely to point out the legal responsibilities of both States and warring parties to guarantee the right to protection and assistance, and also to allow

36 In order to know the international legal instruments that are part of the INEE Minimum Standards, please consult image 2 in the annexes.
humanitarian organizations to provide those rights when the competent authorities are unable or unwilling to do so.

As the MSH clearly explains, “Providing quality education to all is primarily the responsibility of national authorities, delegated to ministries of education and local education authorities. In emergencies, other stakeholders – multilateral organisations like the United Nations (UN), national and international NGOs and community based organisations – also undertake education activities. In contexts where the relevant local and national authorities are unable or unwilling to meet their obligations, these stakeholders can assume responsibility for education provision.” (MSH, p. 7)

In this way, we can understand “quality education” as “education that is available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable.”

1.2. What are the contents presented in the INEE Minimum Standards?

Since its first edition in 2004 (and its latest update in 2011), the INEE Minimum Standards are organised and divided into five main domains: Foundational Standards; Access and Learning Environment; Teaching and Learning; Teachers and Other Education Personnel; and Education Policy. “Each section of the handbook describes a specific domain of educational work.” (MSH, p. 8) Notwithstanding the fact that the education work areas are divided into these five major domains, each standard (from the total 19) intersects with others along the handbook, including appropriate guidance notes that generally identify important linkages to other relevant standards and/or other guidance notes. In this way, it is implied an effort that allows to gain a more comprehensive view of the whole educational work.

In brief, the Foundational Standards function as the whole basis of the education work. They include work areas which are transversal not only to the education sector, but also extendable to all humanitarian work. These areas are: Coordination; Community Participation; and Analysis. The Foundational Standards should be used and consulted across all other domains, in order to promote a holistic, comprehensive, more coordinated and eased humanitarian quality response.

In relation to Access and Learning Environment, “standards in this domain focus on access to safe and relevant learning opportunities. They highlight critical linkages with other sectors such as health, water and sanitation, nutrition and shelter that help to enhance security, safety and physical, cognitive and psychological well-being.” (MSH, p. 7)
In regard to Teaching and Learning, “these standards focus on critical elements that promote effective teaching and learning, including curricula, training, professional development and support, instruction and learning processes, and assessment of learning outcomes.” (MSH, p. 8)

In the domain of Teachers and Other Education Personnel, standards here cover essentially issues regarding education and school administration, human resources management in this humanitarian sector, including recruitment and selection processes, conditions of work, supervision and support, among others.

Finally, in the Education Policy domain, standards here focus mainly on policy formulation and revision, enactment, planning, implementation, evaluation among some others.

1.3. The importance of Context Analysis

The reality lived within each humanitarian crisis, whether it is a consequence derived from natural disasters and/or from man-made situations, is always subject to a unique local context, different from all others and consisting of several factors. Examples: the type and character of the crisis (disaster and/or conflict; slow / rapid onset, etc.); the quantity of the population (and communities) affected; the geographical conditions that characterize the place of the crisis; the risk factors that potentially aggravate that crisis; the existing resources that support post-crisis reconstruction, among other factors. All these factors and many others that are not exhaustively and comprehensively mentioned, construct and constitute a unique local and/or regional context and reality that are not found anywhere in the world in any other period of time. Uniqueness is the key word that characterizes the context and local reality lived in different humanitarian crises settings. Therefore, one of the most important premises of the entire humanitarian response is that it always has to start from the assessment and response to the needs of the affected population, to focus on practical and feasible efforts that meet the needs of the population concerned and to employ a response strategy based on the context and reality of the humanitarian crisis.

“Disasters and conflict have differing impacts on people due to inequalities in control over resources and power.” (MSH, p. 9)

In this way, besides the central concept of need (and needs-assessment), there are two other concepts of great importance that allow a better understanding, interpretation and analysis of the context and reality of the humanitarian situation in a given crisis: the
concept of **vulnerability** and that of **capacity**. Regarding vulnerability, the INEE MSH defines it the following way: “*Vulnerability is a characteristic or circumstance that makes people more susceptible to the damaging effects of a disaster or conflict. The social, generational, physical, ecological, cultural, geographic, economic and political contexts in which people live play a role in determining vulnerability.*” (MSH, p. 9) As previously seen, **vulnerable people** may include individuals from **disadvantaged backgrounds**: poor people, women, girls, children, elderly, disabled, those previously associated with armed forces and groups, people affected with HIV and other serious diseases and/or health conditions, ethnic minorities, religious minorities, etc. On the other hand, capacity may be defined as “*a combination of the strengths, attributes and resources available within an individual, community, society or organisation that can be used to achieve agreed goals.*” (MSH, p. 9) In addition, it is also important to know how to relate these two concepts in order to understand how they can assist the needs assessment process (whether **immediate assessment – Rapid Needs Assessment** (RNA) or other continuous assessments) and find out the real needs taking into account both vulnerabilities of the population (and the community) as well as their capabilities and **resilience**. Therefore, in addition to the different types of needs assessment, context analysis and local reality, a key element must also be taken into account: **regular and frequent assessment of needs, vulnerabilities and capacities. None of them is static and / or unchangeable.** They change constantly because of the many different factors that contribute to the exacerbation or relief of crises. Only through the conjunction of all these processes and principles comprehensively can an effective and efficient humanitarian response be achieved (taking into attention the local context and response project phases).

Regarding this issue on the importance of context analysis, it is important to mention that it plays a crucial role across all the domains of the INEE Minimum Standards and has a particular relevance on the domain of the Foundational Standards. As previously mentioned, one of the parts that constitutes the Foundational Standards domain is **Analysis**. In turn, Analysis focuses on **four Standards**: **Assessment; Response Strategies; Monitoring; and Evaluation.** For example, in the Analysis Standard 1: **Assessment**, one of the purposes of the context analyses is to “*ensure that education responses are appropriate, relevant and sensitive to the potential for risks and conflict*” (MSH, p. 35).
In conclusion, the process of context analysis in its different means and in the most varied stages of response in a given humanitarian project should be carried out as illustrated in the following recommendation: “The local context and the evolving nature of the emergency need to be properly analysed and understood in order to respond effectively and to ensure that education responses ‘do no harm’. Analysis of the education sector should take place alongside that of other humanitarian sectors. The aim is to determine the nature of the emergency, its causes and effects on the population, and the national authority’s ability to fulfil its legal and humanitarian duties. Analysis should consider economic conditions, religious and local beliefs, social practices and gender relations, political and security factors, coping mechanisms and anticipated future developments. The vulnerabilities, needs, rights and capacities of affected people and institutions, including available local resources for and gaps in education services for all learners, should be identified.” (MSH, p. 21)

1.4. Is there a significant gap between the INEE Minimum Standards and its application in practice?

With regard to the situation involving humanitarian response in a given crisis, it is necessary to highlight an aspect that is often observed but at the same time ignored and which has to do precisely with the potential disparity between the recommended international best practices (in this case, at the level of Education) and the humanitarian response and the field work effectively conducted. For instance, context analysis, needs assessments (of vulnerabilities and capacities), coordination of humanitarian response, and other major response actions such as planning and implementation of strategies for educational responses, location and mobilization of community resources, monitoring and evaluation among others, inevitably have very significant differences between what is theorized and written and what is actually carried out on the field and in practice. “There is inevitably a tension between universal standards, based on human rights, and the ability to apply them in practice. The standards define the goals for access to quality education in universal terms, while the key actions represent specific steps that are needed to achieve each standard. Since every context is different, the key actions in the handbook must be adapted to each specific local situation.” Thus, “Context, including available resources and the stage of the emergency must be considered in determining locally acceptable contextualised actions.” (MSH, p. 11)
In this way, the various actions of humanitarian response must always be contextualized and adapted taking into account the place of the crisis. Sometimes, it is not possible to follow recommendations and guidance as linear and strict as it is expressed in Minimum Standards or Key Actions. Adaptation and contextualisation are imperative concepts and practices. However, it is important to mention that although immediate crises and emergencies may arise at any time, making it difficult to elaborate precise, informed and exhaustive contextualisation plans, the processes of contextualisation should preferably “occur prior to the onset of any emergency as part of educational contingency planning and preparedness.” (MSH, p. 11)

In this way and in order to answer the initial question raised at this point, it is important to remember that during the development of this work project, several methods of data collection and analysis were used, including a mixed, quantitative and qualitative methodology. In addition, for the purpose of the knowledge of the social reality studied in the field of the Education in Emergencies and its direct relation with quality of Education in the Teaching and Learning domain, it was used semi-closed questionnaires.

Thus, the semi-closed questionnaires and its analysis and results, will be briefly presented in this chapter in the next points, and from that it will be possible to respond more concretely and in greater detail to this question that is embodied in the title.

1.5. Multi-sectoral links of the INEE Minimum Standards

Besides the reference (and use) of the INEE Minimum Standards, it is also important to mention other bibliographic sources that due to its mission, history, values and specialized work within the humanitarian action sector, could not be forgotten nor ignored, making even part of the INEE work endeavours: The Sphere Project’s Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response (1997)\(^\text{37}\).

Although a first reference to the Humanitarian Charter has already been seen previously in point 1 of this chapter, it is important to acknowledge other important aspects such as the signing of a Companionship Agreement\(^\text{38}\) with the INEE (2008) where the first “acknowledges the quality of the INEE Minimum Standards and the broad consultative process that led to their development”. Therefore, in addition, “the Sphere Project recommends that the INEE Minimum Standards be used as companion

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38 For more information about this issue, please click here. https://www.spherestandards.org/the-sphere-project-and-inee-renew-companionship-agreement/
and complementary standards to the Sphere Project Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response.” (MSH, pp. 15-16) In this way, it becomes clear that there is a mutual intention in strengthening ties and interdisciplinary and inter-sectoral work between Education and the other sectors studied and worked by the Sphere’s Project. This joint work is of crucial importance not only for an eased coordination among all sectors in the humanitarian preparedness and response, but also to facilitate needs assessments and avoid, for instance, duplication of efforts and dispersed and/or poorly managed information.

In addition to the Sphere’s Project Humanitarian Charter, there is another fundamental global organization co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children: the Education Cluster. It “represents a commitment to predictability, preparedness and response within the field of education in emergencies. Where it operates, the Education Cluster is a key coordination mechanism for supporting states in determining educational needs in emergency situations and responding to them jointly in a coordinated manner.” Moreover, the “INEE Minimum Standards are the foundational tool used by the Education Cluster to provide a framework to ensure quality education response.” (MSH, p. 16)

2. Teaching and Learning Domain

Previously, point 1.4. of the present chapter embodied and raised a very significant, important and central issue for the object of study of this work project. It asked: “Is there a significant gap between the INEE Minimum Standards and its application in practice?” Therefore, in order to answer this question (and many other questions about how is the quality of Education being addressed in contexts of humanitarian crises and conflicts) below, in the next points, it will be presented data and information collected from people related with the EiE (e.g. professionals, students, researchers, volunteers, EiE consultants, among others).

At this point, it is of paramount importance to dedicate attention to the INEE domain that deserved greater scrutiny, immersion and focus in the accomplishment of this work project: the Teaching and Learning Domain (with particular attention to the Curricula Standard).

First, it is important to understand and remember that this specific domain deals with issues such as those regarding curricula (and Education programmes); teacher training, professional development and support; instruction and learning processes; and also
assessment of learning outcomes. Each of these issues corresponds to **one of the four Standards** in the Teaching and Learning Domain, and each has its own **specificities and guidelines. All of these Standards are of utmost importance to ensure quality education in both normal and emergency situations.** “Access to education is only meaningful if the education programmes offer quality teaching and learning.” (MSH, p. 76)

This work project, in this practical part, focused essentially on Standard 1 – Curricula – which is defined as the following: “Culturally, socially and linguistically relevant curricula are used to provide formal and non-formal education, appropriate to the particular context and needs of learners.” (MSH, p. 77)

For this reason, special emphasis will be placed on this particular Standard, as the posterior point – the presentation of questionnaires – is essentially based in contents from this Standard. However, in order to get a complete picture of the four Standards that integrate this domain, it is important to consider the figure presented below.

![Figure 1. Four Standards of the Teaching and Learning Domain](image)

2.1. Teaching and Learning Standard 1: Curricula – Brief overview on relevant issues

The issues discussed in Standard 1 – Curricula – were undoubtedly the ones that deserved greater attention in the Teaching and Learning domain of this Project.
Among the various issues of relevance that are (and have been) analysed in the various situations and contexts of the educational response, the following stand out, for example:

- **A curriculum** based on an educational plan containing elements such as: “learning objectives”, “learning content”, “assessment”, “teaching methods” and “instructional material”\(^{39}\). Although the subject of the curriculum can be applied to both formal and non-formal education, in this work project this issue (as well as all subsequent) was observed only in the sphere of *formal education* and extendable to the *various levels of formal education*.

- **Curricula, textbooks, instruction and supplementary materials** appropriate to the age, development level, context, language, culture, capacities and needs of students.

- **Formal curriculum review, development and/or adaptation** (if necessary) by appropriate and competent education authorities involving all relevant stakeholders. Development of *skills specific to the emergency / crisis context*. Development of *special curricula* (if necessary) for certain groups of students (refugees; children and youth earning a livelihood; those formerly associated with armed forces / armed groups; students older than their grade level / returning from long periods out of school; adult learners).

- **Core competencies** additional to the learning content of each education grade level. It can consist of *specific knowledge and life skills* that can be useful for participating actively in all aspects of life in a community.

- **Life skills and key concepts** additional to the learning content and that are context-specific, appropriate to the age, environment and needs of students. May include subjects such as: child protection; psychosocial support; human rights education; humanitarian law; disaster risk reduction; conflict prevention, etc.

- **Psychosocial support** and *well-being* based on needs and rights of all community (students, teachers, other education personnel, among others).

- **Language of learning content, materials and instruction** appropriate to the language of all students and based on consensus (if necessary) involving all relevant stakeholders (communities, education authorities, students, among

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\(^{39}\)In order to understand the definition of each of these terms, please consult the terminology presented in the annexes.
others). Special attention on language and teaching methods to refugees and disabled students.

- **Diversity and inclusion of people with different backgrounds** within the education community, especially those that may be more vulnerable. Special attention should be given to the contents provided and/or addressed in curricula, instruction materials and/or teaching methodologies in order to prevent (or remove) any kinds of bias and/or discrimination.

- **Locally available learning materials** that are **assessed, developed and adapted** (if necessary) before the education response. Availability (in a timely manner) of learning and supplementary materials for all students, including those that are more appropriate for refugees and/or disabled students.

3. **Presentation of Questionnaires – “How is the quality of the education response in emergencies being addressed?”**

As previously established in the introductory part of this chapter, and also in the part of the methodological description, in this point it will be presented the questionnaires that were planned, developed and distributed to a diverse group of actors who work or worked (voluntarily or professionally) in the field of Education in Emergencies, and also students and/or researchers who lived and studied in contexts marked by humanitarian crises and conflict situations. **Only these two groups of people – professionals and/or volunteers in the EiE sector – and – students/researchers that lived and studied under humanitarian settings – were considered eligible** for answering the questionnaires that were distributed. In the first group (professionals / volunteers), all professions and positions were eligible to answer and participate as long as they were connected and had experience in the EiE sector. Regarding the second group (students / researchers), all students / researchers were eligible to answer and participate as long as they have lived and studied in a context affected by a humanitarian crisis and/or conflict situation. In order to make this project **the more participatory as possible, no restrictive criteria were applied** such as respondents’ nationality or country of residence, geographical location of the crisis or intervention contexts where they worked, age, position or professional level, level of education, nor Organizations and/or types of Organizations were restricted as long as they worked in the EiE sector. Thus, in order to know and understand the object of study that had as its starting point the question “**How is the quality of the education response in emergencies being**
two types of questionnaires with different versions and purposes were
developed. The first version is the long-version and it consists of six different
sections (two sections are dedicated to personal information and the other four are
dedicated to each of the four Standards of the Teaching and Learning domain). In
this way, this long-version seeks to study and master the Teaching and Learning domain
in greater depth. Because it is longer, more extensive and more comprehensive in the
study, this version of the questionnaire also has a longer response time, that is, it takes
about 25-30 minutes on average to answer all the questions. As both versions of the
questionnaires are semi-closed, this means that in addition to the closed answers that
are already predefined, there is still the possibility for the respondent to add a
comment or elaborate his/her answer on each question. In this sense, if the respondents
wish to elaborate more on the questions, the average time may increase depending on
the answers they give. On the other hand, the second version is the short-version and
it consists of three different sections (two sections are also dedicated to personal
information and one is dedicated to Standard 1 – Curricula – of the Teaching and
Learning domain). This short-version focuses on only one Standard of the Teaching and
Learning domain – Standard 1 – Curricula. This decision regarding the focus on
Curricula is due to the importance they have in the whole educational process and
because they are a central element in the acquisition of learning content that may (or
may not) be useful and decisive for the future continuation of a good schooling and
professional path. Another reason was also due to the fact that this Standard allows for
greater participation of all actors involved in the EiE sector, whether teachers,
students, managers of educational programs, education authorities, etc. which Standard
2, for example, would not allow. This short-version naturally takes less time to respond
than the long-version, and therefore has a shorter response time, about 10-15 minutes on
average. As mentioned earlier, like the long-version, this version of the questionnaire is
also semi-closed. It presents questions with closed and predefined answers (mostly
“yes” or “no” answers, among others), but at the same time (in most of them) it gives
the respondent the opportunity to elaborate and develop his/her answer to the subject
matter covered in the question, if he/she so wishes.

As previously mentioned, the long-version consists of six different sections. The first
section, asks for personal information such as age rank, gender, nationality, current
country where the responder lives, level of academic / educational qualifications to date,
and a key screening question that is: “Have you ever worked (either as a professional
or volunteer) in the field of emergency education in the area of humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work? Or recently lived (as a student) in a country affected by a humanitarian crisis / armed conflict?” It is a multiple choice question, where there are four possible answers: “Yes, as a Worker”; “Yes, as a Student”, “Yes, as Both” and “No”. Based on the response that the respondent gives, he/she is forwarded to a particular section. If he/she answers “Yes, as a Worker” or “Yes, as Both” he/she is forwarded to the second section (section 2). Section 2 consists of four questions that also ask for personal information but regarding the respondent’s experience in “Education in Emergencies – humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work”. The questions in both the first and second sections are the same in both versions of the questionnaire. If he/she answers “Yes, as a Student”, he/she is forwarded to the third section (Section 3) which presents questions regarding the Standard 1 – Curricula.

Otherwise, if he/she answers “No”, he/she is sent to the end of the form and the questionnaire ends there. The remaining sections (fourth, fifth and sixth) each correspond to the other Standards of the Teaching and Learning domain (Training, Professional Development and Support; Instruction and Learning Processes; and Assessment of Learning Outcomes respectively). Regarding the type of questions contained in each of these sections, most of them are semi-closed questions (as previously mentioned regarding the type of questionnaire used). These semi-closed questions correspond to “long-answer texts” and have predefined answers such as “Yes” or “No” (or even “Not applicable” (N/A) in some cases). In addition to these predefined answers, the respondent is free to elaborate and develop his/her response if he/she so wishes. The others which are not “long-answer texts” are closed questions. For instance, section 3 (Curricula) consists of 12 semi-closed questions / “long-answer texts”; 3 “multiple-choice grid” questions; 2 “tick box grid” questions; 3 “multiple choice” questions and 1 “checkbox” question.

In relation to the short-version, this is constituted by three sections as already mentioned previously. In terms of the questions and issues presented, the first and

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40 The long-version questionnaire consists of a total of 48 questions across the four sections of the Teaching and Learning domain. Section 4 (Training, Professional Development and Support) has a total of 11 questions from which 9 correspond to “long-answer texts” and 2 to “checkboxes”. Section 5 (Instruction and Learning Processes) has a total of 19 questions from which 6 correspond to “long-answer texts”, 2 correspond to “tick box grids” and 1 corresponds to “multiple-choice grid”. Section 6 (Assessment of Learning Outcomes) has a total of 7 questions from which 3 correspond to “long-answer texts” and 4 to “tick box grids”. Nevertheless, it is important to remark that this version will not be presented here because it was not the one with the highest response and participation rate.
second sections are the same as the long-version. The third section corresponds to the Standard 1 – Curricula – and consists of 21 questions in total.\footnote{The short-version questionnaire in its third section (Curricula) has a total of 21 questions from which 11 correspond to “long-answer texts”, 3 to “multiple-choice grids”, 4 to “multiple-choice”, 2 to “tick box grids” and 1 to “checkbox”.

Another aspect of great importance that needs to be mentioned has to do with the places and networks where these questionnaires have been published to capture the attention of the interested public and respondents. Initially, some contacts were made mainly for international NGOs (and civil society organizations; foundations, and other international organizations) that work or are dedicated to (exclusively or not exclusively) to the area of Education, and especially to Education in Emergencies (or humanitarian / reconstruction and development contexts). Among these international NGOs, were contacted for example, Organizations like ACDI / VOCA, ACTED, Action Aid, Advancing Girls’ Education in Africa, (AGE Africa), Africa Educational Trust, Africa Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA), ChildFund, Children in Crisis, Education Development Trust (EDT), Global Partnership for Education, War Child, Education Cannot Wait, among some others. The contacts were essentially made for the general emails of these Organizations and additionally some were also made for their official pages on Facebook, for example. However, despite the contacts made, only some Organizations responded and showed interest in collaborating (by passing the questionnaires to the respective employees of this sector). In addition to the NGOs, some civil society associations, global movements and organizations, foundations, consultancies were also contacted. Examples: Global Campaign for Education (GCE), Right to Play, Education International, Education Above All (EAA), Education Development Center (EDC). At the same time, some important international networks directly related to the subject of the work project were also contacted. Examples: Enabling Education Network (EENET), Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA), Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action, Education in Crisis & Conflict Network (ECCN), Global Alliance for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience in the Education Sector (GADRRRES), Protect Education in Insecurity and Conflict (PEIC), and of course the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). The questionnaires were published in some of these networks with their respective authorisation, including INEE, through their publication as a “Call to Action” item in a Bi-Weekly Bulletin (April).
In a second phase, in addition to these initial contacts for NGOs, civil society associations, global movements, foundations, consultancies and international networks, the questionnaires were also published successively in several groups related to this sector in social media (Facebook essentially). These Facebook groups were essentially the following: Network for Research in Education in Conflict and Emergencies; International Connections in Education and Development; Education for all; Sustainable education for all; Education and International Development IOE; Society for International Education; PEACE EDUCATION – Special Interest Group; I am a TEACHER .::; TEACHERS FORUM & USEFUL INFORMATION (TF&UI); Conflict Resolution Education in Teacher Education; Quality Education; QUALITY EDUCATION (Q-Education); ISA Project for Global Education; Innovative Global Education; Conflict Research; PACT – Peace and Conflict Transformation; Global Coalition for Conflict Transformation; Gender and Armed Conflict; Humanitarian Crisis: Children Fleeing Violence; among some others. Unlike the emails that were sent to different NGOs, organizations and international networks, publications in the different Facebook groups were repeated over and over again, so that more people could view and participate (if they fit in the required profile / criteria).

In order to finish this point, it is only necessary to present the questionnaires with the respective questions that were put to the respondents / participants. The short-version questionnaire can be found here. The long-version questionnaire can be found here. The particular consultation of the SVQ at this point is very important because the next point will focus on the results and analysis of it.

![Figure 2. Short-Version Questionnaire (front page)](https://forms.gle/6vV77Bgoy8nQ3cNQ6)

42 In addition to the Facebook groups mentioned, it was also used some others that although not exclusively related to the area and sector of Education (or humanitarian crises and armed conflict), present a target audience of interest for the objectives of the questionnaires and the project. Examples: International Development Jobs for Young Professional; International Association for the Study of Forced Migration; Refugee and Forced Migration Narratives; Refugee Buddy Network; Refugee Research Network; Conflict Resolution & Peacebuilding – Jobs and Internships; Network of African Youths for Development (NAYD); World Humanitarian Aid. For more information, please consult the annexes.

43 Link: [https://forms.gle/6vV77Bgoy8nQ3cNQ6](https://forms.gle/6vV77Bgoy8nQ3cNQ6)

44 Link: [https://forms.gle/Tv1XsYAAvnbGdJtr6](https://forms.gle/Tv1XsYAAvnbGdJtr6)
3.1. Analysis and Results of the Questionnaires

As previously stated in the last point (and also in the methodology chapter), the short-version of the questionnaires is the one with the shortest average response time. Thus, naturally and as expected, this version was the one that obtained the highest rate of participation and response (89.70% against 10.29% of the long-version or, by other words, 61 responses against 7). For this reason and due to the greater weight that this version obtained, priority will be given here to the analysis and discussion of results of the short-version questionnaires. Therefore, below it will be presented the summary results of each question of this version, as well as an overall assessment of all questions and issues as a whole. The individual results to each question are presented and can be consulted in the annexes.\(^45\)

Regarding the first section (Section 1), there are six questions that seek to obtain data on personal information and profile characteristics of respondents.

1) 1\(^{st}\) Question: “How old are you?” (Multiple choice)

2) 2\(^{nd}\) Question: “What is your gender?” (Multiple choice)

3) 3\(^{rd}\) Question: “What is your nationality?” (Short-answer text)

\(^45\) For more information about the results of the SVQ, please consult point 5. “RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRES” presented in the annexes.

\(^46\) Total Valid Respondents refers to those who indicated one of the three valid options: “Yes, as a Worker”; “Yes, as a Student” or “Yes, as Both” in the last question of Section 1. Those who indicated the fourth option “No” are considered invalid.
Chinese Hong Kong (1); Brazil (1); Malawi (1); DR Congo (2); USA (2); Myanmar (1); Ethiopia (1); Tanzania (2); UK (1); South Africa (1); Bangladesh (1); Colombia (1); Eritrea (1); [Unknown: 1].

4) 4th Question: “Where do you currently live? (Country)” (Short-answer text)

Valid Respondents’ locations (countries): Kenya (3); UK (3); Egypt (4); Pakistan (2); New Zealand (1); Nigeria (9); Philippines (3); Zimbabwe (2); Australia (2); DR Congo (1); Malawi (1); Burundi (1); USA (1); Myanmar (1); Ethiopia (2); Tanzania (2); South Africa (1); Bangladesh (1); Colombia (1); [Unknown: 1].

5) 5th Question: “What is the level of your academic / educational qualifications to date?” (Multiple choice)

Total of Respondents: 61. Total with Bachelors Degree: 27 (of which 15 are valid). Total with Masters Degree: 24 (of which 20 are valid). Total with Doctoral Degree: 6 (of which 5 are valid). Total with Secondary Education: 2 (of which 1 is valid). Others: 2 (of which 1 is valid – “Diploma in Education”).

![Graphic 2. Level of academic / educational qualifications SVQ]

6) 6th Question: “Have you ever worked (either as a professional or volunteer) in the field of emergency education in the area of humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work? Or recently lived (as a student) in a country affected by a humanitarian crisis / armed conflict?” (Multiple choice)

Total of Respondents: 61. Total Valid Respondents: 42. Total of Respondents that answered “Yes, as a Worker”: 27. Total of Respondents that answered “Yes, as a

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47 All numbers in parentheses represent the number of respondents who responded in the same way. In case the number in parentheses is 1 it means that only one person responded that answer.
In regard to the second section (Section 2), there are four questions that seek to get personal information related to the professional (or volunteer) experience of respondents in the field of Education in Emergencies. This is a section that is only available to those who answered “Yes, as Worker” (27) or “Yes, as Both” (9) in the last question in section 1. Students are not considered valid for this section, so they respond immediately to section 3.

7) 1st Question: “How long have you worked in the field of emergency education (in the humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work)? Please type the number of years of experience that you have in this field.” (Short-answer text)

**Total of Valid Respondents for this section: 36.** Answers: 12 years; 2,5 years; 1 year (2)⁴⁸; 3 years (7); 40 years; 4 years (2); 5 years; 10 years (6); less than a year (2); 7 years (3); 15 years; 11 years; 2 years (3); 6 years (3); 20 years. Average years of experience in EiE: 7.4 years.

8) 2nd Question: “What was the last year that you worked in this area? Please indicate the last year (E.g.: 2000, 2017, 2018, 2019).” (Short-answer text)

**Total of Valid Respondents for this section: 36.** Answers: 2018 (12); 2019 (14); 2012 (2); N/A⁴⁹; 2015; 2017 (2); 2009; 2008; 2002; 2014.

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⁴⁸ All numbers in parentheses after a numerical value represent the number of respondents who responded in the same way relative to that value.
⁴⁹ The respondent did not respond correctly or did not want to answer.
9) 3rd Question: “Are you currently working in the field of emergency education in the humanitarian action / development work?” (Multiple choice)


10) 4th Question: “If you answered “Yes” in the previous question, please indicate what is the organization (or what type of organization) you are currently working in. If you answered "No" in the previous question, please type N/A (Not applicable).” (Short-answer text)


Regarding the third and last section (section 3), there are 21 questions in total (20 are questions related with all issues and key contents as part of the Curricula Standard of the INEE Minimum Standards, and 1 is an optional feedback question asking for additional comments or suggestions in the EiE field). This section is available for all Valid Respondents (Workers, Students and/or Both – Total: 42).

11) 1st Question: “1. Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, has there been any process of reviewing, developing and adapting formal curricula by the responsible education authorities? 1.1. If yes, did those processes include all relevant stakeholders? Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively (or N/A in the 2nd if you answered "No" in the 1st) and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

Total of Valid Respondents for this section: 42. Answers: 20 respondents answered “Yes” to the first question, 16 responded “No” and 6 responded “N/A” (Not applicable
or that they do not know). 1.1. Answers: 18 respondents answered “Yes”, 18 answered “No” and 6 answered “N/A”. 5 Respondents have developed their response to this question (although not all are correct and/or valid answers – E.g.: Some don’t address the question that is being asked). Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “Yes. The education sector the past five years started incorporating DRR-related educational materials in schools especially in the primary stage and have also engaged in partnerships with various social development agencies or non-government organizations in the development and implementation of such learning aid materials.”

12) 2st Question: “If you answered "Yes" (to the first) previous question, and taking into account that last (and most recent) professional experience, how would you classify the capacity and competence of the responsible education authorities in reviewing, developing and adapting formal curricula to better adapt to the specific local context and needs and rights of learners? Answer by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate in the scale below. If you answered "No" to the (first) previous question, please select the option N/A (Not applicable)” (Multiple-choice grid)

Figure 3. Caption of the Charts on the capacity and competence of education authorities regarding revision, development and adaptation of the school curricula SVQ

13) 3rd Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, what do you think of the curricula used in that local context where you worked? Do you consider that formal school curricula were appropriate, relevant and adapted taking into account the students' ages, levels of development and context? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

Answers: 13 respondents answered “Yes”, 25 respondents answered “No” and 4 respondents either responded N/A or were classified this way. 11 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “No. Curricula did not contemplate the local reality and was mostly regarding generic language and mathematical concepts, with most cases mixing up different-aged students.”

14) 4th Question: “4. Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was there any emergency situation or crisis that implied the reestablishment of formal education programs? 4.1. If yes, were national primary and
secondary school curricula properly recognised by education authorities?
Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively (or N/A in the 2nd if you answered "No" in the 1st) and elaborate if you consider appropriate.”

(Long-answer text)

4. Answers: 16 respondents answered “Yes” to the first question, 19 responded “No” and 7 either answered “N/A” or were classified this way. 4.1. Answers: 15 respondents answered “Yes”, 17 answered “No” and 10 answered / were classified as “N/A”. 5 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “Yes, as even people displacement areas and TLCs (Temporary Learning Space), the State’s curriculum is the first reference to launch any education activity. Volunteer Head teachers and Teachers during emergencies are not necessarily prepared to adapt any program to the situation. Some have knowledge of the formal curriculum that they may try to replicate and others have no idea at all. So any new adaptations of the curriculum need a planning for teachers’ capacity building from humanitarian organisations or agencies, with the support of international cooperation.”

15) 5th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was that humanitarian intervention in any way connected with the reception of refugees and / or internally displaced persons (IDPs)? Please answer below by selecting the option that applies.” (Multiple choice)

Answers: 19 respondents answered “Yes”, 16 answered “No”, 6 answered “It depended. Some parts of the intervention were, but others were not.” and 1 was classified as “N/A”.

16) 6th Question: “6. If you answered "Yes" or "It depended" to the previous question, what do you think of the formal school curricula for refugees and/or IDPs? Were they based on the content, context and culture of the host country? 6.1. Did that host country/ community required that refugees / IDPs complied with their standards, in particular, curricula, language of instruction etc.? Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively or type N/A if you answered "No" in the previous question.” (Long-answer text)

6. Answers: 13 respondents answered “Yes” to the first question, 5 responded “No” and 24 respondents either answered “N/A” or were classified this way. 6.1. Answers: The
results are the same as those of the first question (6.). 7 respondents have developed their response to this 6th question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “No, for the cases that I know, refugee children are taught in mother lands’ language and country of origin official curriculum. Even their teachers are from the same community of refugees living in the same camps.”

17) 7th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, do you think that the educational programs developed, besides their formal learning components, were somehow enriched by the addition of specific knowledge and skills useful to the context of that emergency / crisis? Depending on the context affecting the intervention of which you were part, useful knowledge and skills could have included Disaster Risk Reduction; Disaster Preparedness; Conflict Prevention and Mitigation; Peacebuilding efforts and Conflict Resolution; skills useful for avoiding land mines; prevention against infectious diseases such as HIV, etc. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

Answers: 23 respondents answered “Yes”, 15 answered “No” and 4 either answered “N/A” or were classified this way. 10 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “Yes. We often use formal education to teach other, more practical and social skills such as first aid, community resilience, etc.”

18) 8th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, have special formal education curricula been developed for more vulnerable groups? Please answer by selecting all the options that apply. In case none of the following options have been verified, please select the N/A option.” (Tick box grid) Answers / Results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Children and youth earning a livelihood</th>
<th>16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Those formerly associated with armed forces and armed groups</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners older than their grade level</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returning from long periods out of school</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult learners</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Special formal education curricula for more vulnerable groups SVQ

19) 9th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were Core Competencies identified before the development and/or adaptation of learning contents and teacher training materials? For example, Core Competencies for basic education levels include: functional literacy and numeracy; essential knowledge, skills, attitudes and practices required for learners to have a life with dignity and participate actively as full members of their communities. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

Answers: 26 respondents answered “Yes”, 14 respondents answered “No” and 2 were classified as “N/A”. 4 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “No that I know of. Actually, all these items sometimes lack in the regular education programs.”

20) 10th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were there any learning contents dedicated to Life Skills and key concepts? These contents and concepts should be context-specific and appropriate to the age, learners’ level of development, experience, the surrounding environment, etc. Please answer by selecting all the options that apply. In case none of the following options have been verified, please select the N/A option.”(Tick box grid) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and Hygiene Promotion (including sexual health)</th>
<th>27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child Protection</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychosocial Support</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Human Rights Education 19
Citizenship and Peace-building 17
Humanitarian Law 4
Disaster Risk Reduction and Life-saving Skills 16
Promotion of Culture and Recreation 10
Arts (music, dance, drama, etc.) 13
Sports 14
Livelihoods Skills and Vocational Training 23
Local and indigenous environmental knowledge 15
Protection skills against specific skills and threats 14
Promotion of Gender Equality 20
Others 3
N/A 4

Table 3. Life Skills and Key Concepts SVQ

21) 11th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, how would you classify the psychosocial support given to the different members of the affected community (students, teachers, other education personnel, etc.)? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate.” (Multiple-choice grid) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nonexistent</th>
<th>Unsatisfactory</th>
<th>Satisfactory</th>
<th>Acceptable</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Outstanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Education Personnel</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Members</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Psychosocial Support SVQ

22) 12th Question: “12. Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you
worked, did educational personnel (including teachers) receive training to recognise signs of distress in learners? 12.1. Were they able to take steps to address distress (if it existed)? Example: using Referral Mechanisms to provide additional support. Please answer to each question with "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

12. Answers: 24 respondents answered “Yes”, 16 answered “No” and 2 were classified as “N/A”. 12.1. Answers: The results are the same as those of the first question (12). 4 respondents have developed their response to this 12th question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “Yes, but the support is very limited and institutions must always adhere to certain number of referrals. There isn’t enough professionals to assist schools in crisis. (Drug abuse, Academic Support – scribes, etc. and Gang-related violence).”

23) 13th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was it a multilingual country and/or community? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate.” (Multiple choice)

Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, it was a multilingual community.</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, it was not multilingual. Everyone spoke the same language.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both, depending on the various contexts where I worked, there could be both.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: (“There are different dialects.” / “Multilingual considering the indigenous languages that are not official.”)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Language of country and/or community SVQ

24) 14th Question: “If you answered "Yes" or "Both" in the previous question, have consensual decisions been taken between all relevant stakeholders on the issue of language (s) of instruction (teaching)? Note: Relevant stakeholders might have been education authorities, local community, learners, etc. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate. If you answered "No" in the previous question, please type N/A.” (Long-answer text)
Answers: 10 respondents answered “Yes”, 13 answered “No” and 19 either answered N/A or were classified this way. 5 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “learners from other African countries must adopt the language of instruction of the school they applied to and can apply for exception for Africaans which in most cases are the additional language studied at schools. This leads to many issues as these learners speak french and other languages. Especially at High School it is very difficult to help these learners as Africaans isn’t taught as new language but from premise that the learner knows the basic taught in previous grade. A big problem for these learners and teachers teaching Africaans.”

25) 15th Question: “If you answered "Yes" or "Both" in the penultimate question, were the languages of instruction available in the languages of students? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate. If you answered "No" to the penultimate question, please select the "N/A" option.” (Multiple choice) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, languages of instruction were available in the languages of students in almost all cases.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, they were available in the languages of students in most cases, but not available for some minorities.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was available for some students, but not available to a significant portion of minorities.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, there were constantly many problems because of the language of instruction.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: (N/A)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Languages of Instruction SVQ

26) 16th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were disabled students (deaf, blind, etc.) taught in the most appropriate
language(s) and with the most appropriate teaching methods in order to ensure full inclusion? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate." (Long-answer text)

Answers: 12 respondents answered “Yes”, 28 answered “No” and 2 either answered N/A or were classified this way. 7 respondents have developed their response to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “No, they were sent out of the school system and forced to stay home.”

27) 17th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were people from different backgrounds and vulnerable groups included in the development and implementation of educational activities? Note: By different backgrounds and vulnerable groups it may be understood "Diversity". Please answer below by selecting all the options that apply. Select only those groups that you believe that were included in the educational activities!” (Checkboxes) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People from different genders</th>
<th>People with mental disabilities</th>
<th>People with physical disabilities</th>
<th>People with different learning capacities</th>
<th>Learners from diverse income groups</th>
<th>Children of different ages</th>
<th>People of different cultures and nationalities</th>
<th>People of different ethnicities</th>
<th>People from different religions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other: “No”/ “These people [have] no say at all in developing anything concerning their learning skills or education.” / “On the outlook different castes are included, but then, in reality, not all are welcomed.” / “None.”

28) 18th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, how would you classify the levels of bias in the curricula, instructional
materials and teaching methodologies of the educational programme? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate. In some options, in case you are not sure or it doesn't apply please select the N/A option.” (Multiple-choice grid) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Nonexistent!</th>
<th>Subtle bias</th>
<th>Some bias</th>
<th>Too biased</th>
<th>Bias and other incentives to hatred and/or discord</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal Curricula of Basic Education Level</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction Materials of Basic Education Level</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methodologies of Basic Education Level</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Curricula of Secondary Education</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction Materials of Secondary Education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methodologies of Secondary Education</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Curricula of University Education</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction Materials of University Education</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methodologies of University Education</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other levels / types of Formal Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Levels of bias SVQ

29) 19th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were locally available learning materials (curricula, textbooks, supplementary materials, etc.) for learners assessed at the beginning of the emergency /
crisis? Please answer by selecting the option that you consider most
appropriate.” (Multiple choice) Answers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, they were!</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, they were not.</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It depends. Some were, others were not.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: “for primary and secondary, they were the same books used in other parts of the country”</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Assessment of locally available learning materials SVQ

30) 20th Question: “Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were learning materials (curricula, textbooks, supplementary materials, etc.) adapted, developed (if necessary) and made available in sufficient quantities for all learners in a timely manner? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.” (Long-answer text)

Answers: 14 respondents answered “Yes”, 25 answered “No” and 3 either answered “N/A” or were classified this way. 5 respondents have developed their answer to this question. Example of an elaborated and valid answer: “No, because the school enrolment is always higher in the camp. You will find a school of 5000 pupils with 300 textbooks.”

3.2. Conclusions on the results of the questionnaires

In order to finalize the analysis of the results of the questionnaires, it is necessary to underline its main conclusions.

Thus, going neatly by the various points under analysis since the first section (section 1) of the SVQs, it is important to pay attention below.

Regarding the age of the participants / respondents, 14.8% have between 25-30 years old; 31.1% have between 30-40 years old and 18% have between 40-50 years old. The other respondents are inserted in age groups with lower percentages.

Regarding the gender of participants / respondents, from the total responses (61), there was a total of 39 males and a total of 22 females. However, from the total valid responses (42), there was a total of 25 males and a total of 17 females.

Regarding the nationalities of respondents, there was a great diversity in this factor. Although the majority of respondents are nationals of developing countries, there were
also citizens from developed countries working in the EiE sector. The nationality that had most respondents was the Nigerian (8), followed by the Egyptian (3) and the Filipino (3). There were also respondents from nationalities like: Eritrea; Ethiopia; Kenya; Tanzania; Democratic Republic of Congo; Zimbabwe; South Africa; Malawi; Ghana; Pakistan; Myanmar; Bangladesh; among others.

Regarding the country of residence, in most cases nationals from a given country, continue to live on their country. However, there are some few cases where some respondents live in other countries. As in the nationality factor, the country of residence of most respondents was once again Nigeria (9), followed by Egypt (4), Kenya (3), Philippines (3) and the UK (3).

Regarding the level of academic / educational qualifications of respondents, in this point only valid respondents (42) are considered. Therefore, the majority of respondents have a Masters degree (20); 15 have a Bachelors degree; 5 have a PhD degree; 1 has Secondary Education; and other 1 has a “Diploma in Education”.

Regarding the experience of respondents in the EiE sector (either as professionals and/or volunteers) or their experience as students in a country affected by armed conflict, the majority of respondents have answered “Yes, as a Worker” (27) from the four possible answers. The other valid respondents have answered “Yes, as a Student” (6) and “Yes, as Both” (9).

In relation to the second section (section 2), again it is recalled that this section is only answered by those who replied “Yes, as a Worker” or “Yes, as Both” in the previous question. Therefore, only 36 respondents are valid in this section.

Regarding the question which asks how much time of experience is that the respondent has in the EiE sector, the results are very diverse. The majority of respondents answered that they have 3 years of experience (7); followed by those who answered they have 10 years of experience (6); by those which replied they have 7 years (3); by those which answered they have 6 years (3) and by those which reported to have 2 years (3). In this question, there was also a great disparity between the results. There were cases of respondents with 40 years of experience, another with 20 years of experience, another with 15, and at the other end, respondents with 1 year of experience.

Regarding the question which asks about what was the last year that the respondent worked in the EiE sector, the results do not show large disparities. For instance, 14 answered 2019; 12 answered 2018; 2 answered 2017; 2 answered 2012, among other responses.
Regarding the question which asks if the respondent is currently working in the EiE sector, the results also do not present a great disparity. 22 respondents answered “Yes” and 14 answered “No”.

Regarding the 3rd question of the second section (section 2), only the respondents which answered “Yes” to the previous question are considered valid (22). This question asks what is the organization (or type of organization) that the respondent is currently working. Therefore, the results present some diversity both in the type and in the size of the organizations. 2 respondents answered they work for UN agencies; at least 5 people reported to work for organizations of the Red Cross family (National Red Cross societies; ICRC; IFRC); at least 5 reported working for international NGOs (Save the Children; Plan International; Catholic Relief Services; Caritas, among others); about a half a dozen others reported to work for some local organizations; and at least 5 people reported working at schools as teachers.

In relation to the third and last section (section 3), again it is recalled that this section consists of a total of 21 questions (20 are questions about the contents of study, and 1, the latter, is a question about feedback).

Regarding the question that asks about the existence of any possible process of review, development and adaptation of formal curricula by the responsible education authorities, this question did not present results with large disparities. 20 respondents reported that there has been a process of review, development and adaptation by formal education authorities, and in the majority of these cases all relevant stakeholders were included in these processes. However, 16 respondents reported that there was not any process like this. 6 did not know what to answer and/or were classified this way. Among those which developed their answer, there are cases of absence of schools in the fields; lack of school curricula for IDPs; cases of marginalization of certain communities in Nepal; and success stories at this level in the Philippines. This question gives rise to the second question. Therefore, in the second question, only respondents which answered “Yes” previously are considered valid (20). This question asks the respondent how he/she classifies the capacity and competence of the responsible education authorities in reviewing, developing and adapting formal curricula in order for it to be adapted to the specific local context and needs and rights of the learners. Therefore, the results here present mostly a negative tendency. In the “Review” process, the majority answered it was “Nonexistent” (12), followed by “Unsatisfactory” (8) and “N/A” (8). Only 1 reported to be “Excellent” and other 1 to be “Outstanding“. In the “Development”, the
majority answered “Nonexistent” (11), followed by “Unsatisfactory” (9). Only 1 reported it to be “Excellent”. In the “Adaptation”, the majority answered “Nonexistent” (12), followed by “Unsatisfactory” (11). In the “Collaboration with all relevant stakeholders”, the majority answered “Unsatisfactory” (15), followed by “Nonexistent” (8).

Regarding the question which asks the respondent if he/she considers that the formal school curricula were appropriate, relevant and adapted taking into account the students’ ages, levels of development and context, the results present mostly a negative tendency, with most respondents answering “No” (25). 13 answered “Yes”. 4 were “N/A”. For instance, among those that developed their answer (11), were reported cases of inadequate school curricula and misfits to the local reality; basic curricula only meant for communication purposes; cases mixing up different aged-students, among others.

Regarding the question that asks if there was any emergency situation that implied the reestablishment of formal education programs, the results do not present a great disparity. 16 respondents answered “Yes”. 19 answered “No”. 7 were “N/A”. Among those which responded “Yes” (that there was an emergency situation), 15 reported that the reestablishment of formal education programs, including school curricula were properly recognised by education authorities.

Regarding the question about whether or not the humanitarian intervention was connected with the reception of refugees and / or internally displaced persons (IDPs), the majority of respondents reported “Yes” (19), 16 reported “No” and only 6 reported that “It depended. Some parts of the intervention were, but others were not”. Therefore, among those which responded “Yes” or “It depended (...)”, the majority (13) also reported that formal school curricula for refugees and/or IDPs were based on the content, context and culture of the host country. Only 5 reported that it was not based on those requirements. There are also reported cases of unmet basic needs by the school; lack of curricula and lack of routine access to school by refugees.

With regard to the question about the addition of specific knowledge and skills useful to the context of the emergency / crisis, the majority of respondents answered “Yes” (23) and 15 answered “No”. However, even among those who answered “Yes”, are reported limitations and difficulties in guaranteeing those skills, mainly due to factors such as lack of institutional policy, lack of expert knowledge to deliver those skills, time management, funding limitation, among others. There are also cases reporting that even though skills training were delivered (peacebuilding), they were useless and
inappropriate for the particular local context which needed geopolitical solutions and
not community-based peacebuilding efforts.

Regarding the question which asks if special formal curricula have been developed for more vulnerable groups of people, the results show mostly positive results. The majority of respondents reported that the groups that benefited the most from special curricula were “learners older than their grade level” (17); “children and youth earning a livelihood” (16); those “returning from long periods out of school” (15); and “adult learners” (15). Only 10 reported that these special curricula have not been developed.

With regard to the question that asks about the identification of core competencies (based on students’ needs) before the development and/or adaptation of learning contents, the results also show a mostly positive reality. The majority of respondents reported “Yes” (26) against 14 which reported “No”.

Regarding the question which asks whether learning contents were dedicated to useful life skills, the results are mostly positive, reflecting a positive reality. The majority of respondents (27) reported that “health and hygiene promotion (including sexual health)” was the most recurrent life skill, followed by “child protection” (24); by “psychosocial support” (24); and “livelihoods skills and vocational training” (23). On the contrary, “humanitarian law” was the least reported skills by respondents (4). Only 4 respondents stated that none of the life skills was included in their respective educational programs.

With regard to the question which asks for classification on the psychosocial support given to the different groups of the education community (students, teachers, other education personnel, community members, others), this presents mostly negative results. Regarding students, the majority of respondents (17) reported that the psychosocial support was “Unsatisfactory”. Regarding teachers, the majority of respondents reported that it was “Nonexistent” (12) and 11 reported that it was “Unsatisfactory”. Regarding other education personnel, the majority (14) reported that the psychosocial support was “Nonexistent” and 12 reported that it was “Unsatisfactory”. Regarding community members and others, the majority of respondents also reported that it was “Unsatisfactory” (16) and (17) respectively.

Regarding the question which asks if education personnel (including teachers) were trained and able to recognize signs of distress in learners, and take the necessary measures to address it, the results here are mostly positive. The majority of respondents reported “Yes” (24) against 16 who reported “No”. However, even among those who
reported “Yes”, some difficulties, limitations and useless efforts were reported. Some respondents reported that the support provided in distressing situations was not effective; it was short-term group therapy and was not appropriate for the local context. Other respondents reported that although this support existed, it was very limited because there were very few teachers qualified to do this. Other respondents reported that besides the support being limited, there were not enough qualified professionals to assist schools in crises especially on issues such as drug abuse and gang-related violence.

In regard to the question about whether or not the country and/or community where the humanitarian intervention took place was multilingual, the results are very diverse. The majority of respondents answered “Yes, it was a multilingual community” (16). 13 respondents answered “No, it was not multilingual. Everyone spoke the same language”. 11 respondents answered “Both, depending on the various contexts (...”)”. Among those which answered “Yes (...)” or “Both (...)” (27 in total), 13 respondents reported “No” to the subsequent question, meaning that there was no consensual decisions taken between all relevant stakeholders on the issue of language of instruction. However, 10 respondents answered “Yes”, stating that decisions were taken consensually. Subsequently, among those who also answered “Yes (...)” or “Both (...)” to the question about whether or not the country/community was multilingual, the results about the availability of language(s) of instruction in the languages of students were divisive. The majority of respondents (8) reported “Yes, language(s) of instruction were available in the language(s) of students in almost all cases” and other 8 reported “No, there were constantly many problems because of the language of instruction”.

Regarding the question about the inclusiveness of disabled students (deaf, blind, handicapped, etc.) and their inclusion in education with the most appropriate teaching methods, the results present a mostly negative reality. The majority of respondents (28) reported “No”, meaning that disabled students did not receive enough care and support nor did they benefit from the most appropriate teaching methodologies. Only 12 respondents answered that disabled students received that support. Among the respondents who answered “No”, were reported cases of lack of disability appropriate materials, structures and facilities; lack of specialized institutions and qualified professionals to handle these issues; and there were also reports claiming that the government does not even have enough financial resources to reconstruct destroyed
schools, so even less money to take care of the disabled. Extreme cases have also been reported claiming that disabled students were forced to stay home.

In regard to the question about the inclusiveness of people from different backgrounds and vulnerable groups in the development and implementation of possible and relevant education activities, results in this matter show mostly a positive reality. The majority of respondents answered “people from different genders” (32), followed by “people from different religions” (28), and followed by “children of different ages” (27). However, “people with mental disabilities” was the group least indicated by respondents (7). Despite that, the results present a mostly positive reality, showing no evidences of any kind of segregation and discrimination.

Regarding the question which asks for classification on the levels of bias in the curricula, instructional materials, and teaching methodologies in the different educational levels (basic education; secondary education; university education and other levels/types of education), the results are diverse (although do not present large disparities) and vary according to the education level. Therefore, in regard to the basic education level, the majority of respondents answered mostly “Nonexistent / No bias” and “Some bias” across the different aspects under analysis (curricula, instructional materials, and teaching methodologies). In regard to the secondary education level and subsequent levels, it is important to highlight that the majority of respondents did not know how to answer this question. Therefore, in the secondary education level, most respondents reported “Nonexistent / No bias” and some others reported “subtle bias”. In regard to the university education level, most respondents also reported “Nonexistent / No bias” across the different aspects under analysis (curricula, instruction materials, and teaching methodologies). A result that is common to all education levels across the different aspects under analysis is that very few respondents answered “Too biased” and even less answered “Bias and other incentives to hatred and/or discord”, thus revealing an education that is not based on any kind of serious prejudices.

With regard to the question that asks if locally available learning materials (curricula, textbooks, supplementary materials, etc.) for students were assessed at the beginning of an emergency situation, the results are diverse and divisive. 14 respondents answered “Yes, they were” and other 14 answered “No, they were not”. 13 answered “It depends (...)”. The subsequent question asked whether those learning materials were adapted, developed and made available in sufficient quantities for all learners in a timely manner. The majority of respondents reported “No” (25) against 14 that reported “Yes”.

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VI. General Conclusion

Throughout this work, it was possible to analyze the object of study through two key component parts: the theoretical part and the practical part.

In the theoretical component, it was first found, in the part of the introduction, that education has progressively undergone successive evolutions, both in terms of improving access to education, at various levels and types of education, and also in terms of improving literacy worldwide (Roser, M 2016). In this context, it was also analyzed and found that although there is a positive tendency in relation to the progressive evolution both in the access to education and in the literacy of the world population, as pointed out by the study conducted by economist Max Roser, there are still many challenges and obstacles that prevent the enjoyment of the right to education for millions of people (particularly children and young people of school age). The challenges are very diverse and numerous and continue to hinder both access to education and school achievement. They are usually due to various economic, social, political, cultural, geographic and demographic factors, among others.

In the theoretical part, it was also analyzed and found that the international legal instruments that safeguard and protect the right to education are very diverse and present different purposes. There are international legal instruments that protect the right to education in itself, and conversely, there are others which protect the necessary conditions for the right to education, where it exists, not being interrupted or prevented. In addition to a very diverse panoply of international legal instruments, there are also global agendas that fight for achieving ambitious global goals, notably in the area of education, and which include more specific objectives related with the most pressing challenges in this area (examples: the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and more precisely, the Education 2030 Agenda). Nevertheless, once again it was found that despite the international legal instruments related to the safeguarding, protection and even the promotion of the right to education being very vast and diversified, they alone do not guarantee access to education, and even less to a quality education. Therefore, the lack of access to education, and even more, of quality education, based on international quality minimum standards, is particularly difficult in situations of humanitarian crises, especially those caused by conflicts and/or affected by a climate of insecurity and tension. The main reasons that justify the increase of difficulties in situations of humanitarian crises caused by armed conflict and/or insecurity have
essentially to do with the nature of the armed conflict itself in a particular geographical location and in a given context. Obviously, these difficulties can and are usually aggravated by the socioeconomic conditions of the country and community concerned, by capacity levels (financial resources, human resources, technology, economic power) and resilience levels. Thus, the higher the capacity and resilience levels of a given country, the greater the likelihood of the effects suffered by a humanitarian crisis, in particular by armed conflict, being smaller and less prone to escalating tension and violence.

In this context, after having found the existence of high levels of lack of access to education at the global level, as demonstrated in the part dedicated to statistics on education in emergencies, it was also found that, in addition to those challenges already difficult and exacerbated, there are still very few international legal mechanisms dedicated solely to protecting education in emergencies, particularly in armed conflicts. Or by other words, there are few international legal mechanisms and instruments that are dedicated solely to safeguarding and protecting against situations of education-related violations. A very clear example of these failures in the international legal system is the absence of specific measures and legislation against education-related violations in international criminal law. Therefore, the challenges and obstacles to the lack of access to education, and even more, to quality education are aggravated by the existence of education-related violations whose international law does not have a solid, rigorous and effective ability and power to dissuade the harmful effects of this type of attacks on education.

Thus, in this sense, the main victims of these challenges exacerbated by the constant and unpredictable attacks are essentially children and young people of school age, that in the absence of an education that provides them with a sense of routine, gives them stability, guarantees physical and emotional safety and comfort, postpone a future of opportunities, perpetuating situations of poverty coupled with lack of professional expectations, being even more likely to enter the paths of marginality and delinquency.

Thus, it is in this context that it made perfect sense to analyze the object of study in question. In this sense, the object of study sought to know and analyze how was the quality of the education response being addressed in humanitarian crises affected by armed conflict (and/or insecurity) based on international quality minimum standards (INEE MS).
Therefore, through the use of the questionnaires method (among others as previously mentioned), it was possible to reach the desired answers, although not necessarily the intended results. As it was observed on the point of the conclusions on the results of the questionnaires, the results, as a whole, show mostly negative situations and realities. For example, the question about the review, development and adaptation of formal education curricula by responsible education authorities, and the subsequent classification of their capacity and competence in conducting those processes, show mostly negative results; the same can be said about the adequateness of formal school curricula taking into account students’ ages, levels of development and specific context; or about the curricula for refugees and IDPs; or about the psychosocial support given to the different groups of the education community; or about the issue on the decisions of language of instruction between all relevant stakeholders; or about the issue of inclusiveness for the disabled and the handicapped (lack of appropriate school facilities; lack of care and support; lack of teaching methods). However, there are also very positive results in some issues and aspects. Examples are, for instance, the addition of specific knowledge and skills useful to the context of the emergency / crisis; the development of education programmes and special curricula for more vulnerable groups of people (such as: children and youth earning a livelihood; learners older than their grade level; returning from long periods out of school; adult learners); the identification of core competences (and students’ needs) before the development and/or adaptation of learning contents; the development of learning contents dedicated to useful life skills (for example: health and hygiene promotion; child protection; livelihoods skills and vocational training); the capacity of education professionals to recognize signs of distress in learners and being able to provide adequate support, even referral psychosocial mechanisms; the inclusiveness of people from different backgrounds linked to the education community, without any evident results of any form of segregation or discrimination. Through the analysis of the questionnaires and the subsequent conclusions about the results, it was also possible to answer the question raised on point 1.4 of the preceding chapter (Chapter V), which asked “Is there a significant gap between the INEE Minimum Standards and its application in practice?” Thus, as evidenced by the analysis of the questionnaires, and taking into account the previously mentioned criteria and methodological assumptions (analysis of the Teaching and Learning Domain, particularly the Curricula Standard), it is possible to state that in the light of these criteria, there was (and there is) effectively a gap between
the INEE Minimum Standards and the practices that were carried out in the field, across the different regional, geographical and sociocultural contexts.

Nevertheless, despite the negative results in some aspects related with the teaching and learning domain, particularly in school curricula, there are positive aspects that can and should be reinforced. With regard to the most negative aspects that have been noted, they all have a solution, which essentially depends, obviously, on the specific context, needs, capacities and resources of the community and the country.

Among the most indicated recommendations, it should be highlighted the need for a rigorous analysis of the specific context, the survey and judicious registration on the needs of the population affected by the crisis, a greater and more effective coordination among all sectors of humanitarian action, better monitoring and needs assessment systems, and above all, greater transparency, democratization and inclusiveness of all relevant stakeholders and interested education community in the processes of planning and developing education activities and programmes that are important to them.

VII. References

Bibliography:


Webliography:
9. ICRC. Convention (III) relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War. Geneva, 12 August 1949. [Online]. Available at <https://ihl-


VIII. ANNEXES

1. LIST OF DEFINITIONS


1.) **Assessment** – “refers to the measurement of what has been learned in the form of knowledge, attitudes and skills for the learning content covered” (MSH, p. 78);

2.) **Instructional material** – “refers to books, maps and charts, supplementary study materials, teachers’ guides, equipment, toys and other teaching and learning materials” (MSH, p. 78);

3.) **Learning content** – “refers to subject areas such as literacy, numeracy and life skills” (MSH, p. 78);

4.) **Learning objectives** – “identify the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will be developed through education activities to promote the cognitive, social, emotional and physical development of learners” (MSH, p. 77);

5.) **Teaching methods** – “refer to the approach chosen for, and used in, the presentation of learning content to encourage the acquisition of knowledge and skills in all learners” (MSH, p. 78).

2. LIST OF FACEBOOK GROUPS (WHERE QUESTIONNAIRES HAVE BEEN PUBLISHED)

Footnote 42 – List of Facebook Groups where questionnaires have been published

1.) **Network for Research in Education in Conflict and Emergencies** – Link: https://www.facebook.com/groups/477569042360520/

2.) **International Connections in Education and Development** – Link: https://www.facebook.com/groups/icedglobal/

3.) **Education for all** – Link: https://www.facebook.com/groups/147188642096576/
4.) **Sustainable education for all** – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/UsefulEducation/

5.) **Education and International Development IOE** – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/142377062530024/

6.) **Society for International Education** – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/TC.SIE/

7.) **PEACE EDUCATION** – Special Interest Group – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/peace.education.SIG/

8.) **I am a TEACHER .:.** – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/supportteachers/

9.) **TEACHERS FORUM & USEFUL INFORMATIONS (TF&UI)** – Link:  
   https://www.facebook.com/groups/1666869783590464/

10.) **Conflict Resolution Education in Teacher Education** – Link:  
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/302898489807591/

11.) **Quality Education** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/471090676594176/

12.) **QUALITY EDUCATION (Q-Education)** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/517629231660852/

13.) **ISA Project for Global Education** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/436808783143156/

14.) **Innovative Global Education** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/147530738682566/

15.) **Conflict Research** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/conflictresearch/

16.) **PACT - Peace and Conflict Transformation** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/pactatcga/

17.) **Global Coalition for Conflict Transformation** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/273878642684382/

18.) **Gender and Armed Conflict** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/388414837921113/?ref=br_rs

19.) **Humanitarian Crisis: Children Fleeing Violence** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/650424691714377/

20.) **International Development Jobs for Young Professionals** – Link:  
     https://www.facebook.com/groups/IDJYP/
21.) **International Association for the Study of Forced Migration** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/450410108332979/

22.) **Refugee and Forced Migration Narratives** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/420605494787037/

23.) **Refugee Buddy Network** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/RefugeeBuddyNetwork/

24.) **Refugee Research Network** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/30614536012/

25.) **Conflict Resolution & Peacebuilding - Jobs and Internships** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/conflictresolutionandpeacebuilding/

26.) **Network of African Youths for Development (NAYD)** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/NAYDmembers/

27.) **Syria Humanitarian Aid** – Link:
    https://www.facebook.com/groups/155389627955422/

3. **LIST OF GRAPHICS**

   Footnote 3 – Graphic 1 – “Literate and illiterate world population”

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**Graphic 1** – Literate and illiterate world population (Our World in Data)
Footnote 4 – Graphic 2 – “Projected world population by level of education”
4. LIST OF IMAGES

Footnote 16 – Image 1 – Right to education challenges (UNESCO)

Footnote 36 – Image 2 – International legal instruments guiding INEE MS
5. RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Short-Version Questionnaires (SVQ)

How old are you?
61 responses

What is your gender?
61 responses
What is your nationality?
60 responses

Where do you currently live (Country)?
60 responses
What is the level of your academic / educational qualifications to date?

- Basic Education: 39.3%
- Secondary Education: 9.3%
- Bachelors Degree: 44.3%
- Masters Degree: 9.3%
- Doctoral Degree: 9.3%
- Post-Doctoral Degree: 9.3%
- Other Higher Education level / type: 9.3%
- Post graduate diploma: 9.3%
- Diploma in Education: 9.3%

Have you ever worked (either as a professional or volunteer) in the field of emergency education in the area of humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work? Or recently lived (as a student) in a country affected by a humanitarian crisis / armed conflict?

- Yes, as a Worker: 31.1%
- Yes, as a Student: 14.8%
- Yes, as Both: 9.8%
- No: 44.3%
Experience in Education in Emergencies - humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work

How long have you worked in the field of emergency education (in the humanitarian action / reconstruction / development work)? Please type the number of years of experience that you have in this field.

37 responses

What was the last year that you worked in this area? Please indicate the last year. (E.g.: 2000, 2017, 2018, 2019).

37 responses
Are you currently working in the field of emergency education in the humanitarian action / development work?

37 responses

If you answered "Yes" in the previous question, please indicate what is the organization (or what type of organization) you are currently working in. If you answered "No" in the previous question, please type N/A (Not applicable).

37 responses
How is the quality of Teaching and Learning in emergency education response being assured? - Curricula

Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, has there been any process of reviewing, developing and adapting formal curricula by the responsible education authorities? If yes, did those processes include all relevant stakeholders? Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively (or N/A in the 2nd if you answered "No" in the 1st) and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

| Response | Response
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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In emergency only focussed Non Formal Education because there is no such school facility available in the Camps. Only trying to engaged children in educational activities so they can continue their education after emergency. There is no such curriculum for internally displaced children.

Most stakeholders I would say, in the consultation process. But how the views were taken into consideration varies (they can weigh differently)

Yes. The education sector the past five years started incorporating DRR-related educational materials in schools especially in the primary stage and have also engaged in partnerships with various social development agencies or non-government organizations in the development and implementation of of such learning aid materials.

| Response | Response
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<td>No, N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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Yes, No, a range of marginalised community members were not involved in the process, in the complex social environment of Nepal.

| Response | Response
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<td>No</td>
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<td>YES, YES</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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None that I know of.

| Response | Response
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<td>Yes, No</td>
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</table>
If you answered "Yes" (to the first) previous question, and taking into account that last (and most recent) professional experience, how would you classify the capacity and competence of the responsible education authorities in reviewing, developing and adapting formal curricula to better adapt to the specific local context and needs and rights of learners? Answer by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate in the scale below. If you answered "No" to the (first) previous question, please select the option N/A (Not applicable).
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, what do you think of the curricula used in that local context where you worked? Do you consider that formal school curricula were appropriate, relevant and adapted taking into account the students' ages, levels of development and context? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Details</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td>I am personally not agree to developed a curriculum in emergency because development of curriculum is a time taking process and in emergency children need immediate response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N/A</strong></td>
<td>No. It doesn't factor in things that will enhance their psychological wellbeing which is critical to them as refugees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td>It was basic. The learnt languages mostly for Communication purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td>Yes, but it also depends on the allocation of resources by government/education bureau, and the location of the school (which is subject to say rural municipality, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. Curricula did not contemplate the local reality and was mostly regarding generic language and mathematical concepts, with most classes mixing up different-aged students.

No, there are themes in link with emergency situations which need to be taken into account and understood from the side of the State's responsible of education first, then the process can move on smoothly with other stake holders.

No, education reform in Nepal is an ongoing process, supported by international organisations and governments; however, reform processes were severely impacted by the earthquakes of 2015.

It was ad hoc, provided on the fly as short vocationally-focused courses given by NGOs. None of it was tied into the local educational system and there was no guarantee credentials would be accepted.

No because in primary school we teach men and women of 30 years and above. So some are advised to join Accelerated learning program "ALP" for over aged pupils.

**YES**

**NO**

No, formal curricula, where available, is often unsuitable even for adaption. We often create our own pedagogies and educational resources depending on the desired learning outcomes in each context in which we work.

No. Actually there is an enormous gap that should be filled in order to offer a much more aware and conscious education process, especially in regards to history and the history of the Colombian armed conflict itself, because most people end up attending higher education with a media-biased view of the problem which leads to their difficulty to find possible solutions from their professional fields.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was there any emergency situation or crisis that implied the reestablishment of formal education programs? If yes, were national primary and secondary school curricula properly recognised by education authorities? Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively (or N/A in the 2nd if you answered "No" in the 1st) and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

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<th>RESPONSES</th>
<th>42 responses</th>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>No, N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>yes - no</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>The student do not have quality time attending classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Yes, for primary schools</td>
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Yes, because UNHCR always collaborates with Kenya government in whatever they do in the Camp.

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<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>No/n/a</th>
<th>Yes</th>
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Not really. It has come to my knowledge that they created a 'Cátedra de paz' (Peace subject) or most programs, but it is more like a procedure that looks nice on the paper, but does not fulfill serious objectives. As a matter of fact, they did that at the university I work with...
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was that humanitarian intervention in any way connected with the reception of refugees and / or internally displaced persons (IDPs)? Please answer below by selecting the option that applies.

42 responses

- Yes (38.1%)
- No (14.3%)
- It depended. Some parts of the intervention were, but others were not. (45.2%)
- no
If you answered "Yes" or "It depended" to the previous question, what do you think of the formal school curricula for refugees and/or IDPs? Were they based on the content, context and culture of the host country? Did that host country/community required that refugees/IDPs complied with their standards, in particular, curricula, language of instruction etc.? Please answer "Yes" or "No" to each question respectively or type N/A if you answered "No" in the previous question.

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<th>RESPONSE</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>N/A</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
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<td><strong>No</strong></td>
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Involved understanding local cultures, the languages of the different nationalities from which the refugees came—there were refugees from DRC, Rwanda, Mozambique in the same camp.

I gather this information while interviewing local participants for another subject. Didn’t investigate deep for a good comment here.

No - the reality of displacement and unmet basic needs was not embraced by the school setting, and neither was the curriculum.

No, for the cases that I know, refugee children are taught in mother land’s language and country of origin’s official curriculum. Even their teachers are from the same community of refugees living in the same camps.

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<th>RESPONSE</th>
<th>TEXT</th>
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<td><strong>Yes, Yes</strong></td>
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<td><strong>No, No</strong></td>
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</table>

Yes, because we use Kenya system of education.

Required host to comply.

**YES**

There is very often no curricula or routine access to schooling for refugees in the refugee situations in which I have worked.

No. Colombia is a very xenophobic country that likes to show off as welcoming to foreigners, but only if they come as tourists and spend money during their trip! The reality is that Venezuelan people are now experiencing all kinds of difficulties because of the international boycott and the oil prices so they flee as everybody knows, but they would not have gone through the same undignifying situations they are forced to face day by day in Colombia or other places as in their own country they are entitled to and guaranteed with free public education to all levels, so one wonders how come they decide to migrate here in the first place, a country with many and more complicated problems than theirs.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, do you think that the educational programs developed, besides their formal learning components, were somehow enriched by the addition of specific knowledge and skills useful to the context of that emergency / crisis? Depending on the context affecting the intervention of which you were part, useful knowledge and skills could have included Disaster Risk Reduction; Disaster Preparedness; Conflict Prevention and Mitigation; Peacebuilding efforts and Conflict Resolution; skills useful for avoiding land mines; prevention against infectious diseases such as HIV, etc. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

| Yes |
| No |
| YES |
| no |
| Yes surely they need all these which mentioned above |
| No. Everything was based on host nation need |

| No. The training did not cover such components |
| same as the above answer. |
| All of these mentioned - adapted to school age, but also adaptations regarding the "regular content" in a crisis setting, such as use of local examples and the language used |
| No |
| Yes, all the above mentioned subject are usefull but not easy to exploit due to time and funding limitation, institutional policy, lack of expertise within education implementing NGOs in the field, etc... |
| I don't know |
| Yes, DRR concepts were embedded into formal and informal education programs as a result of the earthquakes in Nepal in 2015 |
| Yes—but the peacbuilding course was mostly useless. Geopolitical wars need geopolitical solutions, not community peace building efforts. |
| Yes, Kenya Curriculum includes all content necessary for peace building, ... also trainings are always organized to students for that. |

| Yes. We often use formal education to teach other, more practical and social skills such as first aid, community resilience etc |
| Yes |
| Yes. All of them! |
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, have special formal education curricula been developed for more vulnerable groups? Please answer by selecting all the options that apply. In case none of the following options have been verified, please select the N/A option.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were Core Competencies identified before the development and/or adaptation of learning contents and teacher training materials? For example, Core Competencies for basic education levels include: functional literacy and numeracy; essential knowledge, skills, attitudes and practices required for learners to have a life with dignity and participate actively as full members of their communities. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

**42 responses**

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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure if these were identified at all</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I gather this information while interviewing local participants for another subject. Didn’t investigate deep for a good comment here.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes, some of the above mentioned competencies and materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, but those competencies were not what was considered useful in the country the intervention was being done in.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes, there are centers to teach people how to write and to read</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yee</td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No that I know of. Actually, all these items sometimes lack in the regular education programs.</td>
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</table>
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were there any learning contents dedicated to Life Skills and key concepts? These contents and concepts should be context-specific and appropriate to the age, learners’ level of development, experience, the surrounding environment, etc. Please answer by selecting all the options that apply. In case none of the following options have been verified, please select the N/A option.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, how would you classify the psychosocial support given to the different members of the affected community (students, teachers, other education personnel, etc.)? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, did educational personnel (including teachers) receive training to recognise signs of distress in learners? Were they able to take steps to address distress (if it existed)? Example: using Referral Mechanisms to provide additional support. Please answer to each question with "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not observe this or hear of it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I interviewed local participants for another subject. Didn't investigate deep for a good comment here.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, the system of referral was not effective.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, and Yes. But did it matter? Everyone was distressed. It was a distressing situation. And the additional support on offer from NGOs was basically short-term group therapy, which was not appropriate in that context.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes but few teachers (2) are trained for that by JRS or LWF/special need education “SNE” sector.</td>
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<tr>
<td>YES</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes, but the support is very limited and institutions must always adhere to certain number of referrals. There isn't enough professionals to assist schools in crisis. (Drug abuse, Academic Support - scribes, etc. and Gang-related violence)</td>
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<td>No.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, was it a multilingual country and/or community? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate.

42 responses

- Yes, it was a multilingual community.
- No, it was not multilingual. Everyone spoke the same language.
- Both, depending on the various contexts where I worked, there could be both.
- There are different dialects.
- Multilingual considering the indigenous languages that are not official.
If you answered "Yes" or "Both" in the previous question, have consensual decisions been taken between all relevant stakeholders on the issue of language(s) of instruction (teaching)? Note: Relevant stakeholders might have been education authorities, local community, learners, etc. Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate. If you answered "No" in the previous question, please type N/A.

42 responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were refugees from multiple countries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, the education language is the official one, as set by the State authorities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was because learners were from different ethnic groups, different age cohorts, circumstances and even the teaching staff were of different experiences and educational background. It was very helpful and meaningful to run educational programs putting all these into consideration hence consensual decisions were key to both success and delivery of educational programs.

The languages used for education in the camp are determined by Kenya law and are compulsory English and Kiswahili.

YES

Yes yes

Learners from other African Countries must adopt the language of instruction of the school they applied to and can apply for exception for Afrikaans which in most cases are the additional language studied at schools. This leads to many issues as these learners speak French and other languages. Especially at High school it is very difficult to help these learners as Afrikaans isn’t taught as new language but frome premise that the learner knows the basics taught in previous grade. A big problems for these learners and teachers teaching Afrikaans.

No.
If you answered "Yes" or "Both" in the penultimate question, were the languages of instruction available in the languages of students? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate. If you answered "No" to the penultimate question, please select the "N/A" option.

42 responses

- Yes, language(s) of instruction were available in the language(s) of students in almost all cases.
- Yes, they were available in the language(s) of students in most cases, but not available to a significant portion.
- No, there were constantly many problems because of the language(s).
- N/A

Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were disabled students (deaf, blind, etc.) taught in the most appropriate language(s) and with the most appropriate teaching methods in order to ensure full inclusion? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>no</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No, there were no disability appropriate materials</td>
<td>It's distressing to know the government does not have enough resources for the reconstruction of schools, not to mention to take care of the disabled.</td>
<td>No - no adaptations at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, there were not specialized institutions, nor any expertise to handle these categories in the field.</td>
<td>Yes. The education system in the country developed special educational methods for those individuals with special needs</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No, they were sent out of the school system and forced to stay home.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes because LWF has established special schools for each category in the camp. But some I know are at home due to long distance from the special school.</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>No, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No, no</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were people from different backgrounds and vulnerable groups included in the development and implementation of educational activities? Note: By different backgrounds and vulnerable groups it may be understood "Diversity". Please answer below by selecting all the options that apply. Select only those groups that you believe that were included in the educational activities!

42 responses

- People from different genders: 32 (76.2%)
- People with mental disabilities: 7 (16.7%)
- People with physical disabilities: 18 (42.9%)
- Learners from diverse income groups: 22 (52.4%)
- People of different cultures and nation: 27 (64.3%)
- People from different religions: 25 (59.5%)
- No: 1 (2.4%)
- On the lookout different castes are incl.: 1 (2.4%)
- on the outlook different castes are incl.: 1 (2.4%)
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, how would you classify the levels of bias in the curricula, instructional materials and teaching methodologies of the educational programme? Please answer below by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate. In some options, in case you are not sure or it doesn’t apply please select the N/A option.
Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were locally available learning materials (curricula, textbooks, supplementary materials, etc.) for learners assessed at the beginning of the emergency / crisis? Please answer by selecting the option that you consider most appropriate.

42 responses

![Pie chart showing responses]

Given your last (and most recent) professional experience in the field of emergency education in the area / intervention where you worked, were learning materials (curricula, textbooks, supplementary materials, etc.) adapted, developed (if necessary) and made available in sufficient quantities for all learners in a timely manner? Please answer "Yes" or "No" and elaborate if you consider appropriate.

42 responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/a</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. The learners had to share materials often 3 to 5 learners on the same text book</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As above, it is hard to keep up to meet for sufficient quantities at the immediate aftermath, but things gradually turned better.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No - sometimes children would have a gap of over 6months of no schooling</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes, although they were too expensive for many IDPs to buy.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No because the school enrolment is always higher in the camp. You will find a school of 5000 pupils with 300 textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>