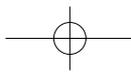


Alternative Basic Education in African Countries Emerging from Conflict; Issues of Policy, Co-ordination and Access

by Carolynne Dennis and Alicia Fentiman

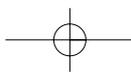




**Alternative Basic Education
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and Access**

*Carolynne Dennis, Africa Educational Trust
Alicia Fentiman, International Research Foundation
for Open Learning*

2007



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Acknowledgements

This research would not have been possible without the support of the Africa Educational Trust (AET) and the International Foundation for Research into Open Learning (IRFOL). In the difficult conditions of countries emerging from conflict, the researchers were dependent on the hard work and commitment of those who made the research possible. They include Terry Allsop, the Director of IRFOL at the time the research was conducted and Dr Michael Brophy, the Director of AET. The AET office in Somaliland, the managers of the ROLE centres in Southern Sudan and the AET office in Nairobi all helped to make the complicated arrangements necessary to enable the researchers to carry out our work. We also wish to thank all the children and young people, community members, and staff of state institutions, NGOs, and international agencies who showed such interest in the research and such patience with our questions and who made carrying out this research so rewarding.

Finally we wish to acknowledge the contribution of the researchers in the case study countries to this research. Their commitment to the subject and care for their interviewees, under difficult circumstances, was inspiring.

We wish to thank DFID for funding this research, and Dr Carew Treffgarne and David Levesque, Senior Education Advisors at DFID and Chris Berry, Education Advisor at DFID for their help, and Hazel Bines, our editor, for her support.

Although this research was funded by DFID, the views expressed are entirely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent DFID's own policies or views. Any discussion of the content should therefore be addressed to the authors and not to DFID.

Dedication

We dedicate this report to the children and young people in Africa affected by conflict and wish to recognise their determination to achieve an education and contribute to the development of their societies under difficult circumstances.

Alternative Basic Education in African Countries Emerging from Conflict;
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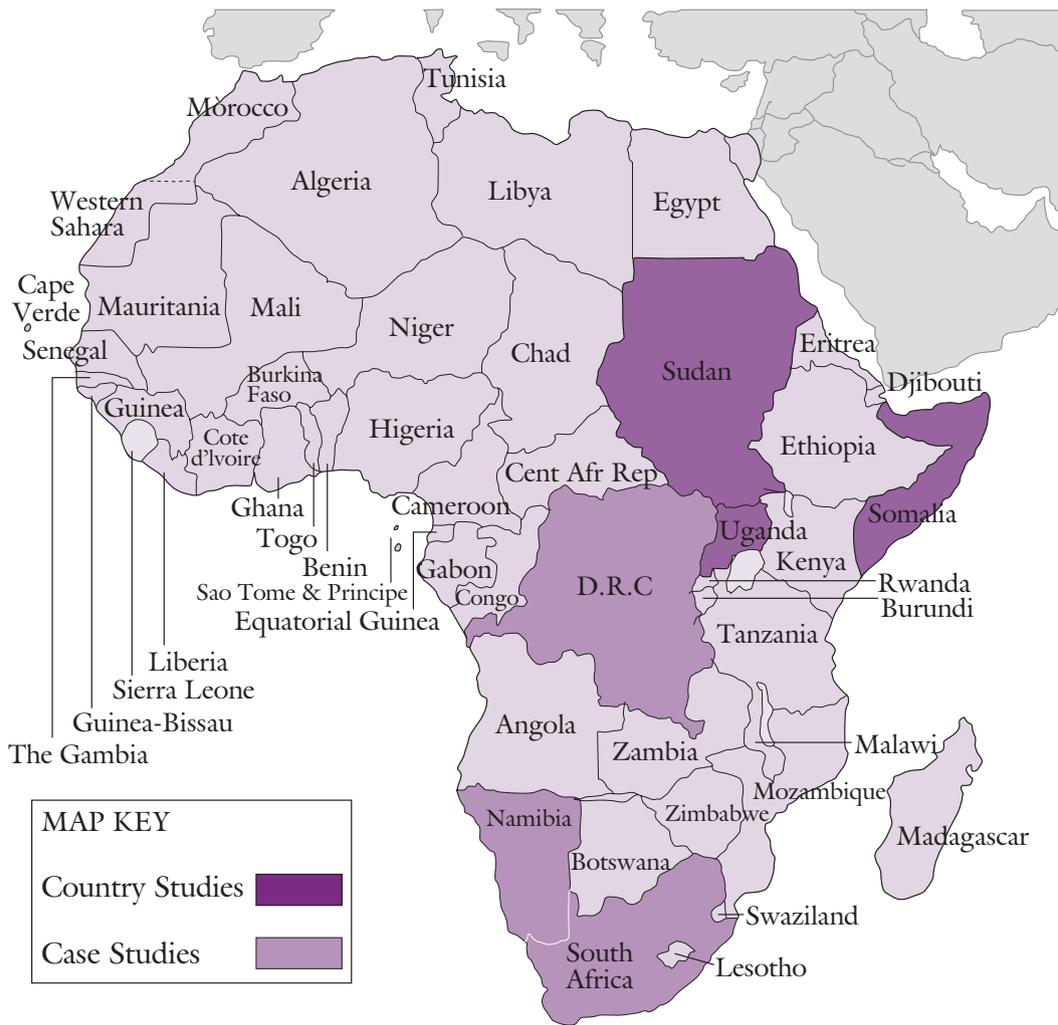
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Acronyms

ABE	<i>Alternative Basic Education</i>
AET	<i>Africa Educational Trust</i>
ALP	<i>Accelerated Learning Programme</i>
ANC	<i>Africa National Congress</i>
CBO	<i>Community Based Organisation</i>
CPA	<i>Comprehensive Peace Agreement</i>
DDR	<i>Demobilisation, Disarmament Reintegration</i>
DFID	<i>Department for International Development</i>
DRC	<i>Democratic Republic of Congo</i>
ECHO	<i>European Community Humanitarian Office</i>
EFA	<i>Education for All</i>
FBO	<i>Faith Based Organisation</i>
HAVOYOCO	<i>Horn of Africa Voluntary Youth Committee</i>
IDP	<i>Internally Displaced People</i>
(I)NGO	<i>(International) Non Governmental Organisation</i>
LABE	<i>Literacy and Adult Basic Education</i>
LRA	<i>Lord's Resistance Army</i>
MDGs	<i>Millenium Development Goals</i>
NFE	<i>Non Formal Education</i>
QUIPs	<i>Quick Impact Projects</i>
SEIGYM	<i>Somali Educational Incentives for Girls and Young Men</i>
SOMDEL	<i>Somali Distance Education and Literacy Programme</i>
SPLA	<i>Sudan People's Liberation Army</i>
UNDP	<i>United Nations Development Programme</i>
UNESCO	<i>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</i>
UNHCR	<i>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</i>
UNICEF	<i>United Nations Children's Fund</i>
UPE	<i>Universal Primary Education</i>
UPDF	<i>Uganda People's Defence Force</i>
WOVE	<i>Women Village Education (Somalia)</i>

Alternative Basic Education in African Countries Emerging from Conflict;
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Map Showing Country and Case Studies



Executive Summary

1. Introduction

The background literature relevant to this study provides a framework in terms of: the characteristics of states in conflict and post-conflict; the issues around the delivery of services under these conditions; the need to develop appropriate indicators of 'quality' for these services; and the lessons to be learned from previous experience of a wide range of providers. This study contributes to this debate by addressing the issue of 'context', which is raised but not developed in much of the existing literature. This is understandable as it has been produced largely by practitioners working for international agencies, under considerable pressure. In each African country emerging from conflict, those attempting to reconstruct the system of basic education confront a situation produced by a particular historical experience of conflict and of basic education. This research study has developed a means of incorporating the varying perspectives of young people, parents, communities, governments, international agencies and INGOs on the crucial aspects for reconstruction of education in particular contexts. It goes on to discuss what general lessons can be learned from these experiences in relation to funding, management and access, particularly in relation to Alternative Basic Education (ABE).

Three detailed country studies were carried out in northern Uganda, southern Sudan and Somaliland, supported by case experiences of the process of educational reconstruction in the Eastern Cape, South Africa and Namibia and of the demobilisation of child soldiers in selected African countries.

2. Lessons learned

The major lessons learned from this research are :

Context

In African countries emerging from conflict, it is necessary to understand the particular context in which educational reconstruction is taking place. There are a number of issues which are common to post-conflict situations although they may present themselves in different forms. These issues provide a means of 'translating' the consensus as to the importance of context into analysis and practice which supports and supplements the existing literature. They are:

- the accepted narrative of the conflict;
- the educational system prior to the conflict;
- the perception of the role of young people in the conflict and reconstruction;
- the way in which vulnerability is constructed;
- the choice of languages of instruction and accreditation systems.

Policy and co-ordination

Structures of co-ordination are needed which are cost and time effective and which do not become an end in themselves. They need to increase the capacity of the state without imposing unrealistic burdens on governments which are under pressure to deliver improved services.

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This requires a consistent combination of stable long term planning for a unified educational system managed by the state with co-ordinated international assistance and provision for an immediate 'transitional phase' which provides improvements in service delivery in the near future. These structures need to make it possible to develop a 'space' in which innovative ABE initiatives can be supported by communities, states, NGOs, INGOs and international agencies.

The following issues emerged as being essential to policy and co-ordination in post-conflict situations:

- It is important for emerging governments to establish a vision for their education system, including ABE, which is developed through consultation with people from their communities, including civil society representatives, education experts, women's groups, parents, teachers and children.
- Governments and communities should take a strong leading role in directing international NGOs and donors as to how they want their education system to be established. Equally, international NGOs, UN agencies and donors should be responsible to and answerable to governments and communities when supporting post-conflict education systems.
- Stronger co-ordination and consortia is needed between a range of agencies which bring complementary technical expertise and experience should be formed with genuine commitment.
- The role of communities in maintaining education for their children during conflicts should be given due recognition by governments and the international community in the post-conflict context.
- Examples of good practice and quality programming should be shared between agencies and government ministries to ensure that continued duplication of efforts is prevented. This is especially important for sharing knowledge of 'good practice' in ABE and adapting it to particular post-conflict situations.
- Systems for monitoring progress of programmes – not only in terms of quantity but also for quality of education – need to be established.
- There is a need to identify appropriate ways of proceeding in 'interim periods'; when the incoming government has limited control of international agencies and INGOs but there is no established structure within which to work. Waiting for a fully functioning architecture of co-ordination paralyses the beginning of reconstructing the education system and increases the likelihood of marginalising ABE in the reconstruction of basic education.

Alternative Basic Education (ABE)

Governments in countries emerging from conflict are primarily oriented towards the educational needs of school age children. They are subject to pressure from communities for whom this is also a priority and international agencies which see it as crucial for the achievement of EFA targets. This tends to marginalise ABE in spite of the consensus that literacy and vocational training for young people who have missed the opportunity to attend school is a crucial element of maintaining peace. There have been creative ABE initiatives in African countries emerging from conflict, usually undertaken by NGOs and on a small scale. The challenge is to identify initiatives which have worked, share the experience and look for ways of adapting and scaling them up in keeping with the conditions of individual countries. It is suggested here that promising initiatives such as using radio in combination with other forms of instruction, vouchers for vocational training and accelerated learning programmes be considered.

2. The themes of the research

a) Contextual issues

The research suggests that because each situation of countries emerging from conflict is constructed differently, it is necessary to understand these situations within their context. In order to make comparison and generalisation possible, we have identified the key contextual issues which emerge from these country studies and analysed their significance for the reconstruction of the system of basic education.

The historical context

This is concerned with the range of explanations of the causes and processes of the conflict and how it came to an end. There may be differing explanations held by the incoming administration, communities in different regions and the international agencies. It influences the perceptions of the process of reconstruction and the role of young people in it and the value attached to various forms of vulnerability.

The educational system before the conflict

In some societies there was a developed educational system, perhaps marked by inequality, which people wish to reconstruct with improvements. In other societies, there may have been very little formal education prior to the conflict and that resisted as the imposition of language, religion and culture, and it then becomes a significant issue as to which 'model' of education is chosen and what influences this choice. There is rarely an accepted existing model of ABE to which people can refer.

Perceptions of the place of young people in the conflict and post-conflict situation

Young people have been active participants in many conflicts, during which they have been able to exercise power, achieve social recognition and undertake responsibility in a way not open to them in 'normal' societies. They are often feared for what they are believed to have done. However, they are also crucial for the sustainability of peace. Thus the background to the development of initiatives to support young people who have been affected by conflict is an important consideration in the development of educational programmes. There is also a gender issue in that where young women have been combatants they are perceived even more strongly as 'transgressing normal behaviour', as illustrated in the case of northern Uganda. These perceptions influence the urgency of providing ABE depending on whether its place in helping to prevent the outbreak of conflict or the distrust of young participants in the conflict predominates.

Constructions of vulnerability

After long periods of conflict there are various categories of vulnerable people: the disabled; the traumatised; orphans; and returnees. There is often a hierarchy of vulnerability with some categories being given a greater priority than others, for example, those who are disabled as a

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result of fighting. This needs to be recognised by those agencies developing initiatives aimed at reducing vulnerability in terms of access to education. Where all young people are perceived to be disadvantaged because they have lacked access to formal education over a long period, there can be resistance to international agency prioritisation of the 'disadvantaged' as opposed to those children and young people who are perceived as being able to take advantage of educational opportunities for the benefit of their communities. Where particular vulnerable groups are perceived as especially 'deserving', this helps to give greater priority to ABE which addresses their needs.

b) Issues of policy and co-ordination

There are a number of important 'players' in the development of the funding and management of basic education in countries emerging from conflict including the state, communities, international agencies and various kinds of INGOs.¹

The state is an important player in the reconstruction of education as it may be the first large responsibility by which it demonstrates its capacity to deliver a 'peace dividend'. It is also a crucial component for the successful co-ordination of international agencies. The capacity of the state to control the process of reconstruction of education differs greatly between post-conflict situations.

In some post-conflict situations, communities play a very important role in the reconstruction of education. This is not universal and should not be taken for granted. In countries with a background of long-term conflict, such as southern Sudan, in which communities have provided all the education which was available, they may be insistent on a 'peace dividend' in terms of improved buildings and materials. Diaspora communities may be an important source of support for education in their 'home communities' as in the case of Somaliland.

International agencies play an important role in the reconstruction of education in countries emerging from conflict. The UN agencies often have had a long term involvement in the country. Where 'new' bi-lateral agencies enter the educational system in the post-conflict situation, co-ordination between the agencies becomes important. Southern Sudan may be the crucial example of a case in which co-ordination is most important and most difficult to achieve at the same time as providing some immediate improvements to the educational system.

The determination of international agencies to remake the basic education system as part of reconstruction to conform to prevailing international development discourse ideas of how education needs to be 'child centred', involve active learning and 'learner centred pedagogy', imposes an additional burden on inexperienced incoming administrations and is unlikely to make them receptive to embracing innovative ABE initiatives which will create an even greater burden for them.

The NGO sector is an important provider of education in conflict and post-conflict situations¹ INGOs have often been the only significant providers of education in long term conflict situations as a result of the long standing policy of multi-lateral and bi-lateral donors not to

¹ Definitions of the different types of NGO are provided in Appendix 1: Methodology.

support education in 'humanitarian emergencies' and the practical difficulties of working in countries affected by conflict. For this research, the majority of INGOs were engaged in 'humanitarian' work in the countries concerned which was defined as including support to education. Within the humanitarian category, the majority of INGOs were:

- 'general' INGOs, potentially working with all disadvantaged groups across a range of sectors;
- INGOs with a focus on children and young people;
- INGOs focused on education;
- faith-based organisations (FBOs), a particular sub-category of general NGOs, which are often the most important educational providers as they tend to stay in conflict situations in which other NGOs are unwilling to work.

Conflict is not conducive to the development of local/indigenous NGOs but CBOs, and through them communities, are often the main providers of education in conditions of conflict, with and without the assistance of INGOs. There is little evidence of a concern with ABE in conflict situations, except in long term emergencies perceived as moving towards peace. This is then combined with attempts by communities to re-establish the formal school system they associate with peace and normality.

INGOs thus often have an important influence on the reconstruction of education after conflict because of their existing experience and contacts. There are positive lessons to be learned from this experience in terms of collaboration with communities and CBOs under difficult conditions. There are also challenges created for the future in terms of the way in which INGOs tend to support a limited number of schools in a small area which makes the development of a unified education system more problematic. This is true of the situation in Somaliland and to an even greater extent in southern Sudan.

INGOs have a critical contribution to make in the post-conflict era in terms of their experience with innovative ABE initiatives adapted to particular conditions. The innovative and accessible use of radio, voucher schemes, and accelerated learning systems are identified as initiatives which have demonstrated their potential in the case study situations and could be utilised in other African countries emerging from conflict if they are adapted to the local context.

The possibility of moving from a situation of little or no state educational activity with multiple educational delivery systems to an educational system largely managed by the Ministry of Education with co-ordinated external assistance is a difficult and long term one. In post-conflict situations there are understandable community expectations of an immediate or quick improvement in the situation, especially in relation to education as 'proof' that their children's lives will be an improvement on the past. This combination of immediate initiatives to improve the dire educational situation through Quick Impact Projects (QUIPs), and a transition to a long term consistent and co-ordinated plan for the development of a unified educational system managed by the Government, has proved very difficult to achieve in practice. This development of a consistent 'transition' is crucial for the attention given by incoming governments and international agencies to the development of viable ABE initiatives.

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The research suggests that the priority for the incoming administration and the various international agencies tends to be the reconstruction of the formal primary school system because of the build up of expectations and the fact that there are models of how to do this. This means that ABE, which is recognised as being crucial in post-conflict situation for the young people concerned and to sustain the peace, tends to be 'crowded out' by this focus on the formal educational sector. It is also problematic because there are few successful examples of ABE which have been adapted to different contexts, upon which to base a substantive intervention.

Here are some of the conclusions of the international agency and international NGO staff themselves who were interviewed about their experience of working in a post-conflict situation:

- agencies which are moving into post-conflict countries to establish basic education programmes should undertake full consultation with a range of actors who have experience and expertise in working in that country;
- agencies can devolve responsibilities to local partners and local education authorities to manage programmes and budgets, when the local capacity and commitment has been established;
- when community members are mobilised and organised, and develop project ideas themselves, their commitment to making the project a success and sustainable will be higher;
- agencies must be flexible in their approach to target groups when working in post conflict situations, such as working with community structures when a government system has not yet been established, or expanding the age range of beneficiaries when it is clear that need exists;
- involving communities during the planning stage and listening to and implementing their ideas can prevent local clashes and can improve the scope of the programme.

c) Issues of access

The research documents the various approaches employed in the three country studies to basic education for a wide range of beneficiaries which include:

- youth;
- adults;
- ex child soldiers;
- ex combatants;
- abducted girls;
- disabled;
- orphans.

It confirms that for the age group in which we are most concerned – youth and adults – that ABE is not a priority of governments and international agencies, although they emphasise its importance. The focus tends to be on children of school age and formal education, thus denying access to education and training for a diverse and vulnerable population. In most cases, it is the international and local NGOs who provide the only educational opportunities for the 'lost generations' and women who have missed the chance of obtaining an education because of conflict. They are also responsible for providing the only educational opportunities to some of the most disadvantaged – such as the disabled.

The provision of ABE is largely undertaken by INGOs and is often small scale and discrete. A great deal more research is required to identify potentially useful trends in this provision and to assess their effectiveness. This research indicates that among the priorities for further analysis are:

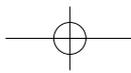
- *Accelerated learning schemes*: These are the most ‘popular’ form of ABE with governments and international agencies. The fact that they tend to ‘mimic’ formal basic education raises interesting questions about their appropriateness in different contexts and their implications for access and equity for disadvantaged young people.
- *Radio*: There are a number of examples of the creative use of radio for ABE for young people, with significant potential benefits of empowerment and participation in public life.
- *Vouchers*: These have been used for vocational training, again in order to allow young people to participate in the planning of their own training, and have potentially positive implications for wider use.

4. Concluding remarks

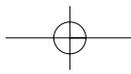
This research has demonstrated that issues of ‘context’ and the interrelationships between the providers of education in African countries emerging from conflict are important in determining the way in which educational reconstruction proceeds and the place occupied within this process by ABE. The range of explanations of the causes of the conflict, the view taken of what recognisable reconstruction of the basic education system would consist, the perception of the part played by young people in the conflict and their appropriate role in its aftermath, and the hierarchy of value of different forms of vulnerability, are all significant dimensions of ‘context’. They are all largely dependent on the type of conflict and its length, and the way in which it is conceptualised by important players in the post-conflict society, and have significant implications for ABE provision.

The relationship between different educational providers is a particular one in which an under-resourced, inexperienced state, under pressure to create an educational ‘peace dividend’ for a population which has suffered long term insecurity and deprivation, has to deal with large international agencies with their own agenda for education and a range of INGOs with varying degrees of experience of the country and the basic education sector. Both the state and the international agencies tend to have a focus on formal basic education, with ABE initiatives being left to the relatively small scale INGOs with subsequent difficulties in integrating ABE into the reconstruction of education and replicating and expanding the experience.

Giving greater priority to ABE, and identifying good practice which might be replicated and adapted to other post-conflict situations, requires an understanding of local discourses of conflict and post-conflict priorities and the pressures which these create for communities and the state. This might then be used to develop mechanisms to respond to these pressures while incorporating ABE to a greater extent into the priorities for the post-conflict reconstruction of education.



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Issues of Policy, Co-ordination and Access



Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research on 'Issues of Access to Basic Education in African Countries Emerging from Conflict', undertaken in 2004-2005. It outlines the scope of the research, a brief description of the country studies on which the report is based, the methods used by the researchers and a preliminary outline of the 'themes' which have emerged from the research.

1.2 The scope of the research

The objective of the research was 'to identify and analyse the various approaches used to provide basic education, particularly Alternative Basic Education (ABE) in countries emerging from conflict in sub-Saharan Africa and to assess their significance for service delivery in other conflict-affected states'.

The research focused on basic education, namely primary school education for school age children and alternative basic education (ABE) for young people above primary school leaving age, delivered outside the context of the formal basic education system. Within the framework of basic education, the research focused on ABE because of its significance for young people in countries affected by conflict who have missed the opportunity to obtain formal schooling, its relative neglect in spite of the general recognition of its importance in post-conflict situations and the opportunity to present the experience of ABE in specific contexts which have a wider relevance. It appeared likely that the analysis of these experiences would have implications for the future policy and practice of governments, INGOs and international agencies in relation to ABE in African countries emerging from conflict.

The term 'emerging from conflict' is used to define "those countries in which there is a reasonable expectation of peace, or an actual peace agreement".....a continuum from "ongoing conflict, peace settlement, reconstruction and post-reconstruction" (Vaux and Visman, 2005: 8, 13). The country studies cover a continuum from the long period of reconstruction in Somaliland, to the aftermath of a recently signed peace treaty in Southern Sudan to on-going conflict which will hopefully end soon in northern Uganda, supplemented by an overview of demobilisation programmes for child soldiers and case study experience from Namibia and South Africa.

The focus of the research is on the education of children and young people who have remained in their own country; either as Internally Displaced People (IDPs) or within their own communities, experiencing the results of conflict and the disintegration or disruption of the education system. The study does not include the important but different experience of refugees who seek refuge outside their own country. The rationale for this focus is that the internally affected and displaced have particular problems with obtaining access to services such as health and education and, because there is no international organisation to advocate for their rights, there is less attention to these issues in the literature and in practice. The particular problems of internally displaced and 'in situ disrupted' populations have been highlighted in the literature (DFID, 2001) and it is hoped that the empirical material in this report will carry the debate forward. It is thought that of the estimated 25 million IDPs in the world, 13 million are in Africa (Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2004: 9) There has been even

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less focus on those households and communities affected by conflict and without access to services who remain where they live.

We committed ourselves to address the following issues at the beginning of the research, which were then revised in the light of the experience of actually doing the research and the emerging research findings:

- What is the perception of the place of basic education, especially Alternative Basic Education, in the reconstruction of society in different 'post-conflict' societies held by young people and other significant stakeholders, including parents, communities, government, INGOs, NGOs and international agencies?
- Who are the potential beneficiaries targeted by particular priorities and programmes, with a particular emphasis on the 'lost generations' of young people who have not been to school and disadvantaged groups such as the disabled, former combatants and young women?
- Who are the educational providers (communities, government, non-governmental organisations and international agencies) and how do they establish priorities and implement, manage and co-ordinate their interventions?
- What is the range of methods of delivery used for basic education, particularly ABE, and what is the experience of different strategies in a variety of contexts?
- What 'works' and what 'does not work' under different conditions?
- How can relevant criteria be developed and used for assessing the 'impact' of educational initiatives in conditions of conflict and post-conflict and identifying 'good practice'?
- Do 'lessons' emerge which can be applied to other countries emerging from conflict?

1.3 The country studies

This research is based on the empirical investigation of three country studies: northern Uganda, Somaliland and Southern Sudan. The countries were chosen as they demonstrated the range of security situations in countries emerging from conflict – from a hopeful winding down of on-going conflict, to the 'interim period' in the aftermath of a formal peace process, to long term reconstruction – which have implications for the provision of basic education and ABE. The role of communities, the state, INGOS, NGOs and international agencies, the important actors in the provision of basic education, has differed in these countries. They are also countries in which one of the research partners, the Africa Educational Trust, has worked over a period of time ensuring that we had the contact with appropriate researchers and the 'trust' of potential interviewees which is necessary in conflict and post-conflict situations.

Northern Uganda

Uganda has an established educational system with increasing school enrolment. UPE was introduced in 2001 with subsequent rapid increases in primary school enrolment and the associated problems of large class sizes, pressure on infrastructure and teachers and shortages of books and materials. The 2000-2004 figures show a gross primary school enrolment rates of 142% for boys and 139% for girls which reflect large numbers of 'repeaters' (UNESCO, 2006). Secondary education is not free but there is a debate as to the response to increasing numbers of

primary school leavers and plans for an expansion of fee free secondary education. Vocational training is not well developed and is largely the responsibility of civil society, often supported by education departments at district level.

This description of a functioning and expanding formal basic education system does not reflect the situation in northern Uganda in which there has been serious conflict for twenty years, with no declared state of emergency. Children, teachers and schools are important LRA targets and more than 20,000 children have been abducted (www.irinnews.org, 2005). 90% of the population of three northern districts are in IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camps with sporadic access to emergency level service provision, depending on the security situation. This has resulted in the disruption of the basic education of all children in the north, especially of those children and young people who have been abducted by the LRA. Currently, it is estimated that 143,702 children of school-age (23% of the school age children) have been displaced (UNICEF, 2005). The 'former abducted' include young women who now have children of their own. The decentralisation of primary education in Uganda has presented the education officers in the northern districts with the challenge of 'managing' the situation to produce the least damage to education. The lack of formal education for this over-age population has created a recognition of the need for ABE, and a demand for ABE and vocational training for young people who have missed the chance to attend school. There has, however, been a limited response to the ABE, education and vocational training needs of young people affected by the long term conflict which has distorted the economy and society of northern Uganda. At present ABE provision is by INGOs and community organisations and is necessarily small scale and sporadic because of the limitations of their resources and the difficulties of working in northern Uganda, especially in the IDP camps.

Somaliland

This part of northern Somalia fought for independence in a long civil war between 1984-1991. The conflict is perceived as a war of liberation and those who fought in it are regarded as deserving support. As one of the poorest and least developed parts of Somalia, there were few educational institutions in Somaliland before the civil war. Educational indicators for Somalia are still among the worst in the world. Before independence there were Koranic schools and some primary schools using English and Arabic and a few secondary schools. Somali became a medium of instruction after it was first written in 1972.

After the civil war, teachers began classes on their own initiative. In 1996, the Ministry of Education took over public primary schools which had been constructed largely by international agencies, and began to pay teachers' salaries. From 1995-2004, the number of primary schools increased from 159 to 354, largely concentrated in urban centres and with large disparities in male and female enrolment (UNDP, 2004). The Ministry of Education has now drafted a National Plan for Education and runs the public school system in which the language of instruction is Somali. There is a large private sector of formal basic education, especially in Hargeisa and other towns with students being charged around \$30 per month (which is the salary of a teacher in government schools). Private schools are regarded as being generally of a higher standard than the public sector and they teach in English and Arabic. Enrolment in private schools depends largely on access to the remittances sent home by the Somali diaspora.

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Access to all formal education is limited by income and location. Vulnerable groups such as girls, minority ethnic groups (such as the Sabayo Clan), returned refugees, IDPs and disabled children have the most restricted access to education. Many children depend on Koranic schools in which the community pays the teacher. The long war has created a generation who have missed the chance for a formal education so there is a great demand for ABE. There have been ABE initiatives in Somaliland associated with the use of radio and vouchers which provide promising 'models' for use elsewhere. There is a distinction between ABE for particular groups of young men, for example, in the police force, and those for disadvantaged groups such as the disabled. In addition, there are ABE programmes provided by a range of local and international NGOs which are perceived as being primarily for young women and are used largely by them.

Southern Sudan

The educational system in southern Sudan was inadequate and contested before the most recent twenty year civil war because of its use of Arabic as the language of instruction and its perceived project of Islamicisation. It is estimated that only 20% of school age children are in school, that 93% of girls are not in school, and that only 2,000 boys and 500 girls complete primary education every year, which is the lowest rate in the world (UNICEF, 2004). Facilities are bad with 43% of classes being held outside. There are high drop out rates over the eight year cycle and most teachers are poorly educated and untrained (Africa Educational Trust, 1998).

The Secretariat of Education has begun the enormous task of setting up a unified educational system in a country without previous experience of such a system. They also have to take part in the coordination of the large numbers of international agencies which are participating in the reconstruction of education in southern Sudan. The issue of co-ordinating the activities of the international agencies in a way which develops the capacity of the incoming administration and meets some of the expectations of improvement in the short term is a problematic one in the southern Sudanese situation. It is not yet clear how far lessons learned from previous experiences of educational reconstruction, for example in Sierra Leone, are going to be helpful. Because of the large numbers of young people who have missed the opportunity to attend school, there is a commitment to setting up a system of ABE. At present, this is focused on the development of an Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP) for young people who will then be able to enter the formal education system.

Other countries

The research is also informed by supplementary case study experience of the reconstruction of education in the Eastern Cape, South Africa and Namibia and a desk study of programmes to re-integrate former child combatants in Sierra Leone and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).

1.4 The methodology of the research

The choice of country studies was made on the grounds of the relevance of the experience to the subject of the research but also on the basis of the location of potential researchers and the

contacts the researchers have, as this is challenging research to undertake and requires a significant degree of 'trust' on the part of the research subjects. The results of the country studies show how important these experiences are to developing an understanding of the impact of conflict on basic education, the experience of children, young people and communities, the management of education at local and central levels and the place of international agencies in the provision of education.

The challenge was greatest in relation to the primary research carried out in the country studies. This subject for research is a difficult and sensitive one in terms of the continuing insecurity in many of the study areas which poses a potential danger for researchers. Also, in these regions, many of the potential interviewees – children, young people, parents, community leaders, teachers and administrators – have experienced traumatic and distressing events. It is a matter of judgement for researchers whether interviewees wish to talk about these events or not and how to make the experience fruitful for them as well as useful for the research.

The researchers for the study live in the areas of the research and have experience of working on issues of education and training in their communities. This knowledge of, and sensitivity to, difficult local conditions was of great importance in the study. However, an obvious characteristic of conflict and post-conflict situations is the 'isolation', both physical and intellectual, of many people, including the researchers. The range of research experience and conditions on the ground in the country studies meant that it was necessary to develop a common agreed design for the research. Two workshops, in which all the researchers took part, were held at the beginning and end of the research in Nairobi, which developed common approaches and shared research experience and results. One additional benefit of the workshops was the enthusiasm of the researchers themselves in working with other researchers dealing with equally difficult situations, learning from each other, sharing their research results and analysing the implications of the research for future practice.

The empirical data for the research study were collected in a variety of ways over during 2004/5.

a) Literature survey

A survey of the relevant literature, including the 'grey' literature based on the research questions was undertaken by the lead researchers.

b) Meetings with INGOs in the UK working on education and conflict in Africa

Selected INGOs based in the UK were visited to discuss the aims and objectives of the DFID funded research project and to find out about current approaches and implementation activities on educational provision in southern Sudan, Somaliland and northern Uganda.

c) The country studies

In each of the country studies, detailed information was collected to capture the perspectives and approaches to education from a wide range of stakeholders. These included children of school age, youth (including formerly abducted mothers and ex-combatants), parents/guardians, communities, teachers, local and national educational administrators, faith based organisations

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(FBOs), local NGOs, international NGOs, CBOs and other donors and government officials at different levels. A significant aim of this approach was to collect and record as much as possible from the grassroots level to the government. This holistic and participatory approach goes beyond mere description and feeds into a much broader conceptual framework and understanding of key players (internally and externally) and the wide range of beneficiaries.

The following tools were used to collect data throughout the three country studies:

- semi-structured interviews;
- focus group discussions;
- life histories (especially amongst ex-combatants, abducted girls, and child soldiers);
- participant observation;
- documentation of relevant reports and publications.

Although there was a consistent and coherent structure to the research investigations in each of the three countries, the emphasis varied according to the location of the local researcher, the current security situation and the willingness of stakeholders to share their experiences and perspectives.

It will be seen from the range of research methods used, that this work was primarily qualitative in character. There was no attempt to collect quantitative data on basic education in the country concerned, except to record what statistics are being used as the basis for intervention by governments and international agencies. These data are very difficult to collect in countries emerging from conflict and notoriously inaccurate. It is not possible for a modest study such as this to substitute for this 'data gap'. The results do illustrate that under difficult circumstances, with committed and informed researchers with local knowledge, it is possible to contribute to our understanding of the hopes that young people, their families, communities, states and international agencies have for the future of basic education in their countries.

The greatest difficulty in field research was probably in northern Uganda. In both Somaliland, where people are proud of what they have achieved with little external help, and in Southern Sudan, in the euphoric post-peace treaty situation at that time, asking questions about education was a largely positive experience. In northern Uganda where the conflict continues and the majority of interviewees still experience great insecurity in their day to day lives and disrupted education, it was more difficult, particularly as there had been a significant number of studies of the attitudes of young people but without a perceptible change in their situation. The following excerpt from one of the research diaries illustrates some of the difficulties experienced in the field, such as 'interview fatigue' amongst some of the most vulnerable groups:

I visited two camps, Bobi and Palwnga. These camps are about 30 kilometres out of Gulu town. It was not easy to collect groups in camps because various researchers have interviewed people in camps many times. There is a sense of interview-fatigue, especially given that their situation remains the same after the interviews. People have thus lost interest and confidence in researchers. However, after waiting for almost two hours people began to form small groups of parents and school drop-outs. A lot of time was spent introducing the topic of basic education.

(Sr Rosemary, 2005, notes from her visit to Bobi Camp, northern Uganda)

d) Review of education providers based in Nairobi working in southern Sudan and Somaliland and their role in implementation

In order to understand how UN agencies, bilateral donors and a range of international NGOs co-ordinate and implement their educational programmes, a mapping exercise was undertaken to see how these organisations are supporting or directly engaging in basic education programmes in Somaliland and southern Sudan. These agencies have adopted a variety of approaches to implementing basic education programmes, in the formal primary sector and the ABE sector, including training teachers, providing equipment for classrooms, constructing schools and providing Accelerated Learning Programmes (ALPs) to young people who have missed out on basic education because of the conflict. The review documented how these activities were implemented in the field, by local and expatriate staff. This is particularly pertinent because many of the international agencies maintain their programme offices in Nairobi.

1.5 Themes in relation to ABE in African countries emerging from conflict

The situation in relation to education for African countries emerging from conflict is the result of particular configurations of historical influences, patterns of intervention and the character of the conflict. It is not helpful to try to make a general conclusion from these different circumstances when the first necessity is to recognise the particularity of each situation.

It is generally recognised by young people, communities, reconstructing states and international agencies that reconstructing or constructing a system of formal basic education, mainly for primary school age children, is central to the overall reconstruction process. It demonstrates the capacity of the new government, providing communities and households with the assurance that their children's lives will be better than their own and ensuring that future generations will not be drawn as combatants into conflict. For states, communities, international agencies and INGOs, there are huge problems of resources and co-ordination and contentious issues of languages of instruction and methods of assessment, but there is a commitment to making significant improvements to the basic educational system as a key to reconstruction and recovery.

The situation in relation to ABE is more complicated. There is a consensus as to its importance for peace, reconstruction and recovery in relation to the generations of young people after conflict who have missed an opportunity to obtain a formal education and now have to generate an income in the distorted post-conflict economy. It is also clear that in practice, the commitment of international agencies, states and communities to ABE is not great, either in terms of allocating resources to it or identifying ways of delivering ABE which are relevant to particular situations. The greatest enthusiasm is for Accelerated Learning Systems for young people just above school age which mimic closely the characteristics of formal basic education.

The organisation of this study in terms of the themes which have emerged from the research provides the context for the analysis of the underwhelming attention to ABE in countries emerging from conflict.

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We have developed a series of ‘themes’ or issues in this study which have emerged from the empirical research but appear to be significant for basic education and particularly ABE in the majority of post-conflict situations, although the way in which they present themselves and combine with other ‘themes’ vary in ways which are very important for developing helpful interventions.

The issues below have been grouped under three headings namely: Context, Policy and Co-ordination, and Access. These headings capture the most important issues identified in the research, allowing for cross-referencing between them.

1.5.1 Issues of context

The historical context of the present situation; this includes the origins and process of the conflict and the way in which it is perceived by different stakeholders.

- *The character of the educational system before the conflict, particularly issues of ‘access’*

How education is perceived by different stakeholders now in relation to the reconstruction of society and to what extent ABE is incorporated into the expectations for basic education of these different groups. A key issue is how far reconstruction is interpreted in terms of replicating the pre-conflict formal education system.

- *The range of perceptions of the place of young men and women (older than primary school age leavers) in the conflict itself, and their appropriate role in its aftermath and reconstruction*

In some societies, such as Uganda and DRC, this also includes the place of children under the age of 10 who have been active in the conflict. This is likely to influence the priority based on developing ABE programmes for them. This can translate into a widespread perception that young men are a ‘problem’ because of what they have done and may do in the future and should thus either be prioritised or ignored in educational provision. Such assumptions create problems of potential exclusion for girls and young women who can be perceived as less of a threat to peace but more transgressive if they have been combatants.

- *The way in which these perceptions influence the way in which ‘vulnerability’ is constructed in the post-conflict situation*

In situations in which nearly all young people have lacked access to basic education, communities and states are not always receptive as to need for special provision for the disabled, young women, orphans or former combatants. In wars defined as liberation struggles there are often serious attempts to secure appropriate ABE for former fighters to whom a debt is owed. This can also lead to the development of hierarchies of disability according to how injuries were obtained, with liberation fighters being given a higher priority than those affected by the lack of medical services.

- *The factors affecting the choice of the language(s) of instruction and systems of assessment and accreditation and the implications of this for the system of basic education*

These are central to the reconstruction of formal education systems and present themselves in a different way in relation to ABE. In some ways language may be a less difficult issue in ABE provision in which the argument for instruction in the ‘mother tongue’ is strong but the demand for a language such as English, which is perceived to enhance employment opportunities, may also be great. The focus on developing new assessment systems, which is associated with educational reconstruction, may not be helpful in trying to develop ABE frameworks which reflect the needs of young people and may lead to gainful employment.

1.5.2 Issues of policy and co-ordination

One characteristic of basic education in countries in conflict and those emerging from conflict is the central position occupied by international agencies which are not always primarily concerned with education, and international NGOs, also not necessarily primarily concerned with education, because of the central place which basic education plays in the process of reconstruction. It is possible to achieve more in a shorter time in relation to basic education than for example with services such as health or infrastructure which require significantly more money and scarce professional personnel. But ABE, for which the appropriate way forward is not so clear, in relation to which there are not many examples of successful implementation and for which there is less popular demand, does not appear to benefit from this perception.

This discussion begins with the potential role of the state and communities because the overwhelming role of international agencies tends to ‘crowd’ out other important players and to dilute perceptions of the ‘agency’ of communities and the state. The issues include:

- *The manner in which the ‘state’, administration etc. operates in relation to formal and alternative basic education and the wide range of beneficiaries*

This is likely to depend on the role of the state prior to the conflict, the length of the conflict and its commitment to basic education, and might include the character of the humanitarian/development transition under different circumstances. There are great pressures on the incoming state to liaise with a large number of international agencies and INGOs, set up a formal educational system, and respond to understandable community demands for a ‘peace dividend’ to be created on the ground. This makes it difficult to focus on ABE for which there are few appropriate models and less popular demand and which is not a substantive priority for the international agencies.

- *The role of communities and their contribution (or lack of it) to basic education*

In some countries communities have and continue to play a significant role in the provision of education and diaspora communities also have a commitment to supporting education. In other countries, perhaps because of the nature of the conflict and its aftermath, communities do not make such a contribution to schools and education. In addition, there are assumptions made by government and external agencies about the appropriate role of communities in the provision of

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education which are not necessarily grounded in reality, which has implications for the manner in which the reconstruction of the educational system develops. And the role of communities in relation to the development of ABE, especially for disadvantaged groups, which may not be one of their priorities, is problematic.

- *The configuration of external agencies in particular in conflict/post conflict/reconstruction situations*

This appears to be different from that in 'normal' donor receiving countries. In a situation in which bi-lateral agencies are often reluctant to operate, UN agencies are the major external agencies, with responsibilities for particular groups such as refugees. INGOs, which are in place largely for historical reasons, may play a more important role in educational provision than is customary and faith based organisations (FBOs) which often stay in conflict areas when other providers leave, are nearly always significant providers of education, particularly vocational training and education for young adults. The 'map' of external players and the assumptions they bring to their work has important implications for the reconstruction of education where there is no administration or the incoming administration lacks resources, which is usual in conflict and post-conflict situations.

The particular range of external providers of education in situations of high expectation, a history of ad hoc educational provision in a period of conflict and a lack of government resources means that there is likely to be a wide range of educational providers among which FBOs are often very important. The issue of 'multiple providers' and its significance in different countries will be addressed. For all post-conflict situations it is important to map the range of educational providers and the significance of this for the way in which the educational system operates. In some countries, for example, Somaliland, the private basic education sector is very important and in others, such as southern Sudan, FBOs and INGOs, including 'non-education specialists' are significant providers of education. It is significant that INGOs, and especially FBOs, are often the main providers of ABE and vocational training in conflict and emerging from conflict situations, which reflects their greater knowledge of the particular situation and how to develop an appropriate ABE response to it. However, these are often small organisations, frequently outside the 'loop' of the humanitarian and development industry. This tends to perpetuate the accumulation of creative local strategies for ABE for which there has not been found a way of replicating, adapting to other countries or scaling up.

1.5.3 Issues of access

The way in which 'vulnerability' and 'disadvantage' is constructed in individual situations is crucial. The issue of educational access (which is linked, though not exclusively, to gender), for young women and men and the significance of alternative basic education, accelerated learning and the ability to re-enter the educational system after an extended period of conflict, is a pressing concern. This is an issue in the majority of African countries emerging from conflict which presents itself in a different form, according to existing gender relations, the length and nature of the conflict and the form taken by the reconstruction of the educational sector.

Analysing how the challenge of meeting the education needs of the 'lost generations' of young people is addressed, involves looking at the way alternative basic education is managed and delivered and how much of a priority it is for government and external agencies. It also covers vocational training.

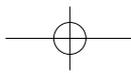
The particular role of alternative basic education (ABE) and arrangements for accelerated learning programmes (ALP) for young people is especially relevant when it is associated with a liberation struggle. Somaliland is at one end of the continuum of this issue, in the recognition of the debt owed to young militia members who had been part of the liberation struggle and their potential to threaten the peace. Countries in which the 'reconstruction' of the education system is interpreted as resurrecting the pre-conflict system, or restoring that education system to a part of the country, like Uganda, are likely to be at the other end of the continuum.

1.6 The organisation of the book

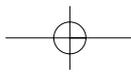
The themes which have been identified as critical to understanding the form taken in the provision of basic education, particularly ABE, in African countries emerging from conflict, cover the same issues as were identified in the original proposal for the research. As a result of the research, greater emphasis has been placed on 'capturing' the context within which the delivery of basic education takes place, the significance of external agencies and the state in determining the form of basic education and the problematic character for countries emerging from conflict, of providing Alternative Basic Education (ABE) as opposed to basic education in a formal educational system for children.

This experience is reflected in the organisation of the themes which have emerged from the research.

Chapter 2 provides a literature review which discusses the publications and documents which have been most useful in developing the research. Chapter 3 focuses on the issues of context outlined above. Chapter 4 addresses the issues of policy and co-ordination for the providers of basic education in countries emerging from conflict and their implications for the financing and co-ordination of alternative basic education. Chapter 5 discusses issues of access to ABE in countries emerging from conflict related to vulnerability and which have proved to be problematic in terms of commitment and actual provision. Chapter 6 identifies the lessons learned from the research.



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Chapter 2: Background Literature

2.1 Introduction

The desire to learn, the conviction that education alone could in some way redeem something of the horror of the past, infected all of them, and they remembered the song taught by the missionaries to Dinka children: "Learning is best...even if we tire/we shall endure/to find its sweetness later on"

(Deng et al, 2005).

The quotation above captures the resilience of war affected youth and the importance of education to them. It highlights the determination to pursue education even if the rewards will not be immediately forthcoming.

There is a burgeoning literature on the role of education in conflict and post-conflict situations. The aim of this chapter is not to provide a comprehensive analysis of the literature for this has already been done (Bird, 2003; Davies, 2003) but rather examine selective examples from the literature relevant to the themes of this research.

2.2 The place of education in conflict/post-conflict situations

One of the key themes in the literature is the place of education in conflict and post-conflict situations and the roles and responsibilities of providers. There is a growing debate in the literature about the role of education in emergency situations and the perception of education as being a humanitarian response rather than a development activity. There are many reports on education in emergency situations (Augiler and Retamal, 1998; Boyden and Rider, 1996; Nicolai, 2003; Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003; Sinclair, 2001; Bensalah, 2003). It has been argued that education during emergencies can provide a sense of normality in conflict situations (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003) and that education can offer a sense of protection to vulnerable children (Machel, 1996; Lockicki, 1999) in the midst of hostility and uncertainty.

But a significant question which emerges from the literature is who is responsible for the shift from short-term emergency education to long term reconstruction? Some writers have simply used conflict and post-conflict as if they were distinct phases; they fail to capture the fluidity of events. As Smith and Vaux argue:

Modern conflicts are not simple, linear events, but involve complex transformations of society. It is not easy to distinguish...between different 'phases' of conflict. 'Reconstruction' may follow a peace agreement, but who knows how long that agreement will last? How secure is a peace agreement? Even defining responses by intention of 'preventive', 'mitigating' and 'resolving' does not work well in many conflicts (2003:6).

This is reiterated in Sommers' recent work (2006) on southern Sudan where he is critical of 'ahistorical' and static approaches. The literature purports that many humanitarian aid agencies consider education as a development activity, and funding education is therefore supposed to wait until stability or 'peace'. Donor resistance to funding education during emergencies is an important theme. On the one hand, donors in the past suggested that "peace must come before

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investing in education” (DFID, 2002) whereas more recently, it has been argued that educational provision must be immediate and not come after shelter, health care and other social services. This is reinforced by Brophy and Page who argue from a practical view of the southern Sudanese experience that “waiting for peace before providing support for education does not work” (2006:3).

Another view is held by Talbot who argues that the dichotomy of relief-development is artificial and more complex:

People have only one life. Children need a quality education whether they are living in peaceful or conflicted societies. A more realistic approach is to consider socio-economic development as a single process that includes catastrophes, responses to them and recovery from them (2002:4).

The paradigm shift of education provision as humanitarian response to a longer term intervention can be viewed either from the perspective of education as a mobilising instrument for peace and reconciliation or as a central component of reconstruction (Retamal and Aedo-Richmond, 1998).

2.3 EFA and MDG targets in countries emerging from conflict

Literature sources on the three country studies discussed throughout the report (southern Sudan, Somaliland and northern Uganda), confirm that it will be a daunting and challenging task to reach the target of Education for All by the year 2015. One of the problems highlighted in the literature is the lack of good quantitative data on the number of school-age children and out of school youth and the sheer scale of the problem. Statistical data on the number of children enrolled in formal education, the number who dropped out and those who never attended school are lacking. In addition, the numbers of out of school youth and illiterate adults are also unknown. Although we do not know the exact numbers, we do know from various situational analysis reports and estimates that a considerable proportion of children and youth do not have access to education. The lack of empirical data is a serious constraint on how to measure war’s impact on education systems, administrators, teachers and students (Sommers, 2002).

This is not surprising because of the difficulty in conducting research in insecure and volatile environments. However, there have been promising examples of baseline work such as that conducted in southern Sudan (UNICEF/AET, 2002; Hewitson, 2005) and Somaliland (UNICEF 1997a; 1997b; 1998) which provide useful educational statistics which are currently being used by agencies to implement education programmes. Recent field research in Somaliland and southern Sudan have also generated evidence based data necessary for making informed decisions for educational provision (Bekalo et al, 2003; Sommers, 2005).

However, there is a growing issue in the literature about the difference between theory and practice. Most governments and donors throughout the world are committed to the EFA targets and Millenium Development Goals. Yet a glaring omission is that there is relatively little support for education during war. As Sommers illustrates in his work in southern Sudan:

The case of education for Southern Sudanese exposes an alarming lack of connection between stated commitments to the Education for All declaration and sufficient support for education in times of war. Examples of unfortunate donor actions and inaction are voluminous. The results of the underfunding of education for Southern Sudanese has created negative results (2006: 257).

2.4 Co-ordination of roles

Arguably, one of the most important issues which emerge from the literature is the lack of effective coordination between policy makers, governments, NGOs and communities. Sommers' report on co-ordinating education during emergencies and the challenges and responsibilities of reconstruction (2006) provides a concise overview of the key actors (state, UN agencies, NGOs and donors) and the complexity of co-ordination frameworks. The study shows how INGOs and UN agencies are often responsible for educational management at the initial phase of reconstruction because of state lack of capacity. Illustrative examples depict programmes that work well and those that do not and these provide important lessons for good practice. The importance of building effective pre-intervention partnerships at the agency and donor level are fundamental as illustrated in a recent World Bank report:

The post-conflict situation sometimes creates conditions that make partnerships and inter-agency coordination very difficult at a time when it is most important. The sudden influx of resources that follow many high profile peace arrangements can precipitate the 'feeding frenzy' environment of intense competition among development partners and non-governmental organisations (2005: 39).

Another important factor in the coordination of educational provision is the lack of communication and documentation of activities by donors and aid organisations. Programmes are often duplicated and agencies and INGOs are often carving out a niche rather than working together. The 'scramble' for a piece of action from external agencies can have a negative impact for the intended beneficiaries and stakeholders. Effective dialogue and coordination are essential for effective responses to succeed. The needs of communities are sometimes over-shadowed or neglected by governments and agencies in the process of educational reform.

DFID's report on service delivery in difficult environments (2003) aims to conceptualise the relationship between policy makers, service providers and poor people. The integrated framework is based on the model outlined in the 2003 World Development Report. Although education is not singled out, it is included as one of the social services (along with basic health care) which suggests that the international community should emphasise service delivery as a key entry point for further development in difficult environments. It confirms the commitment to provide free universal education as the most effective policy for reducing the educational inequality that contributes to unequal employment and livelihood opportunities, but it does not mention the role that ABE could play in vocational training for skills development which could lead to income generating activities. Significantly, it stresses the move of resources to community level. It is suggested that integrated approaches work better.

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2.5 Youth and the lost generations

The literature confirms the importance of a youth centred approach in dealing with the needs and desires of young people affected by conflict. Machel's seminal work on conflict and children (1996) laid the foundation for subsequent studies on child soldiers and children affected by conflict. In enabling for young people the opportunity for education through the formulation and activation of post-conflict educational policy on the ground, it is important to acknowledge and work with the 'perception' of the young people – viewing their roles in conflict in retrospect and their roles in the post-conflict situations.

The issue of gender, and how girls and boys are perceived in the post-conflict situation, is extremely important. As Kemper comments:

A socio-political approach regards youth's self-perception and their relationship to civil society as crucial for the peace-building process. Rather than defining youth according to norms or assessing their 'value' in war economies, this approach thus demands international organisations to listen to youth's voices and support youth in implementing their ideas (2005: 36).

Although many INGOs support the view that adolescents and youth should have access to ABE, there is very little evidence or research which examines the effectiveness of ABE provision for youth and adolescents. In a study conducted by the UNHCR in 1997 it was noted that educational initiatives for adolescents were nearly non-existent. Conflict and post-conflict literature focuses mainly on the provision of formal primary education. In the past it was suggested that non-formal education or alternative approaches were perceived as inferior or second rate. Boyden and Ryder (1996) suggest different approaches and models for the most marginalised and vulnerable groups; for example, short term immediate responses followed by more permanent models for longer term. As Lowicki states, the lack of opportunities is not only detrimental to the youth but also to society as a whole:

Education in emergency settings is synonymous with the protection of war affected populations, especially children. The neglect of comprehensive educational opportunities for adolescents produces grave consequences, not only for individuals but for the larger societies. Political violence has a very direct and devastating impact on the education of adolescents (1999: 43).

The literature confirms that ABE can provide accessible, realistic and flexible approaches to learning. This is supported by Augilar and Retamal who state:

Non formal education within a humanitarian setting means that pupils learn basic skills through study of core subjects, but the courses do not necessarily lead to recognized diplomas and certificates. The involvement of humanitarian agencies during this phase is important since it discourages the dissemination of political messages to children and young adults through education (1998:16).

There are discussions in the literature about what are the most appropriate modes of delivery and the exploration of alternative and flexible models of learning. The uses of new technologies are currently being explored. Radio appears to be the most cost effective medium in reaching the largest number of people (Perraton, 2000). In Zambia, Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) methodology is being used to provide access to education for aids orphans and other vulnerable children as an alternative to formal education when there is a great demand for education but there are limited numbers of trained teachers and lack of schools.

2.6 Language

The appropriate medium of instruction is paramount for the effective delivery of educational programmes. In our research, the issue of language of instruction is seen as crucial in post-conflict reconstruction. In southern Sudan, the issue of English as the medium as opposed to Arabic is not only construed as a political issue but also one of identity. The volatile 'identity debate' is discussed by Sommers in his recent work:

What does it mean to be a 'Southerner' or a 'Northerner' in today's Sudan? Civil war in Sudan has routinely been described as a battle between Arab Muslims from the north and African Christians and 'animists' from the South. ...All Southern Sudanese are considered Africans, and most belong to one of the latter two categories of religions. Yet Southerners have rebelled less because of their own religious identity than becoming both 'Muslim' and 'Arab' (2006: 41).

The challenges, however, of changing to a different medium are complex as shown in the southern Africa liberation struggles. In Namibia, for example, the language debate has been ongoing since independence (Howard, 2005). Issues of up-grading and training teachers and devising new curricula are critical components in educational reform.

Interestingly, in a country such as Somalia where there is one dominant language (Somali), the political issue of language becomes important when listening to different dialects and in print. In an evaluation of the SOMDEL programme, it was reported that the radio listening audience in Hargeisa complained about the 'Mogadishu' dialect being aired rather than their local dialect and they suggested the spelling of certain words in the textbooks be corrected (Fentiman, 2003). Language instruction is also an issue when discussing private and state schools. In private schools, the language of instruction is English or Arabic whilst the language in state schools is Somali.

2.7 Role of communities

Although international agencies play a pivotal role in the funding and management of education in countries emerging from conflict, the local communities are often responsible for the success of such programmes. This is supported by the Africa Commission's report of March 2005:

Essential to improving the quality of education is accountability to communities and their involvement in monitoring and managing teaching and learning processes (2005: 186).

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Without the willingness, support and commitment of local people and communities, programmes can fail and not be sustained. DFID's recent strategy is to reduce the barriers of access and participation and to deal directly with the community.

The impact of under-funding education and ignoring certain stakeholders (such as child soldiers) can have negative results. Leaving populations undereducated can help perpetuate conflict and undermine the impact to relief aid. Richard's work in Sierra Leone (1996) also highlights the importance of focusing on youth and ex-combatants because of the tensions associated with ex-combatants.

2.8 Need for research

The literature review confirms the need for more research on the potential and effectiveness of alternative basic education in countries emerging from conflict. Further research is needed which encompasses a more holistic and participatory approach of what is working in both the formal and non formal sectors in countries emerging from conflict as well as for the various needs: children of school age, youth and adults. By looking at programmes that work well and those that do not, informed decisions can be made as to what approaches can be scaled up. The challenge, therefore, is to find models that deliver assistance and at the same time build on local understandings and local expectations of education which are culturally relevant. The literature supports the need for further documentation that is inclusive and examines not only formal education for school-age children but also non-formal educational opportunities for all: children, youth and adults (Bird, 2003).

More evidence based research and monitoring and evaluation of current educational incentives is required. There is very little evidence based research on the quality and effectiveness of non-formal or alternative basic education programmes. As Bird points out, "there is very little mention of, research in, or funding for education in a non-formal/informal sense" (2003: 22). This is reinforced by Tomlinson and Benefield (2005). The following chapters will identify both policy and research issues which could be examined further.

Chapter 3: Context

3.1 Introduction

There are many useful summaries of the important issues for reconstructing educational systems after conflict (World Bank, 2005). As these are largely produced by agencies with a remit to reconstruct education after conflict, there is a tendency to assume that 'conflicts' are essentially similar and that the real issues for reconstruction lie in the post-conflict situation. There are also many discussions which insist on the importance of 'contextual' issues (Bird, 2003) but it is not always clear how the issue of context might be taken forward except by constructing increasingly complex typologies of 'conflict'.

This research, which is based on detailed country studies using researchers from the society concerned and collecting detailed qualitative data, suggests that identifying the key factors in the experience of conflict and its aftermath, and how they are explained by different stakeholders, is crucial in explaining the process of reconstruction in education in African countries emerging from conflict. The challenge is to demonstrate that this contextual knowledge, which is so important for understanding and explaining the processes in each country, is also important in learning lessons which have an application for the development of policy and practice in such situations. This reinforces Sommers' statement:

diverse experiences of educational reconstruction must be more thoroughly documented and analysed before they disappear (2003, 7).

There is an additional benefit in focusing seriously on this issue of context. Post-conflict reconstruction of education is often dominated by international agencies and a range of international NGOs. It is necessary to place their relationships and activities in a wider context to ensure that research and policy does not become primarily an examination of these international actors with communities, governments and indigenous NGOs, where they exist, occupying a peripheral role.

In this chapter the significance of the contextual issues in post-conflict situations is discussed and this is followed by an analysis of the key issues of context in the case studies, which will be taken up where appropriate in the later chapters.

3.2 The historical context

In societies emerging from conflict, the major issue of historical context, which affects a wide range of related issues, is the way in which the conflict itself is explained in terms of the origins, process and the manner in which the conflict has come or is coming to an end. A crucial question is that of 'whose interpretation of the conflict'? It is obviously important to know if there are seriously contradictory explanations of the conflict circulating in society. In relation to reconstruction policy and management of education, the crucial explanation of the conflict which needs to be understood is that of the government or administration, as this is likely to affect policy priorities and the way in which they are managed. As communities play an important role in reconstructing education, the prevailing explanations in communities of the conflict are also significant. Differences between official rhetoric and community level understanding can affect how policies are understood and implemented.

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One of the most important dimensions of the understanding of the causes of the conflict is whether it is perceived as a process of liberation or an insurgency from which lessons need to be learned in order to prevent it recurring. On a continuum of conflict, at one end is Somaliland where the conflict is perceived to be a war of liberation, which has created expectations and responsibilities which need to be met given that the reconstruction of education is understood as a continuation of the liberation struggle by other means. Whereas northern Uganda and Sierra Leone are at the other end of the continuum, where the conceptions of the conflict are more complex and education reconstruction centres around perceptions of the problematic role of former child soldiers and abductees. The sections below suggest that the most important consequences of these differing explanations of the causes, processes and outcomes of conflict are in relation to the manner in which young people, and educational and training programmes for them, are approached.

3.3 The educational system before the conflict

Countries emerging from conflict face a range of different situations in relation to the education system in existence before the conflict. For the country studies, the situation is outlined in Chapter 1 and analysed in greater depth in Appendix 2. However it should be noted:

- in Somaliland there was very little education before the declaration of independence and little attachment to the educational system as it represented the the discriminatory policies of the Siad Barre regime;
- in southern Sudan, there were very few educational institutions prior to the civil war, the educational system was perceived as a means of imposing the Sudanese Government's mission of Arabisation and Islamicisation, and schools were were largely destroyed by the war itself;
- in northern Uganda there is a working educational system which has recently undergone great expansion with the implementation of UPE in Uganda. The long conflict means that the educational system works in an unsatisfactory way in the north of the country where security issues affect children and young people's ability to access the educational system and its accreditation processes.

There is a difference between countries in which there is a widespread perception that 'normality' will be signalled by the reconstruction of the educational system which existed before the conflict and those in which there is a conscious attempt to develop an educational system appropriate for a 'liberated' society. Differences in whether the objective is to recreate or replace the educational system which has previously existed are closely linked to the perception of the conflict itself as outlined above.

The Somaliland and Southern Sudan experiences illustrate a limited access to basic education prior to the conflict with an educational system to which the post-conflict state is hostile. This is similar to the South African experience. The Ugandan situation shares characteristics with the situation in Sierra Leone and Burundi, where the existing educational system has survived but the analysis of the causes of the conflict has centred around issues of access and equity in the educational system which need to be resolved to make further conflict less likely. (Although this discourse of inequity and lack of access in these countries is focused on secondary education rather than basic education and appears to have little to say about the need for ABE).

There also appears to be a tendency to replicate the pre-colonial educational system in some respects, particularly if it is the only educational system of which key participants have an actual or 'proxy' experience. This is illustrated by the urge to reconstruct the 'best' secondary schools, as is evident in Somaliland and southern Sudan where these secondary schools are perceived as a symbol of the return to normality of the education system and there is pressure from professional educators and potential returnees to restore the schools to their former pre-eminence. This wish needs to be acknowledged by international agencies focusing on formal and alternative basic education in their relationship with governments and communities.

The role of different kinds of INGOs in the provision of education is also influenced by their role prior to and during the conflict. This issue is discussed more fully below but some comments may be relevant here. In Somaliland there was little educational provision by INGOs before or during the civil war, except for the support of Koranic schools. In northern Uganda, FBOs, especially those related to the Catholic church, were and remain important providers of education which has influenced their role in advocacy with community organisations in northern Uganda. In southern Sudan, where there was little educational provision prior to the civil war, such educational provision as existed was maintained during the conflict by communities, sometimes with the support of INGOs, many being FBOs. This was mainly formal basic education with very little ABE. These historical relationships and priorities have been important in influencing the role taken by different kinds of INGOs in post-conflict reconstruction.

In the country studies, and the majority of other African countries affected by conflict, there was very little ABE prior to the conflict. This makes it unlikely that it will have a high profile in the prevailing perception of what the post-conflict educational system should contain. However, it is critical to peace and reconstruction that we find ways in which the overwhelming desire to reconstruct the formal basic education system can be reconciled with the need for the development of a range of appropriate ABE programmes with sufficient resources and support.

3.4 Perceptions of the place of young people in the conflict and post-conflict situation

In all long term conflicts, such as those in southern Sudan and northern Uganda, generations of young people – the 'lost or missing' generations – have missed their chance of obtaining a formal education as schools were destroyed and teachers fled. As young people may have often played an important role in the conflict, the process of peace building and reconstruction depends on them, especially young men, being given an alternative 'model' for their future than joining a militia and seeking social recognition and access to resources in that way.

This problem may be a general one in post-conflict societies. However, young people may be perceived differently according to prevailing explanations of the conflict itself. In societies such as Somaliland, with a liberation narrative, the new state is perceived as having a special responsibility for young men who have contributed to the liberation but are unable to benefit from the successful liberation process because of their lack of educational qualifications and vocational training and for some, disability due to injuries they obtained while fighting.

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However, in northern Uganda, the prevailing perceptions of young people are more ambiguous. The Acholi Religious Leaders' Peace Initiative (ARLPI) has successfully articulated a philosophy of forgiveness and even forgetfulness towards Lords Resistance Army (LRA) fighters which largely consists of abducted children. However, at community level and for families in the IDP camps, there is often a reluctance to take back young people who are feared and for whose demobilisation and reintegration, there are few resources (Allen, 2004:33).

There are examples of creative responses to the problem of the missing generations. In the Eastern Cape, South Africa, the University of Fort Hare has developed methods of assessing the appropriate level for entry into the formal educational system for fighters who have developed education related skills in the liberation struggle (Fort Hare, 2005). However, there are important gender issues in these perceptions. As young men were often important in initiating and continuing conflict, a focus on ex-combatants is usually targeted at them. When young women have been combatants, as in northern Uganda, Sierra Leone and DRC their position is even more problematic than that of the young men, as for girls and young women to be fighters is more transgressive than for men (Save the Children, 2005)

In Sierra Leone, where an unequal educational system is recognised as one of the causes of the conflict, there is tension at the local level, where it is often perceived that young ex-combatants are favoured in international agency initiatives either because of fear of what they might otherwise do or because of particular definitions of vulnerability.²

These perceptions work in a complex way in actual situations but a focus on the context of conflict which recognises the importance of these different and often contradictory perceptions is necessary to provide the basis for the development of policies and programmes which enable communities and young people to address and transform them.

The influence of this range of perceptions of the place of young people in conflict and post-conflict on the position given to ABE in the reconstruction of education is complex. On the one hand, there is a distrust and fear of young people who have been part of violent movements and a wish to isolate them from their victims. On the other, there is a recognition that young people without education of vocational training but with experience or using weapons are a potential threat to all post-conflict reconstruction. This also affects the way in which vulnerability is constructed in different situations.

3.5 Constructions of vulnerability

After long periods of conflict there are always several categories of vulnerable people – the disabled, the traumatised, orphans, young people – who have lost the opportunity of an education. However, in countries emerging from conflict, resources are scarce and large proportions of the population experience hardship. In this situation, there is an implicit, sometimes explicit hierarchy of vulnerability with some categories being given a greater value than other.

² Interview with Conciliation Resources, 27 July 2005

In the category of 'physical disability', a distinction is often drawn between those who have been wounded in the fighting and those who have been born with disabilities or have developed them in civilian life. The first category may be regarded as more 'worthy' of support. This is also likely to be true for the problematic category of mental illness (problems resulting from being involved in fighting maybe given a value higher than other forms of mental illness).³ The category of young ex-combatants regarded as problematic for the reasons outlined above is also likely to be given a higher priority because of the fear that otherwise the conflict will break out again.

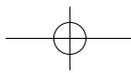
In addition there is a potential problem of reconciling international agency perceptions of 'vulnerable disadvantaged' groups and a post-conflict view that all children and young people who have lived through conflict and post-conflict are disadvantaged and have educational problems which should be addressed.

This likely post-conflict hierarchy of the 'worth' of disability is reflected in attitudes to the priority which is given to ABE related to the education and training needs of young people with disabilities. The 'war wounded' are often perceived as a priority for education and vocational training but other young people with disabilities are perceived as a lower priority than school age children for whom the rapid provision of formal basic education will signal a return to 'normality' and hope for the future.

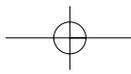
3.6 Summary

The common features of the contextual issues we have identified is that they are grounded in the perceptions which communities, education professionals and other significant groups have of their history prior to and during the period of conflict and of the educational system which existed before the conflict, which determines their perspective on the present and their aspirations for the future. This approach is also a means of identifying differences in perceptions as to what the reconstruction of a particular educational system would involve. It has significant implications for situations in which international agencies and their constructions of priorities play a dominant role (Sommers, 2004). These priorities are unlikely to be identical to those of young people, communities and incoming administrations. The issues appear to be especially problematic for the development of ABE, which in relation to the issues of context outlined above, is unlikely to be a priority for incoming education administrations and post-conflict communities or international agencies, except as a means of making the mobilisation of potentially threatening young men less likely.

³ It is noticeable that in Somaliland, people recognised as having been traumatised by the war are given a 'place' in organisations and offices which do not involve significant stress. This, of course, depends on the individuals concerned having relatives or friends who can create this 'space' for them



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Chapter 4: Policy and Co-ordination

4.1 Introduction

The discussion of policy and co-ordination issues is organised in relation to the different providers of education in conflict and post-conflict situations, namely the state, communities, international agencies and INGOs. This discussion draws on the literature analysed in Chapter 2 and relates it to the findings of the country studies. The issues addressed here include the manner in which ABE is planned and co-ordinated, the part played by the state and communities in planning and provision and the particular roles of international agencies of various kinds and INGOs. The discussion is placed within a description of relevant features of the development and reconstruction of formal basic education which provides the context for how far ABE is incorporated into this process. This provides the basis for identifying the range of relationships between these agencies and the state, the implications of inheriting multiple providers of education in a post-conflict situation and how co-ordination between them is managed.

One finding which corresponds to the existing literature is the importance of alternative forms of education and training for young people who have missed the opportunity for formal schooling because of the conflict (World Bank, 2005:68). The other finding which corresponds to the existing literature is that in practice very few resources are committed to ABE programmes which largely depend on small INGO initiatives from which it has proved difficult to learn lessons or to use the experience in comparable situations (World Bank, op. cit. 82). The state and communities and international agencies and INGOs tend to focus their resources on formal basic education. This will therefore be discussed in this chapter with a more detailed discussion of ABE in Chapter 5.

We will analyse the role of the state, communities, indigenous NGOs and the private sector within countries, followed by a discussion of the role of international agencies and INGOs.

4.2 The role of the state in the reconstruction of education

The state in most countries is the key policy maker and provider of formal basic education. One characteristic of countries in conflict is that the position of the state is problematic (Sommers, 2003). The nature of the 'state' in such countries is on a continuum, from southern Sudan where there has not been until recently an accepted state structure to countries, such as Uganda, in which there is an established state structure delivering services more or less satisfactorily except in one region where it does not operate 'normally' because of the security situation. In all conflict situations, whether in a country or region, the state is unable to provide its citizens with security and protection which makes the other responsibilities of a state difficult to deliver or to ensure equity of access to surviving educational institutions.

Thus, the position of the state in countries emerging from conflict is important. As well as the ability to provide security for its citizens, it needs to demonstrate its administrative and managerial capacity to deliver the services of which they have been deprived through the years of conflict. The major service a state in a country emerging from conflict is expected to expand and improve is formal basic education. Health is also a desperate need but the human and material

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resources needed to improve health provision are even more scarce than for basic education which, therefore, tends to be the focus of incoming administration after conflict. It has been noted that both the state and international agencies tend to focus their attention on constructing and repairing schools. Ministries of Education in post-conflict situations face great challenges, for example repairing the educational infrastructure, creating a secure environment for children and young people, obtaining supplies and materials and managing difficult issues such as choice of curricula, certification, language of instruction and the training and management of teachers.

This does of course vary. In Sierra Leone where the inequalities in secondary school provision were widely regarded as a cause of the conflict in the east of the country, there has been considerable emphasis on the need to make the provision of secondary education more equal. A comparable situation exists in Burundi in terms of a commitment to developing a more equal educational system overall. The campaigning by NGOs in northern Uganda is also related to equity and when the conflict ends, advocacy on the need to ensure access to secondary education is likely to increase.

Within the donor community it is recognised that after conflict, priorities continue to be set and plans drawn up in their offices, usually in a regional centre such as Nairobi which means that the process of increasing the capacity of the incoming educational administration becomes problematic. One way of signalling the wish of the administration to have a greater role in the management of the process of educational recovery in some way is to delay or block the initiatives of the international agencies. There is some evidence of this happening from our country studies.

The understandable focus on communication and coordination between international agencies also has the possibility of drawing attention away from the issue of how the state educational administration can be strengthened. The 'architecture' of co-ordination can be complex and time consuming and there is some evidence of the staff of international agencies being focused mainly on communicating with each other. There is no simple solution to this problem. Southern Sudan is the greatest challenge, in that the state is constructing itself at a time of increasing and varied international intervention in a situation of great educational need.

After periods of conflict and the reconstruction or construction of the state, there are pressures towards the centralisation of decision taking and the management of resources, which are intensified by the need to deal with international agencies. Thus the focus of discussion of the role of the state in the reconstruction of education tends to be on central government and the Ministry of Education (Bird, 2003: 20; Sommers, 2003). The situation in northern Uganda also illustrates how decentralisation of state responsibilities and control over resources influences the response to education in an emergency and its aftermath in a number of ways. For example:

- primary education is the responsibility of the district in Uganda which disburses funds to schools and pays teachers;
- the refusal of the Government of Uganda to declare an 'emergency' in northern Uganda has made it difficult for the districts to access assistance from international agencies;
- the managerial responsibility of the district education officers who understand the situation on the ground has made it possible for them to adapt a system of educational administration designed for a situation without conflict to one which is able to respond, in part, to the

needs of an educational system in which schools, teachers and children are targets. For example, schools have been relocated from rural areas to the compounds of schools in towns because of LRA attacks. Education officers have advised them to keep their separate identities and not 'merge' with the host school to enable them to receive teachers' salaries (which go to individual schools so could be lost if a school ceases to have an independent existence).

There are limits to this flexibility. Capital expenditure is linked to a particular location so cannot be used to address the water and sanitation problems of a school compound which is hosting another school. Some of the more creative attempts to adapt the educational financial and administration to a situation of uncertainty and conflict have not been approved. In Lira, district level officers developed a proposal whereby schools which were in areas of danger and had ceased to exist could 'loan' their budgets to schools which are under severe pressure because of an influx of pupils from the conflict. The money would be paid back when the conflict is over and the schools re-open. The Ministry of Finance did not approve the suggestion so the funds concerned now revert to Kampala. This focus on how to 'stretch' the formal education administration absorbs much of the available creativity and innovative capacity of the local educational administrations in northern Uganda. However, they do recognise the urgent need for ABE even if they lack the resources to develop interventions, as is illustrated by a comment of the Co-ordinator for Literacy and Adult Basic Education for LABE, a Ugandan NGO:

Central government support to LABE activities is difficult to come by. However, local governments are easier to lobby. Indeed many of them invite LABE to work with them in order to build their capacity to fight illiteracy. They provide financial support and integrate activities into their work plans. This has demonstrated the strength of decentralisation.

A similar situation has been noted in the Somalia State of Puntland, where the regional education officers who have local knowledge and connections are the key to planning relevant interventions.

The complexities of the process of moving from a situation of minimal external support for education in conflict to one of reconstruction of the educational system by a large number of external agencies, many new to the country, at the same time as the educational administration is reconstructing or constructing itself, consumes attention and resources. In such situations, the importance of alternative basic education provision for young people affected by the conflict is recognised but largely unmet. The exception is the attention to Accelerated Learning approaches which can be linked to the formal education system.

4.3 Communities and basic education

In situations of long term conflict, often the only means by which education is supported is through communities which continue to build schools, recruit teachers and send their children to school when there are few if any forms of external support. The literature on education in emergencies provides many examples of community commitment to the education of their children without external support (Sommers, 2003:40). The literature often refers to southern

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Sudan as being a primary example of this community commitment and our research confirms the high levels of community support for education in southern Sudan during the twenty-year conflict as soon as communities were 'safe'.

When countries are emerging from conflict, a steep increase in expectations of a peace dividend occurs when there has been a long term lack of resources, money, people and infrastructure. This is especially true in relation to education as schools re-opening, teachers returning and children attending school are a key sign of 'normality' returning to communities. It is understandable that in these post-conflict situations, it will be assumed that 'communities' (World Bank, 2005:42) will play an important role in mobilising resources for the rehabilitation of education, especially basic education.

In order to manage the role of communities in basic education, it is important to take account of relevant issues of context which were outlined in Chapter 3, namely:

- how the conflict is perceived;
- whether there are significant differences in perceptions between communities;
- a realistic assessment of the resources available to communities which have survived long term conflict;
- the relationship between communities and the existing or emerging state administration.

Even if in the past they have committed themselves to providing for their children's education, communities which have survived long periods of conflict and have seen their resources depleted as a result are likely to have high expectations of incoming governments in terms of the investment which they will make in children's education. This appears to be happening in southern Sudan as is shown by the quote from CARE below:

CARE was originally funded by USAID to build the primary schools using local materials. However, it has since transpired that people in Sudan (government, school and community level) are demanding bricks and mortar permanent structures. This has created huge logistical problems and has had massive financial implications. The country does not have the capacity to build permanent structures in most of the regions – transport, materials and skills are huge problems (CARE Nairobi office: 2005).

Communities in societies in which the conflict is widely perceived as being a war of liberation and the post-conflict situation as a building of a new society may have a strong commitment to contributing to the education of their children. One result of this emphasis by communities on the importance of school building for reconstruction is to 'crowd out' a focus on the importance of ABE at the community level.

Perhaps the problem of the perception by international agencies and INGOs of the inappropriate emphasis by communities on the need for the construction of schools needs to be recast. It would then be possible to identify, in this transitional period, what level of construction and equipping of schools will provide the 'space' for the long term planning and management of the educational system, retain the support of communities for basic education and leverage some support for ABE.

There are also other situations in which it does not appear realistic to focus the reconstruction of education too heavily on 'communities'. For example in Uganda, which has a well established educational system and a well developed civil society sector, the long term conflict in the north has not led to an increase in community contributions to education for the following reasons:

- communities have been severely disrupted by the conflict and more than 90% of the population in some districts are in IDP camps with very little control over their lives;
- the LRA strategy of abducting children means that schools have become the focus of attacks and the efforts of parents and communities has been to develop tactics which will avoid the attacks. This has led to the phenomenon of 'night commuters' with children sleeping in towns which further disrupts communities;
- the focus of civil society (Acholi Religious Leaders Peace Initiative and Gulu Concerned Parents Association) has been to bring the conflict to the attention of the outside world and to look for ways to bring it to an end;
- the educational focus of civil society in the north has been to secure scholarships to ensure that able children travel outside the area to continue their education(AET/Echo Bravo, 2004).

In countries in which there does not appear to be an end in sight to endemic conflict it is also difficult for communities to contribute to the education of their children. DRC would be an example of the constant disruption of communities which makes it difficult to focus on education.

In relation to some countries emerging from conflict, there are large diaspora communities which retain a commitment to their home country and communities. This commitment can be expressed by significant contributions to the building and upkeep of schools and payment of teachers in their home communities. The contributions of the Somali diaspora to the construction and support of schools in their home communities and towards the education-related costs of their families is an important example which is discussed further in Appendix 1 (Lindley: 2005a, b). Such commitment is a valuable resource for the reconstruction of educational systems. However it is most likely to be for formal basic education for school age children which leads to secondary and possibly tertiary education. It does not usually include ABE for young people above school age, as this provision is not defined as 'education' and there is no readily accessible 'model' of how to address their needs, except for readily transferable skills such as computing. In addition, as has been discussed above, perceptions of this group and their relationship to the conflict and the community are often ambiguous and complex. It is clear from experience of reconstruction of educational systems that the contribution of communities is a key resource for countries emerging from conflict. However, it is necessary to relate the role of communities to the context in which they are reconstructing their lives and their perceptions of need, and of their contribution and that of other agencies in this process.

There are also significant issues around 'access' at the community level which will be discussed in Chapter 5. After a long period of conflict it can be difficult to reconcile community demands for the best education for those children who are perceived as able to benefit from it with international agency priorities of gender, disability and support for former child combatants (Sommers, 2003:59). One crucial challenge for INGOs and international agencies in the post-conflict reconstruction of education is how to raise the profile of ABE at community level and secure the commitment of communities to ABE provision, within the context of their overriding concern for the reconstruction of formal basic education for primary school age children.

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4.4 Non-governmental organisation

There are very few indigenous NGOs in countries emerging from long term conflict. The conditions of insecurity, isolation and consequent lack of civil society are not conducive to the development of NGOs. The NGOs which do exist in southern Sudan and Somaliland, for example, tend to be dependent on INGOs and international agencies for funding and for the focus of their initiatives. Uganda is different in that it has a significant and vigorous civil society at national and local level. The NGOs concerned with education, which play an important public role in northern Uganda, focus on the need to secure scholarships so that promising children can obtain a secondary education away from the difficult conditions of northern Uganda and on giving support to teachers and parents. This suggests that where there are significant numbers of NGOs in conflict situations, such as in Uganda, and a state organised education system, they take a similar role in relation to education as in other societies; namely, a focus on advocacy and particular types of provision, such as for disadvantaged young people. This suggests that provision of education is perceived as the responsibility of government with the NGOs playing, at most, a supporting role. There is very little NGO advocacy for increased ABE provision in northern Uganda which suggests that this is not a role which NGOs see as a priority for them.

In the post-conflict situation, there is likely to be a rapid increase in the number of indigenous NGOs, partly as a response to the increased availability of funds and the need of international agencies and INGOs for partners. The growth of civil society may be focused on ABE provision, in which case there is a need to find ways of improving the capacity of the NGOs and creating the opportunity for learning from the lessons of innovative, but often, small and discrete initiatives.

4.5 The private sector

In conflict situations the private sector is unlikely to operate, as anyone capable of paying for the education of a child is also likely to be able to pay for them to leave the conflict area for somewhere safer. Conflict zones do not appear to offer the opportunity for the development of a market in education except in some long term emergencies during which some social groups have access to significant resources (such as in Somalia).

However, there are African countries emerging from conflict in which the private sector plays an important role in educational provision. It is useful to identify what are the requirements for this to happen and its implications for the state provision of education and issues such as the language of instruction and vocational training.

Somalia is a prime example of a situation in which private provision of education is significant; in the south because there is a lack of a state to provide education but some resources which people wish to invest in the education of their children, and in Somaliland where there is limited state provision of education and again some people have resources to invest in children's education.

There are consortia of private schools in Somalia which have collaborated to develop a unified syllabus and assessment system. This demonstrates a feature of all 'isolated' educational systems; the emphasis on having a form of assessment which is accepted by the 'outside' world and will enable their 'graduates' to escape the conflict and proceed further with their education. It is the emphasis on recognised assessment which makes parents and guardians willing to invest in such an education.

In Somaliland there is considerable provision of private education in the large towns. It is estimated that 60% of the primary schools in Hargeisa are private. This suggests that in towns there are sufficient households with access to a cash income who are willing to invest in the education of their children, to make possible the development of a flourishing private sector. They are often returnees from abroad or households receiving remittances from the diaspora (Lindley, 2005a:10).

These figures also suggest both that state provision of primary education is very short of the demand and that there are doubts as to its quality among those with the ability to pay for education. Private schools are perceived to offer a higher quality of education, mainly because they attract the best and most committed teachers through higher salaries.

In Somaliland there is some limited control of private schools by the Ministry of Education. A characteristic of private schools in Somaliland is that the language of instruction is English or Arabic whereas the state schools teach in Somali. This obviously reflects the demands of those paying for education and has some implications for the development of Somali and the social distinction between those educated under different systems.

In another situation in which private schools have developed, Juba, under the Government of Sudan, there is also a question about the language of instruction used. It has been estimated that there are 45 private primary schools in Juba, using English as their language of instruction rather than the Arabic used in the state primary schools. This suggests that in Juba there are sufficient households able to pay for the education of their children to demand education in their preferred language of instruction, even in the circumstances of occupied Juba.

Where there is a demand backed by ability and willingness to pay, the private sector will provide ABE in the form of certain kinds of vocational training. It is striking that in the towns of Somaliland and northern Uganda that there is considerable private provision of computer skills training which is seen as an investment in the future. This is a rational perception as these skills are increasingly needed by international agencies, government and the private sector and are scarce in post-conflict situations.

4.6 International agencies and the reconstruction of basic education

The literature on education in conflict and emergencies stresses that one of the most striking characteristics of the funding and management of education in African countries emerging from conflict is the role of international agencies in the direct provision of education, either with the limited mediation of the state administrative structure for education or outside it (Sommers, 2003; Bird, 2003:2).

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A characteristic of the 'map' of external agencies in countries in conflict is the absence of bi-lateral government agencies which may be deterred by the uncertainty, physical danger and the contentious issue of which claimant to be the legitimate government to recognise. Even if the difficulties of working in countries emerging from conflict did not deter bi-lateral agencies, there is the prevailing interpretation of 'humanitarian aid' as not including education for which southern Sudan has been a 'test case' (DFID, 2002). This means that the multi-lateral UN agencies with relevant responsibilities are likely to be the major international agencies. They may assume an unusual importance as the only providers of external resources to a distressed and isolated population. In relation to the education sector, UNICEF and UNESCO are likely to be the most important. The division of labour between them is clear in theory but may present a problematic issue for co-ordination on the ground and for those officials and organisations which have to deal with them (Sommers, 2003: 45).

In the past, in situations defined as humanitarian emergencies, the priorities for intervention have been the provision of relatively clean water, food and basic medical facilities. Education has been perceived as a 'second order issue'. This is now changing as is demonstrated by the growing debate around minimum standards for education in emergencies, chronic crises and early reconstruction (INEE, 2004).

One characteristic of 'emergency situations' is that individual managers of lead agencies, their commitment and personalities, can play a significant role in co-ordinating the activities of their own and other providers and in obtaining resources for education and the training of young people if they are committed to providing assistance.⁴

UN based programmes for 'emergency situations' are generated and planned more easily outside the country itself, because the situation on the ground is not one in which UN agency staff can operate. As conflict ends, the situation does not immediately lend itself to a different approach. One of the most important challenges of the transition to 'emerging from conflict' is a shift from the emergency provision of education to something more like education planning in 'normal' states. Funding for education in emergencies is difficult to obtain within agencies and is insecure. The impact of this pressure on the way in which they operate in the field is suggested by the interviews with international agency staff responsible for operations in southern Sudan and Somaliland, based in Nairobi, in Appendix 3.

A feature of the publications of international agencies on the reconstruction of educational system after conflict is the emphasis placed on the opportunity this provides for 'reform' of the educational system to make future conflict less likely and to resolve the inadequacies of the pre-conflict educational system. This focus on the necessary link between 'reconstruction and reform' does not emerge clearly from the research as being shared by many of the communities and incoming administrations committed to the 'reconstruction' of education systems after conflict. This suggests that we need to deal with it as a preoccupation of the 'external agencies' in post-conflict situations and analyse what is its impact on educational provision and access. The problematic nature of this coupling of reform with reconstruction is suggested by Sommers' articulation of a concept of 'reconstruction' as "an education to resemble to some degree at least, its pre-conflict predecessor" (2003:23).

⁴ The evidence for the influence of individual levels of commitment and competence within international agencies is substantial but largely anecdotal. The difference between effectiveness and levels of activity between UNICEF offices is often explained with reference to these factors.

The interpretation of the appropriate 'degree' of resemblance to the pre-conflict educational system which is appropriate can be contentious. The determination of international agencies to remake the basic education system as part of reconstruction to conform to prevailing international development discourse ideas of how education needs to be 'child centred', involve active learning and 'learner centred pedagogy', imposes an additional burden on inexperienced incoming administrations and is unlikely to make them receptive to embracing innovative ABE initiatives which will create an even greater burden for them.

Post-conflict incoming administrations are generally inexperienced, lack resources and are confronted by great and unmeetable expectations from communities which have suffered from being in the middle of long term conflict or returnees whose expectations have been raised by the excitement around the outbreak of peace which centre largely around the reconstruction of formal basic education. They are also confronted by the international agencies with which they have some previous experience and many new international agencies who have little or no experience of the country and which wish to participate in providing the 'peace dividend'. The need to co-ordinate agencies with different, and sometimes incompatible agenda which have optimistic and unrealistic ideas of how long it takes to implement interventions in a post-conflict situation. This poses an immense burden on the new state and problems with implementing the international agency programmes are customarily explained as being due to the lack of capacity of the administration. In relation to international agency interventions in the post-conflict period, it needs to be asked how far they increase the capacity of the incoming administration to plan and manage basic education and to what extent they incapacitate the new state. The burden this imposes also has implications for the willingness of post-conflict administrations and international agencies to initiate ABE activities in which the 'risk' of failure is perceived to be even higher.

The international agencies are important players in the reconstruction of education in most post-conflict situations. Somaliland may be a significant exception. Thus, issues of co-ordination and management tend to be the issues of co-ordination and management of the international agencies. However, it is helpful to place the international agency concerns within a wider context and further issues of co-ordination involving the different providers of post-conflict education are discussed in 4.9 below.

4.7 International non-governmental organisations and the reconstruction of basic education

In situations of conflict, INGOs are often the only providers of education, either using their own resources or acting on behalf of multi-lateral agencies such as UNICEF or UNHCR. They work with communities to provide education which is a signifier of possible future normality where few other signs exist. This discussion centres on the range of INGOs represented in conflict and post-conflict situations, the way in which they work in such situations and the implications for the reconstruction of education including the significance of INGO initiatives in ABE and how these might have developed. There is a fuller discussion of the range of ABE initiatives in Chapter 5.

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There are different categories of INGOs working in ABE and formal basic education in conflict and post-conflict countries in Africa. Under conditions of conflict, the INGOs with a history of working in a country tend to stay until they perceive the situation to be too dangerous for their staff to work. As is discussed below, FBOs often stay longer than other INGOs. The INGOs working in education in conflict situations operate as humanitarian organisations and within that category, fall into three major types of INGO:

- INGOs with a general remit, including the alleviation of need in emergencies which includes conflict. They may also interpret this as requiring intervention in education, particularly ABE although this is not as effective in ensuring funding as addressing the 'basic needs of water, food, shelter and health';
- INGOs working with children and young people in many sectors. They are more likely to work education in conflict situations and to focus on formal basic education for school age children;
- INGOs with a specific remit to address the need for education, both formal basic education and ABE in conflict situations. These are small, specialised INGOs.

Under conditions of conflict, these categories of INGO tends to be on formal basic education; supporting communities in making a 'gesture' towards the normality they remember and to which they wish to return.

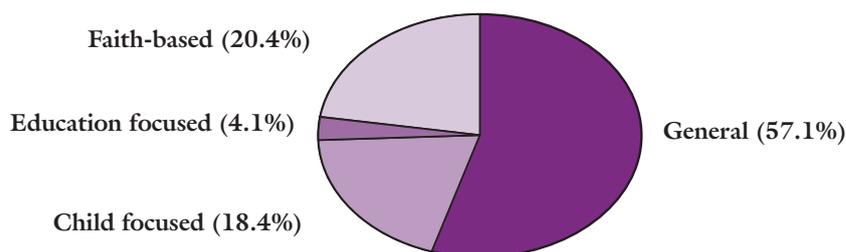
The transition from conflict to emerging from conflict to post-conflict is a gradual and fuzzy one without clear boundaries. A sign that a country is perceived by INGOs to be 'emerging from conflict' is that preparations are made for ABE to address the needs of young combatants and the 'missing generations' of young people which are a legacy of the conflict. There are also preparations for a shift from the provision of formal education in recognition of the role of the incoming administration for which formal basic education is the first sector for which it takes irresponsibility with the intervention of international and bi-lateral agencies. It is observed that INGOs which have helped to provide education in a conflict situation tend to remain during the post conflict period and reconstruction, although their role changes. As the state and international agencies take responsibility for and control of formal basic education, INGOs retain a commitment to the 'marginal activities' of ABE: ALS, flexible literacy and numeracy classes and informal education for disadvantaged groups which lack access to the emerging formal educational system. These are activities which are perceived to be important to prevent the outbreak of further conflict by providing an alternative route too recognition and income generation for young combatants, women and disabled people. However, there is no 'template' for developing and managing such ABE which relies for its effectiveness on being relevant to particular conditions, except for the experience of a given INGO has tried in other situations and the common knowledge of the discrete initiatives of other INGOs circulating around the sector.

The importance of context in explaining what happens in particular post-conflict situations, is illustrated by the fact that the study countries do not conform to this 'model' of INGO activity in the transition from conflict to reconstruction of the education sector, although they each illustrate some aspect of the approach outlined:

- Somaliland has a small number of INGOs because of its problematic legal status and determination of the Government of Somaliland to control formal basic education. There are innovative ABE programmes run by a few INGOs which have a reputation for developing ABE programmes appropriate to the Somaliland situation;
- Southern Sudan has been in conflict for a long time and there was no uncontested educational system prior to the civil war to which communities wish to return. The 'normal' situation has therefore been a situation without a state in which 'formal' basic education has been provided by communities helped by INGOs in some cases. The situation is characterised by the activity of a number of large INGOs with a remit to support children and young people, including in emergencies and a large number of smaller FBOs. This means that there was a lack of an educational system. The focus has been mainly on formal education even in the transition to peace as the needs are so great;
- In Uganda there are a large number of INGOS, many Ugandan NGOS with experience of ABE and a formal basic educational system under the control of the Government of Uganda. In northern Uganda INGOs have been mainly concerned with the provision of emergency assistance to the population in the IDP camps which has not included education. Ugandan NGOS and community organisations have provided sporadic ABE on a small scale. A sign, perhaps, that the end of the conflict is envisaged is that an increasing number of INGOs are seeking to provide ABE and vocational training in the towns and IDP camps of northern Uganda.

This pie chart of the categories of INGO providing education in Somalia gives an idea of the extent to which education in conflict and post-conflict situations is provided by INGOs which do not 'specialise' in educational provision.

Fig 1: Chart showing the Categories of INGOs with Education Programmes in Somalia



A characteristic of INGOs providing education in conflict situations is the importance of Faith Based Organisations (FBOs), such as Muslim INGOs in Somaliland and Christian INGOs in southern Sudan and northern Uganda. This partly reflects the religious affiliations of the population. In addition, the personnel of FBOs often stay after other organisations withdraw from the conflict and come back first, or may never leave, which strengthens their reputation and influence in communities which feel abandoned by the international community.

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The configuration of INGOs, and FBOs in particular situations, has a considerable influence on the pattern of provision inherited by communities and administrations after conflict and this can differ according to the pre-conflict situation and the length of the conflict.

For example, in Somaliland, International Muslim NGOs (for example, the Africa Muslims Agency (Kuwait), World Assemblies of Muslim Youth (Saudi Arabia) and the Red Crescent of the UAE) are important in providing education (Novib/World Association of Muslim Youth: 2004). Appendix 4 provides a categorisation of INGOs and NGOs providing different types of education in Somalia. It is striking how important are 'general' NGOs without a specialisation in education, and FBOs.

In southern Sudan, there has been considerable intervention in educational provision by a wide range of FBOs, influenced by the length of the conflict, the religious affiliation of the southern Sudanese and the lack of any other source of education. Some of these providers are large organisations, some are very small. The result is a very complex map of formal basic education provision with districts often having more than five FBOs funding schools, some working in a few districts and others working over the more than one region. There is also an issue of 'territoriality' in that for logistical reasons an FBO provider will often make sure that its schools are grouped together in a few districts or one region. The implications of this tendency will be discussed below as creating a particular challenge for an incoming educational administration.

In northern Uganda, faith based organisations of various denominations have a strong presence with Catholic organisations predominating because of the religious affiliations of the Acholi people. They have an important role in formal basic education in collaboration with the district education officers. It is also these organisations, with some other INGO involvement, which have developed ways of addressing the educational and training needs of children and young people affected by the conflict; through shelters for the 'night commuters' and such vocational training for young people as exists, including former abductees in the strange, long 'non-emergency' of northern Uganda.

To take two other African examples, in Rwanda the post-conflict government has a distrust of many INGOs as a result of their perceived role in the aftermath of the Genocide. 71% of primary schools are *libre subsidie* schools run by the two main religious organisations and funded by the state. There is a lack of NGO ABE initiatives which may reflect the difficulty of organising community activities in the aftermath of community conflict. In Liberia, in contrast, there is a relatively high level of vocational training because of the leading role of a FBO with long term vocational experience.⁵

4.8 Co-ordination and management issues for INGOs in post-conflict situations

There is a challenge to all INGOs as to how to continue their educational activities in the new conditions of educational reconstruction and the incoming state and for the state and the

⁵ See details of Don Bosco Polytechnic and Don Bosco Rehabilitation and Skills Training Programme (DBRSTP) in Liberia section of Don Bosco website, www.donbosco.org

international agencies of how to incorporate them into the new framework for basic education. For many INGOs, one crucial aspect of this is how to adapt the 'territorial' basis of their educational provision to a new and rapidly changing situation.

A characteristic of educational provision by INGOs during conflict which tends to persist into the post-conflict period is what might be called the 'territorial or spatial imperative' or a tendency towards 'zoning'. In conflict situations there is a tendency for INGOs to organise their education provision spatially, so that schools or learning centres are adjacent or at least near each other. Where INGOs obtain funding from international agencies, this model of provision makes it easier for the funder to track the outcome of the intervention. This makes sense in insecure situations and makes management simpler. This model does however create problems for the post-conflict reconstruction of education. In southern Sudan, it has created the situation described by Sommers as "the lack of co-ordination between local education systems in different geographic areas" (2004:12) and by one of the respondents in this research as "conflict is created by fragmentations, by adopting a regional focus, agencies are strengthening cleavages".⁶

There is an alternative model of intervention, even in conflict situations which deals with the situation as a 'national' issue and looks to distribute resources equally between regions, districts etc. This usually means having less control over individual schools, involves more liaison with communities and whatever range of institutions need to be consulted and spreads resources more thinly. It has the advantage of ensuring a more equal distribution of resources and avoiding the problematic situation where individual INGOs 'own' or are responsible for the primary schools in a particular district or region.⁷

In the post-conflict reconstruction of basic education, one requirement is that the state educational administration is able to exercise some control over schools in order to create a uniform system of basic education and assessment. This process is more difficult when different organisations have been running schools, without supervision, in different zones and this model has been implicitly accepted and used by the funding agencies to distribute resources. Southern Sudan is probably the most extreme example of this type of zoning provision and this is likely to present serious problems for the development of a unified, coherent and expanding formal basic educational system.

This issue of the zoning of educational provision and the problems it creates for developing a unified basic educational system, presents a challenge to providers of ABE. One of the most important requirements of ABE provision is that it needs to be adapted to local conditions and culturally appropriate. This means that it is not possible nor appropriate to have a standardised system of ABE on the same lines as a formal basic educational system and we need to develop ways of developing the exchange of information and best practice which will make it possible to adapt and scale up innovative interventions.

Here are approaches which different international agencies and INGOs stated that they have learned from the experience of participating in the reconstruction of education in the case countries in this research:

⁶ Interview UNHCR staff, Nairobi, May 2005

⁷ See OCHA Sudan Transition and Recovery Database, August 2005. For Aweil East County, for example, of 78 schools, 13 are supported by SCF-UK and there are five other agencies supporting education in the county.

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- agencies which are moving into post conflict countries to establish basic education programmes should undertake full consultation with a range of actors who have experience and expertise in working in that country;
- agencies can devolve responsibilities to local partners and local education authorities to manage programmes and budgets, when the local capacity and commitment has been established;
- when community members are mobilised and organised, and develop project ideas themselves, their commitment to making the project a success and sustainable will be higher;
- agencies must be flexible in their approach to target groups when working in post conflict situations, such as working with community structures when a government system has not yet been established, or expanding the age range of beneficiaries when it is clear that need exists;
- involving communities during the planning stage and listening to and implementing their ideas can prevent local clashes and can improve the scope of the programme.

4.9 General issues of co-ordination issues in education in African countries emerging from conflict

The transition from emergency education as part of humanitarian aid to development funded education is a difficult one. Many of the difficulties of this transition are discussed under the 'proxy' heading of 'co-ordination'. It is striking what improvements to planning and provision are expected to take place as a result of 'better co-ordination' (Minear, 1992).

Co-ordination is perceived to be one of the major issues of educational provision during and after conflict. It covers a wide range of wide ranging issues such as the role of the state and co-ordination between agencies and more particularly, some manifestations of the problem such as securing a common method of paying teachers or certification (Sommers, 2003: Bird, 2003: 43).

One sign that a country is emerging from conflict is that aid agencies which have not been willing to address educational and other needs in a 'conflict zone' wish to participate in the reconstruction of education. A lesson which has been learned from previous experience of reconstruction after conflict, in Sierra Leone for example, is that of the need for co-ordination between donors. There are now a number of attempts to develop co-ordination between agencies to reduce elements of competition and duplication, develop the capacity of the incoming administration, maximise the impact of reconstruction and develop short and long term strategic planning and implementation processes (Sinclair, 2002). Greater awareness of the problems of co-ordination enables us to focus on on what might become the next phase of identifying problematic issues, namely what level of resources of time and people it is appropriate to devote to 'co-ordination' in situations of great educational need.

In Sierra Leone, the UN has co-ordinated the various international agencies working in different sectors to prepare for the withdrawal of UN forces and incorporate the priorities of the Sierra Leonean government into this strategy. This has been assisted by the limited number of such agencies working in the country and the long-term links they have had with the Sierra Leonean

government. The large numbers of INGOs working in the country is also an issue. The unusual level of co-ordination between ECHO and USAID in Sierra Leone has been noted (Sommers, 2003:25). This 'Sierra Leonean model' has apparently been selected as the basis for international agency action and co-ordination in southern Sudan where the available resources and relationships between organisations may not be as conducive as in Sierra Leone to cooperation between agencies.

This research shows that although there are general issues of co-ordination which are well covered in the literature, the context within which co-ordination takes place may vary widely. In our country studies, Somaliland has not had access to significant bilateral funds for the reconstruction of the educational sector. In the Somaliland case, this has severely limited the resources available for education. It is also difficult to assess what would have happened with access to more funding. It does however seem that the lack of pressure from many large, impatient funders has provided space for the Ministry of Education to play a more significant role in setting priorities and planning for the education system, even if this consists mainly in liaising with international agencies. The major challenge for the Somaliland Ministry of Education is co-ordinating with UNESCO, UNICEF and the EU. This problem is intensified by the difficulty UNICEF and UNESCO appear to have in delineating their respective areas of responsibility (Sommers, 2003: 45).

Southern Sudan is one of the most important challenges for co-ordination by the international aid community to develop the long term capacity of the Secretariat of Education and provide compatible immediate provision to address the needs of communities which have been deprived of education for more than two decades.

The process of coordination in Southern Sudan is already extremely complex. There are already at least six co-ordinating bodies, which are likely to involve at least 250 people, working within education in addition to the two major coordinating bodies (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Government of Southern Sudan, 2005). All external agencies face considerable problems in working in countries emerging from conflict. One of the main objectives is to reconstruct the system of formal primary education to enable incoming governments to demonstrate their capacity and to meet the demands of communities. Most of these stakeholders have a remembered 'picture' to which they refer to identify the type of primary school system they wish to establish. There will be differences between them in terms of the organisation and assessment structure they prefer and the level of resources they perceive as appropriate for reconstruction, but these may be resolvable.

The particular range of challenges facing the Ministry of Education, the international agencies and INGOs will depend on which issues are potentially contentious in different situations. The issues of strategic planning, gathering data and so on identified by Minear (1992) may be difficult to implement but it is the attempt to develop a 'standardised' educational system from the ad hoc situation which existed during conflict and the differing educational experiences of returning refugees and IDPs which is likely to create the greatest challenge for a structure of co-ordination.

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Identifying the crucial issues which 'co-ordination' needs to address, also requires some attention to 'context', to identify what are likely to be the difficult issues in particular situations. Language of instruction is not a controversial issue in the public education system of Somaliland. Developing a recognised school examination system is a challenge. The experience of southern Sudanese returnees from DRC, Uganda, Kenya and northern Sudan means that the issue of language of instruction and accreditation of teachers and students is a more difficult issue in southern Sudan. These policy issues are the responsibility of governments but it is the test of a co-ordination structure whether it supports the process of policy making and implementation in these areas, makes it more intractable or assists in the postponement of difficult issues.

In relation to ABE for young people who have missed the chance for formal schooling, there is some agreement about what is important – literacy and numeracy, vocational training and life skills – but far fewer examples upon which to build. It is significant that Accelerated Learning is regarded with some enthusiasm. It has the advantage for governments and international agencies of following closely the structure of formal education and thus posing fewer problems of planning and implementation than, for example, relevant vocational training but is appropriate to a relatively narrow band of young people who are able and have the educational background to attend intensive classes. It also counts towards the achievement of EFA targets. However, ALS is difficult to combine with generating an income which is necessary for many young people in post-conflict situations.

4.10 Conclusion

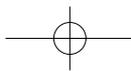
The major challenges of providing education in a conflict situation and reconstructing an educational system after conflict have been identified many times in the literature. Some of the crucial issues centre around the problem of securing coordination between the different agencies and the state and identifying an appropriate role for INGOs within this framework. There is some evidence that this has led to the building of appropriate frameworks of co-ordination but also, as may be the case in southern Sudan, that the complex architecture of co-ordination has become an end in itself and a hindrance to actual reconstruction of the educational system.

The analysis of the role of communities in providing education during conflict and their commitment to the reconstruction of education systems and the role of education managers when they have the opportunity and resources to adapt the educational system to their own conditions is a sign of the resources potentially accessible for the reconstruction of basic education after conflict.

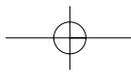
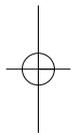
The discussion of the way in which educational provision is addressed by the different 'players' involved, communities, the state, NGOs, international agencies and INGOs shows that for communities and the incoming state the development and expansion of basic education is central to the general process of reconstruction. However, the emphasis is on formal basic education for school age children and the need for rebuilding schools and, to a lesser degree, training teachers and, developing new syllabae, materials and assessment systems. ABE is marginal in conflict situations in which it is a struggle for any education to be provided. It is given greater rhetorical priority in the process of moving from conflict to post-conflict as it is perceived as having a link

with sustaining the peace but there are few examples accessible of how it should be organised and delivered. In the post-conflict period, ABE tends to be marginalised as communities and the state focus on the need to provide formal basic education for children to ensure the future of their children. The resources this requires 'crowds out' a consideration of ABE. For similar reasons the delivery of the resources for the reconstruction of the formal basic education becomes the main concern of the international and bi-lateral agencies developing a 'partnership' with the incoming administration. In spite of the recognition of its importance in a post-conflict situation and expressions of commitment to it, ABE, therefore, becomes a concern of INGOs and NGOs. These initiatives are often innovative, adapted to the local situation and, potentially, could be scaled up.

One problem is clearly to overcome the lack of awareness of communities, states and international agencies of the potential ways in which ABE might be delivered as an intrinsic part of the reconstruction of education. A more fundamental issue is the need to develop strategies for persuading communities and incoming states that it is possible to learn from innovative practice to develop innovative ways of providing ABE to the benefit of individuals and communities without detracting from their desire to provide their children with a formal basic education which was not possible during the conflict, as the major symbol of the end of conflict and the beginning of peace. This requires NGOs and INGOs to develop their advocacy strategies and skills in disseminating their own and others' past experience and best practice in ABE provision and to create creative links with relevant international agencies. It also requires a recognition of the reasons for the emphasis on formal basic education and a willingness to negotiate in order to discover what is possible in relation to ABE on the part of international agencies and INGOs.



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Chapter 5: Approaches to Alternative Basic Education

5.1 Introduction

The empirical research shows that a wide variety of factors affect access to basic education, and these include poverty, political insecurity, deliberate social exclusion (based on religion, ethnicity, gender), ill health, lack of resources, livelihoods, inaccessibility (especially in rural areas) and HIV/AIDS. Although these obstacles are found in 'better performing' environments, they are magnified in the countries emerging from conflict. The lack of coordination and commitment for programmes for over-age youth and adults amongst donors and governments creates a void in provision. The aim of this chapter is to identify the diverse group of target beneficiaries and to share their views about their expectations of basic education. It also highlights promising examples or models of alternative approaches to basic education, in relation to 'access' to educational provision, and concludes with some issues of funding, coordination and management.

Throughout the research we have focused upon specific target beneficiaries which include:

- youth (over school-age);
- adults;
- ex child soldiers and other combatants;
- abducted girls;
- children;
- young people and adults with disabilities;
- orphans.

These wide and diverse groups are among the age group in which we are most concerned – over-age young people who missed the chance to obtain a formal schooling and adults who never had access to basic education. As we have seen throughout our research, Alternative Basic Education is not a priority among governments and donors; the focus tends to be on children of school age and formal education. This strategy denies access to a significantly large, diverse and vulnerable population. This is contrary to the EFA guidelines of ensuring access and education for all, in particular, ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate life skills programmes, and achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adults literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic continuing education for all adults (EFA Dakar Goals, 2000).

The case for investing in educational opportunities for war affected adolescents is argued by Lowicki who advocates that education should be:

non-formal, flexible, participatory, situation based, equitably available for both boys and girls, useful, age-specific, gender-specific, linked to realistic employment opportunities, rapid, related to peace-building initiatives and reconciliation efforts. Significantly, it needs to reflect the needs, and be relevant to the circumstances, of the youth (1999: 47).

Although the importance of ABE provision is recognised both by international agencies and local NGOs, donors are often reluctant to invest in ABE which they perceive as a 'development

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issue'. However, the quotation below from a senior education adviser in southern Sudan illustrates the view that education is one way of trying to alleviate the threat of violence and provide incentives to those who have missed out:

Provision of basic education is a way of avoiding to have the lost generation which could be a threat to basic stability, it is also fundamental to economic development of the country. At least it is the making of the self-discipline for the young generation, who would otherwise be delinquent. It is a way of washing the scars of the civil conflict from the minds of young people and creating hope for the parents.
(Interview with Senior Education Officer, Yambio)

This quotation reiterates the point Machel (1996) raises in her seminal work on the impact of armed conflict on children. She emphasises the lack of educational involvement and opportunity for war affected adolescents and provides recommendations for the protection, care and security of adolescents.

Although we can argue a case for ABE, resources are severely limited and the expectation of many ABE programmes is that the community will volunteer to provide teachers and facilitators to deliver the programmes. As illustrated in southern Sudan, by the education officer interviewed above:

Lessons learned from Yambio in terms of provision of basic education is that the community needs to be receptive of education, taking the challenge to teach without unified syllabus/curriculum and the willingness to volunteer regardless of incentives.

Community support and the ethos to volunteer are important factors in ABE programmes. Many programmes rely on the goodwill of volunteers; however, they also expect the government, donors, INGOs and local NGOs to help. Many of the volunteers after a while expect some sort of 'incentive'. This is reaffirmed in recent research in southern Sudan (Sommers, 2006). In the longer term, volunteer teachers/facilitators hope they will be rewarded for their efforts.

One theme that emerges from our research is how to work with youth (male and female) who have been formerly abducted, as in northern Uganda, or children who were child soldiers in southern Sudan. These are some of the most vulnerable groups. However, this research suggests that although their voices must be heard they should not be singled out as a specific group. This is especially true for girls and women, for they are often ignored. In Sierra Leone, for example, girls and young women were under-represented in the demobilisation, disarmament and reintegration process (DDR). It is a challenge to balance the specific emphasis on a particular vulnerable group because of the fear of segregating or stigmatising them. This point was enhanced through an interview with a UNICEF representative discussing educational strategies for northern Uganda. It was noted that if you decide to implement a programme targeting only the abducted children, you will be segregating them as a group and this will open the way for stigma to set in. The challenge is how to target them without singling them out; this is also the case with HIV/AIDS orphans and other extremely vulnerable groups.

5.2 Educational provision

As discussed previously, it is the international and local NGOs who provide most of the educational opportunities for the 'lost generations' of men and women who missed out on education because of conflict. In most instances, they are also responsible for providing the only educational opportunities to some of the most disadvantaged and marginalised, such as those with disabilities. The role of faith based organisations in the provision of education for some of the most vulnerable is evident in all country studies. It is important to note that in many cases, the only access to education during conflict was provided through faith based organisations and smaller NGOs, and in some instances, by local community initiatives such as the community schools in southern Sudan.

There are various educational providers in the delivery of ABE in countries emerging from conflict. It has been recognised by most agencies consulted during the research that women, young men, soldiers, refugees and IDPs have all been denied the basic human right to be entitled to a basic education. There is a consensus that these are vulnerable groups. As a result, some agencies have focused primarily on non-formal or alternative education programmes for these disadvantaged groups, whereas others have focused specifically on children of school-age and formal education. The divergence between smaller NGOs and major international donors is an important theme in understanding the management and funding of alternative flexible approaches.

However, there has also been recognition that young people (who had no previous formal education) have the right to be integrated back into the formal system and international INGOs such as SAVE and CARE implemented Accelerated Learning Programmes. These programmes use the formal curriculum and condense 8 years of schooling into 4 years. The courses are intended to act as a 'bridge course' that allow young people to access formal education and to reach a certified level of educational achievement. These programmes are most effective for school-age children and not over-age youth.

There are various perceptions from those who missed out about access to educational opportunities and who should provide basic education to the wide range of beneficiaries. On the one hand there are the expectations of those who fought during the 'armed struggle' to be given an education as a reward or in recognition for their contribution during the struggle. For example, in southern Sudan it was shown that there are over 100 former demobilised child soldiers in Yambio Country; they have formed an association known as the Demobilised Child Soldiers Club. The aim of their club is to enable them to share their experiences and lobby for free education. A contrary view which was expressed in Puntland was why should we reward those who fought and maimed whilst others did not? The research, however, shows that ex-combatants and formerly abducted children are some of the most vulnerable in the society.

In northern Uganda, a concern of the government is that many former abductees have simply given up their educational aspirations because they are aware of the obstacles they have to surmount. They face stigma even within their own families and have no money to pay for school fees. There is high demand for non formal education especially vocational training by formerly abducted women because they have the additional responsibility of looking after their babies and need training in some sort of livelihood (interview with Senior Government Adviser).

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5.3 Expectations of young and adults in countries emerging from conflict

A novel contribution of this research is that the local researchers were able to collect empirical data on the expectations and perceptions of youth and adults about education. In some cases, it was extremely difficult because of the horrific circumstances that some of the youth have experienced. The physical abuse and psycho-social trauma that they endured cannot be over-emphasised. However, through carefully selected interviews and focus group discussions, the 'voices' of the youth and adults were recorded. Below are selected examples of their past experiences and future expectations.

5.3.1 Northern Uganda

Children abducted by the LRA face enormous challenges in reintegration into the formal education sector. Many school going children were abducted from school, and their education has been disrupted for many years. Access to education is limited after they escape because they are older than school-age and are 'too big' to enter in primary school. In addition, abductees are often feared by the community because of the atrocious acts they were forced to carry out. The psycho-social trauma they experienced is often ignored and very few opportunities are available for them to reintegrate into the education sector. The following interview illustrates the difficulties the youth have experienced.

AG 17 yrs: abducted in P7 just before his public examinations. He remained in captivity for two years. On escaping he found that both parents had been killed and he had no home to return to. He has therefore commenced life in an IDP camp. He also feels that students who have been abducted should be educated with other students and not separated, particularly when peace comes. He feels that primary education is particularly important but he also feels that other skills should be included in primary education e.g. driving, tailoring, brick laying. He feels that this would encourage independence and that people should be able to find employment even in the absence of academic education. He stated that if he had acquired such skills prior to his abduction he would by now be employed. However, the subjects studied up to P7 have not equipped him for the labour market. He wonders what the future holds for those who are unable to continue after P7.

5.3.2 Southern Sudan

My father was killed when I was 10 years old and we ran and stayed in a village with my mother. I was in Class 3 Arabic pattern but then no school after that. Despite staying far from town, people still didn't feel secure because our village was near the main road that links Rumbek and Yirol towns.

I wanted to continue my school but it was not possible. However I heard that there were schools in refugee camps, but the problem was how to get there. I joined to stay with SPLA force with expectation that they would take me to where there may be schools which they did. When I was with them, I learned to shoot AKM rifle and other small guns.

I left the camp and continued my school up to class 5 and the subjects taught were in English. Before I go further, I heard news that my mother became mad and died in the village. For that reason, I stopped school and came back home.

To my surprise, I found my mother alive but actually she was close to death. She was very sick. Thank God that she didn't die. I ask myself of what to do to support my mother and younger sisters. So I decided to learn driving within SPLA though roads were very risky (of land mines) to drive on. I was lucky to survive.

When I heard about peace talks, I went to Uganda to attend driving school for the purpose of obtaining a recognised driving certificate so that I could get work with NGOs. I succeeded and I am now working for an organisation on land mine de-mining program. There is the potential for more training in this field focusing on land mines awareness and precautions.

I still have interest to go to school especially English Language Courses and other vocational and life skills training.

DSM – ex. Child Soldier in southern Sudan

The Sudanese example above depicts the expectations about education from an adolescent who had to drop out of school because of conflict, expectations from the SPLA and the new curriculum. Another significant point is that it illustrates the change from Arabic medium to English in the south. As a result there is a great demand for adult literacy courses not only from the uneducated but also from those who were educated; they now have to learn to read and write in English.

5.4 Promising examples of ABE

A continuous theme through this report is that most providers of basic education in post-conflict situations recognise the importance of providing ABE and training for young people who missed the chance to obtain formal schooling. However, the pressures of reconstructing formal education systems tend to 'crowd out' the chance to develop strategies for

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alternative basic education and training appropriate to particular circumstances. If we wish to find potentially useful examples of ABE, it is necessary to examine NGO initiatives in this field and to examine the NGOs who are developing creative interventions with potentially wider applications. This section discusses and analyses a few examples from our country studies that show innovative and flexible approaches being used to provide ABE programmes to some of the most marginalised and excluded from education in countries emerging from conflict (a more expansive list is found in Appendix 6). These ‘promising examples’ are culturally specific and adaptable and provide flexible learning opportunities. They also take into account the constraints of its learners: age, gender, and livelihoods.

5.4.1 Content

The content of what an ABE programme should offer is an important issue and one which is often debatable. As Brophy points out, “Concepts that were once referred to simply as adult education and non-formal education have in the past decade become more and more classified and sub-classified” (2004: 1). There are various approaches which aim to provide basic literacy and numeracy skills combined with life skills, but there are also those programmes which are specifically skills based.

Vocational training

There is almost universal agreement on the importance of vocational training in post-conflict situations and not many examples of successful interventions. In our research, it was shown that young people require a qualification in a specific skill which will lead to income generating activities. Vocational training includes practical skills in areas such as carpentry, masonry, agriculture, soap making, tailoring and catering. The duration of the training programmes varies, but what is important is that the learner receives a qualification or certificate upon completion. One promising example of a vocational programme can be found in northern Uganda. The programme is offered to formerly abducted mothers (FAMs) in Gulu. The programme aims to provide basic literacy and numeracy skills to FAMs and to train them in vocational training such as catering or tailoring. These skills are necessary to enable the young women to reintegrate into society and to earn a living. In addition, the school has a crèche for the young children of the FAMs. It also offers some counselling services because many of the young women have been through horrific acts of violence – physically maimed, emotionally scarred and raped. Some of the young women are also HIV positive. In an interview with the Director of the Centre, she said how difficult it was to work with young women who have been maimed, raped and lost their childhood. She asked me, “How do you tell a young woman who has gone through all this and has a small baby- that she has Aids?” This initiative provides a holistic approach and one that strives to not only teach a skill but also heal some of the emotional trauma that the young women have endured.

Significantly, there are very few promising approaches of ABE programmes in northern Uganda. After conducting field research in Bobi camp, one of the researchers raised the following point: “Most of those who return from captivity, on top of having lost their chances for formal education, came back maimed and therefore, physically unfit because of the harsh treatment. For this reason, even skills training may not be the best option for them unless a careful selection of

courses or training programmes is done according to the physical condition of the beneficiaries.’ He also raised a very important point about the inability to categorise education provided by NGOs to teachers and abductees since there is no clear indication on how it links with existing systems.

Another vocational initiative for youth in Somaliland is the vocational training courses offered by a local NGO, The Horn of Africa Voluntary Youth Committee (HAVOYOCO) based in Hargeisa. The original aim of the programme was to provide socio-economic re-integration to poor returnees; however, pupils in the formal schools who drop out of school also want to join their programmes. The age bracket is 17-30 years of age. Female trainees normally constitute one third of the beneficiaries. They normally publicise in the local media for the new intake. For the last intake, 2000 persons applied and 600 were short listed. They provide a test in Somali, mathematics and English, and the top 120 males and the top 60 females are given places. The programme was originally intended to benefit poor returnees, but it has shifted in catering to those who are educated and can pay for the courses. In an interview with the project officer, he comments on the demand for the programme and the conflict with its original intentions. ‘If we start to charge fees, accounting on popular demand for our courses there may be people who are willing to pay for the training which in that way would keep sustainable the vocational training programme but excludes the intended beneficiaries of the programme.’ This comment raises a serious issue about the funding of vocational training programmes and will be dealt with further in the chapter.

Accelerated Learning programmes

Accelerated Learning programmes, often described in the literature as ‘catch up’ courses, are used to provide a quick response to coping with the large number of children out of school. The programmes focus primarily on children and adolescents. In southern Sudan, the ALP course targets adolescents, 12-18 years of age, who missed out on formal education, such as demobilised child soldiers and young women. The syllabus is similar to the formal school, and 8 years of schooling is condensed into 4 years. It comprises the main syllabus of the New Sudan Curriculum with additional Life Skills Training such as HIV/AIDS awareness. The learning is flexible and accommodates multiple entry and exit points. The languages of instruction are mother tongue for Level 1 while the remaining levels are taught in English. After completing Level 4, the learners sit for the New Sudan Primary Education Certificate. If students complete the course, they are able to be integrated into the formal sector. These programmes are primarily devised for school-age children who were unable to gain access to the formal system, and can act as a bridge course back into the formal sector.

Another programme aimed at school-aged children in northern Uganda is the Complementary Opportunity for Primary Education Programme (COPE). The programme was developed by the Government of Uganda and the UNICEF country programme as an initiative to provide an alternative education strategy specifically designed to equip out-of-school children who are unable to participate in the formal education system with basic literacy, numeracy and life-coping skills. The programme is community based and targets young people aged 8-14 years of age and the priority is to reach female students. Recent research has shown that the quality of education and performance varies considerably between districts based on factors such as community involvement and mobilisation, technical capabilities, and support from local councils.

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Adult education

Educational statistics show that the vast majority (90%) of adults in southern Sudan and Somaliland are illiterate and have had no formal education. Although the demand for adult education is great, very few large scale initiatives have been developed. Adult education programmes centre on basic literacy and numeracy programmes and are normally short term. During field research, it was shown that the majority of learners were female.

Skills training: Computer courses

Many adults and young people are interested in acquiring skills in computer training because most office work requires a computer. It is an important skill in the growing global environment. Some organisations offer computer training mostly with basic packages such as Microsoft words, Excel, Access and power point. The duration always depends on the number of packages/ contents being delivered. In southern Sudan, there are 2 to 4 weeks courses. Sometimes a computer course is accompanied with English language teaching as to facilitate the process of the training especially for those with little English.

Intensive English language course for adults

English is the official language of instruction in southern Sudan, and there is a demand for many adults to learn it. Most adults including women attend English courses in order to help them at their work. This is conducted in two forms – either the students attend the classes for full time or for part time during the day time. The duration of the course differs from two weeks of teaching. Like wise the levels of the course differs in stages as there is a course for beginners, intermediate and Advance. The course level provided mostly deals with beginners and few for intermediate English stage. There are specific materials developed for different English language courses included audio-material. AET has developed for intermediate stage and SBEP is developing material for beginners.

5.4.2 Modes of delivery

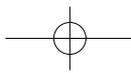
Radio is still the most widely used and accessible media in developing countries (Perraton, 2000). If it is combined with literacy, numeracy, and life skills it can reach large numbers of young people. Radio programming in Africa has developed phone-in programmes, dramas, audience participation which are particularly helpful for young people with a difficult past and problems of how to participate in the reconstruction of their society. Radio can be an informative and educating tool. Also in societies in transition from conflict, it provides a flexible way of reaching out to young people who cannot be reached by programmes with tutors and written materials such as in the IDP camps of northern Uganda or insecure communities in Somalia. This suggests that radio has an important role to play in ABE in countries in which there is regional conflict or an unpredictable security situation and that people will develop ways of using broadcasts and other materials adapted to their situation. One promising example which uses radio to provide basic education literacy, numeracy and life skills to out-of-school youth and adults who missed out or were denied access to conventional schooling is in Somalia. The project is known locally in Somali as ‘Macallinka Raddiya’ (Radio Teacher). It consists of a

three way approach which combines radio, print, and face-to-face teaching. Each week a thirty minute radio broadcast is aired after the BBC World Service News. There are two main aims of the programme: firstly, to help registered SOMDEL learners to improve literacy and numeracy skills; and secondly, to create an awareness and understanding of important health, nutrition, environmental, and human rights issues to listeners.

Through the radio programme, thousands of people throughout Somaliland and Somalia have access to education. This approach of distance and open learning provides a realistic and viable alternative when more conventional modes of delivery are not available. The broadcasts are in the form of 'edutainment' which makes learning a fun and informative experience. The broadcasts can reach parts of Somalia where conflict and fighting prevent other forms of educational delivery. Radios are ubiquitous and are 'moveable' items; this is especially significant amongst nomadic communities. In addition to radio programmes there is also face-to-face instruction with a trained facilitator. The teaching takes place in the afternoons so that women are able to attend; in many cases, these classes provide the only opportunity for a significant number of women to become literate and numerate. It is estimated that over 12,000 learners have completed the SOMDEL course (over 75% are female) and that thousands of listeners around Somaliland and Somalia tune in to the programmes. The SOMDEL programme is accessible to a wide range of the population because of the linguistic and homogeneity of the culture. Although distance education programmes have the potential to reach a large number of people in a cost-effective way, there have been no large scale initiatives to use distance teaching to increase access to basic education or literacy.

Vouchers for youth in Somaliland and Puntland

An important element of ABE is the provision of vocational training which can lead to income generating activities. A unique initiative is a programme which offers either vocational training or literacy to the over-age population in Somaliland is the Somali Education Incentives for Girls and Young Men (SEIGYM) voucher programme. The Africa Educational Trust devised an innovative project to address the need for access and quality education for young people in Somaliland and Puntland. The project supported local non-formal education committees to allocate educational vouchers to the most disadvantaged girls and young men in the community. Young people were empowered to use these vouchers for a course of their choice either educational or vocational. Some of the vocational training options include driving, computing, building, tailoring, hairdressing and henna design, and catering. The voucher method of organising training enables young people concerned to use their knowledge of the way in which the local labour markets are developing to organise their own training. Significantly, a number of places are reserved for the disabled and many have benefited from computing courses and other skills training.



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5.5 Obstacles affecting access to ABE programmes

There are several challenges facing access to ABE in countries emerging from conflict and these are well documented. However, certain factors which keep appearing are:

- *The relative safety and security of the country (or part of the country)*

This is especially true in northern Uganda where young girls are threatened with abduction and also have to cope with harassment from government soldiers. INGOs working in southern Sudan and Somaliland are mainly based in Nairobi and not in country.

- *The lack of psycho-social support*

Even after conflicts end, there are very few programmes which aid to alleviate the suffering and to deal with the post-traumatic stress that the communities have endured.

- *Poverty*

The economic factors affecting access to education are enormous. Even in towns where there are schools, enrolment is low. Child labour is still a necessity for survival in most households.

- *The lack of capacity to deal with the demand*

One of the themes emerging from the research is the lack of capacity in many countries to deal with the large numbers of children and adults. Statistical data are scarce, and there is very little information on current enrolment, number of children out-of-school and the adult population.

- *Lack of qualified and trained teachers*

The lack of trained and qualified teachers is severe. Teachers, who do have qualifications such as the proficiency to teach in English, are often snapped up by INGOs or placed in other professions. As illustrated in the Namibian research on teacher education, it was shown that the major issues affecting education reconstruction is that there were not enough trained teachers to teach and those who do have proficient English are given other jobs.

The issue of the lack of teachers who can teach in English is also a significant factor in the southern Sudan educational reform for both formal and informal programmes. There are several examples throughout the research, that trained teachers are often encouraged to volunteer their services to non-formal teaching and “to do something for their country” and to fill the gaps from the lack of trained teachers as well as the commitment for nation building.



5.6 Conclusion

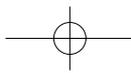
The provision of alternative basic education remains a challenging and daunting task. The demand for access to basic education is great in all countries emerging from conflict, but the resources are limited. Priority has been to focus on school-age children and to fulfil the Millennium Development Goals. Despite commitment to EFA targets, there is very little provision for those who are over-age and illiterate adults.

Our research illustrates some ‘promising’ examples which focus on the over-age and the so-called ‘lost generations’; however, there is still a lot to be done to meet the needs for this wide and diverse population. Further research is needed to look at the quality of the programmes being offered and to see what strategies are most effective for out-of-school youth.

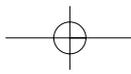
The various programmes described above offer flexible and alternative approaches that are culturally specific to diverse audiences. The evidence suggests that alternative education can reduce opportunity and direct costs, reduces costs of instructors, addresses traditional and cultural constraints, and increases educational provision. On the other hand, limitations such as the perception that it is inferior and “poor quality” convey a negative view of alternative basic education. In the research, one factor which emerged is the perception that many ABE approaches are gender-specific. In some cases, it was assumed that alternative approaches, such as adult literacy, are gender biased and that they cater more to females than males and this warrants further investigation.

Many of the innovative initiatives are being driven locally but with limited NGO funding; as a result these programmes will not be sustainable without significant support and funding from major international donors. As Brophy has shown from a review and analysis of ABE programmes in southern Sudan and Somaliland that a number of potential differences and tensions appear between the different organisations involved in these flexible approaches (2004:8).

Diverse programmes aimed at literacy and numeracy programmes and vocational and skills training have been identified, but the lack of resources and the lack of governments and international donors to focus on over-age have resulted in dissolution and despair for many. As we have seen, alternative basic education programmes for youths and adult non-formal education programmes are not priorities among governments and donors. There is an increasing demand for skills based training to improve the chance of acquiring income generating activities which are urgently needed. A significant finding which is emerging from the data is that it is not only important to make education accessible, but it is also important to make informed decisions of how best to educate the diversity of people and to meet their local demands.



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Chapter 6: Lessons Learned

6.1 Introduction

There are general lessons from this research which are relevant to the reconstruction of basic education in all countries emerging from conflict. These are outlined below in 6.2. There are also lessons from the country studies which have a wider applicability which are discussed in 6.3. These 'lessons' are relevant to all the participants in the process of reconstruction of basic education systems. Perhaps they could be of greatest use to the international agencies and INGOs which intervene in many African countries emerging from conflict and need a way of responding to the conditions of particular contexts within the framework of a wider concern with reconstructing basic education.

6.2 General lessons from the research

6.2.1 Context

In African countries emerging from conflict, it is necessary to understand the particular context in which educational reconstruction is taking place. The dimensions of context which have been identified as critical in this research is that of the often contradictory, perceptions of key issues which participants bring to the process of reconstruction of basic education and especially ABE. There are a number of issues which are common to post-conflict situations although they may present themselves in different forms:

- the accepted narrative of the conflict;
- the educational system prior to the conflict;
- the perception of the role of young people in the conflict and reconstruction;
- the way in which vulnerability is constructed.

It appears that the crucial distinction is between conflicts which are generally perceived to have been a 'war of liberation' and those which are regarded as 'insurgency/protracted low intensity conflicts'. In post-'liberation' societies, the reconstruction of the educational system is understood as the continuation of the liberation struggle by other means. In the case of 'insurgency', there is pressure to learn the lessons from the causes of the conflict to ensure that it does not recur. It will be interesting to see how the 'sacrifices' of the civil war influence the reconstruction of basic education in southern Sudan and how basic education in northern Uganda is reformed to ensure peace in the years ahead.

6.2.2 Policy and co-ordination

The following issues emerged as being essential to policy and co-ordination in post-conflict situations:

- It is important for emerging governments to establish a vision for their education system, which is developed through consultation with people from their communities, including civil society representatives, education experts, women's groups, parents, teachers and children.

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- Governments and communities should take a stronger leading role in directing international NGOs and donors as to how they want their education system to be established. Equally international NGOs, UN agencies and donors should be responsible to and answerable to governments and communities when supporting post conflict education systems.
- Stronger co-ordination and consortia between a range of agencies which bring complementary technical expertise and experience should be formed with genuine commitment.
- The role of communities in maintaining education for their children during conflicts should be given due recognition by governments and the international community in the post conflict context.
- Examples of good practice and quality programming should be shared between agencies and government ministries to ensure that continued duplication of efforts is prevented.
- Systems for monitoring progress of programmes – not only in terms of quantity but also for quality of education- need to be established.
- There is a need to identify appropriate ways of proceeding in ‘interim periods’, when the incoming government has limited control of international agencies and INGOs and there is no established structure within which to work. Waiting for a fully functioning architecture of co-ordination paralyses the beginning of reconstructing the education system.

Structures of co-ordination are needed which are cost and time effective and which do not become an end in themselves. They need to increase the capacity of the state without imposing unrealistic burdens on governments which are under pressure to deliver improved services in the very short term. This requires a consistent combination of stable long term planning for a unified educational system managed by the state with co-ordinated international assistance and provision for an immediate ‘transitional phase’ which provides improvements in service delivery in the near future.

It is possible that there is a scale of international intervention, involving large numbers of imperfectly coordinating donors with strong agendas of their own which is a great burden on incoming administrations and thus, counter-productive for the reconstruction of education. The experience of southern Sudan suggests that this is most likely to happen when there is an inexperienced Ministry of Education, fragmented and inadequate basic educational provision, heightened expectations as to the benefits of signing a peace treaty and a substantial increase of funding based on the ‘strategic’ importance of the country concerned. A contextual analysis that this is one of the most challenging situations for reconstructing an educational system would not necessarily lead to the conclusion that more and more layers of co-ordination are needed.

The Government of Somaliland would clearly like to have greater access to international resources but the fact that they were able to establish their own priorities, even if they lack the resources to implement them fully does appear to have been important for the development of the long term managerial capacity of the educational system. The situation in relation to external providers of basic education in southern Sudan at the present time is potentially damaging to the development of the Ministry of Education and the provision of ‘peace dividend’ Quick Impact Projects (QUIPs) which are consistent with long term development of policy and planning for basic education, including ABE.

6.2.3 Alternative Basic Education

Governments in countries emerging from conflict are primarily oriented towards the educational needs of school age children. They are subject to pressure from communities for whom this is also a priority and international agencies which see it as crucial for the achievement of EFA targets. This tends to marginalise ABE in spite of the consensus that literacy and vocational training for young people who have missed the opportunity to attend school is a crucial element of sustaining peace. There have been creative ABE initiatives in African countries emerging from conflict, usually undertaken by INGOs and on a small scale. The challenge is to identify initiatives which have worked and look for ways of scaling them up in keeping with the conditions of individual countries.

In the country studies of this research, it is striking that ABE has developed in a creative way which responds to the specific situation in Somaliland to a greater extent than in northern Uganda and southern Sudan. This is partly a function of the length of time since the conflict in these countries ended, and it is not yet possible to determine the commitment of the Secretariat of Education in southern Sudan and associated departments to the development of forms of ABE appropriate to southern Sudan. However, in northern Uganda where the need for ABE is widely recognised and there is a vibrant civil society and NGO sector, it is evident how few and small-scale the ABE and associated vocational training initiatives are. There have been creative educational responses to long term conflict situations in Uganda, but these are mainly adaptations of formal basic education. In the traumatic and unstable conditions of northern Uganda, the focus of commitment and creativity has been on the preservation of the formal basic education system under conditions of acute stress. There does not appear at present to be 'space' for the development of the ABE initiatives which are widely recognised to be essential.

When we began this research, it looked as though the content and quality of the education received by children and young people in African countries would form a significant part of the research. As the research has proceeded, it has become clear that this issue does not present itself in a clear manner in countries in which education has been delivered by multiple providers after a disrupted and often chaotic history and is now dependent on a range of disparate and often uncoordinated donors and providers. It is clear that the questions of standardisation of education syllabi, the creation of 'recognised' examination and certification systems and the selection of languages of instruction are crucial issues in many countries emerging from long periods of conflict. This may be how issues of 'content and quality' present themselves after long periods of isolation and conflict and they form a significant part of this report. It is not such a crucial issue in relation to the ABE sector except in terms of how assessment in this sector is compatible with that of the formal basic education sector and what recognition is given to ABE courses of study.

6.3 Lessons from the country studies

6.3.1 Northern Uganda

The decentralisation of significant aspects of educational administration and management in Uganda has proved crucial to the limitation of damage to formal basic education in northern

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Uganda. District Education Officers and their officials have been able to use their control of budgets to 'manage' the flight of rural schools to school compounds in the safer towns. In a more intangible but important sense, it has allowed for a mutual support between education officials, headteachers and parents in the search for ways of minimising the effect on children's education of the continuing conflict in the north. This sense of solidarity and mutual support has been especially important in the conflict in which children, teachers and schools have been the prime targets for LRA violence.

On the other hand the continuing 'emergency' nature of the existence of the majority of the northern population in IDP camps and the continuing insecurity of communication links with the camps appears, understandably to dominate the activity of international agencies in the region. This suggests that a level of security is necessary before fundamental issues of basic education can be addressed. This might be especially true in countries such as Uganda, where there is a well developed model of formal education in the parts of the country not affected by conflict which is not 'implementable' in the conflict districts.

This may be related to the particular configuration of international agencies in northern Uganda in which the Government of Uganda has not declared an emergency but 90% of the population have been living for an extended period in a distressed condition in IDP camps. Thus the international agency 'map' of UNICEF, WFP and emergency oriented INGOs resembles that which could be found in southern Sudan during the long civil war. It does not appear to be suited to the generation of long term ABE strategies to secure the future of young people and peace.

The lack of significant ABE initiatives in a situation in which it is widely recognised that they are vital for young people and to ensure a future peace, may also be related to the difficulty of fundamentally rethinking how to deliver ABE in a situation with a well developed model of education which does not give it the 'space' it needs in a conflict and post-conflict situation.

The conflict in northern Uganda has continued for nearly twenty years with continual and widespread intervention by the Ugandan People's Defence Force (UPDF) in the northern districts during this period. The exposure to the LRA and the UPDF has created high rates of HIV/AIDS among young people which it is recognised will have an impact on Acholi society for a long time. Without the development of an ABE programme with associated life skills and vocational training in the context of developing a strategy to reduce the hopelessness of the IDP situation, this cannot be addressed.

6.3.2 Somaliland

In the ten years since the 'war of liberation', Somaliland has had relative peace and security, a determination to demonstrate the effectiveness and probity of government and to pursue 'the war of liberation by other means' through reconstruction, including that of education. There has been limited access to external resources and because of the lack of international recognition of Somaliland, the configuration of international agencies has remained that of a conflict situation- specialised UN agencies plus a limited range of INGOs. But the Ministry of Education does have a strategic plan and the resources available to the basic education sector

include the support of communities in Somaliland, a committed Diaspora and an expanding private educational sector. The private sector is imperfectly regulated at present and is divisive in terms of language of instruction, access to teachers and quality of education but it does provide a template of what formal basic education can be where resources are greater than in the state system.

The ABE sector is larger and more creative in Somaliland than in many other post-conflict countries. It may be that a perception that a suffering population has been liberated in a common struggle is conducive to giving ABE a less marginal role than in other situations. ABE is widely perceived as an appropriate form of education for women and there is a danger that its very availability will reduce the urgency of increasing the enrolment of girls in formal schooling.

One lesson which has been learned from both Somaliland and southern Sudan is that, understandably, international agencies focus on basic education in post-conflict situations in which literacy and education provision is very low. However, after a long conflict, people look for signs that 'normality' is returning. In the educational sector, one important sign of returning normality is that 'prestige' secondary schools in which students can take internationally recognised examinations are re-opened. This perceived 'need' to see the educational system linked to the wider world through secondary and tertiary educational institutions has to be taken into account by the staff of international agencies determined to increase access to basic education for vulnerable groups and to reform education to address an agenda of 'poverty reduction'.

6.3.3 Southern Sudan

In the new situation of intensive external intervention in the basic education system of southern Sudan, it is important to recognise that communities have been supporting the education of their children over the past twenty years without significant outside support. Those communities need to be consulted as to the role they wish to play in the New Sudan. It is very important not to assume that they will be willing to assume a similar burden under conditions of peace and to engage in a dialogue with communities and educational managers as to what is their preferred and realistic contribution to the construction of a basic education system.

The post-conflict situation in basic education in southern Sudan is extremely challenging. There is not a generally agreed model of basic education prior to the conflict to which people wish to refer. People returning to the south have experience of widely different educational systems with a range of languages of instruction. And there are huge expectations of a quick 'peace dividend' in education to demonstrate that children will have a better future than their parents. The present configuration of international agencies in southern Sudan with a large number of agencies focused on liaising with each other and often setting criteria for disbursing resources not based on knowledge of conditions in southern Sudan are not helpful.

The experience of the other country studies suggests that the experience of 'winning' a war of liberation can be an important resource in reconstructing a formal basic educational system

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and for developing appropriate forms of ABE. The challenge for the agencies at present coordinating and competing for space in southern Sudan is to ensure that they create the conditions in which this 'resource' can be used to increase the access of children and young people to forms of basic education and Alternative Basic Education appropriate to southern Sudan.

6.4 Co-ordination and management issues

The research has raised issues concerning the manner in which the provision of basic education is co-ordinated and managed in conflict and post-conflict situation. The question of the demands of international agencies participating in the reconstruction of basic education on new administrations is important. The post-conflict burden on new and inexperienced administrations lacking resources is significant in explaining the process whereby ABE becomes marginalised and addressing this burden would need to be part of a strategy for making ABE a more central issue for the post-conflict reconstruction of basic education.

The following patterns/or examples offer interesting examples of approaches to basic education programming which it is recommended are further explored:

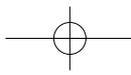
- agencies which are moving into post-conflict countries to establish basic education programmes should undertake full consultation with a range of actors who have experience and expertise in working in that country;
- agencies can devolve responsibilities to local partners and local education authorities to manage programmes and budgets, when the local capacity and commitment has been established;
- when community members are mobilised and organised, and develop project ideas themselves, their commitment to making the project a success and sustainable will be higher;
- agencies must be flexible in their approach to target groups when working in post-conflict situations, such as working with community structures when a government system has not yet been established, or expanding the age range of beneficiaries when it is clear that need exists;
- involving communities during the planning stage and listening to and implementing their ideas can prevent local clashes and can improve the scope of the programme.

6.5 Concluding remarks

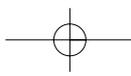
This research has demonstrated that issues of 'context' and the interrelationships between the providers of education in African countries emerging from conflict are important in determining the way in which educational reconstruction proceeds and the place occupied within this process by Alternative Basic Education. The range of explanations of the causes of the conflict, the view taken of what recognisable reconstruction of the basic education system would consist, the perception of the part played by young people in the conflict and their appropriate role in its aftermath and the hierarchy of value of different forms of vulnerability are all significant dimensions of 'context'. They are all largely dependent on the type of conflict and its length and the way in which it is conceptualised by important players in the post-conflict society.

The relationship between different educational providers in post-conflict situations is a particular one in which an under-resourced, inexperienced state, under pressure to create an educational 'peace dividend' for a population which has suffered long term insecurity and deprivation, has to deal with many other stakeholders. These include large international agencies with their own agenda for education and a range of International NGOs with varying degrees of experience of the country and the basic education sector. Both the state and the international agencies tend to have a focus on formal basic education, with ABE initiatives being left to the relatively small scale INGOs. This creates subsequent difficulties in integrating ABE into the reconstruction of education and in replicating and scaling up ABE initiatives.

The issues raised in the the discussion of the tendency towards the 'zoning' of educational provision by INGOs illustrates the challenge in building on the small scale innovative interventions in ABE provision. It is not possible to move towards a standard provision of ABE when it needs to be adapted to the needs of particular disadvantaged groups in different situations. The challenge of building on existing good practice and encouraging future initiatives, therefore, depends on first developing an understanding of local discourses of conflict and post-conflict priorities and the pressures which this creates for communities and the state. Then the need is to develop, new and appropriate strategies for disseminating experience in ABE provision and more effective mechanisms than exist at present as to how good practice might be adapted to different situations and scaled up with the co-operation and assistance of communities, states and international agencies in addition to INGOs and NGOs.



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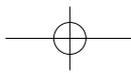
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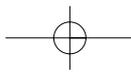
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- Human Rights Education: www.hrea.org
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- Right to Education: www.right-to-education.org
- The Academy for Educational Development: www.aed.org
- The Children and Armed Conflict Unit, Essex: www.essex.ac.uk/armmedcon
- The Learning Channel: www.learningchannel.org
- The Sphere Project: www.sphereproject.org
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Appendix 1: Methodology of the Research

1. Introduction

This research study is the product of combined efforts with our collaborative research partners in southern Sudan, northern Uganda, Somaliland and South Africa. The local researchers contributed a wide range of inter disciplinary skills, knowledge, experience and expertise to the study.

The core of the research focuses on three in-depth country studies which include detailed understandings of educational provision, approaches, experiences and expectations in southern Sudan, northern Uganda and Somaliland. In each country study, local researchers (who were linguistically and culturally adept of the areas) undertook the research. This enhanced the research because there is a dearth of educational research undertaken in conflict situations. Local researchers living and working amongst the communities affected by conflict provide a unique lens in which to understand the provision of education.

At the beginning of the research project, a training workshop was held in Nairobi to discuss the aims, objectives and methods of the research and to provide a forum for the researchers to meet and to grasp the key concepts of the research proposal. Empirical data for the research study were collected in a variety of ways over the past twelve months. In addition, a survey of the relevant literature, including the 'grey' literature based on the research questions was undertaken by the lead researchers.

Selected NGOs based in the UK were visited to discuss the aims and objectives of the DFID funded research project and to find out about current approaches and implementation activities on educational provision in southern Sudan, Somaliland and northern Uganda.

1.2 Country study research in northern Uganda, Somaliland and southern Sudan

In each of the country studies, detailed information was collected to capture the perspectives and approaches to education from a wide range of stakeholders. These included children of school age, youth (including formerly abducted mothers and ex-combatants), parents/guardians, communities, teachers, local and national educational administrators, faith based organisations, local NGOs, international NGOs, CBOs and other donors and government officials at different levels. A significant aim of this approach was to collect and record as much as possible from the grassroots level to the government. (This holistic approach goes beyond mere description and feeds into a much broader conceptual framework and understanding of key players (internally and externally) and the wide range of beneficiaries)

The following tools were used to collect data throughout the three country studies:

- semi-structured interviews;
- focus group discussions;
- life histories (especially amongst ex-combatants, abducted girls, and child soldiers);
- participant observation;
- documentation of relevant reports and publications.

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Although there was a consistent and coherent structure to the research investigations in each of the three countries, the emphasis varied according to the location of the local researcher, and the current security situation and willingness of stakeholders to share their experiences and perspectives.

The following excerpt from one of the research diaries illustrates some of the difficulties experienced in the field such as 'interview fatigue' amongst some of the most vulnerable groups:

I visited two camps, Bobi and Palenga. These camps are about 30 kms out of Gulu town. It was not easy to collect groups in camps because various researchers have interviewed people in camps numerous times. There is a sense of interview-fatigue, especially given that their situation remains the same after the interviews. People have thus lost interest and confidence in researchers. However, after waiting for almost two hours people began to form small groups of parents, school- drop-outs and form a group. A lot of time was spent on introducing the topic on basic education.

(Sr Rosemary, notes from her visit to Bobi, IDP camp, Northern Uganda)

Each month a review of the activities was sent from the researchers to the UK, and quarterly research reports were distributed to the research team. This provided a regular up-date of research in progress, and the lead researchers were able to provide continuous assessment and feedback to the researchers.

1.3 Review of education providers based in Nairobi working in southern Sudan and Somaliland and their role in implementation

In order to understand how UN agencies, bilateral donors and a range of international NGOs co-ordinate and implement their educational programmes, a mapping exercise was undertaken to see how these organisations are supporting or directly engaging in basic education programmes in Somaliland and southern Sudan. These agencies have adopted a variety of approaches to implementing basic education programmes, in the formal and non-formal sector, including training teachers, providing equipment for classrooms, constructing schools and providing accelerated learning programmes to young people who have missed out on basic education because of the conflict. The review documented how these activities were implemented in the field, by local and expatriate staff; this is particularly pertinent because many of the international agencies maintain their programme offices in Nairobi.

1.4 Case study from Eastern Cape, South Africa

The Institute of Good Governance at the University of Fort Hare, South Africa undertook a case study on education provision in the Eastern Cape. The study documented the key factors of educational reconstruction. It provided a historical overview of education provision and reconstruction – before, during and after the 'liberation struggle'. The experiences and lessons learned in the process of educational reform provide an in-depth analysis of the role of education in the liberation struggle. It highlights the experiences learned and challenges which

remain; in particular, it identifies the difficulties, ex-combatants, who missed out on basic education, and the challenges which remain.

1.5 Documentation of educational reform in Namibia – post conflict

This desk study research focused on the role that basic education in terms of teacher education played nationally in Namibia in transforming the education sector during the armed struggle and after independence in 1990. It explored different issues within the provision of basic education for teacher education in a post conflict situation. These included the role of basic education during, as well as after, the armed struggle in development and reconstruction of a nation state, the various stakeholders involved in the provision of basic education in terms of teacher education, including students; the extent of their involvement and influence in terms of implementation; the legislative and policy framework, the challenges and strategies implemented for their resolution.

1.6 Desk research

To complement the research activities above, further desk research was conducted to examine the reconstruction of educational provision in the Democratic Republic of Congo. This provides supplementary material to the detailed country studies and case studies and additional documentary evidence.

1.7 Research workshop

A meeting was held in Nairobi in May 2005 which brought together all the collaborative partners and researchers from Uganda, Sudan, Somaliland, South Africa and other consultant researchers. This enabled the researchers to share, present and discuss their initial findings and experiences. The forum provided the first stage for the comparative analysis of the research data.

1.8 Typology of INGOs working in education in conflict and post-conflict situations

As a result of the fieldwork involved in this research, we developed a working typology of NGOs working in conflict and post-conflict situations. Nearly all INGOs working in conflict and post-conflict situations, defined their role as that of ‘humanitarian relief’ even if they were not exclusively relief organisations. Humanitarian relief for these INGOs includes the provision of both formal basic education and ABE where this was perceived to be necessary, usually when there were no other providers. This is significant as it is a wider definition of ‘humanitarian relief’ than that used by many bi-lateral agencies. Within this framework there are two major types of INGO:

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- INGOs with a general remit, covering the alleviation of need in emergencies which include conflict. They may also interpret this as requiring intervention in education, particularly ABE although this is not as effective in ensuring funding as addressing the 'basic needs of water, food, shelter and health';
- INGOs working with children and young people in many sectors. They are more likely to work education in conflict situations and to focus on formal basic education for school age children.

These INGOs do not specialise in the provision of education and their staff may not include educational professionals INGOs with a specific remit to address the need for education, both formal basic education and ABE in conflict situations, usually are small, specialised INGOs

1.9 List of interviews and focus group discussions

Table A1.1 Interviews with Stakeholders by Local Researchers

Country	FGDs	Interviews
S. Sudan	2	28
Uganda	17	15
Somaliland	24	10
Total	43	63

Appendix 2: The Country Studies

2.1 Introduction

This research is based on four case studies: northern Uganda, Somaliland, southern Sudan, and the Eastern Cape, South Africa. This is supplemented by desk studies on the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sierra Leone, Rwanda and Namibia. In addition, a mapping of the coordination of international agencies which are based in Nairobi and active in these areas was also conducted. These countries selected are at different stages of emerging from conflict:

- in northern Uganda the conflict continues although there is some hope that it will end in the near future;
- in southern Sudan, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed early in 2005 and there are expectations of a substantial 'peace dividend', however this has not yet materialised and conflict continues;
- in Somaliland, the civil war ended in 1990 and an independent republic was declared in 1991;
- the transition to the 'new' South Africa came in 1994;
- Namibia became independent in 1990.

2.2 Northern Uganda

Table A2.1 Aspects of Conflict in Northern Uganda

	Security	Political	Economic	Social/Educational
International	No international intervention.	Some international pressure on GoU to negotiate with LRA.	No international intervention.	Limited INGO help to IDP camps and 'night commuters'. GoU has not declared an 'emergency'.
National	UPDF widely deployed in northern Uganda.	Perception of lack of commitment of GoU to resolving the conflict.	Conflict is costly burden on GoU.	Experience of the north differs from the rest of Uganda.
Local	Towns are 'safe', the IDP camps and rural areas subject to LRA attacks and UPDF response.	Belief that the north has been forgotten and that Acholi culture and young people are 'lost'.	The local economy has collapsed and the camp population is dependent on aid.	'Lost generations' of young people and problems of formerly abducted children.

The conflict in northern Uganda between the Government of Uganda and the Lords Resistance Army has continued for nearly 20 years.

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The particular strategy of the Lords Resistance Army is to abduct children, force them to commit atrocities within their own communities and then turn them into fighters for the LRA. Schools, teachers and children have thus become 'targets'. By 1996, 136 out of 189 primary schools in Gulu District had been closed or destroyed and in 2004, 90% of the primary schools in Pader were closed.

A study for our report identified at least four factors related to the insecurity in northern communities which affect education:

- Abduction of children and teachers by the LRA;
- Destruction and displacement of schools by the LRA;
- The concentration of people into IDP camps which means that children leave their schools;
- Young girls are 'married off' to the LRA and soldiers (Latigo 2005).

In the towns of northern Uganda, there are an estimated 25,000 -40,000 children known as 'night commuters', who every night walk into the towns of Gulu and Kitgum to be safe from abduction by the LRA. They go to school during the day in the unsafe communities in the rural areas around the towns and after eating at home, walk up to 12 kilometres into the towns, where some sleep in shelters but many on verandahs or the street, leaving before 7.00 the next morning to walk home. There is a policy not to feed them in the night shelters. It can be imagined what the effect of this daily journey every day for years has on children's education.

In the five northern districts it is estimated that 1.2 million people have been displaced from their homes by the conflict. In the districts of Gulu, Kitgum, Pader, more than 90% of the population have been moved to IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camps by the army. In these camps which are subject to periodic attack by the LRA seeking to abduct children, contact with humanitarian agencies depends on the safety of the roads and is thus intermittent, there is little possibility of income generation and basic water, sanitation and health facilities are grossly inadequate. There is also very little access to education.

There is an understandable perception in northern Uganda that their children have lost their future as all activities are affected by the search for safety.

During the period of intensive LRA activity, in the rest of Uganda, the system of formal basic education has been expanding and in 2001, Universal Primary Education was introduced. There is serious overcrowding in primary schools as a result but optimism about the increased chances for education it demonstrates.

Uganda has a decentralised administrative structure and formal primary education is the responsibility of the districts. This makes it difficult for the district education officials in the northern districts who are trying to manage an educational system designed for 'normal' circumstances under conditions of long term intense conflict in which educational institutions are themselves under attack.

The long tradition of formal basic education in Uganda and their own memories of it, means that the communities, parents and education professionals of the northern districts have a

'model' of educational normality to which to refer. The decentralised structure of educational administration and management means that education officers in the conflict areas can ensure in some ways that schools can continue and teachers get paid, even though the Government of Uganda will not declare an emergency.

The long decline in the formal educational system, the problems faced by young people, including former abductees who have not been able to attend school and the problematic economies of these northern towns under siege means that there is intense discussion by young people and community leaders about the need for alternative basic education and vocational training.

The Ugandan educational system is neither flexible nor oriented towards vocational and technical training but the educational stakeholders in the northern districts emphasise strongly the need for such education and training with the proviso that it is compatible with the formal educational system so that those who are young and able enough and have the necessary resources can re-enter the formal education system.

Particular vulnerable groups in the northern Ugandan situation are orphans, created by the war and HIV/AIDS, former abductees and children and young people in the IDP camps.

Table A2.2 Providers of Formal and Alternative Basic Education in North Uganda

Name of Organisation	Assistance Given
Acholi Education Initiative	Scholarships to bright children.
St. Monica's Tailoring Centre	Alternative basic education in tailoring.
AVSI International	Motivation of teachers, giving scholastic materials, Vocational training.
World Vision	Has a rehabilitation centre for formerly abducted children to get them into the mainstream education system.
Gulu Development Agency	Putting temporary school structures in camps and supporting teaching staff.

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2.3 Somaliland

Table A2.3 Aspects of Conflict in Somaliland

	Security	Political	Economic	Social/Educational
International	Perceived threat from Somalia and Puntland to borders and stability.	Main objective of Government of Somaliland is to receive international recognition.	Dependent on export of livestock to the Gulf and remittances from the Diaspora.	Assistance from limited range of UN agencies, EU, INGOs and Muslim organisations.
National	Seen as stable and 'safe' in comparison with Somalia.	Elections have recently taken place, approved with reservations by international monitors.	Economy poor and vulnerable to drought. Government has few sources of revenue.	Vulnerable groups created by conflict, poverty and social divisions. Access to education limited and especially for these groups. 'Lost' generations needing ABE.
Local	Security differs between regions.		Rural areas are poorer and subject to drought.	Access to services and education more limited in rural than urban areas.

The case study is mainly focused on Somaliland, which declared Independence in 1991 and is not recognised by the international community. Somalia is included in the discussion where relevant, particularly in relation to the development of the private sector.

Somaliland was a British colony until 1960. In this period there was very little formal education. It was confined to the urban centres and the languages of instruction were English and Arabic as Somali was not a written language. There were also Koranic schools. In the Somali Republic education expanded, especially after 1969 when Siad Barre came to power. In 1972 the Somali language was written for the first time and it became the language of instruction. There was an unequal distribution of a limited formal education system with the majority of schools being near Mogadishu in the south of the country.

There was a civil war between 1984-1990 at the end of which Somaliland seceded and declared itself an independent republic in 1991. During the war schools were destroyed and looted and formal education all but ceased. After the war, primary education was revived largely through the individual initiative of teachers who had been trained before the war. They organised classes which later became the basis of schools. Koranic schools also revived during this period and they are an important component of an educational system in which the majority of children cannot afford to attend school.

In 1996 the Ministry of Education started paying teachers. There is now a draft National Policy for education that is intended for all 'private schools' to operate under the National Policy guidelines as will non-formal basic education. Interview with Director General of Ministry of Education states that,

'As Ministry of Education is charged with the responsibility of managing the education system, non-public schools are suppose to operate within the guidelines as stated in the national Education Policy; it would be translated into Somali language so that it would ease for every provider to operate on town condition. After ratification of the policy by the legislative council, the ministry of education will adopt it as an effective tool of directing the provision of education in general and Basic Education in particular.'

There are currently public and private primary schools in Somaliland. The private sector is largely based in Hargeisa where it is calculated that 60% of the primary schools in Hargeisa are private. Public school pupils pay a contribution of \$1 a month in contrast to private schools where fees are up to \$30 a month. Instruction in public primary schools is in Somali. The intention is for private schools to follow the national curriculum but at present this is not so as the following illustration shows.

Blooming Private Primary School

Blooming is a private primary school established in 1999 by parent entrepreneurs. The perceived better quality of education there has attracted most of the pupils of economically better-off families to this school. The school charges US\$25 for each pupil in every school month. This is twenty five times more expensive than that of what the pupil in a public school pays. Although the school takes some subjects from the public school curriculum (Somali, Islamic religion, and Arabic) it adopts Indian curriculum. In stark contrast to public primary schools in Somaliland, 60% of the pupils in Blooming are girls.

In an interview with the head teacher, it was asked "what is the difference in quality between public and private sector education? He responded that, "The management and delivery of education are two main factors, which all others depend on. With relatively high fees charged to the student, we have been able to pay the teacher a modest salary, which we can control the quality of the teacher. Not only payment attracts the teacher into our employment, but with computer and internet facilities we create more conducive teacher's environment for the best of the teachers available."

The Somali Diaspora in Arab countries, Europe and America support their home communities. One of the most important ways of doing this is by sending money for the building of schools and paying teachers' salaries. This has been especially important in the East of the country where there are very few schools. The Ministry of Education is now committed to taking over schools which have been built by communities which provide an added incentive for such remittances. In a study conducted in Hargeisa, it was shown that an estimated \$360 million per year in remittances is sent to help families with their daily needs such as food, shelter, clothing, schooling, health care and other necessities. This might account for 23% of total household income in Somalia.

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A few NGOs, for example SCF-UK support schools in the Togdher region, which provides them with better facilities than they would otherwise have, and UNICEF supports schools for disadvantaged populations such as refugees and minority ethnic groups.

Within the private sector, there are schools which are owned by individual proprietors and charge nearly \$30 fees per month. The language of instruction is usually English or a combination of English and Arabic which appears to be due to parental pressure. It appears to be necessary for private school proprietors to demonstrate a commitment to their communities. For example, there is evidence of orphans having their fees waived in private secondary schools (Lindley, 2005) and owners of private Muslim schools have made their classrooms available for ABE classes (Dennis). There are also 'private' schools which are Arabic medium and Islamic based schools which charge more modest fees (\$5 per month). Their curriculum is from Saudi Arabia. This is confirmed in an interview with the Director General of Ministry of Religion and Endowments:

Table A2.4 NGO Provision of Formal Basic Education in Somaliland

UNHCR	Reconstructs schools, trains teachers, vocational training.
UNICEF	Assists expansion of the primary school system, increasing enrolment, especially of girls.
WFP	School feeding programme in 60 schools covering 20,000 students.
International Aid Services, Sweden	Have a Special Needs School in Hargesia.
Norwegian Refugee Council	School construction, support to IDPs and returnees.
Koranic schools	Koranic schools are run in private homes or outside and teach religion, Arabic and sometimes maths. The classes are usually free and the teacher may be paid by the community.

A new form of education which uses varying curriculum is emerging from Arabian countries. They are profit-orientated and charge the people very high fees, \$10 (US). The teachers in these schools are not trained. But when the public school education has deteriorated, they came up to seize the opportunity of need for basic education, they claim to provide a modern form of education, in which the Koran and other primary education subjects are given under one setting (Interview with Mohamed Ahmed Ali, 2005).

In Somalia, there is a federation of private schools which addresses issues of quality, assessment and accreditation which are of concern to fee paying parents or guardians. The poverty of the population, the lack of educational facilities and the period of conflict means that there are large numbers of young people and adults in Somaliland who are not literate. It is estimated that only 17% of the adult population is literate.

Alternative basic education is perceived as a way of addressing these imbalances. The members of militia groups who had fought for the independence of Somaliland were perceived as 'heroes' but also as a potential threat to the peace of the new republic. The creative solution to this problem was to recruit them into the police force and then train them. There have been a

number of ABE and vocational training initiatives for the Police – UNICEF and AET to provide basic literacy and numeracy which have created a demand for further skills such as computing.

According to UNICEF-Hargeisa, only 25% of non formal education programmes are linked to the MoE, the rest is managed by NGOs. Significantly, the greater part of ABE provision is perceived as being for women, even if it was not specifically designed for them.

There is increasing provision of private vocational training, especially in towns like Hargeisa, usually with a focus on computing. The Hargeisa College of Applied Sciences is a non-profit institution which provides short courses in management, accounting, basic computer skills and architecture. It focuses primarily on secondary school leavers with basic vocational skills for employment opportunities.

Table A2.5 NGO Provision of Formal Basic Education in Somaliland

Agency	Programme	Target	Course
AET	SOMDEL	Over-age women and men	Literacy, Numeracy and life skills through study packs, radio and tutorials. Over 10,000 learners and 250,000 potential listeners.
AET	SEIGYM	Adolescent girls and young men	Basic and advanced literacy and numeracy, voucher based vocational training. 5,000 students selected.
AET	WOVE	Rural women	Literacy and Numeracy.
AET	SEAD	Disabled	
International Aid Services, Sweden		Disabled children	Integration into formal schools; vocational training.
Norwegian Refugee Council		“Disadvantaged” communities; IDP and returnees	ABE.
HAVOYOCO Horn of Africa Voluntary Youth Committee funded by UNHCR, SCF-Denmark, is a prominent Somali NGO running non-formal vocational training and classes for street children		17-30 years of age (poor returnees)	Vocational training programmes.
FLEC (Family Life Training Centres run by Ministry of Education)		Women, classes run at times convenient for women	Literacy, numeracy and life skills.
AET	COPE	Police recruits, 2,500 trained	Literacy, numeracy and human rights.

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2.4 Southern Sudan

Table A2.6 Aspects of Conflict in Southern Sudan

	Security	Political	Economic	Social/Educational
International	Some international guarantee of peace treaty conditions.	International pressure to make peace treaty work.	Southern Sudan is not incorporated into the international economy.	With the peace treaty, there are many international agencies trying to bring a 'peace dividend' to the south, in which education is an important component. Issues of coordination.
National	Southern Sudanese Government working out how to secure the security of the south within a federal framework.	Incoming southern Sudanese Government under pressure to provide 'peace dividend' to population after 20 years of conflict.	The economy is largely subsistence, transport and communications difficult and the Secretariat has problems obtaining actual resources for its programmes.	The expectations of communities are greatest in relation to the provision of formal basic education. The Secretariat for Education is planning for expansion of the present small heterogeneous system with the added problem of coordinating international agencies.
Local	Local security problems inhibit return of refugees and IDPs and educational initiatives.	Issues around where professionals should be deployed.	onsiderable differences between economic base of towns and rural areas.	Difference in existing provision of formal basic education between towns and rural areas likely to intensify with 'peace dividend'.

Southern Sudan has been in almost continuous conflict for twenty years. For example around Rumbek, between 1983 and 1989 the fighting was especially intense and 'everyone wanted their child to be near them' so there was little emphasis on education. After 1989 when the SPLA gained control of villages around the town, individuals opened schools in their houses. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed earlier this year which has led to a great increase in expectations and in the number of international agencies working in the south. Before the civil war, there were very few schools Southern Sudan figures. During the long years of conflict and insecurity there has been famine and large voluntary and involuntary movements of population. 73% of primary school age children are not attending school and for girls it is much. There is a high drop out rate, especially for girls.

Through the greater part of this conflict, the only schools were those provided by communities under conditions of great deprivation and isolation

Individual community members volunteered to open classes nearby their houses using what ever possible material for teaching. These included animals skins as blackboards, Charcoal and cassava roots as chalk, sit in classrooms under trees and the teacher gives any information/lesson that comes to his/her mind reflecting to the way he/she was taught. (Interview with PTA members, Derek Primary School Rumbek, March 2005)

They operated without funds or paid teachers, often under trees.

UNICEF supported schools through teacher training and provision of supplies. A feature of the provision of primary education in southern Sudan through the conflict was the large number of providers. The large number of educational providers in southern Sudan before the peace treaty are listed in Appendix 3. They often based their schools in adjoining districts for ease of management. These NGO and FBO supported schools were equipped to a higher standard than the community schools. Save the Children has supported the construction of 25 schools in the Lakes and Upper Nile. The wide range of educational providers has created a challenge for the incoming Secretariat of Education. The World Food Programme is working in schools which have requested a feeding programme. This is most likely in the 'hunger' season.

Another challenge they have is the absorption of large number of refugees returning to southern Sudan. Southern Sudanese refugees have been living in DRC where they were instructed in French, in Uganda and Kenya where they followed the country curricula in English and large numbers of IDPs from the north who were educated in Arabic. Since 2002 the UNICEF funded Girls' Community Schools which address the need to raise the enrolment of girls in school are regarded as an important initiative from which there might be lessons to learn.

UNICEF started Community Girls' School Project through BRAC non formal approach to increase the enrolment of village girls and increase the percentage of girl students completing basic education. The programme was to be experimented for future adaptation should it make difference in the New Sudan situation. The main approaches used were community sensitization on importance of girls' education through meetings, delivering awareness messages in the churches, community gatherings etc. and contact with prominent figures in the community (chiefs, elders, educated village residents etc.) on the possibility of opening a school based on both availability of potential learners and the necessity felt by the villagers. (Research Report, Philip Mapour).

The Secretariat of Education is now developing a unified educational system for southern Sudan.⁹ The southern Sudanese situation is also characterised by the large number of donors. This is a fast moving situation but at present it appears to consist of a UN process of co-ordinating agencies which has absorbed a great deal of time and energy but has not yet led to any initiatives on the ground and the intervention of a large agency USAID with a particulars set of its own priorities.¹⁰

⁹ For an outline of the Secretariat of Education Policy for Education, see Appendix 3.

¹⁰ Appendix 4 contains a selected amount of interviews with international agencies active in southern Sudan.

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The UN 'model' of co-ordination appears to be based on that developed for Sierra Leone. It will be interesting to see how it operates in the situation in southern Sudan with very little educational infrastructure, little 'memory' of an educational system and a complex 'map' of educational providers.

The long term civil war in southern Sudan means that there are many adults and young people who have missed the opportunity to obtain formal schooling. Some of them are formal child soldiers, others have been affected by the displacement and struggle for survival during the war. This makes the development of a strategy for ABE crucial to develop human resources and maintain peace.

At present the SoE is focusing mainly on Accelerated Learning as a way of educating young people who have been unable to attend school but could 'catch up' on their missed education and enter the formal system or find vocational training afterwards. This approach has advantages for the Secretariat of Education and young people who wish to enter or re-enter the formal education system but access will be limited to those who are able to attend full time intensive education over four years. A fuller discussion of the ALS policy of the Secretariat of Education is contained in Chapter 5.

Table A2.7 NGO Provision of ABE in Southern Sudan

Programme	Target	Course
AET Intensive English course	Women wishing to enrol on other courses	English language written, spoken and reading proficiency.
AET computer training course	Anyone who meets pre-conditions	Computer training for different levels.
Save the Children-UK ABE for pastoralists	Pastoralists	ABE, mobile schools.
AET Southern Sudan Interactive Radio Project	Adult women and men	Following southern Sudan school syllabus, using southern Sudanese songs, stories and games.

Appendix 3: Case Experience

3.1 The Eastern Cape, South Africa

In 1994, the new South Africa inherited an educational system which was racially divided and marked by disparities of provision. In the 1970s, schools had been the site of resistance to Bantu Education which resulted in considerable disruption to this system. Some of the key expectations of the new South Africa centred around the need to transform the educational system and from 1994-1999 policies for the transformation of education were developed and their implementation began. Schooling was made compulsory for all children between the ages of 7-14 and the Adult Basic Education Act (2000) provided the basis for those who had not had access to the old educational system or whose access to education had been disrupted by the conflict.

The Eastern Cape is the poorest province in South Africa in terms of monthly expenditure and unemployment. There is a problem of adequate school buildings especially in informal settlements and rural areas. Poverty and HIV/AIDS are major factors in limiting school attendance. There are also problems of teacher training and the relevance of curriculum and teaching methods. Communities play an important role in school management through School Governing Bodies which assist in development projects and support families with poverty and health problems, including HIV/AIDS. The School Nutrition programme in the Eastern Cape addresses the needs of disadvantaged children in order for them to attend school.

Though the common perception is that independent schools are affluent, well-resourced private institutions, there is a significant number of poor independent schools in the country. These mainly consist of farm schools that are set up to cater for children of farm labourers in remote areas where the children do not have access to state schools. The independent school sector has been growing rapidly and has become very diverse with schools serving every socio-economic level and type of community. The number of independent primary schools in the country has increased by over 60% since 1994. This can be attributed to the increase in access to better educational opportunities for all races in the country, demand for differentiated/better schooling and the ability to practice religion freely (Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa, (2001: 17). For example, the increase in low fee schools serving black communities who are seeking alternatives to the apartheid legacy of poor standards and low pass rates in many of the former African only schools (Fort Hare, 2004).

The Fort Hare Institute of Government Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) policy operates at the tertiary level but the commitment to recognising the educational value of the experience of former fighters is a valuable one for countries emerging from conflict. The problems of ex fighters and 'militarised youth' have been addressed by the Urban monitoring and Awareness Committee (UMAC) but there is little support for them within the educational system. NGOs have provided some with the means to attend school or technical training. There are ABET (Adult Basic Education and Training) programmes in the province but access to them remains a problem, especially in rural areas.

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3.2 The Namibian experience

The Namibian educational system, like that of South Africa, was based on the Bantu Educational Act. Two key principles during apartheid were to restrict and divide. For example, black teachers were restricted in terms of studies and qualifications (no access to secondary studies) and divide the nation by pitting one ethnic group against one another. During the armed struggle, Namibians educated in South West Africa (as it was then called) had received a very limited education and those who went into exile either missed a formal education or had a patchy and largely western based education. Expectations for a basic education and the demand for training were high after independence.

After independence in 1990, the participatory liberation ideology brought radical changes. It was recognised that 'the new era' needed new structures, new organisations, and new systems to proclaim the thinking of the reform. Significantly, SWAPO during the armed struggle period (1966-1989) undertook several initiatives, such as training teachers for its schools in the health and education centres in Angola and Zambia as well as in preparation for independence. A national policy entitled "Toward Education for All" was devised. Major changes prevailed and the research shows that language became one of the most important and debated issues after the struggle. English became the official language, and fifteen years later, there are still marked inequalities between the urban and rural areas. Although SWAPO had a very active literacy campaign during the struggle, major literacy initiatives were not prioritised and the new Education Act is silent on the issue of language. Rural and disadvantaged communities need to be targeted.

3.3 Patterns in the education programmes used to reintegrate former child soldiers – A comparison between the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Sierra Leone.

This case study is an analysis of secondary source intervention literature surrounding the reintegration of Child Soldiers through education in the Democratic Republic of Congo and Sierra Leone in the last five years. Through the utilisation of second-hand case study analysis in the two respective countries, reintegration handbooks and the amalgamation of secondary literature on the education and reintegration of former child soldiers in a post-conflict situation, this study tries to insert itself primarily within the theme the way in which the conflict is perceived by different stakeholder. In this instance, the 'stakeholders' refers primarily to the former child soldiers and to a lesser degree to main INGO groups instigating the Reintegration through education. In the DRC these groups include Danida, The Danish Red Cross, SFCG (Search for Common Ground), UNICEF and Save the Children. In Sierra Leone the main groups targeted include UNICEF, PLAN International, IRC (International Rescue Committee) and SFCG (Search for Common Ground).

A key question is if the agencies involved have a blanket response to child soldier reintegration or whether they have different methods for reintegrating former child soldiers from different warring factions or ideologies. The results suggest that NGOs do not apply a blanket response in terms of approaching the reintegration of child soldiers as a whole. They often do make the

effort to attain a certain insight into the specificity of the child's background as a operative during war and why they may have voluntarily joined up if that was the case. This is demonstrated by Save the Children's work with child soldiers and is referred to in depth by Verhay et al:

Local development strategies to promote the reintegration of children formerly associated with armed actors in Kivu Province, the DRC, found that rather than a pre-determined 'kit', reintegration required a community-based approach with an emphasis on family livelihood activities and efforts to extend education to all vulnerable children (2004)

Support for successful reintegration needs to be based on an analysis of household economies, which may, particularly in situations of ongoing conflict, be closely linked with establishing an understanding of the reasons for recruitment.

However, acquiring knowledge on a child soldier's (or group of child soldiers') specific set of circumstances is one thing – using that knowledge to develop appropriate child soldier reintegration and education programmes is another. There is little evidence of this within the secondary sources, apart from a few examples, of such 'tailored' reintegration occurring. In addition, although there may be a general perception of the political and intellectual backdrop of a militia, military or paramilitary group from which the child soldier(s) came; there is a dearth of evidence to show that such knowledge has been acted on in terms of structuring educational/reintegration programmes.

There seem to be two reasons for this which several commentators hint at. Firstly, there is the key issue of limited finance available to the government or NGO body in the field in often rather desperate conditions. Tailoring such programmes would be a luxury. The second key reason is the complete lack of professional resources, not merely in terms of numbers, but in terms of specialized knowledge. The expertise required by teachers and psychologists to deal with a range of tailored reintegration programmes would be staggering.

Similarly, the range of perceptions in this study reflects the perceptions of the NGOs as reflected in their programmes and approach to the former child soldiers – whether they are responsive to children and young peoples' desire to become active in the reintegration process and not merely recipients of it.

As an example of one NGO in the DRC employing former child soldier 'collectivity' as a means of empowering children and spurring them to partake of educational opportunities (however limited), Carrefour des Enfants du Congo (CARECO), a local SCUK partner in South Kivu Province, engaged child participation in a 'children's parliament' advocacy activity to inform peers and local authorities. A group of the children has been subsequently instrumental in convincing local authorities to initiate discussion on demobilising and reintegrating children involved with local armed groups.

UNICEF has been one of the key education and reintegration bodies in Sierra Leone. As such, in an effort to empower child soldiers and encourage their cooperation in education (and other

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activities) it has thrown its weight and expertise behind the Truth and Reconciliation Commission for Children. Because children are among the primary victims of the civil war in Sierra Leone, their involvement in the TRC is essential. The challenge was to develop child-friendly procedures to ensure their protection, helping them feel safe when recounting their experiences in the classroom and avoiding further traumatisation. UNICEF, together with other UN agencies and the Child Protection Network (CPN) – national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and government counterparts – helped to develop child-friendly procedures including, for example, special hearings for children, closed sessions, a safe environment for interviews, protected identity of child witnesses, and teacher training in psychosocial support for children.

The awareness amongst a majority of NGOs that former child soldiers should feel empowered, not isolated, before taking part in the educational programmes on offer, is now acknowledged by most NGOs in the DRC and Sierra Leone. If they feel isolated, disillusioned or unable to see a means by which they may be able to support themselves in the future: not only does this lead to severe friction within the school community, but vastly increases the possibility of re-recruitment. In addition, education by itself may often be too intangible to sustain the former child soldier's sense of hope or interest in the future. For that very reason, the monthly financial allowance that most NGOs now employ with or without the respective government's support, must be sustained as a major component of the educational reintegration programme..

The main question in relation to the issue of vulnerability is the question: Are the child soldiers treated as victims?

In general, NGOs active in the education and reintegration of former child soldiers appeared to be take different views on this. UNICEF in the DRC and the Danish Red Cross operating in Rwanda but with demobilised child soldiers from the DRC provide an insight into such a dichotomy:

UNICEF in Goma, through 'Action, Youth and the Environment' (AYE) initiated a programme for separating from the military hundreds of unaccompanied boys who had previously served as soldiers, mascots and servants. A crucial element of the programme's success was a rehabilitation scheme and education programme that emphasised the resilience of the boys and provided them with constructive alternatives for their lives and taught them independent living skills, leadership training, involvement in vocational and community service projects and ways to resolve individual and group differences. Boys lived and worked together, built their own shelters and did their own cooking and domestic work.

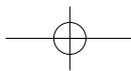
As shown above, UNICEF encourages treating children together and emphasises the 'resilience' of the children in its care. In contrast, and perhaps as a result of responding primarily to emergencies, the Red Cross reinforces target groupings (as shown below), and singles out specific groups while emphasising 'vulnerability'. On the other hand, although the Danish Red Cross may not single out children for psychosocial therapy and so forth the very formulation of 'vulnerable groupings' highlights its reintegration framework as one detached from mainstream education, where UNICEF strives to integrate all psychosocial activity through the classroom and community.

Danish Red Cross: As the overall objective of [DRC] psychosocial programs is to provide timely and sustainable psychosocial support to vulnerable groups, the primary criterion for selecting the target population is its vulnerability. The PSPC addresses the special vulnerability of school children living in post-conflict or low intensity conflict environment. In the selection of the children and schools for PSPC intervention, it is important to select the beneficiaries who are most vulnerable and therefore most at risk within this context. The following criteria for special vulnerability are:

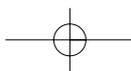
1. Personal history: Children who have lost one or both parents;
2. Local history: Children who have been exposed to direct war experiences;
3. Forced mobility: Children who are refugees or displaced;
4. Minority groups: Children who belong to ethnic minority groups or persecuted groups;
5. Economy: Children living in especially poor conditions;
6. Family conditions: Children who are exposed to parental neglect or abuse.

It is probably not surprising that the two agencies have such differing perspectives: UNICEF having been involved in the education (and reintegration) of children for many years, while the Red Cross only rarely broadens its projects beyond its emergency response background. However, this does draw attention to the trauma approach or the rights approach which has a strong influence on the way in which many NGOs in the DRC and Sierra Leone design their education/reintegration programmes. Where one emphasises vulnerability the other promotes resilience. Where one throws a broad blanket over a diverse group of former child soldiers, the other at least makes an effort to pinpoint those with specific needs.

This last point is key when considering the configuration of NGO agencies and their reintegration procedures as part of larger educational programmes. By employing reintegration programmes tailored to the specific needs of individual groups of former child soldiers, it is possible to isolate such groups from the majority of children. Furthermore, if programmes are not tailored then the 'blanket response mechanism' may neither aid educational reintegration and may in some cases even harm efforts to reintegrate and educate former child soldiers.



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Appendix 4: NGOs Involved in Education in Somalia¹¹

GENERAL

- ADRA SOMALIA
- ADVANCEMENT FOR SMALL ENTERPRISE PROGRAM
- AMREF
- CANDLELIGHT FOR HEALTH, EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT
- CARE
- CARITAS SWITZERLAND (SWISSGROUP)
- COOPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT
- CFBT
- DANISH REFUGEE COUNCIL
- DIAKONIE/BREAD FOR THE WORLD – GERMANY (DBG)
- EMERGENCY PASTORALIST ASSISTANCE GROUP (EPAG)
- FAMILY ECONOMY REHABILITATION ORGANIZATION (FERO)
- GEDO HEALTH CONSORTIUM
- GERMAN AGRO ACTION
- HISAN
- HORN OF AFRICA RELIEF AND DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION
- INTERNATIONAL AID SERVICES
- PASTORAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL NETWORK IN THE HORN OF AFRICA (PENHA)
- SOMALI PEACE LINE (SPL)
- SOMDEV
- SOOL, SANAAG AND HAWD DEVELOPMENT AGENCY
- SWEDISH-AFRICAN WELFARE ALLIANCE
- TERRA NUOVA
- TROCAIRE
- UNDP
- UNICEF SOMALIA
- UNIFEM

CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

- SAVE THE CHILDREN DENMARK
- WORLD VISION INTERNATIONAL
- WORLD VISION SOMALIA
- SOMALI PASTORALISTS CONCERN ORG
- SAVE THE CHILDREN UK
- INTERSOS
- CONCERN WORLDWIDE
- CO-ORDINATING COMMITTEE OF THE ORGANIZATIONS FOR VOLUNTARY SERVICE
- AFRICA '70
- AGROSPHERE

¹¹ This analysis of INGOs and NGOs is based on the typology outlined in Appendix 1

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EDUCATION- FOCUSED NGOs

- AFRICA EDUCATIONAL TRUST
- EDUCATION INTERNATIONAL

FAITH-BASED/RELIGIOUS and INDIGENOUS NGOs

- AFRICAN RESCUE COMMITTEE
- WAWA (WE ARE WOMEN ACTIVISTS)
- TAQWO WOMEN RELIEF
- TECHNO-FORMATION CHARITABLE TRUST
- SAMO DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION (SDO)
- SOMALI AID FOUNDATIONS
- HIMILO FOUNDATION
- CATHOLIC INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS/INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC RELIEF COMMITTEE (ISRC)
- NORWEGIAN CHURCH AID

SUMMARY: Numbers of NGOs with education programmes in Somalia by type	
NGO Type	Number in Somalia
General	28
Child or Adolescent Focused	9
Education Specific	2
Faith-based	10

Appendix 5: Interviews with Children and Youth in Southern Sudan and Northern Uganda

5.1 Northern Uganda

Abducted in 1986 while attending Class 3 in Primary School. He managed to escape in 1999 and returned to school. He was re-abducted and escaped one year later. He still hopes to continue with his studies, but now states that he feels ashamed, as he is 'big'. He is also a victim of name-calling and bullying by his peer group when he has attempted to resume education, and he is accused of being a murderer and a rebel. When asked if he felt it is good for those returning from the bush to study in separate groups he was clear that he feels it is better for returnees to study with other children as this helps them to re-adapt to 'normal' life. He feels that being in a mixed class helps traumatised people to socialize with others and to forget/distract them from what has happened to them.

16yrs: abducted 1998. Escaped 2004. He attended class up to Primary 3. On his return he felt that he was 'too big' to continue studying with colleagues who were years his junior. He suggests that it would be good to divide pupils according to their age, even in primary education. He sees basic education as particularly helpful with regard to basic literacy. He feels that teachers in formal education are not prepared to teach students necessary 'life skills'. He feels that even the three years of primary education that he had prior to his abduction helped him to escape from the bush as he was able to read the road signs. He would very much like to be able continue with his education but he only feels comfortable with people of his own age. He raised the issue of financial difficulties, stating that these problems are exacerbated for returnees as they are confined both by their own fear of being re-abducted and by others' fears that they will harm somebody.

12yrs: abducted in P6. She was in the bush for one week but this prompted her leaving school. On her return from the bush she found that her mother was going to marry another man, and she had to remain with her uncle. Many times when she used to return from school her uncle would beat her. He insists that it is useless to educate girls as they leave school and marry and then have no need for education. She is now obliged to remain in the home looking after the uncle's child. She has been at home for two years. She is now planning to escape and to return to her mother and continue with her education.

5.2 Southern Sudan

When I lost my husband and remained with my two children, life became so hard as I didn't have any paid job. I thought I would not be able to cope with the demand of raising a family by working in the field (cultivating)

I decided to join a primary school though it was very challenging for a woman of 25 to sit in a class with children of 7 years. Many people made fun on me as they claimed that I was too old to go to school. I continued up to P5 in Dhia-kuei Primary School.

In 2000 I tried my luck to work as a care giver for demobilized child soldiers in the transit camp which was successful through the little education of P5 that I have acquired. When the camp was closed I applied to work as a teacher at Chuiecok nursery school. While teaching the kids I was attending adult literacy classes with other women in the village. I began to realise that there was progress in my education and my family life was improving also because of the little income that I gain from work. I use to participate in community meetings and they developed interest in all my activities. Later I was recommended to attend training on Hygiene Promotion conducted by UNICEF WES. Later I attended a two months English course organised by AET. Because of my determination with the series of training that I have been attending I was appointed by UNICEF as a facilitator on Life Skills program in Rumbek County. I also took part in a survey conducted by IRC to ascertain the prevalence of HIV/ AIDS in and around Rumbek.

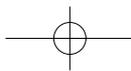
Now I am working as a Librarian at Girls School Resource Centre at SOE office – Rumbek. I have been trained on how to catalogue books and run a data base of over 2,000 titles at the resource centre. The reason I chose to be here is to have more access in reading books that will increase my knowledge. I can now say that my dream was true. I also advise young girls to attend and do well in school so that they have better future. It our responsibility as mothers to make sure our daughters go to school the same as boys. Education relieves and makes you important in a society.

Appendix 5: Interviews with Children and Youth in Southern Sudan and Northern Uganda

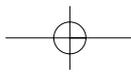
Teacher at Pre-school: I started my primary school in Arabic Language. That was in the same year (1983) when SPLA movement erupted. I only learnt up to class three. I couldn't complete primary school by then due to the fighting and schools were closed as we also deserted the town and settled in the village. From there I was sent to cattle camp to look after the animals because my father was a spiritual leader and owned big number of cows. When I was in the camp I didn't lose interest about school because I was always reflecting to the way educated people lived when I had been in town before the war. Their life looked simple and more comfortable to me in comparison to the way we leaved in cattle camp. In 1990 some bush schools were open by SPLM authorities and I was very happy to join that school (Adol Primary school) at that early stage. However there were lot of challenges affecting both teachers and the children. There were no text books or exercise books for writing. A teacher teaches us from his mind without adequate and relevant books and likewise the children received the information by cramming it as there was lack of paper to write on. That was how we started.

My teachers were very good and helpful to me and up to now I still remember the way they taught me though now we have become colleagues in Education profession. Actually it is what developed my interest in Education to become a teacher. Teachers look more respected before their pupils as well before the community at large. Not only that, those children a teacher teaches will become future leaders and he will be proud of them After completing my secondary school I therefore applied to attend Teacher Training which I did and now I am a head teacher of Gol-Meen Pre-school. I still look forward to have further Education in my field.

I started my Education and learned up to intermediate level in Arabic Pattern before the war. Today they do not teach or use Arabic language in offices and that is why I do not get a job. I have to join adult education to learn English language. I hope if I learn English language, I will get a job and therefore relieve me from the business of brewing local beer which is very tedious.



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Appendix 6: Summary of Interviews with Staff of International Agencies and NGOs working in Somaliland and Southern Sudan

These summaries are from interviews with the staff of UNESCO, UNHCR, CARE, NCA (Norwegian Church Aid) and SCF-UK. Issues of management, some providing examples of 'good practice', others relating to problems of management and funding discussed in the main body of the report, are highlighted.

6.1 Constraints of working in countries emerging from conflict

Agencies gave a range of examples of the constraints and difficulties of implementing basic education programmes in countries emerging from conflict. While some agencies discussed the problems of working with the new government administrations and finding donors to fund programmes, others discussed issues which focused more specifically on the problems encountered when trying to plan and implement basic education programmes within context of post conflict reconstruction.

According to these agencies, in a post conflict context, in which infrastructure has been destroyed/or never fully developed, the desire to see immediate impact, especially the construction of education buildings is very high on the agenda of governments, communities, teachers and students. Many agencies considered that this urgency has a negative impact upon the long term development of the education system. While acknowledging the importance of infrastructure, they argued that some of this funding and time could be better spent on developing longer term and more sustainable objectives – such as an educational vision and a concrete and appropriate curriculum, quality teacher training or capacity building of the ministry and schools for long term goals and planning

Three of the agencies also talked of a 'dependency syndrome' in both Somalia/land and South Sudan. In the absence of a strong government to lead/guide national education policy and activities, government and communities have become dependent on international agencies to develop programmes and provide the finances.

It has been noted that since peace has arrived and people have started to relax, stress levels have increased in other areas. Increasing numbers of internal conflict and disagreements between ethnic groups are being reported in south Sudan. Trauma is beginning to show and cattle raiding and rape is increasing. Evidence of this, is that one Commissioner has increased fee for anyone who gets someone pregnant out of wedlock as a direct response to the increasing number of rapes in his area. This is having an impact on girl's education as parents are not sending girls to school.

6.2 Approach to programming

Agencies take a variety of approaches to implementing basic education programmes.

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National/Regional Programming

Some organisations work on a national level (UNESCO and UNHCR), while other organisations focus their efforts on certain regions.

UNESCO takes a national approach to programming. They try to avoid regional programmes or country-wide programmes (in the case of the Somali region).

UNHCR also takes a national approach and criticises organisations which have a regional focus for creating further inequalities in nations already destroyed by inequalities in development.

Inter Agency Co-operation

All the agencies are members of the relevant co-ordination mechanisms for education in Somalia/South Sudan. Five of the six agencies work in consortium with other agencies to deliver their basic education programmes.

In Somalia, UNESCO stressed the importance of working with NGOs/UN agencies to develop direction. UNHCR took this concept one step further and stated that a common vision for basic education needs to be established by the government and supported by UN agencies and NGOs. CARE discussed the importance of forming mutually beneficial relations, combining experience of working in the region with organizations who may have outside technical expertise. However, two of the agencies also mentioned the problems of working in consortium – namely being slowed down during the implementation process.

Working with the Government

All the agencies stressed the importance of working with the relevant authorities for implementing programmes in south Sudan and Somaliland. Most agencies contact the government authorities for endorsement of their programmes. They also try to work with the government during implementation and to a varying degree have tried to give ownership of the projects to the government. UNESCO usually works directly with national governments to support and build their capacity.

Some INGOs have had a positive experience of working with local government in South Sudan. The local authorities have been given huge responsibilities for running the programme and have proven that when empowered, entrusted and properly prepared, they are more than capable of managing large basic education programmes. However, many of the other agencies have experienced serious constraints and delays through working with the government offices. It is generally agreed that organizations are now unable to work within basic education in south Sudan without the support and approval of the SPLM.

Working with Local Partners

All of the agencies have developed links with local partners through whom they implement programmes on the ground. Some of these relationships have been excellent, while others have faced miscommunication problems.

Working with Communities

Some INGOs work closely with communities to implement their programmes. UNESCO worked with the community to implement their demobilisation programme. They planned their programme with elders, leaders of women's groups and prominent people within community (e.g. business people). These community members were able to develop criteria for the scheme and contribute to how the programme was managed and implemented. This approach has been successful and ensured that local issues such as age relevance was taken into consideration.

SCF-UK as an organization aims to work through existing structures. In South Sudan and Somalia where there is a lack of government structures, they work within local community structures and aim to build their capacities.

Target Groups

It has been recognized by all agencies that women, young men, soldiers, refugees and IDPs have all been denied the right to basic education. As a result, the agencies have mostly focused their non-formal education programmes on these disadvantaged groups. However, there has also been a recognition that young people have the right to be integrated back into the formal system and SAVE and CARE have implemented an Accelerated Learning Programme so that young people can access formal education and reach a certified level of educational achievement.

The work within the formal system – training teachers, constructing primary schools, developing the school curriculum etc. focuses mainly on primary school aged children.

Factors which Influence the Design of Basic Education Programmes

When discussing how programmes are conceived of and designed, it became clear that a number of internal and external factors influence the nature, scope and location of basic education programmes that agencies develop.

The factors which emerged as having an influence upon the planning and designing phase of basic education programmes are: organizational goals, donor's funding priorities, outcomes from needs assessments and discussions with local partners, and understanding of gaps in programming through co-ordinating with other agencies. The influence of the Ministry of Education, and the local community was limited.

Organisational Goals

Many of the international NGOs interviewed for this research have head offices based in Europe or North America where global missions are established. Country strategic plans must broadly fit within the global missions, for example, UNHCR must focus on refugees and SCF-UK on children under 18s. However, the discussions with these organizations revealed that when working in countries emerging from conflict, these broader organizational missions are sometimes blurred to meet the in country needs. For example, SCF-UK expands its programmes to work with out of school youths and with women.

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In-country Needs Assessments and Information from Local Partners

In-country needs assessments are undertaken to develop specific objectives for country plans, by most agencies. Agencies who have already been working in country rely heavily on information received from their local partners to identify gaps in basic education. Organisations also build on experience and plan future programmes on the basis of feedback from local partners.

Donor Influence

All the interviewees identified donors as having some influence upon the type of programmes that are developed. According to one international NGO, in south Sudan there are very few donors. Most bilateral agencies are currently holding back from funding. This has led to a situation in which USAID is by far the largest donor and has the power to influence the nature of education programming with little dialogue or challenges due to the absence of other large bilateral funders. However, if the agency has built up a good relationship with the donor, they can also influence donor priorities. There is a balance between what priorities INGOs/UN agencies have identified as priorities in the field and what donors are interested in funding.

European Commission funding is also a delicate balance between donor priorities and agency recommendations. The EC usually conducts feasibility studies into areas that they are interested in funding. However, during this process they usually contact a range of actors, including NGOs. There are frequently complaints from agencies about who has been consulted as part of these feasibility studies. The EC then puts out a Call for Proposals to agencies. The agencies that were interviewed as part of this research state that these calls are usually quite prescriptive, but do allow some agency interpretation and initiative to design programmes.

Agency Co-ordination

All of the agencies called for a better co-ordination mechanism for agencies to implement complimentary basic education programmes. Some of the agencies interviewed thought that co-ordination is severely lacking. In south Sudan for example, many of the agencies have a regional focus, which exacerbates inequalities between regions. As one agency employee stated, 'conflict is created by fragmentations, by adopting a regional focus, agencies are strengthening cleavages' The UN agencies are currently trying to adopt a common education policy. It has taken 6 months to approve, but they are now ready to present it to the SPLM. However, the agencies recognized the important, if currently imperfect, system of co-ordination mechanisms to prevent duplication and to develop complimentary programmes. All of the agencies regularly attended the relevant co-ordination meetings for the countries that they are working in (Education Reconstruction and Development (ERDF) in South Sudan, and the SACB Education Sectoral Committee for Somalia/land).

In-Country Consultation – Ministry of Education

All the organisations that were interviewed have close working relationships with the authorities in south Sudan and Somaliland. They state that they always consult the ministry/secretariat of education before implementing activities. Usually the process is that the agency takes a

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programme idea to the ministry/secretariat, to get their approval. However, what is clear is that during the planning phase, the initiative usually comes from the agency. A number of the agencies noted that this approach to education planning is quite distinct to countries emerging from conflict. In the absence of a strong, well established government structure, planning usually takes place at the level of the individual agency. This leads to lack of overall co-ordination and lack of a centralized vision for education.

Community Level Consultation for Education Planning

The level of community consultation depends greatly on the nature of the programme/project, even within agencies. UNESCO for example has implemented programmes on a national level, to support the ministry of education and on a local level to support small scale local activities. The planning phase for the national ministry level programme included consultation with ministry staff, who UNESCO expect to have consulted with communities/ NGOs. They stated that for national programmes, consultation with local stakeholders is impossible. However on their demobilization programme, which was being implemented in only one region and had one specific target group, they consulted with elders, leaders of women's groups, prominent business people within the community.

Few of the interviewees were aware of consultation with communities at the planning stages of programming. None mentioned consulting with communities beyond the token chief or women's group leader. There was no mention of consultation with children or parents, the main beneficiaries of their programmes. One conclusion that can be drawn from these interviews is that it is rare for communities to present their ideas to these agencies, or for agencies to give genuine space to communities to be involved in education planning. One INGO worker explained that planning is: 'expat driven, their ideas, their money and their equipment. But it should be different'

6.2.1 Managing the Programme from Nairobi

The Role of the Nairobi Office

Agencies agreed that having an office in Nairobi/outside of Sudan/Somalia/land was essential for basic functionality. The listed the following reasons as to why maintaining a Nairobi Office is essential:

- Logistical and organizational capacity
- Banking
- Sending in food, paper/other resources.
- Hiring staff and consultants
- Communication

Another factor which keeps agencies in Nairobi is that donors and other INGOs are also based there. It is essential for consortium meetings and to seek funding. Agencies working in South Sudan stated that moving the Programme office to Sudan will depend on the pace set by the SPLM and where they decide to go.

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It is clear from these comments that agencies see the Nairobi office as playing a central role in organization and co-ordinating projects in the field. They also stress the value of being located near donors, co-ordination bodies and other NGO/UN agencies.

Monitoring and Evaluation

As agencies finalise project reports from the Nairobi office, it is essential that they have a clear idea of what is being implemented on the ground and that problems and developments are reported for future planning purposes. However, agencies agreed that it is a struggle to know exactly what is going on in the field when they are based in Nairobi.

All the agencies have established monitoring systems which combine in-country monitoring and regular reporting to the Nairobi office.

Agencies have established a combination of internal and external monitoring processes to ensure that activities are being successfully implemented. However, a few agencies have also noted the difficulties of acquiring reliable and qualitative monitoring information. The lack of capacity of in-country partners to analyse the monitoring information that they collate has also been noted.

6.2.2 Conclusion

The following patterns/or examples offer interesting examples of approaches to basic education programming which it is recommended are further explored:

- Agencies which are moving into post conflict countries to establish basic education programmes should undertake full consultation with a range of actors who have experience and expertise in working in that country (UNHCR).
- Agencies can devolve responsibilities to local partners and local education authorities to manage programmes and budgets, when the local capacity and commitment has been established (NCA).
- When community members are mobilized and organized, and develop project ideas themselves, their commitment to making the project a success and sustainable will be higher (NCA).
- Agencies must be flexible in their approach to target groups when working in post conflict situations, such as working with community structures when a government system has not yet been established, or expanding the age range of beneficiaries when it is clear that need exists (SAVE UK).
- Involving communities during the planning stage and listening to and implementing their ideas can prevent local clashes and can improve the scope of the programme (UNESCO).

6.3 Summary of Findings from Interviews and Document Search from International Agency Staff in Kampala

6.3.1 Donor concerns

The absence of a national policy on education in emergencies was a major drawback to education service delivery, especially given that funding agencies generally offer budget support within the sector wide approach. This means that the help is available to the rest of the country as per the priorities set by government.

It is both unfair and contradictory to subject learners to the same national examination when those operating in the northern districts have only up to one third of the total time available to cover the curriculum. This arrangement went is contrary to the stipulations of the minimum standards set by the Ministry of Education and Sports.

Limited access to secondary education for learners in the northern districts had a backlash on primary education. For example, learners are forced to repeat P7 in order to be able to qualify for a scholarship since they are unable to afford the high dues for secondary education (and after all under UPE, primary education is all but free). This leads to other complications such as:

- Repeaters being perceived as faster learners and therefore introducing another set of dynamics to the learning context;
- The repeating students are bound to be older and therefore more likely to harass the younger ones sexually and otherwise;
- The older learners also tend to challenge teachers over content, but indirectly as a form of competition for attention (especially boys trying to attract girls);
- The older learners are invariably the butt of jokes by younger learners and teachers.

There are indications that the funding agencies are alive to the constraints imposed by bureaucracy, and that they have creative ways of going round such bottlenecks to support education.

UNICEF have established most of the learning centres. They bring together learners from several schools. They offer some form of sheltered security but one cannot say the learners get the education they should, partly because teachers are also targeted for abduction or killing. Headteachers are not sufficiently motivated to risk their lives to supervise teachers. It gets worse when you factor in the fact that salaries are delayed as a matter of routine. "People know that in such situations the DEO is unlikely to pay a visit."

Certain issues related to the situation in the north were identified:

- Voluntary repeaters who cannot proceed to secondary school;
- Girls are particularly vulnerable in these circumstances, as they have to survive sexual pressure 'from all directions' plus dealing with culturally imposed gender burdens;
- Most of the learners have been so badly brutalised by the long conflict that their thinking span is also narrowed to how to cope with the conflict. Their hopes and aspirations for the future are considerably whittled down. "You visit a school with many pupils present but no teacher ... schools are kept going by dropouts".

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Reintegration of EACs (Formerly Abducted Children)

Many former abductees would have virtually given up their educational aspirations because they are aware of the obstacles they have to surmount. The stigma even within their own families is simply unbearable. Add to that the challenge of raising fees, which is quite high these days. However, there are a good number of cases that are determined to continue. One example of a former rebel who was a classmate of one of the MPs (Hon. Odonga Otto), now compares himself with the MP and believes there is still a chance for him to catch up. He started by getting training as a motor mechanic (offered by GUSCO) but he has failed to get a job because not many employers trust ex-rebels. It was also noted that there is high demand for non-formal education that guarantees a job either in the informal sector or some form of self-employment. This form of education is especially popular with women because they have the additional responsibility of looking after their babies.

Impact on development

It was noted that overall the conflict has undermined development because the individual efforts that add up to the community effort are not tapped. Yet that is the engine for development, not macro-projects like NUSAF. The conflict has also forced upon the people mobility and migration to safer areas of the country. People from the north now prefer to invest their long-term projects in the south of the country where there is relative calm.

Since education is an investment in human resources, putting money on an individual is likely to yield better dividends than investing in infrastructure that could end up being vandalised by rebels.

Access to education

The privatisation of education has resulted into a rush for profits over relevance. For the north in particular, the sacrifices of families are 'wasted' on people who will end up on streets instead of acquiring skills and competencies that would benefit the reconstruction of the region.

Priorities

One interviewee was asked to rank the services in their order of importance in the conflict area. He insisted that in times of conflict, especially the initial phases, people do not take education as a priority. It only comes in after a semblance of normalcy has been regained. Otherwise, it is security first, followed by food, then health, then education and surprising the last is sanitation.

6.3.2 Save the Children

SCiU operates in the two regions most ravaged by conflict, namely the south-western flank comprising Bundibugyo, Kasese and parts of Kabarole districts; and northern Uganda stretching from Karamoja, through Lira and Gulu. In the southwestern region, the organisation's interventions were limited mainly to assisting displaced children, their resettlement and provision of basic survival. It is in the northern region where the organisation has invested in educational support.

Why were Apac, Kitgum and Pader excluded yet they seem to bear the brunt of the conflict?

SCiU has done considerable advocacy for the two districts. However, it has not had direct interventions because

- Pader's security situation has been extremely volatile, this being the LRA corridor to southern Sudan.
- Apac has not been as badly affected by the war (directly, so to speak) as the other districts. Thus, in relative terms, it has been spared the worst excesses of the conflict.
- Kitgum has had assistance from sister organisation such as AVSI and Norwegian Refugee Council. SCiU did not wish to duplicate efforts.

What other criteria were considered in selecting operational sites?

Lira and Gulu are the major sinks of displacement.

What is the nature of educational support provided?

The educational support focuses mostly on 3 aspects:

- 1] School construction: the programme supports infrastructure development. Initially, this consisted of temporary school shelters in areas of massive displacement. However, with more stability of camps, SCiU has now gone into construction of more permanent classroom facilities in the camps.
- 2] Supply of scholastic materials to learners. This was considered important because the parents of the learners can no longer support their children due to the dislocated lives they lead.
- 3] Support to the education system (Teachers' colleges, local and district education offices and inspectorates). This is intended to enable these components of the education system to function as effectively as possible. Support to teacher training focuses on the development of psychosocial skills. Support to the DEO is in the form of logistics like fuel to ease their coordination of other agencies working in the field of education.

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Why not work directly with the beneficiaries?

Working directly with the beneficiaries can lead to the evolution of parallel centres of power that could potentially undermine government structures. Since donors have the money, they can 'buy' the allegiance of grassroots staff and threaten the government programmes that are supposed to be implemented by those officers concerned.

What is the procedure?

SCiU allows the system to identify the locations for given interventions. The system personnel supervise the quality of construction. They identify and select teachers and tutors to be trained.

What are some of the activities conducted?

Training: SCiU provides vocational skills training for returnees and former abductees. SCiU supports centres that receive and process returnees. These are CEASOP in Lira and GUSCO in Gulu. Both offer trauma counselling, debriefing and psychosocial support as their core business.

There is an ongoing debate to establish non-formal learning mechanisms but this is being done in liaison with the government. If it becomes operational, it is envisaged that accelerated provision of basic education can be done through community polytechnics.

Has SCiU considered impacting on the general teacher education system with lessons so far learnt?

This has only happened in the colleges with which SCiU are working. SCiU had not thought of it along those lines, but given that they work in partnership with Kyambogo University, they will raise it and seek the University's views. However, given that curriculum review is an entailed process, the best might be to create sufficient demand on the ground so that it sparks a bottom-up need for curriculum reform to integrate the lessons from the conflict zones.

How does SCiU contribute to policy discussion on emergency education?

SCiU is a strong and committed member of the Working Group on Education for Children in War and Emergencies. MOES coordinates this group, which is chaired by Mr. Okecho of Special Needs Education Department. The working group is advisory to MOES and its ideas are usually captured by MOES in the annual ESR. Most of them are taken up as policy.

SCiU also lobbies for special grants towards this sector. Perhaps most importantly, SCiU has succeeded in convincing government to allow a degree of flexibility in the use of UPE funds. Districts can now reallocate the funds to respond to emergencies.

SCiU has also been able to convince government to start a school feeding programme in the 19 districts most affected by war. This is being done in collaboration with WFP.

Does SCiU provide scholarships?

No. As a working principle, the organisation targets systems not individuals. This is because returns are higher with systems than they are with individuals.

What are the key successes achieved?

Apart from those relating to the policy on emergency education, you need to note that there are many other important players on the ground so it might not be fair to claim all the credit for SCiU. However, the ability to contribute to the maintenance of a semblance of a functional education system in the war ravaged parts of the country is a source of optimism. Schools provide a place for escape. They therefore provide physical points of hope for the future. Schools also serve as 'natural' sites for feeding and Medicare programmes. They therefore attract target clients including underage children.

Through well-coordinated collaboration, we have been able to avoid turf wars among agencies. What challenges?

- Most of the children who are supported in basic education get stranded after completing the primary cycle, because there is no support for secondary education. They are forced to repeat P7 with the belief that they may excel in their examinations and attract scholarships.
- When external evaluators come to review the work of organisations they tend to form the general impression that the emergency responses were inadequate. This betrays the direction such evaluators are coming from (non-emergency contexts). All organisations endeavour to do their best.
- The nature of the conflict has been very difficult to classify. It erupts, goes into a lull, is declared over, and then erupts all over again. Yet one cannot say there is a pattern. Thus, planning in such a context is extremely difficult.
- The duration of the war (over 18 years) has resulted into its being subconsciously accepted as a way of life. Some young people have known no other way of life.
- The security situation itself has been a source of concern. Recognising the need for sensible intervention (i.e. being mindful of the safety of the interveners) means limiting areas that can be accessed with services. "You wouldn't want to be responsible for the deaths of many staff members!"

6.3.3 AVSI

What are AVSI's main activities?

AVSI has a number of projects. Education is not one of its core businesses, but derives from work in HIV/AIDS and sponsorship. It was felt that the best way to support children who are affected by HIV/AIDS was through education. AVSI therefore supports the education of children from basic levels right up to tertiary level.

What is the decision making process?

This is done by the organisation supporting the children. For example, if sponsorship is coming from AIDS related organisations, they will insist that the child who is to access the support should either be one who is infected or is affected by the disease. The assistance also varies from child to child so the decision making process is quite flexible.

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What about teacher training?

Psychosocial teacher training depends on the identified needs of the respective field office. In Kitgum, the service providers are a CBO called Meeting Point

What do you perceive as the key challenges to education in conflict areas?

Perhaps a general comment on the quality of education on offer today – that large pupil numbers and few teachers compromise it. Automatic promotion is not helpful to the learner in the long run. The option might be for government to retrain teachers to improve their skills in handling large classes.

6.3.4 Ministry of Education and Sports

What steps have you covered in relation to the development of the policy?

Conducted a baseline study. Drew up framework for partners and government to take on board and already some aspects have been taken on board. The framework has identified areas of intervention, which include social support to children and dealing with trauma among the communities.

What modes of delivery has the MOES considered?

Apart from the ‘normal’ modes of delivery, government is examining non-formal education (NFE) initiatives with a view to utilising them to widen access and accelerate delivery in the north. Non-formal initiatives have the advantage of varying according to setting and host culture.

Achievements of the working group

Government has agreed to a completely different strategy to address the challenges of the north. Community polytechnics have been identified as centres for delivery of NFE. Government is now developing a course outline for NFE. It is being spearheaded by Kyambogo University (Mr. John Bwayo) and is due to be discussed by the Senate of the University.

Have you considered accelerating delivery through radio?

Yes, but the challenge remains limited capacity. Also, even if camps provide concentrations of the population that can be reached efficiently by radio, the proliferation of FM stations offering alternative forms of entertainment means that you will need an extremely competent team to design educational programmes that compete with music and jokes and retain the attention of learners. Moreover, there is no guarantee that radios are readily accessible. If you consider giving it to the camp commandant, you need to look at a few of the commandants to know that your initiative is unlikely to be their priority.

What are your views on the calls by EEAG for a special examination for the north?

That issue is a bit tricky. It is not clear whether even the target groups themselves would support it. That might be one way of segregating the learners from the north. It could also open the education system to doubts and leakages. What government is emphasising are literacy, numeracy and the development of life skills as core competencies.

What is likely to be the action of the MOES in the event of a cessation of the conflict?

Continue with psychosocial interventions. Even if the war ends, trauma will take longer to heal. Challenges

1. There are very many interested parties with different stakes. You get the sense that even the civil society players have vested interests that could be hampering the peace process. Some are extremely apprehensive about the possibility of peace breaking out: "What shall we do if the war ends?"
2. Every stakeholder has different materials for education, and many are trying out different approaches which have never been tested elsewhere for suitability. Some NGOs have dubious interests and they are even difficult to coordinate. Others don't have qualified personnel to work in education. "You see the problem is that everyone thinks they can teach, worse, that they can comment about education authoritatively".
3. The types of structures are both poor quality and overcrowded. Supervision of quality is difficult in war situations.
4. You cannot superimpose a NFE initiative from one context on another. This makes it difficult to replicate successes.
5. NFE initiatives are using teachers drawn from the community, many of who are not qualified. This leads to perceptions in the minds of recipients that they are getting lower quality education. The bigger problem is that even the Public Service does not recognise them in its establishment.
6. There is the unfortunate view that the north has got unlimited resources from many donors. That is not true. The resources are limited and are still poorly coordinated.

What are some of the lessons your committee has documented?

There is the overall assumption that things are almost normal. However, when you go on M&E visits you learn that education in the north requires flexibility and patience. No rigid regulation can apply to the north because the situation is volatile. For example, the MOES sets guidelines on how SMCs should operate. However, school management in Lira is totally different from school management in Gulu. In Gulu schools move as units to occupy safe areas. In Lira, individuals are scattered so schools easily get 'lost'. One compound had 14 Headteachers and 200 teachers.

Therefore, the latest approach by the MOES is to propose that when a school moves, the compound should identify each school with its management.

Secondly, the MOES has realised that staff ceilings do not apply in emergencies.

Government has also seen the need to plan and acquire components of mobile schools to be used during emergencies. The constraint to these seems to be infrastructure costs. Otherwise supplies like those developed by the Mango Tree Educational Enterprises offer the potential for self-access materials.

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Any other comments

Some NGOs have very good interventions. They rushed in to help when government was not yet ready. Examples are AVSI and UNICEF. They literally rescued the examinations delivery system otherwise many candidates would have been cut off for a number of years.

National Policy on IDPs in Uganda

Government and the UNDP launched the national policy on IDP. I have reproduced it here with only a comment under NB at the end.

Aims

- To promote integrated and coordinated response mechanisms to address the effects of internal displacement through cooperation between relevant government institutions and development and humanitarian agencies and other stakeholders.
- To provide an enabling environment for upholding the rights and entitlements of IDPs.
- To assist in the safe and voluntary return of IDPs.
- To develop sectoral programmes for rehabilitation and reconstruction of infrastructure and support sustainable livelihoods.

Proposed activities

- Establish mechanisms to coordinate and respond to the needs of the IDPs and to promote greater cooperation between relevant government institutions and development agencies.
- Develop sectoral programmes for the rehabilitation of social and economic infrastructure in IDP camps and in return and resettlement areas.
- Prepare national, regional and district plans
- Organise a strategy for the return, resettlement and reintegration of IDPs
- Publicise the national policy for IDPs
- Mobilise resources

Statistics

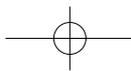
- Over 1.42 million IDPs in over 180 camps
- 90% of the Acholi sub-region are IDPs
- 80% of IDPs are women and children
- more than 1 million IDPs have little or no access to basic health services
- IDPs in Acholi sub-region depend on food relief for 75% of their needs
- Average monthly food requirement is 23,162 metric tons
- Over 50% of Kitgum and Pader's camps experience high malnutrition rates among under-5s.
- 23% of school-age children do not go to school
- 40% of IDPs do not have adequate supplies of water
- IDPs only collect 5 litres of water per day on average.

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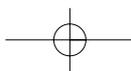
Table A5.1 Facts and Figures on IDPs in Uganda

District	IDP Camp Population	
	June 2004	Jan 2005
Gulu	438,639	468,000
Kitgum	267,078	267,087
Pader	279,589	299,000
Lira	293,996	299,000
Soroti	88,000	0
Katakwi	144,945	88,000
Kaberamaido	107,560	0
Total	1,609,744	1,421,087

(Even if the input on education is rather limited, this policy provides a framework for intervention. The absence of a specific education policy is no longer a major barrier to programming.)



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Appendix 7: Promising Example of ABE Programmes in Somaliland, Southern Sudan and Northern Uganda.

7.1 Somaliland

7.1.2 SOMDEL: Somali Distance Education and Literacy Programme

The Africa Educational Trust in conjunction with the BBC World Trust devised an innovative educational programme called SOMDEL: the Somalia Distance Education Literacy Programme. The aim of the programme is to provide basic literacy, numeracy and life skills to out-of-school youth and adults who missed out or were denied access to conventional schooling.

The project is known locally in Somali as ‘Macallinka Raddiya’ (Radio Teacher). It consists of a three way approach which combines radio, print, and face-to-face teaching. Each week a thirty minute radio broadcast is aired after the BBC World Service News. There are two main aims of the programme: firstly, to help registered SOMDEL learners to improve literacy and numeracy skills; and secondly, to create an awareness and understanding of important health, nutrition, environmental, and human rights issues to listeners.

Through the radio programme, thousands of people throughout Somaliland and Somalia have access to education. This approach of distance and open learning provides a realistic and viable alternative when more conventional modes of delivery are not available. The broadcasts are in the form of ‘edutainment’ which makes learning a fun and informative experience. The broadcasts can reach parts of Somalia where conflict and fighting prevent other forms of educational delivery. Radios are ubiquitous and are ‘moveable’ items; this is especially significant amongst nomadic communities. The face-to-face instruction takes place in the afternoons so that women are able to attend; in many cases, these classes provide the only opportunity for a significant number of women to become literate and numerate. It is estimated that over 12,000 learners have completed the SOMDEL course (over 75% are female) and that thousands of listeners around Somaliland and Somalia tune in to the programmes. The SOMDEL programme is accessible to a wide range of the population because of the linguistic and homogeneity of the culture.

7.1.3 Vouchers and Vocational Training for Youth in Somaliland and Puntland

An important element of ABE is the related vocational training. Again there is almost universal agreement on the importance of this in post-conflict situations and not many examples of successful interventions. Two promising programmes offering vocational training to the over-age population in Somaliland are as follows. One is the SEIGYM (Somali Education Incentives for Girls and Young Men) voucher programme. The Africa Educational Trust devised an innovative project to address the need for access and quality education for young people in Somaliland and Puntland. The project supported local non-formal education committees to allocate educational vouchers to the most disadvantaged girls and young men in the community. Young people were empowered to use these vouchers for a course of their choice either educational or vocational. Some of the vocational training options include driving, computing, building, tailoring, and catering. The voucher method of organising training enables young people concerned to use their knowledge of the way in which the local labour markets are developing to organise their own training (Sesnan 2004): Significantly, a number of places are reserved for the disabled and many have benefited from computing courses and other skills training.

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Another initiative for youth in Somaliland is the vocational training courses offered by the local NGO HAVOYOCO: The Horn of Africa Voluntary Youth Committee based in Hargeisa. The original aim of the programme was to provide socio-economic re-integration to poor returnees; however, pupils in the formal schools who drop out of school also want to join their programmes. The age bracket is 17-30 years of age. Female trainees normally constitute one third of the beneficiaries. They normally publicise in the local media for the new intake. For the last intake, 2000 persons applied and 600 were short listed. They provide a test in Somali, mathematics and English, and the top 120 males and the top 60 females are given places. Each of the 180 had to bring his/her guardian to sign an agreement with the management of the centre and the agreement stipulates that the guardian has to pay the whole cost of the training if the trainee drops out intentionally. The programme was originally intended to benefit poor returnees. In an interview with the project officer, he comments on the demand for the programme and the conflict with its original intentions. "If we start to charge fees, accounting on popular demand for our courses there may be people who are willing to pay for the training which in that way would keep sustainable the vocational training programme but excludes the intended beneficiaries of the programme."

7.2 Programmes in southern Sudan

There are various alternative educational programmes in southern Sudan and a few examples are cited below.

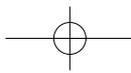
7.2.1 ALP

The Accelerated Learning Programme is implemented in Awiel, Gokrial, Wau and Rumbek counties. It targets adolescents, 12-18 years of age, who missed out on formal education such as demobilised child soldiers and women. The syllabus is similar to the formal school, and 8 years of schooling is condensed into 4 years. It comprises of all main syllabus of the New Sudan Curriculum and addition Life Skills Training- including HIV/Aids awareness, environmental studies, and sex education. The learning is flexible and accommodates multiple entry and exit points. The languages of instruction are mother tongue for level one while the remaining levels are taught in English. After completing level 4, the learners sit for the New Sudan Primary Education Certificate. If students complete the course, they are able to join secondary school.¹²

7.2.2 Vocational Training programmes

These are offered by NGOs and UN agencies who support vulnerable groups such as children with disabilities, abducted children, child soldiers and orphans. Vocational training includes skills in carpentry, masonry, agriculture, soap making and tailoring. The duration of the training programmes is for 9 months. When students graduate, they are provided with tools which they can keep and use in their own communities.

¹² Interview by Philip Mapour, with Mr Kernyang Ciir Dut – Education Director for Bahr El Ghazal Region.



Appendix 7: Promising Example of ABE Programmes in Somaliland, Southern Sudan and Northern Uganda

7.2.3 Adult Education

This programme targets both men and women who are adults. Those who did not get chance to go to school and who are over age. In addition, those who studied in Arabic schools are also

targeted by this program. The school enrolls 60 men and 65 women. Course taught include: English Language, mathematics, Science, agriculture, geography, history and Dinka language. Formal Primary syllabus is followed. (There is no adult syllabus and for that reason formal primary school syllabus has to be followed.)

Teachers teach on a voluntary basis, but receive in service training supported by New Sudan Council of Churches (NSCC). NSCC also support the school by supplying exercise books, chalk and black boards.

7.2.4 Intensive English Language Course for Adults

English is the official language of instruction in southern Sudan, and there is a demand for many adults to learn it. Most adults including women attend English courses in order to help them at their work. This is conducted in 2 forms – either the students attend the classes for full time or for part time during the day time. The duration of the course differs from two weeks of teaching. Like wise the levels of the course differs in stages as there is a course for beginners, intermediate and Advance. The course level provided mostly deals with beginners and few for intermediate English stage. There are specific materials developed for different English language courses included audio-material. AET has developed for intermediate stage and SBEP is developing material for beginners.

Within the English Language Course, there are other Educational aspects incorporated in it. These include life skills subjects like numeracy, health education, management/ leadership skills, Peace Education, Child care, and Business skills.

7.2.5 Skills Training: Computer Course

Many adults and young people are interested in computer skills because most office work uses a computer. It is a skill that provides opportunities for jobs as well as making the work easier. Some organisation offer computer trainings mostly with basic skills like in Microsoft words, Excel, Access and power point. The duration always depend on the number of packages/ contents being delivered. However there are 2 to 4 weeks courses. Sometimes a computer course is accompanied with English language teaching as to facilitate the process of the training especially for those with little English.

7.3 Programmes in northern Uganda

Below are two examples of ABE programmes in northern Ugandas. One is vocational training aimed at formerly abducted women and the other is a programme offering literacy, numeracy and life skills.



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7.3.1 St Monica Vocational School

One of the most promising approaches to education in northern Uganda is the vocational programme offered to formerly abducted mothers (FAMs) in Gulu. The programme aims to provide basic literacy and numeracy skills to FAMs and to train them in vocational training such as catering or tailoring. These skills are necessary to enable the young women to earn a living. In addition, the school has a crèche for the young children of the FAMs. It also offers some counselling services because the young women have been through horrific acts of violence – physically maimed, emotionally scarred and raped. Some of the young women are also HIV positive. In an interview with the Director of the Centre, she said how difficult it was to work with young women who have been maimed, raped and lost their childhood. She asked me, “How do you tell a young woman who has gone through all this and has a small baby – that she has Aids?”

7.3.2 COPE

Another initiative to provide ABE in northern Uganda is the Complementary Opportunity for Primary Education Programme (COPE). COPE was developed by the Government of Uganda and the UNICEF country program as an initiative to provide an alternative education strategy specifically designed to equip out-of-school children who are unable to participate in the formal education system with basic literacy, numeracy and life-coping skills. The programme is community based and targets young people aged 8-14 years of age and the priority is to reach female students. Recent research has shown that the quality of education and performance varies considerably between districts based on factors such as community involvement and mobilisation, technical capabilities, and support from local councils.¹³

Significantly, there are very few promising approaches of ABE programmes in northern Uganda. After conducting field research in Bobi camp, one of the researchers raised the following point: “Most of those who return from captivity, on top of having lost their chances for formal education, came back maimed and therefore, physically unfit because of the harsh treatment. For this reason, even skills training may not be the best option for them unless a careful selection of courses or training programmes are done according to the physical condition of the beneficiaries.”¹⁴ He also raised a very important point about the inability to categorise education provided by NGOs to teachers and abductees since there is no clear indication on how it links with existing systems.

¹³ For a full report on the programme see Kajula, PW (2005) *Reaching Children Out-of-School in Uganda: A Case Study of Complementary Opportunity for Primary Education Programme COPE*.

¹⁴ December Field Report, Bobi and Palenga camps.

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04/07 1K Produced for DFID by Fuller-Davies Limited

ISBN 1 86192 869 6