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From Bullets to Blackboards

*Education for Peace
in Latin America and Asia*

Emily Vargas-Barón

Hernando Bernal Alarcón

Editors

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to Blackboards

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Emily Vargas-Barón
Hernando Bernal Alarcón

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About the Sponsors of the Book

The Japan Program, established in May 1999, serves as the focal point within the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) to plan, execute, and follow up on activities that strengthen links between East Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean. With financial support largely from the government of Japan, the Japan Program creates opportunities for Latin America and the Caribbean to exchange development experience, expertise, and best practices with East Asian counterparts, and vice-versa. The Japan Program promotes partnerships in support of economic and social development, adhering to the priorities of the IDB and those expressed to the IDB by its borrowing member countries. For more information, please visit our website at http://www.iadb.org/int/jpn.

The Institute for Reconstruction and International Security through Education (the RISE Institute) is a nongovernmental organization based in Washington, D.C. and Bogotá, Colombia dedicated to promoting international security and stability through education initiatives. It conducts research projects, training programs, and networking activities, disseminates information, and provides advisory services for policy and program development. The website of the RISE Institute is: http://www.riseinstitute.org.

Foreword

Nohra Rey de Marulanda
Manager, Integration and Regional Programs Department
Inter-American Development Bank

This book was prepared under an initiative on Education and Social Reconstruction in Latin America and Asia, coordinated by the Japan Program of the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) and the Institute for Reconstruction and International Security through Education (the RISE Institute).

The initiative highlights educational innovations made under fire—during and after conflicts in Latin America and East Asia. These innovations aim to help nations improve their educational systems and rebuild their societies. Exemplary education programs developed in conflict situations in Latin America and East Asia were identified, described, and analyzed, with lessons and best practices applicable to nations around the world. The resulting case studies were discussed at an inter-regional symposium held November 18 to 20, 2003 at the Inter-American Development Bank in Washington, D.C. The symposium brought together the authors from Latin America and Asia, as well as leading international specialists on educational policy planning, in order to discuss and analyze innovative ways to meet the learning and developmental needs of children and youth, as well as their families and communities, both during and after conflicts. The inter-regional dialogues identified a number of good practices and lessons learned, proposed some policy implications, prepared recommendations for international organizations, and outlined next steps for future inter-regional exchanges.

The case studies presented in this volume were selected to represent a wide range of education initiatives found in conflict and post-conflict countries. They focus on early childhood, primary, secondary, technical/vocational, or non-formal education, as well as parent education, teacher training, bilingual education, and training for ex-combatants. Some of the initiatives include special topics such as trauma healing, conflict resolution, and human rights and citizenship education. The following criteria were used to select the programs to be studied:

• Formal or non-formal education programs or policy planning processes for education during and after conflicts that are not only promising, but evidence-based

- Education programs that are integrated to some degree with programs in other sectors aimed at reconstructing society: income generation, community development, social or environmental protection, health, nutrition, strengthening civil society, local governance, and the like
- Policies and programs developed and managed by national or local organizations.

Each case study yields best practices and lessons learned about the different stages of program and policy development. These cases identify obstacles and barriers often encountered in implementing education initiatives in conflict or post-conflict environments, and indicate how these challenges have been overcome. The cases from nine countries in two regions—all at different phases of conflict and post-conflict reconstruction—demonstrate diverse routes taken for achieving effective program design, implementation, management, and evaluation. At the same time, they identify many similarities; these validate positions they hold in common. These points and lessons learned are discussed in chapter 1.

I hope this publication will contribute to achieving a better understanding of how to conduct education programs and policies in conflict or post-conflict situations, especially for those who are committed to expanding education opportunities for children, youth, and adults in conflict-afflicted societies. We believe that by sharing these and related experiences inter-regionally, the quality of education in conflict situations will be improved and education will help nations achieve greater social stability, equity, and development.

Part I
Introduction

Chapter 1

**Educating Children and Youth
in Countries with Conflicts**

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Chapter 1

Educating Children and Youth
in Countries with Conflicts

Emily Vargas-Barón and Hernando Bernal Alarcón

*"When I stand before thee at day's end,
thou shalt see my scars and know that I had my wounds
but also my healing."*

*Rabindranath Tagore
Bengali philosopher and educator
1916*

It is a dreadful irony: when nations endure civil strife or war, one of the first institutions to fail is the education system. Yet it is the education system that is key to rebuilding society—and preventing and overcoming future conflict. And relatively little is known about how best to strengthen or rehabilitate education systems in conflict situations.

The case studies in this book have dealt with this problem head on. They have done it with creativity and compassion—and often with very few resources.

The ten case studies reveal that despite great geographical distances and major cultural differences, education programs in conflict and post-conflict societies of East Asia and Latin America have faced common challenges. In response, they have developed programs with strikingly similar conceptual frameworks, strategies, processes, and methods.

This book describes the problems that practitioners in the field—on the front lines of education—have faced and the solutions they have launched during and after war and conflict. It also draws on experts from development agencies and nongovernmental organizations, who met with the authors of the case studies in an international symposium to share ideas and distill lessons.

In so doing, the book helps meet a major need for descriptions of best practices and lessons learned by successful education programs in conflict situations. It is hoped they will encourage the development of new educational policies and programs to expand and improve services for vulnerable children and youth who are suffering silently in conflict situations all around the world.

Children and Education: Casualties of Conflict

The end of the Cold War has ushered in an escalation of civil strife and regional wars around the world. As of mid-2004, over 76 nations were experiencing armed conflicts or were in post-crisis transition. When nations directly affected by conflicts are added to those housing large refugee populations and others with recurrent natural disasters or heavily afflicted by HIV/AIDS, well over half the nations of the world, at least 110 countries, are facing increasing instability, violence, resource challenges—and perhaps, chaos. Many of these countries are impoverished and have become the seedbed of revolutionaries seeking to redress inequities, as well as refuges of international terrorist groups. The world can ill afford the military, educational, social, and economic costs of escalating complex crises.

Some 90 percent of the victims of conflicts are civilians and over 80 percent of them are children and women, according to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). Since 1990 over 2 million children have died because of armed conflicts, 6 million have been seriously injured, 1 million have been orphaned or separated from their families, and 12 million have been left homeless (UNICEF 1999, 2001a, 2003). Because of these emergencies, many nations now house large numbers of refugees and are severely strained in other ways by neighboring conflicts. Often, host nations are impoverished and must divert scarce resources from services for their own citizens to aid refugees. In addition, the impacts of natural disasters and infectious diseases such as the HIV/AIDS, malaria, and tuberculosis tend to be far greater in countries that are already enduring the stresses of complex emergencies.

The list of factors that can contribute to or precipitate conflicts is long and dismal, and includes inter-ethnic frictions; major disputes relating to religion, class, income group, or caste; corruption and violence related to drug or other illicit trades; guerrilla uprisings; international or inter-community strife; military or other types of government coups; and disputes over water, land, or

other resources. Although complex emergencies develop over time, any one or several of these factors may trigger the rapid disintegration of a country and the emergence of conflict. Compounding these problems, most nations with conflicts have high levels of poverty and governments that are unable to provide their citizens with adequate governance, security, human rights, and basic education and health services.

Countries with complex internal emergencies virtually always have failing or weakened educational systems. Indeed, these education systems have often contributed directly or indirectly to the eruption of violence and to the disintegration of the state. Failed policies and programs, institutional rigidities, limitations of organizational and coordination structures, and dysfunctional traditional teaching methods and contents often are at fault. Both formal and non-formal education programs can share these problems and should be assessed for their role in promoting conflicts as well as helping ensure long-term education reform.[1]

Even more fundamentally, education reflects national values and identities. Often there are cultural, religious, social, and economic dimensions of educational failures in many countries afflicted by civil strife, conflict, or war. For example, indigenous peoples, females, various ethnic groups, and others who are the most vulnerable in society are often marginalized, under-served, and receive low-quality education services. Many complex educational emergencies occur because of inter-group or inter-ethnic strife. Special and timely attention must be paid to these concerns or they will reappear to cause future friction and violence.

Schools and education systems are usually heavily damaged during periods of external invasion or internal strife, as are basic social and health services, local economies, physical infrastructure, and the environment. Unless special measures are undertaken in conflict zones, destruction brings educational and socioeconomic development to a standstill. Children trapped in such zones or left to wander on the streets or in camps for displaced persons or refugees usually become traumatized, as well as chronically ill and malnourished. They often lack early childhood stimulation and educational opportunities. While

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1. In this volume, education is operationally defined to include both formal and non-formal learning systems that have central purposes, goals, and objectives; an organizational structure; teachers or learning facilitators; declared content, methods, and media; and significant population coverage.

some attention may be paid to their survival and physical needs, if children's psychological wounds and learning requirements are not attended to rapidly, children will continue to suffer and develop poorly for years. Such children could become the next generation of people propagating yet another cycle of violence. Some may become child soldiers or may be recruited by terrorist organizations.

Education: Key to Overcoming Conflict and Attaining Peace

The civil disorders and violence that characterize nations in crisis virtually always affect neighboring states. Violence and various types of illicit activities spill rapidly over borders. Neighboring countries often must host and care for vast numbers of refugees. In many instances, this "ripple effect" leads to international friction, and in extreme cases, to open conflict between nations. In recent years, many such situations have resulted in military intervention by regional and global organizations. It is clear that national crises are more than simply internal matters of countries where the state is weak; such conditions can become a threat to their neighbors and to international security. This has become apparent, as the "age of modern international terrorism" has taken center-stage.

The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 and ensuing attacks elsewhere in the world brought these lessons vividly home to millions. Awareness has spread that not only must nations and communities be protected against immediate threats; the roots of conflict must be identified and overcome. Education has been cited as a cause of radical militarism, as a tool for indoctrination, and as a means for gaining military and tactical knowledge for carrying out violent acts. At the same time, education has proven to be a means for building inter-group respect and tolerance, for achieving the ideals of human rights, democracy, and reconciliation, and for creating systems that will achieve peaceful development. To attain these positive goals, it is essential that education become a part of the strategy to prevent as well as to overcome conflicts that threaten international security.

International development efforts have a role to play in any attempts to safeguard international security and achieve peace. A critical role is restoring and strengthening the social, educational, economic, and political fabric of

countries that are likely to experience new or renewed conflicts. Some multilateral, bilateral, and other development aid organizations are becoming aware of the need to use integrated approaches to assist countries in a timely manner to avert crises. However, many countries currently enduring conflicts still lack the educational assistance they require, to say nothing of the many states poised at the brink of new or renewed conflicts. This is a critical gap.

The ability of a society to meet its intergenerational commitment is its foundation for achieving stability and sustained socioeconomic development. Education is the essential process by which societies meet their intergenerational commitment (Vargas-Baron and McClure 1998). When a nation is unable to prepare the next generation by means of teaching its cultural values and traditions, as well as core knowledge and skills, the foundation of society is eroded. Its institutions are weakened, and ultimately destroyed. Education is more than a building block of societies; it is the cement and mortar—the process and structure that binds together the elements that compose the foundation of societies. To stabilize countries under stress, these foundational elements must be strengthened, especially by reforming the processes, structures, and content of education. For this reason and to the extent possible, *planning for education reform should begin during the final phase of a conflict and the earliest stages of social reconstruction.*

To overcome conflicts and achieve a durable peace, the foundation of society must be rebuilt. When education reform is used as a basic tool for societies to rebuild and sustain themselves, it involves citizens in organizing around a "common interest." Experience has shown that in those countries where new educational systems, structures, and processes are established through the implementation of education reforms, the lessons learned can be applied rapidly to other areas of development. For example, since education often receives a large percentage of national budgets in developing nations, improvements in educational administration can help improve countries' civil service systems. *If planning for education during and after conflicts is integrated with programming in other sectors, it can become a "flying wedge" for building the peace.*

Nation Building and Building Nationhood

With the advent of major conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq, increasing emphasis has been placed upon the rather vague notion of "nation-building." Most strategic programs for nation-building have been directed toward developing electoral processes and establishing democratic governance, training security forces, providing humanitarian assistance, building physical infrastructure (roads, building, bridges, and also schools). Nation-building strategies rarely have included a strong emphasis on the more fundamental reform of educational policies and programs.

However, educational interventions can contribute not only to "nation-building" in the political and structural sense but also to the more personal, communal, and enduring process of "building nationhood." Loosely defined, "building nationhood" means ensuring that citizens feel that they belong to and can contribute to their country. As the case studies in this book testify, education for positive citizenship can help achieve more equitable socioeconomic development and greater social justice. It can also promote cultural maintenance and growth, intercultural understanding, respect and tolerance, and self-directed evolution for all groups within a nation. Education can help develop more resilient and durable socioeconomic systems, maintain security, and attain peace with development.

Nationhood can be built by developing formal and non-formal education systems that teach core values and basic skills, including an understanding of human rights. Education can promote balanced emotional development and build positive interpersonal relationships for citizenship, including reconciliation and healing, thereby helping to avoid cyclical violence. Education programs can provide knowledge and work-related skills for productivity, to strengthen the economy and improve people's livelihoods.

For minority ethnic and linguistic groups, education programs that are derived from their realities and meet their educational needs can help them preserve the essence of their cultures while entering the modern world from a point of strength. Culturally derived education programs can help ethnic minorities maintain or gain a strong self-identity and participate in national life. At the same time, they can acquire the knowledge and tools they need to achieve their goals.

By including education for positive citizenship in the process of nation-building, vulnerable people can begin to resolve conflicts, gain control over their lives, and achieve reconciliation. They can overcome a sense of hopelessness in the face of violent groups that act with impunity. *Several of the case studies demonstrate that education can contribute to developing harmonious relations between groups that are diverse with respect to culture, religion, or socioeconomic level.*

Education can also be used as a proactive tool for preventing conflict within and among nations. A great deal remains to be learned about how best to do this. In countries that have already experienced conflicts, educational interventions can become a laboratory for using education to prevent future or cyclical violence elsewhere. Often violence is correlated with high levels of poverty, low levels of school enrollment and primary completion, and gender inequities. Thus developing new and effective policies and programs to correct these problems may well be of critical importance. Attention especially should be given to achieving educational equity, increasing investments in education and training, revising curricula and teaching methods, and rapidly expanding pre- and in-service teacher training.

The International Community's Commitment to Education for Nations in Conflict

The needs of the millions of children negatively affected by conflicts, and their vital requirements for education, are being increasingly addressed by the international community within the framework of global support for achieving universal basic education. In two recent summits, heads of the G-8 nations expressed their interest in supporting basic education for all, including in nations with conflicts.[2] The Communiqués issued by the Heads of State of the G-8 Summits in Okinawa (June 2000) and Genoa (June 2001) gave priority to the essential roles of education, health, and information technology for achieving poverty reduction and economic growth.

At the World Education Forum for Education for All (EFA) held in Dakar, Senegal in April 2000, nations underscored the importance of using

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2. Basic education is defined to include early childhood development, primary and secondary education, literacy for youth and adults, and teacher training.

educational policy planning and program development to help create stable and economically viable societies. Nations stated their commitment to expand and improve basic education not only to "sustainable development nations," but also to those that are enduring conflicts. To achieve EFA goals by 2015, the Dakar Framework for Action calls for providing help with educational policy and program development in countries affected by conflicts.

The need is urgent. As noted in a study on conflict situations prepared for the World Education Forum, "Man-made and natural disasters have emerged as major barriers to the accomplishment of Education for All" (Bensalah, Sinclair, and Hadj Nacer 1999, preface). Most of the more than 135 million children who are not receiving a basic education reside in nations with conflict or post-conflict situations. Various educational specialists have affirmed that their education needs are being neglected (Sommers 2002). Unless significant assistance is provided for these children, EFA will not be attained by 2015—or even 2030.

To achieve universal basic education, a major and purposeful international effort will be required to provide quality learning opportunities to millions of children living in nations with conflicts. The Dakar Framework for Action includes a pledge to "meet the needs of education systems affected by conditions of conflict and instability and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and help to prevent violence and conflict." The participants also agreed to assist countries to develop national EFA plans, noting that, "countries with less developed strategies—including countries affected by conflict, countries in transition and post-crisis countries—must be given the support they need to achieve more rapid progress towards education for all." The nations and donors declared, "For those countries with significant challenges, such as complex crises or natural disasters, special technical support will be provided by the international community" (UNESCO 2000a). To fulfill these pledges, extensive additional technical expertise will be required in this decade to help nations in crisis with participatory policy planning to develop their education systems.

The Knowledge Gap

The world can ill afford the human, military, and economic costs of conflicts in developing nations. However, the few international specialists who have the requisite knowledge and experience in education and participatory policy

planning during or after conflict often do not know one another and rarely have opportunities to meet or work together. National education specialists in conflict situations also tend to work in an isolated manner. As a result, a small group of international specialists in "emergency education" are called upon repeatedly to provide short-term, stopgap services for ongoing conflicts or immediate post-conflict assistance. Rarely are they or others funded to conduct evaluations and action research on their activities. As a result, their critically important experiences in planning and program design are largely lost. Moreover, they are in such high demand that they lack the time and support to develop effective networks, conduct evaluations, and describe their work.

Some excellent education programs can be found in conflict situations, but they are largely unknown in neighboring countries and other world regions. Even in their own countries, the personnel of education programs developed during and after conflicts rarely know about one another's programs. They lack opportunities to share their knowledge, skills, materials, methods, and evaluations; visit other programs; develop joint training activities; and build networks. Thus it is not surprising that relatively little is generally known about how best to strengthen or rehabilitate education systems in conflict situations. Although a few studies exist on education in violent crises, the knowledge base is thin and spotty at best. Even though important conceptual work and field activities for preventing conflict and conducting educational interventions during and after crises have been initiated during the past 15 years, little of this work has been well documented or evaluated in any world area.

Why Were Latin America and East Asia Selected for This Book?

Clearly, the Latin American region is a prevailing interest of the publisher of this book, the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). Over the years, the Bank has studied many aspects of poverty and educational and socioeconomic development in Latin America. However, this is IDB's first book on education in conflict situations in Latin America. Most nations in Latin America either have ongoing conflicts or are dealing with post-conflict reconstruction. These situations are a reflection of socioeconomic inequities, poverty, poor child development and educational quality, inadequate access to basic public services, and discrimination against minority ethnic and linguistic groups (Moran 2003; Buvinic 2004).

The selection of East Asia may appear to be less clear because various other regions with conflicts could have been chosen, including North and Sub-Saharan Africa, Southeastern Europe, the Middle East, or South Asia.

East Asia was selected because it experienced several community, national, and regional conflicts well ahead of the current wave of international post-Cold War strife in Latin America. Also, the Japan Program of the Inter-American Development Bank, which sponsored this project, seeks to strengthen bonds between the countries of East Asia and Latin America. It is hoped that lessons learned from education programs and policies developed in Asia can provide special insights for some of the more recent conflict situations in Latin America, and potentially other regions, as well. Moreover, because conflicts continue in several countries of East Asia, it was felt that these nations might benefit from learning about and developing exchanges with successful education programs in conflict situations in Latin America.

Several post-conflict countries of East Asia did not deal in a timely manner with the education needs of their ethnic minorities, remote rural areas, street children, and children affected by war. As a consequence, these nations experienced major problems in social development, learned from this experience, and implemented education programs with those populations only later. Currently, several Latin American nations with conflicts are at risk of not providing timely education services for minority ethnic groups, children of war, children in displaced families, ex-combatants, and remote rural peoples who lack access to quality education services. Asian experiences provide a mirror for Latin Americans to reflect on their alternatives for achieving greater social justice and educational equity.

Furthermore, some East Asian countries developed several innovative programs that have achieved high educational quality both during and after conflicts. While arguments have raged internationally about whether educational quality can be attained in conflict situations, Asian program designers have demonstrated that quality and speedy program development are not antithetical. They have shown that complete program development processes can be implemented, cultural strengths can be marshaled to provide appropriate education programs, parents can become key actors and stakeholders in educational development, and education programs can be provided from birth onward. Asians have shown the world how to develop flexible pilot programs and then scale them up to cover large numbers of

children in camps for displaced persons or refugees, conflict zones, and distant rural ethnic enclaves.

In many emergency programs sponsored by international donors, trauma-healing services are separated from education programs. Asian programs have demonstrated how to unite effectively trauma healing with education services. These experiences are germane to Latin American programs that are struggling with children and parents who have suffered from significant recurrent trauma and are dealing with issues related to conflict resolution and reconciliation.

East Asian education specialists have extensive experience dealing with education for internally displaced families and refugees. Countries such as Colombia, with over 2 million displaced persons, face a major need to develop quality education for these children in many urban and rural areas. Lessons learned in Asia could assist Colombia and other nations of Latin America that are struggling to serve displaced and refugee children who lack educational opportunities.

Some observers have posited that Asian and Latin American experiences would be so profoundly different that representatives of selected programs would be unable to find points of commonality. Others, including the editors, believed the opposite would be true: that similar conflict situations and educational responses and processes would be found. As described in this book, the similarities were compelling. During an Inter-Regional Symposium held at the Inter-American Development Bank in November 2003, the authors from both regions met and enthusiastically exchanged program strategies and models as well as ideas for the future, revealing not only their essential humanity and dedication but also plentiful points of agreement. They prepared *Recommendations for International Organizations* and a *Plan of Action* to guide future inter-regional exchange activities.[3] Thus the final and perhaps most compelling reason for selecting East Asia was to begin to build a bridge between programs and specialists of the two regions who are committed to achieving the common goal of improving education for vulnerable children.

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3. These documents are available on website of the RISE Institute: http://www.riseinstitute.org.

The Case Studies

This book seeks to assist nations, donor agencies, and nongovernmental organizations in gaining ideas for developing policies and programs, preventing chronic conflict, and designing integrated education and social reconstruction programs that are implemented by groups directly affected by conflicts. In both Latin American and Asian countries with crises, strikingly innovative policies and programs have been developed to expand and improve education and contribute to national reconstruction. These policies and programs are little known. National specialists in both regions labor courageously—but in isolation. As a result, they often "reinvent the wheel." There is an urgent need for them and others to share educational policy planning strategies and program models, materials, media, tools, and methodologies.

The ten case studies in this book describe exemplary education programs and policies that have been successful in meeting the learning needs of vulnerable children and families affected by violence. They were selected to represent a wide array of types of programs that can be implemented in conflict situations. In each case study, best practices and lessons learned are identified.

With this rationale in mind, the following ten case studies are presented in this book, five from Latin America and five from Asia.[4]

In Latin America

COLOMBIA. Building a Laboratory for Peace
   The University of Ibagué's Social Development Program serves internally displaced families of the violence-affected region of Tolima and trains professionals and community outreach workers who help them. It includes a virtual education program that serves rural towns that are dangerous for outsiders to visit, a community college that provides basic and skills education for youth and adults, and training for teachers and professors to deal with families affected by violence and promote education for peace, democracy, and reconciliation.

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4.   The project goal, objectives, phases, criteria for the selection of case studies, outline for the case studies, executive summaries, and complete case studies may be found in the following websites: http://www.riseinstitute.org and http://www.iadb.org/int/jpn/English/main.htm.

EL SALVADOR. Education Policy and Reform
The national educational policy reform of El Salvador began even before the conflict ended. It featured a participatory planning process with stakeholder consultations and consensus building at all levels and regions to reformulate primary and secondary education and teacher training.

EL SALVADOR. Reintegrating Ex-Combatants into Society
This program for former members of military and guerrilla groups provided both basic education and skills training. It also included trauma healing and conflict resolution activities, as well as health education, community relations, and peace education.

GUATEMALA. Promoting Literacy and Women's Development in Mayan Communities
This integrated bilingual literacy and basic education program worked with many local NGOs to provide education to girls and women in Mayan areas. It also provided community education and training for community educators.

PERU. Training Human Rights Promoters
The Peruvian Institute of Education for Human Rights and Peace trains community educators to sensitize and empower citizens to achieve peace, democracy, and reconciliation. It stimulated the creation of a nation-wide network of community educators and promoted the development of local organizations for human rights and democratic governance.

In Asia

CAMBODIA. Empowering Ethnic Minorities in the Cambodian Highlands
This bilingual basic education program engages members of local ethnic groups in developing new curricula and educational materials. It trains community educators to provide literacy education and skills training for community development, environmental protection, peace, and local governance. It has had a significant impact on national educational and language policy.

INDONESIA. Early Childhood Development for Refugee Children
This program for early childhood development in camps of displaced families features culturally derived preschool curricula and methods, training for community educators, parent education and involvement, trauma assessments and services, and education for inter-religious group understanding and reconciliation.

LAO PDR. Teacher Training in Remote Areas

This nationwide in-service teacher training program seeks to provide improved educational services for children in remote rural areas long neglected after the end of conflict in and around Lao PDR. The program has led to changes in educational policy, improved primary and secondary education, and promoted parent involvement in schools and community education.

THE PHILIPPINES. Creating Schools that Heal and Teach Peace

This program in Mindanao, the Philippines, works to improve the quality of primary education. It includes teacher training, parent education and involvement, community education, and components for trauma healing, conflict resolution, and reconciliation. It has led to educational policy change in the region.

VIET NAM. Educating Hard-to-Reach Children

Long after the end of the war in Viet Nam, many children in remote areas remained unschooled or received poor quality services. Street children, abandoned in the cities, became feared juvenile delinquents. Seeking to achieve universal primary education, Viet Nam developed effective new educational policies and programs for multigrade education in rural areas and alternative basic education in informal community settings for street children.

The exemplary education programs selected for study ranged greatly in size, although most are large, serving thousands to hundreds of thousands of children, youth, and families. One program in Ambon, Indonesia is relatively small, serving only a few hundred children and their parents. However, this model has proven to be highly effective; as a result, it is being replicated rapidly in other Indonesian camps for displaced families. ASAPROSAR in El Salvador served slightly over 200 ex-combatants; however, the lessons learned from this program were used in similar programs later developed throughout the nation. Programs in Cambodia, Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Lao PDR, Peru, the Philippines, and Viet Nam have achieved large-scale coverage serving several thousand children, youth, and adults. Most of them are continuing to grow.

Policies or programs were initiated during conflicts in Colombia, El Salvador (the educational reform), Indonesia, and the Philippines. Each of these has been highly successful in achieving its objectives, despite its location in

conflict zones. Programs begun after the end of conflict include those in Cambodia, El Salvador (program for ex-combatants), Guatemala, Lao PDR, Peru, and Viet Nam. The Guatemalan, Peruvian, and Salvadoran programs were developed soon after conflict ended. The Cambodian, Lao, and Vietnamese programs were developed well after conflict had ended, although the impacts of the conflicts and the potential for renewed violence clearly shaped the nature of these programs.

The case studies describe salient program dimensions, including socio-cultural and historical contexts; the relationship to conflict or post-conflict conditions; program challenges; core organization, activities, and content; results; best practices; and lessons learned.[5]

Lessons Learned about Education in Conflict Situations

With the goal of helping improve education programs in conflict situations, major lessons learned across the ten exemplary education programs are discussed below (see box 1.1, page 18).

Discussions of best practices and lessons learned are presented in each case study. Thus separate program findings are not repeated here.

Ensure that education is a key component of the crisis response.

> *Donors and national governments should support education policies and programs that are well integrated with other services during and after conflicts.*

Many institutional barriers prevent the timely and effective provision of international assistance for education in crisis situations. Some international donors and NGOs have formal or informal policies that permit the development of education programs only well after conflicts have ended,

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5. An outline was drafted to guide the preparation of the case studies. The studies were not intended to be rigorous evaluations or "impact evaluations" conducted by external specialists. Rather, they were drafted by people who were instrumental in program design and development. As a result, all the authors are very knowledgeable about their programs. Clearly, they cannot be as objective as external evaluators. However, most of the programs conducted internal evaluations; several had external evaluations. The results of these evaluations were used to prepare the case studies.

when stability has been achieved. A relatively small number of them provide short-term support for education programs during or immediately after some conflicts. Very few agencies offer long-term support and/or preventive education and training programs before an impending crisis.

BOX 1.1 Education in Conflict Situations: Key Lessons Learned

- Ensure that education is a key component of the crisis response.
- Aim for educational quality during conflicts.
- Begin planning educational policies and programs during conflicts to help ensure that the critical 18-month post-conflict "window of opportunity" will not be lost.
- Promote participation.
- Expand national support for community-level programs.
- Use institutions of civil society.
- Provide adequate attention to vulnerable groups.
- Make programs responsive to local languages, cultures, and needs.
- Secure diversified and long-term funding.
- Pursue program integration.
- Use complete program development processes and an evolutionary approach.
- Establish effective organizational strategies.
- Develop culturally appropriate educational materials and methods.
- Select program staff from local communities.
- Conduct pre- and in-service training for staff, teachers, and leaders.
- Include a monitoring and evaluation system.
- Develop partnerships and networks.
- Plan to achieve scale.

Several of the case studies reveal that national institutions of civil society were able to initiate high-quality education programs during or immediately after crises. Inspired and courageous national leaders developed the programs in Colombia, El Salvador, Indonesia, Peru, and the Philippines during times of conflict.

By contrast, some nations with complex crises, such as Afghanistan, Bosnia, Liberia, and Rwanda, did not receive adequate and timely support for their institutions of civil society; those institutions deteriorated to such an extent that

later it became exceedingly difficult to achieve rapid social and economic reconstruction. It is critically important for international and national agencies to invest in weakened institutions of civil society during conflicts—not only to meet prevailing educational needs, but also to ensure that they are strengthened to help with nation-building during the immediate post-conflict period.

However, when international donors are willing to support education initiatives during or immediately after conflicts, most tend to import program models and personnel rather than identify and use nationally derived program models, institutions, and professionals. The case studies in this book reveal that competent and dedicated educational professionals usually are found in nations with conflicts. Because national planners and educators have analyzed the limitations of existing schools and non-formal education programs, they usually are interested in improving their education systems. They require both national and international support to develop the reforms they wish to pursue.

With a few notable exceptions, traditional forms of humanitarian assistance provided by international donors do not include education services integrated with social reconstruction programs at the community level. Most donor agencies and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) continue to provide short-term humanitarian assistance that focuses mainly on meeting "survival needs," such as emergency survival services, reconstructing infrastructures, offering microcredit, and insuring free and fair elections. The case studies in this book demonstrate the value of providing education services that are integrated with other services during and after conflicts.

Nations experiencing conflicts or dealing with the challenges of post-conflict reconstruction often request donor assistance for programs to improve and update educational policies, contents, and methods; establish civic education for democratic governance; provide skills training at secondary and community college levels; and create participatory education programs at the community level. These needs are very real. As will be demonstrated in this book, national institutions in conflict situations have developed successful programs to meet these needs. Donors willing to place their faith in civil society and public sector institutions that have positive track records and transparent management systems could support such programs.

Aim for educational quality during conflicts.

Education programs of high quality can be initiated and conducted in situations of conflict.

Some specialists in emergency education have stated that educational quality cannot be attained during or immediately after conflicts. However, several of the case studies demonstrate that in situations where a minimum of security can be attained, it is possible to develop effective education programs with communities affected by violence. In each conflict situation, it is imperative to assess the level of potential danger for teachers, children, and parents. However, the conflict itself can become an opportunity for improving educational quality and building more equitable systems. Innovative ideas can emerge during conflict situations as people are challenged to become creative and revise failed education systems. High-quality education programs developed during conflicts can form the basis of rapid post-conflict educational development.

It may be helpful to consider using approaches applied successfully in violence zones of Colombia, Indonesia, and the Philippines.

In Colombia, the University of Ibagué conducts an array of outstanding education and social development programs in conflict zones. Two programs are of special note. The University's Virtual Education Program established community learning centers in rural towns that are dangerous for outsiders to visit. By providing centralized training along with on-site and distance supervision for teachers and learning facilitators, this program has been able to offer teacher training, basic education, skills training, and hope for isolated children, youth, and adults. In addition, by offering greater access to educational services, it has helped stem the tide of displaced people who are fleeing to safer places with more educational opportunities. Another program provides education and skills training for thousands of displaced persons by establishing a new form of community college that offers a wide array of educational opportunities, leading to employment and integration into local communities.

In Ambon, Indonesia, violent conflicts between religious groups continue, yet the early childhood and parent education program has been very successful in serving families living in camps for displaced persons. This effective program is being rapidly replicated in other camps for displaced persons in Indonesia.

In Mindanao, the Philippines, the primary education program "Schools that Heal and Teach Peace" has greatly improved public education services and quality during a long period of intense conflict. By basing program interventions upon parental and community decision making, this program has rehabilitated the schools, reformulated educational content, improved teaching methods, and assisted traumatized teachers, children, and parents. The methods developed by the Philippines NGO "Community of Learners" could be considered for application in other conflict situations.

Begin planning educational policies and programs during conflicts to help ensure that the critical 18-month post-conflict "window of opportunity" will not be lost.

Activities for educational policy planning should begin during conflicts to enable rapid education reform during the immediate post-conflict period.

Usually, educational policy reform occurs only well after conflicts have ended. Sometimes, reforms are not undertaken until many years thereafter. However, case studies in this book clearly demonstrate that successful education policy planning processes can and should be planned and initiated during conflicts. These processes can be expanded rapidly later by conducting widespread consultations and consensus building exercises in areas formerly struck by violence.

Planning during the conflict helps to ensure that the critical 18-month post-conflict "window of opportunity" for improving education will not be lost. Unless immediate education reforms are undertaken during this brief post-conflict period, education and other systems tend to revert to traditional and non-functional organizational methods and procedures as people seek to find "normalcy" and recreate past realities (Vargas-Baron and McClure 1998).

The case study on the education reform of El Salvador shows that educational planning can be initiated during a crisis. This reform process was begun during the last phase of the war before the peace accord was signed. It helped Salvadoran educators move forward with policy development immediately after the war. Had participatory planning not occurred during the final phase of the war, it is likely that an education reform would not have been undertaken in El Salvador until many years later, as was the case in Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam.

However, most "emergency education activities," when provided by donor agencies, tend to be regarded as short-term and ends in themselves. In contrast, education planners who are citizens of nations enduring conflicts usually develop their programs with the goal of achieving both long-term and short-term impact. Donor support of national education reform processes is essential if their investments in education are to be used to contribute to longer-term democratic and socioeconomic development. Most of the programs in this book that were initiated by national specialists during conflicts are contributing to the establishment of post-conflict educational policies.

The case studies on Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam demonstrate that if the educational needs of vulnerable populations are not met soon after a conflict ends, these needs can multiply and become major social problems. To meet these challenges, large reform programs had to be mounted at a later date at great cost and effort. Programs in Colombia, El Salvador, Indonesia, Peru, and the Philippines demonstrate that education activities can play a major positive role in social and economic development both during and after conflicts.

Promote participation.

To develop successful educational policies and programs in conflict situations, ensure that participatory processes are used that include representatives of government and civil society at all levels.

Each of the authors of the case studies emphasized the importance of building participatory systems to develop successful and sustainable programs. Participation helps establish a sense of community ownership of the programs and can improve program security in some violence zones. Participatory activities should include all stakeholders, such as formal and informal community leaders, parents, children, and youth, as well as public sector agencies, NGOs, and other institutions of civil society such as universities, community colleges, institutes, unions, and professional associations.

The study on El Salvador's education reform policy clearly demonstrates the value of participatory planning processes. Similarly, education programs developed during conflicts in Colombia, Indonesia, and the Philippines all included a high level of parental and community leadership. This fact led the authors of these studies and others to recommend strongly that programs developed during conflicts be designed with the full participation of the people they seek to

serve. According to the case study authors, participation means that parents, community members, and teachers will take an active, decision-making role in program design, implementation, finances, evaluation, monitoring, and revision to ensure program relevancy and effectiveness.

Programs that were developed after conflicts or danger had subsided also featured a high level of participation by local communities. Cambodian ethnic minorities draft and produce educational materials and participate in the management of basic program development processes. Displaced persons in Tolima, Colombia help design and develop all the programs that serve them. As a result, they enthusiastically support these activities. Vietnamese parents, community members, and teachers serve children in multigrade classrooms and alternative basic education programs. Guatemalan communities and NGOs help to ensure that bilingual literacy programs are relevant to local needs. Community promoters are trained in Peru to work with their communities to resolve conflicts, learn and assess human rights, and build peace and democratic governance. Ex-combatants in El Salvador helped program leaders ensure that services met their psychological as well as their educational, skills training, and familial needs.

In general, participation helped maximize the use of resources in each setting, develop self-confidence, assist people to exercise a degree of control over their lives, and promote individual and family capacity to rebuild their lives. Case study authors emphasized that international and national staff members of donor agencies should be trained in concepts and methodologies for achieving effective participation during and after conflicts.

Expand national support for community-level programs.

> *Strong national leadership is required to ensure that the improvement and expansion of education programs at the community level become priorities of conflict and post-conflict development.*

Often—but not always—conflicts are the result of a search for equity, human rights, justice, and socioeconomic development. For this reason, and for reasons of social justice and educational equity, it is critically important for education to be improved rapidly at the community level.

National and local specialists should help design education programs to ensure that they will be culturally appropriate and meet community needs. The government

or transition government should work with institutions of civil society, national NGOs, and others to support these efforts. Examples are found in the case studies on Cambodia, Colombia, El Salvador (both programs), Guatemala, Peru, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

For nationally supported community education to occur, both top-down and bottom-up planning are required. National planners should help develop partially decentralized systems that enable community participation. Education programs begun at the community level should be able to attract national and provincial support. To maintain program quality and relevance later, the locus of control should remain at the local level, with appropriate roles and responsibilities at district, provincial, and national levels. National governments can guide, technically support, and fund local programs. However, most personnel should be obtained and managed locally.

International programs designed mainly or solely by international specialists tend to encounter major problems, from rejection by local populations to a lack of sustainability. However, systems of community-level programs developed by national educators can be enhanced through technical and financial support from international sources. The judicious selection of national programs for international support requires careful review and donor collaboration to avoid unnecessary duplication. With one exception, national specialists initiated the programs presented in this book. Virtually all of them succeeded in attracting some level of international support.

Use institutions of civil society.

> Institutions of civil society can play a critically important role in initiating and participating actively in educational policy and program development in conflict situations.

Governmental institutions usually lead national educational policy and program development. However, institutions of civil society play an essential role in maintaining the fabric of society, preserving cultural values, developing education programs during and after conflicts, and improving educational quality. Civil society institutions have been critically important in initiating and implementing most of the programs presented in this book:

- Cambodia's bilingual education program was developed by national NGOs, ethnic community development organizations, and international NGOs that later succeeded in collaborating with government agencies and international donors.
- Colombia's social development program was developed and implemented by a major regional university that developed a community college and other programs in collaboration with community development organizations, national and regional agencies, institutions of the private sector, and international donors.
- El Salvador's education reform, led by the Ministry of Education, was supported to a large degree by universities and other institutions of civil society, with technical and financial support from international donors.
- El Salvador's program for ex-combatants was conducted by a national NGO, with support from an international donor and collaboration with national public sector agencies.
- Guatemala's bilingual education program was implemented by several national NGOs, with support from a national university, a ministry, a bilateral donor, and a major international NGO.
- Indonesia's early childhood and parent education program was developed by national NGOs, with support from other national NGOs. It has not yet received governmental or international support.
- The Lao PDR program for in-service teacher training is a government program but it includes a strong emphasis upon community involvement and collaboration with community development organizations and UN agencies.
- Peru's Institute of Education for Human Rights and Peace is a national NGO dedicated to promoting peace, human rights, democracy, and reconciliation with support from community organizations and international donors. It has not received governmental funding.
- The Philippines' quality education program was developed by a major national NGO in collaboration with other NGOs, a university, local educational authorities, and an international NGO.
- Viet Nam's education programs for multigrade and alternative basic education were developed by the Ministry of Education, with the strong participation of community-level organizations and groups, and technical and financial support from UN agencies.

Thus most but not all of the programs were developed from a civil society base. With the exception of the Peruvian and Indonesian programs, they have been integrated to some extent into public agencies at local, regional, or national levels. Ultimately, most of them have attracted international support.

Provide adequate attention to vulnerable groups.

Special populations should be given priority attention for education services.

Although several multilateral and bilateral donors and international NGOs have given extensive humanitarian assistance to refugees in some countries, in yet other countries, millions of internally displaced persons and other civilian groups are enduring violence without help. Frequently, in countries with conflicts, specific segments of the population are more severely affected than others. Usually they are women, children, youth, communities living in poverty, minority ethnic and linguistic groups, children with disabilities, and orphans. These groups tend to be overlooked in times of conflict. Furthermore, access to them sometimes is restricted by a series of circumstances including national policies; weak, inadequate, or unenforced international laws; and the policies of some donor nations and organizations. The needs of these vulnerable groups must be given special attention. Education and training can play a fundamental role in this respect.

UNDERSERVED CHILDREN. Understandably, national education planners seek to serve the larger population first. Some of them forget or decline to plan with and serve special populations for a variety of reasons, including political issues, lack of representation in decision-making settings, patterns of discrimination, and lack of information about their needs. Throughout the world, ethnic minorities, girls, women, and vulnerable children tend to be underserved and have high levels of illiteracy and school drop out.

In Viet Nam, because children and youth living in the streets or in remote mountain villages were not given priority attention soon after the war, many years passed without education services reaching them. Over time, street children became juvenile delinquents and inspired the wrath of the general population. Viet Nam lagged behind many other nations in achieving universal basic education. By the early 1990s, it became clear that in order to reach unserved children, new educational policies and flexible, innovative programs would have to be mounted. Had policies to serve these children been put into place soon after the war, many social and economic problems that subsequently appeared probably could have been avoided. Since changing its education policies, Viet Nam has demonstrated notable flexibility and ingenuity in developing programs that are serving its most disadvantaged populations.

MINORITY ETHNIC AND LINGUISTIC GROUPS. Education planners in many nations have long felt that it is impossible or exceedingly difficult to develop bilingual education programs. Some tend to fear that establishing such programs might undermine the development of national systems of governance. However, the bilingual education programs of Cambodia and Guatemala show that successful and technically sound education programs can be mounted with the full collaboration of ethnic groups previously unserved by national education systems and non-formal education programs. Methods employed to achieve culturally derived education programs in previously unwritten languages now are well understood. They can be employed relatively easily and economically in other nations.

In addition, the program in Cambodia demonstrates that bilingual education programs are helping to bring remote ethnic minorities into national life, rather than creating separate systems, as had been feared. This result has led to the formulation of a national policy promoting bilingual education and the provision of extension services in local languages. This work is encouraging other nations in Southeast Asia to learn from the bilingual education programs of Cambodia.

GENDER FOCUS. Women usually are the most underutilized resource in war zones. In addition to rearing children, they usually contribute significantly to informal economies. Girls' and women's education and empowerment are essential for stabilizing countries and achieving sustainable development. Sound international research over a ten-year period has revealed that girls' education yields high rates of return on investment. To ensure that education for girls and women is given special priority within integrated crisis response programs, purposeful design efforts are required. All the programs presented in this book place a special emphasis upon providing education and training for girls and women, especially those who are ethnic minorities or from displaced families.

The Guatemalan COMAL program focused on providing integrated literacy services to girls and women. It demonstrated that targeted programs such as COMAL can be successful in reaching many girls and women from populations that never had attended school. Major efforts to reach girls and women have been made in all the other programs. For example, most of the participants in the El Salvador ASAPROSAR program were young female ex-combatants. Many community promoters of the IPEDEHP program of Peru

were women. Girls are given special attention in the programs of Cambodia, Colombia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, the Philippines, and Viet Nam.

COMMUNITY-WIDE FOCUS. While special populations need extra support, when possible, a geographic area as a whole should be assisted, rather than limiting services only to a special population. This approach also helps overcome problems related to social injustice, poverty, and service inequity— problems that often foster continued conflict. The case study in Colombia illustrates this point. Displaced families in the department (state) of Tolima were often settling in low-income communities where everyone is similarly poor, impacted by violence, underserved by social support programs, and vulnerable to insecurity. If program services were restricted only to recently displaced families, envy and frictions soon would appear. Thus Colombian educational planners decided to provide services to all families that wanted them in the communities where displaced families had settled. The result has been to raise the development of the entire area.

Make programs responsive to local languages, cultures, and needs.

> *Education programs developed during and after conflicts must be responsive to local languages and cultures, as well as both immediate and evolving needs.*

The case studies from Cambodia and Guatemala show that for programs for ethnic minorities to be effective, the language of initial instruction should be the local language. As abundant research has demonstrated, learning to read and write in the mother tongue serves as a good basis for gaining language and literacy skills in the national language. This approach helps linguistic minorities begin to join their nation, rather than build antipathy toward a country that excludes them. History has shown that excluded peoples will, sooner or later, fight for representation unless they are given opportunities for participating in decisions that affect their lives and communities.

In Cambodia, program participants from Ratanakiri Province, long marginalized from the Khmer culture and national life, now feel bound to the nation because programs have responded to their needs, honor their cultures and languages, and teach them the national language. The local culture in Ambon, Indonesia formed the basis of culturally derived early childhood and parent education. Educational activities for displaced families in Tolima,

Colombia have been designed with students' active assistance in order to meet their needs, prepare them for employment, and help them achieve their goals.

Secure diversified and long-term funding.

The financing of education programs during and after conflicts should be highly diversified and long-term in order to help ensure program sustainability.

Virtually all the programs in this book have attracted a wide array of in-kind support from communities, as well as funding and material support from national public and private sources. Some have gained international support from multilateral organizations such as UNICEF and UNESCO; bilateral donors such as the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) or the United States Agency for International Development (USAID); or international NGOs such as Save the Children or OXFAM. The programs were successful in maintaining careful and transparent records; developing a capacity for internal evaluation, monitoring, and reporting; and engaging funders directly in program activities to help ensure their continued interest. All received major in-kind support from the communities they serve.

Programs with the longest period of development have attracted large government and private sector contracts and grants from foundations and businesses. Apart from ministerial services, programs that have had only one or two sources of funding have tended to encounter difficulty in maintaining their services over time. Program authors believe it is critically important to ensure long-term national and international support for community-level programs that serve vulnerable populations affected by violence. This is particularly necessary in the case of ex-combatants and displaced or refugee populations. Support should be maintained until they and their communities become fully self-sufficient in order to avoid a possible loss of hope and a return to violence, as has occurred several times in Colombian history.

Pursue program integration.

Education programs in conflict settings should be well integrated with programs in other sectors. This will build community collaboration for reconstruction. It will also maximize the use of scarce human, financial, and material resources.

All the programs presented in this book were integrated in one way or another with other sectors, including health, sanitation, and nutrition services; health infrastructure development; democracy, local governance, and community development; child and family development; small enterprise and job creation; and ecological protection and natural resource management. They were developed by national specialists seeking to respond to multiple expressed needs of vulnerable populations affected by conflict. The breadth of program services tended to strengthen education programs, and helped program planners meet evolving community needs and ensure program relevance.

However, internationally supported programs in conflict situations usually focus on only one sector. They could benefit from greater integration. An example of effective inter-sectoral integration by an international agency is UNICEF's "Child Friendly Spaces," which features a highly integrated program design to provide health, nutritional, educational, and protective services for mothers, children, and youth. (UNICEF 2001b).

National policymakers and planners seeking to prevent cycles of chronic conflict increasingly are concerned that partial or "fragmented" sectoral interventions rarely yield success in the medium or longer term. Some national planners are becoming aware that integrated models and strategic alliances and partnerships are required to achieve a sufficient degree of stability to attain sustainable development.

Use complete program development processes and an evolutionary approach.

> *Programs in conflict situations should have complete program development processes, conduct transparent managerial procedures, and be flexible to ensure that services evolve to meet emerging needs.*

This is good advice for any program design activity. However, it is mentioned here because most education programs in conflict situations manifestly lack complete program design processes. It is noteworthy that each of the programs selected for this book essentially used complete program development processes. They were designed with attention to needs and resource assessments; purposes, goals, and objectives; program organizational structure and linkages; administrative, financial, and supervisory processes; educational content, methods, materials, and media; staff, teacher, and facilitator selection; pre- and in-service training and

support; evaluation, monitoring, and reporting processes; and follow-up and program revision activities.

In addition, each program features transparent organizational and financial processes. Several programs were maintained as independent cost centers within an array of other services. Exceptions were the ministerial programs and policy development activities that fit within governmental structures. The national NGOs and other institutions of civil society developed good track records in financial management. Creating a positive institutional image is especially important in conflict settings, where corruption is often rampant. Transparency and good accounting records are essential for programs to attract and maintain external funding in conflict situations.

The programs did not develop all their components from the outset. Rather, they developed them gradually, building from success to success. They de-emphasized or discarded nonfunctional activities, and established new ones to respond to emerging needs. This evolutionary approach, most notable in the Colombian program, helped ensure that activities were responsive and improved over time. This flexible strategy contrasts with the approaches of some international programs that require that a fixed program model be implemented with established program indicators and measures that cannot be changed. Given the chaos and nature of unexpected occurrences in conflict situations, an evolutionary strategy has been functional for all of the programs presented in this book.

Establish effective organizational strategies.

> *For community-level programs to achieve success and go to scale, it is essential that competent coordination systems be developed.*

The Lao PDR program for in-service teacher training developed a carefully structured organizational system with clearly defined roles and responsibilities at national, provincial, district, and community levels. Similar approaches were used for the educational reform in El Salvador and the Peruvian program that developed networks of community education promoters. Strong coordination systems are essential for state or provincial-level programs in conflict situations. Programs that do not develop and flexibly improve such systems tend to encounter major managerial and supervisory problems that ultimately result in damaging service quality.

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For programs and projects designed to go to scale, it is important to implement monitoring and evaluation systems that will allow them to learn from their experiences and disseminate information on best practices and lessons learned. Coordination among implementing institutions, as well as networking with other agencies and groups, are also strategically important for sharing this information. These processes can enhance policy formulation by pertinent authorities. Sharing relevant and reliable information tends to enhance possibilities for going to scale and encourages funding agencies to continue their support. Building confidence and trust helps to create conditions for project growth and sustainability. This has been one of the major lessons especially from the Colombian, Philippine, and Peruvian case studies.

Develop culturally appropriate educational materials and methods.

Effective training methods and materials for use in conflict situations have been developed that could be adapted and applied in other conflict situations.

Several case studies present effective training systems. All the programs developed unique training strategies and materials. For example, the ASAPROSAR program of El Salvador developed effective methods for helping former opponents (ex-guerillas and ex-military) learn and work together, and even become friends. Valuable approaches such as these should be shared widely in nations dealing with ex-combatants. The IPEDEHP program of Peru developed a rich array of teaching and learning materials for community promoters on topics related to human rights, democracy, and conflict resolution that could be adapted and applied in many countries. Some programs such as the one in Ambon, Indonesia developed special learning materials and games for young children. The bilingual education programs of Guatemala and Cambodia developed an array of new language education materials and methods. In Cambodia, community members learned how to use computers, and designed and published their own educational materials in their languages.

Virtually all the programs developed learner-centered, active teaching methods that included problem solving, critical thinking skills, team building, and project-oriented teaching. They created classrooms or learning spaces that became stable and protective environments. They encouraged children to learn by helping them concentrate during very difficult times. The children learned to apply lessons about cooperation, sharing, and respectful relations in their daily lives. Several programs included values education and developed inter-group

understanding and mutual respect. Most of them provided training to learn specific behaviors, such as methods of conflict resolution.

Certain programs, including those in El Salvador, Lao PDR, the Philippines, and Viet Nam, included multigrade education. Lessons derived from multigrade education in conflict and post-conflict settings need further study, especially with regard to learning outcomes and cost-effectiveness over time.

Some programs emphasized achieving resilience and reconciliation, learning how to conduct activities to analyze and improve human rights, and identifying trauma and then provide appropriate levels of counseling and referrals for specialized attention. Several programs included parents and community members as well as children and youth in these activities. They helped promote greater parental involvement in the schools and non-formal learning programs.

The types of learning approaches developed included everything from skills workshops to special learning games, role playing, socio-dramas, puppetry, traditional children's learning games, gymnastics, personal histories with immediate psychological and social support, and the use of multimedia, including e-learning. Each of the programs stressed that local languages must be used, and all educational materials should be provided in those languages. Several programs have developed ways to use computers to produce, test, and print their materials locally. Some sites have used the Internet to share materials. This is an area that requires future development.

Most of the programs developed methods and materials for staff training on how to deal with crisis and stress, develop positive interpersonal communications, and conduct activities for conflict resolution and mediation. These approaches could be very useful for other programs serving children and youth in high-risk situations.

Select program staff from local communities.

Education programs that use community members as teachers or learning facilitators have a greater chance of developing programs that will meet community needs and achieve high levels of community involvement.

Most of the case study authors state that the success of their programs was due in part to the careful identification and selection of good candidates for program staff from local communities. Program leaders usually formally

established the criteria for the selection of personnel. Communities played an important role in the selection and review of local staff members.

Using community educators enabled several programs to keep costs low, develop local capacity, retain trained educators in the area, and promote community ownership of the program. By becoming teachers or learning facilitators, community members usually raised their social status. The use of local staff also helped several programs become self-sustaining.

Conduct pre-service and in-service training for staff, teachers, and leaders.

Attention should be given to providing not only effective pre-service staff and teacher training but also in-service training on a frequent and regular basis.

The programs developed a variety of designs for pre- and in-service training, but all ensured that continuous training programs were instituted along with strong supervisory support. Because many of the teachers and learning facilitators came from local communities affected by conflict, they required special training before service and frequent in-service training. All the programs emphasized the importance of providing experiential and participatory training so that teachers would be capable of using those same methods when teaching children, youth, and parents.

In-service teacher training was fundamental to the programs in Colombia, Guatemala, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Peru, the Philippines, and Viet Nam. These programs also included essential training for supervisors and administrators that focused on professional development in the areas of program management, conflict resolution, and dealing with education programming in conflict situations.

The Colombian program is based on the premise that continuous in-service training will not only help ensure quality but also adjust programs appropriately as circumstances evolve. The Guatemalan bilingual education program included continuous in-service training for its community literacy educators. The Indonesian program provides in-service training not only in early childhood and parent education skills but also for the identification of traumatized children and parents in order to serve them appropriately. Additional support is given to staff members who need it. The Lao PDR

program constituted a major national effort to provide substantial in-service training in remote mountain hamlets. The Peruvian project provided pre-service training followed by an array of in-service training and networking opportunities. Viet Nam's multigrade education and alternative basic education programs feature in-service training systems.

Each program included plans for professional development and continuous training opportunities. These training programs tend to emphasize flexibility to meet the needs of individual trainees and local communities. They seek to ensure that training programs are guided by clear sets of objectives, definitions of educators' roles and teaching methods, and instructions on how to use curricula in culturally appropriate ways. Supervisors often become in-service trainers. Training tends to be frequent, varying from weekly to biweekly, monthly or quarterly, and is used as an incentive for program enrollment. In a few instances where salaries are low or the work is voluntary, training can serve as a reward and a way to raise teachers' status in their communities. Members of teachers' communities often provide in-kind support for teachers, including preparing their fields and gardens, repairing their homes, and providing food in lieu of payment or in addition to small stipends. Future study is needed on ways to develop greater governmental support for the salaries or fees of teachers and learning facilitators during and after conflicts.

For training ex-combatants, Salvadorans discovered that it is essential to develop a national training system for them immediately upon the cessation of hostilities. Piecemeal programs are inadequate to meet their short- and longer-term needs for reintegration into communities. Ex-combatants who do not receive timely skills training, job placement, and counseling for their psychological needs are candidates for returning to violence. International donors and NGOs could help to mount these systems and provide technical support based on lessons learned in other nations.

Displaced families also require rapid assistance to meet their training, social, psychological, and economic needs. In Colombia increased national education and training efforts are required to meet the needs of millions of displaced families. Local and regional education and training programs, such as those of the University of Ibagué, Social Development Program, are capable of responding rapidly to local needs and could be replicated in other regions of Colombia and other nations with large numbers of internally displaced persons.

Include a monitoring and evaluation system.

Built-in evaluation, monitoring, and reporting should include all stakeholders and helps achieve flexible program improvement.

Evaluation and monitoring systems are essential for all well-developed programs. However, it very hard to find such systems in educational programs developed during and after conflicts. In contrast, all the education programs in this book included internal evaluation and monitoring systems. Most conducted needs assessments and secured base line data at the beginning of their programs. Some had external evaluations, ranging from carefully controlled evaluations in Cambodia and Colombia to external impact evaluations in Guatemala, Lao PDR, and Peru. In addition, policy evaluations were undertaken in El Salvador, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam that have led to valuable policy adjustments over time.

Some program evaluations involved parents and staff members in review workshops and report preparation. Interestingly, all the programs viewed evaluation as a formative and motivational process rather than as a punitive process. In several programs, staff and participants helped to gather evaluation and monitoring data, in order to reduce evaluation costs and ensure that everyone felt ownership of the results. Reporting tended to be simple and frequent in order to keep the level of work manageable. All the programs used evaluation results to adjust and improve their programs in a very transparent way as well as prepare reports for national and international supporters.

Policy evaluation systems in El Salvador and Lao PDR are being strengthened because educational planners in these countries have found them to be essential for improving educational quality over time.

Develop partnerships and networks.

Education programs implemented during and after conflicts tend to develop strong networks and partnerships.

Each program profiled in this book developed partnerships and networks within their nations in order to expand their activities, provide additional services, and augment their base of financial and in-kind support. They

considered the development of partnerships and networks to be essential, but found that funding sources rarely provide support for these activities. Given the importance of building effective strategies of funding support for programs such as these during and after conflicts, special grants for inter-program coordination, partnerships and networks would appear to be a good investment.

All programs agreed that face-to-face collaboration is essential initially, followed by Internet and other forms of communication. All the programs have moved from developing partnerships to forming or joining networks of programs in their countries. If essential support is provided over time, networks that provide mutual benefits and are built on solid work in difficult circumstances have a good chance of survival.

However, case study authors stated that regional and inter-regional networking of community-based programs in conflict situations is lacking and needed. The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) focuses on linking major NGOs and international donors.[6] Either INEE should be expanded in scope or a linked network could be developed for programs led by national NGOs and public agencies.

Plan to achieve scale.

From the outset, programs should be designed to be replicated in order to meet widespread educational needs during and after conflicts.

All of the programs featured in this book have "gone to scale." Some have attained national coverage; others have achieved scale within their region. This has occurred not only because of prevailing needs but also because they were carefully designed at the outset for expansion. They feature complete program development processes. They have designed and field-tested key elements required for going to scale, such as organizational tools, educational content, materials, media methods, teacher training systems, and evaluation and monitoring systems.

Some programs, such as those in Colombia, El Salvador (the educational reform program), Guatemala, the Lao PDR, Peru, and Viet Nam, developed careful plans for going to scale, including strategies, objectives, development phases,

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6.   http://www.ineesite.org.

coverage goals, and evaluation systems. Others have grown beyond initial expectations in response to requests for services, such as in Cambodia, El Salvador (the ex-combatant program), Indonesia, and the Philippines.

Conclusion

The eighteen lessons summarized above capture some of the common points of the ten case studies presented in this volume. Each study describes the program's background and context, program experiences, best practices, and lessons learned.

Yet none fully describes the valor and courage of its program leaders and personnel. Perhaps the most amazing and moving aspect of these studies is that the authors and their colleagues achieved excellence and maintained a high level of objectivity in spite of the severe challenges and dangers they confronted—and in several cases, continue to face. May their words and their example help many similarly valiant educators who are seeking to improve the lives of children and families caught in conflict situations throughout the world.

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Part II
Education Policy
and Reform

Chapter 2

**Educational Reform in Post-War
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Chapter 3

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of Lao PDR**

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Chapter 2

Educational Reform
in Post-War El Salvador

José Luis Guzmán

E l Salvador, a country of 6.3 million inhabitants, faced a twelve-year civil war in the 1980s and had to recover from two devastating earthquakes that struck most of its territory in 2001. In the early 1990s, the country began a comprehensive post-conflict reconstruction effort to achieve equitable economic development, strengthen democracy, and promote sustainable peace.

Within this context, an education reform process was developed to improve educational quality and access. The reform program in El Salvador offers an example of participatory educational planning during and after a major national conflict, and it also shows that effective community participation can help expand education options for the poorest children. As a result of the reform, improvements have been made to enhance educational opportunities, although serious challenges remain.

The Conflict and Its Consequences

El Salvador's civil war plunged the nation into a profound socioeconomic crisis in the 1980s. Political forces were highly polarized, and casualties occurred on both sides and among the civilian population, leading to at least 80,000 deaths. Many people left their homes for more secure places within the country or abroad. Gross domestic product fell by almost a third. The infrastructure suffered substantial damage, and the country's institutions, including schools, were steadily weakened. National development was subordinated to the war agenda.

In addition, public investment in education diminished dramatically, and the Ministry of Education (MINED) became highly centralized, inefficient, and

politicized. As a result, serious shortcomings occurred in the supply of educational services, especially for the rural poor and other marginalized populations.

With the mediation of the United Nations, the conflict finally ended with the signing of Peace Accords between the Government and the Farabundo Marti for National Liberation Front (FMLN) in 1992. The FMLN disarmed, became a political party, and participated in elections. An Observer Mission of the United Nations (ONUSAL) was installed, defense spending was reduced—thereby benefiting investment in social sectors—and over time numerous venues for agreement and dialogue were created in different areas of society. This set a favorable stage for education reform.

The Project

History and Scope

At the beginning of the 1990s, Salvadoran education was in a state of crisis. One third of the adult population did not know how to read or write. About four out of ten people had no more than three years of primary schooling, only 70 percent of children aged 7 to 15 were enrolled in primary school, and only 18 percent of children aged 16 to 18 were in secondary school. These figures were even worse in the poorest sectors. While only half of the 7-year-olds in the poorest 20 percent of the population was enrolled in school, nine out of 10 children in the wealthiest 10 percent were in school by that age (Reimers 1995). These indicators were the dismal legacy of the conflict: namely, low investment in education; inefficiency in public administration; and serious shortcomings in terms of access and quality of education.

The educational challenges had already been identified by 1989. While the conflict was still raging, MINED began to set priorities for providing pre-school and primary education for the poorest populations, developing non-formal educational options for adults, improving curriculum quality, decentralizing administrative services, upgrading institutions, and encouraging participation of the private sector (MINED 1994). These priorities also matched the framework established by the Declaration of Education for All in Jomtien in 1990.

To broaden educational opportunities in the rural area, a program known as EDUCO (*Educación con Participación de la Comunidad*, the Community-managed Education Program) was created in 1991 in light of previous experience with community involvement in organizing educational services in areas affected by the conflict. EDUCO was fundamental to the reform process.

Another highlight of this stage was the SABE project (*Solidificación del Alcance de la Educación Básica*, or Strengthening the Achievement of Basic Education), which was financed with a donation from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). It facilitated the start of curriculum changes in primary education, in-service teacher training, and the provision of textbooks.

The end of the civil war in 1992 facilitated the onset of dialogue and negotiation in the educational sector. This was expressed symbolically by the National Forum on Education and a Culture of Peace, which was organized by the government in April 1993, with the support of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (MINED 1993). Prominent political and social leaders took part. They voiced a variety of opinions on national education, and the idea of educational reform was mentioned for the first time.

At the end of 1992, the Harvard Institute for International Development (HIID), under contract with USAID, conducted an original study of the educational sector. It led not only to an extensive report on the problems and challenges facing Salvadoran education, but also to an important process of debate and consultation (Reimers 1995). The HIID had, as partners, the *Fundación Empresarial para el Desarrollo Educativo-FEPADE* (Entrepreneurial Foundation for Educational Development), the *Universidad Centroamericana José Simeón Cañas-UCA* (José Simeón Cañas Central American University), and the Ministry of Education (MINED). The academic leadership of Harvard University; the political plurality of the partners and researchers; the open attitude of USAID and MINED, which was preparing for a change of government in 1994; the commitment and leadership displayed by the Minister of Education, who remained in her post from 1989 to 1998; and a process involving consultation and dialogue with key agents in the educational sector lent credibility to the results of the study (Reimers and McGinn 1997; Córdova 1999). This experience provided relevant inputs to articulate a series of ideas on the necessity of expanding the coverage of education, improving quality at all levels, addressing the serious problems of equity, promoting decentralization, and increasing financial investment in education.

In sum, the ideas outlined through research, the innovations encouraged by EDUCO and SABE, the process of dialogue, and the leadership displayed by MINED and key agents in civil society paved the way for a process of educational reform, as did the financial and technical support of international organizations. In June 1994, during his inaugural address, the President of the Republic announced that broad educational reform would be encouraged (MINED 1999).

A presidential commission composed of 12 prominent members of Salvadoran society, each from different professional, academic, and ideological backgrounds, was also appointed in 1994. It formulated a proposal that served as input and political backing for the reform process promoted by the government (Comisión de Educación, Ciencia y Desarrollo 1995; Guzmán 1995). Other substantial efforts were undertaken to encourage dialogue and consultation, even among teachers, students, and parents. Some of these initiatives were promoted by organizations in society; others were advanced by MINED, which declared 1995 as the "Year of Consultation" for educational reform. This included an agreement between the Ministry and the main teachers' organization—a potential source of opposition—to consult with its membership and supporters.

At the end of 1995, with input from the studies and the recommendations resulting from the process of dialogue, MINED presented to the nation the guidelines of a 10-year plan for educational reform (MINED 1995).

Philosophy

The plan was presented with a long-term vision. It indicated that, "Education should be of the highest priority and constitute a national policy, not of a party or a government administration, but of Salvadorans" (MINED 1995, p. 4). In terms of its priorities, the plan was designed to provide sufficient resources; to achieve an educational system of quality; to ensure universal, equitable, and efficient access; to broaden community participation; and to offer comprehensive learning in human, ethical, and civic values (MINED 1995).

The last of these priorities was linked directly to the post-conflict experience in El Salvador. Tolerance, responsibility, and social participation became relevant aspects of the reform plan, inasmuch as the previous stage of social polarization and mistrust within society had to be overcome. This had some influence on curriculum content and on institutional practices, which emphasized participation in four fundamental areas: involving people and key institutions in program

design and implementation; transferring responsibility for managing public services to private entities; participation of private entities and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in MINED contracts, and at the local level, strengthening opportunities for school participation.

Objectives and Targets

Educational reform in El Salvador was to achieve five basic objectives: better quality schooling at all levels; greater efficiency, effectiveness, and equity in the educational system; democratization of education; the creation of new service delivery models; and reinforced instruction for human, ethical, and civic values. The plan outlined quantitative and qualitative targets for the 1995–2005 period: a reduction in illiteracy from 27 to 15 percent; an increase in the rate of pre-school education from 40 to 60 percent; and an increase in primary schooling (grades 1 to 6) from 82 to 90 percent. There were also targets for reducing the number of students per teacher and lowering the rates of over-age students, school dropout, and grade repetition. There were qualitative targets, as well; namely, involving the educational community in school administration; reducing teacher absenteeism; making more efficient the use of state resources; and offering an immediate and opportune solution to problems in schools (MINED 1995).

The Minister of Education left in 1998. Her nine years on the job allowed for unusual continuity with respect to political leadership of the reform. Elections for 1999–2004 were held the following year and ARENA, the official party, remained in office for a third period. In his inaugural address, the President of the Republic said: "As of today, we must accept the challenge of ensuring [that] the time will come when no girl or boy is left without education. This is something that cannot be postponed. Education is the only means capable of generating freer and more honest citizens. It is also the only sustainable system of compensation for social inequality...We recognize the accomplishments of educational reform and join in the process, being prepared to meet the challenge of quality" (MINED 2000, p. 5).

Based on accomplishments and shortcomings, some targets for the ten-year plan were adjusted. For example, illiteracy had already declined to 17 percent and the net rate of schooling[1] in primary education (grades 1-6) had increased

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1. The net rate of schooling is the percentage of children enrolled in formal education at the expected ages out of all children with those ages in the entire population.

to 84 percent. With new available information, a more modest target was outlined for pre-school education, while a more ambitious one was defined for reducing illiteracy. The targets for primary and over-age education remained the same. Segregated targets for primary and secondary education were added as well (see table 2.1). No qualitative goals were proposed, but the definition of objectives in this new stage emphasized topics that were related to quality. Finally, the targets referring to local participation, programs for coverage, and education in values remained the same.

TABLE 2.1 Targets for the Education Sector, 2000–04 (percent)

Indicator	2000	2004
Illiteracy in the 15 to 60 age group	17.2	12.0
Net rate of schooling		
Pre-school	34.0	45.0
Primary	81.7	85.0
Grades 1–6	84.0	90.0
Grades 7–9	42.0	50.0
Secondary (grades 10–12)	26.0	30.0
Over-age students, grades 1–6 (more than 2 years)	15.0	10.0

Source: MINED (2000).

Organization

The current process of education reform differs greatly from the previous top-down style of reform, which was promoted as of 1968. Although it was technically designed and up-to-date for its time, that reform was questioned because of its imposed, authoritarian nature and the limited involvement of teachers. Furthermore, the growing socio-political crisis in the 1970s, which led to civil war in the 1980s, prevented it from being implemented successfully. Its programs and investments were diluted during the chaos of war.

During the reform of the 1990s, a number of conditions were more conducive to society-wide adoption. These included:

- A national context of dialogue and agreement made possible by the 1992 Peace Agreements
- Political will on the part of public authorities to face the educational challenges perceived at the time
- The development of innovative experiences such as EDUCO and SABE
- The existence of information, ideas, and recommendations resulting from research by key institutions
- The leadership and continuity displayed by the Minister of Education
- The receptiveness of private institutions and organizations in civil society to become involved in the discussion of policies and programs and their implementation, and
- The technical and financial support received from (or negotiated with) international agencies and governments of other countries.

The stages of the reform are outlined in table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2 Stages of the Educational Reform in El Salvador, 1989–2003

Pre-reform stage	• Start of the administration of President Alfredo Cristiani (1989)
	• First reform of the General Education Act (1990)
	• Declaration of Education for All, Jomtien (1990)
1989–94	• Onset of initial innovations: EDUCO and SABE (1991)
	• Peace Agreements and end of civil war (1992)
	• Start of the World Bank program, Rehabilitation of Social Sectors (1992)
	• Education Sector Assessment of HIID/UCA/FEPADE (1993)
	• Initial process of dialogue and consultation (1993-1994)

Consultation and launch of the 10-year reform plan

	• Start of the administration of President Armando Calderón Sol (1994)
	• "1995: Year of Consultation"
1994–95	• Proposal by the Commission for Education, Science and Development (June 1995)
	• 10-Year Plan for Educational Reform in Progress (November 1995)
	• Social Communication Programme

TABLE 2.2 Stages of the Educational Reform in El Salvador, 1989–2003 (continued)

Implementation (first phase)

- Legal reform: Reform of the Higher Education Act (December 1995); Teaching Profession Act and the second reform of the General Education Act (1996)
- Improvement in teachers' pay scale and a significant rise in wages (1997)
- Further curriculum reform (1997–99)
- Expansion of in-service training for teachers and reform of initial teacher training
- Institutional and financial assimilation of EDUCO

1996–99
- Creation of a School Administration Board (CDE) in every public school
- Transfer of financial resources to schools
- National test for secondary education (PAES), sample tests for primary education, and an assessment system for higher education
- Preparation and/or implementation of projects financed by international agencies: Support for Educational Reform Project (USAID, 1995–99): Modernization of Primary Education Project (IDB/World Bank, 1995–99); Secondary Education Project and Education Reform Programme (Phase I) (World Bank, 1998 to present); Educational Infrastructure Programme and Educational Technology Project (IDB, 1998 to present); Support to Technical Secondary Education (European Union, 1998)
- The minister who promoted the reform left after nine years on her position (1998).

Implementation (second phase)

- Start of the administration of President Francisco Flores (1999)
- Some readjustment of the 10-year reform plan
- Implementation of projects financed by external credits or donations: USAID, World Bank, IDB, and the European Union (1999 to present)
- Declaration of Education for All, Dakar (2000)

1999–2002
- Reconstruction of school facilities after the earthquakes (2001)
- Creation of the Teaching and Administrative Advisory System (2001)
- Pilot program to enhance educational at a selected group of schools: "School 10" (2001)
- New assessments by the government, international agencies, and private organizations (2002)
- Change of minister during the third year of the Flores administration.

Content

The programs for educational reform in El Salvador were designed and implemented in five areas: revision of the legal and regulatory framework; institutional change; educational coverage; educational quality; and social communication.

LEGAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK. The reform made it possible to modify major legislation in the sector. The reforms were design in line with the objectives of the 10-Year Plan and tended to simplify, integrate, and make the legal framework more relevant. Generally speaking, the new laws had the backing of all political forces, including the FMLN and the teachers' unions, with which MINED had developed contacts and had negotiated.

INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE. Important measures for decentralization were promoted. The reorganization of MINED was extended by reducing the administrative staff and creating 14 departmental offices to perform operational and administrative functions. The systems for finance, administration, human resources, auditing, information, and evaluation were all strengthened, as were the systems to promote decentralization of school administration.

EDUCATIONAL COVERAGE. The EDUCO program was enlarged and intensified. Most of the funds for its initiation came from the World Bank, through a loan for social sector rehabilitation in El Salvador. But in 1995, EDUCO schools were fully financed by the national budget. Essentially, the program organized, legalized, and trained parent associations. It also provided financial resources to enable these associations to hire teachers and to create pre-school and primary education services. This initiative made it possible to offer education in 2002 to nearly 300,000 children, more than a third of the enrollment in rural areas. Because parents and teachers in rural areas were supported, the tendency to relegate the worst services in the educational system to the rural area began to be corrected. The program was gradually accepted by the community and—with less euphoria and even some mistrust—by certain sectors critical of the government. In all, EDUCO changed the paradigm for increasing coverage, addressed the needs of the poorest sectors in a direct way, formed a mechanism for decentralization that gave a leading role to the community, built and benefited from the social capital of communities, and became the foundation for subsequent processes of change in the educational sector (Reyes 2002; Lindo 2001; Meza 1997).

EDUCATIONAL QUALITY. Curriculum reform at the primary level was completed, and reforms were carried out for secondary and higher education. In-service training for teachers was reinforced, as was the initial training provided by higher education institutions. Investments were made in educational materials for teachers and textbooks for students. Later, technological resources were provided for secondary education.

SOCIAL COMMUNICATION was an important aspect of the reform plan. An increasingly advanced capacity to inform society about the priorities of the reform, its actions, and its initial results was developed. This fulfills an important function in terms of generating awareness within the community.

Financial and Technical Support

Educational reform in El Salvador has received financial and technical support (in the form of loans or grants) from institutions such as the World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), USAID, the network of United Nations agencies, the European Union, and the *Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos-OEI* (Organization of Iberian-American States). The Governments of France, Germany, Israel, Japan, Mexico, and Spain have also made donations and extended technical assistance. The total cumulative investment coming from external sources during the reform period (1991–2004) comes to approximately $481 million. This is equivalent to slightly more than MINED's annual budget in 2001 (Centro ALFA 2002).

Monitoring and Evaluation

To some extent, the international agencies that have extended loans or made donations have generated mechanisms, instruments, and a certain institutional capacity for monitoring. However, the information has been regarded primarily as feedback for internal management, rather than for social auditing.

The MINED Evaluation and Research Office was created in 1996 as part of the educational reform process and has resulted in an increased capacity to generate educational indicators. A high point in this respect is the national test (PAES) that has been given annually to all high school graduates since 1997. It allows for monitoring students' academic achievement, but does not offer the possibility of international comparisons. Recently, MINED has conducted

studies to identify factors relating to student's learning outcomes. However, the findings have been circulated on a very limited basis, and they have not been used to provide feedback to teachers and schools.

In 2002, MINED released an assessment report on the educational reform (MINED 2002). In addition, the local office of the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) launched its annual report on human development in El Salvador (UNDP 2001). Private and nongovernmental initiatives were added to these efforts. For example, a nongovernmental organization published a stocktaking analysis on the goals of Education for All (Rivas 2002). A private firm, in association with the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas (PREAL) published a first report card on educational progress (based on the experience in the United States and Europe) (Centro Alfa 2002), and a private foundation published an analysis of the relationship between education, poverty, and development.

The main indicators of educational progress have been monitored to a certain degree and disseminated through various means, including mass media. However, there have been complaints about the availability of good and consistent data, and an integrated model for monitoring and evaluation has yet to be developed. Some initiatives have been developed, but they have been neither coordinated nor used sufficiently.

Impact, Products, and Results

Education improved in El Salvador throughout the 1990s. Public investment in education as a percentage of the GDP rose from 1.8 percent in 1992 to 3.0 percent in 2000. Schooling rates increased at all educational levels and the growth in enrollment in rural areas was relatively significant. For example, in the 1992–2000 period, while the net rate of schooling (including pre-school, primary, and secondary levels) increased from 79 to 83 percent in urban areas, it rose from 56 to 69 percent in rural areas (Centro ALFA 2002).

There have been innovative experiences such as the EDUCO program, which has served as a model for similar initiatives in Honduras and Guatemala, and which earned an international award from the World Bank in 1997. In 1998, UNESCO acknowledged the experience of the literacy and primary education programs for adults. Likewise, a number of delegations from other countries have visited El Salvador for a firsthand look at the reform. These included

delegations from Bolivia, Brazil, Chad, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ghana, Guatemala, Honduras, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Morocco, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, and Senegal (MINED 1999).

However, great challenges still remain. Recent reports (Centro ALFA 2002; MINED 2002; FUSADES 2002) indicate that, in spite of important progress, educational indicators of El Salvador still reveal low educational investment and results within the international context. National tests indicate low levels of student's learning outcomes. Although there have been advances with regard to equity, poor children still face disadvantages in completing their basic education. The reform has made it possible to recover from the serious problems left by the armed conflict. However, further efforts are needed to ensure the amount and quality of education for Salvadorans to become competitive in a global context.

Best Practices

Marshall support for public policy by encouraging participation, dialogue, and consensus.

In a context of relative mistrust following a conflict, social participation is key. A reform plan drafted by central planners without relevant consultation and imposed in an authoritarian way is likely to generate so much opposition that it may not be implemented effectively and its goals may not be achieved.

Each nation has a different context for policy development. In El Salvador, opportunities were provided for dialogue among key actors who previously would not have met together to discuss reform issues. The decision to implement the reform plan was preceded by ample opportunity for consultation. The Education Reform Plan was led by MINED, which had gained increasing recognition, even from the government's major opponents. There was room for participation by key players that would be willing to either support or oppose educational changes. In addition, leading nongovernmental organizations participated in the implementation of the reform.

To conduct an effective education reform, the following need to be established: clear goals, a structure for conducting policy planning activities,

a process for consultation, a definite time frame, and a set of expectations for all involved.

If participation leads to dialogue, it is more likely that consensus will result. Common agreements and assessments can serve as support for action. However, "consensus is not synonymous with unanimity; it is a type of decision in which everyone relinquishes something, but gains something as well. The idea is not for everyone to be of the same opinion. During times of crisis, consensus is a necessary mechanism of stability, and it is of extraordinary importance to arrive at certain decisions" (Córdova 1999, p. 18).

Establish shared and long-term goals that are pertinent.

Perhaps the goals of the reform were not the best or the only ones, but they were pertinent in view of the country's needs. Available studies agreed on several basic points. The need to enroll children and youngsters who did not have the opportunity to access schooling was evident. It was also widely believed that the quality of education was extremely deficient, the system was politicized and highly inequitable, and was plagued by inefficiency and excessive centralism. The targets of the reform were outlined according to problems detected through credible studies and were reinforced by the perceptions of key agents in society.

In the Salvadoran case, an overriding argument was that no single actor or administration was sufficient by itself to solve serious national education problems. This thinking contributed to ensuring that enough support was given to the reform.

Keep the reform plan flexible.

The reform plan was presented as a blueprint, not something "carved in stone." Hence education reform was seen as a gradual, open, and flexible process. Later, measures not originally specified in the plan were adopted. For example, the plan did not consider reducing general secondary education from three to two years. Nevertheless, this was done in 1997, based on a specific process of consultation. On the other hand, some initiatives were tested on a trial basis and then cancelled. Finally, at the beginning of the new administration in 1999, authorities expressed interest in extending the reform, by focusing on quality and equity issues. The goals were adjusted and new programs were

included as international loans and donations became available. This change process has continued to evolve in El Salvador. Recently, as the level of dialogue has diminished, concerns have been voiced about revising education policies using the same principles of widespread participation.

Promote decentralization to the school level.

Although the reform and the programs it promotes have not solved all problems concerning education quality, it has shown that effective community participation can expand education options for the poorest children. EDUCO has been a source of knowledge for the Ministry of Education and for the reform process. It served as a basis to implement, in 1997, the School Administration Boards (Consejos Educativos Escolares) in all public schools, which have encouraged parents, teachers, and students to take part in school administration. Nonetheless, important legal, institutional, and cultural conditions still limit school autonomy. Most of the resistance comes from those who feel threatened that their authority and/or jobs will be lost. However, the will of public officials, opportune financing, and especially the interest and commitment of communities, principals, and teachers, are elements that can lead to more educational autonomy in El Salvador.

Lessons from the Reform Process

The Salvadoran experience yields lessons about both the process and the content of educational reform.

Institutionalize a process of consultation to evaluate reform results.

Evaluating education policies is always challenging. Many changes in education occur slowly and may be difficult to determine. Although intensive processes were taken for consultation with key stakeholders for planning and early implementation, dialogue to monitor the reform's progress has been rather limited. The evaluation process lacked appropriate methods to obtain significant and solid information that is especially important in the early stages of a reform.

One option for evaluation might have been to create a National Reform Commission comprised of prestigious Salvadorans or institutions with a high level

of credibility. Appointed for limited periods, they could independently review the efforts of the public sector and the progress of the reform. They also could help increase awareness of the importance of social auditing as a mechanism for feedback in implementing policies and programs. Fortunately, various public and private efforts to evaluate the impact of the reform have developed since 2002.

Promote inter-sectoral coordination.

Inter-sectoral coordination is essential for developing both national and sectoral plans. The lack of such coordination may reduce the efficiency and impact of reform. In El Salvador, the educational sector has generated important changes, but these changes were not reinforced by similar processes in other government sectors. For example, in the late 1990s the National Commission for Development (Comisión Nacional de Desarrrollo) developed relevant initiatives after consultations; however, these recommendations have not been incorporated into government policies. This lack of coordination has probably hampered synergy among the education sector and other sectors, and has prevented the population from perceiving educational objectives as being linked with democratic governance, national social and economic development, and national productivity and competitiveness.

Encourage inter-agency coordination.

A lack of coordination among international organizations and other external agencies can hamper a reform process. This can become a major problem as programs expand under a reform plan. Because each program has its own specific targets, funds, procedures, and requirements, local officials are pressured to respond in a different way to the requirements of each agency. This may lead to management overload and a lack of coherence. It can also have a negative effect at the school level. For instance, there is a pressure on School Administration Boards (CDEs) to administer and spend many financial transfers that arrive simultaneously from different sources.

Develop an effective policy for teachers' professional development.

Although important efforts have been made to improve teaching performance, an integrated policy is needed to link initial selection, recruitment, and in-service training with promotion, evaluation, and incentives for teachers. As a result,

teaching practices have changed less than expected. Additional mechanisms are needed to ensure that schools attract, retain, and motivate teachers with appropriate qualifications and effective teaching practices in the classrooms.

Reconsider limitations to school autonomy.

Unquestionably, the presence of parents' associations in EDUCO schools and administration boards in traditional public schools have enriched decision making and action at the local level. The transfer of responsibilities and financial resources to the schools has contributed to expanding access and to correcting some long-standing inequities.

However, various legal, institutional, and cultural limitations still impede efforts to achieve a higher degree of autonomy for public schools. On the one hand, some agents in the educational sector tend to wait passively for MINED to solve their problems. On the other hand, there is pressure from teachers' unions, under the banner of job stability and for fear of a presumed privatization of services, to prevent greater decision making on the part of principals and the school council. Although community participation has been emphasized, the importance of having school principals who exercise leadership, are appropriately recruited, have clear demands, and good administrative support, has not been dealt with adequately. More generally, a vision of school reform focused on learning outcomes needs to be strengthened.

Utilize information and evaluation as tools for change.

Information from research and monitoring systems helps to qualify knowledge and can facilitate policy dialogue and planning. Great care must be taken to ensure that good information is collected, and that its production, use, and disclosure are accomplished. The mechanisms that make the flow of information possible and facilitate its use in debate and planning by key actors must be improved.

Establish linkages between educational levels.

Decisions about relationships between levels were made in the planning stage of the education reform, but were not implemented in later stages. Mechanisms are needed to ensure good linkages among basic, secondary, and higher education, as well as between general education and the

specialized training of human resources. Education reform frameworks evolve over time, and linkages are often topics for continuing development.

Conclusion

The post-conflict situation in El Salvador during the 1990s was an opportunity to generate social consensus focused on reconciliation, reconstruction, and a shared vision of national development. In the case of education, the efforts to promote changes, under the leadership of MINED, resulted in some improvements in educational coverage, quality, and equity.

However, achieving targets especially for improving the quality of education in El Salvador remains a major challenge. In spite of improvements in educational equity, the poorest families remain severely disadvantaged. Given the change of public authorities in 2004 and the end of the 10-year Education Reform Plan in 2005, the moment has come for a new consensus to guide long-term actions. Along with the purpose of overcoming poverty and reducing educational gaps within the country, new international commitments must be considered, such the Education for All Forum of Dakar (UNESCO 2000) and the Millennium Development Goals. What is needed is not a rigid plan but a consensus and concrete targets that help Salvadorans build a world-class educational system that creates effective opportunities for the development of individuals, families, and the whole society.

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Chapter 3

Training Teachers in Remote Areas of Lao PDR

Sengdeuane Lachanthaboun, Khamla Phomsavanh, and Anne Thomas

Retaining and motivating teachers in remote areas is a challenge in many countries. A cost-effective program in the Lao People's Democratic Republic (PDR) goes "over mountains, across rivers" to upgrade untrained or under-qualified teachers in hard-to-reach locales. Teachers from remote rural villages can improve their teaching skills and qualifications and become certified without having to relocate or leave their families and teaching posts. As a result, their students—many of them ethnic minorities — are obtaining better education, and the nation is closer to attaining its education and social reconstruction goals.

The program was central to the education reconstruction efforts of Lao PDR, whose education system was decimated after decades of conflict, and which faced a severe shortage of trained personnel to provide even basic education services for its citizens. The program was implemented against a backdrop of severe economic problems and has proven appropriate for resource-poor education systems. Moreover, it laid a foundation for further education reform in the Lao PDR. It helped establish interministerial and interdepartmental cooperation and decentralization activities, and has trained a cadre of supervisory and administrative personnel needed to carry out the decentralization.

The program also has engaged local stakeholders and NGOs in bottom-up processes to meet emerging needs. Networking opportunities through the program have contributed to building national unity by engaging diverse peoples from remote and urban areas throughout the country and providing quality education services nationwide.

Overview

The Lao People's Democratic Republic is one of the poorest and least urbanized countries in the world. Landlocked and mountainous, it is strategically sandwiched between Cambodia, China, Myanmar (formerly Burma), Thailand, and Viet Nam. Approximately 40 percent of its peoples are ethnic minorities, many of whom migrated southward from China along the ridge tops, where they cultivate upland crops; by contrast, the ethnic Lao generally live in river valleys and raise paddy rice. The majority of its population depends on subsistence agriculture in landlocked and mountainous terrains.

The country is emerging from decades of conflict. Foreign domination of Laos began in the late 1800s. In 1975, after more than 25 years of conflict in which nationalist and royalist factions struggled for control, the Lao People's Democratic Republic was established as a sovereign state. In addition to its civil war, Laos was swept into the Indochina conflict in neighboring Viet Nam, despite its neutral status. Many civilian and military casualties occurred; throughout the nation, refugees fled the country. Communities were polarized as both sides recruited support for the war effort. The ethnic minorities were especially hard-hit by the civil war and the subsequent upheaval, as many of their mountain villages were located in battle zones and along supply routes. Throughout the country, human resources and infrastructure were severely impacted. Whole provinces were decimated by intensive bombing; in many parts of the country, schools needed to be rebuilt. The challenges facing reconstruction have included the legacies of feudalism and colonial rule; decades of war and dependence on foreign aid; and the "brain drain" resulting from nearly 10 percent of the population, mostly the educated middle class, leaving the country after 1975, including many teachers and Ministry of Education personnel. This depletion of skilled people constituted a great challenge to reconstructing government and education services. Some estimate that the development of the country was set back by at least one generation.

After the civil war ended in 1975, the Ministry of Education (MOE) faced another major challenge: to establish a Lao language educational system from the primary to the university level to replace the French system of instruction. Personnel were deployed to all corners of the newly unified country, which in effect had been partitioned from north to south for over two decades of conflict. Both the old regime and the nationalist revolutionary governments had established their own Ministry of Education or the equivalent for their respective geographical regions. They used completely different education systems and

materials. The old regime supported French language education services, primarily in urban centers. The revolutionary government, despite great obstacles, had developed Lao language education systems for serving remote mountainous regions, but lacked even the most basic educational materials. Throughout the country, the prolonged conflict had exacerbated the long-standing urban/rural gap in accessing educational services. Large portions of the rural population were prevented from accessing education services altogether.

The newly reorganized MOE made great gains in terms of expanding coverage, with primary schools increasing three-fold nationwide from 1975 to 1995. However, the quality of education did not keep pace, largely due to the lack of a system and materials for teacher training. Schools were largely staffed by teachers with minimal or no training.

Ten years after the revolution, a UNESCO study revealed an exceedingly low quality of education and primary completion and high repetition rates: only 14 percent of children nationwide who were enrolled in primary school actually completed the first five grades. Those who succeeded in completing primary school averaged ten years to complete the five grades (UNESCO 1985). By 1990, many rural primary teachers had abandoned their posts, complaining that they had been neglected in terms of salary and upgrading; their monthly salaries were equivalent to $10 to $18—insufficient to support their families.

The Lao PDR government began making important steps to address the quality of basic education toward the end of the 1980s. Since 1987, they have recognized education as key to socioeconomic development. The World Summit for Children heightened the government's commitment to primary education, and the 1990 World Conference on Education for All brought Lao educators into the mainstream of world thinking concerning educational development, after a long period of isolation. The entire education system began moving into a period of major reform, particularly in the area of primary education in relation to national development. Before then, education assistance had been limited primarily from socialist countries and the UN family of agencies such as UNICEF and UNESCO. Important missions by the World Bank and Asian Development Bank in 1989, 1990, and 1991 opened the whole system for intensive appraisal and major education reform and development programs. The needs for upgrading education management and planning, as well as providing quality education, were stressed, in addition to increasing national coverage (UNICEF 1992; GoL/UNICEF 1992). Compulsory

primary education was stipulated in the new 1991 Constitution and the country has embraced ambitious goals for development and social reconstruction, including Universal Primary Education composed of five grades by the year 2015; poverty reduction by 50 percent by 2015; and reclassification out of the "least-developed" category by 2020 (see appendix A for the country's education priorities).

Revitalizing the System: A Comprehensive Approach

Against this backdrop, the Teacher Upgrading Program (TUP) was launched in 1992. The TUP was designed to pilot a strategy to develop a network of educational personnel that would ensure provision of basic education services to the village level. It featured a large-scale training project designed to upgrade untrained or under-qualified teachers in remote mountainous areas.

Upgrading these teachers and their schools was a priority because at that time, the majority of rural children had only one opportunity for education: completing the five years of primary school at their village school. Special focus was given to remote areas populated by ethnic minorities, where education disadvantage was the greatest. Attention focused on the basic problem of the whole education system: the capacity of primary schools to both enroll children and keep them in school long enough to learn something worthwhile. Moreover, a large percentage of the primary teachers nationwide lacked training or had only a primary education themselves—inadequate to teach primary school children.[1]

TUP was originally conceived as a pilot project as part of a five-year (1992–96) cooperation agreement between the Government of Laos and UNICEF. UNICEF provided key support for project design, curriculum development, and training activities. The initial five-year agreement aimed to revitalize the entire basic education system and attain the following results:

- Sufficient numbers of schools to reach all children
- Teachers trained specifically for primary grades
- Curriculum reform

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1. Unqualified teachers are defined as those who have not completed basic education and/or have not attended a teacher-training program at a provincial teacher training center. At the outset of the program, approximately 60 percent of teachers nationwide were unqualified. Ethnic minority trainees generally had less than eight years of schooling; some had completed only fifth grade.

- Provision of essential books and work materials, and preparation of teaching aids based on the curriculum content
- An effective system developed for supervision and quality control.

The program was designed to be responsive to local needs. In particular, because of the high levels of dropout, especially by girls withdrawn by their parents, the relationship of the school to the community was considered to be a key factor influencing enrollment and progression through the primary grades (UNICEF 1992). TUP developed parent-teacher activities to promote enrollment of girls and successful progression for all children.

The program stressed the development and expansion of non-formal means of bringing basic education to children in remote areas who have no access to school, especially girls. The Lao Women's Union was engaged for community mobilization and the non-formal education component. The National Library (part of the Ministry of Information and Culture) helped bring books and resources to schools and communities through a mobile library component.

TUP also aimed to lessen the administrative and financial strain on the central government's very limited resources. It thus featured interdepartmental cooperation, both in planning and implementation, overseen by the newly established Basic Education Committee (see appendix B on project structure). The Committee consisted of:

- The General Education Department: School construction, development of parent teacher associations, provision of textbooks and mobile libraries, organization of cluster schools, and local supervision through the district education bureau
- The Teacher Training Department: All aspects of teacher training delivery and content
- The Non-Formal Education Department: Strengthen the local communities, address the needs of dropouts, and develop community resource centers
- The Information Department: Radio, newsletter, and video and TV efforts.

In addition, infrastructure needs were addressed. Schools were repaired, with community assistance. Sanitation and water supply were upgraded, working with community groups. The provision of essential supplies of textbooks and materials was improved through better logistics and more effective communication between schools, communities, districts, provinces, and central education authorities.

The strong model that exists today was developed and refined during the Phase I Pilot in eight provinces. Innovations include:

- Delegation of program responsibilities to the provincial and local levels
- Interdepartmental cooperation
- Establishment of Network for Teacher Upgrading Centres (NTUCs) to train trainers, and provide locally relevant in-service teacher training by partnering with local district and provincial education services. Provincial NTUCs were launched to provide for a decentralized model of teacher training, appropriate for the specific geographic areas and their rural populations
- Launching of mobile training team to carry training into each teacher's school, classroom, and community. This not only brought training to the teachers, but established a regular monitoring system
- Teacher training through a mixed-mode of delivery, featuring short residential training during vacations followed by field assignments during the school year (see discussion below and appendix C)
- Introduction of two new teaching methodologies: student-centered teaching, to replace traditional rote learning, and multigrade teaching
- Revitalization of parent associations
- Launching of mobile libraries.

Practitioners from the field, together with MOE and UNICEF, revised NUTC training curriculum modules. NTUC trainers, together with their Provincial Education Services (PES) representatives, completed the training cycle and were subsequently key to providing feedback for program development.

Innovations and Best Practices

As it evolved and expanded, TUP launched a number of innovations.

In-service training and a mixed mode of delivery

Unlike residential teacher training programs, trainees in the TUP are able to stay in their own communities and teach at their own schools throughout the two-year course. This has proven especially effective in remote rural schools. Trainees attend short residential training sessions only during school vacations. No new training facilities need to be built because during vacations, vacant

school buildings are used. No replacement teachers are needed, as teachers do not vacate their teaching posts during the school year.

Much of the training is conducted at teachers' own schools. Trainees are given practical assignments during the school year to apply in their own classrooms. Mobile trainers spend 15 days per month in the field, providing follow-up directly in teachers' classrooms, ideally three times per semester. Teachers have ample opportunity to practice and reinforce what they are learning through a "learning cycles" strategy that features presentation, practice, and review of content. Teachers receive certification on the job. Many have been able to become full-fledged civil servants, part of the government service, and are thus entitled to more respect and better pay and benefits in the long term. The majority of alumni continue in their rural posts after graduation, rather than relocating in towns, as is a tendency for those trained through residential programs. The improved teaching techniques of TUP trainees, visible even in their first term, in turn directly improve the quality of education in the remote villages, with increased participation of students and parents in the learning process. (The full schedule of training, as it was first presented in the pilot and modified in later stages of the TUP, is presented in appendix C. The TUP curriculum appears in appendix D.)

A student-centered and multigrade teaching methodology

These methods improve student retention and strengthen ties with the community. Student-centered learning attempts to modify traditional rote, teacher-centered, top-down learning practices, making learning more effective and relevant. Multigrade teaching addresses access issues by providing the full compliment of primary grades in a given village. It enables one teacher to teach children from different grade levels in the same classroom, such that one or two village teachers can cover all the primary grades. This strategy meets a priority need in remote ethnic minority villages, which have insufficient student numbers to warrant staffing each of the grades with a separate teacher. Before the introduction of multigrade teaching, children from upper primary grades were most affected, as the small villages could offer only the lower primary grades. Combining grade levels addresses the reality of the remote villages and the government's need for a cost-effective student-teacher ratio. Students can finish primary school in their home village, without being limited by constraints such as teacher shortages and the difficulty of traveling long distances to larger villages that provide instruction to all the primary grades. These methods,

introduced through TUP, are now implemented by various projects throughout the country.

Active community participation

The teachers' assignments include promoting community activities with parents to strengthen the ties between school and community. The TUP engages communities by revitalizing the system of parent-student associations. Community labor and local materials for school building are mobilized through field visits by trainers, in conjunction with the District Education Bureau.

A network for training and program feedback from central to local levels

To ensure continuing relevance to local needs and situations, feedback and revision of training modules, as well as of the program design, are conducted. The modular approach enables the TUP to readily update training content based on emerging issues, including HIV/AIDS and unexploded ordinance. Refresher courses in current issues are provided by updating individual modules. The network of support and two-way communication between the communities and stakeholders is illustrated in appendix B.

Program development process and donor coordination

The TUP is characterized by the interdepartmental cooperation and implementation overseen by the National Basic Education Committee. The flexible linkage of the provincial NTUCs, each serving a particular geographic area with its own characteristics, has enabled adaptation to local conditions. The network is characterized by strong cooperation and communication the various centers, as well as the schools. Regular review meetings organized by MOE provide opportunity for regular feedback from stakeholders at all levels. Curriculum workshops bring together key stakeholders from all levels to revise training modules to match realities in the field. Two-way communication ensures the program is adapted to local realities. The comprehensive design that established networks from local to central levels enabled the ready scaling up and expansion of the pilot to a national program. Agencies large and small wishing to expand the model geographically or strengthen technical aspects have channeled funds[2] or expertise to TUP through the MOE.

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2. UNICEF funding (largely through Japan and Australia UNICEF Committees), NGOs, and bilateral aid.

The technical assistance has a multiplier effect, being directed at the annual "training of trainers" workshops and subsequently implemented through the various NTUCs.

Multi-level human resource development and delegation to local levels

While TUP's express goal was to implement a training program to reach remote area teachers, capacity building at all levels has been necessary to build a comprehensive support system for the teachers in their schools. Training workshops, mentoring, and networking have been conducted at all levels, together with delegation of responsibilities, as well as decentralization of planning, management, and curriculum revision. Each province has direct responsibility for planning and budgeting, as well as implementation. A strong sense of local ownership and responsibility has resulted, along with a cadre of experienced trainers, supervisors, and managers who are a valuable resource. Many trained through the TUP's "learning by doing" approach have subsequently received promotions, and NTUC trainers often act as resource persons for various primary teacher training projects. Provincial NTUC directors have been promoted to positions in the Provincial Education Service (PES) responsible for pedagogy province-wide, and one PES director has become the provincial governor. Numerous alumni have become heads of cluster schools and been promoted to senior District Education Bureau posts.

Based on the successful experience of the pilot (1992–96), the TUP was expanded from the original eight provinces (one district each) to the current nationwide program.[3] This has occurred in two more phases.

PHASE II (1996–2002). The program was expanded to additional provinces. Other donors, including various NGOs and bilateral agencies, were enlisted to extend assistance. Curriculum and program length were revised, based on an evaluation in 1995. Increased emphasis was placed on upgrading teachers to middle school completion level, which is a pre-requisite for government teacher certification.

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3. Two external evaluations, one in 1995 at the end of the Phase I pilot, and one in the middle of Phase II in 2000 (Schaeffer and others 1995; Watt and others 2000) were conducted by UNICEF, with the documents on file at the UNICEF Office in Vientiane. For some of the program modifications that followed the evaluations, see appendix C. The most significant revision following the 1995 evaluation was to shorten the training course from three years to two, triggering revisions in the training modules by combining related modules.

PHASE III (2002–06). The model is being extended nationwide. The focus on the multigrade teaching methodology is being strengthened, along with the use of cluster schools.

Among the program's achievements: The TUP program has trained 7,796 primary teachers (including 2,723 females) and has established 17 provincial-level Networks for Teacher Upgrading Centres (NTUCs) with 138 trainers, who in turn have trained teachers in 141 districts throughout the country. Of these, 120 districts have completed training all their teachers, and 21 districts are in the process of doing so. Communities and schools consistently report that TUP teachers have stronger pedagogy than those trained through other programs. All participating government teachers in the target districts became fully qualified, and staff turnover has significantly decreased. Student dropout rates have lowered, enrollment has increased, and schools are open for full rather than half days (PES 2003).

TUP is generally acknowledged as the most successful teacher training program in the country (Chagnon 1999; Watt and others 2000; Nage, Fox, and Visaysack 2002). The success of its innovations laid a foundation for further education reform by demonstrating strategies, linkages, and procedures. These include interdepartmental initiatives, decentralized finances and decision making, delegated authority to local levels and networking and feedback systems at all levels. These reforms came at a key moment during the reconstruction period in the 1990s, a decade in which the country became signatory to international education conventions, further opened its doors to a market economy, prioritized socioeconomic development, and joined the ASEAN alliance.

The TUP has made an outstanding contribution to rebuilding the pool of trained human resources nationwide, which had been decimated during the conflict. The program has trained rural educators (who form the bulk of the civil service) from local to provincial levels, with many of them assuming leading roles in providing education services. TUP's initial focus on the remotest mountain areas, especially in Phase I, targeted areas that were most in need of special initiatives for post-war socioeconomic reconstruction.

Many MOE programs have built on TUP innovations: the mixed-mode of delivery, the interdepartmental strategy, and using the large cadre trained from central to local levels as resource persons and trainers. Specific MOE programs using TUP achievements include the Ethnic Minority Teacher

Training Program,[4] the Regional Primary Teacher Training Centers,[5] and the nationwide EQUIP II Project[6], a comprehensive program for reforming pre-service and in-service teacher training for primary and secondary levels.

Lessons Learned

Both pedagogy and basic skills development should be promoted.

A program must not only improve teaching methods but also produce teachers who are competent in the subject matter they teach. Key stakeholders at all levels recommend requiring stricter teacher entrance criteria, as well as providing additional resources, modules, and classes specifically for trainees with lower educational backgrounds. A system to upgrade the knowledge and skills of teacher trainers is also necessary. A distance training system could help teachers sustain lifelong learning.

Language of instruction is a significant issue.

Language is one of the most significant barriers to accessing education for remote ethnic minority communities. Proper program design and adequate resource allocations are needed to ensure that the special needs of the target are met and that rural-urban and linguistic gaps in accessing services are minimized. Ideally, the language of instruction for ethnic minority children should be the subject of research, discussion, and pilot studies.

The under-representation of females and ethnic minorities as students and trainers must be addressed.

Specific numerical targets should be set for ethnic minority and female participants, along with special initiatives to support their participation.

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4. Lao-Australian Girls' Basic Education Project, Teacher Training Component.
5. Two regional primary teacher training centers, serving a total of eight provinces, with secondary school completion a prerequisite for enrollment.
6. Education Quality Improvement Project, Phase II, 2001–07.

A national disaggregated data collection system should be established to track gender, poverty, and ethnicity issues.

It is not clear that the project has adequately reached the poorest of the poor in the remotest districts. A national as well as a local data system should be created to ensure equity, access, quality, and to monitor results for target populations. Existing information should be systematically analyzed to ensure effective and equitable program planning.

The financial problems of poorly paid teachers should be addressed, as well as problems such as insufficient funding and shortages of facilities.

Continuing attention is needed for all the pervasive resource issues related to teacher training in order to help achieve education quality.

Primary challenges remaining include further tailoring the TUP program to meet the needs of ethnic minority teachers in very remote areas, as well as increasing the number of females participating as teachers and NTUC trainers, especially ethnic minority females. The TUP network also needs a system to upgrade both trainers and alumni: ideally, a distance training system that will support lifelong learning. The MOE's Department of Teacher Training feels that the highly motivated cadre of trainers and teachers could become beneficiaries of an effective distance education pilot in the Lao PDR, which could be extended to other segments of the population.

General challenges that continue to face the evolving education systems, noted in the ADB Country Report (Chagnon 1999), include the severe constraints of poorly paid teachers, insufficient funding, and shortages of facilities. Significant geographic, ethnic, gender, and wealth disparities exist in the distribution of educational services, along with inequalities in access and success. On the brighter side, however, capable teachers and education administrators can now be found in many schools throughout the country, and communities are actively contributing to the education process. The upgrading of both coverage and quality gives hope to the realization of national goals for Universal Primary Education. TUP's contribution to developing an educated work force has contributed to the increasingly important national priority of human resource development as the Lao PDR strives to keep pace with the socioeconomic development of other ASEAN alliance members.

APPENDIX A. Education Priorities, Government of Lao PDR

National Education Goals for 1990–2000

- Enhancement of the education law and the compulsory primary education law (1996)
- Continued expansion of primary schools in ethnic minority areas and remote rural areas
- Reinforced implementation of the decree on the salary increase for teachers who teach in ethnic minority areas and rural remote areas
- Continued implementation of the school cluster organization system
- Improved quality of the school supervision system
- Continued implementation of the progressive promotion policy and close supervision of the promotion process
- Improved ethnic minority boarding schools at all levels
- Organization of multigrade teaching in areas where the villages are small and in remote areas
- Continued implementation of the cooperation plan with UNICEF on Basic Primary Education Project.

Source: UNICEF (1996).

Education for All (EFA) Goals, 1995

- Increase educational benefits to the poorest, who are in rural areas
- Upgrade the teaching quality, especially in remote areas
- Allow flexible language policies in minority areas
- Provide incentives for teachers assigned to remote areas
- Revise the examination and evaluation system
- Link health and nutrition services
- Provide clean water supply and sanitation to schools
- Extend and improve school facilities and teaching materials
- Reform the curriculum and make it relevant
- Strengthen the role of parents and the community in education.

Source: Watt and others (2000).

APPENDIX A. Education Priorities, Government of Lao PDR (continued)

Asian Development Bank Recommendations or Pre-conditions (1999)
These should be met by the Lao PDR before any further investment in education will be made:

- Provide higher teacher salaries and more funds to support day-to-day teaching activities
- Move toward universal access to primary education
- Delay expansion of lower and upper secondary education, focusing instead on improvements to quality
- Make more efficient use of teachers
- Lower costs and increase efficiency by reducing the number of repeaters
- Increase the completion rate (by reductions in the number of dropouts) in each stage of education, particularly in primary schools
- Make significant increase in teacher compensation a precondition before making substantial new investments in the Lao PDR education system.

Source: Chagnon (1999).

APPENDIX B. TUP Project Structure
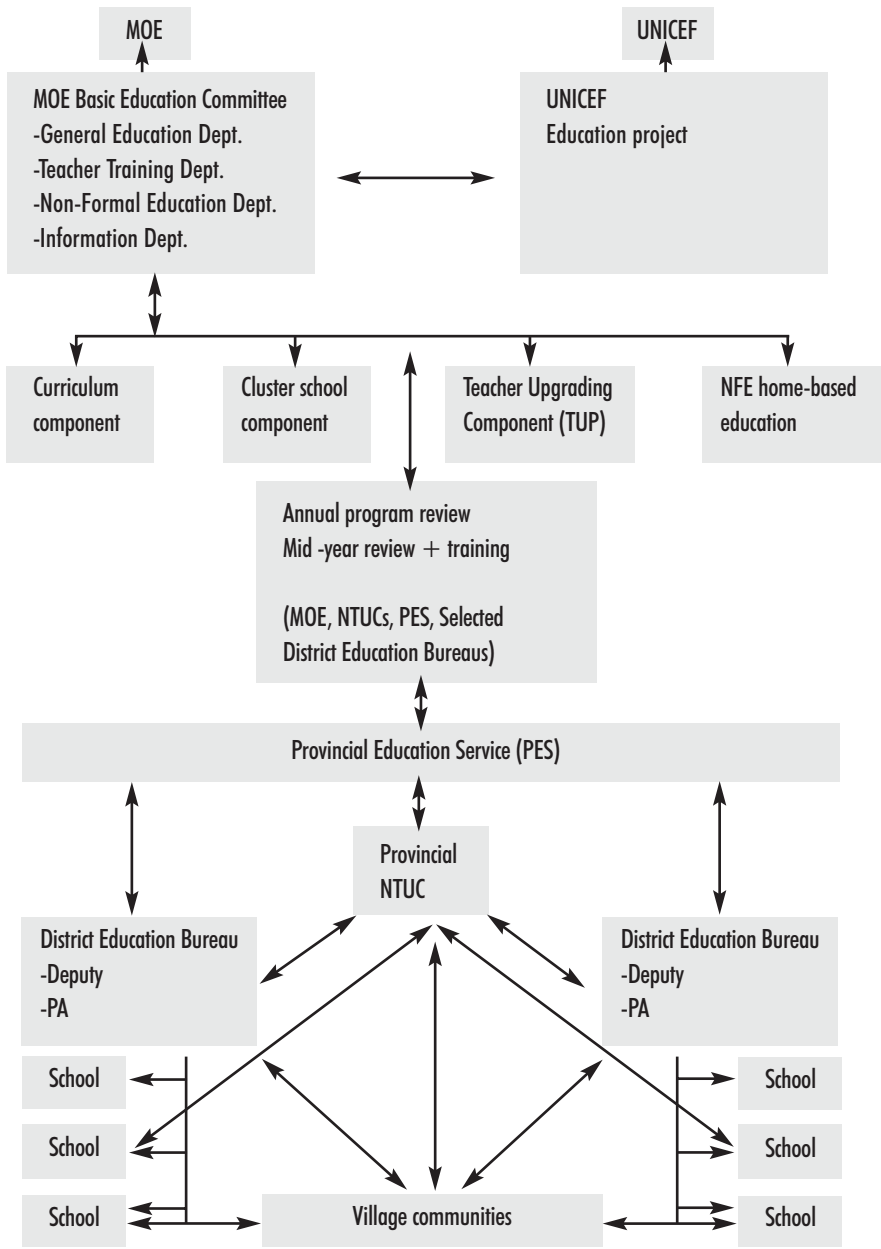
Source: Watt and others (2000), adapted.

APPENDIX C. Mixed-Mode of Delivery Framework

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Curriculum for 3 years: Pilot Phase I= 24 weeks Following 1995 evaluation: 22 weeks=16 weeks + 6 weeks for middle school completion		Year 3 curriculum (discontinued for Phases II &III)
Foundation Studies 6- week residential training (July-August) In-school exercises: Year 1,Term 1 (September-December) 2- week residential training (January) In-school exercises: Year 1, Term 2 (February-May)	Applied Curriculum Studies 6-week residential training (July-August) In-school exercises: Year 2, Term 1 (September-December) 2-week residential training (January) In-school exercises: Year 2, Term 2 (February-May) Following 1995 Evaluation: Basic Knowledge: 6 weeks Studies for those who had not completed middle school, which enabled them to get certification + a promotion in teaching rank and salary, enabling them to become government teaching staff	During Pilot Phase Advanced Studies 6-week residential training (July-August) In-school exercises Year 2, Term 1 (September-December) 2 week residential training (January) In-school exercises Year 2, Term 2 (February-May)

Notes:

a. During Phase I, only those who had completed lower secondary school were granted certificates and a promotion in their teaching rank and salary in order to become a permanent teacher. Without this certification, the Ministry of Education does not accept the teachers as permanent government staff, only as contracted teachers.

b. Those who had only primary graduation or less upon entry could not receive the certificates, only program completion certificates.

Revision following 1995 evaluation

- Revision of course length from 3 years to 2 years, from 24 weeks to 16 weeks.
- The lower middle school graduates received the certificates and promotions as before. However, their course was shortened with the 3 components of Foundation Studies, Applied Curriculum Studies, and Advanced Studies completed in 2 years.

APPENDIX C. Mixed-Mode of Delivery Framework (continued)

- Provision for intensive middle school course: additional 6-week summer course, which provides a completion certificate, the pre-requisite for government teacher certification (Phase I alumni would like this option to be available to them, a proposal which MOE endorses but which is awaiting donor funding).
- Monitoring linkage with cluster supervision system: Additional support in pilot clusters from the Dept. of General Education through training at cluster level by resource person at cluster level on topics identified through weekly meetings.
- NTUC directly under PES, rather than supervision rotated between districts.
- PES rather than the Provincial Basic Education Committee directly overseeing NTUC.

Revision following 2000 evaluation

- Add supplementary modules on emerging issues in addition to regular 2-year course. Additional funding from special initiatives from UNICEF, but not the Education Project funds.
- Special emphasis on multigrade teaching, addictive drugs, HIV/AIDS, health and hygiene, population education (growth, family planning, migration, environment).
- Provision for alumni refresher training: multigrade teaching + middle school (lower secondary) completion proposed by MOE; implementation is pending funding approval.

Subsequent developments during Phase III

- UNICEF initiates "Resource Person Pilot" in 2002 for districts completing the TUP, with special focus and concern on most remote villages.
- UNICEF begins compiling data since 2002 on TUP participants, disaggregated by gender, age, and ethnicity, in order to provide analysis and information for program planning and advocacy to ensure that the hardest-to-reach teachers, especially ethnic minorities and females, are represented proportionally.
- Continued concern on the part of both MOE and UNICEF of the low basic knowledge of alumni. Participants lacking basic knowledge upon entry to TUP are not adequately prepared to teach upper primary school grades as necessitated by mulitgrade strategy, even if teaching methods are strong. Strict entrance criteria for prerequisite primary school completion addresses the issue but prevents the disadvantaged teachers the project is targeting from participating.

APPENDIX C. Mixed-Mode of Delivery Framework (continued)

Phase 1. Curriculum and Objectives

Curriculum

Phase I featured three components of the training curriculum: Foundation Studies, Applied Curriculum Studies, and Advanced Studies. Revisions following the 1995 evaluation and 2000 evaluations produced supplementary modules on emerging issues, topics considered to be relevant to some localities, and topics of interest to trainees. These include multigrade teaching, HIV/AIDS, hygiene, and control of illegal drugs. In this way the training program can be readily updated, whether for changes in the national curriculum or emerging issues. A strength of the modular framework is that the curriculum is not easily outdated and continues to be relevant, despite the changing needs of the country.

Primary Objectives, Phase I Pilot

The fulfillment of the following objectives was the foundation for subsequent phases:

- Reduce the proportion of unqualified teachers in primary schools in project areas to less than 10 percent. Train 50 teachers per provincial NTUC per year, for a total of 3,200 teachers by 1996
- Provide training in teaching methodology and the production of training materials to PES and NTUC staff (6 to 8 NTUC staff per province, for a total of 96 in Phase I) so they, in turn, can upgrade untrained teachers in rural and ethnic minority areas
- Train local district supervisors (Pedagogy Assistants, or PAs) who provide local monitoring
- Prepare and produce training manuals and resource materials in Lao language for the trainers and trainees
- Upgrade the facilities of NTUCs, provide office supplies/equipment and establish libraries, and upgrade selected community schools and provide basic school supplies and reading materials
- Link selected community schools with in-classroom guidance and assistance with self-learning modules
- Provide effective project management, administration and monitoring support.

Source: Schaeffer and others (1995).

APPENDIX D. TUP Curriculum

Curriculum for 3-year Pilot Phase: 24 weeks

Following 1995 evaluation: Revised Phases II and III, consolidating modules and reducing theoretical lessons. 16 weeks (all participants) + optional 6 weeks for participants needing to complete middle school (22 weeks)

Year 1: Foundational Studies	Year 2: Applied Curriculum	Year 3: Advanced Studies
		Note: Consolidated and incorporated into Year 1 and 2 curriculum following the 1995 evaluation, so that all modules can be completed in 16 weeks.

• Pupil-teacher relationships
• Class management and control
• Relationship skills
• Class management skills
• Planning
• Instructional skills
• Teaching methods
• Educational psychology
• The multigrade school
	• Teaching methods for grades 1-5 in:
	
	  • Mathematics, science
	  • Lao language
	  • Social science ("The World around Us")
	  • Health education
	  • Physical education
	
	• Program planning
	• Supervisors' guide and checklist
	• Assessment manual
	• Assessment guide, in-school activities
		• Physical development
		• Cognitive development
		• Small group organization
		• Language development
		• Evaluation, testing, record keeping
		• Managing students' behavior
		
		Supplementary and revised modules following 1995 and 2000 evaluations:
		
		• Organization of multigrade school/classroom
		• Teaching and organization in the multigrade school
		• Education for girls: Introduction for trainers
		• The school and the community
		• Principals in isolated rural schools
		• Supervision visits and record keeping
		• Measurement, evaluation, and progression through grades at the primary level
		• Teacher Upgrading Course Evaluation manual (for trainers/supervisors)

Source: Schaeffer and others (1995, pp. 40–44).

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Chapter 4

Educating Hard-to-Reach Children in Viet Nam

Duong Van Thanh

Two programs in post-war Viet Nam are moving beyond the constraints of traditional education approaches to educate hard-to-reach, disadvantaged children in urban slums and remote rural areas.

Through the Multigrade Teaching Program (MTP), primary school children from a number of grades, ages, and abilities are taught in a single classroom. The program has proven effective in serving ethnic minority children and children living in remote rural areas. By bringing the school closer to students' homes and communities, more children, especially girls, are encouraged to enter school. The approach is also less expensive than conventional single-grade schools. Multigrade teaching has been able to reduce costs while increasing primary school participation rates.

Alternative Basic Education (ABE) serves poor, marginalized, street, and working children who are unable to attend regular schools. The program's innovative and flexible methods enable working children and teenagers to complete at least the primary education cycle. It thus offers a second chance to Viet Nam's neediest children. Viet Nam's ABE program goes beyond typical programs in other countries because it is concerned with the child's total welfare.

Both programs have expanded access to education and have helped reduce dropout rates among ethnic minority children and children in difficult circumstances. The programs are visible examples of how a nation has improved education for marginalized children during its process of post-war reconstruction.

Providing Basic Education to All Children

Post-war Viet Nam faces many educational challenges. Of its population of 78 million people, 40 percent are under the age of 18 and 10 percent are under the age of five, placing a major strain on the education system. Ethnic minority groups, totaling over 10 million people, have high levels of illiteracy. They are scattered over mountainous areas that cover two-thirds of the country from northern to southern Viet Nam.

From 1945 to 1975, Viet Nam suffered from war and isolation, leaving the country riddled with poverty and causing untold hardships for many people, including children. Rural and mountainous areas were especially hard hit. In the post-war period, critical issues included alleviating poverty, improving educational quality, and spurring socioeconomic development. Poverty in urban slum settlements and remote rural areas remains the central problem for social development. As part of its modernization and search for sustainable development, the Vietnamese government has made education a major priority. Until 1975, the North and the South had different education systems; now there is a unified system. The country has made a major commitment to provide basic education for all boys and girls throughout the country. This task has been particularly challenging in rural and mountainous areas, where the costs of sending children to school compete with agricultural lifestyles. The Multigrade Teaching and Alternative Basic Education programs were introduced as significant educational strategies to overcome severe educational deficiencies, especially in basic education for children.

Addressing Barriers to Attending School

Viet Nam enacted the two programs against the backdrop of a sweeping process of economic and social liberalization launched in the late 1980s. Rising from decades of conflict and isolation, Viet Nam's socioeconomic transition over the last decade has improved the lives of children and brought about important achievements in education and gender equity.

Yet while many children have enjoyed greater access to primary and secondary education since the war, children in urban slum areas, as well as those in rural and mountainous areas, still face many barriers to attending school.

A major barrier is poverty. People living in rural remote and mountainous areas have lower wages, fewer job opportunities, and less access to education than city dwellers. It may cost too much, directly and indirectly, for a family to send its children to school. Poor families may not be able to afford school supplies, clothes, shoes, and books. Moreover, families may depend upon a child's labor for subsistence.

Another barrier is gender. Traditional views of appropriate gender roles have led to a gap in enrollment rates between boys and girls. Girls, especially from ethnic minority groups living in remote areas, are expected to serve in the role of caregiver, looking after siblings and helping with domestic chores until reaching a suitable marrying age, usually between 16 and 18 years. As they do not need to go to school to learn these skills, some parents see no value in educating girls. Many poor families that cannot afford to pay school fees for all their children choose to "invest" in their sons. For many ethnic minority girls in Viet Nam, the chance of attending school is slim.

Schools are inadequate in many rural and remote areas. Some primary schools offer only grades 1 to 2, and some lower secondary schools offer only grades 6 to 7; thus many children are unable to complete the eighth or ninth grades. Schools may be located too far from homes for children to attend school, especially if there are no pathways, roads, bridges, or canals on the way to and from school, or these passageways are in poor condition. Furthermore, the incentives, both monetary and in-kind, for teachers to continue living in remote and/or poor areas are often inadequate.

In addition, centralized school systems may not respect the needs of local communities. In ethnic minority areas, the language of textbooks and instruction may not be the language that is spoken locally. The curricula are written by ethnic Vietnamese educators whose world view is dominated by a Kinh cultural perspective rooted in lowland and wet-rice agriculture. Therefore, the curricula are not tailored to the realities of the lives of ethnic minority students and are often irrelevant.

All these problems create a vicious cycle that makes it impossible for the great majority of ethnic minority children to complete primary school and to obtain a good quality of basic education. Hence, education for ethnic minority children has been a major challenge to achieving universal basic education during the reconstruction period.

Children in urban slums face many of these problems—and others. In the city, the majority of working children are migrants from rural areas whose families are fleeing rural poverty. Working to support their families, these children usually do not have time or opportunity to attend school. Some urban children are homeless or orphans. Older siblings must work to support younger ones. Street children and youth, in particular, for years were not considered legitimate victims of wartime injustice who deserved special treatment during immediate post-war reconstruction. Rather, where they were "visible," street children were seen as delinquents or threats to social stability—a group to be punished or eliminated.

The Declaration on Education for All (Article 3) adopted at the Jomtien Conference in 1990 states that basic education should be provided to all children and that underserved groups, such as rural and remote populations, should not suffer any discrimination in access to learning opportunities. In response to this declaration, the Vietnamese government explored different ways of increasing access to education, reducing dropout rates, and improving learning outcomes for children in Viet Nam.

The multigrade classes were launched first, and were initially created to serve ethnic minority children. These children had been unable to attend schools that were located far from their homes. Alternative basic education classes were created for children who were unable to attend regular schools, such as working children and street children. Various nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in Viet Nam, notably UNICEF, have supported these educational programs with technical and financial assistance. After national reunification in 1975, UNICEF was the first United Nations agency to start a program in Viet Nam. In the1980s, UNICEF assistance progressively shifted from emergency services to development. During the 1990s, UNICEF was extensively involved in multigrade teaching and Alternative Basic Education efforts. Using financial and technical resources provided by UNICEF, and generating active community support in the form of the construction of community schools, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) was able to bring the multigrade teaching and ABE programs into full operation during the last decade.

The commitment of the Vietnamese government to the education sector and the improved performance of these two programs have significantly promoted literacy and universal primary education. These two programs established the

foundation for an agreement in July 2003 between Viet Nam and the World Bank for the Primary Education Project for Disadvantaged Children. Under this agreement, the World Bank will provide Viet Nam with $138.8 million in loans to help primary school-aged children complete the full cycle of primary schooling. The project seeks to improve the efficiency and equity of the system by eliminating waste and improving output rates. The majority of the project's resources are targeted on 189 districts in 38 provinces where approximately 70 percent of Viet Nam's educationally disadvantaged children reside. By the end of the project in 2009, 86 percent of the pupils in those districts will complete the full primary education cycle of five years. It is also expected that by 2009, national guidelines will have been developed and applied effectively to support inclusive education for disabled children of primary school age and other highly vulnerable groups, such as street and working children, minority girls, and children from fishing villages.

The Multigrade Teaching Project

Rationale

One of the most important dynamics affecting the educational situation after the Viet Nam war has been the dispersion and isolation of the remote rural population, particularly ethnic minority groups that dwell on hillsides and mountainous areas. Ethnic minorities generally live in some of the poorest and most remote parts of the country (Theis 1999; World Bank 1993). Levels of literacy and educational attainment for minority children are well below those of the majority Kinh population. There are differences between various ethnic minority groups, as well. Some groups, such as the Tay, Thai, or Muong, are culturally close to the majority Kinh and tend to have higher levels of education than the Hmong or Dao, who often live in very remote areas.

The sparse population in mountainous areas and the high dropout rate of minority children in the northern upland provinces were two primary reasons for the implementation of multigrade teaching in Viet Nam. The children living in these areas must walk a long way (from four to seven kilometers) from their homes to school, and cross rivers, streams, and forests. These difficulties result in irregular school attendance, and gradually children drop out. In a typical school in these areas, a teacher has only five to ten pupils in each grade. At the same time, Viet Nam is facing a severe shortage of teachers and capital to build more classrooms (Tran and others 1999).

A field research project undertaken in 1990 by the Vietnamese government and UNICEF revealed that many ethnic minority children did not have access to school or exposure to any kind of formal education. Participation rates were markedly lower for minority children than for children of Vietnamese/Kinh ethnicity (MOET 1992). There were many "white villages" without schools in remote areas—despite a policy of constructing a school in every Vietnamese village. Many of the schools that did exist were dilapidated and even dangerous. Schools in mountainous areas were often built of mud and branches, and they were dark, damp, and unstable. The school classrooms, with their thatched roofs and bare walls, were often cold during the winter. To cope with the cold, many schools tended to operate for less than the two and a half hours of official instruction time; students often attended school for only 60 to 90 minutes a day. Most of the classrooms were cramped and highly unsuitable for children already facing learning challenges.

Following the joint research project, multigrade teaching was created during the 1990–91 school year, initially as a pilot project in four northern mountainous provinces where many different ethnic groups live. The pilot involved an innovative combination of activities including the provision of school buildings and facilities, teaching supplies and learning materials, teacher education, and in-service teacher training (Meyenn, Squires, and Woolley 1994).

The Multigrade Teaching Project includes a bilingual dimension to teach the national common language while teaching in ethnic minority languages (the mother tongue) for the minority children (UNICEF Viet Nam/MOET 1998). The bilingual component was added to the multigrade project in 1996 and implemented in 1997.

Organization and Management

The multigrade education method builds on Viet Nam's tradition of Confucian and Vietnamese education, where children typically participate in multigrade and multiage classes in the temple of their ancestors. The Multigrade Teaching Project was established during the 1990–91 school year to provide a model of alternative education for minority children in remote and mountainous areas in Viet Nam. After two years of implementation, the project was extended to 13 provinces. Currently, multigrade classes are widely used in ethnic minority areas, as seen in table 4.1 and figure 4.1.

TABLE 4.1 Growth in Multigrade Classes in Viet Nam, 1991 to 2001

School Year	Provinces	Districts	Classes	Students
1990–91	4	12	20	506
1991–92	7	61	1, 078	27,951
1992–93	13	94	2, 246	59,418
1993–94	17	108	3,565	86, 853
1994–95	17	117	5,600	125,000
1995–96	21	181	3,461	88,195
1996–97	29	226	4,362	106,508
1997–98	37	258	5,490	129,611
1998–99	39	289	6,832	153,594
1999–2000	39	293	7,711	165,050

Source: MOET (2000b).

The number of grade levels in a multigrade class varies from year to year according to the characteristics of the school-age population. Based on the number of children, the qualifications of potential teachers, and the existing resource base of classrooms, a multigrade class can be established in different ways. Most classes include students from two or three grades, but some include students from four or even five different grades (Hargreaves and others 2001). Class size ranges from 20 to 25 pupils. In many places, two-room schools accommodate five levels of students from six to 14 years of age. Usually, grades 1 to 3 work in one classroom, while grades 4 and 5 work in the other. One teacher usually staffs each classroom. Multigrade teachers are trained to give different lessons at the same time to pupils at different grade levels. Children sit in grade-groups facing their own blackboard, and if there are two grade-groups in the class, the blackboards are placed at either end of the classroom with children facing opposite directions. During lessons, the teacher moves frequently between the different groups. Since 1991, the project has undergone three phases of development.

PHASE 1: PILOT (1991–95). The project was launched in 20 schools in four northern provinces. Because the project provided an important solution to improving educational access, multigrade classes expanded at a faster pace than anticipated. From 1991 to 1995, pupil participation increased from 506

to 125,000, the number of teachers involved grew from 30 to 4,700, and the number of classes involved increased from 20 to 5,600 (UNICEF 1996). Importantly, during Phase 1, much of the operational foundation was built. Materials for teachers and students were designed, financial and administrative arrangements were instituted, administrators and teachers were trained, delivery systems were organized, materials were reproduced and distributed, and an initial evaluation was conducted.

FIGURE 4.1 **Enrollment of Ethnic Minority Children in Multigrade Classes, 1995–96 to 1999–2000**
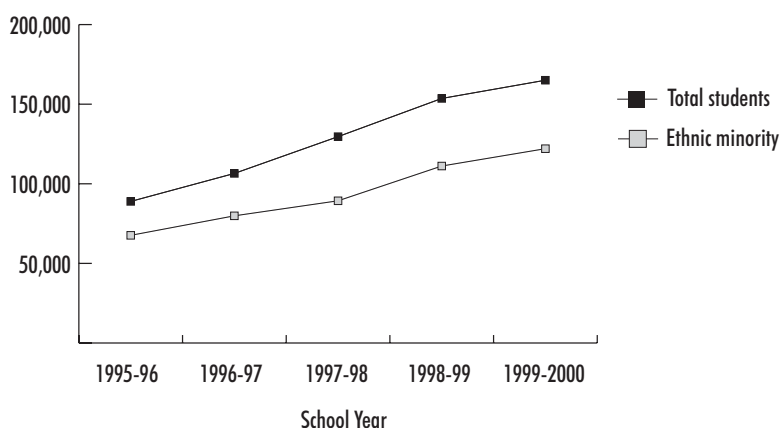
Source: MOET (2000b).

PHASE 2: DEVELOPMENT (1996–2000). The project extended its coverage from northern to southern provinces, growing to over 7,700 classes in 293 districts with 165,000 students (see table 4.1). At the beginning of this phase, however, enrollment in multigrade classes declined from 125,000 to 88,195 between the 1994–95 and 1995–96 school years. While there was no official explanation for this sudden decline, one explanation was the project faced numerous challenges because of its rapid development in different parts of the country. The teaching staff was not well prepared to undertake multigrade teaching. Enrollment gradually rose in subsequent years of this cycle. Training courses developed during the first phase were replicated at regional and national levels, and the teacher's manual and children's study guides were

reproduced. Revised versions of training and workbook materials for students were developed. The government adopted the multigrade teaching strategy as its policy for rural primary schooling throughout the country. A variety of sources provided significant financial support, including the Vietnamese government, UNICEF, the World Bank, JICA, and OXFAM.

PHASE 3: EXPANSION (2001 TO PRESENT). Currently, the project covers 39 provinces and features more active instruction, a stronger relationship between school and community, and a flexible promotion mechanism adapted to the lifestyles of ethnic minority and rural children.

With technical assistance from UNICEF, Vietnamese educators have had extensive exchanges with researchers and teachers around the world, particularly from Australia, Britain, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Numerous workshops, field research studies, and seminars were conducted to set up a framework for the Multigrade Teaching Project. The Vietnamese core team for Multigrade Teaching includes researchers, teachers, and administrators from the National Institute of Education Science and participating provinces.

Observed Outcomes

Observed outcomes of multigrade teaching are both quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative outcomes involve objective measures of learning achievement, and attempt to answer the question: "Was the project responsible for an increase in the level of learning achievement in multigrade primary schools?" By contrast, the qualitative outcomes consider personal responses, and attempt to answer the question: "How well was the project received by the teachers, the students, and the community?" The Multigrade Teaching Project can be considered successful if the quantitative level of learning achievement has increased and the people involved in the project have seen improvement in the quality of the learning environment.

LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT: A Quantitative Perspective. From 1996 to 2000, annual assessments of learning achievement in multigrade classes and single grade] classes were conducted, based on students' grade point averages (GPAs) in 15 provinces (MOET 2000b). Results of this series for multigrade classes are shown in figure 4.2. No major difference was found in the levels of GPA scores of children in multigrade compared with single grade rural

schools. Although the GPA scores of children in single grade classes are a bit higher than those in multigrade classes, it may be inferred that multigrade classes are simply no worse and no better than single grade classes. By comparing GPA scores of the multigrade classes and single grade classes, it can be concluded that the Multigrade Teaching Project has improved student performance.

FIGURE 4.2 Comparison of GPA Scores between Single Grade Classes and Multigrade Classes, 1996–2000
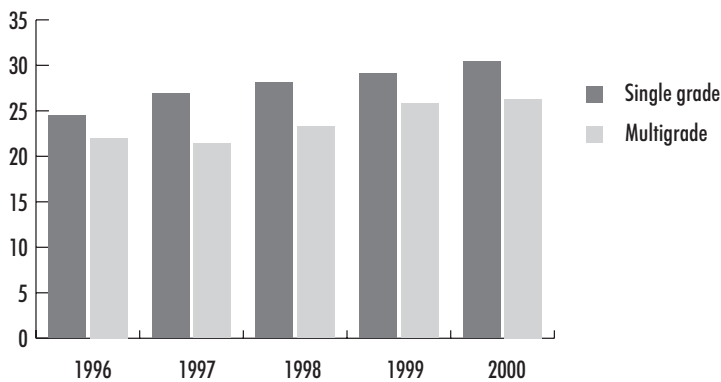
Note: The data cover 10 provinces involved in Multigrade Teaching Project.

Source: MOET (2000b).

These results show an improved level of individual student performance in the classroom and a higher rate of overall learning among all students within the classroom. The Project Director stated in the 10-year project reviews that, "Since the data received by the results of GPA from multigrade classes and single grade classes, it can be said that the Multigrade Teaching had achieved its objectives" (MOET 2000b, p.10). This finding might be expected: empirical studies in other countries consistently reveal that students in multigrade situations perform at par with those in single grade teaching (Tran and others 1999). Currently, a quantitative assessment between single grade and multigrade schools is being developed to measure student performance in particular subject areas.

LEARNING ATTITUDES: A Qualitative Perspective. Were the individuals and groups involved in the project satisfied with its implementation? Multigrade teaching is a community project. As such, administrators, parents, teachers, students and all the members of the community must accept the project before it can succeed.

The Multigrade Teaching Project involves a shift in the perception of the importance of different types of educational delivery. Historically, many children in remote and mountainous regions have been unable to go to school and have had little time to play because they are needed to work in the fields or to look after younger siblings at home. These children, in essence, have been deprived of their childhood.

With the help of community outreach under the Multigrade Teaching Project, parents are taught the important role that education plays in the welfare and development of their children. Slowly, more children from remote and mountainous areas, including girls, want to and are allowed to attend school. Learning in multigrade classrooms becomes more active and student-centered as teachers guide their students to be open to learning and to seek out answers on their own (Tran and others 1999). When education becomes fun for children, they are more attentive and keen to learn. Hands-on activities and projects increase the entertainment level of the education process, in turn improving learning achievement within village schools (MOET 2000a). Students are encouraged to study together and help one another in the learning process. The student workbooks allow students with higher learning abilities to guide students who do not learn as quickly. This is an important change within the daily routine of multigrade classrooms. Slower students do not lose interest and fall behind; quicker students do not become bored because they are able to stay active by serving as guides or tutors. Teachers are allowed the necessary time to focus on other areas. Most importantly, as students take an active part in their own learning process, they begin to understand how much they can achieve.

Generally, learning in a multigrade situation occurs in both formal and informal ways. Given the facilitating role of the teacher in a multigrade class, s/he can allow students more time for self-study, thereby giving them greater opportunities for self-directed learning. Students also receive many opportunities for learning from students in higher grades, which can facilitate faster learning (Miller 1990). Outside the classroom, students can learn from the larger social and natural environment.

The rise of girls' enrollment in multigrade classes, as shown in figure 4.3, is an indicator of the success of multigrade teaching. Families see advantages of multigrade classes that are close to girls' homes, where they can attend classes easily. Moreover, girls have an opportunity for self-directed learning through such means as learning aids, self-learning materials, student portfolios, and learning centers in the schools. These opportunities encourage families to allow girls to finish their basic education. Teachers play critical role in their teaching methods that attract girls to multigrade classes and their participation in learning help change the old perception of their parents.

FIGURE 4.3 **Female and Male Enrollment in Multigrade Classes**

Source: MOET (2000b).
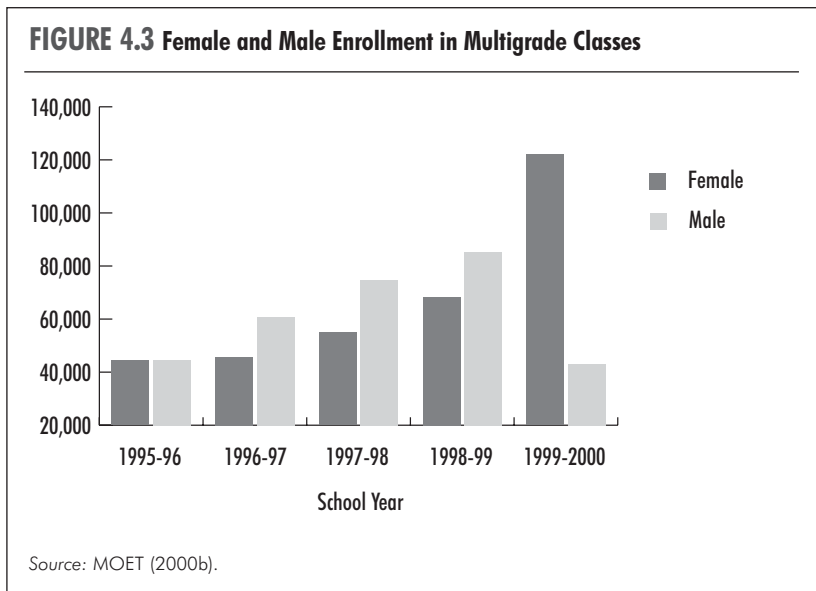
The project has led to changes for teachers. Multigrade teaching requires more preparation. From the outset, the project team acknowledged this. The time constraints of daily lesson preparation can be eased through the use of new teacher guidebooks.

The skills and behaviors required of teachers in multigrade classes may be more difficult than those for traditional classroom teachers, the project team also noted. Multigrade schools require teachers to develop a new orientation toward their work. Teachers still serve in their usual roles as mentors and educators, but more responsibility for learning is placed on students. Teachers

are reported to have become more motivated and confident in their teaching skills (MOET 2000b).

Under the project, teachers have more independent responsibility for their schools. The role of teacher has been becoming a more respected position as parents place more emphasis on education (Vu and others 2002). Teachers have begun staying longer in particular schools. Before the project began, it was not uncommon for a village teacher to serve in a school for only a year or less before transferring. Now an effort has been made to keep project teachers in the same village school for at least two years. Villagers understand the need for continuity within the education system.

Overall, multigrade teaching has been widely accepted by children, teachers, administrators, parents, and communities. From a qualitative perspective, multigrade teaching has been a success.

Project Accomplishments and Remaining Challenges

The Ten Year Project Review in December 2000 indicates the accomplishments of Multigrade Teaching (MOET 2000b, p. 1):

> Multigrade education has contributed in changing the education picture in remote and isolated areas, abolishing "white villages" for education, increasing the number of girl pupils going to school and helping localities complete the task of Universal Primary Education.

Some 39 provinces had achieved Universal Primary Education. Net enrollment in project provinces is 97.3 percent. Repetition and dropout rates declined from 6.7 to 2.3 percent from 1995 to 2000 (MOET 2000b). Among other achievements, 738 training workshops were delivered to 33,049 teachers; 55 workbooks were developed; and $2.6 million was invested in such items as, paper, workbooks, building upgrades, and furniture to support multigrade teaching (MOET 2000b).

Multigrade teaching in Viet Nam has attracted great interest from other countries and international organizations. In 1999, the Institute of Education at the University of London included multigrade teaching in Viet Nam in an international research project with Peru and Sri Lanka.

Despite these achievements, many schools in mountainous areas of Viet Nam face severe deficiencies in infrastructure. Many multigrade classrooms remain in very bad condition, with a shortage of furniture, equipment, and materials for teaching and educational support.

Teaching in multigrade schools face many constraints, including teacher isolation and the poverty and poor health of children (Aikman and Pridmore 1999). Teachers in satellite schools lack support to make creative use of resources at hand. They rarely receive support visits and are unable to meet regularly with teachers from other schools. A serious shortage of teachers exists, especially skilled teachers for multigrade teaching (Aikman and Pridmore 1999). Teacher training for multigrade classes does not meet the required standard in terms of either quality or quantity. There is a particularly severe shortage of teachers from local minority ethnic groups. Most multigrade teachers belong to the majority ethnic group known as Vietnamese or Kinh. Consequently, in remote ethnic areas, they suffer social, cultural and linguistic isolation. They often do not speak the local language, placing their students at a disadvantage (MOET 2000b).

Lessons Learned from Multigrade Teaching in Viet Nam

MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT. The multigrade teaching initiative has embarked upon a program of local curriculum design for the nation's ethnic minority children and professional development for teachers, using UNICEF funding. Materials for children from grades 1 to 5 have been developed in four basic curriculum areas: natural science, mathematics, social studies, and language. The materials adopt an approach that promotes active learning, cognitive skills, discussion, group decision making, and the development and application of skills within the local environment. The workbooks for students and guidebooks for teachers contain sequenced objectives and activities. They are used by groups of two to three children at a time, and they are a help to teachers required to work with several grades in the same classroom. The study materials reflect both the national curriculum and regional and local adaptations. The national materials and core study guides are developed and printed centrally. Teachers develop the regional and local adaptations during training courses, and they are produced using simple technologies.

By 2000, 55 series of student workbooks and teacher guides had been created, tested, revised, and implemented in multigrade primary schools.

These new education materials complement the existing curriculum and texts and are user friendly. Health and environmental safety materials have been provided as supplements to the primary education curriculum (Vu and others 2002). Guides encourage both teachers and students to design learning tools for mathematics and science using readily available recycled materials. The materials encourage students to seek answers to questions outside of the classroom, thus providing opportunities to involve parents and the community in the learning process. The classroom itself becomes an active learning center as teachers are trained to become more involved in the learning process of the students.

TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT. In-service teacher training is an integral part of the multigrade teaching strategy. Each teacher attends regular in-service workshops over a period of one year, with a series of follow-up workshops thereafter.

The first workshop introduces the teacher to the basic concepts and methods of the project. Key topics include the purpose of involving students in school organization, the use of learning centers and group work in the organization of learning, and the mobilization of community resources for school development. All these topics are included in self-study units in a teacher training manual. Teachers follow them, engaging in active learning in exactly the same way that they will teach their students.

The second workshop is focused on the use and adaptation of children's study guides. This workshop takes place only after the school has been reorganized and the community mobilized. During the workshop, teachers study children's materials and learn how to use them for multigrade teaching. Sets of materials for children's use are delivered to the teachers during the workshop.

The third workshop focuses on the role of the school library as a complement to the study guides and learning centers. Teachers receive the books for their library at the end of the workshop.

Follow-up workshops are conducted monthly to exchange ideas, analyze problems, and discuss results. Over time, these local non-formal workshops became formalized into "microcenters": participatory experiences where teachers can evaluate, create, innovate, criticize, analyze, and carry out projects for school and community improvement (Tran and others 1999).

Demonstration schools also play an important role in training. During the initial workshops, teachers visit a school that is implementing the curriculum approach effectively and operating as a well-functioning community center. Both the learning centers and demonstration schools function as a "decentralised, in-service, low-cost mechanism to maintain quality in the process of going to scale" (Tran and others 1999, p. 20).

PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT. Parents are often the most difficult sector of society to influence regarding their own children. Many poor village parents do not see themselves as active participants in the formal education process. By emphasizing the importance of education for all children within the village, multigrade teaching has made parents and communities active participants in the life of the school. Through empowerment by access to information, parents and the community became more willing to accept the new education project.

Multigrade Teaching as a Force for Change

In many developing countries, it is common for instruction to be very teacher-directed and to offer students only limited opportunities to participate (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991). Three multigrade-related innovations have particular relevance for the single grade classroom: curriculum reform, instructional strategies, and classroom management (Berry 2000). The Multigrade Teaching Project in Viet Nam has developed innovations in all three areas.

First, materials development is one way to make single grade teaching more effective. Workbooks and guidebooks with modules usually recognize that children in any one classroom will be developing at different speeds. The preparation of specific materials with learning objectives, together with more flexible approaches to retention and promotion, may allow students of mixed abilities in single grade classrooms to move through the system at a pace appropriate to them and also to achieve minimum learning objectives.

Second, single grade teachers can expand their instruction strategies by using methods derived from multigrade classes. These include peer instruction, cooperative group work, and independent self-study. Groups could be formed by ability or by mixed ability, depending on the teacher's instructional purpose. Third, to manage their classes, single grade teachers could adopt methods similar to the facilitator role required in multigrade classes. This would involve

reorganizing the classroom by increasing access to self-study areas such as classroom libraries, and promoting more group work independent of the teacher. Groups could be formed by ability or by mixed ability, depending on the teacher's instructional purpose.

Alternative Basic Education

Rationale

While Multigrade Teaching serves children from minority groups and children living in remote areas, the Alternative Basic Education (ABE) project focuses on serving poor, marginalized street and working children. In the city, the majority of working children are migrants from rural areas whose families are fleeing rural poverty. Settling in urban slum settlements on the outskirts of the cities, they find work in the informal economy: selling in the markets, parks, bus terminals, or on the street; shining shoes; or guarding motor bicycles. A small number of teenagers work in the manufacturing and service sectors in factories, restaurants, or in construction. In rural areas, the majority of working children and youth work in agriculture, for substandard wages or no wages at all (MOLISA 1998).

There are at least 50,000 street children in Viet Nam, over 14,000 of whom live in Ho Chi Minh City and over 7,000 in Ha Noi. Some 231,000 children are orphans under the age of 14. Over 731,500 children under the age of 14 do not live with their biological parents (MOLISA, UNICEF, and Viet Nam Committee 2000). In large cities such as Ho Chi Minh City, Ha Noi, and Hai Phong, many of the children served by ABE are orphans and are responsible for the care of younger siblings.

Many homeless children are past the age of entry into the formal education system. Many of these children did not enroll in formal education simply because it was not relevant to their situation and needs. Generally, parents expect their children to earn a living or help at home, rather than attend school and focus on their studies. Moreover, working and marginalized children are less motivated to learn because their parents are ill equipped to support their children academically: parents usually have very low levels of education or are illiterate themselves.

To address these problems, the government of Viet Nam, assisted by UNICEF, has developed an Alternative Basic Education model in all provinces of the country. The goal of ABE is to ensure that all children, even the most

disadvantaged ones, have access to education, in fulfillment of their rights as articulated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Vietnamese National Plan of Action for Children. Viet Nam was the second country in the world—and the first country in Asia—to sign the International Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1990. Article 32 of the Convention underscores the need for governments to "recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely hazardous to or interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development." The government of Viet Nam has acted on this article through a number of legislative and regulatory measures, seeking to maintain a balance between allowing children to contribute to their own survival in times of hardship and safeguarding the right of children to physical and intellectual development.

Organization and Management

ABE classes are offered to working children during different times of the day, but mainly in the evenings so that they can conduct their economic or other activities during the day. Sometimes, classes take place outside of a school or in a setting closer to the children, such as the commune's pagoda. ABE classes now exist in communes or urban wards in all corners of Viet Nam where there are high numbers of dropouts or children who have never attended school. Wherever a professional teacher is unavailable, the community identifies a trained volunteer. Access is easy and classrooms are situated close to the children's and teacher's homes. Children are provided free educational materials. The program's innovative and flexible methods enable working children and teenagers to complete at least the primary education cycle.

ABE has grown to serve about a third (30 percent) of 1 million out-of-school children, ranging in age from 6 to 17 years (MOET 1999a). The project's implementation process has spanned three periods.

DESIGN AND TESTING. (1985-88): In the early 1980s, an educational movement for disadvantaged children was launched in many southern provinces, especially in urban areas and remote areas in the Mekong Delta. The National Institute for Education Science (NIES) was asked by the Ministry of Education and Training to develop an abbreviated curriculum for use in the Mekong Delta provinces (Vu 1994). The 100-week curriculum was prepared in response to the needs of disadvantaged and working children, and was approved in

1988.[1] This curriculum was intended to simplify the curricular content and to reduce the hours of instruction per week. Since the 1988–89 school year, the 100-week curriculum has been implemented. ABE classes were first organized in Ho Chi Minh City and several provinces of the Mekong River delta.

IMPLEMENTATION AND EXPANSION. (1989-99): With UNICEF support, ABE classes were expanded from 10 provinces in 1991 to 27 provinces in 1999. A project monitoring system was established, covering the central to the community level. The Department of Primary Education is the coordinating agency for ABE, in cooperation with other departments and units of MOET for planning and implementing project activities. Each participating province is responsible for implementing all project activities within its jurisdiction. To identify the project's strengths and weaknesses so that timely corrective measures may be made, project monitoring has been conducted twice per year. While ABE classes use the 100-week primary curriculum, the same methods and tools that are employed for evaluation in regular classes are applied to the ABE classes. Learning achievement is evaluated through annual examinations organized by regular primary schools to promote students to higher classes or retain them in the same class. At the end of the fifth year, the district education board holds a public final examination. Successful candidates are awarded a certificate that entitles them to continue their studies in lower secondary education.

CONSOLIDATION (2000 TO PRESENT): ABE is now in another phase of expansion. No longer supported by UNICEF, ABE classes still function in many places where the teachers, students, parents, and communities have identified unmet learning needs. Teachers from participating provinces receive training courses using the conceptual framework for participatory learning and life skills development that is the guiding framework for ABE classes.

Philosophy: Respecting and Empowering Working Children and Youth

Along with alternative educational models in other regions, such as the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC), Colombia's Escuela Nueva (New School), and Guatemela's PENNAT (Educational Program for

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1. The ordinary primary education curriculum was designed to extend for 165 weeks annually over a five-year period. The 100-week ABE curriculum covers three subjects: Vietnamese (64 percent), mathematics (23.6 percent), and social and natural studies (6.7 percent).

Child and Adolescents Workers), the ABE Program in Viet Nam is considered to be one type of non-formal education (NFE) that strives to reach the unserved and respond to the constraints of traditional educational systems. ABE classes offer learning opportunities that are open, flexible, and relevant to the needs of working children and youth. ABE seeks to motivate schools, communities, teachers, and children to assess, analyze, and resolve problems related to their own context. Classes are found in many places, and they provide easy access to working children. In so doing, ABE has redefined the role of schools, making education fit local learning traditions.

The ABE program goes beyond the usual non-formal education program since it is also a holistic response to concerns highlighted in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The project focuses on the welfare of the child in the midst of rapidly changing family, school, and community environments. ABE is intended to provide an education program that both respects the unique circumstances of working children and youth and empowers them to become agents of their own development. It seeks to expand educational access as an important step toward achieving Universal Primary Education.

Advantages of ABE

LINKAGES WITH FORMAL BASIC EDUCATION. There are strong linkages between formal basic education and ABE. Since its inception, ABE has been considered a part of the educational and training system in Viet Nam (MOET 1999b). This suggests that ABE is a compensatory alternative for, a supplement to, and an extension of the basic education system. It is provided when children cannot attend regular classes because of poverty and other reasons. As a non-formal education system, ABE is supplementary to and does not compete with the formal education system (Vu 1994). Yet it provides an important "bridge" to entry or re-entry into the formal education system as a "second chance" for Viet Nam's neediest children.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT. An important feature of this program is community participation in ABE classes. Primary schools, local authorities, community organizations, local NGOs, and religious groups jointly organize these classes. Communities, even poor ones, make essential financial and in-kind contributions. Community members contribute labor to build shelters, make furniture, guard or repair facilities, co-teach, help with classes, serve on school management committees, and raise funds. They also enrich teaching

and learning activities. Resource persons from the communities are invited to the school to participate in staff improvement and learning development activities, and they are also asked to talk to children during classes.

Challenges

The 1999 MOET report reveals that the quality of teaching in ABE classes remains lower than in regular classes. Furthermore, children living in poor rural areas continue to drop out of classes because they must help their families during harvest time or stay home to take care of younger siblings. Overall, the quality of the Vietnamese education system could be improved if teachers received regular training to improve their teaching skills in guiding such target groups of children. Although teachers are well-trained in educating children in a fixed curriculum, they often have little training or motivation to understand what individual, family, and community conditions affect learning processes, what factors can cause learning problems, and how to correct them while also determining what positive factors can be sustained or even enhanced.

Lessons Learned from the ABE Program

Teachers and community leaders revealed what they consider to be the strengths and weaknesses of current ABE class practices in a report by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET 1999b). They felt the best approach should:

• Be integrated into on-going formal school activities to ensure sustainability
• Not put too much of a burden on teachers, who are already over-worked with both teaching and administrative duties, and
• Involve students as much as possible so they can learn, become more active in community development, and achieve their learning and leadership potential.

Experience with the ABE project has shown that the quality of basic education will increase if teachers, students, and communities are empowered. Teachers are empowered through the acquisition of active learning and teaching skills. Students are empowered through the acquisition of basic knowledge and education materials. Communities are empowered by gaining responsibility for the education process. Empowerment leads to a favorable learning environment, which, in turn leads to increased enrollment, higher attendance rates, and a higher level of learning achievement. Non-formal alternatives to primary schooling have been found to increase the motivation and

participation of teachers, students, and communities alike, thereby raising the overall quality of basic education at the village level.

Conclusion

The Multigrade Teaching and the ABE programs are visible examples of how innovations have grown from small projects into national educational programs. Several lessons have emerged from both programs:

- Strong cooperation must exist between the education sector and the community in order to meet basic learning needs.
- At the district, provincial, and village levels, key persons must be directly involved, including policy makers, teachers, parents, and students.
- Simply investing in primary education is not enough. Investments must be expanded for early childhood development, parental education, and non-formal education as preparation for primary education. These areas serve as preparation for primary education, lead parents to increase their support for children's education, and create continuous learning opportunities.
- Education needs differ in each community. Thus at the outset, needs assessments should be conducted. The community at the local level should be a part of this needs assessment, so that the local conditions are well understood before a project is implemented
- Innovative education solutions, such as distance learning methods, may need to be implemented in order to reach children inaccessible through conventional methods.
- Most importantly, rural basic education must continue to be emphasized.

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Part III
Early Childhood Development and Primary Education

Chapter 5

**Early Childhood Development
for Refugee Children in Indonesia**

Chapter 6

**Creating Schools That Heal
and Teach Peace in the Philippines**

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Chapter 5

Early Childhood Development for Refugee Children in Indonesia

Baihajar Tualeka, Sondang Irene Erisandy, and Livia Iskandar-Dharmawan

An innovative program in Indonesia is providing high-quality early childhood development activities to children who live in refugee camps. It focuses on children from three to six years of age—a group that has been overlooked in many other education and community programs.

The program is a positive example of how concerned community members can start and sustain their own post-conflict recovery and reconstruction effort. It was developed entirely by local organizations, parents, and community volunteers. It is culturally appropriate, it does not depend on funds from international donors, and it uses a minimum of resources.

The program also offers parent education and support, and helps adults overcome stress related to conflict and prevent future conflicts. Participants have found that working together for the benefit of children is a healing process. Adults and children who have been displaced from their homes are able to gain control of one aspect of their chaotic lives while increasing their tolerance for others. Parents and others have learned that the community should respond more quickly and more constructively when any provocation or sign of conflict emerges.

Coping with Conflict

Indonesia is now struggling to manage massive political, economic, and social change. A country of vast size, population, and cultural diversity, it is home to more than 200 million people in over 300 ethnic groups who speak more than 350 indigenous languages and are spread over 13,000 islands. For centuries, Indonesian peoples lived in peace, with different religions and

ethnic groups residing side by side in harmony. In recent years, an uneven distribution of wealth and welfare services has led to widespread discontent, thus creating seeds of conflict. The economic crisis of 1997 hit Indonesia especially hard and worsened many already difficult social conditions.

Differences between ethnic and religious groups have not been reconciled, and the legal system has failed to settle earlier minor conflicts among small community groups. As a result, community conflicts have escalated and some 1,375,700 people have been forced to leave their homes (Norwegian Refugee Council 2002). A large proportion of these internally displaced persons (IDP) live in four localities in the eastern part of the country, including the Maluku Islands that are the site of this case study. Other areas of the country also have experienced conflicts as separatist movements strive for independence from Indonesia.

Since 1999, Ambon, the capital city of the Maluku Islands, has been wracked by sectarian conflict between Muslims and Christians. This conflict is estimated to have caused around 6,000 casualties and 1,500 deaths in the two communities. At the height of conflict, about 300,000 persons were displaced from their homes. Large numbers of families live in camps or other public facilities originally set up to meet their emergency needs. Some 4,500 people are still living in IDP camps around Ambon, five years after their initial displacement. Because of the religious nature of this conflict, the IDPs are segregated into Moslem and Christian camps. The IDP camps became "off-limits" for members of the other faith; for fear of their safety, members of each community did not dare venture into areas predominantly composed of the other group.

The conflicts have destroyed many schools and playgrounds. Formal schools, which previously were composed of mixed religions, have become segregated by religion. Many schools now lack teachers because teachers became internally displaced, too. Educational resources such as textbooks and other learning media for children are scarce.

Through all of these displacements, children have suffered greatly, both physically and psychologically. They often exhibit extreme symptoms of fear and aggression and tend to have poor concentration and low self-esteem. Other social problems among young people are emerging, including juvenile delinquency, drug use, and the appearance of street children.

Even before the conflicts in Ambon, most government education programs used available resources for routine matters, such as building and maintaining infrasturucture, rather than for improving educational curricula. Schools have been concerned mainly with meeting deadlines rather than promoting educational quality, such as ensuring student achievement of core compentencies. The unique conditions and needs of different cultural groups in many areas in Indonesia have gone unrecognized, and they have not been reflected in the national curriculum. Moreover, early childhood education is not compulsory, and has not been considered important by poor families.

Against this backdrop, a local NGO founded and operating in Maluku, LAPPAN (Lembaga Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Anak, the Foundation of Women's and Children's Empowerment), initiated a program to deal with children under six years of age who had been exposed, either as witnesses or direct victims, to communal violence and were living in camps and other public facilities created to accommodate many thousands of IDPs.

The Early Childhood and Parent Education Program seeks to meet the needs of young children, six years of age or under, and their parents. It introduces modern concepts of child development and education, along with practices to build effective life skills, including respect for others, self-confidence, and self-reliance. It offers an alternative to traditional education practices in Indonesia that include rote learning and corporal punishment.

The program is based on research-based concepts that found that early childhood stimulation is important for developing good learning skills, building memory capacity, and for achieving balanced socio-emotional development. The program provides a participatory and systematic approach that involves parents and the community in program design, implementation, and evaluation. It creates a participatory learning process for children by using culturally appropriate learning materials, such as local games and toys, including rubber bands and stones, local songs, fables, and stories in the local language. The program also introduces new materials, such as swings, slides, puzzles, and small libraries. It creates opportunities for children to play and learn, preparing them for formal schooling with a focus on the development of positive attitudes, behavior, cognitive abilities, knowledge, skills, and the creativity necessary for adaptation within their challenging environment.

From Playing in the Gutters to High-Quality Child Development

Children under six years of age who participate in the Early Childhood Program live in four of the many camps or temporary shelters for IDPs in Ambon. These are the THR Camp (75 children), Kapaha Camp (65 children), the camp behind the city (56 children), and Waiheru Camp (43 children).

A program specifically designed for young children was considered to be necessary because they had left their homes and villages to dwell in camps that had inadequate living conditions; many children had been exposed to the terrors of violence. Their basic right to live in safe and secure environments had been denied. Moreover, their development had not been encouraged or facilitated by their parents, who had undergone the same traumatic experiences.[1] Before the development of this program, children under the age of six years living in IDP camps were not involved in any activities or programs. Their daily routines revolved around playing in the gutters and surroundings of these camps. Many of these children were reported to have developed symptoms of psychological stress and suffered from nutritional deficiencies, upper respiratory infections, and diarrhea.

It was clear to members of LAPPAN that the condition of young children in post-conflict Ambon would worsen if they were not provided program assistance. A growing number of people were living in extreme poverty. They had lost their houses and belongings and were unable to meet their daily needs because of the rising cost of living. Large numbers of children were unable to return to school. Child labor was on the rise because children were forced to help their parents make ends meet. The number of children living on the streets was increasing, as was the overall level of juvenile delinquency and violence. Thus programs were needed to mitigate the effects of violent conflicts on young children—and to prevent further violence. Interventions for young children were needed that would give them access to facilities where they could play and practice skills in accordance to their developmental levels. They needed to engage in play with traditional games and toys and receive education in life skills that are essential to building self-confidence, resilience, and self-reliance for the future.

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1. Parents are likely to change their ways of childrearing as a result of traumatic experiences, displacement, poor living conditions in camps, dependency on external aid for basic needs, and developing a strong sense of distrust toward others, especially when long-time neighbors and community members had become the perpetrators of violence toward them and their families.

LAPPAN stepped in to fill the need. LAPPAN is a national NGO focused on working with displaced women and children of the Moslem community, initially in Ambon. Another local NGO with the same concerns works with the Christian community and acts as LAPPAN's counterpart in Christian areas.

During the acute phase of the conflict in Ambon in January 1999, and before the program was initiated in 2000, children lived in cramped conditions. There was little space for children to play, let alone learn basic developmental skills. As one of its first steps, the program facilitated finding and securing places for young children to play and learn in individual and group settings. Games and toys were provided or created by parents and teachers. These are either traditional or modern.[2] Traditional toys are perceived as important for preserving the local culture, and more modern educational toys are also used to enhance children's creativity and development. These games and toys function as educational tools that can be used by young children to practice their fine and gross motor skills as well as to stimulate their intelligence and begin their psychological recovery process after having witnessed and suffered violent conflicts.

Initially, gaining the trust of the people was not easy because many felt exploited by governmental, international, and national organizations that had been given large amounts of money for emergency aid, some of which did not reach the people who deserved it most. The program had to win the peoples' trust since the program relied mainly on their funds and involvement in program management. From the outset, the program avoided the top-down approach, and it was designed to be sustained by the community itself.

The program presented an opportunity to develop a new paradigm for learning, which is not results-focused but rather more in tune with individuals' learning processes, beginning in early childhood. Using this new paradigm has been a learning experience for the community, and even for program staff members, since participatory learning is a new approach that they had not experienced when they were in school. In addition, several topics included in the curriculum had not been taught previously, even in college, such as guidance regarding ways to handle children's and families' psychological problems that result from experiencing conflicts.

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2. Descriptions of traditional toys and games are available upon request, as well as training and curriculum documents and program management and monitoring instruments.

Philosophy, Objectives, and Principles

The program has been guided by the following philosophy:

1. To believe that every child has the capacity to learn and think, the right to be listened to, and to be taught boundaries within a positive, nurturing, and structured environment.
2. To teach about early learning and how it can help maximize children's learning potential.
3. To promote brain development and general growth, by stimulating motor, cognitive, language, and social and emotional development by conducting basic activities for young children and providing culturally appropriate parent education.
4. To learn about the senses and how they affect the development of the brain.
5. To provide enough space for children to play and learn, as well as for peer interaction and parent gatherings.

Early stimulation is important because basic learning skills, memory building, and emotional development are formed during the first months and years of life. Children will develop faster and better if appropriate stimulation is provided during their early childhood years.[3]

Four objectives guide the program:

1. To create a participatory learning process and to develop culturally sensitive learning materials and tools derived from the local culture, and to develop room for self-learning on the part of young children growing up in unstable conditions.
2. To break the cycle of violence so that children can grow and develop without violence as a way of life for problem solving and conflict resolution.
3. To focus on young children as a vulnerable group and to create opportunities for children to play and learn, thereby preparing them for formal schooling through the development of attitudes, behavior,

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3. *In Slow and Steady, Get Me Ready,* June Oberlander (2002) explains that children who receive stimulation during the first three years of life will have an IQ some 20 points higher than those who are not stimulated. Children who do not play or have their senses stimulated—those that are not given enough touching, loving, and nurturing care in their early years—will have brains that are 20 to 30 percent smaller than normal.

cognitive skills, knowledge, resilience, and creativity necessary for adaptability and learning within their environment.

4. To support parents and community members in finding their own way to meet their needs and their children's needs, and to regain a sense of control in their and their children's lives.

Several basic principles underlie the activities of the program:

1. Children are treated with affection and consistency.
2. Activities are conducted at the same time and on time every day, giving children a sense of routine, structure, and normalcy during uncertain times.
3. A participatory approach is used. Parents are involved in the design of the program and their feedback is solicited in order to make changes to meet their needs better. Children are taught to make their own decisions, are asked their wishes, and are treated with respect. For example, if children prefer to play, then they are not required to be involved in lessons.
4. A systemic approach is used that involves community leaders, class tutors and volunteers, and parents.
5. For purposes of needs assessments, evaluations, and monitoring, more qualitative than quantitative measures are used, such as psychological and social indicators.

In IDP camps, activities were designed to provide educational opportunities for children who could not access formal education for economic reasons. Simple facilities were built, including small playgrounds. Educational activities were provided for young children, and tutors were selected and trained to facilitate learning.

Two years after initiating the program in the four camps, LAPPAN has begun to develop and provide programs for young children in other areas of Maluku in Namlea, Buru, and Haruku Islands.

Program Organization

ACTIVITIES FOR CHILDREN. Activities vary according the ages of the children. For children from two to six years of age, program tutors use materials found in their immediate environment, such as seeds and stones for mathematical

operations and games; wood, leaves, sand, and water to learn about the environment; traditional musical instruments to enjoy music and promote musical development; and activities to foster cognitive and language development such as transportation by sea, land, and air, animals, colors, forms, and shapes. Hand puppets are used to tell stories and traditional folklore tales.

For children aged four to six years, various types of role play are used to introduce topics about the environment, gender concepts, personal experiences and social interaction, their families, cultural activities, alphabets, colors, geometrical shapes, fine and gross motor skills, and life skills education.

CLASSROOM SIZE. Classroom size is kept rather small. Each tutor is in charge of 10 to 15 children, to ensure adequate communication and intensive attention as well as to monitor children's progress.

CURRICULUM TOPICS. Curriculum topics include teaching children to be creative and think critically, develop their communication skills, learn acceptable behaviors through positive discipline, develop their fine and gross motor skills, build self-reliance and social responsibility for helping others (pro-social behavior), learn about the local culture and its traditions, develop a positive self-concept and self-confidence, and understand their own environment.

PROGRAM ACTIVITIES. At the outset, a process is undertaken in each community to identify and select tutor/facilitators. They are local people who speak the local language, understand local customs and behaviors, and are trusted by children and parents. Program socialization is conducted to inform the communities about program objectives and content, as well as to invite them to help with managerial activities, monitoring, and generating support for program activities. Members of the community solve problems and discuss options together, thereby creating an opportunity for the community to participate in new types of social activities. Discussions are held with parents to receive their help in developing activities for their children.

Activities are held for the children three times a week on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. Meetings are held with parents twice a month on Fridays. During the meetings with parents, problems are discussed relating to their children's progress and needs, health, family economics, and sanitation in the camps that can affect child development. Parents and children engage

in outdoor activities to learn about nature, and participate in social and community activities, such as visiting sick students, to develop social ties.

Monitoring activities are conducted once a month, and formats were developed to monitor the tutors' work. Supervision for tutors is carried out weekly on Mondays to consider which activities have been effective or ineffective, assess each tutor's achievements, and plan and discuss future lessons.

TUTORS. The tutors are local people who speak the language, understand local customs and ways, and are trusted by the children. Their commitment and dedication are essential since they do not receive a standard teacher's salary—only intrinsic and educational benefits.

Tutors were given numerous types of training. These included opportunities to attend training activities organized by other organizations, such as NGOs, UNICEF, trauma counseling from the Crisis Centre at the Faculty of Psychology at the University of Indonesia, as well as conflict resolution and peace building workshops, play therapy, health unit training, preparation for achieving educational quality, and topics regarding children's rights.

Tutors were also trained in education and child development, including understanding students' characteristics, building positive communication between tutors and students, creating a class environment conducive to learning, managing a classroom, and learning about strategies on how to handle difficult or aggressive students.

Tutors especially were given training workshops related to understanding psychosocial issues regarding children, trauma healing, peace education, conflict management, and reproductive health topics.

REFERRAL SYSTEM. A referral system was needed to help handle children with problems. Medical cases were sent to doctors, UNICEF, and Medecins Sans Frontiers. For psychological cases, program staff communicated by e-mail, letter, or phone with The Pulih Foundation in Jakarta, a non-profit organization that provides services for survivors of violence and humanitarian workers in conflict-affected areas in Indonesia. To date, Pulih's role has been to help strengthen LAPPAN in handling cases of depression, chronic fear, difficulties in communication, and social withdrawal. Recently, one of Pulih's psychologists spent a month in Ambon and assisted children needing extensive psychological

treatment because of their difficulties. However, it is generally agreed that there should be a network of psychologists and social workers in Ambon and the Moluccas to handle cases immediately.

Content

Three major methods of learning have been employed in the program:

1. *ASSOCIATIVE LEARNING METHODS.* Children learn from adults, are able to explore for themselves, and then recount their observations in groups. The children are stimulated to elicit responses.

2. *INDIVIDUAL METHODS.* Solitary play is provided for those children who are unable to interact with others at first or who show signs of withdrawal. They are given extra attention by paracounselors. These are LAPPAN staff members who have not received formal training in counseling and do not engage in professional counseling work but who have received basic training to do initial counseling along with their usual professional roles in other fields. They work directly both with children and with their parents. They help parents observe and consider options for dealing with their children's behavior, thereby helping to assist the children both at home and in class. Children with more severe behavioral disorders are referred to professional counselors of Pulih, who recommend specific approaches for dealing with the problems.

3. *PARTICIPATORY METHODS.* Participation is used to create local curricula that utilize local games, songs, fables, and stories, and to express the children's reality through writing, narratives, reading, and counting.

Simple media are used, such as stimulation through learning activities, games, and role playing. These take various forms: audio (music and radio tape materials); visual (photos, pictures, and printed materials such as cards, comics, fact sheets, newspapers, and magazines); and audio-visual (videotapes, films, and educational charts using alphabets and counting).

Education tools include traditional and local toys, such as playing with rubber bands, stones, and other community materials, in order to preserve local customs. Non-traditional tools include swings, slides, and puzzles.

The following educational materials and program instruments have been developed:

- Learning toys
- Educational charts
- Monitoring forms
- Structured schedules
- Modules and manuals for tutors
- Methods for using children's work to analyze and monitor their progress
- Specific classroom activities
- Small libraries and books
- Guidance for selecting and training tutors.

Evaluation and Monitoring

Program evaluation is conducted to measure children's personality development, skill attainment, abilities, and intelligence. Evaluations are conducted each month to track children's development. The evaluations are conducted with parents to discern the extent of program impact on lessening violence and building resilience. Parents' input with regard to the tutors provides insight on how tutors perform and relate to children, as well as help to assess class management in terms of teaching methods and lesson content.

Occasionally, reflections are conducted with the tutors to provide group support and feedback on program strengths and weaknesses. In these sessions, children with special needs are referred to relevant professionals. Tutors also prepare feedback for parents on children's developmental stages.

Outcomes, Products, and Results

Impact on Children

Teachers, parents, and professionals conducted observational assessments of children's behavior after three months of program services and again after one year of program operation. After three months, changes already were observed in self-care, including dressing and hygiene, self-expression, and the ability to build social relationships with other children. After one year, children improved their cognitive abilities and motor development. They improved peer

relationships, especially by moderating aggressive behaviors and substituting assertive and cooperative behaviors. They also gained skills needed for primary school entry. The changes took place gradually, from children learning from one another and from the praise given for positive behavior. Tutors built upon positive changes by informing parents and sharing responsibility with them for improving their children's behavior. Improvements in child behavior are summarized in table 5.1

TABLE 5.1 Observed Improvements in Child Behavior

Aspects observed	Before intervention	After intervention
Types of play	Competitive	Cooperative
Behavior	Verbally aggressive	Less aggressive
Self-care behavior	Does not shower or brush teeth, has long and dirty fingernails	Pays more attention to self-care
Degree of assertiveness	Less assertive	More assertive in speaking out, voicing opinions

Clearly, a carefully designed and controlled evaluation is needed, but these observations regarding psychosocial status demonstrate that such an evaluation is merited.

Program Replication and Growth

Education programs for young children in IDP camps have been established in additional locales. The program has been implemented in the Namlea area in Buru Island, in collaboration with the Local Health Authority in Buru Island, where LAPPAN fieldworkers are conducting the training of tutor/facilitators. The program also is being replicated in Pelau Village under a local women's group. Similar programs have also been developed recently in other islands around Ambon. The number of children involved in the program in the first four camps has increased. More activities have been added in one of the camps. Playgrounds have been developed for children where they can play and tell stories, thus motivating them to learn. Parents have been given additional opportunities to learn about child development through parent education activities.

The program has been successful in preparing children for school. Around 12 children from five to six years of age have been recommended to enter formal schooling as they have demonstrated their ability to read, write, identify colors, tell time, and understand space concepts.

Results

Quantitative evaluation data are not available as yet but qualitative observational data have shown that significant progress is being made. During the past four years, parental acceptance and recognition of children's need to participate in early childhood education has increased, and the community has enabled more children and their parents to participate in their children's program. Children are exhibiting more positive behaviors and fewer psychological problems than before joining the program. Adults from ethnically diverse populations are learning how to work together and raise more tolerant children. This should help prevent future conflicts. In addition, various new approaches, developed through this program, have been transferred to other communities and programs.

Best Practices

The program was initiated with minimum resources by a local organization, whose members were directly affected by the conflict.

The program is a positive example of how concerned community members can start and sustain their own post-conflict recovery and reconstruction effort. Local organizations usually will remain within their communities in both good and bad times. Thus program efforts tend to be more sustainable if they are developed within the community. LAPPAN organized discussions between parents and other concerned IDPs to identify the location for the playgroups and helped community members select the most important abilities to be taught to their children.

Members of the community have a strong sense of program ownership.

It was important to gain the trust and support of the community for program implementation. The community itself was determined to create alternative education opportunities for young children using simple resources. Thus it was

easier for the locally founded and based national NGO, LAPPAN, to organize and develop the program from the bottom up. It was also important to get the parents involved in the education of their children because many parents still needed to change their views regarding the value of education, especially when they had minimal resources and needed to utilize materials available in their environment. As a result, parents are involved in designing the curriculum, choosing methods, and utilizing media. They are also given information on the social, mental, physical, and psychological development of their children. As most of the parents are still IDPs, the program design needed to take into account their lack of income and substandard living conditions, and not burden them further while they participate in educating their young children.

New concepts and approaches are introduced for more appropriate early childhood learning. These are blended with culturally derived learning methods.

This is a major challenge for the program designers and implementers because for a long time, the national curriculum has been imposed upon local schools. This curriculum has been perceived to be culturally insensitive, and it uses top-down methods. Under this program, new learning materials are being produced locally in accordance with available resources. They are easily duplicated by parents and focus on important themes for child development.

Tutors selected from the community are used.

The tutors live with members of the community, speak the local language, and are IDPs themselves. They teach small groups of 10 to15 children to ensure adequate communication and provide intensive attention in order to monitor each child's progress.

The concepts of pluralism, understanding, and tolerance are introduced, beginning with early childhood and parent education.

Prejudice and hatred against the other religious group had become part of parents' lives during and after the conflict. The conflict had caused the community to become segregated. Thus it was considered important to introduce and integrate concepts of pluralism into simple games and daily life for children to learn to live harmoniously with others before they became set

in prejudiced ways of thinking. Instilling hatred at early ages would only sustain the sectarianism that has threatened to divide society further.

Although LAPPAN focuses its work in Moslem areas and involves mainly Moslem parents and children in their programs, they are told that Christian communities have suffered from the conflicts, as they have. The program emphasizes that it is important to stop the hatred and to learn to acknowledge different religious and cultural traditions and customs. LAPPAN's counterpart organizations in Christian areas apply similar values and approaches. Occasionally, LAPPAN and its Christian counterparts gather their children together and further reinforce values of pluralism. In addition, since tutors gain the respect of teenagers and have close relationships with them, on several occasions they have helped parents prevent their teenagers from becoming soldiers and joining the conflict.

Lessons Learned

The community should be mobilized to become involved in the program.

Program implementation involving grassroots communities face many hindrances. The level of education often is low and parents tend not to give priority to education, especially when their poverty has increased because of displacement. Thus it is important to develop approaches for involving parents and communities in the program, especially to gain their support and that of community leaders in the camp.

The local context is important. It was imperative for program designers to be as facilitative and participatory as possible in order to develop a program that was sensitive to local realities and achieved a high level of community involvement and program ownership. This sense of ownership helped make the program sustainable.

As a part of their healing process, it was also important for community members to be in control of the education of their young children. Other parts of their lives were totally at the mercy of others, such as dependency upon the government for their temporary shelter.

*The concepts of pluralism and positive interaction between
ethnic groups should be introduced, beginning at an early age.*

Indonesia consists of many ethnic and religious groups and it serves as a
useful example for other societies dealing with conflict between ethnic or
religious groups. The program has demonstrated that it is important for
younger children to be taught concepts and behaviors and learn how to
interact socially with different ethnic groups. By beginning in early childhood,
cross-learning and tolerance between groups can be facilitated. This requires
collaboration between the organizations and communities in the different
camps. Occasional facilitated gatherings are held when all are prepared to meet.

The post-conflict impact of segregated communities is likely to decrease
tolerance for the other group. Because segregation happened during and after
the conflict in Ambon, it was important to begin initiatives to bridge the gap
between the communities. It has been found to be easier to build positive
intergroup relationships with younger children and their parents than with older
children. Thus beginning with early childhood and parent education is critically
important to achieving long-term intergroup understanding and interaction.

*Careful selection of community teaching staff helps to ensure
program quality.*

Teachers who come from local communities help to ensure that more
culturally sensitive approaches will be developed. Teachers should have basic
qualifications in early childhood education, which should be improved
through in-service training and monitoring mechanisms. Teachers' ability to be
flexible contributes to program flexibility as they and the program face
emerging needs.

*Mental health practitioners (psychologists and psychiatrists)
should be involved.*

People working with children who have severe trauma and related socio-
emotional needs require guidance, training, and support from skilled mental
health specialists. Basic training provided by psychologists and psychiatrists for
program implementers should enable them to address mild symptoms of
stress. More severe symptoms of stress should be referred to mental health
professionals, where available.

Low-income participants should have access to the program.

The conflict has created increased poverty in the community. If only the rich can afford education, then the majority of the people in the country will be unable to access education services, thus lowering the quality of future human resources. Educational programs for low-income communities, beginning with early childhood and parent education, are of paramount importance for Indonesia.

Sustaining, Expanding, and Replicating the Program

To date, program sustainability has been attained by involving community members in program management; identifying and meeting parents' expectations; building a systematic approach to early childhood and parent education; selecting and training local tutor/facilitators; using active teaching methods that are easily transferable to other communities; and keeping program costs low.

However, the program still faces several challenges. Tutors need to be better selected and empowered, as the quality of the program relies on the qualifications and abilities of the tutors. Many parents want the program to be conducted on a daily basis and to provide more hours of learning activities. Program leaders want to provide better learning and play facilities and obtain more books, toys, and additional traditional stories and toys. Additional learning materials need to be developed that can be easily replicated and used by parents at home. Because traditional practices are now fading away, they need to be sustained.

An enhanced on-site referral system with mental health practitioners, including psychologists and psychiatrists, needs to be developed. In the case of Ambon, this referral system will require substantial work because there is a lack of available mental health professionals on the islands.

Although considerable work has been accomplished to emphasize the local context in the curriculum, more work is needed. Additional training opportunities will be required to prepare the next wave of people who will sustain this program.

This program has depended upon the dedication of volunteer tutor/facilitators and LAPPAN organizers. Over time, increased funding support will be required, especially as the program expands to serve more young children and parents.

This innovative program, which was developed entirely by dedicated local organizations, parents, and community volunteers, merits consideration for national and international support for expansion and replication.

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Chapter 6

Creating Schools That Heal and Teach Peace in the Philippines

*Feny de los Angeles-Bautista**

Education is a powerful tool for reconstruction. Beyond facilitating children's healing and providing a protective shield that can help stabilize war-torn communities, schools can be the nurturing ground for a new generation of peace builders and caring teachers.

An innovative educational program in Central Mindanao showed how this is possible. Even in the midst of war, 144 teachers, principals, and supervisors were able to begin the transformation of all 12 public schools in the area into effective, safe, and responsive learning environments.

The prerequisites for this process of changing schools center on achieving a better understanding of child development, appropriate teaching practices, and more meaningful relationships among teachers and students, their families, and school staff. They also happen to be the same requirements for a school to be effective. Thus the interventions that help schools become effective will also help them change in order to become emotionally responsive programs for healing and teaching peace—even in the midst of war. Moreover, the steps are not expensive and they are replicable.

This educational program is part of a project that helps displaced families rebuild communities harmed by armed conflict in central Mindanao

("Rehabilitation Support to Returnees and Host Families in Central Mindanao.") Implemented by OXFAM-Great Britain (OGB) in partnership with the government's Department of Education (DepEd) and a private non-profit Filipino organization, the Community of Learners Foundation (COLF), this component of the project trains teachers and supervisors to cope with the special needs of children and their communities in times of conflict, and provides support for capacity-building, classrooms, books, equipment and other physical necessities for 12 public schools in two provinces (see table 6.1).

TABLE 6.1 The 12 Schools Involved in the Project

Division/province	District	School	No. of Children	Batch and Group
Maguindanao	Pagalungan	Pagalungan CES	1,458	Batch 1
	Gen.SKPendatun	Bai Malaida CES	1,024	Batch 2
		Galakit ES	265	
	Buluan	Daladagan ES	464	
		Kayaga ES	243	
		Bai Bagongan ES	889	
	Pagagawan	Bulit ES	510	
		Matalam Farm ES	892	
		Tunggol CES	1,082	
Cotabato	Pikit South	Gligli ES	300+	
		Talitay PS	70+	
		Rajamuda ES	421	

Constant War and Sporadic Peace[1]

Displacement has been part of the story of people's lives in the region, where war has made children from Cotabato and Maguindanao provinces both homeless and school-less. Schools are strained and closed for any of these reasons: fighting is going on in the village where the school is located; school buildings

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1. The phrase is from an unpublished letter circulated by e-mail by Bert Layson, OMI (Oblates of Mary Immaculate) Pikit, Cotabato, 23 February 2003.

serve as evacuation centers for displaced families; schools are used as military barracks; rebels attack schools, taking children and teachers as hostages.

To understand the challenges facing the program, consider some stark statistics. Only seven of every 10 Filipino children complete the six-year elementary program. Three-fourths of those who drop out of school belong to poor families, and most of them are boys. Two out of five Filipino children who are not in school live in Mindanao (World Bank 2000). Most (88 percent) school children are in the public school system.

These facts on Philippine education help establish some important points. First, Filipinos value education, so most children are sent to school; however, many are unable to graduate, mainly because of poverty. Second, many Filipinos cannot afford private education—only public education.[2] Thus the greatest burden is on public schools, further straining a system already weakened by years of neglect and corruption. Third, the government is not investing enough resources in public education. Only about two-thirds of students in the country as a whole attend public high schools—and only about half as many attend in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) (Rasul 2003).

Life as a student ends at age 11 or 12 for thousands of Filipino children, at precisely the time when the brain undergoes a growth spurt in the frontal lobes and rapidly changing brain cells are extremely receptive to stimulation (Giedd, Blumenthal, and Jeffries 1999). But for many Filipino children, that stimulation will take place in farms, factories, mines, ports, homes, brothels, and streets— not in schools. If they are boys living in Mindanao, their added options are to join the armed struggle of secessionist and insurgency groups or to join gangs or syndicates that exploit and initiate them into the world of crime. For girls, the added option is housekeeping as a prelude to marriage, typically at age 14 (OGB 2003). This leads to the fourth point: that Mindanao is extremely disadvantaged compared to the rest of the country. Unless drastic measures are taken, the cycle of poverty in Mindanao is likely to continue for 10 or 20 years hence, when all those school dropouts become parents and give birth to more children of poverty and war.

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2. Even so, public education can be costly. Although national law provides for "free public education," families must bear these recurrent costs; food, uniforms, supplies, transportation, contributions. The expenses for each child in public school comprise 2 percent of a family's total household expenses (World Bank 2000).

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Many poor families in Mindanao live in remote rural villages, where most households lack electricity and piped water (National Statistics Office 1991). Their children go to schools that are similarly lacking in furniture, equipment, and books. These are the "hardship posts" where teacher turnover rates are usually high, pre-empting the kind of stability and continuity needed to build positive relationships with families—which, in turn, are critical to children's success in school and to the success of schools. In most cases, newly hired, inexperienced teachers are appointed to these posts. Overburdened supervisors with limited transportation funds seldom visit these schools. The supervisors' academic background, along with outdated educational management systems that equate supervision with inspection, also do not foster instructional leadership and supportive approaches to supervision.

In addition to poverty, these families and schools must contend with armed conflict. Most of the families are farmers, so when there is war, they leave behind not only their homes but their livelihood, as well. Peace and stable livelihood are just as elusive for them as quality education. They are forced to live as refugees in their own land. They are barely able to complete the task of rebuilding their homes and replanting their farms when the sounds of war signal that it is time to leave again.

Strained Schools, Disrupted Education

Mindanao is the second largest island in the Philippine archipelago. Located at the southern part of the country, it is very well endowed with natural resources but is home to the country's poorest families and most marginalized communities. The length, complexity, and intensity of conflict in Mindanao is unparalleled in Philippine history. It is impossible to narrow it down to one group of dissenters versus the government; nor should it be oversimplified to a war between Muslims and Christians. Politics, economics, religion, and culture are inextricably linked to comprise the structural roots of conflict in the island.[3]

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3. Historian Samuel Tan (2003) traces the conflicts to three social movements. The first of these is the *Lumad* struggle, an indigenous tribal community's struggle to recover rights to their ancestral domain. The second is the 400-year-old *Bangsamoro* struggle, an ethnic-led movement to recover the political, economic, social power and resources lost to former colonizers—Spain, the United States, and Japan—and their Filipino heirs: that is, the national political leadership. The third is the armed struggle led by the National Democratic Front (NDF), established by the Communist Party of the Philippines, and its military arm, the New People's Army (NPA), which seeks to dismantle the capitalist system that controls the resources and dominates the Filipino masses, including Muslims and *Lumads*.

Against this backdrop, armed conflict remains a clear and present danger. On February 11, 2003, the Muslim feast of Eid'l Adha (Day of Sacrifice), just a day before the scheduled ceasefire negotiations between the MILF[4] and the government, the sound of gunfire announced the cancellation of those "peace talks." The battleground was Pikit, Cotabato, where two of the twelve schools in this program are located: Gligli Elementary School and Rajah Muda Elementary School. Both schools had to close temporarily, while the other schools in the area admitted their students and provided shelter for their families.

Such interruptions and displacements have become part of life in the area. It should come as no surprise that only three out of ten first grade students in North Cotabato and Maguindanao complete the six-year elementary school program (Department of Education 2000).

The Project

History and Coverage: Beyond an Emergency Response

This program evolved from a pilot project[5] that was initiated by OXFAM-Great Britain (OGB) and the Department of Education in ARMM Mindanao, as part of OGB's emergency response efforts.[6]

In April 2000, the launching of the government's "all-out war" policy against the MILF forced families from Pikit, Cotabato to seek refuge in the nearby town of Pagalungan, Maguindanao province. They were sheltered at the Central Elementary School. In May, OGB started relief operations, providing food, health care, and shelter. After a few months, the school could not admit many of the refugee children, since classes had swelled from 70 to 100 children in each class. In July 2001, OGB initiated discussions with the DepEd to establish "emergency classes" for the refugee children.[7] OGB supported these emergency classes, with a focus on literacy and disaster-preparedness. OGB

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4.   Moro Islamic Liberation Front, the largest most organized among the secessionist groups.
5.   "Educational Program in Conflict Areas in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM)."
6.   OXFAM-GB has been implementing and supporting projects in the provinces of Maguindanao and Cotabato to rehabilitate families and communities affected by conflict and to assist in the restoration of basic social services. The educational program is supported by OXFAM within the context of its programs for livelihood, public health, disaster preparedness, and peace building.
7.   OGB coordinated with the DepEd Regional Office and the District Office, which decided that these would be considered "non-formal classes."

built four new classrooms, paid for the salaries of eight new teachers, and covered the honoraria for supervising teachers from the Pagalungan Central School. The new classes opened in January 2001 with an initial enrollment of 320 children—who by then had been out of school for six months. In March 2001, OGB sought the help of COLF for the training of teacher-aides[8] responsible for these emergency classes.

Philosophy: The School as a Support System

The program is anchored on a shared commitment to fulfill and promote the rights of children, specifically their rights to education and to special protection in situations of armed conflict. The conceptual framework is based on a framework for child development and learning[9] that emphasizes that as duty bearers, the families, communities, and schools must work to make these rights a reality for children. The school, an integral part of the support system for children's learning and development, has an important role to fulfill in situations of crisis. This goes beyond the obvious one of ensuring a conducive learning environment with competent teachers. Public mental health and other family support services are inadequate or absent, with few NGOs to fill in the gaps. This leaves only the schools as a support system for these children.

The premise is that if schools receive sufficient support and resources, they can be transformed into healing environments for children and families. They can serve as focal points for community reconstruction efforts. If teachers are equipped to implement effective educational programs that are emotionally, socially, and culturally responsive, they will be in a position to provide children with a stabilizing and healing environment. Studies have shown that caring and sensitive teachers who establish deep and meaningful relationships with their students can make a real difference in the life of a child growing in difficult conditions. These relationships give children a sense of security and can mitigate the negative effects of risk factors. Supporting children so they

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8. The new recruits were designated as "teacher-aides" because they did not yet have the necessary qualifications for public school teachers, who must now earn their certification by passing the National Examination for Licensing of Teachers.
9. The ecological framework was developed by Urie Bronfenbrenner, a noted international child development specialist. In addition, COLF's educational programming is anchored in the child rights framework of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. It has been adapted based on a combination of the following theoretical frameworks and models: Beryl Levinger's active learning capacity model, Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, the developmental-interaction approach of Bank Street College, and constructivist theories of education.

can express and understand their feelings and engaging them in problem solving helps them cope and heal their wounds from these life experiences.

Providing psychosocial support for children suffering from psychosocial stress or traumas need not be left only to mental health professionals. Special skills are clearly required, but there are many similarities in practices and consistencies in principles between psychosocial therapy and truly effective teaching-learning practices within socially and emotionally responsive educational programs.

One area of common ground is the concept of the therapeutic classroom. In fact, the concept of a therapeutic classroom[10] has been operationalized. In a crisis situation, teachers who create such classrooms provide psychosocial support that makes children feel safe and comfortable. Familiar school routines help to give them a sense of security. The predictability of the sequence of class activities and the reliability of familiar people (teachers and classmates) help to restore their sense of being in control, at least for a part of their waking hours. Effective teachers can facilitate group processes that create a child-to-child support system. They can also relate to and support individual children. So good teachers in effective classrooms can effectively mitigate the negative impact of armed conflict on the children. With the addition of stable home-school partnerships that enable teachers and parents to work together, children's emerging needs can be addressed in a timely manner. Moreover, as parents get involved in schools, they also learn to collaborate within groups that can be better organized for concerted action. These community organizing processes expand the potential of schools as focal points for family support and catalysts for community reconstruction.

Displaced families can benefit from the structure that schools can provide in two important ways: as an opportunity to participate in meaningful processes that will help them heal; and as a resource for helping them to organize themselves and take concrete steps toward rebuilding their lives. This is not to

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10. See Judy Ferber's chapter, "Therapeutic Teacher, Therapeutic Classroom," in *Unsmiling Faces How Preschools Heal* (1996). The Director of COLF read it as a reference for COLF's inclusive education programs. These concepts and the underlying theoretical principles, along with COLF's experiences—having worked with children and families traumatized by the eruption of Mount Pinatubo, having helped children and adolescents suffering from various forms of trauma because of sexual abuse or having witnessed violent acts—informed the philosophy and principles of this educational program as it was being developed in March 2001.

imply that teachers and principals must assume all these additional tasks. But they are credible—and thus are well-positioned to mobilize others, who in turn can support families, such as the DepEd's higher management levels, local government officials, and the private sector. The result is a virtuous cycle. As families organize themselves and take action, it is ultimately the school that also benefits from the support they generate.

But first, schools need to be supported and empowered to assume this role. Strategic, sustained investments are needed to transform them into healing learning environments for children and stabilizing resources for families and communities. Facilitating and enabling human and social development are among the most important aims of education. These goals are interactive and synergistic; people who achieve their full potential can contribute more meaningfully to social development. These assumptions are valid even in emergency situations.

Goals

The goals of the program are to:

- Encourage children to attend school regularly so that they can benefit from learning experiences within a supportive learning environment
- Improve learning outcomes for children in selected schools in areas affected by armed conflict or serve as evacuation sites for displaced children and families.

The program aims to:

- Support teachers and school leaders and enable them to transform the schools into more responsive, supportive, and truly learner-centered environments
- Provide resources for the schools that transform them into clean, safe, healthy, welcoming spaces that are developmentally appropriate learning environments for children and teachers
- Enhance the capacity of schools and communities to take prompt, coordinated actions during emergency situations, with consideration for children's well-being
- Organize partnership-building activities that will enhance family and school relationships, encourage parent involvement in their children's education, and establish and strengthen community-school relationships.

Partnerships are crucial for the success of this project and there was a careful investment made in these activities. Beyond those involving the primary actors—children, parents, and teachers—the essential partnerships involved people and community institutions that are from the government or public sector and two organizations that are part of civil society or the nongovernment sector.

Organization

In six municipalities, a partnership was established involving OXFAM-Great Britain, the DepEd, COLF, and each of the 12 schools and communities to implement an expanded educational component within OGB's rehabilitation program (table 6.1). In addition to the pilot school, Pagalungan School, OGB and partners worked with 11 more schools in four other municipalities: eight schools in the province of Maguindanao, and two in North Cotabato. OGB constructed or repaired buildings and provided classroom furniture for the second batch of eleven schools as a part of the educational component. They also explored the provision of livelihood support to families.

The design involved a two-stage expansion strategy for bringing all the schools on board within 12 months, working with them in three groups (see timeline, appendix A). The pace ensures meaningful interaction among all the school staff, COLF, and OGB.

To transform schools into more responsive learner-centered environments, the program invested mainly in building capacity and partnerships. This was COLF's main task, in collaboration with the OGB's Education Program officer and two Cotabato-based staff members. OGB was responsible for all infrastructure and procurement requirements of the education component (table 6.2).

TABLE 6.2 Physical Improvements in 11 Schools		
Repaired and rehabilitated	Constructed	Provided
43 classrooms	9 classrooms	2,527 student desks/chairs
8 water wells	4 water wells	63 blackboards
9 latrines	10 latrines	Books and reference materials

The program also addressed health and nutrition—viewed as essential to achieving the goals of the education component. Interventions that improve the health and nutritional status of children also support their regular attendance in schools, enabling them to participate as active learners. Thus another OGB unit worked on complementary health and livelihood services. These services were supported by OGB within the rehabilitation program.

In the period between the workshops and monitoring visits, advisory services and other supportive responses were provided to the Division office and school staff from a distance, with OGB-Cotabato staff as conduit. But much of the work really had to be done daily and directly with the children and their families. These took place mainly in the schools, where 144 teachers, teacher aides, principals, and supervisors worked together on the most demanding aspects of the program. They were the frontliners—teaching and caring for children from day to day in their classrooms and schools.

Program Content

The program was designed for two distinct groups of learners: the children from grades 1 to 6 attending the 12 schools; and the teachers, principals, and supervisors. Teachers were responsible for the first group. COLF was responsible for the second group and for enriching the first. Along with content, the processes must be emphasized, because much of the learning relies on the nature and quality of processes introduced.

CONTENT FOR THE CHILDREN. Like all public schools, these 12 schools were expected to implement the national elementary school curriculum. The program introduced two very important additions to the regular curriculum. The children learned about their emotional lives and their social realities. They also learned about peace and how to build it in their daily lives.

During the workshops, teachers learned about classroom activities and group processes, and the need to integrate these into their curriculum. These activities were designed to address two sets of objectives, one personal, the other social. First was self-expression, self-awareness, and understanding, and cognitive skills for problem-solving. Second were social skills and knowledge to help children learn to value peacemaking, such as cooperation, tolerance, and problem-solving.

Self-expression has therapeutic value if it is effectively processed, using different modes and media with which children are comfortable.[11] Children need accurate and helpful information, as well as reflective processes that prepare them for emergencies; help them sort out thoughts and feelings; and support understanding of their experiences and appreciation for the ways they cope and families take care of one another. This leads to greater self-awareness that helps to build positive self-esteem—a protective factor that helps children become resilient individuals.

Meaningful and active group life is the best context for peace education because it provides children with many opportunities to learn and apply social skills (taking turns, tolerance, helpfulness, kindness, empathy), make friends, take the lead as well as support others, and resolve conflicts. These are the foundations of peace education.

CONTENT FOR ADULTS. Teachers were introduced to developmentally appropriate and culturally relevant and sensitive content, teaching strategies, and low-cost, teacher-made learning materials using available supplies, indigenous materials, or recycled objects. Processes and routines to promote more meaningful teacher-child and child-to-child interaction were presented to influence classroom and school management practice. The modules for teacher training always included topics and activities designed to focus on the child and on the teacher's relationships with the children. There was a special focus on child development, with emphasis on emotional and social development, and how children learn and understand concepts that relate to building peace.

Evaluation and Monitoring

An evaluation of the pilot project was conducted in July 2001. The results informed the planning process for the current program. A formal evaluation of the current program was postponed (from April to July) because fighting between the military and the MILF in Pikit, Cotabato flared up in February 2003 and has continued since then.

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11. When individual children are encouraged to express their feelings and talk about their fears or difficulties, they are relieved. Such self-expression also opens up avenues for communicating with supportive adults, who can provide helpful information or lead them to others who can.

Nonetheless, OGB's Cotabato-based staff and the DepEd are able to monitor the program and communicate regularly with OGB in Manila and COLF. OGB, COLF, and DepEd division officials conducted monitoring visits from December 2001 up to February 2003. They wrote reports on their observations, salient issues were discussed during workshops, or separate meetings were convened. Proponents have shared monitoring feedback, so emerging issues have been promptly addressed.

The information and trends from these new activities were compared against the needs assessment survey conducted at the beginning of the program. Feedback from observations—based on inspection of physical changes, observation of classroom and school activities, and the behavior of the children and the teachers, as well as spontaneous feedback from children, teachers, teacher aides, parents, and supervisors—was generally positive.

Outcomes, Products, and Results

The program supported 12 schools serving a total of 8,053 schoolchildren in grades 1 to 6 for the school year 2002–03. Attendance increased notably in all schools.[12] From November 2001 to February 2003, seven workshops covering 144 teachers and supervisors and three workshops on school leadership for principals and supervisors were held, and COLF made five consultation/advisory visits. Some 90 percent of workshop participants rated the content "very useful" for their work, 85 percent considered the activities and materials "excellent and highly relevant," and 90 percent rated the COLF trainers as highly effective. Changes in teaching practices were observed in 75 percent to 90 percent of all teachers, according to assessments by supervisors, OGB, and COLF.

IMPACT ON CHILDREN.[13] There has been a marked increase in children's attendance and visibly higher levels of interest and participation in class and

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12. For example, in Pagalungan Central School, enrollment increased from 350 children in January to 455 children by the end of April, to 500 children in July. DepEd officials attributed the first increase to the improvement in the classes because the teachers applied what they learned from the first workshop: storytelling, group activities, games, songs, and materials. The increase in July was also attributed to the recruitment in June of an *ustadz or madrasah* (teacher of Islam and Arabic, so the children can learn to read the Koran).
13. These are based on: assessment surveys on families and schools conducted by OGB and DepEd; monitoring reports by the OGB-Cotabato staff; notes by COLF staff on workshops and consultations; reports from DepEd supervisors; notes from interviews with stakeholders; and notes on unsolicited voluntary feedback in the course of the program activities.

in school activities. Principals note that, "they are enjoying their class activities and they are excited to go to school because of their new classrooms and chairs." Teachers in the primary grades (grades 1-3) reported improvements in their students' focus and attention to tasks. Teachers in grades 4-6 noted a marked improvement in teamwork and receptiveness to learning. Teachers in Pagalungan, the pilot school, report academic improvements, particularly in math and language. The children's grades and exam scores validated these improvements, the Division office noted.[14] The crisis of February 2003 underscored the progress made. The children's schooling was interrupted only briefly, despite their displacement. Most of the children completed the final month of the school year. This occurred because students were more readily admitted to the other schools; one of two schools directly affected, Gligli School, re-opened within two weeks; and families were determined to continue their children's schooling, despite the distance of Gligli School from their temporary homes.

IMPACT ON TEACHERS. These have been the observable changes in the attitudes and practices of many teachers. They now interact more with children, and are more friendly and supportive; apply new strategies in teaching math and language, and organize small-group activities, including those for psychosocial support; use the learning materials and books, preparing more learning materials with the help of parents and students;[15] communicate more with parents; and meet regularly to plan lessons, prepare materials, share, and consult. There has been a marked change in the relationships among teachers, which is now characterized by support and teamwork. For example, teachers in Pagalungan work very well with the new teachers and ask them for help with the activities they learned during workshops.[16]

Principals noted that "teachers are much more motivated and they like to come to school. They are inspired and feel the importance that is being given to teachers and education." Teachers in Pagalungan School demonstrate new skills in curriculum development, now using knowledge of child development

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14. In the public school system, a division-wide exam is administered for each grade level at the end of the school year. It was also used as a qualifying exam for the children in the pilot school (Pagalungan).
15. According to district supervisors, some of them have done this on a weekly basis since the training began.
16. One of the former "teacher aides" is even considered as the leader among the grade 4 teachers because she is deemed most competent. Her group developed ("invented") new materials, games, and songs for their classes by building on the principles of the games and materials they learned about in workshops.

to consider children's abilities and context in translating the national DepEd curriculum into daily lesson plans. OGB attributes this and many other dramatic changes in Pagalungan School to the fact that as the pilot project site, the school had a head start, completing more workshops and benefiting from improved supervision for a year and a half before the other 10 schools.

IMPACT ON SCHOOL LEADERS (PRINCIPALS, DISTRICT AND DIVISION SUPERVISORS). Teachers have also benefited as school leaders have revised their attitudes and practices about supervision: away from inspection and toward support and instructional leadership. School leaders have also promoted collegial working relationships among teachers. The principals and district supervisors have organized regular meetings and workshops so teachers can learn and work together; they have also promoted teamwork in lesson planning. One district supervisor even conducted workshops despite the press of other competing tasks and the threat of violence. Supervisors who were actively involved in the program are much more visible in the schools, regularly observing classes and consulting with principals and teachers. This supportive stance comes with a shift to more child-sensitive approaches to enforcing policies and responses in times of crisis. The prompt response of division supervisors during the February 2003 crisis allowed more children to resume schooling. They acknowledge the need to develop an efficient student tracking system and will seek help for designing and implementing it. They reviewed the 10-absences rule—which states that children who exceed ten absences a year should be dropped from the class roster—and decided to waive it for displaced children, those without money for transportation, or those engaged in seasonal farm work.

IMPACT ON FAMILIES AND COMMUNITIES. OGB invested directly in partnership-building activities to encourage families to participate actively in the educational program. These partnerships are the foundations of broader community participation. Parent-Teacher-Community Associations (PTCAs) are the primary mechanisms for parent participation within the public school system.[17] Parents were involved as classroom volunteers and helped with school improvement efforts. Parents and school leaders worked together to

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17. PCTAs, however, are often relegated to fundraising roles instead of activities that promote their children's learning, as well as parents. This discourages participation of parents, who cannot rely on a network of potential donors since they are poor. It emphasizes their poverty and can be intimidating. In anticipation of this, the training program devoted several workshop sessions to sharing more appropriate strategies for working with parents in supportive ways, and for motivating them to participate actively in schools.

solicit community support. They also served as effective links to local village leaders, which expanded community support for the schools. The village local councils allocated funds for the schools' improvement efforts.

It is too early to tell whether this program will generate the interest of national policymakers and influence policies and systems. It is modest and small; there are no illusions of changing policies and national strategies. The proponents believe that demonstrating success must first benefit the children and schools. The effort was not meant to be a pilot project that would have all the ingredients for success and then be replicated. Rather it was a concrete response in a time of war and emergency that was successful in demonstrating how education can be used for rebuilding lives.

Best Practices

To take root, school reform and changes in attitudes and behaviors require much more time and sustained support. But in situations of crisis, there is added pressure to achieve at least some measure of success and show positive effects within a short time in order to generate interest and motivate stakeholders' participation. The program was designed and executed with this in mind.

Support emergency classes for internally displaced persons as an entry point.

This was a transition mechanism for transforming the host school into a more responsive evacuation site for displaced children. The emergency classes were crucial for demonstrating effective practices for teachers in the host school and the other participating schools.

Introduce and support "doable, guaranteed to succeed" activities within the program that immediately respond to the felt-needs of participants.

OGB's initial efforts to mobilize emergency classes involved concrete steps all within a few months: reaching agreements with the DepEd, building classrooms, recruiting teachers, opening classes, and seeking training support. This raised the spirits of children and parents, giving them hope that at least there were a few "good" things happening. COLF's training involved "easy to learn and use"

activities and classroom management strategies. It was complemented by OGB's full support for effective training so that all the necessary supplies and materials needed were supplied. Whatever was promoted was backed with support to make it work.

Start from where people are, meet them on their turf, and build on what they know and on their realities.

Search for useful resources in schools and communities, maximize them, and always amplify their value to the program. In working with government or NGOs on training programs, COLF always builds on whatever is familiar to the teachers, school heads, and supervisors. Referencing new ideas with their own practices helps stimulate the emotions that pre-dispose learners to be open, flexible enough to explore, and then accommodating to "new" practices or concepts.

Stay attuned to the learners' and stakeholders' own agenda and needs. Be flexible and respond to these before promoting your own agenda.

The 2002-03 school year was the first year of the DepEd's implementation of a "new curriculum." Yet there were neither additional resources nor sufficient time to conduct teacher training in time for the first year of implementation. The anxiety among teachers and supervisors was palpable. In addition to coping with the crisis, teachers and school leaders had to contend with a "new" curriculum. COLF stayed attuned to this, and from the outset, anticipated the possibility that it would have to be addressed in the training program.

Use resources as leverage to gain more protective measures for children and to increase support for teachers and schools.

OGB earned the goodwill and respect of the families and school staff because they responded promptly to emerging needs. Schools were provided with resources. Although it might appear that the people became too dependent on OGB for support, this was not really the case. OGB successfully leveraged their funding support to gain concessions that would benefit children. For example, to receive funding for school infrastructure, Pagalungan School had to agree that it would always be open to displaced families and that it would make it easy for children to resume their schooling. For other schools, OGB funding served as leverage for raising counterpart funding from the municipal and village local government, and the local school board.

Promote participatory planning and design.

The program was designed to include many people, especially the "locals" who are there from day to day. The program created multiple layers of people working with one another, ranging from government officials to local citizens, to encourage participation and support capacity-building. The focus was on strengthening group life as a requirement for creating a "community of learning and practice." As people participated in specific activities, they learned new skills of collaboration, conflict avoidance, and organizing for concerted community action.

Provide effective and responsive training for teachers and school administrators.

The program prioritized training, which was maximized to prepare school personnel to cope with the ongoing crisis—on both a professional and personal level. The training met many needs, including overcoming the stresses of crisis and learning new approaches. The training covered:

• Applying learner-centered approaches through developmentally appropriate curriculum and teaching practices involving active and experiential learning
• Implementing the concept of a "therapeutic classroom" providing emotional, social, and cultural support for children in a stabilizing and healing environment. These skills include how to develop social knowledge and skills in cooperation, tolerance, and problem solving.
• Fostering stable home-school partnerships to enable teachers and parents to work together.

Break out of the mold. Integrate knowledge, and apply a variety of principles, frameworks, and models from other disciplines to develop the best possible capacity-building program.

COLF also applied basic principles of learning and teaching that were originally developed in terms of children's learning, such as Bruner's "scaffolding,"[18] but that are relevant to adults. They did not limit themselves to

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18. Jerome Bruner and colleagues built on Lev Vygotsky's concept of the "zone of proximal or potential development" (ZPD), which is the difference between a child's actual level of development as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development that is determined through problem solving with adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. Bruner outlines a technique called "scaffolding" to provide children with social support in their ZPD. It involves adjusting adult guidance within a teaching session to fit the child's current ability levels and learning styles.

basic "mainstream" education; they adopted many concepts and strategies from inclusive education, an area in which COLF specialized. They applied principles from other disciplines such as linguistics ("framing and reframing" concepts) and developmental communications (social marketing and social mobilization).

Insure that every teacher training activity is useful, relevant, and immediately applicable to the classroom or school.

The choice of content must be precise, achieving a balance between the novel and familiar, theory and practice, principles and applications. It takes more than a wide repertoire of energizers, activities, or fancy hand-outs and multimedia presentations to design good teacher training programs.

Facilitate individual and group change through coherent, meaningful learning experiences that help participants imagine and experience the program's vision.

The content and processes must be complementary and never contradictory. Teachers learned about principles of active learning and experiential approaches by engaging in workshops designed to be working models of those principles—not through boring text-book scripted monologues.

Lessons Learned

These lessons learned from the program's experiences may be useful in a variety of social, cultural, and political contexts.

A crisis can be transformed into an opportunity for positive and meaningful change by strategically investing in complementary interventions that respond to the needs of children and families.

Ironically, it was a crisis that made it possible for these lasting investments to be made, resulting in positive outcomes. If not for an emergency, the convergence of partners in these municipalities at this time would not have been necessary. The rhythm and pace of work would have been different; the teachers and supervisors would have been less receptive to "intrusion." But overwhelmed teachers sought support and were open to exploring alternative ideas and learning about better practices.

Much more progress would have been achieved if the program had included a strong focus on early childhood care and education at the outset.

The crisis was a perfect entry point for introducing families to the importance of early childhood care and development (ECCD), since it is unlikely that they had access to such services before displacement. Direct attention to young children would have decreased illness and malnutrition. ECCD programs have been proven to be effective in facilitating more sustainable forms of parent and community involvement.

Prompt and appropriate responses can be provided by developing active partnerships with all involved.

Past conflicts, coupled with the stress of prolonged stays in evacuation camps, boredom, and uncertainty, aggravated stress and furthered the potential for continued conflict. Partnership-building blunted these conflicts and forged common ground to find solutions to common problems. Here an important element was the partnership between the DepEd, at various levels of the bureaucracy, OGB, and COLF—both nongovernmental organizations, but with different mandates. The lessons learned from their experiences in partnership-building can also work effectively to help communities in their struggle against injustice, exclusion, violence and poverty.

Rebuilding communities consists of much more than building homes, schools, wells and latrines, or livelihoods. Education that is appropriate and relevant in its goals, content, and processes is the most strategic investment in crisis situations geared toward reconstruction.

When education is made an integral part of rehabilitation efforts, the value of material investments are increased because the capacity of people to maximize these resources is enhanced. Education helps restore people's self-confidence, sense of some personal control, ability to trust in people, and their sense of hope. This is the first step to rekindling the human spirit and persistence required in any reconstruction process. Education programs that emphasize interaction and group life help to build stronger communities that can effectively engage in positive collective action.

Conclusion

In some ways, teacher training and school reform in an emergency situation would seem incongruous. One would assume that these interventions are suitable only to more stable times when teachers can focus on innovations in teaching. The situation in central Mindanao was delicate and complicated and there was a sense of urgency. Yet a substantive investment in capacity-building with complementary interventions such as health and livelihood support would yield promising "high returns." Although OGB's initial request for COLF's help was specific and short term, they applied COLF's suggestions to include capacity-building within rehabilitation. The difference it has made will be felt by these 12 schools, and by the children and families, for many more years.

There are many more schools affected by the war. There are also those that may not be damaged by bullets or occupied by refugees but that suffer from neglect and isolation. In the wake of renewed efforts to work for peace and rebuild the lives of Mindanao's peoples, it would be in their best interests to draw from and build on these experiences. The question is whether the political will to build on successful initiatives is there. If it is, then it would begin a change process for schools so that one day, not just three, but nine—even ten—out of every ten children in Maguindanao and Cotabato will finally complete their schooling.

The children, parents, teachers, school leaders and their partners have shown that when the important role of schools within communities is acknowledged and they are provided with the essential support and resources, they can transform themselves into effective learning environments. Beyond that, these schools offer children and adults safe and comforting spaces for healing and restoring their trust and faith. In the process, they learn about peace in concrete terms and teach peace in meaningful ways. All these will enable them to keep their hopes alive—and possibly even thrive—in the face of the adversity of armed conflict, poverty, injustice, and inequality.

APPENDIX A. Project Timeline

Date		Groups involved
2000		
July–December	**Pilot project.** Consultations on "emergency classes;" construction of new school building with 4 classrooms; provision of classroom furniture and supplies for the children; payment of salaries of the new teacher-aides for the emergency classes; honoraria for the supervising teachers from the Pagalungan Central School	Oxfam-GB, in consultation with DepEd Regional Office, ARMM District Office
2001		
January	**"Emergency classes" opened** with 320 children. Based on pre-test of children, formed 4 multi-age groups to "provide basic literacy and numeracy" that were designated as non-formal classes; applied DepEd's non-formal literacy curriculum for 6-year olds	DepEd District Office, Pagagawan, Maguindanao & Pagalungan Central School
January	**Parents organized to work as volunteers** in non-formal classes; one parent assisted each class	OGB and Pagalungan principal
March	**OGB sought assistance from COLF to provide teacher training** for teachers of emergency classes and to conduct evaluation of the pilot project	OGB educational consultant/COLF Director
April	**Workshop on "Teaching & Learning with Children of War"** led by two COLF teachers for all the teachers of Pagalungan Central School, including regular teachers and teacher-aides and the principal	COLF, OGB-Mindanao based staff
June–July	**Preparation for evaluation. Needs assessment survey and participatory workshops conducted** with children, parents, teachers, principals, and supervisors. Consultations and meetings conducted as part of evaluation.	COLF OGB-Mindanao staff & new Educ program officer

APPENDIX A. Project Timeline (continued)		
Date		Groups involved
2001		
August–September	**Planning** for program concept, design and project proposal. Needs were identified and assessed, rehab areas and schools selected, and preparations for training conducted.	OGB, COLF, DepEd division, district offices, school heads of potential schools, local community leaders
October	**Consultation visit** - Pagalungan	COLF, OGB
November	**Finalized selection of 11 schools.** Workshop for Batch 1: Pagalungan Central School, Module 1: Innovative Approaches to Teaching and Learning for Batch 2 Schools Workshop for Batch 1 (Pagalungan Central School) and Module 1 (Innovative Approaches to Teaching and Learning) conducted for Batch 2 schools	OGB, DepEd COLF, DepEd, OGB Mindanao, Pagalungan teachers, principals
2002		
December 2001–January 2002	**Teachers' lesson planning workshops** convened by Division office to complete sample lesson plans for all grade levels; negotiations to seek support for workshops and reproduction of plans Consultation/Advisement visit	DepEd Division COLF–OGB and UNICEF support COLF
February	**Module 2: Teaching and Learning with Children of War Workshop conducted** for teachers, school head, supervisors in Pagalungan (Batch 1), Consultation with Batch 2 schools	COLF, OGB staff, DepEd
April	**Workshop** for Batch 2 (10 schools), Group 1 Module 1: Teaching and Learning with Children of War, Workshop for Batch 2, Group 1 (5 out of 10 schools) Consultation/Advisement—Pagalungan + DepEd Division	COLF, OGB, DepEd, 10 schools, COLF

APPENDIX A. Project Timeline (continued)

Date		Groups involved
2002		
May—August	**Construction and repair** of classrooms, equipment, latrines, wells in 10 schools (Batch 2); School-based **follow-up workshops** (Batch 1 and 2)	OGB, DepEd (Division, District), Parents teachers, principals in 10 schools
June	**Module 3, Workshop** conducted for Batch 1 (Pagalungan Central School)	COLF, OGB staff, DepEd
August	Module 2: Teaching and Learning with Children of War (Workshop conducted for Batch 2, Group 1). Module 1: Teaching and Learning with Children of War (Batch 2, Group 2). **School-based workshops conducted by supervisors; individual or small-group consultations with teachers convened, supervision**	COLF, OGB DepEd, 10 schools Pagalungan
September— October	**Follow-up school-based workshops** (Batch 1 and 2, Groups 1 and 2)	DepEd Division, District & all school principals, teachers—11 schools
November	Module 3 (Batch 2, Group 1) Workshop conducted for teachers and supervisors Module 2 (Batch 2, Group 2) Workshop conducted for teachers and supervisors	COLF, OGB DepEd, 10 schools
2003		
Dec. 2002—Jan. 2003	Consultation/Advisement with COLF trainers **School-based workshops** (Batch 1 and 2)	COLF, DepEd Division, District & all school principals, teachers, 11 schools

APPENDIX A. Project Timeline (continued)		
Date		**Groups involved**
2003		
February	Module 3 (Batch 2, Group 1) Workshop conducted	COLF, OGB DepEd, 10 schools DepEd–Div. District, 11 schools, OGB- Mindanao staff
	MILF-military battles, Pikit, Cotabato; evacuation of 4 villages, 2 schools closed Pagalungan and 4 other schools accommodate **refugees**	
April–May	**Relief efforts, student-tracking playgroups** for psychosocial rehabilitation	DepEd Division, District offices, 11 schools, OGB
June	**Evaluation postponed** pending improvement in peace and civil order situation	
August– October	**Evaluation conducted; participatory group processes facilitated: children's workshops, interviews with teachers, parents, OGB conducted school survey, reports from supervisors**	COLF, OGB DepEd, 10 schools DepEd–Div. District, 11 schools, OGB- Mindanao staff
Dec.	**Workshop–discussion of key findings from evaluation and planning for continuing work; Workshop conducted for supervisors on disaster preparedness**	COLF, OGB, Supervisors-12 schools, 6 districts
2004		
Jan.– March 2004	**Completion of documentation for the project evaluation. Report on evaluation prepared by COLF, sent to participants in Mindanao and submitted to OGB** (it was previously discussed with project stakeholders during a workshop).	OGB, COLF

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Part IV
Training in Citizenship for Youth, Adults, and Ex-Combatants

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Chapter 7

Reintegrating Ex-Combatants into Society in El Salvador

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El Salvador is recovering from a devastating twelve-year civil war and two major earthquakes that struck the country in 2001. In the 1990s, the country began a comprehensive post-conflict reconstruction plan to achieve equitable economic development, a robust democracy, and sustainable peace. However, former government soldiers and guerrillas (collectively known as ex-combatants) continue to suffer from poverty, displacement, low educational achievement, and hopelessness.

A small but effective program points the way for countries around the world to address these challenges. The Program for the Reintegration and Employment of Ex-Combatants sought to create and expand job and income-earning opportunities for ex-combatants–particularly women–and to establish individual and group microenterprises. A nongovernmental organization, the Salvadorian Association for Rural Health (ASAPROSAR), was responsible for one part of the program, which trained 225 ex-combatants in dressmaking, tailoring, and health services. Course modules were offered on basic business management, searching for jobs, and securing loans: tasks that are essential to starting new enterprises. Importantly, the program provided not only technical training but attitudinal re-education, as well.

One goal was to impart crucial values, such as personal empowerment, tolerance, responsibility, fairness, and a work ethic, that are critical for successful personal and societal recovery and reconciliation. The program was accredited in 1996 and became a model for other programs and for the nation's Institutional Policy on Education Training, which was developed in 1999. ASAPROSAR continues to serve conflict-affected communities and to develop innovative programs.

The Costs of Neglecting Ex-Combatants

The end of the civil war in January 1992 ushered in a post-war period that called for appropriate policies to help heal the wounds left by armed conflict. In addition to the millions of people harmed, about 30,000 guerrillas and government soldiers, including both men and women, were dismissed to rejoin society—and required to coexist. Many of them had known nothing but hatred and violence for years. A large number of them were illiterate or functionally illiterate, and they lacked personal and work skills and resources to develop enterprises. Immediate post-conflict assistance to address these challenges was not provided. Indeed, ex-combatants were not welcomed as veterans.

The lack of prompt attention to ex-combatants appears to have resulted in rising crime rates and continued unrest during the post-conflict period. A few years later, the National Reconstruction Plan sought to take a more comprehensive approach to reducing poverty and advancing economic and social conditions.

From the National Reconstruction Plan emerged the National Secretariat for Reconstruction, (SRN), which guided the implementation of the El Salvador Economic Reinsertion Program and called for promoting productivity and efficiency in different productive sectors. It was in this context that the Program for the Reintegration and Employment of Ex-Combatants was initiated in September 1993, under the sponsorship of the German Technical Cooperation Agency (GTZ). Aimed at those demobilized as a result of the 1992 Peace Accords, it was designed to create and expand job and income-earning opportunities for ex-combatants in strategic areas of the country.

A Comprehensive Approach to Reintegrating Ex-Combatants

The program was implemented for one year, from 1994 to 1995. It focused on the reintegration of ex-combatants of both sides of the civil war: the government's armed forces and the Farabundo Marti National Liberation Front (FMLN). The program was committed to achieving comprehensive human development to meet basic human needs. It recognized that health, education, and training are basic human rights vital to human and national development. It created and expanded employment and income-earning

opportunities for trainees and helped them develop individual and group microenterprises. It also worked to strengthen national agencies that provide support for ex-combatants and to improve labor relations between the private sector and those trained.

The program focused on the provinces of Sonsonate, Santa Ana, and Chalatenango. One of its implementation strategies was to identify and select governmental, nongovernmental, and private sector organizations that had the capacity to carry out the program's training activities.

GTZ chose three agencies—Ciudad de los Niños, IMECASA, and ASAPROSAR—to carry out the training phase of the program in Santa Ana. ASAPROSAR, the Salvadorian Association for Rural Health, was involved in this effort from 1994 to 1995, with responsibility for two areas of instruction: dressmaking and tailoring. The program nationwide included other areas, such as agricultural training, construction, carpentry, computer science, electricity, plumbing, printing, manufacturing, mechanics, baking, and shoemaking.

ASAPROSAR served 225 people, 70 percent of whom were former FMLM combatants. Because Ciudad de los Niños directed its efforts exclusively toward former members of the Armed Forces, ASAPROSAR focused mainly on former guerrillas. Sixty percent of those who took part in the training program offered by ASAPROSAR were women from rural and semi-urban communities in the municipalities of Santa Ana, Metapán, Candelaria de la Frontera, Chalchuapa, and El Porvenir.

The institutional process began with outreach and participant selection. This stage also included vocational guidance and orientation, with a team of psychologists that administered tests. Unfortunately, their application was not in keeping with the actual situation of the participants, most of whom were peasants with a low educational level. The psychologists developed a breakdown of the participants according to their interests, and formed work groups. This was not easy because the options available were extremely limited. Some people were assigned to the different specialties. Those with more academic education (law, sociology) were referred to universities or technical institutes.

During the outreach and selection phase of the program, the target population expressed an interest in and a need for training in health

promotion, an area in which ASAPROSAR had experience. Accordingly, ASAPROSAR decided to include training in health promotion as part of the project, and funded this aspect with its own resources.

At that time, infighting among various factions of the FMLN complicated the situation. Demobilized FMLN combatants even went so far as to think the project had been arranged directly with GTZ by the Communist Party (PC) and thus should benefit party members. This difficulty was overcome by holding meetings with the different factions, at which representatives of GTZ and the executing agency (ASAPROSAR) explained the terms of the program, clarified doubts and misconceptions, and overcame the differences that had emerged.

Working on Behalf of Human Development

The program was guided by a philosophical framework that recognizes health as a social asset and a fundamental right of all individuals. Similarly, the program regarded education and training as a vital element for its work on behalf of human development.

The educational approach of the program was based on a philosophy of social communication that used participatory processes, in which interaction between the institution and participants played an important role.

Both the philosophy and context demanded the development of activities to promote and impart critical values, such as respect, tolerance, solidarity, responsibility, harmony, equity, and work. One of the major challenges proved to be achieving good relations between ex-guerrillas—rather than between former guerillas and former members of the armed forces, as had been expected. Working with former members of the armed forces was much easier than with ex-combatants of the FMLN because the five groups comprising the FMLN were constantly arguing over leadership.[1] This struggle carried over to the training site.

At this stage, divisiveness needed to be replaced by cooperation and constructive behavior. The program's emphasis on values such as tolerance, responsibility, and fairness, along with its educational philosophy and practice,

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1. The five groups that had made up the FMLN were the PC (Communist Party), FPL (People's Liberation Forces), RN (National Resistance), PRTC (Revolutionary Central American Workers' Party), and ERP (People's Revolutionary Army).

which sought to achieve integrated human development, were important to visualizing a positive social, political, economic, and labor environment—one capable of unleashing individual and collective actions for reconstruction and reconciliation in the life of the nation.

Objectives and Goals

The objectives and goals of the local program were consistent with those of the efforts of GTZ and the National Secretary for Reconstruction (SRN) at the national level:

- To create and expand employment and income-earning opportunities for those who have been trained
- To encourage and constitute individual and group microenterprises.

An additional objective was to facilitate a teaching-learning process that favors the participation and empowerment of women and men.

In keeping with the national efforts, the local project aimed to:

- Train the demobilized population
- Initiate their basic education and vocational training
- Develop programs to support women
- Strengthen national support agencies
- Improve labor relations between the private sector and the population trained by the program.

In addition, there was an institutional strategy of training health promoters who would serve at the community level.

Organization

ASAPROSAR designed the education program. This required adopting the objectives of the national program and defining a new institutional objective and developing a new area of service. The educational program was developed in four stages:

- Outreach and participant selection
- Planning

- Implementation of educational activities for four components: technical training, human development, guidance in job search, and basic business management
- Monitoring and evaluation.

People with requisite experience were engaged to develop the technical programs on dressmaking and tailoring. At this stage, it was very important to consider participants' previous educational levels and experience, which in most cases were very limited. For this reason, the "learning-by-doing" method was adopted and a system was designed using techniques based on demonstration and practice.

Responsibility for instruction was assigned to a group of teachers. They operated under the supervision and guidance of the technical team that was responsible for training, composed of a secretary-accountant, a coordinator, and two education specialists. The participants were organized into mixed groups of men and women. This was a major difference from the way groups were organized by other institutions, where all the participants were men. Various groups were served simultaneously throughout the program year at various institutional facilities, where machinery and materials for the courses were located.

The courses in dressmaking and tailoring provided 900 hours of instruction, divided into sessions of four hours each. One group studied in the morning and another in the afternoon. The program for the group trained in health promotion was adapted to the schedule and dynamics of the other two areas. Each work session was designed to address the specific technical content of each area, with time assigned to cover human development topics.

Once the training process was underway, each former combatant enrolled in dressmaking and tailoring received a monthly stipend of 500 *colones* ($58) for 11 months, to cover the cost of transportation and meals. Payment depended on attendance and remaining in the program. Those who participated in health promotion training received five *colones* a day ($0.58) for transportation, and food during each daily session.

The technical team responsible for program implementation was composed of four people (one man and three women) with training and experience in teaching adults, who were selected from the ASAPROSAR staff. The technical

team led the group of instructors (two men and two women) through a preparatory process, which emphasized the philosophical and methodological aspects of the program.

The educational program also featured extracurricular activities such as exchanges, hikes, and outings. These events were designed to generate opportunities for peaceful coexistence by helping participants become better acquainted with one another. The project also was organized to allow time for administrative duties, such as the preparation of reports and the monitoring meetings required by GTZ.

The content of the technical training component and the materials used are summarized in table 7.1.

TABLE 7.1 The Technical Training Component		
Technical Area	Contents	Materials
Dressmaking	- Use of dressmaking tools - Use of a tracing ruler - Use of metric measuring tape - Sample of hand and machine stitching - Operation of a sewing machine - Sewing a basic skirt: A-line, gored, and low waist - Finishing and pressing items of clothing - Sewing a blouse: basic casual blouse, scoop neck, and V neck - Sewing a dress	Sewing machines, scissors rulers: metric, irregular or French curve, cutting tables, chairs, presser, irons, thimbles, wooden rulers, square rulers, blackboard, screwdrivers, seam cutter, consumables (thread, needles, draft paper, fabric)
Tailoring	- Preparation and operation of a pedal machine - Sewing a pair of men's trousers - Sewing a pair of jeans - Sewing a pair of women's trousers - Sewing a pair of children's trousers - Finishing and ironing items of clothing	Sewing machines, scissors rulers: metric, irregular or French curve, cutting tables, chairs, presser, irons, thimbles, wooden rulers, square rulers, blackboard, screwdrivers, seam cutters, consumables (thread, needles, draft paper, fabric)

TABLE 7.1 The Technical Training Component (continued)

Technical Area	Contents	Materials
Health	"My Community" Module - What is organization? The importance of community organization - Community organization techniques - Types of leadership - How to conduct a meeting - Drafting an agenda - How to speak in public Basic Hygiene Module - Personal hygiene - Cleaning house - Garbage collection - Community participation in health Disease Module - Knowledge of the human body - Common diseases - Preventive treatment Maternal-Infant Module - Pregnancy, childbirth, and neonatal care - Child growth and development - Breast-feeding Reproductive Health Module - Sexually transmissible diseases - Family planning. Mental Health Module - Drug addiction - Alcoholism - Self-control	Illustrations, posters, drawings, videos, consumables (paper, pens, pencils, colored pencils)

In addition to specific technical content, each technical component incorporated topics from the Human Development Component, including:

– Self-awareness and self-acceptance
– Self-esteem
– Human relations
– Values such as responsibility, tolerance, solidarity, cooperation
– Teamwork
– Decision making
– Conflict resolution.

The *Basic Business Management Component* included an introduction to topics such as how to create your own business, a business plan, and sources of financing.

The *Job Search Component* addressed such topics as job search tools (curriculum vitae, interviews) and tools for researching the labor market.

Training in every area of expertise was based on "learning by doing." Under this approach, the participant is directly responsible for his or her own learning.

The specific teaching method applied to technical instruction was the four-step method. This method first attempts to interest the participant in the working activity and demonstrates how to do it. Then the members of the group are encouraged to practice it, working together under the instructor's supervision. After that, the instructor corrects the participant. Finally, another opportunity is provided to each participant for practice with direct supervision. This method offered the flexibility to use other methods when needed to meet various educational objectives of the training program.

The predominance of participatory methods made it possible to use everyday objects found in the participant's environment, such as television sets, tape recorders, blackboards, and posters. For curriculum development, ASAPROSAR developed a series of manuals: the Facilitator's Manual, the Student Manual, and the Evaluation Manual.

The evaluation method was designed to assess instruction promptly and to provide feedback to enhance the quality and effectiveness of the technical training. Participants were graded regularly, in accordance with the requirements of the program, and the degree of progress and achievement of program

activities and goals was assessed. Both summative evaluation (measuring performance on the basis of tasks and tests) and formative evaluation (which explores the development of individual/group values and attitudes) was conducted. Various evaluation tools were used, such as evaluation sheets and attendance records. Some of the teaching and evaluation resources utilized in the program were reviewed and redesigned for subsequent use and can be made available for new projects, especially in the areas of training and health.

Communication and Support

During the implementation of the program, a continuous flow of information was maintained between ASAPROSAR and GTZ by means of technical reports on activities undertaken and financial reports on program expenditures. In addition, the technical person appointed to monitor the project visited regularly to review the program's managerial and control systems.

In recognition of their capacity and experience, GTZ gave the executing agencies the freedom to design and implement the project. This favored a horizontal relationship in which ASAPROSAR dedicated its best methods to an area in which there was no experience in El Salvador and no other point of reference available. During the year the project was carried out, GTZ provided funding for the dressmaking and tailoring areas. In the health area, private donations to ASAPROSAR provided the funding.

Evaluation and Monitoring

The GTZ program evaluation was intended to determine if activities progressed as planned and to assess the quality of training provided, efficiency in the use of resources, and the impact of the program on participants. Supervisory activities and audits were conducted during the program evaluation. Participants' opinions, assessments, and suggestions were solicited through interviews and dialogues.

Monitoring was designed to verify the proper use of technical information, administrative documents, and resources. GTZ required a considerable amount of paperwork. This was facilitated by holding meetings and weekly visits, which were also used to address problems as they arose, and by conducting a review and analysis of information provided by instruments used for data gathering and control purposes.

At a general level, GTZ developed a schedule of weekly meetings with the coordinators and meetings every two weeks with the directors of the executing agencies. Information and control mechanisms were created internally to supervise attendance, review goals, program activities, manage funds, and utilize methodologies. One of the mechanisms involved weekly meetings between the technical team and the coordinator, and between the coordinator and institutional management.

Products, Results, and Impact

Efforts to identify the results of the process emphasized the number of people trained and those who were able to obtain loans to set up small dressmaking and tailoring ventures. The program helped train 145 people in assigned areas and provide loans to set up a small number of businesses.

Other results were derived from project's educational concepts and practices:

- Participants valued the process as an opportunity for comprehensive personal growth. In addition to providing technical know-how, it allowed for greater knowledge and acceptance of oneself, overcoming ideological barriers in personal relations with the group, discarding the idea of the other person as the "enemy," and discovering individual and group capabilities.
- The program strengthened positive attitudes about teaching-learning processes.
- One of the most important outcomes for ASAPROSAR was internal development achieved by redefining an educational approach, based on practical experience that favored methodological innovation and demanded a critical and creative approach. This helped to institutionalize educational ideas and practices through the Institutional Policy on Education-Training that was developed in 1999.
- This program experience led to the accreditation of ASAPROSAR's Training Center for Community Development (CECADEC) in 1996 as a Collaborating Center of the Salvadoran Professional Training Institute (INSAFORP). It continues to serve in this capacity.

Best Practices

The curriculum was carefully designed to address both the technical and the personal needs of ex-combatants, who had become accustomed to wartime and hierarchical relationships.

Initially, the program defined the characteristics of the ex-combatants in a very general way. They had taken part in the armed conflict. That branded them as individuals with a certain mentality, a specific culture, and therefore behavior with very specific features: aggressiveness, rivalry, mistrust, and a radical position on issues.

These characteristics led to the adoption of an important educational guideline that tried to respond to the needs of people who were accustomed to war and who were facing the challenge of rejoining society as civilians. Helping them to reenter civilian society involved much more than simply giving them technical job skills; it also involved the urgent task of recovering, constructing, and reinforcing critical human values and generating attitudes favorable to the period of reconstruction and reconciliation with national life.

It was important to recognize that reconciliation and reconstruction had to start with the participants themselves, with the group, and with the immediate family and community environment. Thus the human development component worked to foster such values as trust, respect, tolerance, cooperation, solidarity, and a work ethic. Each value was conceptualized and analyzed in light of current circumstances and the participants' immediate situation.

The program's participatory methodology sought to strengthen students' self-awareness and self-acceptance. It also helped them build common interests and a sense of group cohesion.

Considerable emphasis was placed on creating a feeling of belonging to the group. The idea was not for participants to accept everything they were told, but to reflect and to develop a critical attitude toward themselves and those around them. Dialogue, debate, and decisions by consensus were encouraged. These approaches ultimately proved to be highly constructive and valued by participants.

Techniques and tools for self-awareness, self-acceptance, and group integration were used. This process revealed a series of personal, family, and community problems. Critical cases were addressed separately in a special therapeutic manner. Although not originally contemplated as part of the program, an effort was made to provide more individualized support. The institution had only one psychologist, and this limited the care and attention that could be provided in these instances.

A process of recreational learning was encouraged that used play, movement, and verbal and non-verbal expression. All these elements were conducive to creating opportunities for enjoyment and recreation, in addition to providing an opportunity to externalize problems and thoughts that had been repressed. For many of the participants, this venue became their first opportunity for catharsis and for expressing the fears, resentments, and doubts they had about the personal and group processes needed to reintegrate into their families, communities, and workplaces.

The following techniques proved especially helpful: the generative word;[2] socio-dramas, puppet theaters, role playing, debates, the forum (using video and cassette); and drawing.[3]

A competent, professional, and multidisciplinary team facilitated the process.

The members of the program team needed to have competence in teamwork skills and to be people-oriented, tolerant, and patient. They had to be able to learn from experience, and to facilitate and manage change. One of their biggest challenges was to overcome stereotypes and prejudices that pertain to work with ex-combatants, in addition to recognizing the fears and uncertainty involved in addressing this task.

Creating a horizontal relationship with program participants was extremely important. It required a tremendous effort, since participants came from military environments where power and hierarchy prevailed.

Technical vocational training and personal development were linked with steps to generate self-employment, such as measures to establish microenterprises and ensure access to credit.

ASAPROSAR focused particularly on women ex-combatants, offering course modules on basic business management, job search, and securing loans, all of which are essential to starting new enterprises.

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2. The "generative word" is a technique used in the teaching-learning process that employs words that are meaningful to the participant according to his social, economical, and political reality.
3. Drawings were used as a projective technique to elicit feelings, emotions, and perceptions.

ASAPROSAR already had a credit development program to help poor people in the province, especially women, obtain credit and other financial resources to support activities to generate income. ASAPROSAR had developed certain methods to help beneficiaries secure credit and develop their business by giving credit to support individual or group productive activities. These methods were utilized in program aimed at ex-combatants, especially in the components on searching for a job and basic business management.

ASAPROSAR was able to assume the management of 50,000 colones ($5,715) for loans to support individuals or groups in business ventures that had been created through the training process. The opportunity to obtain a loan and receive technical assistance to create a microenterprise became an incentive for participants.

Lessons Learned

• The post-war process of training ex-combatants should be a priority in any country that is making the transition from war to peace. Comprehensive education and training programs are an important element. They should be offered as part of a national policy for sustainable economic and social recovery. These programs should address the needs of demobilized combatants quickly and appropriately. They should be carefully documented for replication and adaptation.
• Particular consideration should be given to each individual participant's psycho-social state. Counselling assistance should be provided to troubled individuals.
• The mechanisms and tools for gathering data, monitoring, and evaluating the educational experience need to take into account the subjective dimension.
• Programs should be tailored carefully to national demobilization circumstances. There should be opportunities for analyzing national circumstances and progress or setbacks in the peace process, and their implications at the national and local levels. This would strengthen the capacity of the executing agencies and improve their performance.
• Agencies responsible for reintegration training should have a suitable philosophical framework; appropriate experience in the field of human development; knowledge and skills in participatory educational practice; and technical expertise and competence for conflict management.

- The methodologies employed must ensure that technical, individual, and group behavioral skills are learned effectively.
- The family and community—the participant's environment for re-entry—must also be prepared, to achieve the effective reintegration of former combatants. Attention to the environment surrounding ex-combatants was a gap in the program. No strategy existed that considered their family or community contexts, which is where ex-combatants ultimately were to be accepted or rejected. Furthermore, families and communities were not given a process to sensitize them to help make reintegration less traumatic. Compounding the difficulties of adjustment was the fact that many former combatants returned to places where the quality of life had deteriorated badly.
- Programs for the training and socialization of ex-combatants should be ongoing and adequately funded.
- Programs should create strong and positive links among the conflicting parties and with agencies providing funding and overall national program operations.

In the case of post-war El Salvador, the technical training process was extremely positive, as it contributed to the development of skilled labor. However, at the national level, aspects that involved the formation of values and conflict management were ignored. In a process designed to influence a reconciliation phase and national reconstruction, changes related to personal and collective perceptions are extremely important.

Conclusion

The post-war process should be a priority in any country that goes from war to peace. This is an opportunity for reconciliation based on truth and justice. It should be accompanied by the creation of programs that foster the political, economic, and social conditions and economic, technical, and human resources necessary to reintegrate demobilized combatants quickly and adequately.

Educational processes designed to develop a series of skills, attitudes, and values that will guarantee the sustainability of results play a fundamental role in social and economic reintegration processes. This is feasible only if these processes are based on a concept of education that is aimed at integrating instruction and is supported by tools and methods that give priority to the human being as a whole.

For ASAPROSAR, the program was a valuable opportunity to contribute to a unique process in the nation's history. The experience enabled it to institutionalize educational concepts and practices that are congruent with its philosophy. In looking back, accomplishments as well as gaps and difficulties are apparent—ones that we hope will serve as a point of reference for others in their struggle for reconstruction, reconciliation, and peace.

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Chapter 8

Training Human Rights Promoters in Peru

Rosa María Mujica

A grassroots program in Peru is training key community leaders in basic human rights, democracy, and citizen participation so that they, in turn, can promote these values in their communities throughout Peru.

Years of political violence have forced Peruvians to endure intolerable situations, with serious consequences for individuals and communities. These include low self-esteem, extreme intolerance, acceptance and use of authoritarian relations within families and between spouses, anti-democratic relations in organizations and communities, and indifference in the face of injustice. Against a backdrop of political violence, an authoritarian government, corruption, drug trafficking, and political instability, a culture of fear and disrespect for government and formal institutions emerged in Peru that silenced denunciation, fostered patronage politics, and made people indifferent to or fearful of commitment. The situation was aggravated by the public's lack of information about institutions and individuals that could help them when their rights were violated and places they could go to file complaints or denunciations.

To counter the culture of violence and fear, the project trained 2,269 leaders (men and women) as promoters of human rights in virtually all regions of the country. They, in turn, have served 596,976 individuals. Various organizations were created to defend human rights, community leaders were empowered, and groups that traditionally had been divided were reconciled. The project incorporated more than 10 years of experience gained by the Peruvian Institute of Education for Human Rights and Peace (IPEDEHP) in working with teachers and other leaders throughout the country (see appendix A).

Overcoming A Culture of Violence and Fear

Peru has had a history of urban and rural conflicts, as well as domestic violence. However, the violence of the 1980s and 1990s had special characteristics. Terrorist activities of the *Sendero Luminoso* (Shining Path guerrillas) and the Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement (MRTA), together with repressive measures of the army, devastated many areas of Peru. More than 25,000 people died, over 6,000 persons disappeared, and hundreds of thousands were internally displaced, including many children who were orphaned by the civil war. Teachers' lives were threatened, and many teachers abandoned their schools.

Exhausted from constant injustice and suffering, Peruvians developed a capacity for resistance—first passive and then active—that they retained as minimum levels of democracy were achieved in the country. In September 1992, the leaders of the Shining Path were arrested, marking the beginning of the defeat of terrorism and ushering in a period reconstruction and reconciliation.

Peruvians have also had to endure major economic recession, high unemployment rates, a decline in purchasing power, precarious work and wage conditions, and increasing poverty. These factors, among others, have aggravated the problems of delinquency and crime. Today, a third of Peru's population of 26 million people is under the age of 15. These young people have lived their entire lives in a time of economic hardship.

One of the most serious problems facing Peru in its efforts to achieve development through justice and peace is the consolidation of a genuine and effective democracy. During recent years, Peru has lived under a system that is formally democratic but profoundly antidemocratic in its structure, authority, and relationships. As a result, most Peruvians do not value democracy because they believe it is synonymous with disorder, chaos, and a lack of rule of law.

The loss of belief in the country's main institutions, the breakdown in basic values required for social coexistence, authoritarianism, impunity from justice, corruption, and drug trafficking have generated a type of culture of "anything goes." This has become a major obstacle to the enforcement of human rights, and especially to the development and consolidation of democracy and the full exercise of the roles of citizenship.

The educational system is plagued by a number of shortcomings that have led it to contribute little or nothing to the construction and practice of democratic coexistence in society. These include the absence of positive paradigms and integrated alternative solutions, coupled with a loss of perspective regarding the role of education in the transformation of society.

This situation has been made worse by the poor quality of education imparted in schools. Traditional approaches, programs, and methods are authoritarian and rigid. Professional educators are undertrained. The high percentage of teachers without professional degrees (more than 40 percent of all teachers nationwide) and their precarious work conditions (salaries below those required to satisfy basic family needs) are among the most serious problems facing Peruvian education.

The idea for the project emerged upon learning that Peruvians—especially women—were extremely ignorant of national and international laws that protect them. Even worse was their lack of knowledge of fundamental human rights. In 1996, IPEDEHP launched a massive educational process to convey information to Peruvians—men and women alike—on their rights and the national and international laws established to defend and protect them. The idea was to teach them what to do and where to go in situations where their rights and those of the people around them were affected. This work was aimed especially at community leaders from a variety of backgrounds, some of whom were school teachers.

Training Community Leaders in Democracy, Human Rights, and Citizen Participation

In 1996, IPEDEHP also launched a project to train outstanding community leaders in basic issues of human rights, democracy, and citizen participation so that they, in turn, could convey what they had learned to their communities and organization. Key program objectives were to:

• Value democracy as a political system and a way of life, and to commit to its construction
• Make participants aware of human rights problems in Peru, and to secure their active commitment to overcome them
• Provide educational and methodological tools to facilitate the work of those promoting human rights and democracy in their communities

• Familiarize participants with the mechanisms for promoting and protecting human rights, including the government's Human Rights Office, and to secure citizen support for these mechanisms.

The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) agreed to support the project for one year. After the one-year period, in light of the project's success, USAID extended support for two additional years and ultimately for another two years, through 2001. During its years of support, USAID contributed a third of the institutional IPEDEHP budget, and all of the funds for the project. In addition, IPEDEHP also receives support for other programs from other international agencies such as the Ford Foundation and the Canadian, Spanish, and Dutch cooperation agencies. The project also relies on the work of individual volunteers who dedicate their time and enthusiasm. The Peruvian government has not contributed any funding to the project, but the Office of Human Rights Ombudsman has been quite active, funding its staff to travel to participate in IPEDEHP events.

From 1996 to 2001, the project trained 2,269 leaders (men and women) throughout the country as promoters of human rights. They have shared their training with more than 596,976 Peruvians affected by violence. The project also produced a wealth of materials that have reached many throughout Peru (see appendix A). In addition, under subsequent IPEDEHP programs, these trained leaders continue to contribute to the development of human rights, democracy, and citizen participation in their communities and regions.

Human Rights: A Way to Restore Oneself and Rebuild the Country

IDEPEHP believes that education in human rights—in the words of Nora Sveaass, a prominent Swedish human rights psychologist—is more than "a way to work with and come to terms with traumatic events. It is a way to restore oneself and to relate to others. It also enables a community to rebuild itself after destruction and violence."[1]

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1. Sveass has worked with victims of torture. She made this statement as part of an Internet discussion group on psychology and human rights sponsored by the International Peace Practitioners Network in 1999, when she was asked, as part of the discussion, to review a summary of Marcia Bernbaum's case study (1999) on the IDEPEHP project.

With this aim in mind, the IPEDEHP intervention philosophy includes:

- The conviction that activities on human rights should be conducted in conjunction with other people because they concern a "collective future." It is indispensable to meet with other people and institutions to conduct activities for human rights promotion, education, and defense.
- The need to become involved in existing social movements and to help make the social fabric stronger in conjunction with other institutions of civil society.
- An explicit search for participants of various ages, educational backgrounds, cultures, and political opinions to come together in the same group. All discover that they have much to learn from one another.
- The conviction that appreciation of the person and his or her dignity as a human being is fundamental to peaceful coexistence. Values such as respect, dignity, equality, and self-esteem are present at all times, in both theory and practice.
- The conviction that to value yourself and value others, it is important to be in contact with your own feelings, aspirations, and fears. Games and dynamics place emphasis on the affective domain. Workshops offer many opportunities to review one's memories as a child and for participants to share what they felt when they had personal experiences with violence and abuse.
- A tradition of sharing the items that IPEDEHP has developed with those who request them, including all available materials and methodologies.

The program takes as its point of entry participants' own life experiences, so essential concepts such as human rights, democracy, citizen participation, and self-esteem will not be abstractions, but part of daily life. It uses participatory methods, including games, group dynamics, socio-dramas, and songs. It also seeks to create an atmosphere of friendship, trust, and mutual respect as a basis for peaceful coexistence. At the end of the training, people are ready to return to their communities and put into practice what they learned.

A Sequence of Activities

To carry out the project at the local level, IPEDEHP signed partnership agreements with local institutions in 26 zones in 23 departments (provinces) in Peru. These institutions assumed many responsibilities, such as selecting leaders, choosing the locale for training, conducting project follow up and

evaluation, distributing promotional materials, and coordinating program campaigns. Work with these counterparts was indispensable to the project's success and sustainability.

Several criteria were used to select community leaders for training. First, participants had to be recognized by their communities as individuals with commitment to and experience in carrying out activities in various areas of social and political life. Second, all social sectors were to be represented. Third, a balance was to be struck between the number of men and women. Finally, candidates had to be committed to teach what they learn once they return to their communities. Participants were supposed to add human rights to work they were already carrying on: to include human rights as a topic and dimension in their daily lives as persons and leaders.

The community leaders participated in a sequence of activities.

COURSE-WORKSHOP. The initial course-workshop lasted three days. Called *"You have rights: Know them, promote them, defend them,"* it addressed the topic of human rights during the first day and a half and the issue of democracy on the second. On the third day, promoters learned how to convey what they had learned to others, as well as to organize and plan activities the leaders would conduct upon returning to their communities. A participatory methodology was used.

PLANNING WORKSHOP. One month after the course-workshop, participants met for a one-day planning workshop where they could plan and conduct their own activities to replicate the program in their own communities or adapt aspects of the program to their own ongoing activities. The lessons of the course-workshop were reviewed and individual motivation was reinforced. New topics proposed by the group were also addressed. Participants were grouped according to their geographic proximity or the sectors where they work, with the goal of enabling them to plan their work jointly.

EVALUATION SESSION. One year after the course-workshop, participants met in a one- to two-day session to evaluate the leaders' work, identify their achievements and difficulties, and share experiences. This was also a time to reinforce commitments and rebuild enthusiasm for the work. During this session, new training was imparted on topics the participants consider necessary for their work.

NATIONAL MEETING FOR LEAD PROMOTERS. Once a year, as part of the second year of training, lead promoters from across the nation met. Trainees in each zone democratically elected attendees. Experiences were shared and a new topic was discussed, such as electoral training, interventions against the abuse of women and children, and ethics in political and daily life.

FOLLOW-UP WORKSHOPS IN EACH ZONE. The workshops were conducted by selected promoters who attended the national meeting, under the supervision of IPEDEHP trainers. These sessions also provided an opportunity for the group to plan some of the activities for the year ahead.

The Training Approach

IPEDEHP leaders are convinced that a single personal experience can accomplish more than a thousand words. "You cannot understand what you do not feel," a prominent Venezuelan educator, Simón Rodríguez said. IPEDEHP staff members would add, "That which you do not understand is of no interest." Therefore, an inductive methodology was designed that began with the participants' own experiences in order to construct and reconstruct knowledge regarding human rights and democracy.

The IPEDEHP methodology differs from the traditional form of teaching-learning. First, program staff members seek to have participants relive and feel their own life experiences so that afterward they can develop theories about them. Games are used as a special instrument to promote feeling and sharing. The IPEDEHP training team strives to use simple and accessible language in discussions that at the same time avoids degenerating into the shallow or banal. Long and tedious lectures are avoided. To give people an opportunity to participate actively, group dynamics, games, dialogue and debate are used. All these techniques make it possible to gather participants' opinions, ideas, and feelings.

Another fundamental element of the training approach is that participants feel welcomed, valued, and respected at all times. They are called by their names and greeted affectionately every day, and staff members share in their laughter, games, and songs. This type of atmosphere reinforces each participant's self-esteem. At the same time, it increases their confidence—crucial for the political task of defending human rights in their communities.

During the workshop, each person is viewed as a unique individual. Their personal experience, history, and problems are taken into account, as well as their desires and dreams. IPEDEHP staff members believe that the ability to dream and imagine a world and life better than the current ones impels all persons to action, motivates commitment, and gives meaning to our lives. The person as a whole is taken into account, integrating the dimensions of feeling, thinking, and acting, including emotional, intellectual, and psychomotor aspects. This integrated approach guarantees the impact of this learning experience in the life of each participant.

IPEDEHP also encourages the appreciation of others, recognizing their capabilities and skills, respect for differences, and relations based upon tolerance. In the course-workshops, all who are present learn from one another and also learn that everyone has something to teach, no matter how humble his or her origins. Participants often discover that those who do not have a formal education, or who do not read or write, nonetheless have a wealth of experience and valuable lessons that help everyone. The struggle for life, with its lessons of dedication and courage, natural intelligence applied a thousand times to deal with major problems, the capacity for survival and for finding joy in life—all inspire admiration and provide valuable examples for others.

The course-workshops stimulate and evoke situations that cause enjoyment and happiness. Working for human rights is a task to regain joy and to bring joy to everyone. This happiness is not possible if it is not based on an appreciation for people's dignity and mutual respect. On one day of the workshop, a party is held. Trainers and participants attend, and it is both a part of the training activity and an opportunity to learn.

The training process uses mistakes as a source for learning, and encourages people to participate without fear. If participants make a mistake, they learn not to feel bad or ashamed. The project affirms that all people make mistakes and that it is important to recognize this to correct them. This attitude, which is often reiterated, helps defeat the paralyzing fear that prevents people from acting. It also predisposes them to move forward with activities, evaluation, and self-assessment as necessary processes for learning and for life itself. The invitation to become critical leaders and self-critical defenders of human rights and democracy not only in theory but in everyday practice requires humility, the recognition of personal shortcomings

and our limitations as human beings, as well as a willingness to overcome them for the benefit of each person, the people around them, and their communities.

A fundamental element in this respect is to develop and maintain a positive attitude during course-workshops. This is necessary to avoid difficulties and fears that could block, divert, or cancel project efforts. The methodology is based on seven educational principles:

1. *STARTING FROM REALITY.* This means knowing people's characteristics, needs, interests and problems, as well as their life experiences, possibilities, limitations, and the characteristics of their socioeconomic and cultural environment.

2. *PROMOTING ACTIVE LEARNING.* The objective is to help people "learn to learn" throughout their lives. This requires that the person build knowledge rather than receive it passively.

3. *ENCOURAGING HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION.* The main instrument is dialogue, wherein two or more individuals share their thoughts, feelings, and emotions in an atmosphere of mutual appreciation and respect. To enter into a dialogue, one must know how to listen to others. Doing so assists others in their personal affirmation and boosts their self-esteem.

4. *DEVELOPING CRITICAL ABILITIES.* This attitude permits a just approach to others, enabling one to assess ideas, people, and facts fairly and in depth. To have a critical sense is to recognize positive and negative characteristics, and to be able to offer alternatives, to be alert to what is happening, and to use creativity and imagination to find solutions.

5. *PROMOTING EXPRESSION AND DEVELOPING EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS.* This begins with the conviction that affection is a fundamental aspect of people's lives and a basis for teaching human rights and democracy. Learning about values is possible only if the educator takes students' feelings into account in his or her methods and procedures.

6. *PROMOTING PARTICIPATION.* To participate is to play an active role, cease to be a spectator, and become an actor. This means to act with commitment, initiative, responsibility, and the capacity to make decisions.

7. *TAKING AN INTEGRATED APPROACH.* The individual is considered to be an integrated being: a biological, psychological, and social unit. This requires accepting the person as a valuable and special being with his or her own unique characteristics.

Materials Used and Produced

Very simple work materials are used during the sessions, including flipcharts, felt pens, and pamphlets. Many activities are developed outdoors so participants can move about freely.

IPEDEHP has produced a variety of project materials in response to issues and needs confronting Peru. These materials cover complex topics and employ very simple and commonly used words. Thus audiences ranging from illiterate individuals to university professors are able to use the materials.

The materials have been very helpful in disseminating information not only during the training process, but also to inform people in the community about their rights and to help replicate the program. These materials have also helped protect human rights. They state where suits should be filed, which organizations offer assistance and community aid, and what citizens can do to defend their rights.

Each lead promoter receives a package of all the materials to disseminate to others. These materials include:

FOLDERS

"You have rights. Know them, promote them, defend them." This workbook folder includes 12 illustrated notebooks written in simple language that explain human rights in general, specific rights (children rights, women rights, citizen participation), and the legal frameworks that underpin them. Each notebook has three clearly defined sections. The first refers to national and international legislation on each right. The second reports what is happening in Peru concerning that particular theme. The third indicates what each individual can do to exercise that right, regardless of his or her condition.

"Participatory Techniques for Education in Human Rights and Democracy." This folder includes booklets describing various techniques, such as how to make presentations, how to facilitate communication, and how to reinforce self-esteem.

GAMES

"The Diagnostic Race" makes it possible to conduct a general diagnosis or an assessment of the real status of human rights.

"Promoting Debate" helps to develop group discussion on democracy. It uses cards to present issues that players must assess as true or false. The controversial aspects of the cards promote debate. In addition to measuring the group's basic knowledge on an issue, this game enables the group itself to correct the situation. This process introduces players to participatory evaluation and self-evaluation, which will be fundamental to their lives as community or group leaders.

"Defending Our Vote" aids learning and discussion about electoral issues and political affairs in Peru. It was designed when many leaders became electoral trainers in their communities.

"Cards that Talk" facilitates work on issues of domestic violence. It encourages discussion on different situations of abuse against women and children.

"The Inquisitive Dice" addresses controversial issues involving ethics in private and public life.

FLYERS

Various topics are covered, including human rights, democracy, and methodological principles for education in human rights and democracy.

WORKSHOP MATERIALS

Course-workshop module to promote the dissemination of the "You have rights" Worksop and its use in the replication workshops. This module describes the steps that should be followed in the course-workshop to aid the leader when replicating lessons in his or her community.[2]

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2. The first morning of the course each participant also receives a methodological guide, which contains the steps for replicating the training course, including how to organize and carry out the dynamics, discussion groups, and role plays. The steps follow the agenda for a three-day course described in the first section of this chapter. Several course graduates have noted that this guide is a reference they go to constantly to update their knowledge and to obtain new ideas when they design their own activities once back in their communities. It also helps them to refresh their memories and remember the dynamics they learned at the course.

Methodological guide to activities and *the course-workshop to promote actions against abuse: "If you love me, don't hit me."* This guide presents an educational approach that facilitates discussion about violence against women and builds commitment to work for its eradication.

POSTERS

"If you love me, don't hit me" and *"You have rights: know them, promote them, defend them"* encourage affection in women.

EDUCATIONAL VIDEOTAPES

"Say no to discrimination" presents a drama about several types of discrimination in Peru. A small methodological teaching guide is enclosed for use with the video.

"Don't hit me" dramatizes situations of violence in daily life.

TV SPOTS

"If you love me, don't hit me" was prepared for abuse prevention.
"Your vote is worth one Peru" was prepared to encourage voting in elections.

RADIO SPOTS

"If you love me, don't hit me" was prepared for abuse prevention.
"Educate with love" encourages affection in childrearing.
"Stop it now" discourages expressions of discrimination.

NEWSLETTER

The "Building Together" Newsletter. Fifteen issues have been published on topics such as illegal activities, ethics, human rights at police stations, reproductive rights, promotion of the Truth Commission, and the campaign against torture (see appendix A). The newsletter has been a good way to continue distance training on key topics. Newsletters also keep IPEDEHP and its leaders in touch during intervals between their meetings.

These materials may be obtained from IPEDEHP. The complete list of materials may be viewed on the institution's web page at http://www.ipedehp.org.pe. Materials are also listed in appendix A.

Evaluation and Monitoring

Following up on and coaching participants are extremely important for guaranteeing the success of the intervention and the sustainability of its activities. The IPEDEHP team met with the leaders twice a year. Local counterparts accompanied promoters in their replication work and some of the activities they performed in their own communities. In addition, Marcia Bernbaum, Ph.D. in Developmental Psychology from George Washington University, visited leaders in different regions of the country to evaluate the impact of the program on them, their families, and their communities. She published a book on the results of her research entitled *Weaving Ties of Friendship, Trust and Commitment to Build Democracy and Human Rights in Peru* (1999).

The newsletter *"Building Together"* was used for long-distance follow up. A key objective of this newsletter was to provide leaders with a venue for expressing themselves and sharing their achievements and difficulties. It helped leaders to know what others were doing with groups in several zones of the country. It also became a venue for training and information on new topics. Each newsletter focused on a central topic (see appendix A).

MONITORING. Monitoring was very important during the training process for social leaders, not only because it enabled the collection of significant data concerning program achievements but also because it encouraged IPEDEHP to improve the training process. To monitor activities conducted by promoters, forms were prepared and used to collect information on training, dissemination, public awareness, and intervention activities in each zone.

EVALUATION. The entire training process and its results were assessed at every stage of the project: the initial course-workshop; planning workshops, and national meetings. The group dynamics, games, and themes were evaluated, as well. Every morning, the rules for coexistence, group participation, tasks, trainers, program methodology, the locale used for training, and even the food, parties, and breaks were evaluated by all the participants. The evaluation was carried out verbally and in writing in an atmosphere of

absolute freedom. The results provided information that was required to make adjustments and contribute to a more objective understanding of IPEDEHP's training activities and their achievements and shortcomings. At the same time, promoters evaluated themselves and became aware of changes in their own lives and their work as social leaders.

Evaluation also occurred during follow-up workshops when the promotion-public awareness activities performed by lead promoters were evaluated by the community leaders attending the workshops, facilitated by IPEDEHP staff. The main objective of meetings scheduled at the end of each year was to analyze the achievements and difficulties encountered by promoters in their own communities in each area covered by the project. During these meetings, the achievements obtained by leaders and the personal problems they experienced in their work as human rights promoters were studied. Their work as members of a team was analyzed. This was a critically important aspect, considering that this was the first experience for some in working with individuals from other places with different histories and experiences. Finally, the impacts that occurred in their communities were studied: what progress has been obtained in the field of human rights and what remaining problems needed to be faced.

The evaluation workshop was also an opportunity to share the activities developed by each leader during the entire year in their zones and/or work groups.

Impacts on Leaders and Others

IMPACT UPON LEADERS THEMSELVES. Most leaders came to internalize human rights and democracy as a general practice in their lives. They noted changes in the way they view themselves, especially in terms of improved self-esteem; in the way they perceive and treat others, including relatives and neighbors; in the manner in which they incorporate human rights into their workplaces; in their political and social commitments; and in their determination to become leaders in promoting human rights and democracy (see appendix B).

IMPACT ON OTHER PEOPLE'S LIVES. Leaders report that the abilities they gained through educating, promoting, and defending human rights and democracy have also influenced other people, including their families and their communities. As result of their efforts, they observe an increase in democratic behavior and a greater respect for human rights (see appendixes B and C).

Best Practices

The project fostered a number of best practices.

Enunciating human rights principles for the program

These principles guided the development of the program, its training approaches, and the actions of program participants in their communities.

Providing experiential and participatory training

The program employed active learning and participatory methodologies (games, group dynamics, socio-dramas, songs) to help participants use their own life experiences to build concepts and skills required to promote human rights, democracy, citizen participation, and positive self-esteem. By the end of the training period, participants were ready to return to their communities and put what they had learned into practice.

Valuing individuals

Participants learned to value other people's unique characteristics, needs, interests, and problems, as well as to understand their experiences and socioeconomic and cultural environments.

Learning how to learn

The project aimed to help participants and those they guided to "learn how to learn" throughout their lives. This required that persons actively build knowledge, rather than passively receive it.

Horizontal communication

Through "dialogue," two or more individuals shared their thoughts, feelings, and emotions in an atmosphere of mutual respect. Participants were taught how to listen to others with true concern and then help them build their self-esteem.

Developing critical thinking skills

Participants developed an attitude of fairness in evaluating ideas, people, and facts. They were helped to recognize both positive and negative situations.

Accepting and expressing feelings, emotions, and values

Participants were taught that affective expressions are fundamental and normal aspects of people's lives. Upon that basis, they learned to accept that others may have different feelings and values, and need constructive ways to express them.

Promoting participation

Participants were encouraged to play active roles in society and cease to be spectators. They learned to act decisively with commitment, initiative, and responsibility.

Disseminating materials.

One of the project's greatest contributions is the large quantity of materials that were prepared and disseminated, including folders with booklets, table games, educational videotapes, radio and television spots, and posters (see appendix A). Simple and accessible materials that are stimulating because of their colors, novelty, ease of use, and readability encourage dialogue and help people learn. Leaders use and disseminate them and constantly ask for more copies for the work they perform.

These materials have accomplished more than had been originally intended. They have been used in schools, grassroots organizations, people's municipal defense councils, and in outdoor activities in town squares, in which the success of table games merits special mention.

Lessons Learned

The selection of counterparts and participants is fundamental to the success of the project.

In a project of national scope, where training team members must go to each zone but do not live there, it is essential to have one or more local counterparts

who are committed to the project and make it their own. Only in this way can the proper political and administrative management of the project be ensured. To this end, it is indispensable to develop reliable relationships of mutual trust. It is also essential to avoid empire building or creating parallel organizations that would ultimately cause rivalry and mistrust.

The project's success also depends on the correct selection of trainees. It is essential to identify leaders from local communities who are committed to the program and have personal characteristics that generate trust and support. Indeed, the leader's personal commitment is the driving force of the project. When leaders are motivated and are personally committed, they will assume new challenges and undertake responsibilities and tasks that will begin to generate changes in their lives and in the lives of people around them.

The theory is the method.

IPEDEHP has learned that using simple and clear language; drawing on what each leader knows, thinks, and feels; profoundly respecting each individual; maintaining a welcoming attitude; encouraging a healthy critical approach and a constant self-criticism as a working style; and promoting democracy as a way of relating to each other, all foster an understanding that human rights and democracy are essential for life. They are not just theoretical formulations.

The games, group dynamics, parties, songs, and socio-dramas also play a key role. In addition to generating expectations and participation, they create an appropriate atmosphere for trust and learning, allowing people to achieve their potential and ensure the replication of what they had learned. Giving leaders simple and attractive materials that may be used with the groups they serve when they return to their communities facilitates their tasks.

Learning from experience is critical.

In the reality of violence in Peru, it is important to approach conflicts as a source of learning and, therefore, of training leaders how to address and respond to them in democratic ways. Participants are taught that each political or social event becomes a learning opportunity. By building the necessary responses to each situation, democratic theory and human rights become practical and useful in daily life, and cease to be an abstract discourse with little meaning.

Strategic alliances must be generated.

It is important to work with all donors, institutions, and local authorities to gain support for promoting human rights and creating mechanisms to help people solve their problems.

The project has demonstrated the importance of working jointly with different sectors of the population. Having social leaders, such as peasants, teachers, youth, and community leaders meet in the same training venues as political authorities and members of the military and the police, among others, has generated interesting alliances, with unexpected potential. Leaders not only work in their own social sectors when they return to their communities, but they also support one another in promoting human rights (see example, appendix C).

Leaders have forged links with institutions and authorities, not only in their own area, but in other zones in the country. This has permitted leaders to find the support they need to solve specific problems in their communities, and at the same time, to feel assisted and recognized for their work as human-rights promoters.

Newly formed grassroots human rights organizations require continuing support.

Emerging community groups need ongoing help to be able to make significant contributions to the nation. It is fundamentally important to conduct follow-up and evaluation, and to provide ongoing support. This continuing presence helps participants avoid feeling let down or defeated by routine tasks or difficulties. Participants can renew their energies and find direction by meeting, sharing, reviewing achievements, analyzing difficulties, and considering solutions. Evaluation helps participants adjust activities, deepen their knowledge, and strengthen capacities—all of which can help them continue their work after the training team is no longer there.

Documenting and transferring good practices is required during as well as after the training workshops.

The process of collecting data on the work of the leaders has helped the IPEDEHP team obtain feedback, evaluate the project operation, prepare major reports, secure funding, and write a book, *La razón de la esperanza: líderes sociales promotores de Derechos Humanos y Democracia en el Perú (The Reason to Hope: Social Leaders as Promoters of Human Rights and Democracy in Peru)* (Mujica 2002).

There is a need in Peru and in other countries to report on successful experiences. For this reason, institutions should make the impact of their work known. These successful experiences not only encourage other individuals to conduct similar projects but also give people reason to hope that it is possible to build democracy and respect for human rights in Peru and elsewhere.

Teamwork and networking are key.

Through teams and networks, participants can share tasks, distribute responsibilities and the workload, and address difficulties as the project is implemented.

Networks help leaders share experiences, feel that are part of a regional or national movement, and make them aware that they have strong support for their work. Networks give them a sense of identity and belonging, which motivates them in their work.

Networks also help IPEDEHP. Having established and organized networks gives the institute the capacity to assume tasks in a quick and responsible manner, even on a national basis. This is especially helpful when the institution wants to carry out a campaign on a particular issue or intervene in an event.

Voluntary work generates motivation and commitment.

The fact that leaders' work is voluntary has generated respect and recognition. This, in turn, has reinforced leaders' motivation. Without being formal authorities, leaders have earned a certain authority in their field. Their work is legitimized, thanks to their ethical approach.

Close ties should be maintained between the training team and leaders.

A key to the project's success has been the closeness that exists between the training team and the leaders. Relationships marked by equality, horizontal relations, empathy, and mutual appreciation have been key to the processes. These factors, coupled with a permanent awareness that the project belongs to the leaders and not to the training team, have enabled the leaders to assume the project as their own and to work and disseminate their learning beyond what the trainers and the project had originally intended.

Challenges

The organizations that have been established by the leaders are new and weak and must be supported. The seed of the "replacement" human rights movement resides in these groups. By taking charge from older leaders, energies will be renewed, and commitments increased.

Another challenge will be to train new political leaders to be ethical and democratic. One of the dramas of Peru is that when leaders assume power, they are taken in by the system, seduced by the trappings of power, and in most cases, abandon their initial ideals and constituencies, and then lose legitimacy. This loss of legitimacy gravely damages democracy as a political system. It is of great concern in a country such as Peru, which has a weak and incipient democracy. Community leaders who today are authorities request—and indeed many insist—that IPEDEHP give them training and support to carry out their functions in ethical and democratic ways because they do not know how to do so. They lack experience or models that can help them. If citizens wish to reform the leadership classes of Peru, if people believe that the country needs new types of leaders who are ethical and democratic, then there is a responsibility to help achieve this goal.

Another challenge is to provide training for leaders on other issues that are urgent for the nation's democratic life, such as citizen oversight and the struggle against corruption, and to help them begin these tasks. IPEDEHP's leaders have the organizational capacity, the necessary legitimacy, and the enthusiasm and willingness required. What they now need is theoretical and methodological training and the tools to help them address these additional and emerging issues.

There are more tasks ahead, such as continuing to strengthen the leaders' network; reaching more places throughout the country, particularly the more remote areas of the country; training more young people who will assume positions of responsibility; and involving the army and police in these types of activities. In conclusion, IPEDEHP leaders hope the experience of the past five years will provide help and ideas that will allow us to move forward with the task of constructing democracy and human rights in Peru and throughout the world. Our intention is to give reason for hope.

APPENDIX A. Background on IPEDEHP and IPEDEHP Materials Produced

About IPEDEHP

IPEDEHP has focused primarily on pre-school, primary, and secondary teachers, as well as professors at teacher training colleges. IPEDEHP has trained more than 20,000 teachers nation-wide—in addition to more than 250 teachers who serve as promoters in seven regions, who have trained thousands of other educators in human rights and democracy.

The Institute has developed a curriculum, guidance for democratic school administration, and a consistent theoretical and methodological model for education on human rights and democracy. It has also produced a variety of curriculum guides on how to include human rights as a cross-cutting topic throughout the school curriculum, at three levels of the Peruvian school system—pre-school, primary, and secondary—as well as numerous publications that express its institutional philosophy and methodological approach.

Materials Produced by IPEDEHP

Curriculum Guides
1. "Learning to Teach Human Rights and Democracy" (for primary education)
2. "Constructing Democracy through Teacher Training"
3. "Curriculum Guide for High School Civics Teachers"
4. "Curriculum Guide for High School History Teachers"
5. "Curriculum Guide for High School Natural Science Teachers"
6. "Curriculum Guide for High School Biology Teachers"
7. "Curriculum Guide for High School Psychology Teachers"
8. "Curriculum Guide for High School Philosophy Teachers"
9. "Curriculum Guide for High School Language and Literature Teachers"

Methodological Guides
10. "Let's Learn About Our Rights" (for pre-school education)
11. "School Curriculum Plan from the Standpoint of Education in Human Rights and Democracy"
12. "Assessment of Learning within the Framework of Education in Human Rights and Democracy"
13. "If You Love Me, Don't Hit Me"
14. "How to Address the Feelings Expressed by Children"
15. "Let's Stop Child Abuse"
16. "The Road to Tolerance"

APPENDIX A. Materials Produced by IPEDEHP (continued)

Guides to Democratic Management
17. "Discipline and Education in Human Rights and Democracy at School"
18. "Institutional Educational Project from the Standpoint of Human Rights and Democracy"
19. "Learning to Respond in a Democratic and Supportive Way to Conflicts in School"
20. "School Administration and Organization from the Standpoint of Education in Human Rights and Democracy"

Work Kits and Workbooks
21. "You Have Rights: Know, Promote and Defend Them" (work kit)
22. "Participatory Methods for Education in Human Rights and Democracy"(work kit)
23. Student Workbook No. 1, "Learning About the Ombudsman"
24. Student Workbook No. 2, "Learning About the Ombudsman"

Manuals, Books, and Pamphlets
25. "Learning About the Ombudsman?" (teacher's manual)
26. "Coloring our Rights" (coloring book)
27. Weaving Ties of Friendship, Trust and Commitment to Build Democracy and Human Rights in Peru (book)
28. "Human Rights and Democracy as a Mainstream Topic" (pamphlet)
29. "Education in Human Rights and Democracy" (pamphlet)
30. Pamphlet on Democracy
31. Pamphlet on Human Rights

Educational Games
32. The Diagnostics Race
33. The Road to Democracy
34. Encouraging Debate
35. Defending Our Vote
36. Marching for Our Rights
37. Marching for Children's Rights
38. Question Dice
39. Learning About the Structure of the Peruvian State (not available)
40. Learning About the Peruvian Congress

APPENDIX A. Materials Produced by IPEDEHP (continued)

IPEDEHP Newsletters, "Building Together"
1. What are We Doing?
2. Evaluating our Work
3. Getting Ready for Elections
4. Ban on Forced Recruitment
5. No More Torture
6. Let's Defend Human Rights at Police Precincts
7. How to Organize a Human Rights Committee
8. Make a Smile Possible: Say No to Abuse
9. Reproductive Rights and Human Rights
10. Leaders and Ethics
11. Children's Rights: Turning Words into Deeds
12. Your Vote Counts in Peru
13. The Truth Commission: For National Reconciliation without Vengeance
14. Disabled Persons and Human Rights
15. Different, but Equal

APPENDIX B. The Impact of Training Community Leaders in Human Rights and Democracy

Evaluations of the impact of IPEDEHP's program to train community leaders in human rights, democracy, and citizen participation were carried out in 1998 and 2001. In 1998, Marcia Bernbaum, as part of a broader case study on the program, conducted in-depth interviews of 20 community leaders. In 2001, as the program was coming to an end, Bernbaum conducted follow-up interviews with 18 of the 20 leaders she interviewed in 1998. Also in 2001, IPEDEHP administered a survey to 875 of the leaders participating in the program. Forty of the 875 individuals surveyed were also interviewed.

Data from the interviews and surveys confirm that most leaders have internalized human rights and democracy as a generalized practice in their lives. Although the nature of the specific impact varies from leader to leader, the data indicate that, for half the leaders or more, the impact has affected almost every aspect of their lives. This includes the way the leader sees himself/herself, the way the leader regards and treats other people in his/her environment, the way the leader interacts with members of his/her family, and the leader's performance on the job or at the workplace.

APPENDIX B. The Impact of Training Community Leaders in Human Rights
and Democracy (continued)

Impact on Leaders Themselves

Increased self-esteem (understood as the capacity to appreciate oneself, to overcome shyness, and to be more confident and self-assured) is a fundamental element in the IPEDEHP approach to train leaders who are promoters of human rights and democracy. Thus it is no surprise that the increase of leaders' self-esteem is the aspect mentioned most frequently in the evaluations. This result is reported most frequently in impact surveys (227 replies note an increase in self-esteem). It is also the most outstanding feature in the interviews conducted with the sample of 875 leaders who answered the impact questionnaire (33 out of 40 people). It is the aspect mentioned most often in the interviews conducted in 1998 (by 11 of the 20 leaders interviewed), and in the follow-up done on these same leaders in 2001 (10 out of 18 people interviewed). Although, in all cases, it is an aspect mentioned by men, women tend to refer more to this issue.[1]

A number of women and men claim to have overcome their shyness, thanks to the training they received through the program. Putting the methods and tools acquired from IPEDEHP into practice successfully has made them more sure of themselves when it comes to dealing with the public. They sense recognition and appreciation from the people they help. Furthermore, a number of them are more self-confident and are capable of voicing their opinions openly. In the case of women, several believe they have realized more of their potential and are more convinced of their own worth.

This result is entirely in keeping with the high level of energy and activism noted during the field observations. A person who has more self-confidence will be more motivated to encourage and disseminate human rights and democracy. It also ties in with the fact that some of the leaders who were interviewed are now regarded by their communities as authorities to whom people turn for advice or opinions on human rights and democracy. The following three testimonials (from many others) illustrate the impact of the increase in self-esteem on participants:

Eleana is a social worker in the department of Puno: "No one loves what they don't know, or gives what they don't have...I am now more concerned about myself. My colleagues and my brothers and sisters see me differently and appreciate my work. I value myself and know I have leadership qualities. When people come to interview me, I know they listen to what I say. By respecting and appreciating myself, I can do a better job."

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1. Twenty-four out of 26 women in interviews with 40 people; nine out of 11 women in the 1998 study; eight out of 10 women in the follow-up on the 1998 study done in 2001.

APPENDIX B. The Impact of Training Community Leaders in Human Rights and Democracy (continued)

Carmen Rosa makes jackets in Callao and is also on the board of a children's cafeteria: "I was afraid to speak in public, but not anymore. Now, the others have a lot of regard for me and ask for my advice and opinions on where they can go. Sometimes, they recommend me for a job, or want me to be a director."

Vidal is a young student from the department of Huancavelica who as a child, suffered from the violence that prevailed in his part of the country: "Conducting these activities on behalf of human rights makes me feel more humane each time. Now, we speak out about what we want. Before, we whispered our opinions. Now, we say them out loud.... I've replaced my low profile by speaking out in public about what I think. I've gained confidence; at one time, I didn't have any. This is with groups of friends and in everything....As far as personal appreciation is concerned, aside from having a better opinion of myself, there is recognition from others. Recognition from society is very important... but it shouldn't be the only thing that matters."

Impact on Leaders' Relationship with Others

Leaders and promoters of human rights and democracy must practice the basic values of human rights and democracy in their treatment of other people. The impact survey shows that leaders believe that they have changed the way they relate to others. The 875 respondents gave 536 replies related to this topic. The following tendencies were reported the most:

— Am now more tolerant (75 replies)
— Now have more respect for others (74)
— Am more inclined to share with others (66)
— Am more supportive (58)
— Have more appreciation for others (57)
— Am more responsible (52)
— Am more sensitive to others (37)

The same tendencies emerged in the interviews with 40 people. Of the 30 people who referred to this topic, the following aspects were mentioned most often:

APPENDIX B. The Impact of Training Community Leaders in Human Rights and Democracy (continued)

— I am now more supportive. (12)
— I am now more sensitive to others. (7)
— I am more responsible. (6)
— I am more honest/sincere. (6)
— I am more respectful. (5)
— I am more tolerant (4)
— I tend to discuss more with others. (4)
— I take part more. (4)

In addition, 8 of the 40 people interviewed mentioned a capacity for self-criticism, which is fundamental to changing the way we see others and relate to them.

APPENDIX C. How Participants Have Applied What they Learned through their Training in their Communities: An Example

The people selected for the program have come from a wide variety of backgrounds and have included peasants, housewives, school teachers, health promoters, human rights lawyers, and police officers. They also have come from a wide variety of ethnic backgrounds. A key criterion for their selection was that they were leaders in their community. The example below illustrates how two participants—both housewives—carried out lessons in their communities.

María and Rosa started by doing consciousness-raising among the people in their community. They took advantage of some additional short presentations to get to know the people better and to understand their problems. They realized that the people who attended their short courses, who were very humble, wanted to know their rights and how to defend them. Rosa observed, "They didn't feel capable of defending themselves when they were accused of terrorism or narco-trafficking."

People began coming to them to share their problems. They visited small communities outside of their city to see if the problems were true. Then their work began to grow. They were new at this. María recalled, "We talked among ourselves. What are we going to do with all the problems the people are bringing to our attention?"

APPENDIX C. How Participants Have Applied What They Learned through Their Training in Their Communities: An Example (continued)

They decided to go to the police, the Prefect, and the municipality to make these problems known. Rosa noted, "We said that we wanted to do something to stop the injustices we were seeing. At the beginning, the people we went to made fun of us. We didn't have any certification; only a diploma from IPEDEHP that we had photocopied and reduced. They began by throwing us out of their offices. They told us we were the lawyers of the terrorists, that we should go work with them. Then the District Attorney lent us his support and little by little the other authorities have lent us their support."

María continued: "This is how we decided to form the Human Rights Committee—the two of us plus two other community leaders who attended the IPEDEHP course. There was a swearing in and the next month we organized a replica of the IPEDEHP course for 49 community leaders. The Prefect, the governors of the nearby communities, 10 representatives from indigenous communities, community leaders, and leaders of community security forces attended. We got donations from various institutions for the course, among them from the municipality and the parish. Only one person from the regional government didn't understand and gave us problems. The rest were very content with the course and they congratulated us."

Rosa said, "We now have 49 promoters who are committed to working in favor of human rights. Each month they give us a listing of cases they have resolved. We visit the small communities to verify their data." Rosa and Maria observed that during the campaign for municipal elections,[2] many people want to be human rights promoters. "However, we tell them "No" because we do not want to confuse the promotion of human rights with political participation".

Immediately after they finished teaching their training course, María and Rosa went to the office of the District Attorney. He offered all the support necessary so that they could orient people in their rights. He asked them what he needed to do to help.

To date, María and Rosa have done a great deal to defend and promote human rights in their city. In addition to conducting a replica of the training they received from IPEDEHP, they have responded to numerous requests to give presentations on human rights in their city and in small communities nearby. Through the Human Rights Committee that they established, they attend to approximately 15 cases a day, three days a week, in an office that has been lent to them in the headquarters of the Prefect. They listen to, orient, and accompany people who seek them out to assist them with problems such as violation of minors, family violence, marital reconciliation, assistance to pregnant mothers, abandonment of the home by spouses, payment for food for children whose parents have abandoned the home.

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2. The municipal elections were programmed for October 11, 1998. The interview was carried out in the middle of May 1998.

APPENDIX C. How Participants Have Applied What They Learned through Their Training in Their Communities: An Example (continued)

They have had five "strong" cases of people who were unjustly accused and imprisoned: one due to terrorism, two for narco-trafficking, a girl jailed without any accusation, and a person accused of sexually violating another person. In all instances, they have been successful in getting the people released from jail.

In 1997 they were responsible, for six months, for a radio program on human rights, which they also used to familiarize the population in their region with the existence of the Human Rights Committee that they started. Also, in 1997, they issued a five-minute radio spot that addressed the topic of human rights. They have organized marches to protest violence against women. They are working with the director and teachers of a primary school attended by their children to introduce human rights in the primary curriculum. They want to create a shelter for abused children. They have obtained land through a donation and, through a program financed by USAID, have submitted a proposal to built the shelter. "The mayor said that if we make the proposal and get the funding, he will help us," they noted.

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Chapter 9

Building a Laboratory
for Peace in Colombia

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A Peace Laboratory in a poor and violence-torn part of Colombia is testing, implementing, and developing a new mission for universities. It is serving as a motor for regional development and the central agent in the search for social coexistence. The University of Ibagué's Program for Social Development includes a series of activities:

- An adult literacy and basic education project serves displaced persons and people with a low level of formal education.
- A diploma-level course teaches ways to use virtual education to train community leaders in towns isolated by violence.
- A technical and technological training center (a type of community college) offers a wide array of short and longer-term courses, and serves individuals who cannot afford to study at a university or who have suffered displacement because of violence and war in Colombia.
- Three diploma-level courses for "educational agents" with professional training (teachers, professors, lawyers, social workers) focus on the peaceful resolution of conflict.
- Training for teachers helps them work with traumatized displaced children and their families.

The programs have used innovative methodologies, produced educational materials, trained teachers, and developed virtual education processes to serve a population that is living in deplorable conditions of poverty and abandonment. The program offers a flexible model for potential use in other violence-torn societies.

Stopping the Cycle of Violence

Colombia, a multicultural democratic republic with over 40 million inhabitants, is severely impacted by internal violence. For over 30 years, Colombia has experienced turmoil, due in part to rapid population growth, as well as social imbalances in the distribution of wealth and economic opportunity. Conflicts have ranged from labor and class confrontations to open conflict among guerrilla fighters, paramilitaries, and the nation's military and police forces. Violence has evolved dramatically during the last decade, with an increase in drug trafficking and the intervention of world terrorist networks. These conflicts threaten the democratic foundations of society, which has struggled during the last 200 years to develop a nation with representative democracy, liberty, balanced social and economic development, and respect for human rights. Many institutions of government and civil society are seeking to stop the cycle of violence and to create an environment for attaining a durable peace and progressive development.

The violence has resulted in over 30,000 deaths in the last 10 years, thousands of kidnappings, and the displacement of population groups on a daily basis (estimates are between 850,000 and 2,500,000 individuals). Nationwide problems of conflict also manifest themselves in drug-related violence, intra-family feuds, and criminal and inter-personal violence. Violence and corruption are real and tangible occurrences within Colombian society, and this has delegitimized the State. Many Colombians lack trust and belief in formal institutions. There is a general sense that current political groups do not reflect the interests of society as a whole.

The department (state) of Tolima, where the University Corporation of Ibagué (CORUNIVERSITARIA) and its Peace Laboratory Program are located, has 1.4 million inhabitants (see box 9.1). It has a 25 percent unemployment rate—principally because of long-term violence. The FARC, the most powerful of the guerrilla fractions in Colombia, began in Tolima and it, along with other guerrilla and paramilitary groups, exert control over 70 percent of the department's territory.[1] This situation restricts transit between different regions

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1. The FARC is Marxist-Maoist in orientation. It seeks to achieve political power by force of arms, and its influence has increased with an influx of resources from drug trafficking. Recent events have shown the FARC has no reservations about using terrorist tactics to frighten the population and strengthen its hold.

of Tolima, constraining commerce and the provision of essential services, such as health and education. People living in the countryside have been forced to flee their homes and have become internally displaced. Many have moved to Tolima's capital city, Ibagué. The standard of living in Ibagué has declined as displaced persons have set up makeshift dwellings along main avenues. Many people have suffered from violence, the destruction of agriculture, and the resulting poverty and social isolation. The increase of juvenile delinquency is alarming, generating a need for rehabilitation activities as well as new opportunities for education and work.

As the Colombian conflict escalated and serious violence-related problems increasingly affected Tolima and Ibagué, the Corporación Universitaria de Ibagué (CORUNIVERSITARIA) together with other state and city agencies, decided to address such issues as structural unemployment, illiteracy, displacement of people caused by violence, and the prevalence of many community conflicts.

CORUNIVERSITARIA, a private, non-profit institution of higher education, was founded in 1980 by a group of private businessmen and leaders in Tolima to provide undergraduate and graduate programs, continuing education, and technical and technological training programs. CORUNIVERSITARIA has developed several projects and activities to address severe community problems, such as:

• Conflict resolution and mediation
• Training to work with children of displaced families who have suffered significant trauma
• Literacy and adult basic education activities
• Virtual learning systems that meet education and skills training needs in remote rural towns in zones isolated by violence, and
• Training in work, administrative, and entrepreneurial skills for people who have been forcibly displaced by armed conflicts and are living in extreme poverty.

Given the current circumstances of the conflict in Colombia, CORUNIVERSITARIA does not try to return displaced people to their places of origin. Rather, it facilitates their incorporation into the daily life of the communities where they now live. For this reason, the university encourages exchanges between displaced persons and the surrounding social groups. CORUNIVERSITARIA tries to reach out to these communities without distinction to place of origin or family situation.

The Social Development Program

The university launched its Social Development Program in 1993, with a regional focus to promote development in Tolima: the city of Ibagué and seven municipios (counties) in the department, including Ataco, Líbano, Chaparral, San Antonio, Villarrica, Alpujarra, and Rio Blanco. In these areas, the state presence, including security, is limited and the populace is to some extent abandoned.

The Social Development Program aims to contribute to the social, cultural, and economic development of the region through educational activities addressed to groups of individuals who are affected by violence, displacement, or poverty. The specific objectives are to:

• Find options to address unemployment in the region, due among other factors to an increase in the number of displaced people.
• Conduct research projects on the use of information technology to develop education projects and to reintegrate regions that have been isolated by violence.
• Promote adult literacy (reading, writing, and basic mathematics) by offering low-income individuals an opportunity to finish elementary and secondary school.
• Form and consolidate groups of young people committed to a culture of coexistence through the peaceful resolution of conflicts, who will become useful change agents in their communities.
• Train teachers to serve the children of displaced families by providing them educational, psychological, legal, theoretical, and practical elements for their work.
• Analyze the role of education in each of the activities that are undertaken in order to create social development models for use in other sectors and communities.

The belief that a regional Peace Laboratory is possible is based on that premise that key actors in the peace movement often lack opportunities to access education in general. The Social Development Program of Coruniversitaria aims to support them by implementing formative, organizational, and communication processes.

The program design features great flexibility and constant innovation in order to deal with the multiple problems that beset Tolima's society and to meet the learning needs of many different types of people.

The program has evolved over time. The first activity was a literacy and basic education program for adults called AVANCEMOS (Programa de Alfabetización y Educación Básica, the Program for Literacy and Basic Education), implemented

in 1993. This was followed by four more projects contributing to regional development.

The Centro San José, founded in 1999, is an autonomous technical and technological training center (a type of community college). It offers a wide array of short and longer-term courses. Some are equivalent to two years of university education; others meet learning objectives related to work or citizenship.

In 2000-01, a diploma-level course was held on ways to use virtual education to train community leaders in towns isolated by violence, called Participatory Virtual Education (Educación virtual activa, or EVA).

Since 2002, three diploma-level courses have focused on conflict management. They train "educational agents" with professional training (teachers, professors, lawyers, social workers).

Also since 2002, training has been extended to teachers who work with forcibly displaced children.

BOX 9.1 Violence and Crime in Tolima

As of 2003, the FARC, the most powerful of the guerrilla fractions in Colombia, was present in 30 of the 47 towns (*municipios*) in Tolima; the AUC (Colombian United Self-Defense Leagues), a paramilitary organization, was present in 29; and the ELN (Ejercito de liberación nacional, National Army of Liberation) was present in five. More than half (56 percent) of the department mayors have been threatened by criminal groups. In 2003, 73 kidnappings occurred in the department. Some 2.5 percent of the department's total population—34,930 people—were displaced because of violence, according to official statistics for 2002. Currently, about 2,600 displaced individuals reside in Ibagué, according to data from the Centro San José Project; 451 are direct beneficiaries of the Centro.

The poverty level in the department is 66.4 percent. Nearly one-third of the population lives in extreme poverty. The unemployment rate is the highest in the country: 25.2 percent. The increase in crime perpetrated by minors is alarming.

Several administrative sections of the university have participated in the implementation of these projects. The School of Humanities and Social Sciences supervises and directs the diploma course to train teachers, the participatory virtual education course (EVA), and the AVANCEMOS program, which has its own administrative structure. The School of Law directs the diploma course for training leaders in conflict resolution. The program for technical and technological training required the creation of an autonomous institution, the Centro San José. The Center has its own administration, an independent location and organizational structure, and a strategic alliance with the Salesian Society, a religious community that manages social development programs throughout the world. This program receives technical advice from all CORUNIVERSITARIA schools, but mainly from the Department of Engineering.

The programs span several educational levels. Literacy activities are conducted at the basic educational level. Technical training is carried out in the areas of cosmetology and hair dressing, bakery and pastry skills, international cuisine, drawing and oil painting, machine sewing, and making jewelry, accessories, and party decorations. Technical updating and in-depth training activities are focused on computer assembly and maintenance, printer maintenance, systems development, refrigeration, woodworking, and welding. At more professional levels, the program offers activities in the fields of wood and metal cabinet-making, dressmaking, and systems development. At the level of technological education, the Center offers professional courses in electronics, systems development, industrial mechanics, accounting and finance, marketing, and sales. At the level of higher education, the activities are conducted through the EVA diploma courses in leadership, teaching displaced children and families, and conflict resolution.

The projects are coordinated by the university's Council of Founders. This ensures ideological and methodological unity throughout the various activities.

Methodologies

In the search for broader educational approaches that will meet the needs of adults, regardless of their educational level, the university strives to make higher education more flexible. For this reason, innovation and experimentation in the processes of various activities are of great importance.

Different educational methodologies are used in each of the five projects. They range from lectures by professors to meetings and workshops; from simple teaching systems to those using electronic media; from sequential processes with different grades and levels to short modular activities; from formal school systems to open and flexible non-traditional systems. Various methodologies and educational media have been used, including literacy systems, workshops for practice in technical and technological areas, computers, the Internet, educational booklets, school texts, films, videos, and radio and TV programs.

Communication and Support

To implement and establish these projects, CORUNIVERSITARIA has worked with public and private institutions, including the Salesian Society; COLCIENCIAS, a Colombian institution responsible for scientific and technological development; CAFAM, an institution for family assistance that has developed its own efficiency-tested literacy systems; MISEREOR, a German Catholic agency for cooperation; DMOS COMIDE, a Belgium missionary cooperation agency that provides assistance for development; FUPAD, the U.S.-based Pan-American Foundation for Development; BIMA, a private Colombian furniture manufacturer; and several institutions of the Colombian Government, including the Colombian Counsel for People's Defense, the Ibagué Provincial Procurator's Office, the Family Procurator's Office, and the Office of the Ibagué Representative for Human Rights.

CORUNIVERSITARIA regularly submits reports to these institutions, depending on their level of involvement in the various projects. It also reports to the university's directive bodies and regularly publishes information on the development of projects in the newspaper Boletín CORUNIVERSITARIA, and through the media in Ibagué and throughout Tolima.

Financing

Most of the projects require continuous funding, not only from CORUNIVERSITARIA but also from other national and international institutions.

• The Centro San José is financed by DMOS-COMIDE, FUPAD, local industries and businesses, the Salesian Society, and CORUNIVERSITARIA.

- The Leadership Diploma Course for isolated towns, conducted through EVA, was financed by COLCIENCIAS and CORUNIVERSITARIA as an experimental activity.
- The AVANCEMOS Program, which focuses on literacy and basic education, is financed by CORUNIVERSITARIA (80 percent) and the participants (20 percent).
- The Diploma Course on Conflict Resolution is financed by the German cooperation agency GTZ (Gessellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit).
- The Diploma Course for Teachers of Displaced Children has been financed by state agencies at the local level (85 percent) and by CORUNIVERSITARIA (15 percent).

Because each project is managed as a separate and clearly defined cost center, accounts are transparent. This facilitates the implementation of activities and generates confidence in the institutions involved, thus helping to increase the scope of influence of the program.

Evaluation and Monitoring

A internal evaluation is conducted for each project developed by the university. CORUNIVERSITARIA's Council of Founders meets twice a year for a general review of these evaluations. The minutes of these meetings are published, including the issues discussed, results and projections, and future plans. These documents are easily accessible to the public. External evaluations are conducted to identify results at qualitative, statistical, and financial levels, as well as to describe quality assurance processes. These evaluations are very useful in conveying project results and impacts, especially to the institutions that provide financial and other support.

Products, Results, and Impacts

There have been 8,050 direct beneficiaries, including:

- 4,995 graduates and students of the Centro San José
- 2,594 individuals who received literacy training in Ibagué between 1993 and 2002
- 325 adults trained through the diploma course on conflict resolution developed in Ataco, Líbano, Chaparral, San Antonio, and Villarrica
- 86 individuals trained in leadership and the use of new technologies through the diploma course on virtual education
- 50 teachers trained to work with displaced children.

The greatest impact of the AVANCEMOS literacy program has been the motivation it gives adults to continue their education. This has led them to complete elementary school courses and has enabled them to obtain high school diplomas. The program has also provided support for programs at the Centro San José, functioning as point of entry for training in technical and technological professions.

Because the diploma courses are new, no evaluations have been completed to demonstrate their impact on training teachers who work with displaced children or on the preparation of leaders in the area of conflict resolution. However, the professionals who took these courses are employed by official institutions, the Secretariat of Education, and Houses of Justice (*Casas de Justicia*). In the opinion of these employers, the training programs have been successful and should have a follow-up evaluation, which would require additional funding.

The EVA program not only produced learning benefits for participants but raised confidence and hope among isolated communities affected by the conflict. They viewed this program as a way to receive services and remain integrated with the region and the nation. The program also helped CORUNIVERSITARIA, which has been associated with other virtual education programs at national and international levels, make important methodological and pedagogical progress in this field. This program has provided the basis for a transfer of experience to other fields, such as teaching in engineering or humanities. It also allowed Centro San José to extend its services and assist other communities affected by violent conflicts.

Centro San José is perhaps the program with the greatest impact at the local and regional levels. Along with creating microenterprises and family businesses, the Center's programs help to lower the high unemployment rates in the city. To this end, the requests of companies for training in essential skills are noteworthy. Other towns and communities in the department and region have asked the Center to extend its services to them. Several Colombian universities have expressed interest in transferring this experience to other cities and regions. Moreover, the Center has become a support center for strengthening intermediate technical training at the high-school level in Ibague. In this way, it is extending its influence to the secondary education level.

Lessons Learned at the Centro San José

The creation and implementation of Centro San José as an autonomous institution has lent cohesion and relevance to the other activities in the Social Development Program. Such a center can be replicated by institutions in other locations and circumstances. Some of the main lessons learned from this experience are summarized below.

Managerial autonomy with institutional dependence.

The institution belongs to the university. The university's administrative bodies (Council of Founders, the Board of Directors, and the Rector) watch over and are committed to the Center. Its director is appointed by the university Rector. However, the Centro's director and board of directors are responsible for its administrative, academic, and financial management. Auditing and supervision are conducted by competent bodies of the university.

Broad range of programs offered.

The Center offers six technological programs recognized by the Colombian Institute for Higher Education (ICFES), four technical programs, ten arts and crafts programs, eight extension courses, which vary according to demand (non-formal education), three "practice" programs, and seven programs for displaced persons.

Flexible programming.

The duration and intensity of programs are planned according to the demand for training. Programs are scheduled or suspended in accordance with the needs of their users and the possibilities for their personal development or incorporation into the job market.

Strategic alliances with public and private sectors

The Center maintains close contact with companies and organizations to identify the demand for skilled labor and to establish strategic alliances to capitalize on employment and financial opportunities. For example, to take advantage of export opportunities under the Andean Trade Preference Act (ATPA), the Center provided training for 3,000 garment workers.

Community participation is important

Participation builds support for the programs, helps the Center identify and meet needs, and builds community commitment to long-term development. In particular, surveys and work with community groups provides an educational profile of possible program participants. Social workers are available to verify the needs of users' families. The Center participates in meetings and assemblies at the community level to identify needs and make appropriate program changes.

Relevance of strategic programs and immediate response mechanism.

Low-income populations are assisted and specific programs are prepared for towns affected by violence (displaced persons). Opportunities offered by nation-wide programs aimed at solving these problems are utilized. An appropriate philosophy has been developed for addressing the problems of these populations (community integration rather than return or relocation).

Continuous mutual learning and evaluation

The various divisions of the university (Dean's offices, research centers, administrative offices) constantly analyze the progress achieved by Centro San José and try to incorporate its experiences into overall program management. Centro San José also benefits from contributions of the university in the areas of human resource development, enterprise development, social welfare, and general instruction.

Diversified financial support and financial sustainability

Diversified support is essential to ensuring both program sustainability and innovation. All program participants must make cash or in-kind contributions to Centro San José. The university and the City of Ibagué, as well as the religious community of the Salesians, contributed to the initiation of the Center. Contracts are made with private and public institutions that support its programs. International funding has been obtained to conduct specific programs.

Strict accounting controls to track spending and contributions

It is possible to verify the costs and track all contributions received for each program through the use of strict accounting standards. The Center strives to be fully accountable to all funders and the community at large.

Virtual technology

Based on the experience and lessons learned from the EVA program, Centro San José is beginning to design virtual education systems in response to requests from towns, especially where people cannot access educational opportunities because of violence. Urgent support is required for this program to meet the rising demand.

Best Practices

Overall, the Social Development Program has yielded some best practices of relevance to others.

Interest and dedication of the directors

The university's Council of Founders, as the highest authority, and its Board of Directors, as the executive body, are constantly involved in program promotion, control, and administrative strategies. Together, they provide frequent orientation, define policies for institutional management, and direct program supervision and follow-up. The Rector and individuals responsible for each project are required to report to the Council and the Board. These reports include a detailed supervision of accounts that is submitted to institutions providing funding or other resources for project activities.

The gradual progress of program development

The growth of the program and its increase in complexity have occurred gradually, with new activities added to create a comprehensive program and maintain program quality. From the beginning, each activity or project established a target population, set up a transparent management system, and was evaluated in terms of its processes and results. The result was a group of activities with major impact at the regional level, and potential for replication and adoption at the national level.

Distinct boundaries between activities

Each project has its own boundaries with regard to its target population, methodologies, production and utilization of work materials, evaluation systems, financing processes, and accounting systems. The suspension or completion of one activity does not affect the program as a whole. The various activities provide lessons and methodologies that can be used in other activities or to plan new ones. For example, while the EVA Project has been temporarily suspended, it has led to activities for training, implementation, and development used by other areas of the university and by other specific projects, such as Centro San José.

Internal monitoring

In addition to external evaluations conducted by funding institutions and supervision by university directors, each activity develops its own internal monitoring process for program guidance. This allows the officers in charge to measure, correct, or plan for the improvement of project tasks as required.

Transparency

Accounting control and transparency in accounts rendered are of special importance. They make it possible to define, specify, and evaluate each program as a separate cost center. For this reason, institutions funding the projects of the Social Development Program have developed a high level of trust in the university. This trust, in turn, has facilitated the securing of additional resources from both national and international agencies.

Information and participation

CORUNIVERSITARIA not only regularly informs other organizations, but also involves them in frequent consultative processes and offers them venues for conducting specific activities.

Conclusions and Final Comments

The CORUNIVERSITARIA Social Development Program was developed in a setting of conflict and dramatic socioeconomic need. The Program clearly

demonstrates that significant activities for achieving peace can be developed and implemented in times and places where conflict is occurring. The support of communities and their leaders has been essential for securing funds and in-kind resources required to carry out program activities.

The Social Development Program sets clear objectives, uses complete program development processes, evaluates program processes and results, and has open financial management. This level of technical quality has helped to ensure Program credibility, transparency and accountability. The Program serves as an example for communities and countries that face severe problems with respect to democratic values, human rights, unemployment, and illiteracy. It is also a model for higher education institutions that are experimenting with similar types of programs in other regions of Colombia and elsewhere. It has served over 8,000 individuals, and indirectly it has influenced many more people in each student's family, workplace, and neighborhood. It has opened doors of hope to people who had found them closed because of violence. Very possibly, the reconstruction of a country will be achieved only when activities such as these are replicated nationwide.

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Part V
Bilingual Education for Minority Ethnic Groups

Chapter 10

Promoting Literacy and Women's Development in Mayan Communities in Guatemala

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Empowering Ethnic Minorities in the Cambodian Highlands

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Chapter 10

Promoting Literacy and Women's Development in Mayan Communities in Guatemala

Hugo Estrada Armas

For poor and marginalized ethnic communities ravaged by war, bilingual education can be the bridge to integration into the larger society and a means of preserving cultural heritage. For the nation as a whole, multilingual and multicultural education can lead to respect and acceptance of diversity as the basis for building a participatory democracy. A program in Guatemala aimed at the Mayan community demonstrates that bilingual education programs can be developed successfully in the wake of a prolonged civil war. Combining adult literacy instruction with community development, and targeting indigenous young women—an especially marginalized group—the bilingual approach has proven to be self-sustaining, even after external funding ended, because it has met the needs of the participants.

The program—the Mayan Community Literacy Project (COMAL)—has been very successful in expanding literacy and reducing the school dropout rate. Initiated in 1999 and officially in operation until 2002—although the methodology continues to be employed in other programs— it served about 35,560 young women during its four-year period. Developed in conjunction with numerous Guatemalan nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) with experience in the Mayan community, the methodology used—Integrated Community Literacy Teaching (ACI)—is based on participants' experiences and features active literacy-teaching processes. The success of integrated literacy teaching lies with the fact that adults learn about topics that will be of immediate personal, family, and community benefit. Women learn how to read and write at the same time as they improve their knowledge on how to weave, sow gardens, and raise their children, for example.

The idea of associating literacy teaching with activities, content, and projects for community development, as opposed to establishing it as an end in itself, is the most important component of the community literacy project. Before COMAL was launched, literacy teaching in Guatemala was conducted in a traditional way and with methods that relied heavily on formal schooling. Functional integrated literacy methods, which have been very successful in other countries, have proven very useful in Guatemala, as well.

Ending a Legacy of Pain

As many as seven out of ten rural women in Guatemala are illiterate—particularly Mayan women in the rural area of the Zonapaz.[1] (Guatemalan men have more opportunity to learn to read and write. They tend to travel more, or have gained literacy as soldiers.) Female illiteracy worsened during the civil war that ravaged the country for forty years.

As a result of this prolonged strife, Guatemala continues to face major social, economic, and political problems. For example, 75 percent of its population live below the poverty line, and most of these impoverished people are Mayan Indians. Hundreds of thousands of people lack land and suffer chronic human rights abuses that have left a legacy of pain between the social classes.

The 1996 peace agreements outlined a long-term development strategy to overcome these problems. They stressed the need to improve access to education and training, including adult literacy and bilingual education, as immediate courses of action. A national goal was established to achieve 70 percent adult literacy in as many indigenous languages as technically possible. As the Guatemalan economy gradually stabilized and the rate of inflation declined, literacy programs increased, particularly due to the efforts of the governmental institution responsible for literacy in Guatemala, the National Committee for Literacy Teaching (CONALFA).

The project was established in rural areas where the population is largely indigenous, the K'iche and Ixil languages predominate, and where many of the people are monolingual in those languages. The project was carried out

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1. The Zonapaz is the "zone of peace," composed of departments (states) with predominantly Mayan communities where the conflict was most intence.

through the collaboration of 16 nongovernmental organizations that were already conducting a variety of projects in the communities where they are located. A few had experience in literacy teaching. The number and range of NGOs that are dedicated to community development contributed to the success of the project. Their personnel have a command of the local languages. They know the cultures in the rural communities they serve, and have grassroots community organizations with ongoing projects where communities are well organized and the environment is favorable for receiving and imparting adult education and training. This strategy helped reduce the school dropout rate and enhance the quality of project results.

Origin of the Project

In 1999, the United States government approved a fund for financing literacy programs in Guatemala and called for bids to administer and conduct the program. The contract was awarded to Save the Children USA, which presented an innovative proposal with support from the University of Massachusetts International Center for Education. The Alliance for Community Youth Development (ADEJUC) was selected as the Guatemalan counterpart. As the representative of the U.S. government in Guatemala, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) acts as a liaison with Guatemalan governmental organizations responsible for literacy teaching. This was the case of the National Committee for Literacy Teaching (CONALFA). Save the Children signed a cooperative agreement with CONALFA to implement literacy-teaching processes through the use of an alternative methodology.

At the end of that same year, the COMAL Project, centered on Mayan communities, contacted a series of nongovernmental organizations in the Zonapaz that had experience and ongoing projects in community development—specifically in the departments of Sololá, Totonicapán, Quetzaltenango, San Marcos, and northern Suchitepéquez, where illiteracy is the highest, particularly among rural indigenous women. In this way, nongovernmental organizations with years of experience in working with rural communities in the project's target zone were included as program counterparts. This strategy was applied during the 1999–2001 period.

The organizations present in these areas operated in close coordination with departmental and municipal officials of CONALFA. This enabled them to be

assigned exclusively to certain geographic areas in which to develop their projects, primarily the areas where they were already had other projects for community development, education, and/or income production.

A new government took office in 2000, when the candidate of the Guatemalan Republican Front was elected, resulting in a change in the management of CONALFA. One of the priorities of the new administration was literacy, as outlined in the Social Plan of the Government of the Republic of Guatemala for the Educational Sector, which was presented in 2002. This gave an added boost to the work being done by COMAL in these areas.

From the start, the COMAL Project proposed applying the Integrated Community Literacy model, known as the ACI, to the Mayan community. This approach was encouraged by the technical staff of the project, under the direction of an expert from the University of Massachusetts. These individuals made contributions to COMAL at the end of 1999 and during part of 2000. Nevertheless, the initial stage was slow. By 2000, there were a few training activities, particularly bilingual education in the K'iche, Ixil, and Spanish languages. It was not until 2001 that the curriculum was prepared and the methodology defined, thanks to a team of Guatemalan experts and the involvement of specialists, facilitators, and participants from the different organizations.

Given the multilingual and multicultural situation in Guatemala, it was decided the specific features of the country's social, economic, and cultural conditions would define the primary changes in the curriculum and the methodology. This would enhance the quality and relevance of the curriculum. *Quality* is understood as that which responds as adequately as possible to the social, cultural, linguistic, economic, and spiritual features of the population for which it is intended (in this case, the Mayan population). *Relevance* is understood as adaptation of the entire literacy-teaching program: that is, the contents, materials, methodological strategies, and the type and amount of learning necessary. These all must be adapted to the way in which the literacy process is supported by the community, and guided with strong commitment to relevance by the extension worker or literacy teacher.

Philosophy: Active, Participatory, Flexible, and Democratic

The curriculum promoted by the ACI approach encourages the use of an active methodology that is participatory, flexible, and democratic. It must also be in keeping with the participant's culture, native language, and the needs of the group and the community.

It is active because it makes the participants become the subjects and protagonists of their own learning process. It enables them to become involved in decisions regarding program organization, timetables, calendars, and planning for the literacy-teaching process. At the same time, it allows for the inclusion of topics and contents that have special meaning for each group. This is part of a democratic process for making decisions and adapting the learning process to the culture and native language of the participants.

Because the communities have their own particular features and problems, as well as their own values, culture, and peculiarities, the community's direct experience is the point of departure for all educational activities generated within the literacy education group.

Bilingual Literacy as a Foundation of Cultural and National Identity

A literacy program must start with the understanding that language plays an important role as a vehicle for interpreting reality from a human and community perspective. It is one of the ways to express a person's view of the world, culture, ideology, and philosophical frame of reference. Literacy teaching—understood as a process that leads to a command of the written language—implies starting with the mother tongue as a way to consolidate and reflect on the practices of community life. The idea is not to violate these cultural identities, but rather to enrich them and then to help them to grow through the exploring cultures different from one's own. The bilingual approach in intercultural education guides this action in order to arrive at an appropriate concept of national identity.

Intercultural, bilingual literacy education aims to help participants gain a better command of the native language, both oral and written, plus a command of Spanish, the nation's main language, as a second language. The

importance of learning from and within the native language and culture is based on the following principles:

- The process of learning to read and write is easier in one's native language, as are the acquisition of new knowledge and the development of skills and abilities for thinking.
- Having an oral and written command of one's first language makes it easier to learn a second language.
- Using the native language as a starting point throughout the entire literacy teaching process reinforces cultural identity.
- A strengthening of intercultural, bilingual literacy education is, in and of itself, an important contribution to democracy, peace, and sustainable development.

Starting to learn in a second language before mastering one's native language is a source of tension in bilingual literacy teaching. An important element for success in any literacy teaching process is to be able to meet the learning expectations of those who are illiterate. In Mayan communities, these expectations almost always respond to a desire and need to learn to read and write in Spanish before doing so the Mayan language. Nevertheless, it is important to keep an open mind and to understand that reinforcing the native language also reinforces the group's culture and identity.

Intercultural, bilingual literacy must also play a role in literacy teaching for Spanish speakers. A knowledge of Mayan cultures and their linguistic expressions should be encouraged. This will make it possible to construct a broader concept of what it means to be a nation, one in which the multicultural and multilingual nature of things translates into behavior that implies respect and acceptance of diversity as the basis for building a participatory democracy. This is why the COMAL Project encourages intercultural, bilingual literacy teaching as part of its curriculum approach.

Adult Education: A Focus on the Practical

Participatory education for adults is based on formal and non-formal strategies for learning. It is formal in the sense that it is planned, takes place at a specific location, and is based on outlines and programs. It is flexible in that it considers the participant's prior experience, takes advantage of spontaneous learning, and most importantly, it is not limited solely to knowledge. It also addresses skills and attitudes.

Every human being learns new things throughout life, but many learning processes are guided by other experiences. Schools, books, training workshops, and manuals, for instance, help to convey ideas and processes. Nevertheless, none of these strategies can replace the need to learn something simply through practice. Adults look for that which is functional and is an immediate necessity in their lives. If literacy teaching responds to their immediate needs, adults will remain motivated until the end.

The ACI Curriculum

The primary objective of the ACI curriculum being promoted by the COMAL Project in Guatemala is to reinforce community development through literacy teaching as a way to achieve empowerment, respect for human rights and cultures, and gender equity.

In a more specific way, it seeks to heighten self-esteem by reinforcing cultural identification and helping participants obtain and use reading, writing, and mathematical skills in actions related to themselves, to the group, or to the community. It strengthens and consolidates the participants' relationships with the group in terms of generating respect for personal identity, the rights and dignity of the individual, and relationships based on equality between men and women, and also promotes activities to improve the community's living conditions.

FUNCTIONAL LITERACY TEACHING. In the COMAL Project, the goal of literacy teaching is not to complete a stage or cycle, but to acquire skills, resources, and habits for using reading and writing in everyday life to:

• Solve personal, family, and community problems
• Gain access to resources
• Function effectively on a daily basis
• Contribute to the development of one's community
• Maintain a cultural identity in a changing society
• Encourage changes in the participant's way of life
• Acquire new skills and knowledge that will enable the participation to play an effective role in his/her social and work group.

INTEGRATING LITERACY TEACHING WITH COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT. One of the principles of the ACI curriculum is that literacy teaching must be based on the needs and interest of the participants. Accordingly, it is tied closely to the social dynamics of the community and to its productive activities, which are manifestations of community development. Because literacy teaching is part of community development, it allows for:

- Disadvantaged rural indigenous communities to be included as subjects of the country's social development
- Involvement of participants and their creative and active participation
- An increase in the capacity for earning income and resource management to implement projects for community and family development
- Access to training to improve the participant's skills and knowledge, and to take advantage of the mass media (press, radio, and television)
- Adoption of a constructive attitude toward solving personal, family, and community problems.

PARTICIPATION. The literacy teaching process as part of the ACI curriculum encourages interaction among agents, resources, and processes within the community. As a result, all literacy teaching processes are implemented through local development organizations that are active in the areas where the project is carried out.

SELF-MANAGEMENT AND EMPOWERMENT. Another principle and merit of the ACI curriculum is the idea that literacy teaching as part of community development must lead participants to appropriate their own processes (empowerment). The figure of the facilitator must give way to self-determination on the part of those who are learning, to decision making, and to accepting responsibility for the design, execution, and management of each and every activity they undertake. Therefore, learning is aligned to processes for community development, empowerment, and self-management on the part of local organizations, to a strengthening of leadership, and to participation in decision making.

CENTERED ON THE PARTICIPANT. All learning originates with and for the student. The literacy teacher is only an intermediary between the participants and the tools for learning to read and write. As a mediator, the teacher encourages an "encounter" with knowledge, beginning with the know-how, experience, values, and motivation the student already possesses. This

includes encouragement to learn to read, write, and to understand one's native language, as a way to consolidate cultural identity, in addition to reading, writing, and understanding a second language, which is crucial to establishing a more harmonious relationship and becoming more effectively involved with other cultures. All materials and resources used for learning must be related to this know-how and experience.

EXPERIENCE AS A STARTING POINT. The participant's experience, in terms of his/her need for knowledge, growth, and personal, family, and community development, is the crux of the literacy teaching process. Women learn how to read and write at the same time they improve their knowledge on how to weave, sow gardens, and raise their children well, for example.

CONTEXTUALIZATION. Literacy teaching is adapted to the social, economic, and cultural situation and the specific social conditions in which the process is developed. It incorporates the cultural, socioeconomic, and educational diversity of the participants, their families, and communities as a source of learning. This helps to make what is learned useful to the participant's life. The local and community situation is taken into account, as are existing circumstances at national level and worldwide, keyed to participants' experience in their families and communities.

The ACI Methodology

The ACI methodology has two stages, which are divided into five successive steps. Each stage lasts 240 hours. The first stage involves learning to read and write in the native or first language. The second stage consolidates and strengthens reading and writing skills; participants move on to the second language.

In both stages, each step is developed around a specific topic intended to generate learning that strengthens aspects related to the individual, the group, the community, reading, writing, and mathematics, using simple participatory techniques.

These techniques give rise to discussion, analysis, and particularly to words and phrases that help the participant learn to read and write. The role of the facilitator is particularly important. He or she must key in to learners and help them learn new forms of expression, based on the experiences that adult participants already possess.

The first stage is conducted using exercise books that deal with a specific topic in the following sequence: the individual, human rights, gender equity, intercultural relations, and community development. These topics were selected on the basis of experience gained while the COMAL project was being developed, and they were validated with the personnel of the organizations that took part.

The development of these topics, in a gradual way, is used to strengthen various aspects of the individual, the group, and the community, as well as reading-writing skills and mathematical proficiency. This stage is conducted in each group's native language (L1). Upon completion of the first stage, the participant takes a test to receive official credit for attaining this stage, as authorized by the National Committee for Literacy Teaching (CONALFA).

The second stage is developed on the basis of reading primers and is conducted in each group's second language (L2). In the case of Mayan-speaking communities, the second language is Spanish. It follows the same five topics in the same sequence. A test approved by CONALFA is given at the end of the second stage. Passing this test is equivalent to first stage of post-literacy teaching.

Agents of the ACI Curriculum

The ACI methodology involves different agents who put the literacy-teaching process into practice. The interaction generated among them is crucial to learning and to the project's influence to the community.

1. *THE PARTICIPANTS.* Most of the participants are young women who live in the rural area of the Zonapaz. All of them were inhabitants of Mayan-speaking departments in the Zonapaz. The COMAL Project served 39,559 adult women. They were organized into 2,553 groups, with an average of 10 to 15 participants per group.

2. *THE FACILITATORS.* The facilitators are people who live in the community, have a basic knowledge of reading and writing, and exercise a certain leadership within the groups comprising their community. They are familiar with the participant's community environment and they have a personal relationship with each and every member of the literacy-teaching group. The facilitators work with the NGOs that received funding to carry out the ACI

process. Their job entails being in permanent contact with the participants. They receive 10 days of training. This enables them to work with groups of participants, using the techniques developed by the organizations that are responsible for the process.

Most of the facilitators are women. The COMAL Project had approximately 2,500 facilitators, three-quarters of whom were women. The facilitators met with the communities for a total of 240 hours. In collaboration with group members, they decided on the days and the number of hours they would work.

3. *THE TECHNICAL SPECIALIST.* The technical specialist was selected by the NGO to accompany and support the facilitator during the literacy-teaching process. The technical specialist is someone from the community who speaks and knows the languages in question and is familiar with the local culture. Most of the specialists who were involved in the project have a secondary education and had been trained by their organization on the fundamental aspects of the curriculum and the methodology used in the COMAL Project. The technical specialist supports, guides, and trains the facilitator to manage and develop the ACI process, and provides help and support and encouragement to the facilitator in solving problems and proceeding with his or her work.

4. *THE NGO* is responsible for providing the vision and support necessary for a high-quality ACI process. It is also responsible for the methodology and programming.

5. *THE FUNDING AGENCIES* support the vision and provide the financing required to implement the process in the neediest areas. In the case of the COMAL Project, the funding agencies were the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the European Community (EC). Their entire financial support was used to pay the fees of the facilitators and the technical specialists, and to acquire the materials used by the facilitators and the participants (exercise books, pencils, paper, pasteboard, and the like).

Evaluation and Monitoring

The gathering and analysis of quantitative information was updated during the process, with the help of a software program from a U.S. company named DATA PRO. A complete study of 11 cases has also been conducted. The results of this research are being used to reorient the methodology and to

improve the process, as needed. Sixteen member organizations have software installed by DATA PRO and they have used it to monitor their statistics.

The same software was installed at the 22 regional offices of CONALFA that coordinate fieldwork with COMAL. The registration and evaluation charts for 2001 have been processed by the system, making data registration much easier.

During the course of the COMAL Project, a number of reports were prepared on case studies; however, they have yet to be published. Save the Children and USAID have copies of some of the testimony gathered while the process was underway. However, as with any educational endeavor, the permanent and lasting results will have to be verified by the NGOs that continue to work with these population groups. More precise information in this respect has yet to be made available.

Using the DATA PRO system, the following quantitative results were found. Annual registration grew more than five-fold from 1999 to 2001: a total of 64,914 adults (of whom 45,239 were women) registered for the program. Of these, 39,559 (27,845 women) completed the program.

By these measures, the COMAL Project was approximately 61 percent effective. This is a high rate. Effectiveness with other methods used in the same region by the National Committee for Literacy Teaching is between 20 and 40 percent.

Best Practices and Lessons Learned

By assessing project results through workshops and reports from the monitoring agency, several best practices and lessons learned have been identified. Some of these are common to all bilingual literacy programs. Others are especially important in a post-conflict context.

Participation and Involvement of NGOs

- Forming a network of NGOs should be a requirement for any work involving this sector of civil society.
- Unless the NGOs are selected systematically and carefully, the expected results will be impossible to achieve.
- Contracts and agreements must be drawn up on the basis of experience and the current capacity of NGOs to execute the project.

- A good team of national consultants who can adapt the project to national circumstances must be found sufficiently in advance, before seeking international consultants.
- If the project is to have sustainability and permanence, the NGOs that are responsible for its execution must be involved in decision making.
- All products and input should be transferred to the partners in due course, with clear indications regarding their objectives and implementation.

Project Development and Implementation

- Bilingual integrated literacy projects can become sustainable if the contents and activities meet the specific needs of the participating groups.
- The objectives and implementation requirements of all products and inputs should be clearly communicated from the outset to partner NGOs and targeted communities.
- The geographical area and technical, financial, and human resource duties of all involved in the project must be clearly defined and communicated.
- Guidelines should be created regarding organizational and financial management.
- A well-defined training system with adequate materials for the different educational agents involved is essential.

Curriculum and Methodology Development

- The curriculum and learning methods should provide a minimum baseline to be achieved and also allow for adaptation to specific community situations.
- Monitoring and evaluation results should be used as "feedback" to make project adjustments, which will be essential given rapidly evolving post-conflict situations.

Culturally Appropriate Materials

- A bilingual literacy teaching process should not be initiated until clear linguistic rules are established for writing the languages to be used.
- Conceptual clarity regarding the approaches, contents, methodologies, techniques, evaluation, and other elements is essential before preparing any type of materials to be used in the teaching/learning process, especially in a post-conflict situation.

- National NGOs and program beneficiaries should be involved in materials preparation and validation.
- National experts with experience in and knowledge of intercultural communication problems should be involved in preparing the materials.
- The materials must be low in cost and available when needed.

Monitoring and Evaluation

- The monitoring and evaluation process must be included in the project design from its inception.
- It is important to design and apply simple instruments that are low cost and easy to use, so that everyone involved in the project can play an active role in monitoring and evaluation.
- Support, technical assistance, orientation, and training for everyone using the monitoring and evaluation system must be available in order to take full advantage of its benefits.

Bilingual Literacy Teaching

- From the outset, it is important to secure the cooperation of institutions with experience in bilingual literacy education, so as to have adequate technical assistance, particularly in the linguistic area.
- It is important that consensus be reached regarding the selection of languages and/or dialects to be taught.
- Bilingual literacy teaching requires that enough time be provided to enable participants to become proficient in reading and writing in their native language as well as the national language.
- Program coordinators, as well as the supervisors, instructors, and facilitators, must be properly trained and develop literacy skills in the language of the groups they will serve.
- Facilitators must be well trained and have a full command of both of the languages to be used in bilingual literacy teaching.

Final Comments

Although the COMAL Project did not continue as such, a number of studies and initiatives to apply the ACI model are still being carried out at one of the universities in Guatemala and in the organization that took part in the project.

From the beginning, the objective of the project was to involve several national competent NGOs that would become well prepared in project activities, so they could continue using the curricula, methodology, and bilingual materials. The quality of bilingual materials prepared by COMAL Project is long-lasting. Universidad Landivar is in charge of providing continuing technical support to these NGOs.

Because it is flexible, adaptable, and can be tailored to the particular circumstances of a group or a community, COMAL's methodological approach is attractive to organizations that implement development projects. In discussing these aspects with the leaders of large and small organizations, academics, or people from rural or urban areas, one observes an interest and a desire on their part to apply a model like the ACI.

Thus it is possible to say that the COMAL Project opened a pathway in a road that was full of obstacles and limitations. Now it is only a question of moving forward, paving the way for millions of women and men to have access to a better quality of life by learning to read and write.

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Chapter 11

Empowering Ethnic Minorities in the Cambodian Highlands

Anne Thomas, Chanthy Dam, Sakoeun Chhouk, Sivutha Sous, and J. Kila Reimer

U sing an indigenous language together with the national language is a successful education strategy that can help ethnic communities strengthen their communities and retain their unique cultures and languages, while increasing their voice in society and integrating themselves into the nation. Some bilingual education initiatives aimed at ethnic minority populations in Cambodia's highlands are demonstrating the effectiveness of this approach.

The bilingual education initiatives in Cambodia also address basic education, livelihood, community development, and conflict resolution issues. Many remote ethnic minority communities can now access education, information, and life skills in such vital areas as health, natural resource management, food security, and civil rights in a language they can understand.[1]

The bilingual education initiatives have helped bridge the historical gap between minority and majority peoples. Previously illiterate villagers are now using computer desktop publishing, Geographic Information Services (GIS), and Global Positioning Systems (GPS) to map and record the boundaries of community forests.

As a result of the pilot bilingual initiatives, promotion of community development including land use planning in local languages is now recognized as an effective strategy in Cambodia. The program has influenced government policy makers to seriously consider and endorse a bilingual

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1. The terms "ethnic minorities," "highlanders," "indigenous ethnic minorities," and "indigenous highland peoples" are used interchangeably in this chapter to refer to the indigenous peoples' population of the northeastern Cambodian highlands.

approach as part of its effort to achieve the country's Education for All (EFA) goals. Five indigenous languages have been reduced to a written form for the first time; and a strong core of indigenous people have become effective trainers, monitors, curriculum teams, and extension staff. To date, ethnic minority teacher trainers have prepared about 160 teachers. Bilingual literacy classes have been launched in three provinces for about 1,200 students. A number of projects with ethnic minorities in Cambodia have adopted this bilingual approach, and neighboring countries that are considering launching bilingual initiatives have made study visits to the non-formal education program in Ratanakiri Province.

Rebuilding Society

After decades of brutal civil war, Cambodia faces many challenges to reconstructing its society and economy and meeting its education goals. Its remote northeastern highlands must overcome additional obstacles, including limited services, a history of isolation from the rest of the country, and lengthy occupation by the genocidal Khmer Rouge, who used the province as their original sanctuary. The nearly 100,000 ethnic minority peoples who live in the Cambodian highlands face a steadily widening gap in socioeconomic development relative to the lowland population of roughly 12 million people. The highland peoples speak a number of different languages, and little of the national language, Khmer. As a result of the devastation from the civil war, Cambodia is one of the world's poorest countries, ranking 73rd out of 78 developing nations on the Human Poverty Index (HPI). Average annual income in rural areas is $197, life expectancy is under 50 years, and adult literacy rates are about 35 percent—lower than neighboring southeast Asian countries.[2]

A primary challenge for ethnic highlanders is access to relevant education, community development, and government services in a language that ethnic minorities understand.

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2. The income figure is for 1999. See MOEYS 2003 and "Limousines and Poverty," *The Economist*, 7-13 June, 2003, p. 28.

The Last Frontier

After initial educational and socioeconomic progress in the early decades following its 1953 independence,[3] Cambodia disintegrated into all-out civil war. Various global super-powers supported and armed the contesting factions, leading to the rise of the genocidal Khmer Rouge regime, which attempted to turn the clock back to the "year zero" with a Maoist-style reform to establish a completely agrarian society.

In the far northeastern corner of the country, the remote forests of Ratanakiri Province, the site of the first bilingual education pilot in Cambodia, made ideal cover for the first Khmer Rouge bases in the 1960s, and indigenous peoples were conscripted to join their ranks. Ratanakiri Province passed into full Khmer Rouge control starting in 1970, enduring five more years under the oppressive regime than much of the rest of the country (Colm 1996). For nearly a decade, the indigenous peoples of the area were forbidden to speak their own languages or make music using traditional gongs. Communal living and eating were compulsory, and traditional clothing along with many cultural practices was forbidden. The era of the Khmer Rouge brought the greatest change to the ethnic people and their culture, from which the pendulum has never fully swung back (Mallow 2002). The few existing schools were closed. This foreshadowed the closure of schools nationwide when the regime seized full power in 1975, systematically executing all educated persons, including doctors and teachers, and transforming schools into prisons.

From 1969 to 1973, Ratanakiri Province suffered some of the most devastating sustained bombing campaigns ever launched, as it became a primary target because of the presence of military and Khmer Rouge supply routes and sanctuaries. By 1974, much of Ratanakiri's population had fled north to Laos (now Lao PDR) or east to Viet Nam for refuge, heroically returning near the end of the decade to guide the Vietnamese forces that liberated the country from the Khmer Rouge. Ongoing civil war continued until the signing of peace treaties in the early 1990s and the demise of the last of the Khmer Rouge factions in the late 1990s.

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3. By the early 1950s Cambodia had developed a French-language education system that focused primarily on training an elite corps of males for colonial service. Following independence, Khmer-language public education for the masses was introduced, with tangible progress. Education strategies included the construction of rural schools, the provision of high teachers' salaries, and the 1964–66 National Literacy Campaign, which received a UNESCO award in 1969 (Ayers 2000).

Lack of law and order nationally made way for anarchic logging, depletion of natural resources, and competition for land and natural resources, creating a special problem in Ratanakiri, where the forests had remained relatively intact. This exacerbated conflicts between outsiders, including loggers and migrants from lowland provinces, who compete with local ethnic minorities for the natural resources upon which local peoples have traditionally depended. Since the 1990s, the livelihoods of the local populace have become increasingly threatened by entrepreneurs and migrants hoping to make a profit off of Cambodia's "last frontier" from timber and plantation concessions and poaching the once-abundant wildlife and fish. Unscrupulous traders travel the newly built roads, exchanging store goods for local products while making handsome profits, as the indigenous peoples are unfamiliar with marketing, weights and measurements, or handling money.

Facing the Challenge: Becoming Literate Communities

Motivation among indigenous communities for basic education, literacy, numeracy, natural resource conservation, and health education is very high. Their world is rapidly changing as their barter economy faces the market society of the lowland Khmer and neighboring countries as well. Many of the indigenous communities see literacy and numeracy skills as an essential foundation for their future livelihood and the self-determination of their communities (table 11.1).

TABLE 11.1 Ethnic Affiliation and Literacy (percent)						
	Male			Female		
Ethnic affiliation	Illiterate	Semi-literate	Literate	Illiterate	Semi-literate	Literate
Kmer	23.2	28.0	48.8	44.1	26.0	29.0
Highland minorities	76.3	18.4	5.3	85.7	14.3	0.0
Other	53.8	23.1	23.1	65.0	19.4	15.0

Source: MOEYS (2000, p. 41).

Meanwhile, largely as a result of the bilingual pilot project, and some key outspoken indigenous minority people who are in influential government

positions, the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) has increasingly recognized the importance of education for ethnic minorities (see appendix A).

In obtaining access to basic education services, indigenous communities face a multitude of challenges. Many villages have no primary education services; a generation of children is growing up illiterate. The few existing schools are generally poorly attended and staffed. Materials are in short supply. The language of instruction is Khmer, which most highlanders do not speak well, or at all. School-age children are busy from dawn to dusk with farming or childcare duties. Local highlanders usually lack the basic education required to attend the Khmer-language teacher training institutions. The Khmer primary school teacher assignees often stay at their rural posting in ethnic minority villages for only a few months before vacating their posts, citing various cultural, linguistic, and economic issues as reasons for their departure. The majority of the government teachers do not speak the local language, and government educational materials have been written only in Khmer.

Designing the pilot bilingual program required addressing these challenges. Stakeholders soon identified preventative health care along with nutrition, especially for pregnant and lactating mothers and children, as key topics for inclusion in the bilingual initiative. The health and nutritional status of the highlands people is recognized to be the poorest in Cambodia, which already ranks low globally in terms of health indicators (Ministry of Health and Ministry of Planning 2001).

Land rights have become a key issue in Ratanakiri, along with employment, and especially vocational opportunities for youth. These priorities too, have been incorporated into the program over time.

The bilingual education initiatives in Ratanakiri are significant as the first full-fledged bilingual education program in the region (see box 11.1). Thailand to the west launched its first pilot government bilingual non-formal education (NFE) project through UNESCO funding in 2003. The government of Lao PDR does not yet allow for script development or even pilot bilingual education programs. Neighboring Viet Nam has yet to launch a significant pilot program using the vernacular, despite having a number of minority scripts approved and bilingual education approved in principle.

BOX 11.1 A Regional Perspective on Bilingual Education

The arbitrary nature of the French colonial border demarcation split the traditional lands to form Cambodia and neighboring Laos (now Lao PDR) and Viet Nam. Thus ethnic minority peoples of the same language groups now live under differing socio-political systems, each having different national languages and assimilation policies.

Historically, socioeconomic development and education in Ratanakiri has lagged behind not only the rest of Cambodia, but also behind ethnic minority regions in Lao PDR and Viet Nam, where proactive education policies for ethnic minorities have been in place for decades (see chapters 3 and 4). Both these countries launched special education initiatives in ethnic minority areas, usually in the national language, either during French colonial rule or the nationalistic movements that followed. Linguistic analysis had been conducted to differing degrees, resulting in a number of ethnic minority scripts officially approved in Viet Nam.

Thus there is a wide gap in education opportunities among peoples from the same ethno-linguistic groups divided among the three countries. Those residing in Ratanakiri generally have no literacy skills or primary school background. Across the border in Viet Nam and Lao PDR, a significant number of minority peoples, male and female alike, have gained an education, enabling them to hold key positions in schools, health posts, and local administration.

The RIDE Program

The bilingual education initiative in Ratanakiri encompasses both bilingual education and integrated development, as its formal name—the Ratanakiri Integrated Development and Education (RIDE) Program—suggests. It addresses livelihood, education, and conflict resolution issues, while enabling native peoples to become literate in both their local vernacular languages and the national language, Khmer.

The program uses a functional approach to literacy training, aiming to provide indigenous peoples with essential life skills they can apply to daily life so they may develop themselves and their communities. Local communities themselves

identify the life skills topics they wish to learn, including health, agriculture extension, and natural resource management.

Midway through its 12-year program, RIDE is supported by a nongovernmental organization (NGO), International Cooperation for Cambodia (ICC). ICC has concentrated on integrated rural development, including community health, food security, and land use planning. The National Non-formal Education Department (NFE) of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MOEYS) is the key counterpart.

The long-term goals of RIDE are to develop a sustainable core of highlanders literate in their mother tongue and Khmer. It aims for the following outcomes, among others:

• MOEYS will endorse, support, and implement minority language literacy.
• A sustainable core of people will be developed who are literate and numerate in the minority languages of Brao, Bunong, Kavet, Krung, and Tampuan, and the national language, Khmer.
• Students will have Khmer language skills adequate to meet their practical needs.
• Villagers in 20 project villages will increase their understanding of relevant issues such as health, marketing, agriculture, and natural resources, and read for both pleasure and for information.
• Ethnic minority writing systems and literacy programs will expand to non-ICC project villages.
• New non-formal education materials in Khmer and ethnic minority languages will be developed in response to local needs (ICC 2002).

The initial ICC pilot, launched in 1997, has been developed further by a number of organizations in northeastern Cambodia supporting bilingual non-formal education, community extension, and primary education (see appendix B).

Non-timber Forest Products (NTFP) has focused on natural resources management, as the traditional livelihood of the indigenous peoples is strongly linked to their forests, rivers, and other natural resources. The NGO has actively incorporated bilingual education into its efforts. Also launched in 1997, its program is piloting community research into traditional practices such as herbal medicines, ways of organizing, conflict resolution, and documentation of research (as well as of applicable government policies such as the policy on land rights) in local languages, in addition to bilingual NFE.

It has used extensive community consultation with the Highlanders Association (an organization of representatives from various communities that comes together to discuss and act upon issues of joint concern, such as tourism and land-grabbing). It has also tapped the potential of local youth through an Indigenous Youth Development Program (IYDP) to engage in action research about traditional practices, including land use and swidden agriculture, and to assist other NGOs in conducting surveys and research efforts. In cooperation with NTFP, ICC is translating relevant laws and sub-decrees into local languages in order to enable local people to exercise their rights as citizens.

CARE Cambodia is piloting the first bilingual formal primary education effort in the country through the Highland Children's Education Project (HCEP), launched in 2001. CARE has been concentrating on curriculum development, teacher training, materials production, and community schools for grades 1-3 in six villages, reaching two different language groups. The aim is for children to be able to transfer easily into the monolingual formal system after completing their first three years of school in a bilingual curriculum. HCEP is using the vernacular scripts that were developed largely through ICC efforts.

These three pilot bilingual initiatives in Ratanakiri aim toward the goal of "mainstreaming" the vernacular as a language of instruction in the formal as well as non-formal system, highlighting local languages as an effective way to promote community development, as well as showing that they are a legitimate and effective means of communication for community-level decision making. The initiatives also encourage provincial departments of different ministries to use bilingual approaches to disseminate information and otherwise support community development, local participation, and learning with respect to health, natural resources, and civic rights and responsibilities. Actual widespread implementation of bilingual information and services will require a concerted effort by all major stakeholders, including the ethnic minority peoples themselves, nongovernmental organizations, as well as ministry and provincial officials.

In 2003, the provincial government, through the Partnership for Local Governance (PLG), funded by bilateral aid, began preparing bilingual information and extension in basic rights—land, forest, and human rights—to disseminate to villagers. The material will be prepared in the form of bilingual oral tapes, with possible extension to the written form. This development represents the first initiative by a provincial government to use the vernacular in the history of Ratanakiri province, as well as the country.

BOX 11.2 Developing Bilingual Materials

The first step in creating an alphabet for previously unwritten languages is careful linguistic analysis of the phonological structure. The task involves identifying the representation of sounds (phonemes) unique to each language. These sounds must be faithfully represented in an adequate orthography.

International linguists from the Summer Institute of Linguistics specializing in minority language development conducted linguistic analysis and designed alphabets based on the Khmer script, together with Brao, Bunong, Kavet, Krung, and Tampuan community members. These alphabets were revised several times, based on field-testing. Both linguistic and educational factors are taken into account, including ease of transfer to the national language and readability.

ORTHOGRAPHY APPROVAL: In March 2003, written scripts for several languages—the Brao, Kavet, Krung, and Tampuan languages of Ratanakiri, and the Bunong language of Mondulkiri—based on the Khmer writing system were officially approved. This milestone was the result of consultation between the official committee established in mid-2002 by the Secretary of State for Education, composed of key ministry, community, and NGO stakeholders to review the trial orthographies.

BRIDGING TO THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE: Learners gain literacy skills first in the vernacular language and then increasingly in the national language. In this way, the bilingual curriculum can help meet the national goals for Cambodian language literacy, along with indigenous cultural preservation. An oral Khmer component will be strengthened with the 2003–04 cycle.

INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE COMMITTEES AND WRITERS' WORKSHOPS: Indigenous language committees are key to the program so that materials production is by the people as well as for the people. These volunteers are selected by their communities and meet regularly to plan and review the materials being produced in their own languages. Language committees oversee the various stages of the process, producing bilingual materials with the national and indigenous languages printed side by side, in what is called diglot form.

BOX 11.2 Developing Bilingual Materials (continued)

Literacy programs in newly written languages face the double challenge of teaching literacy as well as producing reading materials, as new literates cannot develop reading fluency without vernacular reading materials. Topics ranging from folk tales to community health messages are incorporated into literacy lessons and village library materials.

FUNCTIONALITY: The livelihood needs of the local communities are addressed through the bilingual non-formal education curriculum, with modules and supplementary materials used in community learning centers, and community extension, as well as NFE classes.

Previously, all community education messages used by government, NGOs, and international organizations used only the Khmer language. ICC is spearheading an effort to produce bilingual material related to development issues, to be made available to all the agencies working with indigenous peoples. Topics include legal literacy and communal land tenure; community forestry; community-based natural resource management; community health, including sanitation, malaria, cholera, and immunizations; upland agriculture and family gardens; marketing skills, weighing agricultural products, and counting money; oral testimonies and indigenous knowledge.

Outcomes

Five ethnic minority languages have been reduced to script using the national Khmer alphabet (see box 11.2). These have recently gained official government approval, largely through the efforts of ICC. Literacy instruction begins in the local vernacular and progressively introduces the national language, Khmer, so that students learn to read both languages. Indigenous language committees oversee curriculum development, including literacy, numeracy, marketing, health, and community forestry. Since 1997, over 166 bilingual non-formal education (NFE) teachers have been trained; bilingual non-formal education curricula has been produced in four vernacular languages; and over 1,224 students—nearly half (42 percent) of whom are females—have been trained through the program.

RIDE has enabled ethnic minority groups to strengthen their communities and retain their unique cultures and languages. At the same time, it has increased their voice and facilitated their integration into the Cambodian nation. National laws and policies are being translated into local languages to inform indigenous peoples of their rights as citizens. Community members can access government services more easily and participate more fully as they gain bilingual competence. Before the bilingual approach was adopted, nearly all of the women, and the majority of the men and community elders were not able to participate fully in the development initiatives supported by the government or various agencies in their communities because of the language barrier.

A number of organizations in various provinces are expanding the use of bilingual education, extension, and learning materials to respond to local needs. Notably, community forestry, land use mapping, and legal literacy are important components of the bilingual non-formal education and extension programs. Previously illiterate villagers are learning how to map and record the boundaries of their community forests using Geographic Information Services (GIS) and Global Positioning Systems (GPS) to document the non-timber forest products on which their livelihood depends, in order to record their traditional forest areas with relevant government departments (Paterson 2002).

Philosophy: Bilingual Education Using the Vernacular

In the Ratanakiri bilingual initiatives, learners start reading in their mother tongue, which is written using a Khmer script, and progressively learn to read the Khmer language. This approach enables students both to progress faster and to understand the content of the lessons.

Use of the vernacular facilitates full community participation at all stages of the development process, enabling community members to select and implement approaches relevant to their communities.

From Semi-literates to Literacy Teachers

When the program began, the literacy rate in Ratanakiri province in the national language was estimated at less than 20 percent for indigenous men and less than 2 percent for indigenous women. There were no literates in the vernacular. Thus a strategy of bilingual non-formal education (NFE) was devised to develop local human

resources. Communities select their most literate members to participate in week-long training sessions. They return to their communities as volunteer literacy teachers. Since the teachers are already from the community, this minimizes the problem of absentee teachers and also promotes confidence among local villagers to give the classes a try.

At the onset of the program, these trainees were only semi-literate. A special training model was designed that combined pre-service, in-service, and on-site training. This enabled the teacher nominees to gain literacy and teaching skills through a series of workshops and monitoring visits. As the project progressed and the pool of neo-literates in each village expanded, the search for literacy teachers became less difficult.

OUTCOMES. To support the program's goals and launch a full-fledged bilingual program, a core group of teacher trainers, curriculum writers, curriculum committees, and monitoring systems has been developed (see table 11.2).[4]

National policies have been influenced through these bilingual community initiatives and consultations. These include the official recognition of vernacular scripts, bilingual education, and the continuation of cultural practices such as the inclusion of traditional land management systems in the national Land Law.

MATERIALS. Pilot bilingual materials were first field tested by ICC in Ratanakiri in 1997. Several development organizations facilitated an expansion in 2002, using ICC's technical assistance to set up bilingual NFE classes. To date, four NFE bilingual curricula series have been launched: the Krug-Khmer and Tampuan-Khmer, along with dialects related to Krung, the Brao-Khmer and Kavet-Khmer (Thomas 2002).

RELATIONSHIPS AND SUPPORT. Regular refresher training sessions every few months for the bilingual teachers provide an important opportunity for local networking. Village Development Committees (VDCs), the most local form of the RGC's administrative structure, tasked with identifying development priorities and seeking solutions, oversee the evening literacy classes. These classes are sometimes visited by the Provincial Department of Education staff, as well. A successful innovation of the HCEP–local school boards[5]–will be trialed by ICC in their next expansion of new non-formal education classes in the 2004–05 cycle. At the central level, the Ministry of Education's NFE Department has provided key endorsement.

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4. In 2001, the first group of students graduated from the basic bilingual literacy curriculum, with 299 students, including 93 females, successfully completing the course assessment and continuing with post-literacy activities. By the beginning of 2002, the number had increased to 370, with 108 females.

5. The local school boards essentially run the schools and perform the day-to-day management tasks. They are responsible for ensuring that teachers are complying with the class schedule, with maintenance of the facilities, with ensuring attendance of children, and so forth.

MONITORING AND EVALUATION. Regular monitoring is conducted by ICC program staff, all of whom are ethnic minorities. This is an integral component of the in-service teacher training program; these monitors provide on-site guidance to the teachers.

An internal evaluation in 1998 focused on the technical aspects of the program, with recommendations to strengthen teacher training and post-literacy efforts. An external mid-term evaluation in 2002 noted strong positive impact in the target communities, both in terms of numbers of students gaining bilingual literacy skills and their increased awareness and implementation of life-skills and community development principles. The evaluation commends the project for its outstanding community involvement results, as well as the strong verbal and policy support provided at the ministry and provincial levels, both of which are major achievements (ICC 2002).

TABLE 11.2 Expansion of Bilingual Non-formal Education, 2001 and 2002								
		Total Classes		No. of students, basic literacy course[a]		No. of students, post-literacy level[b]		
Language	Years classes launched	2001	2002	2001	2002	2001	2002	Total teachers trained
Krung	1997, 1998	12	16	300 (133)	419 (177)	170 (57)	187 (54)	24 (1)
Tampuan	1999, 2002	6	13	182 (54)	334 (130)	122 (36)	183 (54)	35 (3)
Brao	2002	—	14	—	327 (145)	—	—	21 (0)
Kavet[b]	2002	—	9	—	144 (85)	—	—	22 (3)
Total	—	18	52	482 (187)	1,224 (527)	299 (93)	37 (108)	102 (7)

a. Total numbers, followed by number of females in parentheses.
b. In collaboration with other NGOs, including NTFP.
Source: ICC reports as cited in *Journal of Southeast Asian Education* (Thomas 2002).

BILINGUAL EDUCATION SEMINAR. A national seminar in August 2002 provided an opportunity to disseminate results and raise awareness. ICC organized the seminar with funding support from UNICEF, UNESCO, and other sources. Key stakeholders from MOEYS and related ministries attended the seminar. The Secretary of State for Education gave the keynote speech. ICC, NTFP, and CARE each made presentations on the bilingual initiatives piloted by their programs.

Subsequent Bilingual Initiatives

The ministerial committee approved five vernacular scripts in March 2003. In August 2003, a ceremony was held in Ratanakiri Province to announce their official approval, in order to promote their use by various education and extension initiatives in northeastern provinces.

The initial ICC pilot has provided a wealth of lessons for the new ICC bilingual pilot, launched in 2001, in neighboring Mondulkiri province. ICC has initiated bilingual education work in a dozen villages, where the majority of the population speaks the Bunong language or related sub-varieties. The first set of bilingual primers and some supplementary materials concerning health and veterinarian extension have been produced. Actual bilingual NFE classes commenced in the latter half of 2004. At present, there are 14 to 16 classes running at any one time.

The pilot in Ratanakiri is a significant model in the region and has been the subject of a number of study visits from within the country and from neighboring countries. A regional UNESCO initiative is underway to pilot bilingual NFE projects in six countries in the Asia region, including Cambodia. ICC has and will continue to provide technical assistance to that initiative.

The success of the program has helped lead to endorsement of bilingual education from the government. Prominent government spokespeople, including the Secretary of State for Education and the Prime Minister, have endorsed bilingual education as an important strategy (Thomas 2002). Prime Minister Hun Sen gave strong support to bilingual education as well as to the important role education plays in the country's development in his address at the National Education Forum to review the Education Sector Support Program (ESSP) for 2002–06. All provincial governors and education

directors attended the meeting, and his address, which included an endorsement of bilingual education, was broadcast on national television. As part of its strategy for helping to achieve the national Education for All goals, the MOEYS' Department of NFE has as one of its sub-goals expansion of the bilingual approach to more ethnic minority groups (Thomas 2002).

The Cambodian government has pledged to achieving Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015. In particular, the national EFA plan states that all children should be ensured access to and be able to complete good quality, free primary education by then, especially young girls, those in difficult circumstances, and ethnic minorities.

Best Practices

Partnerships

Partnerships between NGOs, the MOEYS, and the communities have produced a successful bilingual pilot that has influenced national policy and served as a basis for additional education initiatives. Increased interaction between minority and majority communities has bridged generations and cultures, especially with regard to specific educational policies and practices, and initiatives to improve livelihood. These include community-based land and natural resource management, community health, and documentation of agricultural practices and village history. By partnering, participants have developed avenues for conflict resolution, including consultation with local communities for the formation of national land laws to ensure traditional communal land management. Study visits between communities, within the country, and among neighboring countries have been a successful means of exchanging experiences and lessons learned and critically assessing different approaches to development.

Key Innovations

Strong community interest and involvement, research-based alphabet design, and sound pedagogy have been basic to the success of the program. Some of the key innovations are summarized in box 11.3.

BOX 11.3 Key Innovations in the Bilingual Approach

Preservation of Indigenous Language and Culture

Vernacular instruction as bridge to the national language
Literacy starts in the vernacular and progresses to the national language. In pedagogical terms, this is moving from the known to the unknown. Learners first gain reading skills in their own language, which they readily understand. The transfer of literacy skills to reading the national language is then only a minor step.

Linguistic research
Careful linguistic research and field testing is the basis for designing the alphabets used in vernacular writing systems, adapting the script of the national language. This process can take months for the design of a trial alphabet, followed by one or more years of field-testing and revision, to ensure that the script designed can be easily learned, and transfer well to the national language.

Preserving cultural heritage and transmitting it across generations
For the first time, the rich heritage of oral traditions is being recorded, by the local people themselves. Indigenous youth record traditions, conduct action research, and present results to their communities. Desktop publishing has produced collections of indigenous knowledge, folk narratives, and oral testimonies recorded from indigenous elders. All stages of literacy material production are accomplished in Ratanakiri, with indigenous staff proficient in the various steps of preparing illustrations, layout, and computer desktop publishing through on-the-job training.

Development of Functional Materials

Indigenous committees
Vernacular language committees have been central to the process. They help produce materials, ensure relevance and quality, and facilitate local ownership. Writers' workshops produce materials in local languages.

BOX 11.3 Key Innovations in the Bilingual Approach (continued)

Use of the vernacular curriculum to facilitate community development initiatives and training
Effective and appropriate training materials are being prepared in the vernacular. Bilingual materials enable clear communication during training sessions, action research, and community extension discussion groups for a wide range of topics.

Emphasis on practical topics in NFE and community development
Primary health care, malaria prevention, community forestry, and upland agriculture are important components of both non-formal education curriculum and supplementary community extension modules. Literacy teachers and students play key roles as community educators. Topics are identified during action research. Popular education techniques include songs, discussion groups, role playing, and videos in local languages.

Community Ownership

Training teachers from within the community
Volunteer teachers are community members themselves, who progressively increase their own literacy skills while building an ever-increasing pool of literates in their communities.

Encouraging community support and ownership
Communities make agreements to support their teacher, whether by providing a communal rice field or providing labor for the teacher's field.

Local management of class logistics
Community village development committees and volunteer Teachers' Associations (at NTFP target sites) oversee logistics for NFE projects. Local school boards oversee the bilingual primary pilot project (for the Highland Children's Education Project, CARE Cambodia).

Appropriate technology
Solar-powered lighting systems, which require minimal maintenance, are provided by the project to enable classes to be held in evenings. They are highly valued by teachers, students, and community members.

BOX 11.3 Key Innovations in the Bilingual Approach (continued)

Local Human Resource Development

Recruitment and training of ethnic minority staff
Ethnic minority staff with minimal literacy skills are recruited, trained, and paired with educated Khmer staff who assist with documentation.

Extra-curricular training for indigenous students
Indigenous youth attending the formal school system are trained in an extra-curricular program to conduct action research and community extension (Indigenous Youth Development Program).

Lessons Learned

Bilingual programs contribute to national and community development.

Reducing languages to written form and producing bilingual materials in vernacular and the national languages have contributed to bridging the historical gap between minority and majority peoples. These initiatives have opened education and job opportunities to ethnic minorities. They also have helped raise their status. Their acquisition of computer skills and ability to desktop publish bilingual materials have shown that great steps forward are possible in one generation for peoples previously labeled as "backward." The development and use of vernacular writing systems has strengthened the cultural identity of local peoples, which had generally been perceived as "less developed" because of the lack of a written script. This has contributed to bridging between the majority and minority cultures, and has challenged traditional concepts of cultural superiority and inferiority.

The dissemination of bilingual printed materials produced by local people has strengthened exchanges between the different ethnic minority peoples, as well as with the majority culture, enabling them to learn from one another. This networking has contributed to the social reconstruction of Cambodia by bringing the issues they face to the attention of the national agenda. For example, communities have participated in consultative

processes that influenced the formation of laws to protect their traditional livelihood practices.

Capacity building is key.

An ongoing issue is the need to develop the educational base and basic skills of the teachers. The program trains the teachers regularly at three-month intervals. In this way, previously semi-literate teachers have become literate and have been able to teach their community members. Teachers do not feel equipped to train their students without refresher training. They request special training sessions focusing on basic skills, including writing in the vernacular, Khmer language, and numeracy. Monitoring visits as well as a major evaluation (ICC 2002) indicate that the teacher's basic education level is key to their students' performance. One effective strategy implemented in 2001 was to hold a series of pre-service teacher training sessions throughout the year, before launching the Brao and Kavet curricula.

All the bilingual initiatives in Ratanakiri have placed a strong emphasis on recruiting and training local staff and building up a local work base. A strategy of partnering educated Khmer with semi-literate ethnic minority community staff has proven successful. The initially high input in terms of training ethnic minorities as teachers, trainers, and curriculum writers brings sustainable, long-term results by developing a pool of local people already familiar with local customs and languages who become expert at bringing literacy and numeracy to their own communities.

Awareness raising and advocacy for the vernacular language are essential.

Community members, extension workers, nongovernmental organization staff, and government officials all play a role.

In the case of Cambodia, most indigenous ethnic community members were at first unaware of the possibility of reducing their language to writing. The national language, Khmer, had existed in written form for centuries, and some languages for people-groups that straddle current borders also existed in written form (Jarai in Viet Nam using Vietnamese script and Kuey in Thailand using the Thai script). However, for most indigenous people, their own languages had never appeared in written form. The enthusiasm of the

villagers to use the vernacular in written form convinced government officials of the effectiveness and popularity of the approach.

As awareness raising proceeds, misconceptions must be overcome. For example, the project initially used the metaphor of a bridge, with learners starting in vernacular and bridging to the national (Khmer) language. Some provincial stakeholders considered the Khmer language as more progressive, and believed that once students learned Khmer, using the vernacular was a step backward. Therefore it has been important to explain the "bridge" metaphor carefully: not as one-way the bridge out of the village, but as a two-way bridge, incorporating the vernacular and national languages in daily life.

Central-level government officials have become key advocates in Cambodia. Bilingual initiatives were welcomed by a number of MOEYS officials, who already had some exposure to the bilingual approach through EFA and UNESCO developments in other countries. They saw these initiatives as an important way to achieve EFA goals. Increasing the capacity of MOEYS personnel at all levels to implement bilingual education programs effectively is an important part of ICC's strategy for sustainability. Thus study visits to other Southeast Asian countries have been organized, including a visit to bilingual education programs in the Philippines.

Indigenous language committees play a key role.

The literacy committees, which develop as well as review draft materials, have evolved progressively as each vernacular curriculum has been developed. The various language committees have been able to learn from the experiences of the others. Experience has shown the importance of selecting one central language per language group for the initial curriculum development. The materials in the language sub-varieties can be developed relatively quickly and benefit from lessons learned from field-testing the foundational curriculum. Periodic review sessions are also conducted with community leaders and representatives.

Female participation needs to be increased.

In ethnic minority communities, there is often a need to create and foster national and community policies for greater female participation. Bilingual

education efforts can meet that need. Communities can be encouraged to nominate females for training and positions. Assessments of female program participation, retention, and completion can be made.

In the case of Cambodia, male teachers still far outnumber female teachers. Communities are being encouraged to nominate female literates from the NFE classes to become teachers. To help mobilize women's participation in classes, NTFP has recruited semi-literate women to be teachers' assistants.

Before the bilingual NFE program began, only an estimated 2 percent of the highland women in the province were literate. By the time of the 2002 evaluation, several hundred women had completed the bilingual curricula. Many have continued with post-literacy classes. This will be the first generation of highland women in Ratanakiri to gain literacy skills, a very significant milestone. Options to address the continuing high dropout rate of women needs to be further explored. Gender and age disaggregated data should be collected and analyzed regularly to better track the participation and drop-out rates of different social groups and to design appropriate strategies (ICC 2002).[6]

APPENDIX A. Bilingual Education: An International Commitment

The United Nations Declaration on Minority Rights (adopted by Cambodia in 1992) affirms the rights of ethnic minorities to enjoy their own culture and to use their own language without interference or any form of discrimination. Other United Nations conventions also provide for the right of linguistic minorities to education in their mother tongue. Conventions acceded to by Cambodia include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention on Discrimination against Women, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

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6. Monitoring visits yielded several insights on issues concerning women's participation. First, females in the bilingual classes generally participate more fully and have more regular attendance than those in the Khmer language NFE classes. Second, females often feel intimidated in mixed-gender classes, preferring female instructors and all-female classes. Third, early marriage usually requires that young women drop out of class at their husbands' direction, Fourth, bilingual numeracy modules, hands-on teaching aids, and discussion lessons organized around specific topics such as community health, agriculture, and marketing are very popular among females (Thomas 2002).

APPENDIX A. Bilingual Education: An International Commitment (continued)

The Cambodian Constitution

Article 31 - "The Kingdom of Cambodia shall recognize and respect human rights as stipulated in the United Nations Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the covenants and conventions related to human rights, women rights and children's rights.

Every Khmer citizen shall be equal before the law, enjoying the same rights, freedom and fulfilling the same obligations regardless of race, color, sex, language, religious belief, political tendency, birth origin, social status, wealth or other status."

Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- Article 17 — Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.[1]

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Article 27 — "In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities exist, persons belonging to such minorities shall not be denied the right, in community with the other members of their group, to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practice their own religion, or to use their own language."

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- Articles 13 and 14 — The State should ensure that primary education, free of charge, is provided to all.[2] Individuals and bodies have the right to establish and direct their own educational institutions to maintain their own cultural values.[3,4]
- Article 15 — Everyone has the right to take part in cultural life and to have his/her intellectual property protected.[5]

Convention on the Rights of the Child
- Article 17 — Encourages the mass media to cooperate in producing and disseminating material from diverse cultural sources and "to have particular regard to the linguistic needs of the child who belongs to a minority group."
- Article 29 — A child's education shall be directed to developing respect for (among other things) his/her own cultural identity, language and values.
- Article 30 — Children have the right to enjoy their own culture, practice their own religion and use their own language.

International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- Article 7 — States must adopt "immediate and effective measures particularly in the fields of teaching, education, culture and information with a view to combating prejudices which lead to racial discrimination and to promoting understanding, tolerance and friendship among nations and racial or ethnic groups."

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1. The communal (collective) traditional land ownership of indigenous peoples is now protected under the Land Law 2001. Land tenure and access to forest were top priorities identified by indigenous communities through the Highlanders Association Consultation (Ratanakiri, 2002-2003). Access to education and health, and cultural preservation are also high priorities.
2. The Covenant obliges each State still lacking universal primary education to create and implement an action plan to ensure a primary level education for all within a reasonable time.
3. The Secretary of State for Education officially approved five ethnic minority scripts in 2003.
4. Consultations conducted by the Indigenous Communities and Education-Capacity Building Project (Ratanakiri 2002) reached the consensus that indigenous peoples want their children to be educated in their communities using an approach that enables students to remain integrated in their communities; contribute to their communities' cultural, social, and economic development; and acquire skills and knowledge necessary for interacting and competing in the wider society.
5. Intellectual property includes indigenous people's local knowledge: regarding, for example, medicinal plants, communal land and forest management, and oral history.

Source: McCausland (2003).

APPENDIX B. Bilingual Initiatives in Ratanakiri

Objectives	ICC (1997)	Agency/Starting year NTFP (1997)	CARE (2002)
Develop vernacular writing systems	Pioneer		
Conduct bilingual education or extension	Integrated rural development including community health, food security, and land use planning	Pioneer in natural resources and land-use planning; Community health; Popular education techniques	Inter-Departmental Committee, MOEYS
Document the process in order to feed into government policies and planning processes	Pilot through NFE Dept., MOEYS, targeting adults and youth	MOEYS' NFE Dept., Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Land Management and Planning key counterparts	Inter-departmental MOEY steering committee; focus on primary grades, formal education system
Local teacher training and material production teams	NFE; Community volunteers (Tampuan, Krung, Brao, Kavet)	NFE; Community volunteers (Krung, Kavet)	Primary level community teachers (Krung, Tampuan)
Recruit and train ethnic minority project staff to be extension workers in their own communities	NFE trainers and teachers; Project staff for integrated development initiatives	NFE teachers; Project staff for natural resources, health, land use-planning, agriculture extension; Indigenous Youth Project; Highlanders' Association	Teacher training team; community organizers; community teachers
Strengthen Community-Based Organizations	Networking among volunteer teachers	Volunteer Teachers Associations; Natural Resource Committees	Community school boards

APPENDIX B. Bilingual Initiatives in Ratanakiri (continued)

		Agency/Starting year	
Objectives	ICC (1997)	NTFP (1997)	CARE (2002)
Develop bilingual curricula Vernacular documentation of cultural and natural resources	Indigenous Curriculum Committees; Writers' workshops Published literacy primers and supplementary reading materials in four languages	Pioneer in community consultation through Highlands Association; Pioneer in action research and documentation by Indigenous Youth Development Programme	Extensive community consultations for developing "Life Skills" curriculum; "Do-talk-record" methodology
Provide technical assistance to various government and non-government agencies wishing to develop bilingual initiatives	Bilingual scripts	Bilingual extension content (specializing in community-based natural resource management)	Lessons learned from community schools and teacher training processes

Source: CARE Cambodia (2002); McClausland (2003); ICC (2002); Paterson (2002).

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Part VI
Conclusion

Chapter 12

**Moving Beyond Conflict:
Education and Social Reconstruction
in Latin America and Asia**

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Chapter 12

Moving Beyond Conflict: Education and Social Reconstruction in Latin America and Asia

Ikuko Shimizu

H ow much do we know about national or community-level education programs in post-conflict or conflict situations? How can we learn from them if they are *hidden* because they lack a home page or media attention? Many innovative education programs may be unknown outside the nations, provinces, or islands affected by conflict, but they have much to offer in terms of good practices and lessons learned. And we know that these programs exist because even during wartime or post-conflict reconstruction, communities and people bring education initiatives forth with whatever means and resources are available—efforts that often are not captured by national statistics but that are exemplified in the case studies in this book.

This concluding chapter highlights some of the key topics discussed at the Inter-Regional Symposium in Washington, D.C. in November 2003, where practitioners of exemplary education programs in conflict-afflicted societies shared program and policy experiences.[1] This chapter also compares the ten case studies and tries to identify

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1.   The authors of the ten case studies traveled to the Inter-American Development Bank in Washington, D.C. to participate in the Inter-Regional Symposium, "The Future of Children and Youth in Countries with Conflicts: Education and Social Reconstruction in Latin America and Asia," held November 18 to 20, 2003. The symposium created a real-time encounter and dialogue among experts in education in societies affected by conflicts. Participants explored strategies, measures, and actions for ensuring successful policy planning and program management. The special value of this conference was that all the main participants were actual practitioners who had designed, implemented, or evaluated education programs in conflict or post-conflict contexts. Some were educated themselves through programs conducted during periods of conflict a few decades ago. These experts enthusiastically shared their program and policy experiences in education and social reconstruction, explored ways to engage in future inter-regional collaboration, and developed a set of recommendations for international organizations, including bilateral and multilateral donors and international NGOs. During the first and final days of the three-day symposium, over 150 leading specialists of international donor, NGO, and university communities participated as panelists or active members of the audience. The second day was devoted exclusively to discussions among the authors with regard to policy implications, processes for program development, recommendations for international organizations, and planning for inter-regional exchange activities. The third day included a panel with leading bilateral and multilateral donors, who responded to the participants' recommendations.

general lessons that can help answer two key questions: *How can education help reconstruct societies affected by conflict? How can the international community collaborate better to support education programs in conflict situations?*

The Role of International Actors: Collaborating in Complexity

Education in post-conflict or conflict situations tends to be complex, and such complexity can become a barrier to planning and implementing programs. Why is it so complex? By its very nature, education entails both short-term and longer-term purposes and impacts. Yet the future of populations affected by conflicts is uncertain. Consider displaced persons or indigenous communities whose way of life has been overturned by war, for example. Moreover, the nature of conflict has changed drastically in the past decades. Many conflicts go well beyond "emergency" situations and immediate humanitarian operations, and persist for years, if not decades. Education programs need to be planned especially for long-term impact.

These difficulties notwithstanding, ensuring continuous access to formal and non-formal education for children and youth affected by conflict is of vital importance.[2] The question is not whether or not to make education programs happen, but rather *how to make them most effective*. How can high quality education programs and policies be generated that will heal psychological wounds, stop conflict at all levels, and prevent cyclical violence? The stakes for reform are high. If education needs are ignored, the prior education system will be retained and may be used to recreate conditions that lead to still more conflict. With this in mind, this book seeks to advance the understanding of how to develop and manage effective education programs in conflict or post-conflict contexts.

In countries in crisis, the international community increasingly is playing an important role in the delivery of social services, including education. Various international agencies, bilateral agencies, and international and national nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have been involved in education

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2. For discussions on education in conflict context, see Aguilar and Retamal (1998); Retamal and Aedo-Richmond (1998); Bensalah, Sinclair, and Hadj Nacer (1999); and Nicolai and Triplehorn (2003), among others.

programs in conflict-affected countries.[3] Cooperation with governments and coordination among other international actors in this arena requires flexible, multifaceted approaches.[4]

International organizations could assume a leadership role in documenting and evaluating innovative education policies and projects in conflict situations. They could assess their viability and effectiveness for adaptation and use by donors and other nations. Frequently, grassroots organizations, governments, and donors tend not to place priority on documenting programs because they are already fully engaged in supporting implementation activities. Many times, institutions of civil society or the private sector begin education programs in conflict situations. Their budgets are often meager. Most of them focus quite correctly on providing services to meet urgent and compelling needs, and few of them design built-in evaluation and monitoring systems. However, documenting program results by gathering hard evidence helps people in those and other places to learn from what works, how, and why.

As noted in chapter 1, international donors generally fund programs during specific periods of time or immediately after a conflict. From the local practitioners' viewpoint, it may seem as though donors expect local groups to find their own long-term support—or that they expect the situation to improve after the funding period has ended. However, the nature of conflict is dynamic and ongoing, and conflicts usually have varying levels of intensity and stages of resolution. Donors often move rapidly into conflict zones. Some drop earlier programs in other countries, even though these initiatives may be crucial to nation-building during post-conflict periods.

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3. Among the international organizations attending to the needs of displaced populations are UNHCR (the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees), UNOCHA (the United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs), UNICEF (the United Nations Children's Fund), UNESCO (the United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation), UNDP (the United Nations Development Programme), and the International Organization for Migration. UNICEF places critical emphasis on the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 28), serving children in emergencies though Child Friendly Spaces, and positioning education as a part of rehabilitation and/or reconstruction of national school systems. UNESCO has a Programme for Education for Emergency and Reconstruction (PEER), which is an emergency-oriented educational program established in 1993. International NGOs include the International Rescue Committee, Save the Children, Catholic Relief Services, and CARE, among others.
4. For coordination issues for education during emergencies and post-conflict reconstruction, see Sommers (2004).

The case studies emphasize that conflict is not an event that is completed or finished when a peace treaty is signed. The conflict continues to affect those who have endured it, causing them mental and physical pain. Some of the traumas are visible, but often they are invisible, and can go unnoticed and untreated. The case studies strongly suggest that international organizations and government agencies should find ways to manage immediate educational needs while developing long-term plans to respond to evolving situations. One overriding recommendation emerges from this book and the symposium: international organizations should respond appropriately to the different phases of assistance, provide longer-term support for education programs, and commit themselves to helping national programs plan for sustainability.

Who should be in charge of helping with educational reconstruction and reform in a conflict-afflicted society? Multilateral development banks and some bilateral development agencies claim that their structure and nature do not make it easy for them to respond to crisis situations quickly. Effective responses to conflict often span multiples sectors, and thus must engage several branches of their institutions. If the sectors do not work together, a holistic, integrated response will not be achieved. In addition, these institutions must be accountable to many actors, making it difficult for them to act quickly. By the time they clear key documents through many offices, their response may arrive too late.

It is sensible, then, that development banks see themselves as responsible mainly for medium and longer-term reconstruction and development cooperation rather than emergency humanitarian assistance. However, there are some short-term measures they can take. They can provide short-term grant support for essential educational policy and program planning activities during a conflict. They can also help shore up governmental and civil society institutions that will be the architects of educational innovation. And they can help prepare a nation's education and training systems to support effective post-conflict transition and longer-term development.

To answer the question of "who" should be in charge, it appears that an attitudinal shift will be required within humanitarian and development institutions. The escalation of conflicts in recent years is affecting development strategies in all world regions. As a consequence, the traditional roles of international development institutions should be reconsidered. What can they do to respond effectively to short- and longer-term education needs of people

in conflict-afflicted societies? How and with whom should donors and international NGOs collaborate and coordinate their services? As large multilateral and bilateral institutions take steps to bridge between emergency assistance and longer-term development cooperation, the challenge remains of constructing effective support among donors and national actors, against the backdrop of ongoing conflict or its aftermath.

Inter-regional Dialogue

In searching for solutions, there is reason for optimism, as this book and the underlying symposium testify. Despite major geographical distances and cultural differences, the programs from Latin America and Asia presented in this book share very similar processes for reconstructing education in conflict or post-conflict situations. They faced similar challenges and have responded to them in innovative ways.

These positive elements are described in the introductory chapter and emerge again and again throughout the case studies. One common element is the importance of using a participatory approach, with the community and parents fully involved in the preparation of programs and materials, decision-making processes, and program execution. Another point of commonality is the need to use an integrated approach, which encompasses not only the education component but also income-generating activities such as microcredit. Still another common approach is the importance given to monitoring and evaluation. Findings can be used to improve programs and form partnerships among diverse actors, such as local NGOs, public and private sectors, and multiple donors.

The education policy initiatives described in this book—in countries as far-flung as El Salvador, Laos, and Viet Nam—all address the importance of participatory dialogue and flexibility in the reform plan to meet the diverse yet urgent needs of conflict-afflicted societies. They also acknowledge the need to establish a disaggregated national data system to capture such diversity and use findings for continuous program refinement.

A key challenge to the development of education policy in conflict situations is people's receptivity to change. People who have been through violent crisis, or have been displaced from their communities and need to recreate new

ones, search for a new life that is comfortable and familiar to them. Some tend reflexively to return to traditional ways. Similar reactions can occur when attempts are made to reform educational practices. Some people may not consciously realize that an old dysfunctional education system is no longer appropriate for the new society to be established. Some leaders will be acutely aware that education reform is essential. However, during the post-conflict period they need to act quickly to begin consultative processes because within a year or two, the clamor for the old and familiar will outweigh concerns for improving educational equity and quality.

One of the Asian participants noted the need to acknowledge and learn from her country's policy failures and gaps, and to be open to external ideas from international organizations. A "we-can-do-everything" mindset that can emerge after a prolonged war—in some cases, 30 years—is not realistic. When the people in a country have a high level of commitment but lack knowledge of lessons learned elsewhere, the role of international or bilateral organizations and their advisors can become quite important.

Nevertheless, a model cannot be exported "as is" from one place to another. This is particularly true in the education sector, which is usually a product of the national identity and goals. During reconstruction, it is common for donor agencies to import external education models, believing that they can help rebuild a country's education system rapidly. For an external model to be effective, it needs to be carefully examined, reshaped, and adapted to be appropriate to local and national needs. Furthermore, it takes time for a national education effort to be sustainable and effective: building new education policies and programs that achieve scale step-by-step, making sure that experiences are well-documented, and ensuring that evaluation is incorporated for continuous reflection and program revision. In the meantime, governments can work not only with public sector programs but also with national NGOs, which often have greater flexibility to respond to urgent needs of special populations.

Programs initiated by institutions of civil society in Cambodia, Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Indonesia, Peru, and the Philippines have yielded many valuable lessons. These institutions include national NGOs, community development organizations, universities, and associations. Importantly, they have developed new concepts and approaches, and they have shared the results of their innovations with others, for replication by public agencies and

other NGOs. These programs developed new methods for selecting community personnel, responding speedily, ensuring gender sensitivity, and forming partnerships. They also developed support networks of newly formed grassroots organizations that promote human rights and seek to achieve sustainable development. The leaders of these programs point out that education *per se* cannot solve all socioeconomic problems. During and after conflicts, education policies and programs need to be positioned—probably repositioned—outside of a bounded formal education sector to ensure that linkages are forged with other important agendas of government and institutions of civil society. Indeed, seven out of the ten education programs discussed in this book are complemented by non-education programs run by the same organization.

It is not possible to make region-wide generalizations from the ten case studies. However, comparing these cases suggests a few trends in terms of collaboration with government programs, leveraging of resources, and educational reform. In Asia, certain trends in relationships between institutions of government and the civil society can be discerned. In one instance in the Philippines, needs for improving educational quality during conflict were met by a local NGO that was able to form a collaborative relationship relatively quickly with local government agencies and international donors. In another case in Cambodia, local needs first were addressed by a consortium of international NGOs, which then developed a network of collaborations with several local NGOs. This expanded initiative caught the attention of yet other international organizations. Only then did the national government "buy" the idea, commit its resources, and begin to incorporate new language education practices into the policy agenda.

This seems to be the more common path for innovative seed programs to grow in Asia. Often times, innovation on a larger scale requires time and patience to soften resistance. These cases demonstrate a willingness on the part of national governments to learn from new ideas, whether the initiator is a local entity or an international one. What is critical is to find ways to support new, innovative, and successful practices that will benefit a larger population. The Asian cases present several success stories in their endeavors to form partnerships with government entities. In particular, the cases from Cambodia and the Philippines illustrate how their programs were incorporated into a policy dialogue. They became voices for closer and positive alliances with public entities. It appears that in their long-term vision is a partnership of civil

society with the government. Governments seem to be gradually responding, in accordance with international trends in educational planning for "decentralization with participation."

This Asian approach contrasts with a general mistrust of government in some Latin American countries. There, some NGO initiatives work independently of government, as exemplified by the case study from Peru. However, the case studies of programs in Colombia, El Salvador (to train ex-combatants), and Guatemala demonstrate that national NGOs can maintain institutional independence while forging creative strategic alliances with governmental agencies. The more independent nature of program development on the part of Latin American NGOs or private institutions does not mean they have been constrained for growth. They have been creative in diversifying their sources of financial support and many have been successful in attracting governmental support at all levels. They have found that collaboration can leverage resources and generate benefits that clearly outweigh the costs of collaboration, even in such a complex context of conflict.

In a conflict or post-conflict context, confrontations between different actors always will occur. The promising case of education reform in El Salvador demonstrates that participatory national educational reform movements can buffer tensions and can be used as a basis for negotiation, consensus building, and overcoming confrontation and competition. Education can play an essential role in the process of social reconstruction in a post-conflict country. Policies and programs for education and social reconstruction can open doors as a country pursues the renovation of society and as the people reweave the fabric of daily life.

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EL SALVADOR

JOSÉ LUIS GUZMÁN is an Education Consultant and has expertise in educational policy, implementation, and evaluation; education research; teacher professional development; education technologies, and educational decentralization. He is a member of the Board of Directors of the Centro ALFA, S.A. de C.V, El Salvador, a private sector organization focusing on education research, teacher training, and technical assistance for improving educational quality. He organized an Annual Pedagogical Conference supported by international organizations and private firms to stimulate the professional development of teachers and principals in El Salvador and to facilitate dialogue between local and international specialists. In collaboration with the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas (PREAL), he was responsible for elaborating the 2002 Report Card on Education in El Salvador. He was the founder and Chair of the Education Department, Central American University (UCA), José Simeón Cañas in San Salvador (1991–95). He has provided technical assistance under initiatives of the United Nations, World Bank, USAID, and other agencies. He has made numerous presentations at major international conferences and meetings, and written many publications in his areas of expertise. He has an M.A. from the Social Foundations of Education Program, the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa (1991), a Licenciatura in Psychology (from the UCA, 1987), and a Diploma in Latin American Educational Policy Analysis from the Ibero-American University and the Center for Educational Studies, Mexico (1993).

EDUVIGIS AUXILIADORA GUZMÁN DE LUNA is a founder, the Executive Director, and member of the Board of Directors of the Salvadoran Pro-Rural Health Association (ASAPROSAR). Under her leadership, ASAPROSAR has launched several sustainable, integrated community development programs with an

emphasis on gender equity. More than 500,000 people have benefited from her initiatives in community health, child and youth development, environmental protection, skills training, and credit for establishing small enterprises. She has spoken at numerous international development conferences, including the Grameen Bank (Bangladesh); World Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994); World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995); World Union for the Conservation of Nature Conference (Jordan, 2000); and Conference on Vision Building and Strategic Planning Workshops (India, 2002). She has received international recognition for her humanitarian and civic achievements and for her outstanding contributions to El Salvador's national reconstruction. In 2002, the Legislative Assembly of El Salvador recognized her work on behalf of rural medicine. Dr. Guzmán is a physician, with a specialization in Public Health.

GUATEMALA

HUGO ESTRADA ARMAS is a Professor of Curricular Planning and Program Development at the National University of San Carlos of Guatemala. He frequently serves as a consultant in the areas of curriculum development, the design of training programs, and materials development to support education projects in both the formal and non-formal sectors for girls, boys, youth, and adults and has participated as a consultant in innovative projects for the World Bank, Save the Children, USAID, and the Partners of the Americas. His professional experiences range from the levels of primary, secondary, and higher education to adult education. He has also held positions as Project Administrator, Coordinator, and Researcher in projects related to community development, training and the implementation of innovative education models, especially with NGOs at local, regional, and national levels. He has participated in national and international seminars on education in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Peru. He has also made many presentations on his innovative experiences in the education sector of Guatemala. He holds a Licenciatura in Pedagogy and Sciences of Education from the University of San Carlos in Guatemala City, Guatemala, and is currently studying for an M.A. in Research from the same university.

INDONESIA

BAIHAJAR TUALEKA is the Director of LAPPAN (*Lembaga Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Anak*, the Women and Children Empowerment Foundation). Her areas of expertise include: human and child rights, peace education in schools and universities, peace building, community conflict resolution,

women and children's empowerment, and community organization. She has served as a training facilitator in these areas for farmers and was a trainer of trainers for the implementation of the Children's Rights Convention. She has also trained trainers for peace education in her country. She has participated in many internationally sponsored workshops and seminars, including those of UNICEF and various international NGOs. She holds a Bachelor's degree in Agriculture from Pattimura University in Ambon, Maluku, Indonesia.

SONDANG IRENE ERISANDY is an expert in handling the trauma and stress of persons suffering from conflict situations and violence. Currently, she is the Coordinator for the ACEH Program in the PULIH Foundation–Centre for the Psychosocial Trauma Prevention and Intervention, Indonesia. Previously, she was a Mental Health Trainer, Program Manager for post-traumatic stress, a Program Officer for local capacity building programs sponsored by international NGOs, and a Technical Advisor on a number of policy development exercises and research projects. She is a member of the Technical Working Group for the national policy revision of Psychosocial Intervention in Disaster and Conflict in Indonesia, facilitated by the World Health Organization. As one of the authors of the community-based psychosocial principles and guidelines for victims of violence and post-traumatic stress for Indonesia, she has joined a team to revise a UNICEF book to fit the Indonesia context. Formerly, she served as a psychologist and trainer. She has participated in many international and national seminars and training programs. She holds a B.A. and Master's level Psychologist's degree from the University of Indonesia, Jakarta.

LIVIA ISKANDAR-DHARMAWAN is the founder and Manager of PULIH, Centre for the Prevention and Intervention for Psychological Trauma, in Jakarta. Her expertise is in designing community-based psychosocial programs for internally displaced persons. In this capacity, she has written extensively, helped draft psychosocial policy for conflict-affected areas with the Directorate General of Community Mental Health, Ministry of Health, and the World Health Organization, and has conducted community-based training. She is completing a community-based psychosocial book on working with survivors of mass violence in conflict-affected areas in Indonesia (a PULIH publication). She is a university professor and conducts training for local organizations working with survivors of violence in conflict-affected communities. She has served on a working group of the National Commission on Violence Against Women in studying community-based interventions in

South Africa and has presented at many professional conferences and seminars. She has an M.A. in Psychological Counseling from City University, UK.

LAO PDR

SENGDEUANE LACHANTHABOUN is the Director, Teacher Training Department, of the Lao PDR Ministry of Education. Currently, she is overseeing the implementation of the Teacher Upgrading Project (TUP), Phase III (2003–08) after serving in many of its managerial positions and leading the training of trainers programs. She was a Mathematics Professor at the University Institute of Pedagogy in Vientiane (1977–90) before transferring to the Department of Teacher Training at the Ministry of Education (MOE). Her first responsibility at the Department was the pilot pre-service primary teacher training curriculum (11+1), which has since been expanded nationwide to reduce the shortfall of teachers. In 1992, she began working with Phase I of the TUP, leading the design of the teacher training curriculum and materials. She has applied the TUP training model to the comprehensive MOE project, "Education Quality Improvement Project Phase II" (2001–07). She has an M.A. in Education Administration, Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia.

KHAMLA PHOMSAVANH is the Chief of the In-service Training Program, Teacher Training Department, of the Lao PDR Ministry of Education. Over the years, she has been responsible for pre-service and in-service teacher training at all levels, from early childhood to secondary education. She has also served as a program evaluator. She is active in the Ethnic Minority Teachers' Training Project, as well as in inter-ministerial working groups for the design of training curricula (drug prevention, health/hygiene, and HIV/AIDS). She grew up in the northern Lao PDR, where educational opportunities first became available for rural women. She became one of the first young women in her district to attend primary school. During wartime, she took a four-day journey by foot over mountain trails to attend secondary school and attended Teacher Training College in classrooms hidden in caves. She had to travel to neighboring Viet Nam for advanced studies. Students raised their own food by moonlight and cooked before dawn to avoid detection and aerial bombing. Because the government valued education, a cadre of persons, including Ms. Phomsavanh, was developed and filled posts at both rural schools and in the Ministries. She has a B.S. in Biology from Ha Noi Teacher Training College.

ANNE THOMAS *(see Cambodia, above)*

PERU

ROSA MARÍA MUJICA BARREDA is a member of the Board of Directors of the Peruvian Institute of Education for Human Rights and Peace (IPEDEHP). She has led planning and program development in IPEDEHP for many years and has chronicled the development of this nation-wide program. As a leading Latin American specialist in the fields of human rights, democracy, and trauma healing, she has made many presentations at national and international conferences. Her extensive research and writings address the topics of adult and workplace education, evaluation, non-formal education, and teaching/learning methodologies. She holds a Licenciatura in Education from Pontificia Universidad del Peru, Lima. She specialized in Philosophy, Psychology and Social Sciences, with an emphasis on the field of policy and strategic planning.

THE PHILIPPINES

FENY DE LOS ANGELES-BAUTISTA is Executive Director of the Community of Learners Foundation (COLF), and of the Philippine Children's Television Foundation (PCTVF). She is a pioneer in early childhood care and development approaches and the use of communications media, such as television, to innovate in education. She has held academic positions and served as a national and international education consultant and researcher for the United Nations and its specialized agencies, including UNICEF, UNESCO, and the ILO, for NGOs, and for education ministries in some Asian countries. She was the Director of Research and Curriculum for the Philippine Sesame Street Project and the Chair of the Department of Family Life and Child Development, University of the Philippines. She has written many children's books and resource guides on early childhood education, children and media, and children's rights. She was the Guest Editor of *Early Childhood Matters* (June 2001 edition), and was involved in the children's book series on children's rights for UNICEF and PCTVF. She has made numerous presentations at "state-of-the art" conferences and has been recognized internationally for her contributions. She has a M.S. in Education in Educational Leadership from Bank Street College of Education, New York, and a B.S. in Family Life and Child Development from the University of the Philippines, Quezon City.

VIET NAM

DUONG VAN THANH is an Assistant Resident Director, University of Massachusetts, Amherst and has received Fulbright fellowships. Her primary research and teaching fields have centered on the following topics: educational policy and planning, girls' and women's education, community development/participation linkages with schools, student development and leadership, continuous assessment and standard achievement testing, and education in Viet Nam. In these capacities, she has conducted numerous studies on education development and evaluation in Southeast Asia and Viet Nam. Her research studies have resulted in several books and numerous articles on these topics, including a Case Study on Girls' Work and Girls' Education in Viet Nam, published by UNICEF, Hanoi. She co-edited the *Viet Nam Education and Training Directory* (1995) and *International Relations in Education and Training in Viet Nam* (1996) Her work-in-progress is a chapter entitled "Leading Organizations for Universal Design." She has made frequent presentations at conferences and serves as an educational consultant. From 1992–96, she was the Senior Program Officer, International Relations Department, Ministry of Education and Training, Viet Nam, and was also the Program Coordinator of a series of training programs leading to Education for All in Viet Nam. She has an Ed.D. from the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and an M.A. in Public Affairs from the University of Minnesota.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

For countries torn by war or violence, the stakes for developing education policies and quality programs are high. Effective education is essential to prepare the next generation for a productive life, heal psychological wounds, prevent cyclical violence, and achieve peace. If educational needs are ignored during and after war, prior education systems may be retained and perpetuate conditions that can lead to more conflict. *From Bullets to Blackboards* profiles 10 exemplary education programs in Latin America and Asia, covering such topics as policy reform, early childhood development, primary and bilingual education, vocational skills for ex-combatants and displaced families, and training for human rights and democracy. By presenting lessons learned across the two regions, this book advances understanding of how to develop effective education programs in conflict situations.

Emily Vargas-Barón and *Hernando Bernal Alarcón* direct the Institute for Reconstruction and International Security through Education (the RISE Institute), an international nongovernmental organization based in Washington, D.C. and Bogotá, Colombia.