education and conflict
research and research possibilities

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Other researchers too many to mention here were consulted during the course of the project; thanks are due for their thoughts and supportive contributions.
It is estimated that half of the 104 million children not attending primary school live in countries in, or recovering from, conflict (UNESCO, 2004). Countries that have lost educational infrastructure as a result of war are less likely to reach the Dakar goal of primary education for all by 2015 (UNESCO, 2000). The role of conflict as an obstacle to the achievement of the goal of ‘Education for All’ (EFA) was recognised at the World Education Forum at Dakar in 2000, where it was stated that education can play a key role in preventing conflict and building peace. On a local level, the tragedy which unfolded in a school in Beslan, southern Russia in September 2004, is but one of multiple examples of how education may be deliberately (ab)used in conflict situations. The impact of conflict on education is thus a key issue for developments in education across the world.

Conversely, education is increasingly seen to have a role to play in mitigating and/or exacerbating conflict. Education can provide a protective function for children in conflict or post-conflict situations (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003), in related ways to the role it plays for children in care (Fletcher-Campbell et al., 2003). But although it is often assumed that increased education decreases the propensity of individuals to partake of conflict, recent research evidence has indicated that this is not always the case. Bush and Salterelli’s paper on the ‘two faces of education’ provided a focus for practitioner examination of this issue (Bush and Salterelli, 2000), including conflict-promoting aspects of education. And recent work from the University of Birmingham (Davies, 2004a; Harber, 2004) provides a detailed exposition of this argument from an academic perspective. These works question our very basic assumption that education — in and outwith conflict scenarios — is essentially a ‘good thing’ and thus have implications for all education practitioners, policy makers and researchers.

This report concludes a project which sought to identify research into the relationship between education and conflict and to highlight gaps in the research in this field, in order to suggest future directions for research.
2 Methodology: planned and actual

This project was undertaken by the National Foundation for Educational Research as part of its drive to diversify its research base. The research was therefore funded by the Foundation’s internal Research Development Fund.

As the project was undertaken as a developmental activity, it is unsurprising – and indeed to be welcomed – that the process of the research threw up methodological challenges. This chapter will set out the aims and objectives of the project, the intended methodology and the actual practice.

2.1 Project aims and objectives

The aim of the project was:

to undertake a scoping study of existent and potential research into the relationship between education and conflict, peace-building and post-conflict situations, both nationally and internationally.

Within this aim, the project looked to:

• highlight the main research dimensions of this area

• identify gaps in the research literature

• summarise key research findings that emerge from the literature

• suggest potential areas of research for development by the NFER

• identify potential sponsors of such research.

2.2 Methodology as planned...

The project sought, somewhat ambitiously, to identify questions that had been addressed through previous systematic research regarding the ways in which education impacts on conflict and conflict on education. These were thought to include:

• what is the impact of education or lack thereof on the promotion, prevention or reconciliation of conflict?

• what implications does living through conflict have for children's educational needs, learning styles and attainment?

As a scoping study, it was intended that the project primarily identify areas in which research had and had not been undertaken, rather than constitute a systematic review of the literature. Given the disparate existent evidence base and the likely 'grey' (unpublished) nature of much work in this field, it was expected that contacts and literature would be identified through 'snowballing' techniques (following one link that leads to another) through use of the internet as much as through systematic searches of databases. Additionally, it was planned that contact would be made by email, telephone and, if necessary and feasible, in person with individuals working in this field. A researcher was to attend the 2004 BAICE conference in order to identify further existent research and potential gaps.

2.3 ...and as practised

Literature searches

As is standard at the beginning of an NFER literature review, the researcher worked with the library in identifying keywords to be used in searches of key educational databases. The search was limited to literature published between 1997 and 2004. Databases searched by library staff included AEI (Australian Education Index), BEI (British Education Index), CBCA Fulltext (Canadian Business and Current Affairs), Current Educational Research in the United Kingdom (CERUK), ChildData and ERIC (Education Resources Information Center), as well as the Library's own internal bibliographical databases. The keywords used were:

• conflict resolution

• peace
• peace education
• peace studies
• religious conflict
• war.

For full details of the literature search strategy, see Appendix 2.

It became apparent that the keywords used threw up vast numbers of references that were of tangential interest to the project. While this necessitated time-consuming ‘weeding’, it also helped to clarify the parameters of the project. For example, it became clear that the keyword ‘conflict resolution’ covered a broad range of activities, some of which were decidedly not within the remit of the project (e.g. marital disharmony, business conflict management) and others which encouraged a more specific definition of the project’s terms. There is, for example, a considerable amount of literature on conflict resolution between individuals within schools. It was decided that, unless such conflict related to group (ethnic, religious, etc.) affiliations, it was not to be examined within this project.

‘Conflict’ was thus taken to refer to violent conflict between (representatives or members of) groups and ‘education’ to cover in-school and out-of-school education and peace initiatives, formal and informal education, with no specific age limitations.

Also useful in the search for relevant literature was Educating Towards a Culture of Peace: A Select Bibliography Focusing on the Last 25 Years (Bjerstedt, 2001). This select bibliography, of 389 pages without annotations, lists publications in English, German and Scandinavian languages. Appropriate sections were scanned by the research team for relevant references.

It also became apparent that the articles of interest in the field of education and conflict were not for the most part published in journals held by the NFER’s library. Rather, many were published in peace-related journals, but others were found in other specialised publications (e.g. Sugden and Stidder (2003) in the Bulletin of Physical Education). Within the resource-constraints of the project it was not appropriate to order copies of all these articles on inter-library loan. Instead, British Library shelfmarks were identified, with the intention that the researcher would consult the publications in situ.

**Literature on the internet**

Much was gained by searching on the internet, by the lead researcher, administrator and library staff. In some cases, material found in literature search results was available on line. (This was particularly the case for ‘practitioner’ literature). In other cases, ‘snowballing’ – by following links from one page of interest to another – was used. Key websites accessed during the course of the project are listed in Appendix 1.

**To read or not to read?**

In practice, it was neither feasible (in terms of the time involved) nor desirable (given the scoping nature of the project and the emerging findings regarding the importance of personal contact – see below) to read all the literature found to be of particular interest. As a result, web-based literature and items available in the NFER library were prioritised, although some use was made of the British Library.

Some key texts, felt to be key by the frequency of their reference by others, or by the standing of their authors, were read in some depth; others were skimmed for issues of interest. It became apparent that it was inappropriate to try to survey all the issues covered by the literature. Rather, it was decided to focus on identifying researchable, or actionable, gaps.

**Two conferences and many people**

It had been planned at the proposal stage that the researcher would attend the British Association for International and Comparative Education (BAICE) 2004 conference, held at the University of Sussex, 3–5 September 2004. The theme of the 2004 conference was, fortuitously, ‘Education in the 21st Century: Conflict, Reconciliation and Reconstruction’. Although the researcher did not present a paper at this conference, it was an ideal setting at which to get to grips with the issues that academics were examining and the extent to which research was (or was not) focussing particularly on this topic. Keynote speeches by Professor Alan Smith, UNESCO Chair in Education for Pluralism, Human Rights and Democracy at the University of Ulster and Professor Lynn Davies, Director of the Centre for International Education and Research
at the School of Education, University of Birmingham, provided an introduction to key academics working in this field, at least in the UK. But probably most valuable, as is the case at many conferences, was the contact with other researchers and practitioners and the delegate list in the conference pack. Conversations during the conference provided opportunities to investigate others’ perceptions of the research and research gaps in this field. The delegate list was used following the conference to email many of those present, to request copies of papers and to seek further views on the issues under question.

In hindsight, it may be felt that asking experts for their views on the research gaps in a field is unlikely to be particularly, or at least not directly, productive. Busy practitioners and policy makers are unlikely to give much thought to the question if it does not directly interest them. Academics may be reluctant to reveal issues that they intend to research themselves. However, this contact produced references to additional literature.

In addition and not initially planned in the project proposal, in December 2004 the researcher attended the Second Global Consultation on Education in Emergencies, in Cape Town, South Africa. This consultation was organised by the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (see Appendix 3). Having asked to present a paper, the researcher was requested by the organisers to facilitate the panel on “The Importance of Research in Education in Times of Crisis”. The three papers and the ensuing discussion highlighted some of difficulties involved in research education and conflict and, as well as pointing to some research gaps, provided suggestions of ways to progress the field.

In contrast to the BAICE conference, the INEE Consultation was primarily a practitioner/policy maker conference. As such, it provided an excellent opportunity to examine the perspective of those whose careers involve implementing, rather than researching, education programmes in times of crisis. It was possible here, as it would not have been if reliant only on the literature, to glimpse the priorities of practitioners and their views on research and researchers. This opportunity made clearer the links between key actors working in this field and hence potential sponsors, or at least partners in research bids.

In a related development, during the project (27 September – 22 October 2004) a virtual discussion on ‘Planning education before, in and after emergencies’ took place in an internet discussion forum. This was organised by UNESCO’s International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and facilitated by Margaret Sinclair, drawing in part on her publication on this issue (Sinclair, 2002b). The four-week discussion, while not focussed particularly on research issues, provided an insight into the concerns of practitioners and policy makers. Sinclair’s report on the forum (Sinclair, 2004) summarises these discussions.
3 Education and conflict – research issues and difficulties

3.1 Defining the terms
As discussed in section 2.3, for the purposes of this project ‘education’ was taken to include activities in and out of school, formal and non-formal initiatives and age limits were not applied. ‘Conflict’ was more problematic, as it is often perceived as a negative term, but during the project it became apparent that many authors write of conflict as a (potentially) positive state of affairs. Conflict as questioning, dialogue, struggle or debate is universal, found within families, communities, nations (Davies, 2004a, p. 9). As Tawil states, ‘conflict is inherent to social dynamics [and therefore] peace is not the absence of conflict. Rather, it is an operating mode wherein conflict is managed through non-violent means’ (Tawil, 1997, p.14). It is not the existence of conflict that is good or bad, but rather how it is resolved and how change is achieved. However, in defining the terms of this research project, ‘conflict’, was taken to refer to violent conflict between (representatives or members of) groups and it is this negative aspect that should be assumed in this report, unless otherwise stated.

‘Education and conflict’ can be subsumed within the wider international concern with education in ‘emergencies’. Sinclair includes within this term ‘conflict or natural disaster, displacement of population (whether to another country or internally) return to the home area and/or populations that did not migrate, acute early phase, prolonged crisis or reconstruction’ (Sinclair, 2004, p. 1). Many of the issues that apply to the provision of education in conflict situations also apply post-natural disaster, but these have not been a special focus in this report.

3.2 A developing field: what are the issues?
Education in conflict and post-conflict situations, as a recognised practitioner and research field, is in its infancy. As Sommers notes, ‘The literature is too thin and the range of experience is too wide to be covered in one paper’ (Sommers, 2002, p. 2). This report highlights some key issues and gives examples of potentially less widely known research, while indicating possible future research directions.

Children’s entitlement to education is well established in international law, including through the Geneva Conventions, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and a number of UN Security Council Resolutions (Harvey, 2003). But although a strong legal framework exists, its application in practice is limited, particularly during war. However, additional international impetus to provided by the Millennium Development Goals agreed in Dakar in 2000, including that of quality basic education for all by 2015 (UNESCO, 2000). In countries affected by conflict, these present an enormous challenge. Sommers notes that, ‘in some cases, war’s impact on an education system has been so extensive that approaching the EFA targets seems nearly impossible’ (Sommers, 2002, p. 1). He concludes that ‘Reaching, much less approaching, EFA targets cannot get off the ground until the major donors aggressively support education in advance of, during and immediately after wars’ (Sommers, 2002, p. 24).

A milestone in the development of education and conflict as an issue for consideration by practitioners and policy makers was the submission to the UN General Assembly publication of Graça Machel’s report Impact of Armed Conflict on Children (United Nations, 1996). A former Minister of Education in Mozambique, Machel had been appointed the expert of the UN Secretary-General to undertake this study. Machel stated:

Education is particularly important at times of armed conflict. While all around may be in chaos, schooling can represent a state of normalcy. School children have the chance to be with friends and enjoy their support and encouragement. They benefit from regular contacts with teachers who can monitor their physical and psychological health. Teachers can also help children to develop new skills and knowledge necessary for survival and coping, including mine awareness, negotiation and problem solving and information about HIV/AIDS and other health issues. Formal education also benefits the community as a whole. The ability to carry on schooling in the most
difficult circumstances demonstrates a confidence in the future: communities that still have a school feel they have something durable and worthy of protection.

(United Nations, 1996, p. 54)

Since Machel’s report a number of other organisations have produced publications which review the challenges involved in providing education during and after conflict. In general, such challenges are well documented, although not always systematically researched. This report does not seek to summarise these issues in detail – they have been better covered by others and to do so would be counter-productive. But the issues in question include the following:

• schools and educational personnel are targets of violence, which leads to destruction of infrastructure
• lost schooling for the youth of conflict years results in a vulnerable society, affecting recovery and reconstruction
• there is less investment in education in times of war
• fear and disruption produce an atmosphere not conducive to learning
• teachers going without salaries may lead to corruption
• emergency donors are reluctant to fund education if it is seen as a ‘development’ issue
• teachers and education officials may be unfamiliar with the learner-centred teaching approaches that agencies use the ‘opportunity’ of emergency provision to provide
• there is a risk that provision of education to refugees is of a higher standard than that for host populations, leading to tensions between groups
• the legitimacy of governments and of their curricula is questioned when in civil war
• international agencies may unintentionally undermine the capacity of governments to provide education, by offering high salaries which employ former education professionals away from education
• people become focussed on survival and education is not prioritised
• a gun in a child’s hands gives power, which they may not want to give up
• schools in conflict areas may be disconnected from a large school system
• providing schools for hundreds of thousands of children during a humanitarian emergency is costly and time consuming
• the greatest focus is on primary education, leaving secondary and adult education less well-resourced
• agencies are reluctant to pay teachers’ salaries, which is seen as the role of governments.

However, the provision of education in times of conflict or post-conflict has been seen to provide some positive possibilities, including:

• re-establishing schooling restores a sense of normality to the community
• schools provide protection for pupils at risk
• education provides a channel for survival messages, for example around HIV/AIDS
• refugee camps make it easier to bring children together in classroom-like situations
• distance learning post-conflict is flexible and cost-effective
• schooling frees adults to get on with re-building or earning a living
• post-conflict reconstruction allows for the re-development of curriculum, including the inclusion of peace or citizenship education.

A number of publications provide useful overviews of these and other issues. Tawil (1997), drawing on a collection of case studies and workshop discussions, provides a useful early outline of the issues facing those seeking to provide education in and after conflict.¹

¹ Another review of this time is that by Arnhold et al. (1998), a short research study commissioned by DfID in 1996.
Sommers (2004) provides an updated brief summary of the challenges facing the field seven years later. Nicolai and Triplehorn summarise the contributions of the main agencies (UN, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), NGOs and donors) working to provide education in conflict scenarios. They also describe two operational frameworks used by such agencies: the phased approach of programming in three phases of a crisis and the child-centred approach, putting children at the centre of decisions about emergency responses (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003, pp.14–18). Sinclair, in her Planning Education In and After Emergencies (2002b), provides advice for educational planners and administration and other senior government officials and policy-makers, in particular through identifying principles which characterise good practice in educational response to crisis, in the areas of access, resources, activities and curriculum, coordination and capacity-building (Sinclair, 2002b, pp. 29–30). The UNESCO IIEP internet discussion forum held in autumn 2004 (see section 2.3) was guided by these principles (Sinclair, 2004).

3.3 What is the evidence?

Despite this wide awareness and records of some of the most pressing issues in this field, there is a dearth of evidence from evaluations of successful, or unsuccessful, programmes. As Miller and Affolter state, ‘there is relatively little evaluative and reflective material available about educational interventions in many post-conflict contexts’ (Miller and Affolter, 2002, p. 1; see also Bird, 2003; Sinclair, 2002b, p. 129; Sommers, 2002, p. 16). Davies similarly states that:

*the link between conflict and education is a grossly under-analysed area. This is not surprising, as it is uncomfortable for policymakers and curriculum developers. It is safer to focus on literacy and numeracy, on the number of desks and the achievement of measurable targets.*

(Davies, 2004a, p. 7)

In such circumstances there is a danger that initiatives will be repeated without an assessment of whether or not they reached their intended aims and whether they have had unintended impacts.

This situation is mirrored in the data available to monitor the provision of education during or post-conflict, or in emergencies more generally. Such provision is undertaken by a variety of governmental and non-governmental, UN and religious organisations, adding to the difficulty of capturing data on those in or out of school. Sommers notes that:

*The statistical imprecision of data on populations affected by wars presents a serious constraint on the ability to accurately estimate war’s impact on education systems, administrators, teachers and students. All we know for certain is that the impact has been tremendous.*

(Sommers, 2002, p. 3)

The Global Survey on Education in Emergencies pulls together data primarily from UN agencies and NGOs, in an effort to understand how many children affected by emergencies have access to education and the nature of this education (Women’s Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2004). While it is recognised that during conflicts governments are not always best-placed to collect data on educational provision, the Global Survey would be complemented and allow further comparison, by an extension of such data collection and synthesis.

A further hindrance to research and development of good practice in this field is the fact that, while agencies produce their own internal literature and, in many cases, evaluations, such ‘grey literature’ is not generally published. Although the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE, see Appendix 3)’ holds some examples of good practice in the field of education and emergencies and the Global Information Networks in Education (GINIE)’ website has the facility to hold such documentation (but was not operational at the time of writing), valuable experience is not shared as readily as it might be. While it is understood that some documentation must remain confidential, commitment to sharing grey literature through an efficient searchable, internet-based database would increase the resources available to researchers, practitioners and policy makers seeking to improve the practice of provision of education in situations of conflict.

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2 See http://www.ineesite.org/default.asp
3 See http://www.ginie.org/
However, despite these difficulties, valuable published examples of research and evaluations on education and conflict do of course exist and particular themes that have arisen during this project are examined in chapter 4.

3.4 The research-practice gap

During the course of the project and particularly in talking with practitioners and policy makers, it became increasingly apparent that, while there are clearly research gaps in what is a new and developing field, the biggest gap is that between research and practice. That is, published research is often inaccessible, or at least not accessed by those who might make use of it in practice. Policy makers and practitioners in governments, local and international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and UN agencies (particularly UNESCO, UNHCR and UNICEF) seem more likely to be aware of research and reflective reports written by those within their own field of operation, as opposed to work undertaken by university faculty. This is in some senses unsurprising, given the fora in which academics tend to publish are largely inaccessible outside universities and the hectic lives of ‘dusty-booted practitioners’ working in situations of emergencies. However, in order for research to make an impact on educational interventions and assist in the progress towards universal free and compulsory good quality basic education for all by 2015, the gap between research and practice needs better bridges.

Hill (2004) reports on ongoing research which examines the contexts in which use is made of some research findings when others are ignored. She indicates four considerations:

- **political processes** form the main obstacle to increasing evidence-based policies, as policymakers are more likely to be influenced by research which fits with their institutional limits and ideology assumptions – or sufficiently challenges these

- **external influences** affect the production and dissemination of research, as incentives (such as poverty reduction strategy processes) impact on demand for research.

These issues are difficult for individuals to counter. However, there is more scope for addressing Hill’s remaining points:

- **networks** of researchers and policymakers encourage trust, shared understanding and effective communication and encourage the contribution of evidence to better policy-making

- **evidence** must be credible and convincing and research should provide practical solutions to current policy problems (Hill, 2004).

In relation to ‘networks’, one of the recommendations of the INEE’s Second Global Consultation on Education in Emergencies was that a research task team should be established under the auspices of INEE, including an e-discussion list. Such a forum for communication might assist in identifying issues of pre-researched interest and thus fill perceived research gaps using insights from other fields.

‘Evidence’ is perhaps harder to address, as academic and practitioner interests do not always overlap. Research that might be interesting in itself – such as an examination of the moral orientations of Bosnian children (Garrod et al., 2003), or of the relationship between school culture and school effectiveness in emergencies in Israel during the Gulf War (Harrison and Kuint, 1998) – also has the potential to contribute to practice and policy developments. In their present form, however, such research reports are of little use to practitioners as they do not suggest the implications of their findings.

But some research publications might provide valuable background or baseline information to practitioners or policy makers working in specific localities. Specific examples of such work include a review of the history of education in Somali (Abdi, 1998) and a study of educational provision in South Kivu in the Democratic Republic of Congo (Balegamire, 1999). Similarly, for those working on particular interventions, research evidence may exist to support development. Sugden and Siddler’s discussion of a three year project bringing together Arab and Jewish children in football camps in Israel/Palestine is such an example, including as it does a frank evaluation of the successes and challenges of the project (2003). The challenge with these works is

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4 See http://www2.unesco.org/wef/en-conf/dakframeng.shtm
not so much the language in which they are written, or
their content – which it is suggested may well be of
immediate value to practitioners and policy makers –
but rather their place of publication. It is unlikely that
many NGO practitioners, or even academics researching
peace education, read the Bulletin of Physical Education,
in which Sugden and Stidder’s article is published.¹

A number of UN bodies have sought to review their
own and other organisations’ experiences of providing
education in conflict-related circumstances. The UNHCR
reviewed experience of refugee education in order to
contribute to updating guidelines for assistance in
developing countries (Crisp et al., 2001). A particularly
influential aspect of this work (practitioner, personal
communication) has been Sinclair’s review of the
debates around Teacher Education Packages, developed
by UNESCO in the early 1990s and seen in use by
UNICEF in Sri Lanka in the aftermath of the recent
tsunami ⁶ (Sinclair, 2001). UNESCO’s International
Bureau of Education supported a project examining
processes of curriculum change following civil strife and
the resulting seven country case studies were published
in 2004 (Tawil and Harvey, 2004). Elsewhere in
UNESCO, the International Institute for Educational
Planning (IIEP) has published a number of case studies
regarding practice of educational provision in East
Timor, Kosovo and Rwanda.⁷ An advantage of these
works to practitioners is that for the most part they are
available on the internet and therefore globally
accessible. Additionally, as many are written by past or
present practitioners and policymakers, the language is
accessible and relevant to their audience.

It is suggested that collaborative research projects
between professional researchers and UN agencies may
benefit both partners, through increasing the circulation
and accessibility of quality research. Indeed Tawil
argues that:

given the sensitivity of the topic, collaborative assessment
between researchers, policy makers and practitioners from
universities, international agencies and NGOs is most
appropriate for assessing the impact of educational
interventions in conflict situations.

(Tawil, 1997, p. 17)

One way in which such collaboration has been
undertaken is through partnership between post-
graduate students and NGOs. This approach enables
students to gain experience and data for their own
development, while agencies benefit from cost-free
localised research undertaken by people without the
time constraints involved in working for the programme
in question.⁸ Examples of work produced through such
partnerships includes examination of inclusive practices
in refugee camp schools on the Thai/Burma border
(Wallis, 2002), preventing school violence through
engagement with First Nations communities in Canada
(Ashford, 1997) and development and evaluation of a
pre-school peace education curriculum in South Africa
(Maxwell et al., 2004).

Evidence-based interventions

Policy makers and practitioners in the field of education
and conflict have expressed concern about the limited
body of evaluations and research on which to plan
further interventions. For example, Isaac notes that:

practitioners and researchers familiar with refugee and
humanitarian programmes recognize the limits to
delivering sustainable long-term educational programmes
if they are not linked to more grounded development
planning and programming.

(Isaac, 2001, p. 2; see also Tawil, 1997)

Planning future activities by drawing on learning from
the past requires both that:

a) implementing agencies evaluate their programmes
and projects, in order to identify what works and
what impact – unexpected and negative or
otherwise – their activities have.

b) those who undertake research and evaluations on
education and emergencies report their findings in a
form and forum accessible to those who may
operationalise the results.

It is suggested that publication on the internet, rather
than in education journals, is more likely to make
research accessible to field-based practitioners.

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⁵ These authors have of course published elsewhere. The point remains, though, that academic and/or specialist
publications are rarely accessed by practitioners or policy makers.

⁶ See http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/education/4148563.stm.


⁸ It is recognised that there may also be disadvantages of this approach, including the potentially relative inexperience of
postgraduate students as researchers.
Expansion of the literature available on the INEE website would be one way forward.

**Tools**

As well as ensuring that the content of research reports are useful to practitioners and policymakers, researchers may also assist by providing ‘tools’ for local analysis. Such tools might draw on research findings in order to help agencies pose appropriate questions to themselves (and potentially their beneficiaries) regarding local or regional needs and impacts. An example of such a tool is Isaac’s *Education, Conflict and Peacebuilding: A Diagnostic Tool* (2001), developed for CIDA, which focuses on education as a possible contributor to conflict. It is intended to help with analysis for planning formal educational responses to conflict. And *Helping Children Outgrow War* (Miller and Affolter, 2002), combines evaluative case studies with questions about the potential application of aspects of the examples provided to other contexts. Such works provide a model that other researchers may develop in producing practitioner-friendly research reports.
This chapter examines some of the published research in the field of education and conflict, highlighting ways that particular themes or practices might be taken forward to optimise the impact of research on practice.

**4.1 The good and the bad**

Those working on the provision of education in conflict situations have made a potential significant contribution to educational theory as well as planning in highlighting the assumptions that are made about the value of education. Bush and Salterellis’ *The Two Faces of Education in Conflict* challenged the widely held assumption, ‘that education is inevitably a force for good’ (2000, p. v). They examine peace-destroying conflict-maintaining impacts of particular approaches to education:

- the uneven distribution of education as a means of creating or preserving privilege
- education as a weapon in cultural repression
- denial of education as a weapon of war
- education as a means of manipulating history for political ends
- education serving to diminish self-worth and encourage hate
- segregated education as a means of ensuring inequality, inferiority and stereotypes
- textbooks’ role in impoverishing children’s imagination and inhibiting constructive conflict resolution.

Alongside this ‘negative face’ of education, the authors also identify peace-building and conflict-limiting impacts:

- conflict dampening impact of educational opportunity
- nurturing an ethically tolerant climate
- the desegregation of the mind
- linguistic tolerance
- cultivation of inclusive concepts of citizenship
- disarming of history
- education for peace programmes
- educational practice as an explicit response to state oppression (Bush and Salterellis, 2000, p. 34).

These and related issues have been examined in more depth by Professors Clive Harber and Lynn Davies of the University of Birmingham. In *Schooling as Violence: How Schools Harm Pupils and Societies*, Harber argues, with considerable evidence, that the dominant model of schooling world-wide is authoritarian and that this authoritarianism ‘provides the context for schools’ role in the reproduction and perpetration of violence’ (Harber, 2004, p. 38). His wide-ranging examination of a mass of research evidence, which takes in racism, control, sexual abuse, stereotyping the other, corporal punishment, examinations and militarisation in schools, provides the bleak conclusion that ‘examples of violence towards pupils by schools are disturbingly easy to come by if one chooses to look and see’ (Harber, 2004, p. 136).

Davies examines the antecedents to conflict and the role of education within those roots, followed by the ‘education/war interface’, with a similarly disturbing conclusion that:

> education indirectly does more to contribute to the underlying causes of conflict than it does to peace. This is through reproduction of economic inequality and the bifurcation of wealth/poverty; through the promotion of a particular version of hegemonic masculinity and gender segregation and through magnifying ethnic and religious segregation or intolerance.

(Davies, 2004a, p. 203)
Notably both authors refer not only to societies presently or recently at war, but to the general model of schooling used throughout the world. But both also include some examination of the positive face of education. Davies in particular reviews a number of peace education activities, noting that ‘paradoxically, peace education is achieved through exposure to conflict, either though manuals and narratives or through deep reflection on one’s own positing in a conflict situation’ (Davies, 2004a, p. 139). She argues for the encouragement of positive conflict within schools and for ‘interruptive democracy’ – ‘the process by which people are enabled to intervene in practices which continue injustices’ as the basis for schools that would help to avert conflict (Davies, 2004a, pp. 211–212, 224).

These authors encourage us to question basic assumptions about the worth and the purpose of the particular way on which education is administered in different contexts. And here we face the reverse problem of the practitioner-research gap: that the insights gained from the practice of implementing educational programmes in conflict situations may not be fed into the development of theory or planning in other aspects of educational research. How often do educational practitioners, policy-makers and researchers in (presently) non-conflict situations question the assumption that education is essentially a good thing?

There are of course antecedents to such work; Arlow refers to Frazer’s (1974) work on segregated schooling in Northern Ireland, which argued that segregation was perpetuating the conflict (Arlow, 2004, p. 278). But at present the work of Bush and Salterelli seems to be well known by practitioners and policymakers working in this field. Such publications are important in balancing works which assert only positive attributes of education (for example, UNICEF, 2002). However, a delegate at the Second Global Consultation (see section 2.3) reported that for a period after its publication, donor governments became more rather than less reluctant to fund education during emergencies, given the reportedly negative impacts of education (practitioner, personal communication). That is not to say it is impossible and indeed a number of published pieces indicate the value of evaluations of peace education initiatives. Maxwell et al. (2004), for example, report on the development and evaluation of a peace education programme for pre-school children in South Africa. This project is notable for the rigorous research undertaken to evaluate its impact and the interesting approach to the difficulty of assessing impact – through focussing on the effect on children’s aggressive behaviour.

Feuerverger’s detailed descriptions of a Jewish-Arab School for Peace remind the reader just how difficult it is for people to overcome the ingrained barriers, biases and fears in order to recognise the needs of people from another group (1997, 1998). Feuerverger quotes a Palestinian student: ‘I never really appreciated how afraid they were and that they had a right to that fear’ (1998, p. 715). While the three-day encounter that she describes succeeds in getting the participants to express and accept their own fears and those of others, it is notable that this school is unique in Israel/Palestine and thus the output of these encounters can only ever be a small number of students.

4.2 Peace education – finding the evaluations

Peace education is one area of the education and conflict relationship in which there is a substantial amount of literature. This in part relates to the extended period over which the concept has been developed (Johnson, 1998). However, much of the literature consists of project descriptions and opinion pieces. There is, as Salomon notes, ‘a paucity of scholarly work... set criteria of efficacy, effectiveness and success, or empirically examine[d] crucial questions’ (Salomon, 2000, p. 9; see also Sommers, 2002, p. 17).

Impact assessment in conditions of conflict or post-conflict and particularly of peace education projects, is difficult (Davies, 2004a, p. 163). That is not to say it is impossible and indeed a number of published pieces indicate the value of evaluations of peace education initiatives. Maxwell et al. (2004), for example, report on the development and evaluation of a peace education programme for pre-school children in South Africa. This project is notable for the rigorous research undertaken to evaluate its impact and the interesting approach to the difficulty of assessing impact – through focussing on the effect on children’s aggressive behaviour.

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Peace and human rights education very often involves child-centred, participatory teaching methods. Often teachers in countries affected by conflict have been trained to teach using authoritarian methods (Harber, 2004). Thus seeking to introduce this new curriculum subject also requires teachers to re-think the very way they teach and in a context of increased difficulties (for example, Miller and Ramos, 1999). Sommers reports on an evaluation of such a programme which was received with considerable enthusiasm by teachers and students, but the process of change was slow. 'Altering the fundamentally hierarchical structure of the relationship between teacher and student proved especially difficult and culturally sensitive’ (Sommers, 2002, p. 8). And while this was found in Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia, similar findings have been made in Northern Ireland in respect of the Education for Mutual Understanding programme (see section 4.3).

Much has been asserted about the value of peace education in post-conflict scenarios, not all of it based on evaluative evidence. For example, Weston et al. state that peace education has a key role to play in consolidating peace in Sierra Leone, yet their description of the development of a peace education kit for the country shows little evidence of pre- or post-development evaluation (2003). More positive is Sinclair’s description of the UNHCR peace education programme developed in refugee camps in Kenya (2002a). This initiative was developed ‘following extensive participatory action research’, through which community groups stressed that it was necessary for the school programme to be accompanied by work with the adult population. Sinclair insists that ‘peace education cannot be developed in the abstract. It requires intensive collaboration with local communities’ (Sinclair, 2002a, p. 72). Research with refugees involved in the programme indicated its popularity with participants, but also that the most violent-prone individuals usually did not participate (p. 73).

At a national or regional level, peace education relates to citizenship or civic education. A review of such links is beyond the scope of this report. However, a couple of pieces are notable for their contribution. Print and Smith (2000) provide an overview of models for teaching civic education in the Asian region and make suggestions about promising strategies. They recognise that the predominant teacher strategy in Asian Schools is didactic and that a single strategy alone is unlikely to prove effective. And Smith’s work on citizenship education in Northern Ireland also indicates challenges to implementation of such programmes in circumstances of civil strife where the concept of citizenship is problematic (2003, p. 24; see also section 4.3). It is suggested that links between citizenship education and peace education in countries affected by conflict provide scope for further research.

### 4.3 The case of Northern Ireland

Education in Northern Ireland holds particular interest for this project, not least for its geographical and educational proximity to England. NFER has undertaken research, evaluation and test development for Northern Ireland sponsors in the past, including undertaking curriculum cohort studies (e.g. Harland et al., 2002), research into provision for pupils with moderate learning difficulties and production of Northern Ireland transfer tests. NFER has also recently established a research partnership with Queen’s University Belfast (see www.qub.ac.uk/nfer). On a theoretical level Northern Ireland’s conflict and its relationship to education, are of interest particularly because this is a ‘developed’ country. Here, relative to many other countries undergoing or emerging from considerable internal unrest, financial resources and educational structures are not lacking.

Professor Alan Smith has published a number of pieces that provide helpful overviews of the education structure in Northern Ireland (see, for example, Smith, 1999, 2001). Most schools in Northern Ireland are segregated – that is, schools are either predominantly attended by Protestants (and controlled by the state) or by Catholics (and funded by the state but controlled by the Catholic Church) (Arlow, 2004, p. 271). Although some integrated schools have been established, initially outside the state system, their numbers remain limited: 20 in 2000 had grown to 46 in 2004, attended by 4 per cent of the school age population (Duffy, 2000; McGrellis, 2004). McGlynn et al. report that research into the impact of integrated schooling ‘overwhelmingly support[s] a positive effect of integrated education on sectarian attitudes’ (2004, p. 157). It is notable that 74 per cent of parents would like more integrated schools (McGlynn et al., 2004, p. 152) and indeed the main impetus for the development of integrated schools has come from parents rather than church or state (Smith, 2001, p. 564). The issue of community initiation of provision of education in other conflict zones was discussed during...
the IIEP internet forum on education in emergencies (Sinclair, 2004, p. 17). It is suggested that a potential area for further research is an examination of the optimal ways in which governments or NGOs can support schooling initiated by parents – and that the Northern Ireland experience provides comparative material.

Integrated schooling is one of the three strategies for encouraging community relations through education described by Gallagher (1995). A second is within (segregated)-school initiatives, particularly focused on curriculum developments. Education for Mutual Understanding (EMU), developed during the 1980s and made statutory in the Northern Ireland Curriculum as one of two cross-curricular themes in 1989, was the then most recent of a number of such developments (Gallagher, 1995, p. 8; Smith, 1999, p. 5). An evaluation of EMU (Smith and Robinson, 1996) indicated problems with the implementation of this initiative, including a lack of institutional ownership and limited teacher training to support inquiry-based teaching, which contrasted with the prevailing content-based approach (Smith, 2003, p. 26; see also Smith, 2002, p. 284).

But the evaluation set an agenda for change in curriculum developments, including the need for:

- clearly defined values dimension to the curriculum
- a robust conceptual framework with clearly defined underpinning values
- a stronger focus on human rights and political education
- designated discrete time in the curriculum
- better support for teachers to address sensitive issues

Social, Civil and Political Education (SCPE), a further but ‘bottom-up’ curriculum initiative, has been developed in part from these learnings with, apparently, limited opposition (Arlow, 2004, p. 293). As a result, Local and Global Citizenship is being piloted in a number of Northern Ireland schools.

The third strategy for improving community relations through education involves inter-school links. McGrellis reports on the debates and research regarding the efficacy of these approaches, noting that ‘while attitudes may change in the short term, a return to local communities often sees the return of previously held beliefs and attitudes’ (McGrellis, 2004, pp. 21–22). From her own research, McGrellis indicates that:

> Institutional efforts to address the effects of living in a divided society, in the shape of integrated education and cross-community initiatives have... valuable but limited effect. The lack of viable, naturally occurring shared spaces limit their 2004 potential.

(McGrellis, p. 28)

Research on the relationship between education and conflict can be found subsumed within research looking generically at the impact of conflict on children in Northern Ireland (see, for example, Connolly and Healy, 2004; Lovell and Cummings, 2001; McGrellis, 2004 and Smyth et al., 2004). Education and schooling appear sometimes incidentally, rather than as a specific focus. In some cases schools are the sites used to access the research participants. But even in their brevity of reference to education, such publications indicate the significant place of schooling in the experience of conflict. For example, Smyth et al. report that, ‘For a substantial number of children, their first conscious exposure to sectarianism or issues related to the Troubles such as discrimination had taken place within the school environment’ (2004, p.32). The combination of educational segregation and the compulsory school uniforms meant that individuals’ religious background could be easily identified.

> As a result, the journey to and from school every day can be frightening and potentially dangerous for those children who live on interfaces or must cross through the territory of the other community in order to get to and from school.

(Smyth et al., 2004, p. 32)

Connolly argues that the majority of the research on children and ‘the Troubles’ was undertaken in the 1970s and 1980s, when the conflict was particularly violent and uncertain and hence the research was cautious and indirect. As much of this work was done by...
psychologists it took a particular methodological approach and studies were ‘less successful at drawing out children’s experiences’ (Connolly, 2002, p. 59). Work such as that by Smyth et al. is thus valuable in starting to address this gap.

Researchers report that many educational initiatives in Northern Ireland have been hampered by a wider societal avoidance of discussion about religion and politics, sectarianism and violence (Lovell and Cummings, 2001, p. 36; Smith, 2003, p. 22). It is thus hardly surprising that teachers have avoided dealing with such issues in the classroom. It is suggested that examining the wider societal approach to discussion of conflict-related issues might illuminate the impact of educational interventions in post-conflict areas elsewhere.

The experience of educational developments to promote peace in Northern Ireland illustrates important messages to those who suggest that educational initiatives to promote harmony fail in developing countries because of limited teacher training or resource needs. The existence of adequate resources is not sufficient to ensure a successful programme to improve relations and understanding through education. Rather, the Northern Ireland experiences illustrate how closely educational developments are related to issues facing wider society. However, in research terms there is scope for optimism, as this section has provided some examples of the development of better programmes following regular evaluation, the results of which have been used in planning further developments.

4.4 Reviewing the organisation

In 2003 CfBT published Post-Conflict Education: A Review of Literature and CfBT experience. Lyndsay Bird, the consultant employed to undertake the project, reviewed key items of published literature — and for the most part those in the practitioner/policy domain, rather than academic works. Issues identified included:

- the role of education in protecting children and their rights
- the continuum of conflict
- government, donor and agency commitment to provision of education during and after conflict
- the dynamics of educational reconstruction (including peace education)
- the reform process undertaken (including providing quality education)
- creative responses to learning and training
- the use of new technologies.

Alongside this review of published literature, Bird examined the experiences of CfBT in post-conflict countries, focussing specifically on Bosnia, Cambodia and Rwanda, but also drawing lessons from CfBT’s work in Vietnam, Somalia and Afghanistan. Prior to this exercise there had been ‘no systematic documentation of CfBT’s experience or lessons learned in the field during post-conflict situations’ (Bird, 2003, p. 25). The key themes emerging from this review of practice were:

- educational planning
- management and reform processes (including sustainability and sensitivity to local culture)
- training of teachers and civil servants
- foreign language teaching
- language and teacher training
- partnerships in private and non-governmental sectors
- secondary and tertiary education (including role of vocational training)
- textbook and materials development.

It is notable that these were not the same issues as those identified through the literature review.

Bird indicated that:

Evaluation issues are frequently the last consideration during a conflict or post-conflict phase where priorities are typically focussed on immediate outputs. This focus is often short-sighted as the institutionalise of effective monitoring and evaluation systems put in place at the outset of a project can save considerable time later when there is a need to review and revise programmes in the light of experience.

(Bird, 2003, p. 30)
In one project, evaluation was displayed in percentages of progress towards the end of project status, so that while 100 per cent meant that the activity had been completed, this ‘did not provide a meaningful analysis of the quality of the work achieved’ (Bird, 2003, p. 31). These examples are provided not to critique CfBT – on the contrary, the organisation deserves commendation for undertaking this review and making public the challenges it faces in developing evaluative approaches and other issues.

The CfBT report concludes with recommendations for publications and research emerging from the issues identified during the review. A theme of the recommendations is the desirability of making more widely available existing learnings from CfBT’s experiences. This seems a cost-effective and efficient way of contributing to the growing knowledge base in this field. Bird also suggests topics for new research, including:

- exploration of the determinants of effective coordination and information sharing mechanisms between decentralised and central levels.

- research into the use of para-professionals and rapid training as an alternative mechanism for provision of teachers in post-conflict situations (where there is often a shortage of trained teachers)

- a comparative study in a refugee environment and post-conflict situation, to assess the most effective means of providing support to children with emotional and behavioural difficulties as a result of conflict (e.g. train one teacher as focal point for school versus train all teachers)

- research on the maintenance of quality education in post-conflict situations

- a longitudinal study into the educational impact of the trilingual policy being introduced in Rwanda

- investigate the effectiveness of introducing ‘western’ methodologies in post-conflict situations.

This report has focused on the CfBT publication at some length as it illustrates two important issues. The first is that the issues highlighted by the review of CfBT’s practice are in some cases quite different from those which form the focus of the literature reviewed. This indicates that while the difficulties facing agencies seeking to implement education in conflict-situations are thought to be well known, in practice the challenges may be different from those which they are assumed to be. Systematic reviews/evaluation/research are necessary to identify these in more detail and systems for monitoring and evaluation should, as Bird indicates, be established at the outset of a programme.

Secondly, on a related point, the CfBT experience indicates the value of organisations reviewing their own practice, in order to learn from it and make those lessons known more widely. The desirability of such reviews has been noted by others – Smith and Vaux, for example, recommended that DfID should analyse its own experience of education in conflict in greater depth (Smith and Vaux, 2003, p. 53). It is recognised that implementing agencies do not always have the time or the in-house skills to undertake an objective review of lessons learnt and there may be value in employing external researchers to undertake this task.

4.5 Other research agendas

A number of researchers and others have set their own agenda for research in this field. Tawil (1997), for example, lists the potential contributions of research as including:

- documenting the magnitude of violence in society
- analyzing the root causes of violence
- designing a conceptual framework, a typology of situations
- exploring psychological dimensions
- developing early warning systems
- drawing lessons about education systems as areas of conflict
- documenting international commitment to provision of education in emergencies
Lynn Davies, in her BAICE presidential speech (Davies(130,166),(869,844), 2004b) and drawing on her recently published work  
*Education and Conflict: Complexity and Chaos* (Davies, 2004a), set out the following agenda for comparative 
education:

- questioning of involvement in international 
  comparative achievement studies based on maths 
  and conventional literacy indicators

- beginning the alternative PISA – International 
  Studies of Achievement in Peace or Security 
  Education and starting doing more comparative 
  studies based on indicators of ‘achievement’ or 
  ‘quality’ in political literacy, agency, democracy, 
  peace education and human rights education

- generation and publication of comparative statistics 
  on the ratios of military to education spending and 
  the link to stability and military service

- cross-cultural or longitudinal studies of the impact of 
  citizenship education or other types of education 
  that have contributed to peace or conflict

- comparative studies of how schools in conflict or 
  post-conflict zones teach about conflict. How do 
  they teach about difference? Do they ignore it, deny 
  it or normalise it? How do they teach about rights or 
  justice?

- studies of how some schools remain resilient in 
  times of conflict, while others do not survive

- why young people join fundamentalist or terrorist 
  organisations and what security or identity is being 
  sought

- how schools teach for active citizenship, peace and 
  democracy in terms of being able to do citizen 
  research, demand accountability, analyse media and 
  political messages, or join non-violent social 
  movements (Davies, 2004b, p. 9).

These suggestions represent views from within a UN 
agency and an academic institution and of course do 
not completely overlap. It is suggested that greater 
collaboration between practitioners/policymakers and 
researchers might help to ensure that research that is 
carried out is accessed, valued and operationalised by 
greater numbers of stakeholders.
5 Recommendations

This section draws together the suggestions for future research activities made in the previous chapters.

5.1 Facilitating research and research-led learning

- Expand centralised data collection regarding the provision of education in conflict situations.
- Establish an INEE working group and e-discussion list on research on education and emergencies.
- Establish and build commitment to contributing to a searchable global, web-based database of grey literature on international education development.
- Increase publication on the internet, rather than in education journals, in order to make research accessible to field-based practitioners.
- Expand the body of research literature available on the INEE website.
- Provide user-friendly tools in research reports to assist practitioners and policymakers in applying the messages of the research.

- Provide consultancy services to undertake organisational reviews of large agencies working in this field.
- Encourage research collaboration between practitioner agencies and post-graduate students.

5.2 Themes for further research

- Undertake research and/or evaluations to examine the role of education as a tool for protection.
- Investigate the links between citizenship education and peace education in countries affected by conflict.
- Examine the optimal ways in which governments or NGOs can support schooling initiated by parents.
- When examining the impact of educational interventions in post-conflict areas take account of the wider societal approach to discussion of conflict-related issues.
6 References


Appendix 1  Websites of interest

This list is not intended to be a comprehensive list of websites concerned with (research into) the relationship between education and conflict. However, it includes many of the sites visited in the course of this project and is included here as they may be of wider interest.

AERA Peace Education SIG
American Educational Research Association Peace Education Special Interest Group
http://www.colostate.edu/Dept/r-dcenter/Peace_Ed_Home_Page.htm

Amnesty International
Amnesty International's campaign against child soldiers
http://web.amnesty.org/pages/childsoldiers-index-eng

British Association for International and Comparative Education (BAICE)
http://www.baice.ac.uk/index.html

CAIN: Conflict Archive on the Internet
http://cain.ulster.ac.uk/index.html
key issues: education in Northern Ireland
http://cain.ulster.ac.uk/issues/education/education.htm

CfBT
CfBT has unusual experience of education reform in post-conflict countries, advising and assisting Ministries of Education in Rwanda, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Afghanistan and Somalia. This can involve capacity building, policy and strategic development (including Sector Wide approaches), training of trainers and support to teacher training colleges, curriculum development, inspections examinations, development of HR systems and structures and development of resource centres.
http://www.cfbt.com/whatwedo/international/postconflict.html

Children in Armed Conflict
This European Research Network grew out of the international research seminar, 'Filling the Knowledge Gaps: a Research Agenda on the Impact of Armed Conflict on Children', convened in Florence, 2–4 July 2001. The website hosts a database of research activities by partner institutions and seeks to facilitate the highlighting of areas where research has focussed, as well as clarifying knowledge gaps and potential areas for enhanced collaborative research.
http://www.childreninarmedconflict.org/about/index.html

Commonwealth secretariat

Dakar Framework for Action
World Education Forum, conference preparation and outcomes.
http://www2.unesco.org/wef/en-conf/dakframeng.shtm
Disarming History: Revisiting the Balkans
UNESCO’s Balkans textbook initiative: website of conference held in Visby, Sweden, in September 1999
http://www.unesco.org/opi2/disarminghistory/

Global Information Networks in Education (GINIE)
GINIE serves as a ‘virtual learning community’ for education innovation in nations in crisis and transition. It uses internet-based technology to build a capacity for rapid access to information and expertise for education professionals working internationally in nations in crisis and at risk to disruption.
http://www.ginie.org/

HIV/AIDS and Conflict
HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Clearing House
http://hivaidsclearinghouse.unesco.org/ev.php?URL_ID=4500&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201&reload=1097597314&PHPSESSID=bc04a73287a28a3b2846d285b4640b69

id21
A free development research reporting service, providing UK-resourced research on developing countries, id21 is enabled by DfID and hosted by the Institute of Development Studies
http://www.id21.org/index.html

Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE)
Following the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, INEE was established to ‘promote access and completion of education of high quality for all persons affected by emergencies, crises or chronic instability’ (see Appendix 3).
http://www.ineesite.org/default.asp

International Rescue Committee
http://www.theirc.org/

Northern Ireland Council for Integrated Education (NICIE)
http://www.nicie.org

Refugee Education Trust
http://www.refugeeducationtrust.org/

Relief Web
Directory of Practitioners’ Communities
http://rw.aidworkers.net/

Save the Children
Emergencies and Protection
http://www.savethechildren.org/emergencies/index.asp
www.savethechildren.org

UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE)
**UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)**
A UNESCO centre for training and research, specialized in educational planning and management. On education in emergencies and reconstruction, IIEP provided research and training to help achieve education for all in conflict-affected countries; collaborates with numerous national and local educational actors on activities in conflict-affected countries and builds capacity and raises awareness.
http://www.unesco.org/iiep/eng/focus/emergency/emergency_1.htm

**UNICEF**
Child protection in emergencies – education and recreation
http://www.unicef.org/supply/index_cpe_education.html

Girls education – emergencies
http://www.unicef.org/girlseducation/index_focus_emergencies.html

Selected highlights from GraAa Machel’s report, *Impact of Armed Conflict on Children.*
www.un.org/rights/introduc.htm#contents

Mary Pigozzi (1999) *Education in Emergencies and for Reconstruction: A developmental approach*

**UN Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children in Armed Conflict**
Appendix 2  Literature search strategy

Database searches

A range of different educational databases were searched using systematic procedures. Print sources and grey literature were also searched in order to identify all the available research evidence. Search strategies for all databases were developed by using terms from the relevant thesauri (where these were available), in combination with free text searching. The same search strategies were adhered to as far as possible for all the databases. The NFER Library's own internal databases were also searched, as well as CERUK (Current Educational Research in the United Kingdom).

The database searches were supplemented by scanning the reference lists of relevant articles, thus identifying further studies. The team also systematically searched relevant websites and downloaded documents and publications lists.

The bibliographic details of all papers identified through database searches and the potentially relevant papers found by hand, website and bibliography searching and through personal contact were entered onto a ProCite bibliographic database.

The keywords used in the database searches, together with a brief description of each of the databases searched, are outlined below.

Australian Education Index (AEI)

AEI is produced by the Australian Council for Educational Research. It is an index to materials at all levels of education and related fields. Source documents include journal articles, monographs, research reports, theses, conference papers, legislation, parliamentary debates and newspaper articles.

#1 Conflict resolution
#2 War
#3 Religious conflict not #1
#4 Peace
#5 Peace education not #4

British Education Index (BEI)

BEI provides bibliographic references to 350 British and selected European English-language periodicals in the field of education and training, plus developing coverage of national report and conference literature.

#1 Conflict Resolution
#2 War
#3 Religious Conflict
#4 Peace Studies
#5 Peace
Canadian Business and Current Affairs (CBCA)

CBCA provides indexing and fulltext access to the principal educational literature publications in Canada, covering all significant reports of government departments, faculties of education, teachers' associations, large school boards and educational organisations. Over 150 educational periodicals, plus educational articles in over 700 general journals and newspapers are indexed.

#1 Conflict resolution
#2 War
#3 Peace
#4 Religious conflict

ChildData

ChildData is the National Children’s Bureau database containing details of around 35,000 books, reports and journal articles about children and young people.

#1 Conflict resolution
#2 War
#3 Peace

ERIC

ERIC is sponsored by the United States Department of Education and is the largest education database in the world. It indexes over 725 periodicals and currently contains more than 7,000,000 records. Coverage includes research documents, journal articles, technical reports, program descriptions and evaluations and curricula material.

#1 Conflict resolution
#2 War
#3 Religious conflict not #1
#4 Peace education not #1
#5 Peace not #4

Author searches

Davies, Lynn
Smith, Alan
Appendix 3 The Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE)

Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis was the focus of a strategy session at the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000. Following the inclusion in the Dakar framework (UNESCO, 2000) of a recognition of the need to meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability, the first Inter-Agency Consultation on Education in Emergencies was convened in Geneva in November 2000. As a result of this Consultation, the Interagency Network on Education and Emergencies (INEE) was established, with a mandate to promote access and completion of education of high quality for all persons affected by emergencies, crises or chronic instability. As a network, INEE does not have the mandate to implement projects, or to coordinate agencies during crises, but seeks to enable network members to do their work more effectively by sharing information, encouraging collaboration and providing resources.

As mentioned in section 2.3, in December 2004 the project researcher attended the Second Global Consultation on Education in Emergencies, facilitated by INEE. Here she facilitated a panel on ‘The Importance of Research in Education in Times of Crisis’, including presentation of a paper, ‘What can research do for you?’ At the conclusion of the discussion following this and two other presentations, the workshop participants agreed on four recommendations:

1 To INEE: establish a task team on research, to include:
   • establish a list-serve for people interested in research on education in emergencies, conflict a reconstruction
   • investigate how best to provide a database of grey literature
   • focus on synthesising existing research (not only developing new case studies).

2 To all actors: develop partnerships between local researchers (including MA and PHD students) for mutual benefit – capacity building in conflict areas and increasing research (and evaluation) output for NGOs, governments and UN agencies.

3 To NGOs, governments and UN agencies: encourage the sharing and central pooling of grey literature.

4 Deepen and extend the gathering of data and statistics on education in emergency, conflict and reconstruction.

10 see http://www.ineesite.org/about/efa.asp
11 see http://www.ineesite.org/about/about.asp