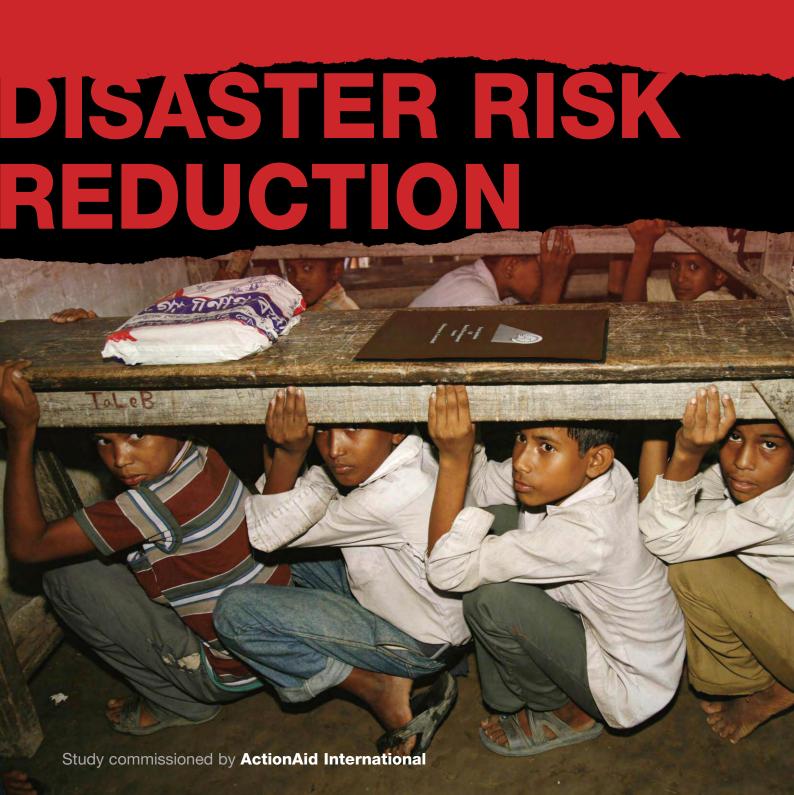
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Education policy review

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Cover picture: Students demonstrate an earthquake drill at Dharakuchi MV School, Dharakuchi village, India (Prashant Panjiar/OnAsia/ActionAid)

Executive summary

In the emerging field concerned with the study of disaster risk reduction (DRR), a tendency exists to take only select natural and technological disasters into consideration; this is problematic as widespread disasters such as conflict and HIV/AIDS are omitted from discussion.

While scant empirical evidence exists to justify investment in DRR initiatives, such measures are generally considered essential to preventing economic and human casualties in the face of disaster. Arguably no greater testament stands to the importance of DRR than the fact that the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 (HFA) was adopted by 168 countries at the World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Kobe, Japan. The HFA set out the strategic goals, priorities, and their associated key activities for DRR, including those for education: 'use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels', and its associated key activities:

A - information management and exchange

B - education and training

C - research

D - public awareness.

The study on which this report is based was commissioned by ActionAid International in order to strengthen donor support for DRR in education programs, and thus enable the activities identified by the HFA under priority 3 (Annex B) to take place. This report, however, subscribes to Handmer and Dovers' (2007) position that DRR planning should be viewed as a process rather than a results-oriented target.

Various donor institutions have long pledged support to DRR, such as the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DflD) and the World Bank. However, emphasis on DRR in disaster-prone country education sector plans (ESPs) remains elusive. A key issue that the report aims to examine is how to build on government commitments in both donor and recipient countries to the HFA.

The report recommends that institutional and governmental policymakers:

- Expand the boundaries of what constitutes "disaster" in DRR.
- Include a spectrum of stakeholders including vulnerable communities in all aspects of DRR planning, implementation, and monitoring.
- Revise policies and frameworks developed prior to Hyogo to reflect commitment to the HFA in order to "institutionalize" DRR.
- Require DRR initiatives as a component in grant proposals from education service providers, both for governments in countries at risk of disasters and for NGOs and implementing agencies seeking funding.
- Map DRR planning in sectors outside education and engage with the relevant institutions.
- Sustain commitment for DRR through consistent and thorough follow-up and review mechanisms.
- Fund more research in order to inform DRR processes and strengthen the arguments behind DRR advocacy efforts.
- Use existing partner institutions committed to DRR such as INEE, the ProVention Consortium, and the UN/IASC Education Cluster – to disseminate information about and advocate for DRR.

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Acronyms

CRED The Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters

DfID Department for International Development

DRR disaster risk reduction

EFA Education for All

ESP Education Sector Plan

FTI Fast-Track Initiative

GFDRR Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery

HFA Hyogo Framework for Action

Inter-Agency Steering Committee

INEE Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies

ISDR International Strategy for Disaster Reduction

MDG Millennium Development Goal

NFE non-formal education

NGO non-governmental organization

PVA Participatory Vulnerability Analysis

UN United Nations

UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund

UPE universal primary education

Background to the Study

Introduction

When the tsunami struck the coasts of southern and southeastern Asia, on 26 December 2004, it killed 227,000 and displaced 1.7 million people.1 This tragedy could not have been prevented. However, the enormity of the human and economic loss arguably drew worldwide attention to the role that disaster planning - such as an early warning system - could have played in mitigating the effects of the tsunami. A year later, an earthquake hit northern Pakistan on 8 October 2005, affecting 3.5 million people; the devastation in the education sector was particularly visible as collapsing buildings killed over 18,000 children and 900 teachers.² Could earthquake-resistant construction methods have spared these lives? This year alone, flooding has occurred in Myanmar, Haiti, China and India. The Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED), which tracks global natural disaster occurrence, has observed a steady rise in the number of such disasters.3

A disaster may be defined as 'the occurrence of an extreme hazard event that impacts on vulnerable communities causing substantial damage, disruption and possible casualties, and leaving the affected communities unable to function normally without outside assistance'. The last two words of this definition, 'outside assistance', are the focus of this report. The international community is, understandably, increasingly concerned with

- Telford, J., Cosgrave, J. & Houghton, R. (2006) Joint Evaluation of the International Response to the Indian Ocean Tsunami: Synthesis report. London: Tsunami Evaluation Coalition.
- 2 Source: http://www.reliefweb.int/rw/RWB.NSF/db900SID/EGUA-6UELKY?OpenDocument.
- 3 Scheuren, J-M. et al. (2008) Annual Disaster Statistical Review: The numbers and trends 2007. Brussels: Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters.
- Benson, C. & Twigg, J., with Rossetto, T. (2007) Tools for Mainstreaming DRR: Guidance Notes for Development Organisations. ProVention Consortium, p. 15. (For a glossary of related terms, see Annex A.)



disaster preparedness, prevention, and mitigation. The actors involved are not only the United Nations (UN) agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that form the humanitarian assistance industry, but also governments - both donor states and developing countries at risk of disaster. While this report primarily focuses on developments in disaster risk reduction (DRR) in the education sector, many of the guiding principles and key actors in DRR have a wider scope.

The Hyogo Framework for Action

The UN General Assembly established the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UN/ISDR) in 1999, at the close of the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction. This body is the UN focal point for global partnerships and for approaches to DRR. The UN/ISDR has four primary objectives: A.) to 'increase public awareness to understand risk, vulnerability and disaster reduction globally'; B.) to 'obtain commitment from public authorities to implement disaster reduction policies and actions'; C.) to 'stimulate interdisciplinary and intersectoral partnerships, including the expansion of risk reduction networks'; and D.) to 'improve scientific knowledge about disaster reduction'.5

In 2005, the UN/ISDR served as the secretariat for the World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Kobe, Japan. The resulting document, The Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters6 (HFA), was adopted by 168 countries. The HFA set out the strategic goals and priorities for DRR for the decade 2005-2015. Of particular importance to the field of education is HFA priority 3 - 'use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels' - and its associated key activities: A.) information management and exchange, B.) education and training, C.) research, and D.) public awareness.7 (See Annex B for the sub-activities related to HFA priority 3.)

It is important to note that, while the HFA is an internationally ratified framework, it is a non-binding policy with no provisions for legal recourse if the

ActionAid International

Established in 1972, ActionAid works in 42 countries worldwide with the aim of fighting poverty through innovative initiatives. DRR is at the core of its work in emergency contexts, making ActionAid a leading NGO in the implementation of the HFA.

For example, in the flood prone chars (islands) of Bangladesh, ActionAid has worked on DRR since 2005 through a comprehensive program that includes training communities on emergency management and children on disaster preparedness. In addition, the program has provided emergency equipment such as communications radios and shelters in the event of a flood or cyclone.

This program supports HFA priority 3 key activity (i) a: 'Provide easily understandable information on disaster risks and protection options, especially to citizens in high-risk areas', as well as key activity (ii) I: 'Promote community-based training initiatives, considering the role of volunteers [...] to enhance local capacities to mitigate and cope with disasters'.

ActionAid is also an active member of the ProVention Consortium.

signatory countries fail to meet its objectives. However, monitoring systems do exist. The World Bank has held a leadership role in DRR and HFA, establishing two key partnership bodies:

 The Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR), managed by the World Bank, is a partnership of donor governments and agencies – including ISDR – that aims to

⁵ Source: http://www.unisdr.org/eng/about_isdr/isdr-mission-objectiveseng.htm.

International Strategy for Disaster Reduction. (2005) The Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters.

⁷ Ibid., pp. 9-10.

- support the implementation of the HFA through global and regional cooperation.8
- The ProVention Consortium is a body established by the World Bank in 2000 (before the Hyogo Conference) to 'address the increasing frequency and severity of natural disasters and their social, economic and environmental impacts on developing countries'. ProVention aims to forge partnerships, promote policy, improve practice, and share information with a range of stakeholders concerned with DRR.9

Moreover, the UN/ISDR itself has developed a reporting system for governments in order to track progress on the HFA.¹⁰

Purpose of the research

The study on which this report is based was commissioned by ActionAid International in order to review existing education policies and make recommendations on how to strengthen donor support for DRR, thus enabling the activities identified by the HFA under priority 3 to take place.

Methodological note

This report results from a desk study undertaken over four weeks in October and November of 2008. Documentary sources for the study included Education for All – Fast-Track Initiative framework and policy documents, government policies in the form of country education sector plans, scholarly papers, ISDR publications, and other humanitarian aid institution reports. A list of these sources appears in the References section of this report.

⁸ Source: http://gfdrr.org.

⁹ Source: http://www.proventionconsortium.org.

¹⁰ See: http://www.preventionweb.net.



Research on Disaster Risk Reduction

DRR is 'generally understood to mean the broad development and application of policies, strategies and practices to minimise vulnerabilities and disaster risks throughout society'. 11 In the emerging field concerned with the study of DRR, there is a tendency to consider only natural and technological disasters - i.e., hydrometerological, geophysical, and biological - but not violent conflict. Similarly, famine is largely omitted from the discussion as it is an outcome of a disaster such as drought rather than a natural or technological disaster in its own right. Yet, the causes of famine are contested and complex: Sachs (2005), for example, argues that famine is the result of political action and choices, that is, no causal link exists between drought and famine.¹² Conversely, climate change is frequently included in DRR research - and rightly so - but it is no more "sudden-onset" than famine. Importantly,

data from man-made disasters are excluded from the statistics database compiled and maintained by the ISDR.¹³ It is easier to identify the victims of a rapid-onset emergency (e.g. a cyclone) than to identify those of a chronic crisis (e.g. a famine). Curiously, although the common understanding of DRR includes biological disasters such as epidemics of disease, HIV/AIDS is treated as a cross-cutting issue, and does not often fit under the DRR umbrella. Avian flu – a serious worldwide biological threat that could result in millions of casualties in the coming years – is likewise not

¹¹ Twigg, J. (2007) Characteristics of a Disaster-Resilient Community: A guidance note. DflD Disaster Risk Reduction Interagency Coordination Group.

¹² Sachs, J. (2005) The End of Poverty: How we can make it happen in our lifetime. London: Penguin.

¹³ See http://www.unisdr.org/disaster-statistics/introduction.htm.

considered. Is HIV/AIDS not a biological disaster? And might not avian flu be? For statistical purposes it may be helpful to remove these disasters from discussion of DRR, but the boundaries between what constitutes a technological or natural disaster and a man-made one are often blurred.

The field concerned with the study of DRR is multidisciplinary, including areas as diverse as engineering (e.g., earthquake-resistant school construction) and economics (e.g., the cost-benefit analysis of investing in disaster mitigation). The growing awareness that vulnerable populations are most at risk from disasters - for instance, those who settled in high-risk areas due to poverty, those without access to communication technologies such as early warning systems, and especially those who are victims of conflict - has brought sociologists and educationalists into the field. Notably, medical professionals, whose knowledge of areas such as HIV/AIDS and avian flu could enrich the growing field of DRR, are largely absent from general discussion of DRR.

A review of the approximately 200 articles that have appeared over the last three years in the leading DRR journals – Disaster and Disaster Prevention and Management – indicates that the bulk of the research appearing in the field is largely theoretical or normative in nature. Studies on community resilience and climate change, for example, often argue for participatory methods in DRR planning and advocate for the combination of indigenous and Western knowledge in such initiatives. 14 While these analyses are helpful for developing approaches for DRR activities, they do little to add to the evidence base that investment in DRR prevents economic and human costs in the aftermath of disaster.

Although little empirical evidence exists to demonstrate the efficacy of planning, even cursory analysis of disasters underscores the importance of preparation efforts (e.g. very few deaths occurred during 2001's Hurricane Michelle in Cuba as a result of the state's disaster mitigation planning, while the lack of state capacity to respond to the prediction of the 2002 volcanic eruption of Mount Nyiragongo in Goma, Democratic Republic of Congo, resulted in

the destruction of half of the city. 15) In 2006, DflD supported a desk study entitled Natural Disaster and Disaster Risk Reduction Measures: A Desk Review of Costs and Benefits. While its authors admit that evidence of the efficacy of DRR initiatives in economic terms is scant and largely anecdotal, they conclude that 'there can be positive economic returns from DRR measures, and that additional development benefits can be realised'. 16 The World Bank has funded a number of such studies in recent years, as it 'requires from its Borrowers that they conduct a sophisticated cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the proposed investments yield a sufficiently high rate of return'; however, 'one of the major difficulties in risk mitigation investments is that benefits are by nature uncertain.'17 These studies therefore tend to omit focus on the elusive questions of whether there are returns to improved governance, information and education systems, which - as the DfID (2006) study indicates - are little understood.

In an influential 2004 scoping study on DRR¹⁸, White et al. (2004) highlight a paradox: Donors are reluctant to fund DRR programs but – once disaster strikes – significant funding becomes available for disaster relief. As will be seen in the following section, DflD has long been institutionally committed to DRR; but are other countries increasing emphasis on DRR in the wake of the Hyogo conference?

¹⁴ See, e.g., Morin, J et al. (2008) Tsunami-resilient communities' development in Indonesia through educative actions: Lessons from the 26 December 2004 tsunami. *Disaster Prevention and Management*. (17) 3 pp. 430-446; and Van Aalst, M., Cannon, T. & Burton, I. (2008) Community Level Adaptation to Climate Change: The potential role of participatory community risk assessment. *Global Environmental Change*. (18) 1 pp. 10-31.

¹⁵ White, P. et al. (2004) Disaster Risk Reduction: A development concern. A scoping study on links between disaster risk reduction and development. Overseas Development Group. University of East Anglia: Norwich. For a list of examples of successful disaster mitigation efforts, see also Benson, C. & Twigg, J., with Rossetto, T. (2007) Tools for Mainstreaming DRR: Guidance Notes for Development Organisations. ProVention Consortium.

¹⁶ DfID. (2005) Natural Disaster and Disaster Risk Reduction Measures: A Desk Review of Costs and Benefits. London: DfID, p. ii.

¹⁷ Ghesquiere, F., Jamin, L. & Mahul, O. (2006) Earthquake Vulnerability Reduction Program in Colombia: A probabilistic cost-benefit analysis. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3939, p. 18 &1.

¹⁸ White, P. et al. (2004).

Framing Policy Instruments

In their Handbook of Disaster and Emergency Policies and Institutions, Handmer and Dovers (2007) present a useful typology of the DRR policy instruments available to governments and institutions¹⁹:

| Table 1 : Policy instruments for emergencies and disasters | | |
|--|--|--|
| Class of policy instrument | Examples of major instruments | |
| 1. Research and monitoring | Increased knowledge of vulnerability; community awareness | |
| Improving communication and information flow | Sharing of information between agencies; establishment of indicator systems | |
| 3. Training and education | Inclusion of DRR in school curricula; community education, etc. | |
| 4. Consultation | Negotiation; dispute resolution; inclusive policy processes, etc. | |
| 5. Inter-governmental agreements | Memoranda of Understanding for cooperation; joint response; or information sharing | |
| 6. Legal requirements | Laws establishing institutional arrangements; clearly delineated agency responsibilities; punishment for risk-creating behaviors | |
| 7. Planning and assessment procedures | Land-use planning; environmental impact assessment; mandated risk assessment | |
| 8. Self-regulation | Incorporation of disaster considerations within industry codes of practice | |
| 9. Community participation | Community-based risk assessment; public participation in policy formulation | |
| 10. Market and economic aspects | Taxes, rebates, and/or penalties tied to DRR | |
| 11. Institutional change | Revision of institutional systems to enable implementation of other instruments | |
| 12. Adjustment of other policies | Assessment/alteration of procedures that block desired outcomes | |
| 13. Doing nothing | (Not necessarily a policy failure: may be justified) | |

There is thus a spectrum of measures – not all of which are necessarily formally codified nor even readily identified as policy – that could mitigate the impact of disasters. Although, for the purposes of this report, DRR will encompass natural disasters unless otherwise noted; the issue of which disasters are included in DRR demands serious consideration and will be revisited in a later section.

The documented international, national, and institutional DRR policies addressed in this paper are therefore presumed to be only a fraction of the existing policy instruments that may affect the severity of impact of disasters.

¹⁹ Handmer, J. & Dovers, S. (2007) Handbook of Disaster and Emergency Policies and Institutions. London: Earthscan. p. 112. The table is adapted from their Table 6.1 on pp. 112-113.

Key global-level actors in disaster risk reduction in the education sector

In the same year as the Hyogo Conference was held, the UN Emergency Relief Coordinator commissioned the Humanitarian Response Review - a report to identify "gaps" in contemporary approaches to international assistance in crisis situations and to provide recommendations for the improvement of these approaches. The report recommended the cluster approach 'as a way of addressing gaps and strengthening the effectiveness of humanitarian response through building partnerships' between UN agencies, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, and NGOs.²⁰ Under the UN/ Inter-Agency Standing Committee (UN/IASC) Cluster Approach, partners work together towards agreed common humanitarian objectives both at the global level (preparedness, standards, tools, stockpiles and capacity-building) and at the field level (assessment, planning, delivery and monitoring)²¹. The Education Cluster functions in emergency and post-crisis countries around the world and is jointly co-led by UNICEF and the Save the Children Alliance. The HFA is an important guiding document for the work of the Education Cluster.

The Education Cluster works closely with the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). It is not a UN agency, donor institution, nor an NGO; it is an on-line network of educational stakeholders in – or those interested in – situations of instability. According to its website, 'the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) is a global, open network of non-governmental organizations, UN agencies, donors, practitioners, researchers and individuals from affected populations working together within a humanitarian and development framework to ensure the right to education in emergencies and post-crisis reconstruction'.²² INEE is strongly committed to promoting the implementation of the

HFA and has over 2700 individual and institutional members, who donate their time and institutional resources to explore and share findings on issues related to educational planning and practice. The widely disseminated INEE handbook, the *Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction*²³, contains guidance on DRR measures.

²⁰ Source: http://www.humanitarianreform.org/humanitarianreform/ Default.aspx?tabid=70.

²¹ Source: http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/content/cluster/Default. asp?mainbodyID=5&publish=0.

²² Source: http://www.ineesite.org/page.asp?pid=1008.

²³ INEE. (2004) Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction.

Select Funding Streams

The Department for International Development

DfID pledged its support for DRR initiatives over a decade ago in its first White Paper on international development, the 1997 document entitled *Eliminating World Poverty: a challenge for the 21st century.*Since then, DfID has sponsored a number of projects intended to establish and/or improve DRR measures – both within schools and without – through partner organizations such as ActionAid International.

In 2006, DfID launched a DRR policy, Reducing the Risk of Disasters – Helping to Achieve Sustainable

Poverty Reduction in a Vulnerable World, which is based closely on the Hyogo Framework for Action. For instance, DfID lists a category of good practice in DRR as 'Building Resilience, Promotion of Innovation, Knowledge and Education'²⁴, which mirrors the previously mentioned HFA priority 3. In addition, DfID's funding mechanisms reflect this institutional commitment to providing support for DRR initiatives; the 2008 guidelines for DfID's Conflict and Humanitarian Fund have a heavy emphasis on 'reducing vulnerabilities to disasters and conflicts'.²⁵

ActionAid's Disaster Risk Reduction through Schools Project

ActionAid's initial contribution to implementing the HFA is the DfID-sponsored *DRR through Schools Project*, which will reach 15,000 children and their communities over five years, through 56 at-risk schools in 7 countries (Malawi, Ghana, Kenya, Haiti, Nepal, Bangladesh, and India.) The purpose of the project is to 'demonstrate how schools can be made safer so they can act as centres of awareness and action on local hazards and risk reduction'. The key tool for this project is Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA), a method developed by ActionAid to involve communities in an in-depth assessment of their vulnerability and to jointly plan to reduce their exposure to disaster risk. Based on extensive piloting in Bangladesh, ActionAid learned that 'schools can, and should, act as safety focal points for whole communities. There, schools disseminate cyclone and flood preparedness information and provide refuge during annual floods and storms, reducing the number of disaster-related deaths.'

ActionAid's project is in line with a number of HFA priority 3 key activities. In Malawi, for example, the project is expected to galvanize the central government to promote DRR through the school curriculum. The project works with various levels of stakeholders, from the Education Ministry, to Local Government structures, to civil society, to school administrators, teachers and children, with the added benefit of providing leadership skills through DRR for girls.

²⁴ DflD. (2006) Reducing the Risk of Disasters – Helping to Achieve Sustainable Poverty Reduction in a Vulnerable World: a DflD policy paper. London: DflD, p. 11.

²⁵ DfID. Conflict, Humanitarian and Security Department. (2008) Conflict and Humanitarian Fund Guidelines for 2008 Funding Round Draft, p.2.



The Education for All – Fast-Track Initiative

Education for All – Fast-Track Initiative (FTI) was established in 2002, as a global partnership between donor and developing countries, in order to accelerate progress on the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of universal primary education (UPE) by 2015. Under the partnership, donor countries would provide technical and financial support to developing countries with defined education sector plans.

A year later, in 2003, the FTI Catalytic Fund (a multidonor trust fund) was established to assist low-income countries without a sufficient in-country donor base. Housed at the World Bank, the FTI Secretariat oversees both the FTI Partnership and its associated funds. Although sixteen countries and the European Commission contribute to the FTI Catalytic Fund, the Netherlands is responsible for almost half of its USD 1 billion budget through 2010, and the United Kingdom has contributed over a quarter.²⁶

The FTI Framework sets out the requirements for low-income country participation in the partnership as follows:

- 'An approved national poverty reduction strategy, or a similar national strategy that would help ensure that education strategies are anchored in country level consultative and budgetary processes;
- A sector-wide program for education agreed with in-country donors and including a strategy for HIV/AIDS, gender equality, capacity building, monitoring and evaluation;
- Agreement to monitor benchmark indicators.'27

Importantly, the guidelines for endorsement of the education sector plans (ESPs) – although intended to be contextualized by donors in a given country – do not include mention of a DRR component.²⁸

This study reviewed twenty national ESPs, as submitted to and approved by FTI, to analyze those countries' treatment of DRR. The ESPs reviewed were all countries at risk of disaster - Burkina Faso,

²⁶ FTI Secretariat. (2008) FTI Catalytic Fund Interim Status Report September 2008. Paris.

²⁷ FTI Secretariat. (2004) Education for All – Fast-Track Initiative Framework, p. 5.

²⁸ FTI Secretariat. (2005) Guidelines for Appraisal of the Primary Education Component of an Education Sector Plan.

Cambodia, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Timor Leste.

Overwhelmingly, these ESPs omitted mention of disaster risk management, disaster risk reduction, and disaster mitigation strategies.²⁹ (See Annex C for an at-a-glance breakdown of DRR treatment in the ESPs reviewed.) Surprisingly, even some chronically food-insecure countries such as Ethiopia, which is highly prone to drought and famine, did not include DRR strategies in their ESPs. On the whole, references to disaster were largely relegated to background information. For instance, Burkina Faso's ESP lists one of its greatest challenges as its vulnerability to all types of crisis.³⁰ However, no mention of strategies to mitigate this vulnerability appears in its ESP.

It is of note that most ESPs reviewed included a strategy to mitigate HIV/AIDS infection through the education sector, a key component in the ESP appraisal guidelines.³¹ In fact, Kenya's ESP noted that HIV/AIDS was declared a national disaster in 1999, which again gives rise to the question of what constitutes a disaster. And, a related criterion to an HIV/AIDS strategy in the FTI appraisal guidelines is conflict, in the sense that both types of disaster may prove unforeseen challenges to the education system.

The only three country ESPs reviewed in this study that included DRR activities are those of Madagascar, Lesotho, and Kenya. In Madagascar's ESP, the mention of DRR is slight: the ESP assures that the education sector will reinforce the national disaster risk management program and briefly alludes to three strategies – increased capacity building for an improved response to school reconstruction, an imprecise tactic to make up for lost study time, and a school feeding activity in case of drought.³² Madagascar's attempt to address DRR is thus only a very minor component of its ESP. Lesotho's ESP makes mention of 'disaster management' only as a component of non-formal education (NFE).³³ Kenya's ESP makes several mentions of the need for disaster

preparedness and disaster management training in various departments and at various levels of the education sector, but no further explanation of this training is provided. The most concrete strategies for disaster risk management are provided in the logical framework of Kenya's Information and Communication Technology in Education Investment Program. Here, the ESP lists the following strategies: a disaster recovery plan, disaster management training for teachers and students, the formation of disaster response teams, and provision of 'disaster response equipment'.34

Interestingly, Sierra Leone's ESP highlights the importance and the complexity of developing a DRR strategy, and calls on the UN/IASC Education Cluster lead institutions for guidance:

One area on which this document is relatively silent is that of education during times of crisis and emergencies. Planning for the unexpected is difficult at the best of times but given the volatile nature of the sub-region and the tendency for problems in one country to spill over and affect neighbouring countries, there is a need to put a strategy in place. At the time of preparing this document, the two agencies leading in this area are UNICEF and [Save the Children]. It is proposed that these two entities, working together with designated senior officers of [the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology], produce a strategy to be scrutinised and endorsed by the Steering Committee for the implementation of the ESP before approval by [the Government of Sierra Leone].35

²⁹ While none of the ESPs reviewed mentioned the HFA, most were approved prior to the 2005 World Conference on Disaster Reduction.

³⁰ Ministère de l'Enseignement de Base de Burkina Faso. (2002) Document de la requête sur Education pour Tous/procédure accélérée. Secrétariat Général, p. 1.

³¹ FTI Secretariat (2005).

³² Ministère de l'Education Nationale et de la Recherche Scientifique de la République de Madagascar. (2008) Education pour Tous. p. 148.

³³ Kingdom of Lesotho Ministry of Education and Training. (2005) Education Sector Strategic Plan 2005-2015.

³⁴ Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2005) Kenya Education Sector Support Programme 2005-2010. p. 195.

³⁵ Government of Sierra Leone Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2007). Education Sector Plan 2007-2015. p. 11.

Sierra Leone thus does not provide a DRR strategy in its ESP. In fact, the FTI appraisal document of Sierra Leone's ESP, under the section identifying strategy gaps, asks 'what contingency planning will be done to prepare the Government for a possible future emergency in education?'36

In summary, the twenty ESPs reviewed indicate that DRR is largely omitted at the policy level in the education sector in many of the countries at greatest risk of disaster.

UNICEF's Education in Emergencies Dutch Fund

One of UNICEF's five targets for emergency operations, as outlined in its Medium-Term Strategic Plan for 2006-2009, entitled 'First Call for Children'; is 'support to national sub-national capacities for emergency preparedness and response'. Within its Education Strategy, the following are listed as examples of support measures provided by UNICEF in disaster and post-disaster situations:

- Improvement of 'prediction and prevention, and intensify preparedness for emergencies in countries that are prone to natural disasters or conflicts', and
- Capacity building through 'providing education and training to help with prediction, prevention and preparedness for emergencies'.³⁸

Thus, at the institutional policy level, UNICEF clearly supports DRR activities as a program component.

In 2006, the Government of the Netherlands pledged USD 201 million over four years to UNICEF to support its emergency and post-crisis programming. In a vision document written jointly by UNICEF and the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, one of the four objectives of the Education in Emergencies Dutch Fund is to increase the contribution of education initiatives to 'prediction, prevention, and preparedness for disasters and crisis'. ³⁹ DfID contributed GBP 20 million to UNICEF as a "matching" gift. However, it appears that little of the Dutch funding has yet been allocated to DRR measures.

According to a representative of the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, this funding stream currently supports DRR initiatives through UNICEF in only two countries. In Turkey, the funding stream supports UNICEF's Project for Disaster Preparedness in Schools in Istanbul. The project aims to develop and implement preparedness plans and guidelines in earthquake-prone Istanbul, including 'practical information about how to behave before, during and after disasters, how to prepare schematic and written evacuation plans, how to establish an incident command system in case of an emergency, the necessary forms and templates to be used during emergency situations, checklists of the necessary measures to be taken and exercises for the use of teachers and administrators in classes'. 40 This supports HFA priority 3, key activities (ii) i and j. It is notable that the budget for the project is relatively small: less than USD 100,000. In the Philippines, the funding stream supports 89% of UNICEF's Safe Schools Project; this is a far larger project than that in Turkey, totalling over USD 3 million.41 Two of the project aims directly concern DRR: enhancing 'teachers' and other service providers' knowledge, skills and attitudes on emergency preparedness and disaster risk reduction measures', and teaching 'children and community members emergency preparedness measures and involving them in emergency preparedness and disaster risk reduction (DRR) initiatives'.42 Project activities

³⁶ World Bank. (2007) Appraisal Report: A report which documents the making and appraising of the Sierra Leone Education Sector Plan. p. 8

³⁷ UNICEF. (2005) The UNICEF Medium-Term Strategic Plan, 2006-2009. Investing in children: the UNICEF contribution to poverty reduction and the Millennium Agenda. New York: UNICEF, p. 24.

³⁸ UNICEF. (2007) UNICEF Education Strategy. E/ICEF/2007/10. New York: UN Economic and Social Council, p. 9.

³⁹ UNICEF & the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs. (Undated) Meeting the Challenge of Strategically Strengthening Education Support in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition Countries: overview of an innovative UNICEF programme in partnership with key donors, p. 6.

⁴⁰ UNICEF/Turkey. (Undated) Project for Disaster Preparedness in Schools in Istanbul, p.3.

⁴¹ UNICEF/Philippines. (2008) Education in Emergencies & Post-crisis Transition Programme: Building Safe Learning Environment – Safe Schools Project. Philippine Report to the Royal Government of Netherlands. First Progress Report 15 January – 31 December 2007.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

include technical assistance to the Ministry of Education in developing, printing, and distributing a DRR Resource Manual, thus also involving stakeholders from the highest levels of government. This supports HFA priority 3, key activities (i) a and – presumably – the entirety of key activity (ii). As the

implementation of both the Turkey and the Philippines projects is ongoing, evaluation data of the DRR project components are still unavailable. It is notable that UNICEF supports DRR initiatives through other funding sources in a number of countries.⁴³

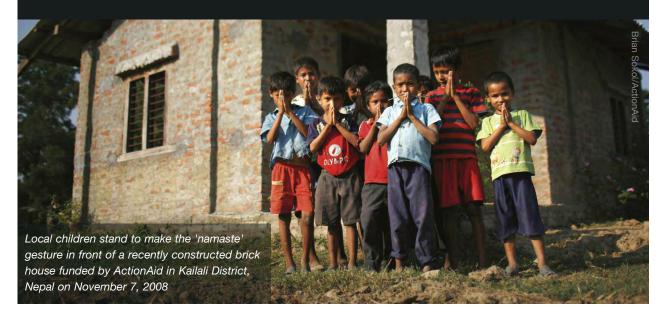
Case study: Nepal

The 3-year DfID-funded Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction through Schools Project is currently in its second year. In high-risk districts, ActionAid and its local NGO partners have undertaken a Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA) to determine individualized activities for schools and surrounding communities, including capacity building to enhance preparedness and capital investment support to ensure that schools are safe.

Nationally, the Project works with broad DRR coalitions and networks to raise awareness of the Hyogo framework and to promote national-level policy reforms. Already, working alongside government officials, subject experts, and disaster professionals, the National Curriculum Development Centre has revised grade nine and ten curricula for social studies, science, health, population and environment to include lessons on Nepal's topography, climate and its impact on human life; the causes of and protective measures against landslides, floods, earthquakes, and volcanic eruptions; as well as environmental health.

"We need to have a disaster-sensitive school curriculum. In coordination and cooperation with concerned stakeholders, the Curriculum Development Centre is committed to integrate DRR education as far as possible in Nepal". – Haribol Khanal, Executive Director, National Curriculum Development Centre

This innovative project is in line with HFA priority 3 key activities (i), (ii), and (iv).



⁴³ See UNICEF. (2008) Annual report of the Executive Director: Progress and achievements against the medium-term strategic plan. E/ICEF/2008/10. New York: UN Economic and Social Council.

Recommendations for Institutional and Governmental Policymakers

Planning

- Expand the boundaries of what constitutes "disaster" in DRR. The emphasis on natural and technological disasters, however ill-defined the boundaries, in the field of DRR undermines the importance of planning for other all-too-common disasters: conflict, famine, HIV/AIDS, and avian flu, to name a few. This is especially relevant in light of the current concern with climate change, the future effects of which are unknown. The HFA clearly describes the goal of DRR education activities as building a 'culture of safety and resilience'; this phrase in no way limits discussion of DRR to specific types of disaster. The processes of planning for DRR and it is these processes, not the products of planning that are crucial to risk reduction are neither rendered more efficient nor more effective by omitting potential large-scale disasters from consideration. Resources that are not currently allocated for prevention, preparedness, and mitigation efforts of the disasters that do not fit neatly under the DRR umbrella will in all probability require far greater investment in disaster relief efforts in the future.
- Include a spectrum of stakeholders including vulnerable communities in all aspects of DRR planning, implementation, and monitoring. Even if evidence emerges that economic returns to DRR efforts are insignificant, use of methods such as ActionAid's Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA) will likely highlight community concerns with hazards such as conflict, if such a risk is present. Community participation in planning efforts is not only recommended by theoreticians in the field of DRR (as mentioned above) but by practitioners, who have long observed that local ownership of planning processes is essential for the success of aid projects.⁴⁴ This practice should extend to policymaking.

⁴⁴ INEE (2004).



DRR as process

- Revise policies and frameworks developed prior to Hyogo to reflect commitment to the HFA in order to "institutionalize" DRR. Donor governments and institutions such as FTI must revise policies, frameworks, and procedures to incorporate emphasis on DRR. This is the only way to "institutionalize" DRR and thus ensure accountability for the implementation of the HFA. Governmental and institutional commitment to DRR in the form of clear and inclusive policy instruments is essential to establishing this process as a cornerstone of humanitarian aid initiatives.
- Require DRR initiatives as a component in grant proposals, both for governments in countries at risk of disasters and for NGOs and implementing agencies seeking funding. Overwhelmingly, donor institutions require specific components in proposals from educational service providers: these components may be sustainability plans, exit strategies, and/or explanations of how cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS prevention will be addressed by the proposed program. For countries at risk of disaster, donors should require a DRR strategy as an element of education program plans, such as ESPs. Since many countries at risk of disaster have already developed ESPs that are not due to be revised for some time, donors must also require that NGOs and implementing agencies seeking funding also include a DRR strategy in proposals. This is by far the easiest recommendation to implement, as donor institutions are so few and the government(s) that fund them have ratified the HFA (as have most governments in countries at risk of disaster), thus expressing their commitment to its contents. The success of this recommendation as measured by the number of at-risk countries that have begun or expanded a DRR planning process should be apparent within months.
- Map DRR planning in sectors outside of education and engage with the relevant institutions. In the longer term, a concerted effort must be made to identify DRR policy instruments that may be in place outside of the education sector. Land use policies, for instance, may serve to reduce risk of environmental disaster. These other DRR policy instruments would ideally be identified by a team led by the DRR focal point within the government offices of the country at risk of disaster; however, this role may be assumed by a host of individuals such as the education cluster lead (see below) in the interest of beginning the mapping process as soon as possible in order to have a fuller picture of the needs of a given at-risk country's DRR strategy.

Information and dissemination

- Sustain commitment for DRR through consistent and thorough follow-up and review mechanisms.
 Unfortunately, donor institutions and government support for DRR planning processes will only be sustained through consistent and thorough follow-up. Advocacy for DRR and information sharing will need to continue. And conferences and workshops are the surest method of focusing attention on an issue.
- Fund more research to inform DRR processes and strengthen the arguments behind DRR advocacy efforts. As indicated in the HFA and ratified by the 168 signatory countries, more attention must be paid to research. This includes developing 'improved methods for predictive multi-risk assessments and socio-economic cost-benefit analysis of risk reduction actions at all levels' and strengthening 'the technical and scientific capacity to develop and apply methodologies, studies and models to assess vulnerabilities to and the impact of geological, weather, water and climate-related hazards'. However, the research on DRR should not be limited to the narrow definition of "disaster" that is currently used by those concerned with the field. The findings of this research will inform DRR processes, thus improving planning, and hopefully strengthening the arguments behind DRR advocacy efforts.

• Use existing partner institutions committed to DRR – such as INEE, the ProVention Consortium, and the UN IASC Education Cluster – to disseminate information about, and advocate for, DRR. Both INEE and the ProVention Consortium have existing capacity to disseminate new research. Their websites already offer links to excellent DRR resources and the two networks enjoy, at least for the medium-term, committed funding for maintaining and circulating such resources. The Education Cluster leads at the national and local levels are in prime position to serve as DRR focal points for information sharing and as advocates for DRR to the host governments. As mentioned, Sierra Leone's ESP specifically requests that the national Education Cluster fill this role. In addition, the global Education Cluster Coordinators (as is the INEE Secretariat) are well-placed to advocate for inclusion of DRR components in donor institution policies as well as government policies.

ActionAid's Publications

ActionAid documents its lessons learned and funds research, as per HFA priority 3 key activity (iii). Select DRR resources listed below are available at www.actionaid.org. In addition, ActionAid has supported some of the studies listed in the References section of this paper.

We Know What We Need: Asian women speak out about climate change adaptation (2007)

Unjust Waters: Climate change, flooding and the protection of poor urban communities: experiences from six African cities (2007)

Hyogo through the Eyes of a Child: An interpretation of the Hyogo framework for children and young people (2007)

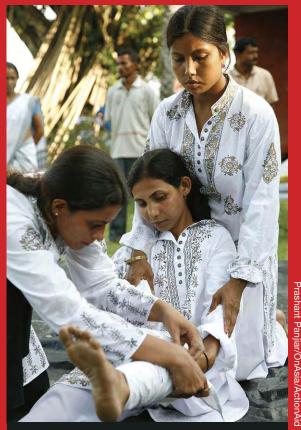
Disaster Risk Reduction: A policy briefing (2006)

Climate change and smallholder farmers in Malawi: Understanding poor people's experiences in climate change adaptation (2006)

Lessons for Life: Building a culture of safety and resilience to disasters through schools (2006)

Top of the class! Governments can reduce the risks of disasters through schools (2006)

Let Our Children Teach Us! A Review of the Role of Education and Knowledge in Disaster Risk Reduction (2006)



Disaster Risk Reduction volunteers of Gramiya Vikas Manch, an ActionAid partner organisation, take part in rescue and evacuation training in Borbori village, Nalbari District, Assam, India.

Successful People-Centred Early Warning Systems: 10 Essential Ingredients (2006)

Disaster Risk Reduction: Implementing the Hyogo Framework for Action (2006)

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Annex A: Hazard and disaster terminology

A **natural hazard** is a geophysical, atmospheric or hydrological event (e.g., earthquake, landslide, tsunami, windstorm, wave or surge, flood or drought) that has the potential to cause harm or loss.

Vulnerability is the potential to suffer harm or loss, related to the capacity to anticipate a hazard, cope with it, resist it and recover from its impact. Both vulnerability and its antithesis, resilience, are determined by physical, environmental, social, economic, political, cultural and institutional factors.

A disaster is the occurrence of an extreme hazard event that impacts on vulnerable communities causing substantial damage, disruption and possible casualties, and leaving the affected communities unable to function normally without outside assistance.

Disaster risk is a function of the characteristics and frequency of hazards experienced in a specified location, the nature of the elements at risk, and their inherent degree of vulnerability or resilience.

Mitigation is any structural (physical) or nonstructural (e.g., land use planning, public education) measure undertaken to minimise the adverse impact of potential natural hazard events.

Preparedness is activities and measures taken before hazard events occur to forecast and warn against them, evacuate people and property when they threaten and ensure effective response (e.g., stockpiling food supplies).

Relief, rehabilitation and reconstruction are any measures undertaken in the aftermath of a disaster to, respectively, save lives and address immediate humanitarian needs, restore normal activities and restore physical infrastructure and services.

Climate change is a statistically significant change in measurements of either the mean state or variability of the climate for a place or region over an extended period of time, either directly or indirectly due to the impact of human activity on the composition of the global atmosphere or due to natural variability.

⁴⁵ These definitions appear verbatim in: Benson, C. & Twigg, J., with Rossetto, T. (2007) *Tools for Mainstreaming DRR: Guidance Notes for Development Organisations*. ProVention Consortium, pp. 15-16.

Annex B: Hyogo Framework for Action Priority®

3. Use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels

18. Disasters can be substantially reduced if people are well informed and motivated towards a culture of disaster prevention and resilience, which in turn requires the collection, compilation and dissemination of relevant knowledge and information on hazards, vulnerabilities and capacities.

Key activities:

(i) Information management and exchange

- (a) Provide easily understandable information on disaster risks and protection options, especially to citizens in high-risk areas, to encourage and enable people to take action to reduce risks and build resilience. The information should incorporate relevant traditional and indigenous knowledge and culture heritage and be tailored to different target audiences, taking into account cultural and social factors.
- (b) Strengthen networks among disaster experts, managers and planners across sectors and between regions, and create or strengthen procedures for using available expertise when agencies and other important actors develop local risk reduction plans.
- (c) Promote and improve dialogue and cooperation among scientific communities and practitioners working on disaster risk reduction, and encourage partnerships among stakeholders, including those working on the socioeconomic dimensions of disaster risk reduction.
- (d) Promote the use, application and affordability of recent information, communication and spacebased technologies and related services, as well as earth observations, to support disaster risk reduction, particularly for training and for the sharing and dissemination of information among different categories of users.
- (e) In the medium term, develop local, national, regional and international userfriendly directories,

- inventories and national information-sharing systems and services for the exchange of information on good practices, cost-effective and easy-to-use disaster risk reduction technologies, and lessons learned on policies, plans and measures for disaster risk reduction.
- (f) Institutions dealing with urban development should provide information to the public on disaster reduction options prior to constructions, land purchase or land sale.
- (g) Update and widely disseminate international standard terminology related to disaster risk reduction, at least in all official United Nations languages, for use in programme and institutional development, operations, research, training curricula and public information programmes.

(ii) Education and training

- (h) Promote the inclusion of disaster risk reduction knowledge in relevant sections of school curricula at all levels and the use of other formal and informal channels to reach youth and children with information; promote the integration of disaster risk reduction as an intrinsic element of the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2015).
- (i) Promote the implementation of local risk assessment and disaster preparedness programmes in schools and institutions of higher education.
- (j) Promote the implementation of programmes and activities in schools for learning how to minimize the effects of hazards.
- (k) Develop training and learning programmes in disaster risk reduction targeted at specific sectors (development planners, emergency managers, local government officials, etc.).

⁴⁶ The contents of this Annex appear verbatim in: International Strategy for Disaster Reduction. (2005) The Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters. pp. 9-10.

- (I) Promote community-based training initiatives, considering the role of volunteers, as appropriate, to enhance local capacities to mitigate and cope with disasters.
- (m) Ensure equal access to appropriate training and educational opportunities for women and vulnerable constituencies; promote gender and cultural sensitivity training as integral components of education and training for disaster risk reduction.

(iii) Research

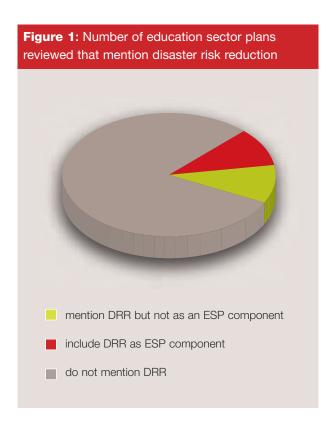
- (n) Develop improved methods for predictive multirisk assessments and socioeconomic cost-benefit analysis of risk reduction actions at all levels; incorporate these methods into decision-making processes at regional, national and local levels.
- (o) Strengthen the technical and scientific capacity to develop and apply methodologies, studies and models to assess vulnerabilities to and the impact of geological, weather, water and climate-related hazards, including the improvement of regional monitoring capacities and assessments.

(iv) Public awareness

(p) Promote the engagement of the media in order to stimulate a culture of disaster resilience and strong community involvement in sustained public education campaigns and public consultations at all levels of society.

Annex C: Disaster Risk Reduction Treatment in Education Sector Plans Reviewed

| Country ESP Reviewed | Mention of DRR? |
|--------------------------|---|
| Burkina Faso | No |
| Cambodia | No |
| Camaroon | No |
| Central African Republic | No |
| Ethiopia | No |
| Ghana | No |
| Guinea | No |
| Guyana | No |
| Haiti | No |
| Honduras | No |
| Kenya | YES, DRR is an ESP component |
| Lesotho | YES, but DRR is only an ESP component in non-formal education |
| Liberia | No |
| Madagascar | YES, DRR is an ESP component |
| Mali | No |
| Mozambique | No |
| Nicaragua | No |
| Rwanda | No |
| Sierra Leone | YES, but DRR is not an ESP component |
| Timor Leste | No |



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Registration number 2004/007117/10