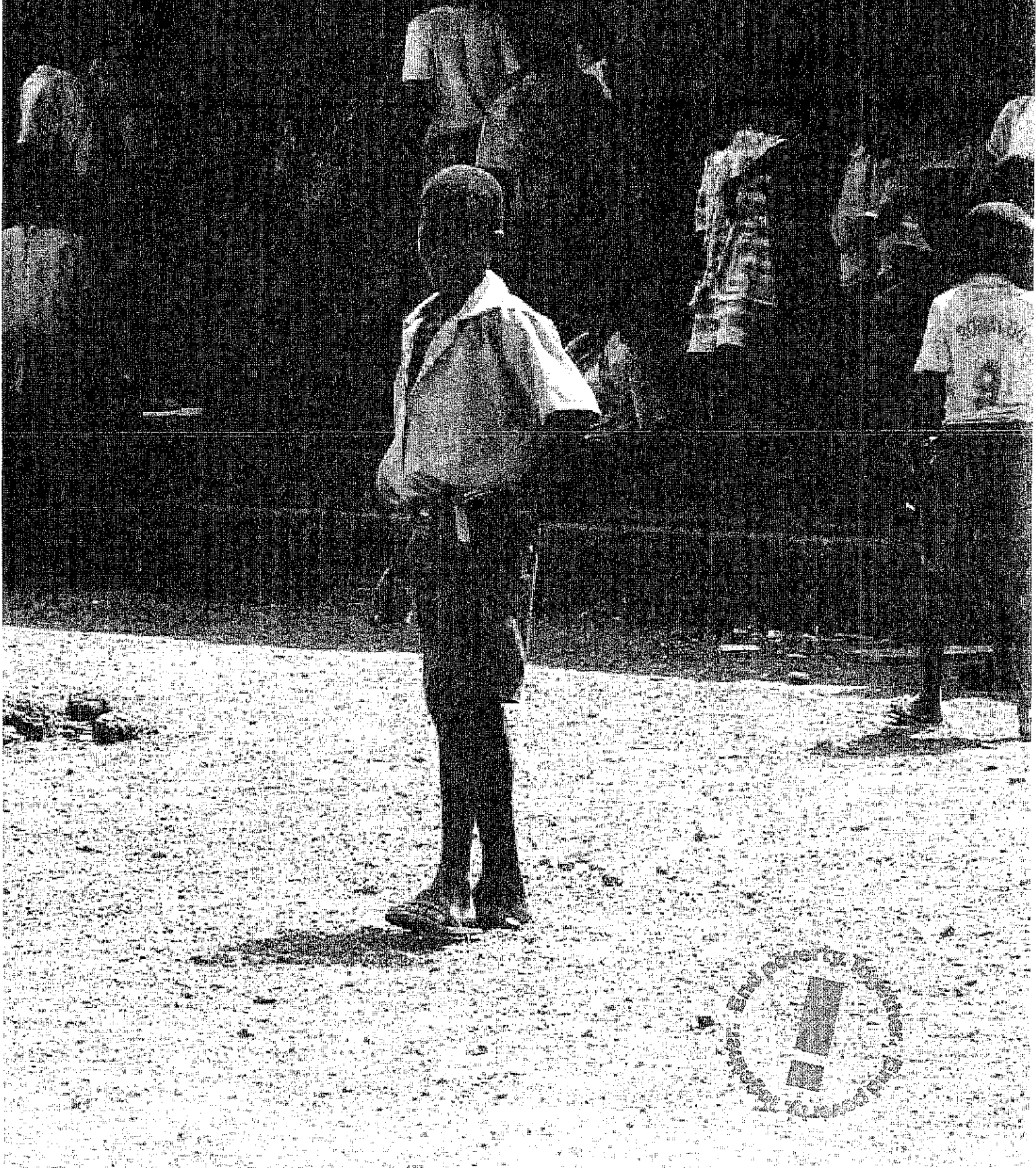


actionaid

Disaster Risk Reduction Education Policy Review



DISASTER RISK REDUCTION EDUCATION POLICY REVIEW

Study commissioned by ActionAid International

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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
IASC	Inter-Agency Steering Committee
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
NGO	non-governmental organization
PVA	Participatory Vulnerability Analysis
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	universal primary education

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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. No greater testament arguably stands to the importance of DRR than the fact that the *Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015* (HFA) – the document that resulted from the World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Kobe, Japan – was adopted by 168 countries. 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, and 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 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 (DfID) 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:

- *Clearly define and/or redefine the boundaries of what constitutes “disaster” in DRR.*
- *Include a spectrum of stakeholders in all aspects of DRR planning.*
- *Revise policies and frameworks developed prior to Hyogo to reflect commitment to the HFA in order to “institutionalize” DRR.*
- *Require DRR plans as a component in grant proposals, both for governments in countries at risk of disaster and NGOs/implementing agencies seeking funding.*
- *Map DRR planning in sectors outside of education*
- *Sustain commitment for DRR through consistent and thorough follow-up.*
- *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 the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies, the ProVention Consortium and the UN Inter-Agency Standing Committee Education Cluster System – to circulate information about and advocate for DRR.*

Background to the Study

Introduction

A tsunami struck the coasts of southern and southeastern Asia on 26 December 2004, killing 227,000 and displacing 1.7 million people.¹ This tragedy could not have been prevented. However, the enormity of the human and economic loss arguably drew world 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 during the school day 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... 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'.⁴ The last two words of this definition, 'outside assistance', are the focus of this report. The international community is – understandably – increasingly concerned with 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 disasters*⁶ (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.)

1 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/db900-SID/EGUA-6UULKY?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.

4 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.)

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

6 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.

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 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 in order to make progress on HFA goals:

- The Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR), managed by the World Bank, is partnership of donor governments and agencies – including ISDR – that aims to 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 – long before the Hyogo Conference – in order 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

Key Global-Level Actors in Disaster Risk Reduction in Education

In the same year as the Hyogo Conference was held, the UN Emergency Relief Coordinator had commissioned the Humanitarian Response Review, a report that was 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.¹¹ Under the UN/Inter-Agency Standing

Committee (UN/IASC) Cluster Approach, '[p]artners 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)'¹². 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 another key global-level actor in education in challenging contexts. According to its Web site, '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'.¹³ INEE 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. INEE has over 2500 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*¹⁴, contains guidance on DRR measures. INEE is strongly committed to promoting the implementation of the HFA.

Neither of these actors – not the Education Cluster nor INEE – limits their involvement in emergencies to natural disasters. Both actors are concerned with any situation in which humanitarian assistance is required.

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

8 Source: <http://gfdr.org>.

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

10 See: <http://www.preventionweb.net>.

11 Source: <http://www.humanitarianreform.org/humanitarianreform/Default.aspx?tabid=70>.

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

13 Source: <http://www.ineesite.org/page.asp?pid=1008>.

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

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, rendering ActionAid a leading NGO in the implementation of the HFA.

For example, in the flood-prone Char Islands of Bangladesh, ActionAid has worked in DRR since 2001 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) t: '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.

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. Due to the short deadline for the study, the study is not without its limitations. The researcher was unable to locate a few potentially key documents – such as funding reports – in time to incorporate into the study. While it is unlikely that these data sources would change the recommendations that follow the report, they may have enriched the study.

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'.¹⁵ In the emerging field concerned with the study of DRR, there is a tendency to consider only natural and technological disasters – i.e., hydrometeorological, 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.¹⁶ Importantly, data from man-made disasters are excluded from the statistics database compiled and maintained by the ISDR.¹⁷ Presumably, such data fall outside the interests of statisticians because consideration of this kind of data is messy: 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

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

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

17 See <http://www.unisdr.org/disaster-statistics/introduction.htm>.

millions of casualties in the coming years – is likewise not 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 man-made but not technological nor natural disaster are often blurred.

The field concerned with the study of DRR is multi-disciplinary, including such diverse areas 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 attention to concerns 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, for example, often argue for participatory methods in DRR planning and advocate for the combination of indigenous and Western knowledge in such initiatives.¹⁸ While these analyses are helpful for developing approaches for DRR activities, they do little to add to the evidence base that investments in DRR prevent 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.¹⁹) In 2006, the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DfID) 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'²⁰. 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.'²¹ 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 DRR²², 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, the United Kingdom, through DfID, has long been institutionally committed to DRR; but, are other countries increasing emphasis on DRR in the wake of the Hyogo conference?

18 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.

19 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.

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

21 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.

22 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 institutions²³:

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. Most importantly, such a typology of policy instruments does not negate the need to consider the full range of disaster situations that may (and do) occur, natural or otherwise. 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.

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

Select Funding Streams

²³ 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.

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: 'Use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels'. 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 deep emphasis on 'reducing vulnerabilities to disasters and conflicts'.²⁵

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

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

Table 1: A menu of policy instruments for emergencies and disasters

Class of policy instrument	Examples of major instruments
1. Research and monitoring	Increased knowledge of vulnerability, community awareness
2. 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)

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, as per key activities (ii) h, i, and j. In line with key activities (ii) k, l, and m, the project works with various levels of stakeholders, from the Education Ministry, to Local Government structures (Village Development Committees, Area Civil Protection Committees and the District Civil Protection Committee), to civil society (The Civil Society Coalition for Quality Basic Education); to school administrators and teachers, to children, with the added benefit of providing leadership skills through DRR for girls.

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, a multi-donor trust fund was established to assist low-income countries without a sufficient in-country donor base: the FTI Catalytic Fund. 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

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

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 those of Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Timor Leste, all countries at risk of disaster.

Overwhelmingly, these ESPs omitted mention of disaster risk management, disaster risk reduction, and disaster mitigation strategies.²⁹ (See Annex C for an

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.

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

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. Haiti's ESP, in its country overview section, lists the natural and socio-economic disasters to which Haiti is prone, but also fails to mention strategies to reduce Haiti's risk of their effects.

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 had been declared a national disaster in 1999, which again gives rise to the question as to 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, which are to varying extents vulnerable to disaster, although no more so than – for instance – Haiti, Burkina Faso, or Timor Leste. 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 in its ESP is thus 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, one of the longest of the ESPs reviewed, makes several mentions of the need for disaster preparedness and disaster management training in various departments and at various levels of the education sector. "Training", however, is a vague term; no further

explanation of this training is provided. The most concrete strategies for disaster risk management are provided in the logical framework of the 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 Therefore, while Lesotho and Madagascar's ESPs contain references to DRR strategies, these are poorly elaborated; Kenya's ESP contains more detailed DRR strategies, but these do not comprise a significant portion of its overall sectoral plan.

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 UK]. 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

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 Presumably, the fact that Sierra Leone highlighted the omission of DRR strategy in its ESP led to the FTI appraisal team's notice of the omission, since – as mentioned above – inclusion of a DRR strategy is not a requisite ESP component in FTI's appraisal guidelines.

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.

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

In summary, the twenty ESPs reviewed indicate that DRR is – on the whole – 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, is entitled 'First Call for Children'; within the target, 'support to national sub-national capacities for [e]mergency preparedness and response' is specifically listed as a UNICEF goal.³⁷ 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, this 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 (i) 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 the Building Safe School Environment – 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 involv[ing] them in emergency preparedness and disaster risk reduction (DRR) initiatives'.⁴² Project activities 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 (i). 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

Policy Implications

- "Disaster", as pertains to DRR, is poorly delineated by the international community concerned with the field. The UN/ISDR definition of the term varies little from that provided in the introduction of this paper: it is an event that 'overwhelms local capacity' to the extent that 'external assistance' is necessary; 'an unforeseen and often sudden event' causing 'great damage, destruction and human

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.

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.

suffering'.⁴⁴ However, there is no reason why conflict – for instance – cannot fall under the DRR umbrella, especially as conflict is known to increase vulnerability to other disasters. The international community seems inconsistent in its use of such definitions. FTI, for one, considers HIV/AIDS and conflict as possible unforeseen challenges in implementing an ESP,⁴⁵ using the very word – “unforeseen” – that the UN/ISDR included in its definition of disasters. Kenya's declaring HIV/AIDS a national disaster confirms that definitions of the term “disaster” are context-specific.

- Although – on the whole – scant evidence exists to justify extensive investment in DRR measures, there appears to be a strong consensus on the part of governments (as evidenced by the number of signatory countries to the HFA) and researchers that such planning is imperative in order to decrease the economic and human costs of emergencies and disasters. Based on anecdotal evidence, and perhaps even common sense, such investment is also considered essential by institutions concerned with humanitarian response – e.g., donors such as DfID and agencies such as UNICEF. Until sufficient evidence exists to consider DRR measures to be ineffectual, *the international community has a responsibility to make every effort to reduce disaster risk for vulnerable populations; this cannot be achieved without international, national, and institutional commitment to DRR.*
- The fact that DRR does not now feature in the FTI framework or in many of the ESPs of countries at

44 Source: <http://www.unisdr.org/disaster-statistics/introduction.htm>.

45 *Op.cit.*

risk of disaster does not imply that DRR measures are not being considered. The bulk of these documents were developed prior to the Hyogo conference; moreover, there is a wide range of policy instruments employed by governments and institutions that are not part of the education sector. *A multi-sectoral assessment at all levels of decision-making may show that DRR measures are in place.*

- That said, *formalized commitment to DRR in the form of written policies is the ideal.* Formal policies and actionable implementation plans allow for accountability.
- Handmer and Dovers (2007) point out that a major challenge for those concerned with DRR activities is accepting ‘the limitations of the planning and preparedness tools’; such tools should rather be considered as a way ‘to develop the relationships and mindsets needed for the management of major events, with all the unexpected issues and problems that they bring’.⁴⁶ In other words, *DRR planning should be viewed as a process*, rather than as a one-off activity resulting in a finished product. For countries with few resources and many priorities, it may be useful to view the DRR planning process as ‘building a constituency of support’⁴⁷ for the guidelines or policies created rather than to expect strict adherence to the letter of the DRR plans.

46 Handmer & Dovers (2007), p. 108.

47 *Ibid.*

Recommendations for Institutional and Governmental Policymakers

Planning

- **Clearly define and/or redefine 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. 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 in all aspects of DRR planning.** Even if evidence emerges economic returns to DRR efforts are insignificant, use of methods such as ActionAid's Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA) will likely yield 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.⁴⁸ This practice should extend to policymaking.

DRR as process

- **Revise policies and frameworks developed prior to Hyogo.** 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 inclusion of DRR initiatives in grant proposals.** 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.** 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

- **Hold regular DRR awareness conferences.** Unfortunately, donor institution 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.

48 INEE (2004).

- **Fund more research.** 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 – strengthen the arguments behind DRR advocacy efforts.
- **Circulate information through the INEE and ProVention Web sites.** Both INEE and the ProVention Consortium have existing capacity to disseminate new research, as well as "lessons learned" and "best practice" papers. Their Web sites 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.
- **Benefit from the IASC Cluster system.** 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 (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)

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)

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

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

Annex A: Hazard and disaster terminology⁴⁹

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 non-structural (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.

⁴⁹ 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 3⁵⁰

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 space-based 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.).

50 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.

(l) 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 multi-risk 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.

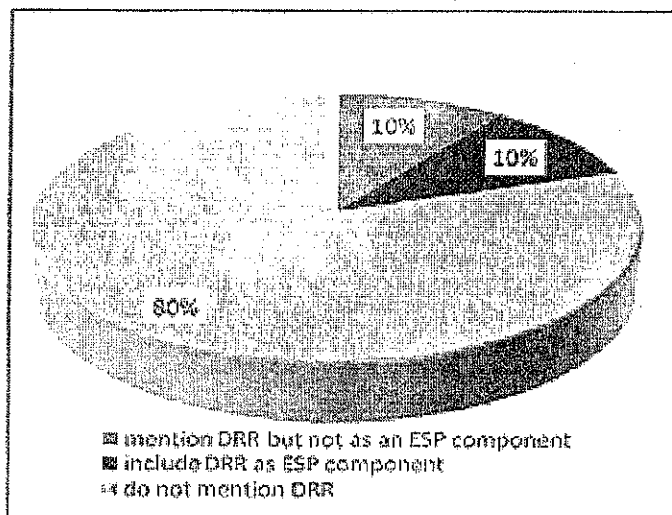
(iv) *Public awareness*

(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
Cameroon		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

Figure 1: Number of education sector plans reviewed that mention disaster risk reduction



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