PALACKÝ UNIVERSITY OLOMOUC
UNIVERSITY OF CLERMONT AUVERGNE
UNIVERSITY OF PAVIA

MASTER THESIS

EDUCATION IN EMERGENCIES: FINANCING TRENDS, CHALLENGES AND FUTURE SOLUTIONS.

BY

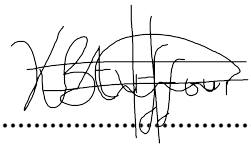
BREFO-TUFFOUR KWAKU

SUPERVISOR: ING. MGR JAN ŘÍKOVSKÝ

JUNE, 2020

DECLARATION

I hereby declare to the best of my knowledge that, under the supervision of Ing. Mgr. Jan Říkovský, I wholly carried out this study. All sources herein have been duly cited.



06.06.20 .....

DATE

..... BREFO-TUFFOUR KWAKU

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My profound gratitude goes to the Almighty God for His abundant grace, protection and knowledge throughout the programme.

My next appreciation goes to my supervisor, Ing. Mgr Jan Říkovský for his guidance, suggestions and feedback while writing this study. I am also grateful for the interest and support of Elisa Radisone of the Global Education Cluster in Geneva. Furthermore, I wish to express my gratitude to all the lecturers within the consortium for their constant support throughout the programme.

Finally, I express my heartfelt gratitude to my siblings, my mother -Gladys Osei, and friends for their continued assistance, encouragement and emotional support during this Coronavirus pandemic.

UNIVERZITA PALACKÉHO V OLOMOUCI

Přírodovědecká fakulta

Akademický rok: 2019/2020

ZADÁNÍ DIPLOMOVÉ PRÁCE

(projektu, uměleckého díla, uměleckého výkonu)

Jméno a příjmení:	Kwaku BREFO-TUFFOUR
Osobní číslo:	R180102
Studijní program:	N1301 Geography
Studijní obor:	International Development Studies
Téma práce:	Education in Emergencies: Financing Trends, Challenges and Future Solutions.
Zadávající katedra:	Katedra rozvojových a environmentálních studií

Zásady pro vypracování

Global attention and coordination on financing Education in Emergencies (EiE) has only arisen over the last decades (Nicolai & Hine,2015). Recognizing the existing trends of funding in the humanitarian sector, the educational sector not only has one of the lowest resource requirements in humanitarian response plans, but also has a small proportion of what is required? a double disadvantage (INEE,2019).

Taking into account the global funding constraints, the aim of this study is to examine the financing patterns, challenges and possible solutions for sustainable EiE financing. The study then seeks to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the global financing patterns for EiE?
2. To what extent are these patterns affecting the nature and quality of EiE interventions?
3. What could be the most efficient financing strategies for EiE?

This study seeks to establish what is documented, and often unknown, about funding for education in emergencies through a rigorous review of secondary literature and research from International and comparative education databases. Moreover, previous studies in EiE have identified the need for better evidence to understand the major gaps as well as good practices to enhance access to education, quality of learning and children's well-being in emergencies (NORRAG, 2018).In view of this, the study will help to bridge the already paucity of evidence and add to the knowledge base of Education in Emergencies.

Rozsah pracovnízprávy:
Rozsah grafických prací:
Forma zpracování diplomové práce: tištěná
Jazyk zpracování: Angličtina

Seznam doporučené literatury:

1. INEE (International Network of Education in Emergencies).2019. *Education in Emergencies Financing. https://archive.ineesite.org/en/education-financing*
2. Joyner A. 1996. Supporting education in emergencies: A case study from southern Sudan<u>,</u> *Development in Practice,* 6:1, 70-76,
3. Nicolai, S., & Hine, S. (2015). Investment for education in emergencies. *A review of evidence. ODI*.
4. Nicolai, S., Hine, S., & Wales, J. (2016). A common platform for education in emergencies and protracted crises: Evidence paper. *London: Overseas Development Institute*.
5. NORRAG. 2018. Towards Evidence-Based Financing for Education in Emergencies. *https://www.norrag.org/towards-evidence-based-financing-for-education-in-emergencies/*

Vedoucí diplomové práce: Ing. Mgr. Jan Říkovský
CARITAS – vyšší odborná škola sociální

Datum zadání diplomové práce: 3. února 2020
Termín odevzdání diplomové práce: 22. května 2020

L.S.

doc. RNDr. Martin Kubala, Ph.D.
děkan

doc. RNDr. Pavel Nováček, CSc.
vedoucí kate

V Olomouci dne 3. února 2020

ABSTRACT

The study aimed at piecing together secondary data to help examine trends in funding, main contextual factors influencing the trends, challenges, and future solutions towards sustainable financing of education in emergencies (EiE). Analyzing the financing patterns for EiE showed that humanitarian assistance to education has risen in absolute terms, but has not kept up with the rising educational needs of people affected by crises. The main contextual factors identified include the continued view of education as a long-term development issue, humanitarian and development divide, and the lack of evidence and research to show the added value that can ensure adequate donor funding. The financing challenges affecting the implementation of EiE interventions include insufficient funding, delays in funding, short-term funding, and fragmented funding mechanisms. The global financing situation of EiE depends on bilateral and multilateral donor policies and practices, but very few donors have a specific policy framework for financing EiE. Based on the findings, the study concludes that the Global Education Cluster and the UN agencies need to set an agenda for action to increase funding, as well as the efficiency of existing financing mechanisms. Although adequate funding plays a major role in ensuring quality education for crisis-affected children and young people, the broader picture should focus on how EiE can be efficiently coordinated and implemented.

Keywords: financing, crisis-affected situations, education in emergencies, humanitarian aid

Content **Page**

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FOUR-ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

LIST OF FIGURES, TABLES AND BOXES

Figures

Tables

Boxes

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBPF	Country Based Pooled Fund
CERF	Central Emergency Relief Fund
CHF	Common Humanitarian Funds
DFID	Department for International Development
ECHO	European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations
ECW	Education Cannot Wait
EiE	Education in Emergencies
EFA GMR	Education for All Global Monitoring Report
ERF	Emergency Response Fund
EU	European Union
FTS	Financial Tracking System
GBC	Global Business Coalition for Education
GCPEA	Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack
GEC	Global Education Cluster
GEFI	Global Education First Initiative
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
HRP	Humanitarian Response Plan
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross
JENA	Joint Education Needs Assessment
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	The United Nations Children's Fund
UNIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Globally, the number and length of humanitarian crises are increasing[1]. Currently, over 1% of people worldwide are involved in serious humanitarian crises (OCHA,2018a). As a consequence, armed conflicts and significant natural disasters and/or have been the major drivers of many humanitarian crises. Global trends including poverty, population growth, urbanization and climate change are further exacerbating these crises, making more people more vulnerable than ever to the devastating consequences of conflicts and disasters (Bennett et al.,2016).

In Cameroon, the Central African Republic and Afghanistan, the increasing humanitarian needs are driven by climate shocks, conflicts and violence that have had a huge effect on people's lives.[2] More than 120 million people are expected to need emergency assistance and security each year in recent times[3], with the latest estimates of 168 million and 200 million people respectively in 2020 and 2022[4]. Although, humanitarian needs have been projected to increase over the years, the funding needed to meet up these growing needs is lagging. For example, while funding increased significantly from $10.6 billion in 2014 to $13.9 billion in 2017, the coverage gap for UN-led humanitarian plans is still approximately 40% (OCHA, 2018a).

According to International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC) (2018), the widening gap between funds needed and funds available for humanitarian response is one of the key factors behind the exclusion of the world's most vulnerable. The humanitarian system and its funding are under extreme constraints because of ongoing crises in Syria, Yemen, South Sudan and other countries affecting over 200 million people (Willitts-King et al., 2019). Coupled with existing humanitarian funding shortages, the present financing system is complex and inadequate to assist all humanitarian sectors especially providing education in emergency contexts (Global Coalition for Education (GBC-Education), 2015).

[1] The average humanitarian crises last for nine years according to the Global Humanitarian Overview for 2019. https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/GHO2019.pdf
[2] Ibid, p.5
[3] Ibid, p.12
[4] See the Global Humanitarian Overview (2020), OCHA https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/GHO-2020_v9.1.pdf

The humanitarian relief efforts have traditionally been tied to short-term physical assistance by offering water, food, shelter, and security (Versmesse et al., 2017). Education has not been given a priority in comparison with other basic needs such as food, water, shelters and security in the times of conflict or crises (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003; Roger, 2002 as quoted by Badrasawi et al., 2018). For instance, Burde et al., (2015) confirm that humanitarian agencies have been struggling after the end of the cold war to extend their efforts towards education assistance in conflict-affected and natural disaster-prone countries. As pointed out by Nicolai & Triplehorn (2003), education in emergencies (EiE) has typically not held a central place in humanitarian discourse although millions of children are deprived of education due to conflicts and natural disasters.

1.2 Background to the study

According to UNESCO (2015), there have been global improvements in education between 2000 and 2015, with the number of out-of-school children decreasing by almost half and an estimated 34 million children enrolled in school. Since 2016, however, little has been done to further reduce the number of out-of-school children in the world (UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UNIS), 2018). This situation has become particularly alarming due to the increasing concentration of out-of-school children in countries affected by conflicts and natural disasters (UNESCO, 2015).

Wars, natural disasters, pandemics significantly interrupt education for children and young people and, thus violate several declarations and conventions that safeguard education for children. Global Partnership for Education (GPE) (2019) estimates that 104 million children aged 5-17 have been denied education as a result of wars or disasters and the affected children are more than twice as likely to be out of school compared to countries without conflicts or natural disasters. During armed conflicts, education comes under attack and schools become the target of violence[5]. Schools are mostly used by paramilitary groups and armed groups and students are often recruited into armed groups in schools or on their way to school, they become victims of sexual violence, education infrastructures are destroyed and teachers are mostly

[5] According to the Education under Attack Report in 2018, there have been accounts of more than 1,000 individual attacks on education or military use of schools and 1,000 or more students, teachers or other education personnel being harmed in nine countries: the DRC, Egypt, Israel / Palestine, Nigeria, the Philippines, South Sudan, Syria, Turkey and Yemen.

harmed (Shah, 2015; Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA),2018). The consequences of these attacks and the military use of schools impede access to educational prospects, reduce education quality and disrupt social progress and development (GCPEA,2018).

Furthermore, conflict increases existing education inequalities which, in effect, tend to exacerbate gender disparities (Iversen & Oestergaard 2019). Burde et al., (2017) further suggest that conflicts affect boys and girls differently when it comes to accessing education. The likelihood of girls in crises- affected countries being out of school is 2.5 times higher than that of boys (Nicolai et al., 2016a; European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations (ECHO),2019a). More than 75 percent of girls of primary school-going age are not in school in countries like South Sudan - a country that has been struggling through many years of violent conflicts and displacements (UNESCO, 2018). Similarly, in Afghanistan, girls' attendance to school declines by 19 percent per mile increase in distance from school (Burde & Linden, 2013 as cited in Burde et al., 2017). However, wars and natural disasters in countries such as Iraq, Rwanda, and Guatemala equally impacted both boys and girls negatively, while boys in Cambodia and Mozambique, for example, were more negatively affected than girls. (Nicolai & Hine, 2015).

Accordingly, a report on education in emergencies indicates that education is regarded as a fundamental human right for all, and more than a right for children impacted by crises (UNICEF, n.d). Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) (2010) emphasizes that the education of millions of children and young people who are impacted by wars and disasters is especially important but in emergencies it is often significantly interrupted, limiting learners' access to quality education. Moreover, war, natural disasters, epidemics and other crises threaten the ambition to attain the new Sustainable Development Goal (SDG4) (Nicolai et. al., 2016b). Without education in emergencies, children in crises will lack the skills they need to restore their communities and further plunge their families into a vicious cycle of poverty (UNICEF,2017a). Tablot (2013) suggests that the value of education is immense and every child and young person, including conflict victims, have the right to receive an education. For emergency settings, however, education is also required to prepare communities for reconstruction, social and economic growth after or during wars and disasters (Tablot,2013). Education offers physical, psychological and cognitive protection capable of saving and sustaining lives (Mendenhall &

Anderson,2013), reduces the odds of children being recruited into armed groups or being victims of sexual violence (Winthrop & Mendenhall,2006) and reduces risks of conflicts by about 20 percent, thus fostering lasting peace and growth (GPE,2019)

Nicolai & Hine (2015) point out that education is seen as a top priority for children and one of the top three priorities for adults affected by humanitarian crises. According to Abu-Amsha & Armstrong (2018), Syrian refugee families in Lebanon emphasized the need for education and parents with minimal education and financial challenges were willing to sacrifice themselves to pay for private lessons and provide additional support, including homework assistance. Education is currently seen as one of the driving forces pushing families and children to leave their homes amid all threats to their lives (UNICEF,2017b)[6].

Cognizant to the importance of education in emergencies (EiE), global attention and collaboration around these issues have only arisen in the past decades (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003; Nicolai & Hine,2015; Versmesse et al., 2017). Nonetheless, it is estimated that 75 million children aged between 3–18 are in urgent need of educational support in 35 crises-affected countries (Nicolai et al., 2016b; ECHO,2019a). Nicolai et al., (2016b) as cited in NORRAG (2018) reports a global financial deficit of at least $8.5 billion per year to support education for these 75 million children in crises-affected contexts. The education sector not only has one of the lowest resource requirements in humanitarian response plans, but it also gets a small proportion of what is needed – a double disadvantage (INEE,2019a). Around 2% of humanitarian financing goes to education, while governments in crises-affected countries invest about 3% of national income, less than the global average of 4% and the required target by almost 6%. (NORRAG ,2018; INEE,2019a)

Education in emergencies as it stands now tends to be underfunded by both governments and humanitarian organizations, despite evidence that education is beneficial to societies, communities and individuals (NORRAG,2018). Investing in education should be a priority for governments in crises affected countries and external donors alike. As a result, the funding shortfalls also lead to low investment in rigorous research which can lead to better EiE programming. Moreover, previous studies in EiE have identified the need for better evidence to

[6] According to UNICEF (2017), an Italian study of refugee and migrant children showed that 38 per cent of them went to Europe to gain access to opportunities for learning.

understand the major gaps as well as good practices to enhance access to education, quality of learning and well-being for children in emergencies (Montjouridès & Liu, 2019).

1.3 Overview of study

Taking into account the global financing constraints and the limited research works on EiE, this study aims to examine the financing patterns, challenges and possible solutions for sustainable financing of EiE. The study seeks to find answers to the following questions:

- What are the global financing patterns for EiE?
- What key elements of EiE operations do these financing mechanisms focus on?
- What could be the most efficient and sustainable financing strategies for EiE?

1.4 Organization of study

The rest of the study is structured in four chapters. Following this chapter—Chapter Two sets the pace by reviewing relevant literature that gives more meaning and better understanding of the topic under discussion. Chapter Three gives a detailed overview of the methodology used in this work. Chapter four outlines the discussion of evidence based on the research questions. Finally, Chapter Five covers the summary of findings, recommendations and concluding remarks.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter of the study reviews relevant literature on the subject to obtain a deeper understanding of the findings and also better clarify all aspects of education in emergencies. The review focuses on the definitions and clarifications of key concepts, the global perspectives as well as past and current attempts to ensure the functioning of educational systems in crises-affected contexts.

2.2. Defining Emergencies, Fragility and Resilience

2.2.1 Emergencies

Throughout the 1990s, the term ‘emergency' emerged within the international humanitarian community (Kagawa,2005). According to Anderson & Gerber (2018), any natural or human-made disaster can be described as an emergency if international assistance is required to help the populations affected. Generally, there are two types of disasters: natural (earthquakes, tsunami, epidemic) and human-made (i.e. wars, civil strife, military conflicts). Complex emergencies occur when there are several factors, such as a combination of both natural and/or man-made disasters. Population displacement is mostly a consequence of complex emergencies due to insecurity, food shortages and destruction of essential services and infrastructure (Anderson & Gerber, 2018). On the other hand, protracted or chronic emergencies are defined as persistent crises in which large sectors of the population face acute life and livelihood threats over a long period (years or even decades) and state and other governance bodies fail to provide adequate protection and support levels (Flores et al, 2005 cited in Vervisch et al., 2013). Almost all of these emergencies impact education in the short - or long-term and the provision of EiE may have specific approaches and different modes of delivery depending on the various phases of emergencies (Kagawa,2014).

In the humanitarian sector, emergencies and crises are often used interchangeably in connection to EiE (Stephensen, 2011). In this study, emergencies and crises will be used interchangeably to include natural disasters (e.g., earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts), conflicts. (wars, civil unrest, armed conflicts), epidemics (Ebola, HIV, etc), complex and protracted emergencies that affect educational systems.

2.2.2 Fragility

In recent times, the concept of fragility has gained popularity in the field of education in emergencies, but its definition has been contested (Tebbe, 2007 as cited in Mosselson et al., 2009; Winthrop & Matsui, 2013). After the 9/11 attacks, the terminology "fragility" emerged from mostly western donors to describe countries characterized by instability and violent conflicts that pose a major security risk to other countries globally (Shields & Paulson, 2019). Although there is no single definition of "fragile states" or "fragility" various definitions include ideas that emphasize a government's poor capacity and lack of ability to offer basic social services such as education (Mosselson et al., 2009). Fragile countries face particularly severe challenges in development such as poor governance, inadequate institutional capacity, chronic humanitarian crises, ongoing social conflicts, violence or civil wars (Barakat et al., 2008; Miller-Grandvaux, 2009). Commins (2018) posits that fragility in different ways significantly hinders learning opportunities and conditions for millions of children in fragile and non-fragile states. Education then plays an important role in fostering progress through economic growth in fragile states, protecting children before and after emergencies, encouraging peace building, and building resilience to disasters and climate change (Winthrop & Matsui, 2013).

2.2.3 Resilience

The concept of resilience is increasingly gaining ground within the EiE community. In response to the need for a more sustainable, coherent and innovative approach to education programming in times of conflict and crises, resilience has been integrated into the broader EiE framework (Shah, 2019). To children affected by emergencies, resilience means the capacity of their communities and structures to anticipate, prevent, overcome, adapt and recover from stress and shocks. (UNICEF, 2014). World Bank (2013) suggests that an approach to resilience should not only include mitigating the consequences of vulnerability but the mobilization of assets, resources and capacity to protect and engage vulnerable people for longer-term structural changes. Therefore, promoting the resilience of children through education decreases future conflicts (Shah, 2015). Nicolai et al., (2019) note that schools also can provide a multi-collective channel in both emergency and disaster situations that will improve regional preparedness, response and recovery.

2.3 Definition and general understanding of EiE

The provision of education in times of humanitarian emergencies has been a major priority for communities, parents and children themselves[7](Save the Children,2015). Yet, education is not widely treated as a priority in emergency response. According to Winthrop & Mendenhall (2006), education in emergencies, however, not only helps provide support to children impacted by acute crises but also helps meet long-term educational needs. In a broader sense, the definition of education in emergencies has grown over time.

Sinclair (2007) defines education in emergencies or emergency education as "education for populations affected by unforeseen situations such as armed conflict or natural disasters" (p.52). Furthermore, education in emergencies refers to as "a set of linked project activities that enable structured learning to continue in times of acute crises or long-term instability" (Nicolai, 2003, p.11).The Inter-Agency Network for Emergency Education (INEE) (2010) offers a more comprehensive definition of EiE as the "quality learning opportunities for all ages in situations of crises, including early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education. Education in emergencies provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives" (p.117)

EiE on a broader scope comprises education for refugees, Internally Displaced People (IDPs), non-displaced children living in conflict and/or fragile settings, and children affected by natural disasters (Dryden-Peterson,2011). Although there are various diverse definitions of emergency education, they all agree on a single central objective: the continuous support and provision of education to children and young people during emergencies (conflicts and/or natural disasters). However, Kagawa (2005) argues about whether or not post-emergency rehabilitation and reconstruction should be seen as part of "education in emergencies" despite the nuanced definitions of the field. Sinclair (2002) confirms that, following a complex humanitarian emergency, EiE should be given during the initial and early stages of reconstruction. Burde (2014) additionally suggests that there are imperfections in the EiE framework since the use of the word "emergency" does not explicitly suit protracted crises. Nonetheless, phrases such as

[7] In a study conducted by Save the Children (2015) in 17 different emergency situations concerning what children want during crisis, 8,749 children, representing 99%, identified education as a priority.

"education in emergencies" and "education in protracted emergencies" are often used to still stress the need for urgent humanitarian response (Burde ,2014)

2.4 Conceptualizing EiE

2.4 1- The Trajectory overtime

In the 1990s, many ethnic conflicts led to the deprivation and displacement of millions of children and youth, many in difficult circumstances (Sinclair, 2002). Similarly, in the mid-to-late 1990s, as humanitarian action advanced and expanded, international aid workers took the opportunity to promote education as a core component of humanitarian responses (Burde et al., 2017). This was the period when education in emergencies started to gain prominence within the humanitarian system. In 1996, a report by Graça Machel on the Impact of Armed Conflicts on Children highlighted the need for education in emergencies setting the groundwork for a major debate on the life-saving potential of education in armed conflicts and the negative consequences of depriving young people of access to education (Machel, 1996 cited in Sinclair 2002; Cardozo & Novelli, 2018). With the recognition of the urgent need for education in an emergency, the 2000 Dakar Action Framework (Education for All) also stressed the need to address the needs of crises-affected education systems and to implement educational initiatives to promote mutual understanding, peace, tolerance, and prevention of violent conflicts (UNESCO, 2000). Although humanitarian aid activities have traditionally been related to short-term physical relief by providing water and food, shelter and health care, emergency education has been considered the fourth pillar of humanitarian aid over the years (Sinclair, 2001; Versmesse et al., 2017). Most notably, in emergencies, quality education is considered as a basic human right and several international instruments guarantee these rights (see Box 1). But, in emergencies, countries also find it difficult to guarantee and protect the right to education, particularly for vulnerable groups like people with disabilities. Ensuring access to education in any way preserves children's and youth's rights in the midst of crises and encourages normality and resilience (Andersen, 2018).

Box 1: International instruments protecting the right to education in emergencies.

Education in Emergencies is principally protected in international laws and declarations. The key international instruments include:

- ✓ Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) (Article 26)
- ✓ International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966 (Articles 13, 14)
- ✓ Fourth Geneva Convention (1949) (Articles 3, 24, 50) and Additional Protocol II (1977) (Article 4.3 (a))
- ✓ Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) (Articles 3, 22)
- ✓ International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) (Article 2)
- ✓ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) (Article 10)
- ✓ Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) (Articles 2, 22, 28, 29, 30, 38, 39)
- ✓ Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998) (Articles 7(1)(h), 7(2)(g)),8(2)(a)(iv), 8(2)(b)(ii) and 25(3)(e))
- ✓ Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (non-binding) (1998) (Paragraph 23)
- ✓ Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) (Article 24)
- ✓ Customary International Humanitarian Law (Rules 7, 38 and 40)
- ✓ International Safe schools Declaration (2015)
- ✓ The INEE Minimum Standards Handbook Preparedness, Response, Recovery (2004) updated in (2010)

Source: Adapted from INEE. (2010). Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response Recovery. New York, NY

Although these international laws guarantee quality education for children in crises, there was a renewed commitment to EiE in the 2000s, when INEE[8] was established. (Versmesse et al., 2017; Cardozo & Novelli, 2008; INEE-Sphere 2009). The creation of INEE led to a better understanding of the need for formal and non-formal education programs in emergencies (INEE-Sphere, 2009). As early as 2002, discussions took place about how to extend the Sphere Project[9] to include fields like education, psycho-social services for children affected by crises. After the discussions, the INEE Minimum standards were established in 2004 which provided the basis for standardization of quality education in emergencies. In addition, the Global Education Cluster, jointly led by UNICEF and Save the Children, was established in 2006 as part of the initiative aimed to improve education in emergencies (Dryden-Peterson, 2011). According to Mostafa (2019), education was made a formal part of the international humanitarian aid system in November 2006, with the creation of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Education Cluster, which aimed at increasing cooperation, improve transparency and quality of education, and provide quality education for crises- affected children. The broad complexity of humanitarian displacements, as well as the role of EiE in mitigating and reacting to possible implications of the growing number of global crises, have been acknowledged in recent years (Versmesse et al., 2017). The field of EiE has thus grown overtime to put forth more scientific journals (Journal on Education in Emergencies (JEiE)), as well as policy documents to support education as a humanitarian priority. Nevertheless, all this recent growth has not resulted in adequate funding for the sector, according to Versmesse et al., (2017).

2.4.2 Situating EiE within the Humanitarian Context

The number of people in need of humanitarian aid is an all-time high with 167.6 million people expected to need humanitarian assistance in 2020 primarily from conflict and extreme climate events (OCHA,2019a). The worst affected people are those already vulnerable to poverty, gender and ethnic discrimination that makes governments unable or unwilling to respond. (Willitts-King et al., 2019). OCHA (2018a) reports that in 2017, 68.5 million men, women, and children were

[8] INEE is a global, open network of NGOs, UN agencies, donors, professionals, researchers and individuals working together within the context of humanitarian and development to provide quality and safe education in emergencies and post-crisis recovery situations. The network has around 15,000 members in 190 countries according to the INEE Annual Report (2018)

[9] A coalition of humanitarian NGOs and the Red Cross Red Crescent Movement launched the Sphere Project in 1997. The original objectives were: to establish a humanitarian charter for disaster-affected people and to boost humanitarian assistance.

uprooted worldwide by war, abuse and persecution whiles in more than 160 countries and territories worldwide, natural disasters catastrophes impacted over 870 million people per year, leading to deaths and damaging livelihoods, and annually causing over 20 million to leave their homes. For all these severe situations, children are most affected and have minimal access to education. Dooley (2017) notes that it is difficult to obtain data on children whose education is uprooted but a recent study by Nicolai, et al, (2016) estimates that in crises-affected countries, about 37 million primary and secondary school children are not in school.

For example, Education Cannot Wait (n.d) estimates that conflicts in South Sudan and neighboring countries have displaced 1.3 million refugees in Uganda, 50% of whom are children; Bangladesh is also struggling to provide education to more than 400,000 Rohingya children and young people since 2017; by early 2018, over half of Cameroon's 3.3 million people in humanitarian need were children; More than six million people in Nigeria–45% below age 15–are now displaced by prolonged conflict, and lastly, Over 23,000 school kids in Papua New Guinea were forced to live in schools affected by 7.5-magnitude earthquake in February 2018. Faced with persistent trends of crises and exclusion, ensuring education for children and young people in emergencies and long crises needs changing global priorities and objectives, that can help deliver services amid acute crises, fragile and reconstructive stage (Nicolai, et al., 2016a). The renewed commitment to EiE within the humanitarian context is echoed in the SDG4 and the World Humanitarian Summit 2016 that led to the Grand Bargain, which sought to improve the quality and efficiency of all humanitarian activities (Global Education Cluster, 2017). Also, the first Global Refugee Forum in 2019 saw about 140 commitments to improve access to quality education for refugees in their hosting countries (UNHCR,2020).

2.4.3 Types of EiE Delivery and Coordination

Education is frequently the first service to be disrupted and last restored during a crisis, given the huge benefits to children, communities, and nations in general (UNICEF, n.d.). To ensure continuity of education and a sense of survival for crises-affected children and youth, education in emergency interventions are often provided. EiE comes in different forms and has many objectives. EiE responses include non-formal education (NFE) and formal education to avoid and minimize disruptions in education for school-going age children in crises and to assist authorities in resuming education during or after a crisis (ECHO,2019b). According to the

Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2004) when education is funded in emergencies, one or more of the following services are usually available (see table 1) [10]

Table 1: Types of EiE delivery

Structured recreational activities are given to children in the early stages of crises, often excluding young people and adolescents. These activities are primarily shaped by UNICEF's concept of child-friendly spaces. The essence of these spaces is to provide play and psychosocial support for children affected by crises. eg. Zimbabwe (After Cyclone Idai), Afghanistan.
Youth centers are organized for young people to provide opportunities for peer interaction to psychosocial support eg Uganda
Formal education- comprises of both primary(mostly) and secondary education. In recent times, early childhood education has also been included. This is provided for refugees, IDPs, returnees' children mostly in refugee camps, government or community schools.
Vocational and life skills education can be included in formal education, but can also be conducted separately. Conflict-affected children are also provided with knowledge of health education, peace education, conflict resolution, landmine awareness, etc.
Accelerated learning and bridging initiatives can be included in formal education, but can also be conducted separately. Conflict-affected children are also provided with knowledge of health education, peace education, conflict resolution, landmine awareness, etc
Teacher training packages are primarily established for unqualified or under-qualified teachers who are frequently trained to teach in refugee camps and other emergencies. The first teacher training modules were tested in the Kakuma (Kenya) and Domiz (Iraq) camps.
Distance education services are ways to encourage crises-young people to study when they are not close to or unable to access formal or informal learning opportunities either because of insecurity or crises. eg Guinea, Liberia, Nigeria and Sierra Leone

Source: *Adapted from Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2004) Global Survey of Education in Emergencies. New York: WCRWC.*

[10] Table 1 was adapted from the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2004) and updated through a cross referencing from UNICEF (2018) and (2019), UNICEF WCARO (2014), Menendez et al., (2016), INEE (2016) and McLean-Hilker & Fraser (2011).

The interventions listed in Table 1 serve the principal roles of psychological support and protection that education provides during emergencies. Besides, a particular program may be selected to suit the affected population based on the phase of emergency and the initial needs assessment. Globally, the provision of quality education is the sole responsibility of national governments. However, in crises where national bureaucracies are fragmented within a country, the international community, including bilateral and multilateral donors and UN agencies, non-governmental organizations, is required to guarantee the right of children to education is universally respected (Sinclair, 2007; Save the Children, 2009). Many organizations[11]support education in crises through the provision of additional resources, expertise, and capacity to supplement the efforts of the state.

According to Nicolai et al., (2015), EiE responses start with the creation of the IASC Global Education Cluster. The Global Education Cluster, or Cluster Lead Organizations, is co-led by Save the Children and UNICEF and is responsible for providing human and financial resources to support field coordination (Global Educational Cluster,2017). At the national level, the education cluster is set up by the humanitarian coordinator and the host country. The education cluster, like other sector clusters, helps to organize the country's Strategic Response Plans (SRPs) and appeals but excludes disbursement of funding. In the field of refugee education, UNHCR is solely responsible. A Joint Educational Needs Assessment (JENA) is carried out to ensure that the responses are accurately guided. Nevertheless, this process is often fraught with duplications, inconsistencies and lack of objectivity that often create problems of funding and programming prioritization (Nicolai et al., 2015). In other situations, a government-led Post- Needs Assessments (PDNAs) and Post- Needs Assessments (PCNAs) are conducted to cover broader needs. Furthermore, joint efforts by national governments and Local Education Groups (LEGs) can be engaged when dealing with providing long-term educational planning in protracted crises Nicolai et al., 2015). In all these processes, adherence to the INEE minimum standards is very important. INEE Minimum Standards outline key responses in the education sector covering five areas namely Foundational Standards, Access and Learning Environment, Teaching and Learning, Teachers and Other Education Personnel and Education Policy (INEE,2010)

[11] Notable organizations include UN Agencies (UNESCO, UNICEF, UNHCR, OCHA, (UNRWA for Palestinian refugees), European Union, World bank. Save the Children, Plan International, Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), International Rescue Committee. Also, national and local NGOs who are members of INEE also play a crucial role in the provision of Education in Emergencies. Also, the key UN agencies double as both implementing and quasi-donors.

2.5 The Role of Education in Emergencies

The decision to incorporate education as a primary area in humanitarian responses has long been debated. According to Anderson & Hodgkin (2010), there are more relevant factors in the hierarchy of humanitarian needs, and education is therefore seen as a secondary intervention not— life-saving. World at school (2015) indicates furthermore that education is mostly misconceived as not essential to saving lives. For over a decade, education practitioners have questioned these claims and advocated the value of education in emergencies, as the sector can take a life-saving and sustaining role (Anderson & Hodgkin 2010; Scanlon,2011). Several studies have shown the positive role education plays for children, young people, and their families in times of emergencies. The INEE standards institutionalize the role of education in emergencies and state that;

> Education in emergencies, and during chronic crises and early reconstruction efforts, can be both life-saving and life-sustaining. It can save lives by protecting against exploitation and harm and by disseminating key survival messages, on issues such as landmine safety or HIV/AIDS prevention. It sustains life by offering structure, stability, and hope for the future during a time of crises, particularly for children and adolescents. Education in emergencies also helps to heal the pain of bad experiences, build skills, and support conflict resolution and peacebuilding (INEE, 2004 p5.)

Again Sinclair (2007) suggests that education in emergencies also provides a sense of normality, protect the investment that children, families, and nations have made in children's education and restore hope through access to the 'ladder' of education. Education plays a role in addressing children's basic needs in the short term and helps children reduce their exposure to disasters and allows them to create new lives in the long term (Nicolai, 2003). Also, a study carried out by Withrop and Matsui (2013) found that education can play a major role to accelerate progress in fragile countries by promoting economic growth and poverty reduction, child protection, peacebuilding and risk reduction from disasters. Recent research on the relationship between education and conflicts shows how education can be both part of the problem and as well as the solution (Mosselson et al., 2009). Education can promote peace, inclusion, and harmony through its structures and content, but it can also intensify existing inequalities and thus foster conflicts (Barakat et al, 2008). Bush and Saltareli (2000) confirm this in their work " The Two Faces of Education in Ethnic Conflict ". They note that education can have a positive effect through

fostering peace, but from another perspective, it can impact negatively through inflaming ethnic conflicts through unequal access to educational resources, differential rates of funding for public systems, content or active exclusion of minority identities.

Generally, education can be regarded as an integral part of human development and can be seen as a tool for fostering social cohesion, creating new identities and creating a sustainable just society (Gallagher et al., 2018). Talbot (2015) further argues that the value of education in emergencies is profound and, as such the short-term humanitarian financing is insufficient to meet the specific educational needs of crises-affected children.

2.6 Complexities of Education in Emergencies

2.6.1 Access, Quality and Protection

According to Creed & Morpeth (2010), crises, whether due to war, natural disasters, health epidemics or economic, have a significant effect on access to education. Educational systems break down with buildings destroyed during an emergency, often making homeless or displaced families use schools as shelters (Nicolai, 2003; UNESCO, 2000). Educational institutions are sometimes targeted in armed conflicts, though this is contrary to humanitarian law and the safe school declarations. Tablot (2013) argues that there also instances of militarization or securitization of education responsibilities where armed groups or governments take away the responsibilities of education from the UN agencies and use it as a strategy to control populations (Refugees and IDPs) and seek for political or military dominance. All these situational insecurities limit school enrollment, increase household's poverty, as well as a low educational quality leading to early school dropouts, and breakdown of educational management structures (Sinclair, 2007).

Although the need for EiE has been recognized internationally, children, adolescents and young people in emergencies are still facing several challenges in obtaining and achieving quality education (Mendenhall, 2019). Firstly, differences in the language of instruction used for refugee education often impact on the quality of education. Dooley (2017) states that about two-thirds of refugees live in countries where the official language is different from the language in their home countries. This according to Dryden-Peterson (2011), leads to situations in which children frequently struggle to understand what is taught not because of weak cognitive abilities, but because they lack the requisite language skills. Sinclair (2007) also states that in many countries it can also be difficult to place children in the right class because the criteria used are not always

universal and qualifications cannot always be transferred. Moreover, certificates of school qualification are not recognized across borders which do not make education worthwhile in emergencies (Mendenhall, 2019). Dooley (2017) posits that, in Turkey, temporary educational centers not licensed or which do not fulfill the regulatory requirements of the Ministry of National Education are not accredited. Students in these schools do not obtain certificates when they complete their studies, making it difficult to prove their academic success (Dooley,2017). Kirk (2009) points out that the lack of education and certification for children, young people, and adults who are refugees or displaced denies them a sense of identity as well as access to other state services and resources.

2.6.2 Coordination

Strengthening humanitarian coordination remains a key pillar of the humanitarian reform agenda. The need to improve humanitarian coordination led to the development of the cluster approach, aimed at making the international humanitarian community more structured, predictable and accountable (Global Education Cluster,2010). Within EiE, coordination is the responsibility of the educational clusters. The global education cluster has a responsibility to coordinate and facilitate the work of the country-level educational clusters on a regular basis. While the cluster approach has improved the effectiveness of educational response in emergencies, there are still issues to be addressed. Nicolai et al., (2016b) indicate that coordination processes across the humanitarian and development sectors are still complex at the country level. They note that humanitarian and development actors may be unaware of each other's activities and networks and may, therefore, function in parallel in some cases and within the same development agency.

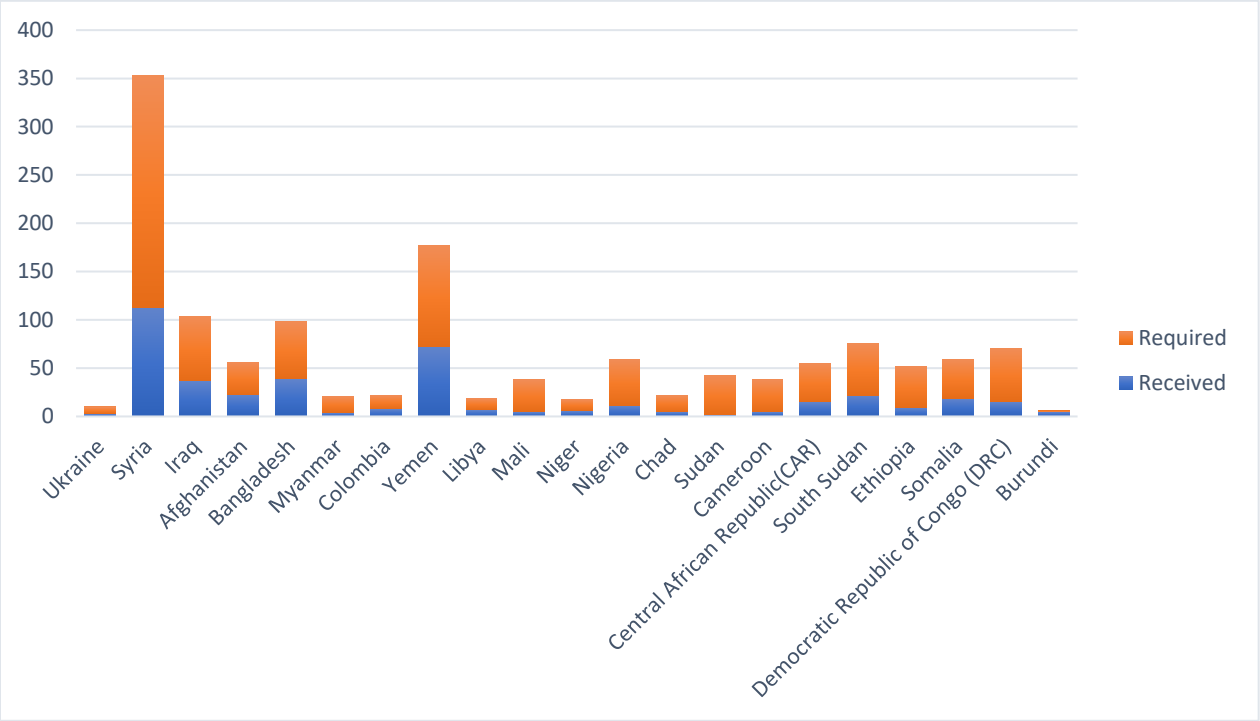
Secondly, there are also particular challenges in the coordination of humanitarian sectors, especially where there is a mix of refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs) and other crises that involves a variety of agencies (Nicolai et al., 2016b). However, according to Clarke &Campbell (2015), the quality of cluster coordination depends on factors such as length of the crises, the local NGOs and government's involvement, the size of the educational clusters and the capacity of the cluster coordinators and relevant personnel. Given these complexities, Nicolai et al., (2016b) suggest a common platform that can enhance communication and address humanitarian and development architectural issues for education.

2.6.3 Financing

Education is an investment and yet around the world, some of the poorest countries are in most need of investments in basic education (World at School, 2015). Over the years, EiE has received global attention through a lot of advocacies which has increased funding (Dolan & Ndaruhutse, 2011). Notably are funding instruments such as Education Cannot Wait (ECW) and GPE which aid to supplement and provide funding for education in countries affected by crises (Shah & Cardozo,2015). Despite recent rise in EiE funding, it remains far below what is needed (Save the Children,2009). Recent estimates by UNICEF (2020) posits that an estimated 128 million primary and secondary-aged children are out of school in crises-affected countries, including 67 million girls. Despite these figures, low prioritization and underfunding in the humanitarian sector for education still continues. Under-investment in EiE results in the continued low quality of education available to displaced children and youth, evidenced in most places by high repetition and dropout rates (Dryden-Peterson 2011). According to World at School (2015), not investing in EiE has high economic costs for countries impacted by crises while investing in education will produce even higher returns, save lives in the short term and save billions of dollars in long-term opportunity costs. In Syria, for example, the lack of access to education for 5.5 million children is estimated to have cost $2.9 billion in lost income and resulted in a loss of 5.4% of GDP (World at School ,2015; GBC-Education, 2015).

Also, the predictability, effectiveness, and success of humanitarian initiatives rely on quick and timely access to adequate flexible emergency funding (Global Education Cluster,2010). The Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) is the main mechanism for collaboration, strategic planning, and programming in the humanitarian sector and also manages fundraising for UN agencies and NGOs during emergencies. In 2019, the funding needs of the education clusters were US$687 m, but it received just $300 m, meaning that only 43.7% of the global need for education was met (Global Education Cluster, 2019) (see Figure 1 for the breakdown of funding requirements as against funding received in various countries). Again, because of this gap, the clusters only reached 9.2 million children out of the 17 million children that were targeted in 2019.

Figure 1: CAP for education cluster at the Country level ($USm)



Source: Global Education Cluster, 2020

Figure 1 clearly illustrates EiE funding shortfalls that challenge the capacities of the various clusters to provide the requisite quality education in times of crises. With the exception of Burundi, that received more funding than required, the financing requirements for the remaining clusters were not met. The effect of funding shortfalls will be discussed in detail in chapter 4.

2.7 Gaps in Literature

Coupled with the aforementioned challenges with the provision of EiE, there is also the problem of adequate data collection and evidence building in the field (Montjouridès & Liu, 2019). Education in conflict, emergency, and early reconstruction is a newly emerging field of academic research, policy research, and teaching (Talbot, 2005; Tomlinson & Benefield, 2005 as cited in Wright, 2010). Wright (2010) points out that most high-quality research works available in the field of EiE focus on conflict education and post-conflict context, with a significant lack of research in education during natural disasters. However, most of these research works tend to focus on advocacy in the field with little focus on funding patterns and their impact on the delivery of EiE. Clearly, humanitarian funding allocated to EiE is inadequate given that crises are more prolonged in the world today and affect greater portions of the people than decades ago

(Shah & Cardozo,2015). Thus, this provides further ground for the importance of investigating collective ways of promoting EiE within humanitarian responses by increasing the efficiency of existing funding mechanisms, exploring additional financing and leveraging on new and creative financing approaches (ECW,2018). According to NORRAG (2018), the strong relationship between inadequate funding and limited data and evidence in EiE threatens the goal of reducing the negative impact of conflict and natural disasters on education. Alalami (2019) states that EiE research can offer valuable guidance to actors employed in emergencies, enabling them to make effective use of resources and develop models that can enhance the lives of children and youth in crises. In the context of all these challenges, this work aims to examine the funding patterns of EiE overtime and explore the impacts as well as identifying sustainable forms of funding.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapters look at the various approaches adopted in synthesizing information to support the study. Specifically, it looks at the approaches used in the study and how the data were obtained and analyzed to determine important issues related to the topic under discussion.

3.2 Study Approach

The study consisted of two approaches, namely desk study analysis of relevant literature and key informant interview with the Global Education Cluster in Geneva. The primary method used in this study is a desk-study approach involving secondary data synthesis. According to Johnston (2017) secondary data analysis can also be a viable approach to use in a research process when a systematic process is followed. In order to structure all the relevant literature used in this study a narrative or semi-systematic review method was adopted. A narrative review design was adopted because it allows presentation of current background or context for a specific problem or issue (Synder,2019). Besides, a narrative review helped to examine how EiE funding has progressed over time and offered a suitable method to make practical recommendations. Additionally, a set of interview questions were also developed to clarify and expand on the results of the study (see Appendix 1). This offered further insight and clarity into the findings from the narrative review.

3.3 Research Parameters

The research parameters were determined in three ways. The first step was to determine what to include in EiE. This was followed by clarifying the research questions by searching for appropriate keywords. The last step was the identification of appropriate data sources using the keywords identified in the previous step. Details of the research parameters can be found in Table 2.

Table 2: Research Parameters

Defining Key definitions used in the study		
Source	**Defining EIE**	**Defining Emergencies**
INEE, Minimum Standards for Education (2010a,p117).	quality learning opportunities for all ages in situations of crises, including early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education. Education in emergencies provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection that can sustain and save live.	A situation where a community has been disrupted and has yet to return to stability.
List of variables to define the scope		
Variable	**Include**	**Exclude**
Types of emergencies: natural disasters (e.g., earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, droughts), conflicts. (wars, civil unrest, armed conflicts), epidemics (Ebola, HIV, etc),	All-natural disasters, conflicts, complex and protracted emergencies that affect the educational systems.	None.
Funding Mechanisms Humanitarian aid, Development aid, Governments' spending and Household's income.	Humanitarian aid to education. However, comparisons will be made with development aid to education at a point.	Development aid to education Governments' spending and Household's income
Stages of response: Immediate and Short- and medium-term responses, Long term (recovery).	All	None
Types of countries Low, medium and high-income countries	All countries with an education cluster operating at the national level.	None.
Types of education: pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary and vocational.	All	Tertiary Education.

Source: *Author's Construct, 2020*

3.4 Keyword searches and Data Sources

The documents used for this research were identified using the following search terms and phrases: '**education in emergencies, emergency education, education and conflicts, education and protracted crises, financing and/or education in emergencies, financing education in conflicts context**, etc. The primary search engines used for this research were: ERIC (Education Resources Information Center), ScienceDirect, ProQuest Central, and Google Scholar. These sources were used to identify academic articles. A search of grey literature was undertaken in combination with the review of academic articles in databases of key organizations and online websites such as the World Bank, UNICEF, UNESCO, INEE, Save the Children, USAID, OCHA, UNHCR, GCPEA, Reliefweb.int, Humanitarianresponse.info, Preventionweb.org, GPE, and ECW. Besides, a snowballing method was used once the preliminary data were obtained to identify more research articles. This was done by checking the references used by established authors in the field. Snowballing can be a first search technique and a systematic way to look at where papers are cited and referenced, according to Wohlin (2014).

3.5 Data Analysis

This study used a mixed-method approach, both quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative analysis focused primarily on humanitarian aid for EiE, i.e. financial appeals from bilateral and multilateral sources to emergency-affected contexts. The quantitative data was collected primarily from OCHA's Financial Tracking Service (FTS) on humanitarian financing to education. Where necessary, the data from FTS were supplemented with additional information from the OECD's international development finance statistics, the Global Education Partnership, UN / NGO annual financial reports, the Global Education Monitoring Report and the Education Cannot Wait Fund. The financial data were taken from 2010-2019 to fully understand the trends overtime.

As previously discussed under the study approach, the qualitative analysis comprises the comprehensive desk review and key informant interview. The information from both the desk review and interview were coded and synthesized using the qualitative analytical software ATLAS.ti 7. An iterative categorization approach iterative categorization approach was developed with codes determined both deductively and inductively. Emergent themes were then used to draft the outline of this study, with all the coded information categorized and synthesized accordingly.

3.6. Delimitations

The adopted narrative literature design typically has a broader scope in terms of the number of articles reviewed. Due to this broader scope, there is a likelihood of not including potentially relevant documents that might help answer the research questions. Nevertheless, this study assumes that the literature used is sufficiently extensive to provide a comprehensive overview of the research topic. Also, the FTS database has its own data limitations as it depends on voluntary reporting by all donors and organizations. Moreover, reporting has improved considerably in recent years, and FTS offers the most up-to-date and detailed collection of financing data within the humanitarian sector (Stoddard,2008). Furthermore, this study recognizes that EiE initiatives can also be funded by many financing sources such as development aid, government spending, private investment, but because of time limitations, the study focuses on humanitarian financing and compares it with development aid allocations. Finally, while the focus of this analysis is on financing education in emergencies, it is important to note that other factors such as institutional capacity, educational content and quality of teaching, etc are necessary to complement funding to ensure high quality education. Nicolai and Hine (2015) suggest that EiE financing is not just about increasing funding but also about how to invest it, how to prioritize and organize it. The financing gap, however, impacts negatively on EiE interventions, but the bigger issue relates to how EiE could be implemented efficiently.

CHAPTER FOUR-ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the data synthesized from literature are analyzed and discussed based on the research questions. It also looks at the financing architecture and how the synergies help support education in emergencies.

4.2. The current EiE Financing Architecture

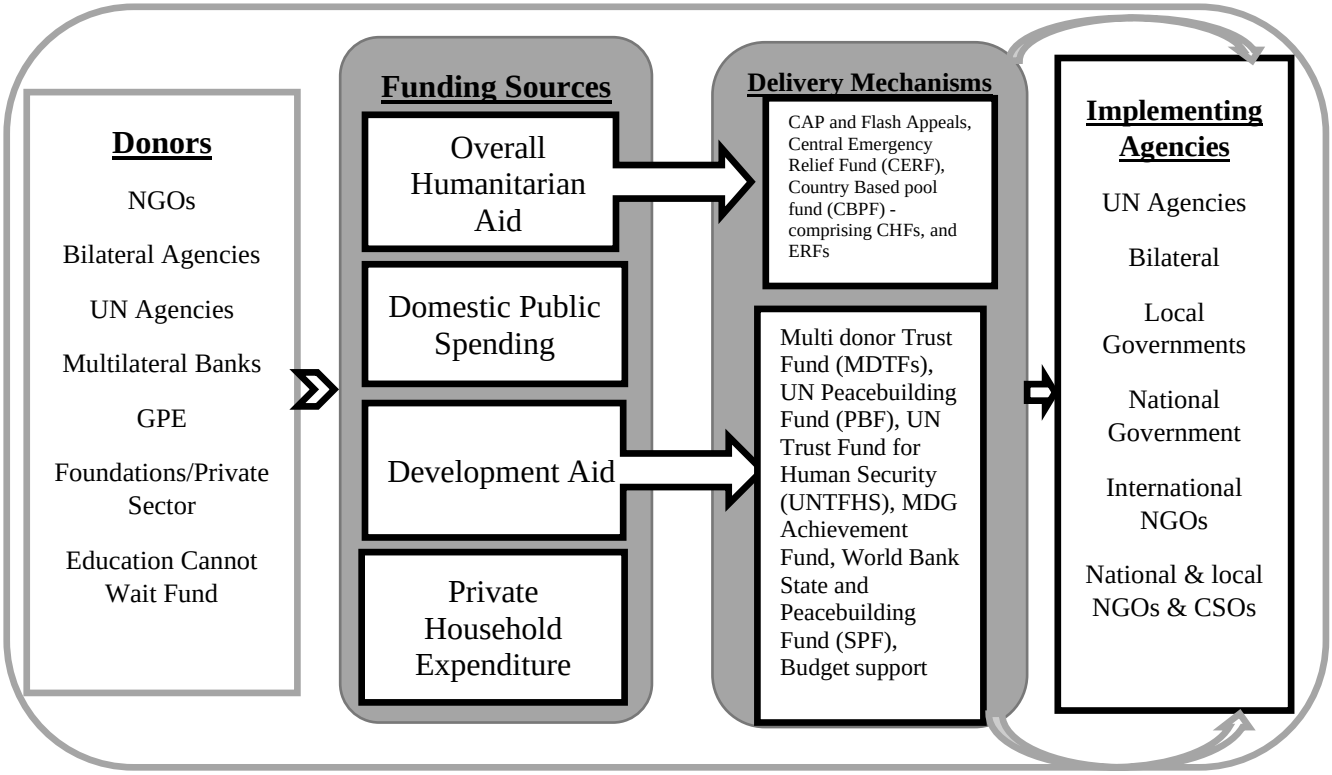
The global funding gap for EiE is projected at US$2 billion (lower primary), US$4 billion (primary) and US$2 billion (lower secondary) with an average cost of US $123 per child (Nicolai et al.,2015).The funding needed to bridge this gap mainly comes from domestic sources (government spending, and private households' expenditure), humanitarian aid and development aid. Domestic sources, including government spending and private household spending, are the largest source of EiE funding (Nicolai et al.,2015). Private household spending accounted for almost half of domestic spending in 15 low-income African countries, but governments' share in fragile and less-developed countries fell from 14.5% in 2002 to 13.4% in 2012 (Steer & Smith,2015)

Also, development aid is a major source of funding for education in emergencies. Development aid is typically given in the form of services or initiatives, pooled funds, or general support for budgets. A comparison between humanitarian aid and development aid to education showed that in 2012, the former amounted to US$ 105 m while the latter amounted to US$ 1.1bn for the same period (Nicolai et al.,2015). Nonetheless, Dupuy et al., (2019) argue that even adding existing development aid to the broader EiE funding pool would not be sufficient to meet the 4% global target[12].Globally,10% of development aid was committed to education in crisis-affected countries, thereby earning less development aid than non-crisis countries (EFA GMR,2015). OECD (2019a) reports that in general, development assistance declined in both 2017 and 2018, with the least developed and African countries currently receiving less aid.

Humanitarian aid is another major source of EiE funding and further details will be discussed in this chapter. The current funding architecture offers various mechanisms in which donors can channel their funding (See Figure 2).

[12] The UN Global Education First Initiative (GEFI) held in 2012, committed to increasing humanitarian education funding allocations from 2% to 4% (UN,2012).

Figure 2: EiE Financing Architecture.



Source: Adapted from GBC-Education (2015)

From Figure 2, at the onset of a crisis, the coordinating agencies perform an initial needs assessment and use different planning tools to implement strategic actions that inform donors about the various mechanisms to channel funds (GBC-Education 2015.) Through these multiple channels and mechanisms, implementation agencies provide education in crises- affected context. According to INEE (2010b), investments in crisis-affected countries can usually be risky to donors because of uncertainties about the political will of governments to provide education in times of crisis or the likelihood of resurgence of the crisis. They indicate that amid these uncertainties, donors are likely to diversify their risks through different funding channels and organizations to achieve their goals. However, the current financing architecture ensures that funding mechanisms complement each other, but donors diversifying strategies may increase intervention costs, as multiple mechanisms need to be monitored and managed.

In particular, this study recognizes that there are multi-financing mechanisms for EiE, but the main objective of this study is to analyze humanitarian aid in comparison to development aid to education in emergencies

4.3 Global Trends of humanitarian aid to Education

4.3.1 Trends in UN CAP

Trends in humanitarian funding needs continue to increase as a result of increasing global crises. However, Stoddard (2008) notes that humanitarian funds tend to fluctuate with the number and size of crisis each year. While there are persistent humanitarian funding gaps, the amount of funding continues to increase annually. The largest proportion of humanitarian funding allocations go to sectors that are considered very essential, with funding to education mainly under prioritized (See Table 3). Education is perceived as not life-saving in times of crisis and therefore competes with other sectors in humanitarian responses and donor funding policies. Figures 3 and 4 represent trends in humanitarian funding for education. As seen in Figure 3, the overall amount of humanitarian funding allocated to education has risen since 2014. The trends further show that the amount of humanitarian assistance allocated to education doubled between 2016 (US$229 m) and 2019 (US$489 m). In addition, $1.40 billion in humanitarian aid was earmarked for education between 2016 and 2019.Generally, CAP by design is earmarked because each appeal relates solely to a particular emergency (Buchanan-Smith& Randel, 2002). The increase in funding for education is attributed in part to the rise in humanitarian financing (Dupuy et.al., 2019). Additionally, the percentage of coverage of funding appeals has been increasing from 30.5% in 2015 to 43.4% in 2019. Although EiE's humanitarian funding continues to rise, the gap between the amount required and the amount received over the years (2010-2019) continues to widen. Bennett (2015) argues that only 50%-60% of funding requirements are met by donors and thus explains the persistent gaps in the CAP.

Figure 3: Humanitarian financing requirements as against funding received.

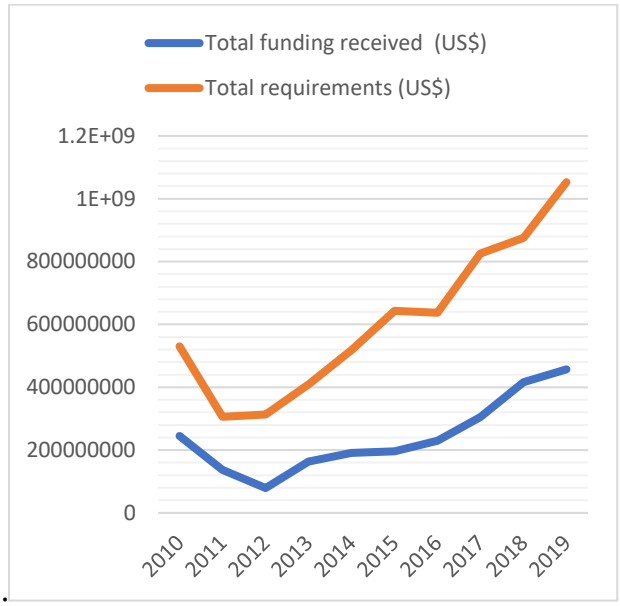
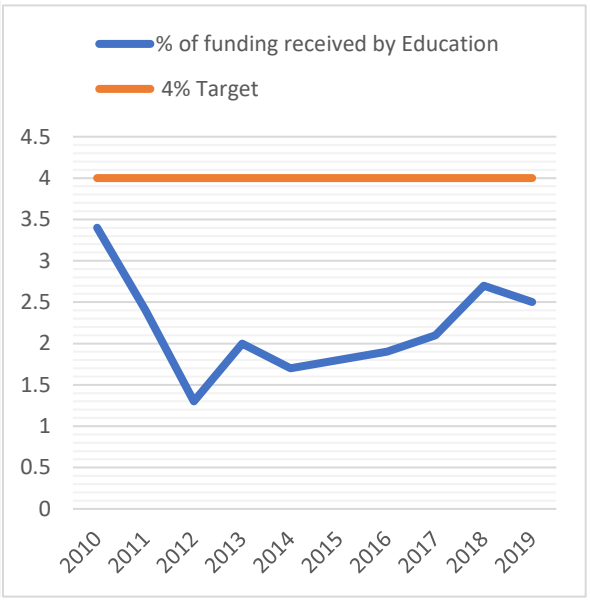


Figure 4: Humanitarian funding received as against target (4%)



Source: Financial Tracking Services (FTS) (Accessed on 14.04.2020)

Moreover, looking at only the annual totals presents a half-picture of the funding challenges in the education sector. Another integral financing trend is the comparison between the percentage of total humanitarian funding allocated to education and the target of 4% target agreed to be allocated to EiE every year. Besides, as seen in Figure 4, the average percentage of funding earmarked for education is 2.18%, much lower than the global commitment level of 4%. This means that it is necessary to double the amount of humanitarian aid to education to meet this goal. Conversely, Nicolai et al., (2015) suggest that the 4% target needs to be revised. They argue that there is a mismatch between the actual number of out-of-school children and the number of children targeted by CAP. This implies that, even when the target is reached, humanitarian assistance to education is unlikely to provide these children with the necessary educational support. Also, revising the 4% target should consider the formula, perhaps by looking more at the per capita investment required to meet the needs, rather than just a percentage share of humanitarian funding (Nicolai et al., 2015).

Table 3: Percentage of CAP funding received across sectors.

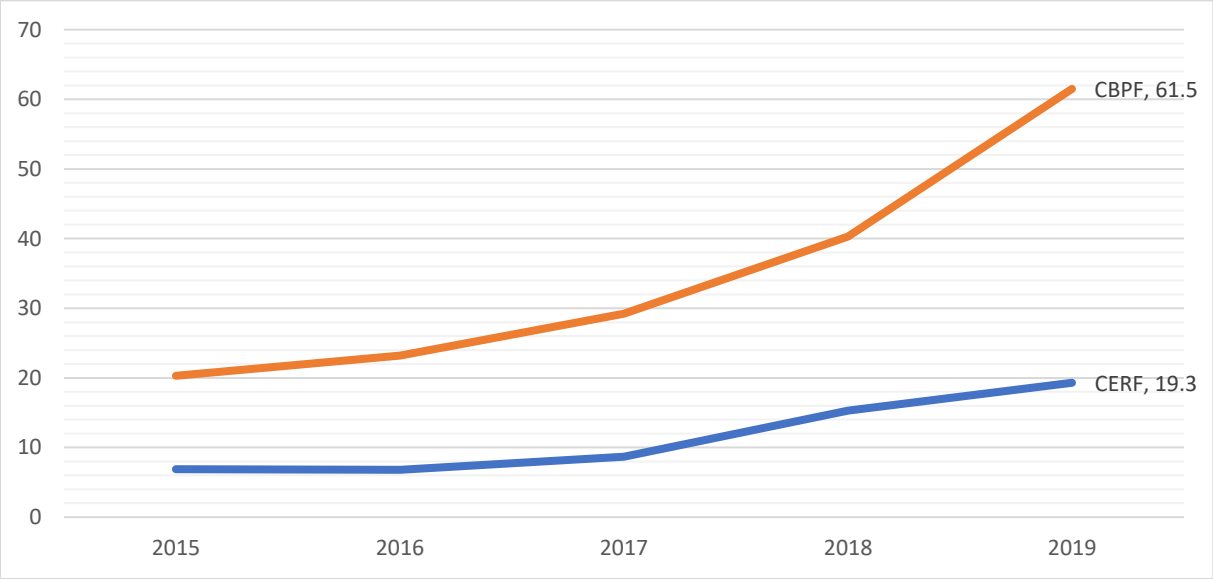
Sectors	Funding for appeals 2015-2019	
	Total funding (US$)	(%) of total funding
Agriculture	671,570,912	0.9584377
Camp Coordination / Management	293,934,467	0.4194909
Child Protection	209,662,020	0.2992208
Coordination and support services	1,284,400,197	1.8330419
Early Recovery	848,058,885	1.210314
Education	**1,603,455,108**	**2.2883836**
Emergency Shelter and NFI	2,252,051,169	3.2140327
Emergency Telecommunications	100,306,155	0.1431527
Food Security	**19,118,275,209**	**27.284798**
Gender Based Violence	115,061,956	0.1642116
Health	**4,270,177,570**	**6.0942177**
Housing, Land and Property	249,999	0.0003568
Logistics	934,793,562	1.334098
Mine Action	166,513,260	0.2376407
Multi-sector	**16,088,114,333**	**22.96028**
Nutrition	**3,513,512,143**	**5.0143367**
Other	7,355,671	0.0104977
Protection	**1,964,468,550**	**2.8036068**
Water Sanitation Hygiene	**2,856,654,581**	**4.0768972**
Not specified	**11,193,288,779**	**15.974591**
Multiple clusters/sectors (shared)	**2,577,426,213**	**3.6783942**
Total	**70,069,330,739**	**100**

Source: Financial Tracking Services (FTS) (Accessed on 14.04.2020)

4.3.2 Humanitarian Pooled Funds allocation to Education

Pooled funding sources include the Central Emergency Relief Fund (CERF) and the Country Based Pooled Funds (CBPF). CERF is mostly allocated to kick-start responses to new humanitarian emergencies or to respond to the sudden deterioration of ongoing crises or under-funded emergencies, while CBPF is a flexible and unearmarked fund allocated to support high-priority projects in Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs). These funds do not replace, but complement, the consolidated appeals which are planning tools in humanitarian responses. Figure 5 shows both CERF and CBPF allocations for education.

Figure 5: CERF and CBPF allocations to Education in (US$ m) (2015-2019)



Sources: Financial Tracking Services and www.cerf.un.org(Accessed on 14.04.2020)

As illustrated in Figure 5, over the years the amount of CERF and CBPF humanitarian aid in education has increased. In terms of size, CBPF is the largest portion of humanitarian aid support from pooled funding mechanisms. The funding from CERF constitutes a relatively small share of education funding, averaging US$ 11.4m between 2015 and 2019. The total share of these pooled funds increased proportionately from 6.7% to 22.1% between 2010 and 2012 and then decreased to 11.7% in 2013(OCHA,2014 cited in UNESCO,2015). But, as seen in Figure 5, pooled funding for the education sector has increased significantly over time from 2015-2019. The rise in pooled funds can be attributed to a display of donor global solidarity amid a challenging fundraising system (OCHA,2019a). EFA GMR (2015) indicates that pooled funding

has had an impact on vulnerable nations but needs to be increased to provide timely and coordinated support not just for education but also for other sectors.

4.3 Contextual Factors

Since 2008, there have been tremendous changes in humanitarian aid to education due to factors such as increased advocacy and the continued acceptance of education as an integral part of humanitarian responses. These changes have been driven by factors such as the continued view of education as a long-term development issue and, consequently, the diversion of funds from humanitarian appeals. Thomson (2009), argues that although education is now regarded as a valid area to be included in humanitarian support, relatively few donors assist with education under the humanitarian umbrella. Overtime development assistance has contributed more to EiE interventions than humanitarian aid. For example, an analysis of pooled funds in both development and humanitarian sectors found that less than 3% of pooled humanitarian funds went to education, compared to 7.5% for development aid between 2006 and 2009 (Development Initiatives, 2010). In 2013, out of the 16 Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs), an average of only 8% of education funding came from humanitarian aid, while the remaining 92% came from development assistance (EFA GMR,2015). Dolan & Ndaruhutse, (2011) suggest that sometimes donors tend to provide direct assistance through budget support to develop governments' capacity to provide education in crisis-affected countries. Besides, donors mostly support transitional activities such as reconstruction and peacebuilding processes (EFA GMR,2015). Since education receives more development than humanitarian funds, it means that donors prioritize long-term education preparation through development aid rather than channeling funds to provide emergency education through humanitarian aid. The limitation of this approach is that, contrary to humanitarian appeals that offer better targeting, direct donor funding may also fail to reach targeted populations in fragile situations, especially if the government does not control the entire country (INEE,2010b).

Second, the divide in humanitarian and development sectors may also explain the changes in humanitarian education funding trends. The current aid architecture has been widely criticized as categorizing humanitarian, development and security aid activities (EFA GMR, 2015). According to the OECD (2012), this categorization prevents a more holistic approach during the transition periods between crisis, recovery and development. Bennett (2015) argues that the

bifurcation often applies to funding prioritization and decision-making, as humanitarian budgets remain distinct and allocation decisions are generally separate from development counterparts. This limits the extent to which development agencies can easily partner or jointly fund interventions with humanitarian agencies. Furthermore, the lower financial risk tolerance and strict reporting also make donors slower in disbursing funds to support education within humanitarian responses. (Nicolai et. al., 2016).

Finally, the lack of evidence and research is also considered a critical factor affecting changes in humanitarian financing to education. According to Burde et al., (2015), underfunding issues of EiE also translate into less, rigorous research and evaluation. The under-prioritization of EiE can be attributed to a lack of understanding of its impact and value-add in humanitarian responses (Nhan-O'Reilly & Mason,2015). EiE funding is often short-term and therefore does not provide time for monitoring and evaluation to know the best practices which eventually inform what constitutes a successful investment in EiE. Thus, given this lack of solid evidence, the sector cannot effectively justify the long-term and life-saving benefits to donors and other humanitarian sectors and therefore limited funding (Nhan-O'Reilly & Mason,2015)

Box 2: Overview of trends in EiE financing: A case of DRC

The humanitarian crisis in the DRC has deepened due to ongoing armed conflicts as well as socio-economic challenges (OCHA,2019c). Due to the protracted nature of the crisis, the number of people in need of humanitarian protection and assistance increased from 7.3 million in 2017 to 13.1 million in 2018 (OCHA,2018b). Crisis-related displacements have led many people to lack access to essential services such as education. For instance, USAID (2019), suggests that the education system in DRC is threatened by low coverage and poor quality with 3.5 million primary school-age children not in school. Besides the recurring armed conflicts, the DRC was plagued with the Ebola outbreak, which also aggravated the current situation and thus provides a clear case study to examine the funding patterns of EiE. As shown in Figure 6, trends in humanitarian aid for education represent a dire picture of the education sector. CAP has been falling over the years except for 2018, where it rose sharply from US$4.4 m in 2017 to US$15.7 m. Alternatively, complementary funds including CBPF and CERF have also shown an irregular flow.

Box 2 (cont.)

The CERF allocations have been declining for most of the years except for 2018. In comparison, CBPF allocations rose in 2016 ($4.4 million), and decreased in 2018 ($2.8 million) then rose again to $5.5 million in 2019. According to Bennett (2015), the general drop of humanitarian assistance may be due to the diversion of humanitarian funds from countries like DRC to cover acute crises in the Syrian Arab Republic. Comparatively, a total of $293.3 million in development aid was allocated to education in the DRC between 2013 and 2017. But development funding for education in the DRC is generally decreasing, following the recent decline in aid for developing countries (See Figure 7).

Figure 6: Humanitarian financing to education in DRC.

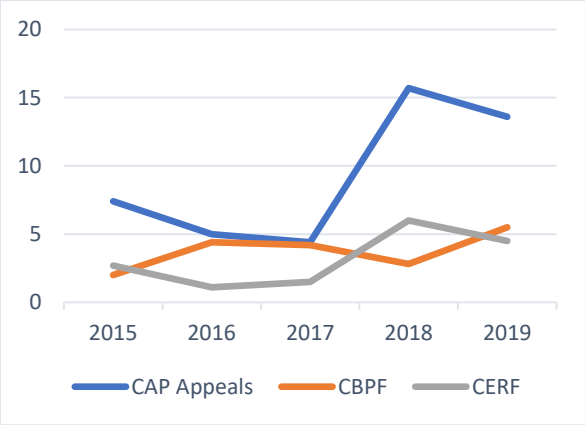
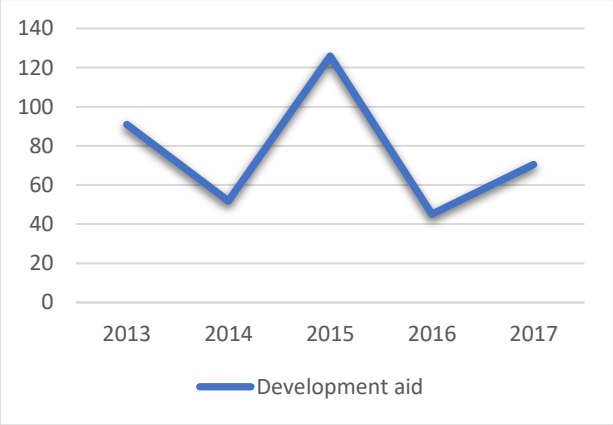


Figure 7: Development aid to education in DRC.



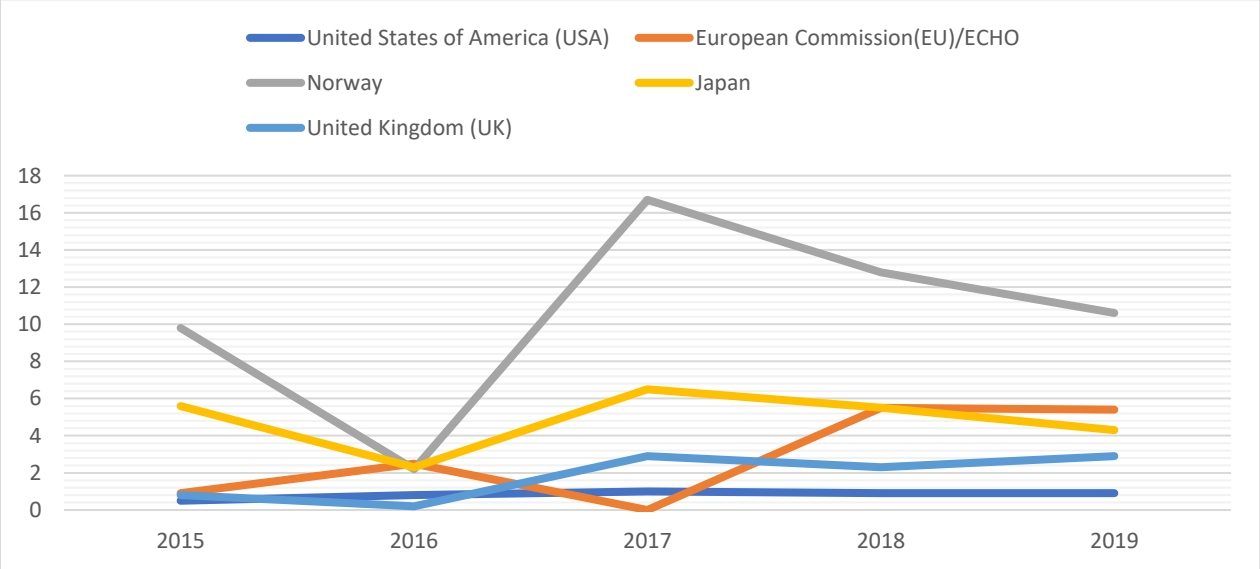
Sources: Financial Tracking Services (FTS),2020 *OECD Stats, 2020*

In sum, education appears to be a top priority for those affected by the conflict in the DRC (Nicolai and Hine, 2015). For example, in 2018, the education cluster required $55.6 million to support education for 800,000 children (out of 1.8 million children in need)(OCHA,2019c).Of the amount required, the cluster received just $5.4 million (9.7%) to reintegrate only 35,017 children aged 5-11 into the school system and 20,000 disadvantaged children received remedial classes(OCHA,2019c). Development aid, which is also a significant source of funding, received lower funding compared to other sectors such as health & population and water supply& sanitation (OECD,2019b). Comparatively, humanitarian assistance to the DRC has never received more than 36% of its education requests, and the amount of education funding from total humanitarian funds has consistently dropped below the GEFI target of at least 4% (EFA GMR,2015).

4.4 Donor trends and Policy

Education is primarily prioritized as a vital service by donors and seek to ensure that the educational needs of people affected by crises are addressed while at the same time working with governments to create a good national education system (INEE, 2010b) and ultimately achieving SDG 4 (Dupuy et al.,2019). In fragile states, the funding decisions of donors are driven by the mandate of ensuring no interruption of education services, building the government's capacity to deliver these services, and sometimes support the development of educational policy (INEE, 2010b). An analysis of 16 donor policies found that only 4 countries (EU, UK, US, and Norway) have a clear policy framework and white papers on EiE (Dupuy et al.,2019). Total donors' contributions to humanitarian aid have increased in recent years. Figure 8 shows the percentage of humanitarian finance allocated to education by the top 5 donors.

Figure 8: percentage of humanitarian finance allocated to education by top 5 donors (2015-2019)



Source: Financial Tracking Services (Accessed on 01.05.2020)

As shown in Figure 6[13], each donor has a separate period for high and low humanitarian funding of education. Though total funding is connected with major emergencies, donor funding patterns do not follow such a consistent pattern. Norway contributes the largest percentage of humanitarian aid to education. Nevertheless, the remaining countries contribute a fairly constant

[13] The analysis is based on the figures available through FTS system on 01/05/20. It is acknowledged that other humanitarian funding to education is may not be reported in FTS, and therefore this information may not provide the full picture. Also, there was not reported funding to education by the European Union in 2017 in the FTS system.

percentage each year. However, an interview with the Global Education Cluster found that EU/ECHO has increased its financing to EiE contributing about 10% of its annual budget. According to Wilson et al., (2015), trend changes are often motivated by factors such as changes in political leadership and priorities, overall foreign aid financing levels, sector demand, and national interest in particular emergencies. Many donors like the United States finance on a project basis while others like Norway provide multilateral organizations with less earmarked funding (Wilson et al., 2015).

4.5 Key focus of EiE funding

The core elements of EiE funding are primarily programming and coordination of the clusters at the global and country levels. The cost of EiE is broken down into capital and recurrent cost. Both types of cost may vary from country to country depending on factors such as labor and construction costs, national salary scales for teachers, and among others. A breakdown of the costs associated with the provision of EiE is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Cost components of EiE.

Capital Cost
Rehabilitation and (re)construction cover the construction and maintenance of temporary buildings and permanent facilities, including furniture, latrines and water supplies.
Curriculum reforms are carried out when the education system is outdated
Supplying of teaching and learning materials including textbooks, books, pencils, pens etc. for affected children
Training and recruitment of teachers to assist in the provision of teaching in emergency context. This constitutes a large capital cost.
Recurrent Cost
Teachers' salaries are often the largest recurring cost component. Teachers are often given incentives to do their best even in the face of risks to their lives.
Regular maintenance of facilities and learning spaces
Cash transfer programs also help to ensure continuity in the education of children by reducing the responsibility on parents and caregivers.
School feeding programmes are designed to provide educational and health benefits to vulnerable children.

Source: *INEE (2010b)*

Table 4 represents the key elements that EiE financing focus on. Education needs and funding can sometimes differ in acute and immediate post-crisis situations. In these situations, the funding is needed to address immediate issues caused by crisis, displacement and conflict and, where necessary, establish temporary schooling opportunities (INEE,2010b). Also, funding requirements and education needs change when there is a transition from humanitarian to development assistance or from non-formal education to formal education. According to EFA GMR (2015), in some cases key elements of education are not funded. Save the Children (2014) indicates that education projects in HRPs, such as the construction of school buildings and the purchase of textbooks, teaching materials, have mostly met their funding requirements as opposed to projects that focus on improving access and quality which are mostly financed through UN pooled funds. Again, teacher salaries in HRPs are less funded, resulting in months of working without pay. Moreover, a substantial amount of educational funding is primarily allocated to school feeding programs run by the World Food Programme rather than learning, as evident in countries such as the Central African Republic, Sudan and the Syrian Arab Republic (EFA GMR, 2015). However, within the context of education being underfunded Dolan & Brannelly (2010) indicate that humanitarian aid funding for post-primary education has also received little attention within the humanitarian sector.

As mentioned above, the funding shortfalls have a significant effect on the capacities of the clusters to cover all these costs. The immediate consequence is the inability to implement all projects outlined in the HRPs, leaving many projects unfunded. Additionally, sometimes to plan efficiently the clusters have to reduce their targeted beneficiaries to meet up with the funding shortfalls (Education Cannot Wait, 2014). Country specific examples can be found in Box 2. Table 5 shows the funding picture and the level of education requirements covered at various country levels.

Table 5: Share of education funding compared to overall humanitarian funding (HRPs) in 2019, by country

Country	% of Appeal requirements covered	Education funding as a % of funding received	% of Education requirements covered
Ukraine	52.2	2.8	36.7
Syria	69.4	4.8	40.9
Iraq	93.7	2.8	52.7
Afghanistan	76	5.8	80.2
Bangladesh	74.8	9.7	113.2
Myanmar	85.8	3.9	40.6
Yemen	85.9	1.2	41.5
Libya	49.0	1.4	11.7
Mali	51.7	2.8	14.6
Nigeria	68.5	6.5	78.1
Chad	58.3	1.9	31.2
Cameroon	43.5	2	16.8
Central African Republic (CAR)	70.2	4.4	33
South Sudan	76.1	2.5	53.4
Ethiopia	75.8	0.86	17
Somalia	83.2	2.2	49.1
Burundi	64.7	6.7	377.8

Financial Tracking Services (Accessed on 06.05.2020)

As seen in Table 5, the highlighted countries achieved the target of 4 percent in 2019. The only countries to receive more than sufficient funding were Burundi and Bangladesh which constituted 377.8% and 113.2% of total education requirements respectively. Clearly, there are funding asymmetries where some countries receive more funding than others, as seen in Table 5. According to Education Cannot Wait (2014), humanitarian funding appears to be reactive and therefore favors acute and recent interventions that also attract substantial media and organizational coverage. Again, forgotten crises, chronic emergencies or conflict-related crises are less likely to receive funding than high-profile emergencies related to natural disasters. (Education Cannot Wait, 2014; Nicolai &Hine 2015). INEE (2010b) argues that due to donor fatigue appeals focusing on long-term crises are sometimes underfunded. Finally, some additional factors that could account for differences in funding appeals include the small amount of funding requested in the Humanitarian Response Plans as development aid actors could provide the most external financing in these countries and higher logistical costs in some of the

appeal countries compared to others (Poole, 2015, cited in EFA GMR, 2015). However, these factors alone cannot explain the differences in funding between countries, but it remains that conflict-affected countries are mostly underfunded.

Box 3: Consequences of funding gaps; A case of Yemen, Ethiopia and occupied Palestinian territory(oPt)

According to OCHA (2018c), in Yemen, the number of children who need education assistance is increasing yearly rising from 2.3 million in 2017 to 4.7 million in 2019. The vulnerability of school-age children has increased significantly due to the escalation of the conflict, severe deterioration of the economic situation, and increased displacement. With a funding gap of 58.5%, out of 9 projects, only 1 was fully implemented while 8 projects were partially implemented. For instance, out of the 1,500,014 children targeted to receive school supplies only 290,985 children were achieved (Education Cluster Yemen, 2019). Similarly, in Ethiopia, the education cluster's projects including the provision of school feeding, learning materials, and temporary learning spaces will target about 1.2 million of school-going children including IDPs and returnees in 2020. But as of April 28th, 2020, the cluster's appeal had not yet received any funding (OCHA,2020).

Finally, in oPt, the funding gap (85%) for the education HRP projects in WB and Gaza hindered the achievement of set targets in 2018. Therefore, out of the 17 main activities planned by the cluster, only 3 were partially executed and the remaining 14 were not carried out. Other factors, such as deteriorating living conditions in Gaza and unpaid teacher wages and import restrictions, have all impeded the ability of the educational systems to deliver quality education (oPt Education Cluster,2018).

4.6 Financing Challenges

4.6.1 Insufficient Funding

In 2019, the education clusters experienced a funding shortfall of 56.3 percent with respect to the financial trends discussed above. Though the trends show donor funding is rising, it is not enough to keep up with the growing needs. This has been the most pressing challenge for all the educational clusters. The insufficient funding can be related to the overall humanitarian funding deficit which Development Initiatives (2018) indicate that over half of humanitarian aid in 2016

went to countries including Yemen, Syria, South Sudan and Iraq. Undeniably, the continued funding gap continues to limit the activities of the education clusters and the quality of programming. According to Belanger et al., (2016) providing more funding without considering the requisite changes in the humanitarian sector may not solve the issue, but exacerbate the existing inefficiencies.

4.6.2 Delays in funding disbursement

The humanitarian system is generally reactive and therefore appeals for funding rise mostly when a crisis breaks out or worsens (Willitts-King et al., 2019; Education Cannot Wait, 2014). Willitts-King et al., (2019) argues that humanitarian fundraising is often inefficient, slow and heavily earmarked. Although additional funds such as the CERF are available to provide rapid response, CAP continues to delay. For example, as of 20th April 2020, countries such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, oPt had received no contribution to education in the CAP (Global Education Cluster,2020). The consequence of funding delays is that, in the initial phase of a crisis, the opportunity to meet critical educational needs is missed. Poole (2015) indicates that early humanitarian responses can save up to 40% of costs compared to late responses.

4.6.3 Short-term nature of funding

Humanitarian assistance is typically provided for a short period, and then assistance shifts into the development phase (Thomson, 2009) and often when funds are available, donors fund projects that fulfill their priorities, which often do not represent the needs of beneficiaries at the country level (Nhan-O'Reilly & Mason 2015). EiE requires both short-term and long-term planning. The short-term nature of education funding does not facilitate the transition to long-term planning. Short-term funding is inefficient because it is costly, as humanitarian agencies cannot invest in long-term planning activities that minimize costs (Willitts-King et al., 2019). According to INEE (2006), a smoother transition of funding approaches between emergency and development phases is required to ensure continuity of funding on EiE delivery. Besides, flexibility and predictability of funds are necessary to provide continued education for crisis-affected people.

4.6.4 Fragmented financing modalities

Funding for EiE comes in different modalities and ways. Nhan-O'Reilly & Mason (2015) suggest that the numerous funding modalities have neither addressed children's educational needs in crisis nor resulted in greater efficiency in delivering EiE. These various funding envelopes have different ways of working and engagement and leading to fragmentation rather than a more harmonious platform for financing EiE.

4.7 Bridging the Financing Gaps- GPE and Education Cannot Wait (ECW)

GPE formally Education for All–Fast Track Initiative is a multilateral pooled funding supporting education in low-income countries with a renewed emphasis on humanitarian contexts (Winthrop & Matsui, 2013). Although GPE works mostly with national governments, many INGO partners may now act as managers and distribute funds where government capacity is weak (Nicolai et al., 2016). With renewed interest in EiE, GPE contributes to the appeals launched by countries through the HRPs from which funds are disbursed within eight weeks (GPE,2015; UNESCO,2018). Kim (2015) indicates that this funding mechanism has benefited countries like Yemen, CAR, and Somalia. While GPE's primary focus is not on humanitarian assistance to education, the Global Education Cluster continues to explore working closely with GPE to help in providing EiE.

Similarly, ECW, which was launched in 2016, is the first EiE fund in the world (Dooley,2017). The fund seeks to transform the delivery of EiE by working with governments, humanitarian actors and development efforts to deliver a more inclusive and efficient response to the education needs of crisis-affected children and young people (ECHO,2019b). ECW operates on two main financing mechanisms namely: First Emergency Response grants at the onset or escalation of crises and the Multi-Year frameworks in protracted crises (ECW,2018). ECW has already achieved an important target by helping the international community to increase the total EiE funding by about 0.2% (Dupuy et al., 2019). While there is insufficient evidence to support that ECW has helped achieve the 4% goal of humanitarian aid to education, the achievements of the fund since 2016 have been very promising (Dupuy et al., 2019). Since its inception to the end of 2019, ECW has mobilized a total of $560 million for emergency education, reaching over 1.5 million children (ECW,2019). Nicholai et al., (2020) indicate that ECW has helped to initiate joint programming to deepen the humanitarian-development nexus. Besides, the ECW plans to work closely with the GPE to ensure maximum synergy and additionality of funding (ECW,2016).

4.8 Towards sustainable financing of EiE

Ensuring adequate funding to meet the educational needs of people in crisis is a persistent challenge for the sector, as EiE is often not seen as a priority for humanitarian workers and development donors alike (Nicolai et al.,2020). Sustainable funding for EiE must ensure adequate, timely and appropriate resources are provided to respond to the urgent and increasing educational needs, multi-year funding, especially in protracted situations, and, lastly, the efficiency of existing funding mechanisms, given the persistent funding gaps.

4.8.1. Ensuring Sufficient Funding

The first step to secure adequate funding for EiE is closing the already existing funding gaps (Nicholai et al., 2015; EFA GMR, 2015). To close the gap means to look beyond traditional humanitarian aid donors to education and explore how the private sector and businesses can invest in EiE. Nonetheless, businesses have much-needed financing that can support EiE (Menashy,2020). GBC-Education (2015) argues that the current funding system is complex and the unclear entry point makes it difficult to engage other actors such as businesses. They add, however, that businesses (logistics, financial, insurance companies, etc.) can play a vital role in creating innovative education approaches for children living in crises, while at the same time strategically harmonizing investment to generate shared value and to promote sustainable development and economic growth. In all of these commitments, businesses should remain aware of the ethical considerations of capitalizing on a crisis. Willitts-King et al., (2019) claims that blended financing can be used to attract companies and the private sector. Blended financing is the strategic use of development financing to generate additional resources for sustainable development in developing countries, particularly from the private sector (OECD,2017a). Johnston (2019) argues that there are several potential risks for using blended financing to fill the humanitarian financing gap, as crisis-affected countries may not provide a conducive climate for returnable investment. OECD (2017a) suggests that for blended finance to be effective in the humanitarian sector, it must be evidence-based with focus on how it can be used across sectors.

4.8.2 Bridge the divide between Humanitarian- development nexus.

The division between humanitarian and development architectures, which creates parallel working systems, is one of the key obstacles to increasing humanitarian funding for education.

This divide often creates inefficiencies due to duplication in the assessment of needs between the sectors (Georgieva et al.,2016). Most donors operate differently between development and humanitarian activities. (Rognerud, 2005; Bennett, 2005). One way to leverage additional humanitarian and development assistance will be to combine the two budget sets more effectively. According to Nicholai et al., (2016) using MTDFs and creating a common EiE platform that will require joint planning of both sectors can help bridge the gap between humanitarian and development funding.

4.8.3 Commitment to more Multiyear Funding

Furthermore, shifting to multi-year EiE funding could solve the short-term and unpredictability of humanitarian funding. Humanitarian funding for education has been unpredictable over the years, with annual funding requirements fluctuating. Poole (2015) argues that increased predictability and flexibility of funding in protracted crises leads to higher cost efficiency and better programming results. Multi-year funding when flexible and predictable and aligned with Grand Bargain principles will allow better planning, efficiency and agencies can react more appropriately and/or quickly to changing emergency conditions (OECD,2017b). Finally, pooled funds such as CERF and ECW with rapid response widows should reduce the level of bureaucracies to provide early funding for EiE interventions when the CAP delays.

4.8.4 Expanding Evidence-based Advocacy for more Humanitarian Funding

Wilson et al., (2015) argue that emotional pitches for EiE have generally overshadowed the emphasis on establishing what works. As mentioned above, the short-term nature of funding does not allow a strong evidence base for EiE that could merit sufficient funding. Given this lack of evidence, any effort to ensure sufficient funding for EiE should consider factoring in strong evidence to show donors and other humanitarian actors how worthy it is to invest in EiE. Nicolai & Hine (2015) suggest this could be achieved by developing theory(ies) of change, specifically considering how the different elements can work together to enhance EiE delivery. With a forward-thinking approach, innovative financing approaches need to be developed to respond to EiE interventions and evidence-based actions.

4.8.5 Strengthen need-based financing and harmonization of all financing mechanisms

According to Nhan-O'Reilly & Mason (2015), the lack of information on the extent of unmet needs, future needs and the funding required for EiE hinder the possibility to establish a detailed picture of the actual funding shortfalls. Nicolai et al., (2015) argue that, given the mismatch between the number of out-of-school children and the funding requirements, even if the 4% target is met, it will not be enough to bridge the funding gap. Therefore, it is important that the true extent of the need for EiE is properly defined in a given context and that the funding required to address it is accurately estimated and directed at meeting those needs.

Furthermore, with the fragmented funding mechanisms available, all appropriate measures should be aimed at ensuring all the different funding modalities work together and coordinated to ensure greater harmonization and efficiency of existing funding for EiE. Finally, Global education Cluster should work closely with INEE and individual partners to support the standardization of approaches on the quality of EiE interventions amid these funding shortfalls.

CHAPTER FIVE: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This last chapter presents the key findings, recommendations and conclusions of the study. The recommendations are given based on the findings in the previous chapter.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The first research question focused on EiE financing patterns between 2010 and 2019. The overall trends for humanitarian funding have shown an absolute increase since 2014, with the percentage of coverage of funding appeals increasing from 30.5% in 2015 to 43.4% in 2019. Despite the increase in humanitarian aid for education, the percentage of humanitarian support for education has been decreasing averaging 2.18%. Besides, between the same period, the 4% global financial commitment level was never met. Furthermore, an analysis of the humanitarian pooled funding for education between 2015-2019 showed that CERF and CBPF increased annually compared to the 2010-2013 period, which showed an upward and downward trend. Regarding donor policies, it was revealed that only 4 countries (EU, UK, US and Norway) have a clear policy framework and white papers on EiE. Consequently, the main factors contributing to the inconsistencies in humanitarian aid to EiE were: continued view of education as a long-term development issue, humanitarian and development divide, and lack of evidence and research to show the added value that will ensure adequate donor funding.

Again, the second research question focused on the key elements of EiE funding. EiE funding is categorized into capital and recurrent cost. Projects such as the construction of school buildings and the purchase of textbooks, teaching materials, mostly meet their funding requirements as opposed to projects that focus on improving access and quality. Also, school feeding programmes constitute a substantial portion of EiE funding. EiE is clearly underfunded and the immediate consequences are the inability to implement all the projects outlined in the HRPs and sometimes the revision of the targeted beneficiaries. Also, it was revealed that there are funding asymmetries where some countries receive more funding than others. Humanitarian funding appears to be reactive and therefore favors acute and recent interventions that also attract substantial media and organizational coverage while forgotten crises, chronic emergencies or conflict-related crises are less likely to receive funding than high-profile emergencies related to

natural disasters. The funding challenges included: insufficient funding, funding delays, short-term financing and fragmented funding mechanisms.

Finally, the last research question focused on exploring ways to ensure sustainable funding for EiE. It was found that, although GPE and ECW have made enormous efforts to ensure sufficient funding for EiE, they have not helped bridge the funding gap. Thus, ensuring sustainable funding for EiE will require adequate, timely and appropriate resources are provided to respond to the urgent and increasing educational needs, multi-year funding, especially in protracted situations, and, lastly improving the efficiency of existing funding mechanisms, given the persistent funding gaps. This can be achieved through ensuring sufficient funding, bridging the divide between humanitarian- development, committing to more multiyear funding, expanding evidence-based advocacy for more humanitarian funding and strengthening need-based financing and harmonization of all financing mechanisms.

5.3 Recommendations

SDG 4 cannot be accomplished until all children and youth affected by crisis can access and attend school in a secure education environment (INEE,2019b). We need the mobilization of all actors to ensure adequate funding is available to achieve this goal. Besides adequate funding, the use of funds is also important. In this regard, the following recommendations are suggested:

- Inspired political commitment among all actors, especially national governments and donors, to fulfill the pledge to reach the 4% EiE funding target. The business as usual approach has not helped to achieve this target. These efforts must be led by the Global Education Cluster in partnership with various UN agencies and INGOs. This advocacy will only be effective if solid evidence supports the need of investing in EiE.
- Creating a common platform would facilitate effective ways of working together through the humanitarian and development architecture. This will strengthen joint planning, response and adequate funding for EiE interventions as both sectors will merge their funding budgets.
- Look beyond the traditional donors within the current financing architecture and explore innovative ways of attracting the private sector and businesses. Thus, innovative funding options, such as blended finance or social impact bonds used in the development space, can be explored to attract businesses to invest in EiE.

- Increased humanitarian support for education would require a change from emotional pitches to more evidence-based advocacy to show what constitutes an efficient investment. Furthermore, developing a viable and sustainable platform that can serve as a knowledge hub would lead to significant improvements in programming, research, need-based funding allocation and advocacy.
- More advocacy should also be directed towards ensuring multi-year funding, particularly for protracted crises. Multi-year funding humanitarian funding that is predictable and flexible will help in long term planning, reduce cost and ensure better coordination and accountability.
- Efforts should be aimed at harmonizing and coordinating all EiE funding sources. This should ensure the additionality of all sources of funding while avoiding the issues of crowding out.

5.4 Conclusions

In conclusion, the study has shown the trends in humanitarian aid to education, the funding gaps and the associated negative impacts on quality education provision to children and young people affected by crisis. EiE receives less than 4 % of the total humanitarian aid. Although some progress has been made over the years to meet the 4 % EiE funding target in the humanitarian space, more needs to be done to bridge the gap as well as achieving quality and efficiency. The current financial architecture has made little effort to leverage additional resources, especially from the private sector and businesses. As indicated in the previous section of this study, EiE investment fosters short- and long-term economic development, stability, conflict resolution and peacebuilding. It is clear that the benefits of investing in EiE now far outweigh the consequences of not doing so either now or in the future.

Given that EiE is a priority among crisis-affected population, it is important for children to enjoy their fundamental right of access to quality education, whether in crisis or not. This requires renewed focus and strong political commitment from governments, international organizations in the humanitarian and development sectors, the private sector and businesses to identify the best mechanisms for raising more funding and ensuring that it is spent efficiently to enhance the delivery of EiE.

Finally, given the limited research on humanitarian financing for EiE, this work aimed to piece together the existing literature and opens up space for further discussions on the understanding and effects of other sources of financing. Areas that could be explored for further research include analyzing changes in donor humanitarian policies overtime to see how donors prioritize EiE and how it affects their funding patterns in general. Furthermore, given all the different funding modalities available, research on how to determine the most appropriate funding mechanisms that will lead to effective use of EiE funds would be useful in the future.

Bibliography

Abu-Amsha, O., & Armstrong, J. (2018). Pathways to resilience in risk-laden environments: A case study of Syrian refugee education in Lebanon. *Journal on Education in Emergencies* 4 (1): 45-73

Alalami, N. (2019). Evidence for education in emergencies: who decides and why it matters. *Forced Migration Review*, (60), 76-77.

Anderson, M., & Gerber, M. (2018). *Introduction to Humanitarian Emergencies. In D. Townes (Ed.), Health in Humanitarian Emergencies: Principles and Practice for Public Health and Healthcare Practitioners* (pp. 1-8). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

doi:10.1017/9781107477261.002

Anderson, A., & Hodgkin, M. (2010). *The creation and development of the global IASC Education Cluster*. UNESCO

Andersen, J. (2018). *GPE's Work in Countries Affected by Fragility and Conflict. Policy Brief*. Global Partnership for Education.

Badrasawi, K. J. I., Ahmed, I. O., & Eid, I. M. (2018). Exploring Ways to Provide Education in Conflict Zones: Implementation and Challenges. *Intellectual Discourse*, *26*(2), 567–594. Retrieved from https://journals.iium.edu.my/intdiscourse/index.php/islam/article/view/1221

Barakat, B., Karpinska, Z., & Paulson, J. (2008). Desk study: Education and fragility. *interim submission). Presented by Conflict and Education Research Group (CERG) and Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Working Group on Education and Fragility*, Oxford, UK.

Belanger, J., Sharrock, D.A., Araki, H., Asfaw, T., Matern, D., Okumu, S., Papaioannou, E., Pilegaard, L. and Ahmad Subki, S.K. (2016) *Too important to fail – addressing the humanitarian financing gap*. New York: High-Level Panel on Humanitarian Financing

Bennett, C. (2015). *The development agency of the future*. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Bennett, C., Foley, M., & Pantuliano, S. (2016). *Time to let go: Remaking humanitarian action for the modern era.* ODI, London.

Buchanan-Smith, M., & Randel, J. (2002). *Financing international humanitarian action: a review of key trends*. Overseas Development Institute.

Burde, D. (2014). *Schools for Conflict or for Peace in Afghanistan*. Columbia University Press.

Burde, D., Guven, O., Kelcey, J., Lahmann, H., & Al-Abbadi, K. (2015). What works to promote children's educational access, quality of learning, and wellbeing in crisis-affected contexts. *Education Rigorous Literature Review, Department for International Development. London: Department for International Development*.

Burde, D., Kapit, A., Wahl, R. L., Guven, O., & Skarpeteig, M. I. (2017). Education in emergencies: A review of theory and research. *Review of Educational Research, 87*(3), 619-658.

Bush, K. D., & Saltarelli, D. (2000). *The two faces of education in ethnic conflict: Towards a peacebuilding education for children.* Research Report. Unicef Innocenti Research Centre

Cardozo, M. L., & Novelli, M. (2018). Education in Emergencies: Tracing the Emergence of a Field. *Global Education Policy and International Development: New Agendas, Issues and Policies*, 233.

Commins, S. (2018). Fragility, conflict, and violence. *World Development Report background paper, Washington DC, World Bank.*

Creed, C., & Morpeth, R. (2014). Continuity education in emergency and conflict situations: The case for using open, distance and flexible learning. *Journal of Learning for Development*, vol. 1, no. 3. *http://hdl.handle.net/11599/1697*

Development Initiatives, (2010). *Funding to education channelled through humanitarian and development pooled financing mechanisms in conflict affected countries*, Paris: UNESCO.

Development Initiatives (2018*) Global humanitarian assistance report* 2018. Bristol: Development Initiatives

Dolan, J., & Brannelly, L. (2010). *Financing for All: Beyond the Primary Need*. Policy Roundtable 2010 15–16 November.INEE

Dolan, J., & Ndaruhutse, S. (2011). Financing education for children affected by conflict: Lessons from Save the Children's Rewrite the Future campaign. *Prospects*, *41*(2), 249.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-011-9191-9

Dooley, T. (2017). Education Uprooted: For Every Migrant, Refugee and Displaced Child, Education. *UNICEF*.

Dryden-Peterson, S. (2011). *Refugee education: A global review*. Geneva, Switzerland: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

Dupuy, K., Palik, J. and Ostby, G. (2019) *Walk the talk: review of financing for education in emergencies, 2015–2018*. Save the Children Norway.

Education Cannot Wait (ECW). (2014). *Financing Education in Emergencies: Challenges and Opportunities.* Education Cannot Wait

Education Cannot Wait (ECW). (2015). *Developing an Operational Model& Results Framework for Education Cannot Wait*. Education Cannot Wait

Education Cannot Wait (ECW). (2018) *Education Cannot Wait strategic plan 2018-2021*.

(reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Strategic_plan_2018_2021_web_PAGES .pd)

Education Cannot Wait (ECW). (2019). *Results Dashboard October 2019*

https://www.educationcannotwait.org/downloads/advocacy-and-comms/?cp_adv-and-comms=1

Education Cannot Wait (ECW). (n.d.). *Delivering education in crises*. Retrieved April 5, 2020, from https://www.educationcannotwait.org/delivering-education-in-crises/

Education Cluster Yemen (2019). *Yemen: Education Cluster Gap Analysis (January - October 2019*)
https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/education_cluster_achievement_gap_analysis_october_2019.pdf

Education for All Global Monitoring Report (EFA GMR). (2015). *Humanitarian aid for education: why it matters and why more is needed*. Education for All Global Monitoring Report, Policy Paper 21.

Education for All Global Monitoring Report (EFA GMR). (2018). "*Aid to Education: A Return to Growth*?" Policy Paper 36

European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations (ECHO). (2019a*). Education in Emergencies. European Union fact sheet.* Brussels

ECHO. (2019b). *Thematic Policy Document on Education in Emergencies*.

FTS – Financial Tracking Service (2020) '*Humanitarian aid contributions'* (electronic data set, UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs) (http://fts.unocha.org)

Gallagher, T., Robinson, G., Hughes, J., & Connolly, D. (2018). *Education in conflict-affected areas: Final report.*

https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/global_education_security_and_stability_report_0319.pdf

GBC-Education. (2015). *A Fund for Education in Emergencies: Business Weighs In.* Policy Brief. https://gbc-education.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/Policy-Brief-Education-in Emergencies.pdf

Georgieva, K., Shah, N., Ibrahim, H., Jafar, B., Macnee, W., Manuel, T., ... & Wallstrom, M. (2016). *Too Important to Fail—Addressing the Humanitarian Financing Gap*. January. High-Level Panel on Humanitarian Financing Report to the Secretary-General.

Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (GCPEA). (2018). *Education Under attack 2018*. Retrieved from:

http://www.protectingeducation.org/sites/default/files/documents/eua_2018_full.pdf

Global Education Cluster. (2010). *Education cluster coordinator handbook*.

https://resourcecentre.savethechildren.net/node/4304/pdf/4304.pdf. Geneva, GEC

GPE (Global Partnership for Education) (2015) *Allocations and disbursements*. Washington, DC: GPE.

GPE. (2019). *Supporting countries affected by fragility and conflict*. Retrieved from:

https://www.globalpartnership.org/sites/default/files/document/file/2019-12-GPE-fragility-conflict-factsheet.pdf

INEE (2006). *Addressing Challenges and Exploring Alternatives*. Policy Roundtable on

Education in Emergencies, Fragile States and Reconstruction: Outcome Report.

INEE-Sphere. (2009). *Integrating Quality Education with Humanitarian Response for Humanitarian Accountability:* The Sphere-INEE Companionship https://s3.amazonaws.com/inee-assets/resources/Sphere_INEE_paper_FINAL.pdf

INEE, (2010a) *Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery*, New York, USA: INEE.

INEE, (2010b). *INEE Reference Guide on External education Financing*, New York, USA: INEE.

INEE. (2016). *Teachers in Crisis Contexts Training for Primary School Teachers*. New York, NY. www.inee.org.

INEE. (2018). *2018 Annual Report*. Retrieved from:

https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/INEE_2018_Annual_Report.pdf

INEE. (2019a). *Education in Emergencies Financing*. https://archive.ineesite.org/en/education-financing

INEE. (2019b). *Achieving SDG4 for Children and Youth Affected by Crisis*. New York, NY. www.inee.org. Licence: Creative Commons Attribution ShareAlike 4.0.

Iversen, E., & Oestergaard, E. (2019). Gender equality in education in emergencies. *Forced Migration Review*, (60), 11-12.

Johnston, J. (2017). *Is blended finance the answer to the humanitarian financing gap?* Accessed from https://www.convergence.finance/news-and-events/news/3yG1SqF5jrsgkOt1vI74BP/view

Johnston, M. P. (2017). Secondary data analysis: A method of which the time has come. *Qualitative and quantitative methods in libraries*, *3*(3), 619-626.

Kagawa, F. (2005). Emergency education: A critical review of the field. *Comparative education*, *41*(4), 487-503.

Kim, Y.R. (2015) '*In the Central African Republic, children struggle to go to school'*, blog, 16 September (http://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/central-african-republic-children-struggle-go-school).

Kirk, J. (2009). Certification counts: Recognizing the learning attainments of displaced and refugee students. J. Kirk (Ed.). International Institute for Educational Planning.

Mosselson, J., Wheaton, W., & Frisoli, P. S. J. (2009). Education and fragility: A synthesis of the literature. *Journal of Education for International Development*, *4*(1), 1-17.

Nicolai, S. (2003). *Education in emergencies: A tool kit for starting and managing education in emergencies*. Save the Children UK.

Nicolai, S., & Triplehorn, C. (2003). The role of education in protecting children in conflict. *Network Paper: Humanitarian Practice Network (HPN)*, *42*, 1-36.

Nicolai, S., & Hine, S. (2015). *Investment for education in emergencies: A Review of evidence*. London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI).

Nicolai, S., Hine, S., & Wales, J. (2015). *Education in emergencies and protracted crises: Toward a strengthened response.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Nicolai, S., Greenhill, R., d'Orey, M. J., Magee, A., Rogerson, A., Wild, L., & Wales, J. (2016). Education Cannot Wait: Proposing a fund for education in emergencies. *Overseas Development Institute*, 9-10.

Nicolai, S., Hine, S., & Wales, J. (2016). A common platform for education in emergencies and protracted crises: Evidence paper. *London: Overseas Development Institute*.

Nicolai, S., M. Hodgkin, T. Mowjee, and J. Wales. (2019). *White Paper: Education and Humanitarian-Development Coherence*. Washington, DC: USAID Education in Crisis and Conflict Network and Overseas Development Institute.

Nicolai, S., Anderson, A., Diwakar, V., Khan, A., & Mansour-Ille, D. (2020). *Strengthening coordinated education planning and response in crises*. *Global analysis framework*. Overseas Development Institute

McLean Hilker, L., & Fraser, E. (2011). *Investing in a Youth Dividend: An Analysis of Donor Strategies, Programs and Funding for Youth and Livelihoods in Conflict and Crisis-Affected Contexts.*

Menashy, F. (2020). *Business engagement in education in emergencies: Lessons for the COVID-19 response*. UNESCO. Retreived from

https://gemreportunesco.wordpress.com/2020/04/08/business-engagement-in-education-in-emergencies-lessons-for-the-covid-19-response/

Mendenhall, M., & Anderson, A. (2013). Bridging the Gaps: Lessons learned from an NGO-University partnership. *Harvard International Review*, 35(1), 62

Mendenhall, M. (2019). *UNICEF Think Piece Series: Education in Emergencies*. UNICEF Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office, Nairobi

Menendez, A. S., Ramesh, A., Baxter, P., & North, L. (2016). *Accelerated Education Programs in crisis and conflict*. The Pearson Institute Discussion Paper No. 36

Miller-Grandvaux, Y. (2009). Education and fragility: A new framework. *Journal of Education for international Development*, *4*(1), 1-14.

Montjouridès, P., & Liu, J. (2019). *Data and evidence on education in emergencies*. Geneva, NORRAG.

Nhan-O'Reilly, J., & Mason, C. (2015). *More and better: Global action to improve funding, support and collaboration for education in emergencies*. Save the Children.

NORRAG. (2018). *Towards Evidence-Based Financing for Education in Emergencies*. NORRAG

https://www.norrag.org/towards-evidence-based-financing-for-education-in-emergencies/

OCHA. (2018a). *Global Humanitarian Overview 2019.*

Retrieved from www.unocha.org/datatrends2018. OCHA.

OCHA. (2018b). *DRC Humanitarian Fund Annual Report 2017*. Geneva: OCHA

https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/DRC%20HF%20Annual%20Report%202018.pdf

OCHA (2018c) *Yemen Humanitarian Needs Overview 2018*. Geneva: OCHA

https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/2019_Yemen_HNO_FINAL.pdf

OCHA. (2019a). *Global Humanitarian Overview 2020.*

Retrieved from https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/GHO-2020_v9.1.pdf

OCHA. (2019b). *CERF Annual Report 2018*. Geneva: OCHA

https://cerf.un.org/sites/default/files/resources/CERF_AR2018_FINALweb_20191209_pages.pdf

OCHA. (2019c). *DRC Humanitarian Fund Annual Report 2018*. Geneva: OCHA

https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/DRC%20HF%20Annual%20Report%202018.pdf

OCHA. (2020). *Ethiopia overview of funding towards the Humanitarian Response Plan*.

https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/hrp_funding_overview_-_28_april_2020.pdf. OCHA.

OECD. (2012). *International support to post-conflict transition: DAC guidance on transition financing - key messages.* Paris, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

OECD. (2017a). *Blended Finance for Development: Bridging the Sustainable Development Finance Gap Innovations for the 2030 Agenda*. Accessed from

https://www.oecd.org/dac/Blended%20Finance%20flyer%20DAC%20HLM%202017.pdf

OECD. (2017b). *Multi -year humanitarian funding. World Humanitarian Summit: Putting Policy into Practice*, The Commitments into Action Series, OECD Development Co-operation Directorate, Paris.

OECD. (2019a). *Development aid drops in 2018, Especially to neediest countries*. An ODA Press Release 2019. Accessed from https://www.oecd.org/newsroom/development-aid-drops-in-2018-especially-to-neediest-countries.htm on 14/04/2020

OECD (2019b), *Geographical Distribution of Financial Flows to Developing Countries 2019: Disbursements, Commitments, Country Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/fin_flows_dev-2019-en-fr.

oPt Education Cluster. (2018). *Education in Emergency Response Snapshot*.

https://www.un.org/unispal/document/opt-education-in-emergency-response-snapshot-opt-education-cluster-infographic/

Poole, L. (2015) *Future humanitarian financing: looking beyond the crisis*. London: CAFOD, FAO, World Vision

Rognerud, E.W. (2005) '*Education in emergencies and reconstruction: Bridging the funding gap'*. Master thesis, University of Bremen, Faculty of Social Sciences

Save the Children (2009). *Rewrite the Future 2009: Education in emergencies.* Unpublished

document. London: Save the Children

Save the Children. 2014. *Financing education in emergencies: Scoping report - draft.* London, Save the Children

Save the Children. (2015). *What do children want in times of emergency and crisis?* London: Save the Children.

Scanlon, M. (2011). "Book Review: Education in Times of Emergencies Requires Balancing Theory, Practice," *Journal of Community Engagement and Scholarship*: Vol. 4 : Iss. 1 , Article 11. Available at: https://digitalcommons.northgeorgia.edu/jces/vol4/iss1/11

Shah, R. (2015). Protecting children in a situation of ongoing conflict: Is resilience sufficient as the end product? *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 14, 179-185

Shah, R., & Cardozo, M. T. L. (2015). The politics of education in emergencies and conflict. *Education and International Development: An Introduction*, 181-200.

Sinclair, M. (2002). *Planning education in and after emergencies*. Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

Sinclair, M. (2007). Education in emergencies: Commonwealth education partnerships 2007. *Nexus Strategic Partnerships*, 52-56.

Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, *104*, 333-339.

Stephensen, M. (2011). *The Role of Education in Emergencies: An examination of the Education Cluster activities in fulfilment of the right to education during humanitarian crises* (Master's thesis).

Steer, L., & Smith, K. (2015). Financing Education: Opportunities for Global Action. *Center for Universal Education at The Brookings Institution*.

Stoddard, A. (2008). International Humanitarian Financing: A review and comparative assessment of instruments. *Report for Office of US Foreign Disaster Assistance*, *22*.

Talbot, C. (2005). Recent research and current research gaps. *Forced Migration Review*, 22, 5-6.

Talbot, C. (2013). *Education in Conflict Emergencies in Light of the post-2015 MDGs and EFA Agendas*. Switzerland: NORRAG.

The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC). (2018). *World Disasters Report 2018*.

Retrieved from https://media.ifrc.org/ifrc/wp content/uploads/sites/5/2018/10/B-WDR-2018-EN-LR.pdf

Thomson, A. (2009). *Appropriate and effective financing modalities and channels for education in fragile situations.* Oxford Policy Management.

UN (United Nations) (2012) *Global Education First Initiative*. New York: UN

UNESCO. (2000). *The Dakar framework for action: Education for all*: Meeting our collective commitments. Dakar Senegal, 26-28.

UNESCO. (2015). *Education for All 2000-2015: Achievements and challenges*. UNESCO.

UNESCO (2018) *Global education monitoring report 2019: migration, displacement and education –building bridges, not walls*. New York NY: United Nations

(https://doi.org/10.18356/22b0ce76-en)

UNESCO (2018). *Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children: A South Sudan Country Study*. UNESCO.

UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2018). *One in Five Children, Adolescents and Youth is Out of School*. UIS fact sheet No.48. Montreal: UIS

http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/fs48-one-five-children-adolescents-youth-out-school-2018-en.pdf

UNHCR. (2020). *Key takeaways from the Global Refugee Forum*. 2020. Retrieved April 5, 2020, from https://www.unhcr.org/news/stories/2020/1/5e21b3a74/key-takeaways-global-refugee-forum.html

UNICEF. (n.d.). *Education in emergencies*. https://www.unicef.org/education/emergencies

UNICEF. (2014). Learning for Peace: Key peacebuilding concepts and terminology.

UNICEF WCARO. (2014). *Further guidance on education radio program content in light of Ebola outbreaks in West Africa*. UNICEF

UNICEF. (2017a). *Funding shortfalls threaten education for children living in conflict and disaster zones.* https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/funding-shortfalls-threaten-education-children-living-conflict-and-disaster-zones

UNICEF. (2017b). *Children on the move in Italy and Greece*. REACH,New York: Eigenverlag. https://www.unicef.org/eca/media/921/file/REACH%20report%202017.pdf

UNICEF. (2018). *The right to play. Creating safe spaces for children in emergencies in Afghanistan*.https://medium.com/@UNICEFAfghanistan/the-right-to-play-5fa83f246fcf

UNICEF. (2019). After Cyclone Idai, uncertain futures for children left behind. https://www.unicef.org/stories/after-cyclone-idai-uncertain-futures-children-left-behind.

UNICEF. (2020). *Addressing the learning crisis: An urgent need to better finance education for the poorest children.* http://data.uis.unesco.org/

USAID. (2019.). *Education -Democratic Republic of the Congo*. 2019. Retrieved May 14, 2020, from https://www.usaid.gov/democratic-republic-congo/education

Versmesse, I., Derluyn, I., Masschelein, J., & De Haene, L. (2017). After conflict comes education? Reflections on the representations of emergencies in 'Education in Emergencies.' *Comparative Education*, 53(4), 538–557. https://doi.org/10.1080/03050068.2017.1327570

Vervisch, T. G. A., Vlassenroot, K., & Braeckman, J. (2013). Livelihoods, power, and food insecurity: Adaptation of social capital portfolios in protracted crises-case study Burundi. *Disasters*, 37(2), 267–292. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7717.2012.01301.x

World at School. (2015). *Policy in Brief: The Consequences of Not Investing in Education in Emergencies.* https://b.3cdn.net/awas/fbba41fa22582d8f8d_48m6bf36u.pdf

World Bank. (2013). *Frequently asked questions on "resilience" (English)*. Education Resilience Approaches (ERA) program field notes; Issue no. 2. Washington DC; World Bank. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/884361467993742091/Frequently-asked-questions-on-resilience.

Willitts-King, B., Assomull, R., Bryant, J., Mccartney, C., Dhami, T., Llewellyn, D., & Adamczyk, S. (2019). *New financing partnerships for humanitarian impact*. Retrieved from https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12581.pdf

Wilson, E., Majewski, B., & Tebbe, K. (2015). *Walk the Talk. Review of Donors' Humanitarian Policies on Education*. Norwegian Refugee Council & Save the Children. Oslo.

Winthrop, R., & Mendenhall, M. (2006). *Education in emergencies: a critical factor in achieving the Millennium Development Goals*. The commonwealth ministers reference book.

Winthrop, R., & Matsui, E. (2013). *A new agenda for education in fragile states*. Washington, DC: Center for Universal Education at Brookings.

Wohlin, C. (2014, May). Guidelines for snowballing in systematic literature studies and a replication in software engineering. In *Proceedings of the 18th international conference on evaluation and assessment in software engineering* (pp. 1-10).

Wright, L. (2010). Education in Emergencies: Research Methodologies Identifying Successes and Gaps. Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies, Washington, DC.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview Questions

The study primarily on Education in Emergencies: Financing Trends, Challenges and Future solutions. The research is a desk study and the questions asked are meant to clarify the issues found in literature. You may add links to documents if appropriate to clarify specific questions. I would appreciate it if you could spend few minutes answering these questions. There are only 10 questions. Be assured that the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

1. What are the key sources of EiE funding?
2. How are these funding sources channeled to support EiE delivery by the various education clusters at the country level?
3. 3. What are the main challenges of these sources in terms of:
   a. Timeliness (How readily are these funds made available)
   b. Predictability (How reliable can you use these funds for long-term planning)
   c. earmarking and flexibility (Are these funds given by donors for specific purposes or can be realigned to meet the changing needs of EiE delivery).
4. Which key elements of EiE operations do these financing mechanisms focus on?
5. As it stands now, EiE interventions are underfunded, in terms of allocation and requirements. What could be the possible reasons for these shortfalls?
6. How do this funding shortfalls affect EiE interventions and the activities of the education clusters at the country level?
7. Have these new funding mechanisms (Education Cannot Wait Fund and Global Partnership for Education) to some extent helped bridge the shortfalls in funding? And Why?
8. As the Global Education Cluster (GBC), what are the
   a. strengths (What are you doing well),
   b. weaknesses (What you need to improve),
   c. opportunities (External factors that you can take advantage of)
   d. threats (External potential risks) in finding a sustainable solution to future financing of the EiE Interventions?
9. What do you think can be done to increase the mobilization of EiE funding?
10. How does the GEC ensure the quality of EiE delivery despite the persistent gaps in funding

Appendix 2: Calculating for humanitarian requirements as against funding received (Figure 3)

Year	Total funding received (US$)	Total requirements (US$)
2010	245,460,612	529,989,782
2011	136,518,374	305,981,906
2012	79,113,620	313,141,002
2013	163,274,886	408,713,386
2014	190,673,827	517,896,008
2015	196,191,125	643,385,732
2016	229,780,637	636,934,901
2017	304,645,389	825,775,680
2018	415,953,756	875,715,520
2019	456,884,201	1,052,686,835

Source: Financial Tracking Services (FTS) (Accessed on 14.04.2020)

*Appendix 3: Calculating for Humanitarian funding received as against target (4%) (Figure 4***)**

Year	Total education funding received (US$)	Total humanitarian funding (US$)	Percentage of total funding for Education
2010	245,460,612	7,255,781,618	3.4
2011	136,518,374	5,739,900,879	2.4
2012	79,113,620	5,793,963,885	1.3
2013	163,274,886	8,331,243,619	2
2014	190,673,827	11,005,229,902	1.7
2015	196,191,125	10,817,194,812	1.8
2016	229,780,637	11,929,737,872	1.9
2017	304,645,389	14,460,808,117	2.1
2018	415,953,756	15,258,091,114	2.7
2019	456,884,201	17,603,498,824	2.5

Source: Financial Tracking Services (FTS) (Accessed on 14.04.2020)

* Percentage of total funding for Education= $\frac{\text{Total education funding received (US\$)}}{\text{Total humanitarian funding (US\$)}} \boldsymbol{X\ 100}$

Appendix 4: Calculating for percentage of CAP funding received across sectors (Table 3)

Sectors	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Total for each sector	(%) of total funding
Agriculture	171,335,771	203,099,127	221,218,818	49,760,331	26,156,865	671,570,912	0.96
Camp Coordination / Management	39,693,005	53,726,649	40,895,933	50,052,308	109,566,572	293,934,467	0.42
Child Protection	5,972,174	6,810,179	14,237,840	80,834,894	101,806,933	209,662,020	0.3
Coordination and support services	215,893,423	292,630,778	351,406,394	209,515,205	214,954,397	1,284,400,197	1.83
Early Recovery	239,116,640	232,887,226	184,357,734	126,200,584	65,496,701	848,058,885	1.21
Education	196,191,125	229,780,637	304,645,389	415,953,756	456,884,201	1,603,455,108	2.29
Emergency Shelter and NFI	531,011,388	427,252,953	431,872,202	439,048,450	422,866,176	2,252,051,169	3.21
Emergency Telecommunications	33,270,261	14,305,854	44,114,944	2,871,825	5,743,271	100,306,155	0.14
Food Security	2,540,387,522	2,792,281,873	3,826,538,160	4,512,761,632	5,446,306,022	19,118,275,209	27.23
Gender Based Violence	702,210	2,517,350	3,420,587	45,637,612	62,784,197	115,061,956	0.16
Health	833,145,012	795,895,070	869,066,719	857,141,108	914,929,661	4,270,177,570	6.09
Housing, Land and Property	-	-	-	249,999	-	249,999	0.0003568
Logistics	191,750,865	123,859,261	188,849,009	220,371,110	209,963,317	934,793,562	1.33

Mine Action	12,125,759	15,917,932	57,647,019	32,896,596	47,925,954	166,513,260	0.24
Multi-sector	3,462,867,870	3,201,805,767	3,105,676,165	3,357,134,172	2,960,630,359	16,088,114,333	22.96
Nutrition	217,484,718	365,009,464	762,339,637	902,743,288	1,265,935,036	3,513,512,143	5.01
Other	-	-	-	5,619,427	1,736,244	7,355,671	0.01
Protection	292,980,590	371,972,816	426,835,196	344,349,554	528,330,394	1,964,468,550	2.8
Water Sanitation Hygiene	419,471,063	483,541,486	597,742,360	660,874,123	695,025,549	2,856,654,581	4.08
Not specified	1,393,235,113	2,300,199,801	2,273,733,406	2,209,001,576	3,017,118,883	11,193,288,779	15.97
Multiple clusters/sectors (shared)	20,560,303	16,243,649	756,210,605	735,073,564	1,049,338,092	2,577,426,213	3.68
Total for all sectors	**10,817,194,812**	**11,929,737,872**	**14,460,808,117**	**15,258,091,114**	**17,603,498,824**	**70,069,330,739**	**100**

Source: Financial Tracking Services (FTS) (Accessed on 14.04.2020

*** (%) of total funding =** $\frac{\text{Total for specific sector (US\$)}}{\text{Total for all sectors (US\$)}}$ ***X*** **100%**

Appendix 5: Calculating CERF and CBPF allocations to Education in (US$ m) (2015-2019) (Figure 5)

Year	CERF	CBPF
2015	6.9	20.3
2016	6.8	23.2
2017	8.7	29.2
2018	15.3	40.3
2019	19.3	61.5

Source: CERF (https://cerf.un.org/what-we-do/allocation-by-sector) and CBPF (Financial Tracking Services) accessed on 14.04.2020

Appendix 6: Calculating for humanitarian funding to education in DRC (Figure 6)

Year	CAP	CBPF	CERF
2015	7.4	2	2.7
2016	5	4.4	1.1
2017	4.4	4.2	1.5
2018	15.7	2.8	6
2019	13.6	5.5	4.5

Source: CAP (*Financial Tracking Services), CERF(https://cerf.un.org/what-we-do/allocation-by-country) and CBPF (https://pfbi.unocha.org/allocations-overview.html).*

Appendix 7: Calculating for development aid to education in DRC (Figure 7)

Year	Development aid to education (US$ m)
2013	90.9
2014	51.8
2015	125.9
2016	45.1
2017	70.5

Source: OCED (2019b, p164)

Appendix 8: Calculating for percentage of humanitarian finance allocated to education by top 5 donors (2015-2019) (Figure 8)

Year	United States of America (USA)	European Commission (EU)/ECHO	Norway	Japan	United Kingdom (UK)
2015	0.5	0.9	9.8	5.6	0.8
2016	0.8	2.5	2.2	2.3	0.2
2017	1	0	16.7	6.5	2.9
2018	0.9	5.5	12.8	5.5	2.3
2019	0.9	5.4	10.6	4.3	2.9

Source: Financial Tracking Services (Accessed on 01.05.2020)

Appendix 9: Calculating for the share of education funding compared to overall humanitarian funding (HRPs) in 2019, by country) (Table 5)

Country	Total Funding Requirements (US$m)	Total Funding Received (US$m)	Total education funding requirements	Total education funding received (US$m)	% of Appeal requirements covered	Education funding as a % of funding received	% of Education requirements covered
Ukraine	164,402,538	85,772,961	6,518,020	2,391,733	52.2	2.8	36.7
Syria	3,293,416,196	2,138,065,281	251,114,371	102,612,958	69.4	4.8	40.9
Iraq	701,154,139	657,180,924	35,540,043	18,741,149	93.7	2.8	52.7
Afghanistan	611,759,986	463,365,851	33,817,269	27,112,007	76	5.8	80.2
Bangladesh	919,532,129	688,954,385	59,499,950	67,329,590	74.8	9.7	113.2
Myanmar	214,360,000	183,830,115	17,580,000	7,129,957	85.8	3.9	40.6
Yemen	4,192,680,354	3,601,463,050	105,425,450	43,701,590	85.9	1.2	41.5
Libya	201,624,438	98,894,646	12,235,783	1,432,785	49	1.4	11.7
Mali	323,953,738	167,331,839	32,546,998	4,745,363	51.7	2.8	14.6
Nigeria	847,703,581	581,092,637	48,313,512	37,713,776	68.5	6.5	78.1

Chad	476,641,195	277,657,432	17,446,746	5,445,914	58.3	1.9	31.2
Cameroon	298,882,369	130,071,046	15,803,997	2,651,955	43.5	2	16.8
Central African Republic (CAR)	430,700,000	302,535,136	40,000,000	13,209,130	70.2	4.4	33
South Sudan	1,507,421,344	1,147,631,570	53,942,554	28,787,824	76.1	2.5	53.4
Ethiopia	844,548,490	640,382,743	32,600,000	5,538,252	75.8	0.86	17
Somalia	1,077,453,103	895,993,424	39,622,179	19,452,971	83.2	2.2	49.1
Burundi	106,286,557	68,778,784	1,224,500	4,626,163	64.7	6.7	377.8

Financial Tracking Services (Accessed on 06.05.2020)

(%) of appeal requirements covered= $\frac{\text{Total funding received (US\$)}}{\text{Total funding requirements (US\$)}} X\ 100\%$

***** education funding as a (%) of funding received= $\frac{\text{Total education funding received (US\$)}}{\text{Total funding received (US\$)}} X\ 100\%$

***** (%) of education requirements covered= $\frac{\text{Total education funding received (US\$)}}{\text{Total education funding requirements (US\$)}} X\ 100\%$