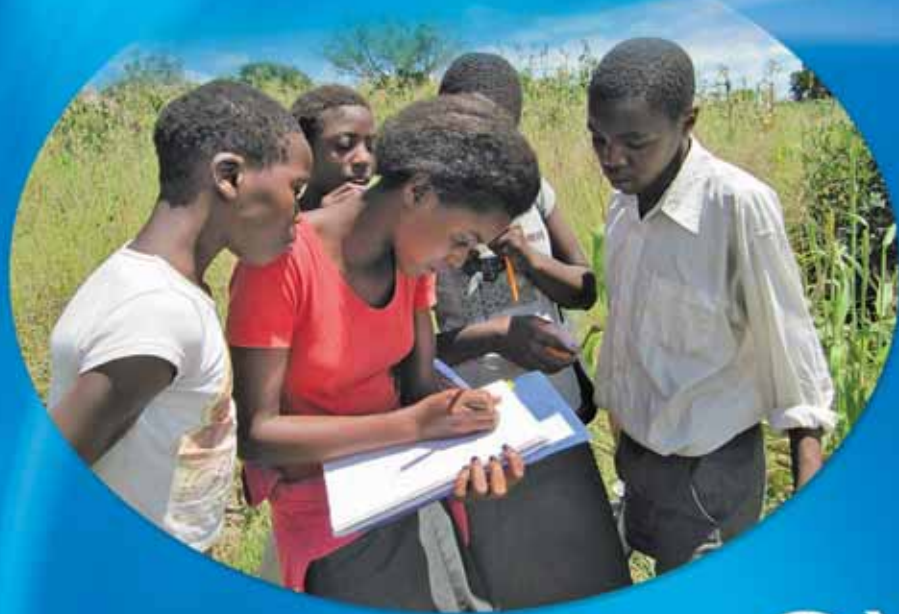




FIELD BOOKLET FOR EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE IN NAMIBIA'S EDUCATION SECTOR



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CONTENTS



ABBREVIATIONS	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
INTRODUCTION	v

Chapter 1

OVERVIEW OF DISASTER MANAGEMENT 1

Figure 1: The ISDR Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction	4
--	---

Chapter 2

RISK ASSESSMENT AND EARLY WARNING 5

2.1 Overview	5
--------------------	---

2.2 Hazards	7
-------------------	---

Table 1: Hazard classification.....	7
-------------------------------------	---

2.3 Risk assessment	15
---------------------------	----

Figure 2: Disaster risk reduction process	22
---	----

2.4 Early warning	15
-------------------------	----

Figure 3: Early warning systems framework	24
---	----

Figure 4: Regional disaster risk reduction communication flow to communities via education sector	26
--	----

Chapter 3

EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE..... 27

3.1 Overview	27
--------------------	----

3.2 Contingency planning	28
--------------------------------	----

Table 2: What school boards can do to help solve problems	30
---	----

3.3 Emergency management	32
--------------------------------	----

Table 3: Stress symptoms of learners in emergencies	38
---	----

Table 4: Learners' needs after a disaster	40
---	----

Table 5: Four INEE minimum standard categories	41
--	----



Appendix A	
INTERNATIONAL GUIDELINES	43
Appendix B	
KEY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE GUIDELINES	44
B.1 Emergency evacuation plan	44
B.2 Checklist for basic safety requirements	45
B.3 First-aid kit	46
B.4 Emergency drills and exercises	46
Appendix C	
TEACHER SUPPORT MATERIAL	47
C.1 Psychosocial support needs, strategies and activities for children and teachers following stressful events	47
C.2 Core principles for psychosocial support	49
C.3 Ways to help children cope with disasters	50
C.4 Age-specific activities for children following stressful events	52
C.5 Incident monitoring	53
C.6 Checklist of school disaster reduction and readiness	55
Appendix D	
EMERGENCY EQUIPMENT AND CONTACT LISTS	59

ABBREVIATIONS



DRM	Disaster Risk Management
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EWS	Early Warning System
GPS	Global Positioning System
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
HIPC	heavily indebted poor countries
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INEE MS	INEE Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (also known as the UNISDR)
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDRI	Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGO	non-governmental organisation
ODA	official development assistance
OECD/DAC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Development Assistance Committee
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RDRMC	Regional Disaster Risk Management Committee
RoN	Republic of Namibia
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNISDR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Programme (of UNICEF)
WCDR	World Conference on Disaster Reduction
WHO	World Health Organization

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INTRODUCTION



The *Field Booklet for Emergency Preparedness and Response in Namibia* is an abridged version of the *Namibia School Manual on Emergency Preparedness and Response* published by the Ministry of Education in 2012. This booklet, consisting of key parts of the “School Manual”, is intended to serve as a quick-reference (and easy-to-carry) guide for those tasked with emergency preparedness and response, or disaster risk management, in Namibia’s schools *and communities*.

The pilot “School Manual” was based on lessons learned from Caprivi Region (now named Zambezi Region), Namibia. Officials in all regions of the country participated in reviews to finalise the pilot version, and the published version covers the disaster risks prevalent in all regions. The manual also draws on experiences from Southern Africa at large, from similar disaster responses in Asia, and from best practices recorded by, among others, Save the Children UK, the UNICEF Eastern and Southern African Regional Office (ESARO) and Pakistan’s Ministry of Education. The international standards and technical guidelines are informed by the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR) and the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies. For more information, see “References” in the “Reference Tools” section of the “School Manual”. (For those who do not have a hard copy of the manual, a PDF is available on the MoE website.)

DRR seeks to minimise disaster risk throughout a society, preventing or limiting the impact of hazards on communities.

This field booklet, though compiled from the school-focused manual, can be utilised also in DRR fieldwork with *local communities at large*, as most of the information is generalised to benefit *any local DRR-related situation and target group*.

SOME OF THE HAZARDS THAT IMPACT NAMIBIA



FIRE



DROUGHT



FLOOD

Chapter 1

OVERVIEW OF DISASTER MANAGEMENT



Over the past few years, more attention has been given to the transition from humanitarian approaches to longer-term development and risk reduction following a natural disaster. In 1994, the Yokohama Strategy for a Safer World provided guidance on reducing disaster risk and the impact of disasters. Global effort and investment, based on the Yokohama principles, focused on disaster management with emphasis on emergency response.¹

The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) was set up to build on gaps and challenges identified in the Yokohama Strategy. It sought to coordinate approaches at local, national and international levels, with the aim of building disaster-resilient communities by promoting increased awareness of the importance of Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) as an integral component of sustainable development. To a limited extent, local communities had been involved in relief and recovery operations when it came to dealing with disasters, but they had not been involved in long-term mitigation and preparedness. The DRR approach was developed out of lessons learnt on disaster management best practices, with more emphasis increasingly placed on community training, gender-sensitive approaches and local community response training.

The importance of DRR in connection with sustainable development was highlighted after the formulation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000, and after the World Conference on Disaster Reduction held in Kobe, Japan, in January 2005. DRR is strongly linked to poverty alleviation and development, thus it has to be mainstreamed to achieve the MDGs.

¹ Most of the information in this chapter comes from the following two sources: UNISDR, "Land Use, Disaster Risks and Rewards – A Community Leader's Guide", *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2004; and UNISDR, "Land Use, Disaster Risks and Rewards – A Community Leader's Guide", *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2004.

DISASTERS LIMIT OR DESTROY DEVELOPMENT

- Destruction of physical assets and education infrastructure
- Loss of production capacity, materials and market access
- Erosion of livelihoods and savings
- Deaths, disablement or migration of a productive labour force

DEVELOPMENT CAN CAUSE DISASTER RISK

- Unsustainable development can lead to unsafe working conditions and environmental degradation.
- Development can generate inequality and promote social isolation or political exclusion.

DEVELOPMENT CAN REDUCE DISASTER RISK

- Access to safe drinking water, food and secure shelter increases resilience.
- Fair trade and technology can reduce poverty and increase social security/resilience.
- Development can enhance education and health, and broaden opportunities for participation in decision-making, recognising excluded groups.

DISASTERS CREATE DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

- Favourable environment for DRR advocacy
- Decision-makers are more willing to allocate resources after a disaster.
- Rehabilitation and reconstruction activities bring about opportunities for integrating DRR.

Disaster Management is a collective term encompassing all aspects of planning for and responding to disasters, including both pre- and post-disaster activities. It may refer to the management of both the risks and consequences of disasters. It is an overarching process that encompasses the socio-cultural, economic, political and environmental policies and practices necessary for development and Disaster Risk Reduction.

Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) focuses on what activities can be undertaken before a disaster strikes, based on a better understanding of the risks that a community faces and how to minimise the potential impact of those risks. DRR also aims to avoid the mistakes of the past by building back better after a disaster. DRR is *everybody's* business – from learners to adults, community leaders and government.

Disaster management takes place in the context of sustainable development, and its purpose is to assist communities to prepare for and reduce the impacts of unavoidable disasters (e.g. droughts, floods and epidemics). It also serves to reduce or prevent man-induced disasters (e.g. water contamination, land degradation, famine and HIV/AIDS).

Prior to the World Conference on Disaster Reduction (WCDR) in 2005, there was an increased sense that a holistic approach to disaster management was urgently needed to reduce the impact and cost of disasters worldwide. This message was amplified by the shocking impact of the 2004 tsunami. After the WCDR, this message came to be widely acknowledged throughout the world.

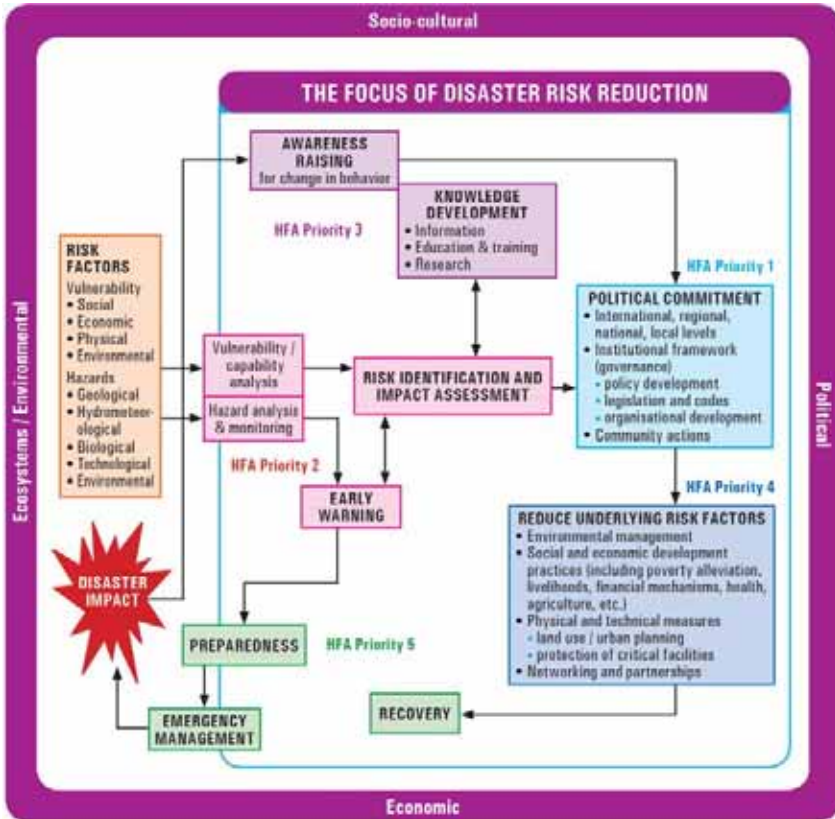
This resulted in a commitment by communities all over the world to develop resilience to disasters, through an agreement to a 10-year action plan: *The Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) 2005-2015*. The HFA is a 10-year action framework that focuses on international, national and local implementation of disaster management. It aims to substantially reduce loss of life and the social, economic and environmental impacts of disasters across nations and within communities. This will be done through emphasis on reducing risk and increasing coping capacities. (See page 47 of this Booklet for a list of the HFA priority areas of action, and pages 69-70 of the *School Manual* for a detailed summary of the HFA.)

Disaster management and risk reduction refer to how societies prepare for and absorb hazards or threats, and how they can best reconstruct afterwards. Even small impacts, especially if cumulative over short intervals, can jeopardise the prospects of poor or vulnerable families who are attempting to lift themselves out of poverty and improve their education and health levels. In addition, these people often live in environmentally vulnerable circumstances such as on the flood plains of rivers or in areas where there is very little rainfall.

Disaster management is achieved through the framework of DRR, which involves the following:

1. Building and fostering political will
2. Identifying, assessing and prioritising risk-reduction actions
3. Raising awareness and building knowledge
4. Reducing underlying vulnerability and increasing coping capacity
5. Preparedness for emergency response
6. Recovery and rehabilitation

Figure 1: The ISDR Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction



Chapter 2

RISK ASSESSMENT AND EARLY WARNING



2.1 Overview

Risk Assessment is the analysis of:

- a community's exposure to a particular hazard;
- the vulnerability of the community facing the hazard; and
- the community's ability to cope with the impact of the hazard.

A combination of factors has contributed to the vulnerability of communities in Namibia, and has hindered the ability of households to cope with disaster, hazard and disaster risk.

These contributing factors are:

- increased morbidity and mortality levels due to HIV/AIDS;
- deepening food insecurity;
- economic shocks and the erosion of household assets;
- hazards such as floods, drought and desertification which interrupt or prevent development;
- disparities in infrastructure development, especially between urban and rural areas;
- unequal access to education, health services and employment opportunities between rural and urban areas; and
- challenges facing schools and other institutions when it comes to contingency planning and effectively providing adequate social services.

These factors worsen poverty, increase the need for expenditure on social services instead of development, lower education status and increase livelihood risk. Further, resources intended for development have to be diverted to disaster response, which in turn delays development programmes.

The local community's involvement in the risk assessment process provides an opportunity for raising awareness about potential hazards. Some hazards may be familiar to a particular local community, whereas others may not be perceived as hazards.

It is important that learners are aware of all hazards facing the community because:

- they are important agents for improving safety and resilience; and
- the knowledge will protect them in an emergency.

Information about hazards and the physical, social, economic and environmental vulnerabilities to disaster should be followed by action taken on the basis of that knowledge. Knowledge of risks that communities face, and technical monitoring of hazards, are used to develop a warning system for each risk. Understandable warnings can then be disseminated to those at risk. If communities understand the warnings received and act on them accordingly, then the worst impacts of an emergency or disaster can be mitigated.



Community members feeding children in a tented camp in Zambezi Region after the floods in 2010.

THE EIGHT KEY QUESTIONS FOR ASSESSING DISASTER RISK

1. **Establish context:**
What are we trying to do?
2. **Identify risks:**
What can happen?
3. **Analyse risks:**
What effects will they have?
4. **Evaluate risks:**
Which are most important?
5. **Accept risk:**
Should we spend resources on this problem?
6. **Treat risk:**
What can we do about this problem?
7. **Monitor/review:**
Has it worked, is it still the best solution?
8. **Communicate and consult:**
Has everyone been involved?

2.2 Hazards

A hazard is a potentially damaging event of varying magnitude and frequency. If a particular hazard event leads to loss of life, significant damage, social or economic disruption or environmental degradation, then it may be declared an emergency or a disaster. Hazards can be natural (e.g. floods, droughts and wild fires) or induced by human processes (e.g. land and environmental degradation and infrastructure failures). They can be slow-onset hazards (e.g. drought and environmental degradation) or rapid-onset hazards (e.g. floods and fires).

The first step in reducing disaster risks is to identify the hazards that threaten a community, and then evaluate the vulnerabilities and/or resilience to the potential impacts of those hazards. Only then can risk reduction or mitigation strategies be developed to reduce the impacts. Education and awareness is a priority so that people can assess the risks that they face and change their behaviour to protect themselves and their communities.

The most common hazards in Namibia are droughts, floods, health epidemics, climate change, environmental degradation, livestock epidemics, wild fires and traffic accidents.

Table 1: Hazard classification

HAZARD CATEGORY		HAZARD TYPE
NATURAL	Hydro-Meteorological	Flood
		Drought
		Wild fire
	Biological	Disease epidemic
		Water-borne disease
		Insect-borne disease
		Socially communicable infection/disease
TECHNOLOGICAL	Environmental degradation	
	Famine	
	Infrastructure failure	
	Transportation accident	

This hazard classification has been adapted for the Namibian context from the UNISDR publication titled *Living With Risk: A Global Review of Disaster Reduction Initiatives* (2002). Climate change is a combination of natural and technologically-induced hazards.



Overview

Drought is the most serious natural hazard in Namibia. Drought disasters in the Namibian context entail drought conditions so intense that they cannot be dealt with by normal risk management practice, and therefore require state intervention.



Impacts

- Groundwater levels drop and surface water dries up.
- Agricultural production falls and livestock are lost, resulting in food shortage, a fall in household income and malnutrition.
- Industries servicing the agricultural sector are impacted (e.g. hydro-electrical power industry, meat processing).
- Employment opportunities in the agricultural sector decline.
- The health, education, tourism and wildlife sectors are all affected by limited access to water.
- Food prices rise.
- As a short-term coping mechanism, households may be forced to sell assets, jeopardising long-term food security.
- Environmental degradation occurs (i.e. deforestation and loss of land cover, overgrazing, soil erosion, bush and forest fires, and a reduction in biodiversity).
- Toxic chemicals build up in slow-moving or static waters, with resulting health impacts.
- Drudgery increases, mainly for women who have the task of collecting water for household use.

Mitigation and preparedness

1. **Increase reforestation:** Forests decrease run-off and erosion. Woodlots can be planted for firewood and charcoal to prevent further deforestation.
2. **Construct dams:** Rain and floodwater stored in dams can be used for irrigation and domestic purposes during drought.

² Republic of Namibia (RoN), *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008; and UNISDR, "Environmental Protection and Disaster Risk Reduction – A Community Leader's Guide", *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 2, Issue 2, 2004.

FLOODS³



Overview

The northern and north-eastern parts of the country are prone to annual seasonal floods, with the north-eastern regions of Kavango (East and West) and Zambezi experiencing an annual increase in the level of flooding since 2003. Floods occur during the rainy season starting in January/February and peaking during March through to May. They then recede until the end of July/August. Floods resulting from abnormally heavy rainfalls in localised areas have occurred in Kunene Region and the cities of Windhoek and Swakopmund.

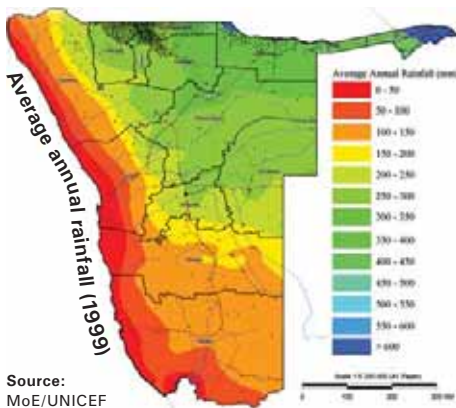
Impacts

There is evidence that floods have caused structural damage and loss of life and livelihoods with long-term affects on Namibia's development. Impacts include:

- displacement of the population;
- loss of life and livestock;
- destruction of homesteads, crops and social infrastructure;
- attacks by wildlife (i.e. elephants, hyenas, hippos, crocodiles, snakes, insects); and
- contaminated water with resulting health impacts.

Mitigation and preparedness

1. **Redesign settlements:** For example, move settlements away from flood plains or design a system for utilising flood plains in a safe manner.
2. **Improve management of drainage and flood plains.**



Flooding in northern Namibia in 2011

³ RoN, *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008; and Masozi Kachale, "Hazard Mapping for Namibia" (draft), UNISDR, UNDP & UNEP, 2009.



Overview

Although Namibia has contributed very little to global greenhouse gas emissions, the country's arid environment, recurrent drought, desertification and fragile ecosystem make it extremely vulnerable to the effects of climate change. Evidence of this is the increase in frequency and severity of hydro-meteorological events such as a change in flood pattern.



Predicted impacts

- An increase in temperatures by between 2 and 6 degrees Celsius (2-6°C) by 2100.
- A rise in the sea level of 0.3m to 1m. (Henties Bay and Swakopmund would remain less vulnerable.)
- Increases in rainfall of 30mm per year in some areas and decreases of 200mm below the current rainfall average in other areas.
- Severe impacts on natural resource sectors such as those supplying water and energy, and the agriculture and fishing sectors.
- Impacts on agriculture and livestock production systems which will pose direct threats to rural livelihoods and food security.
- In general, climate change will increase the *frequency* and *severity* of the types of natural disasters that Namibia has been experiencing.

Mitigation and preparedness

1. **Back-up water supplies:** Long-term back-up water supply options should be considered, e.g. additional wells and dams.
2. **Monitoring (Early Warning):** Expand weather station and other monitoring networks to improve Early Warning data.
3. **Research:** Climate change and climate variability research to allow for high-resolution climate impacts analysis.
4. **Effective land use and land care:** Application of conservation-based farming practices and sustainable land management.
5. **Diversification of income:** Especially in the rural community.

⁴ RoN, *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008.



Overview

Environmental degradation is caused largely by human activity, but it can also be caused by natural hazards. Environmental degradation results in the alteration – and in some cases irreparable damage – of natural processes that exist within ecosystems. The effects of environmental degradation are varied and often contribute to an increase in vulnerability, and to the frequency and intensity of impacts related to natural hydro-meteorological events.

Impacts

The effects of natural disasters such as droughts and floods are worsened by negative interventions on natural ecosystems (e.g. wetlands and forests), and on land and water resources. Negative interventions include the following:

- Deforestation, stream-bank cultivation, overgrazing, land clearance, strip-mining activities, veld fires and forest fires, all of which increase the risk of accelerated soil erosion that culminates in irreparable ecological damage.
- Soil erosion and the resultant sedimentation and loss of biodiversity are major future hazards which may produce social and economic losses of a huge magnitude in Namibia.
- Continued loss in biodiversity, which will have lasting adverse effects on the lives and livelihoods of future generations.
- Threats of environmental pollution, including –
 - *marine pollution* resulting from sewage and industrial effluent, marine litter, petroleum spills and dumped radioactive substances;
 - *fresh water pollution*; and
 - *air pollution*, primarily causing injury to marine and aquatic animals and the spread of chemicals in the environment.

Mitigation and preparedness

1. **Conserve the diversity and integrity of nature:** It is important to ensure that activities do not damage the diversity and integrity of nature, and that resources are used in a sustainable manner. An area with a thriving and diverse ecosystem is better able than a degraded environment to absorb the impact of a natural disaster.
2. **Improve land care:** Improve land care and agricultural practice.

⁵ RoN, *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008; UNISDR, “Environmental Protection and Disaster Risk Reduction – A Community Leader’s Guide”; and UNISDR, “Water and Risk in Africa – A School’s Guide”, *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 2, Issue 1, 2004.



Overview

In the past, Namibia has experienced disease outbreaks which have warranted state intervention. With the exception of HIV and AIDS, most outbreaks of human disease are seasonal. According to statistics provided by Namibia's Ministry of Health and Social Services, *malaria* remains the top cause of morbidity for school-age children, followed by *diarrhoea* and *pneumonia*.

Impacts

- Epidemic-prone diseases in Namibia include *meningococcal meningitis*, *malaria*, *dysentery* and *cholera*.
- Diseases of public health significance include *HIV/AIDS*, *schistosomiasis*, *tuberculosis*, *acute respiratory infections*, *diarrhoea*-related diseases and *hepatitis B*.
- HIV/AIDS is having a devastating impact on livelihoods, and consequently is now one of Namibia's biggest challenges in the country's quest to achieve poverty reduction and other Millennium Development Goals.

Mitigation and preparedness

1. Promote hygiene and sanitation.
2. Promote safe water use.
3. Raise awareness of risk-reduction techniques and behaviours. Examples are awareness of the need to use mosquito nets to prevent malaria and condoms to prevent HIV infection, and awareness of the need to complete courses of medication.



⁶ RoN, *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008.



Overview

Veterinary diseases posing a threat in Namibia include foot-and-mouth disease, which occurs along the borders of Namibia, and outbreaks of anthrax, rabies and lung diseases.

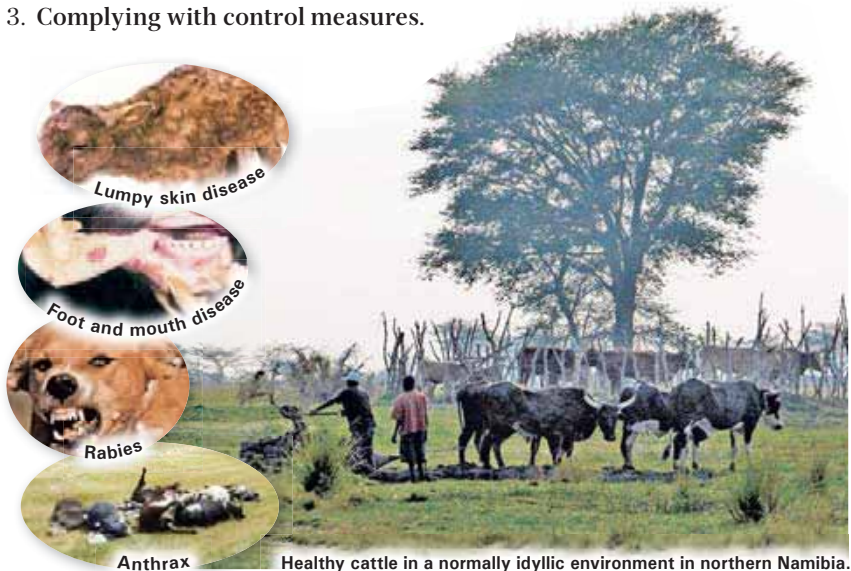
Impacts

The major impacts of livestock disease outbreaks are:

- loss of livestock;
- loss of income, especially for the exportation of meat, meat products and other livestock products due to temporary suspension of exports; and
- costs to contain disease outbreaks (i.e. quarantining of animals, vaccination and disease surveillance).

Mitigation and preparedness

1. Community awareness.
2. Reporting of disease outbreaks – to veterinary officials in their respective constituencies and regions.
3. Complying with control measures.



⁷ RoN, *National Policy for Disaster Risk Management in Namibia*, 2008; and Masozi Kachale, "Hazard Mapping for Namibia" (draft), UNISDR, UNDP & UNEP, 2009.

ROAD AND RAIL TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS



Overview

The rise in the number of commuters on Namibia's roads has contributed to an increase in accidents involving public transport. Together with potential rail traffic accidents, haulage trucks and tankers carrying hazardous materials and toxic waste are an additional cause for concern as they add serious risk for an unsuspecting public.

Impacts

Increasing road traffic deaths and injuries are globally recognised as a major public health problem. In Namibia, the impacts of road traffic accidents have included the following:

- Loss of life.
- Diversion of resources from the productive sector to cover medical expenses, funerals and insurance. (Although no definitive studies have been conducted in Namibia, global research trends suggest that the real cost of injuries is double the total claims paid out.)

Mitigation and preparedness

1. **Drive Alive Campaign:** Awareness of risks posed by drinking and driving, and driver fatigue.
2. **Good vehicle and rolling stock maintenance.**
3. **Journey preparation:** For example, emergency provisions of water, food, fuel and blankets.



Heavier-than-normal rains in Windhoek have flooded rivers and damaged roads.

2.3 Risk assessment

Risks arise from the combination of hazards and vulnerabilities at a particular location and time. The magnitude and frequency of a hazard also contribute to its scale and impact. Vulnerability and coping capacity will inform how the severity of the hazard is mitigated. Different individuals and communities exposed to the same hazard face a different risk depending on their social, economic and infrastructural weaknesses and strengths. This influences their risk perception.

Risk analysis using the UNISDR equation below encompasses the systematic and periodic update of data, tools and information to identify, map and monitor hazards and vulnerabilities and coping capacity.

UNISDR equation: **Disaster Risk = Hazard x Vulnerability/Capacity**

A **quantitative risk assessment** of the negative impacts of hazards on people and the environment can be combined with a participatory risk appraisal at the local level to address the impact of differences in people's perceptions of risks.

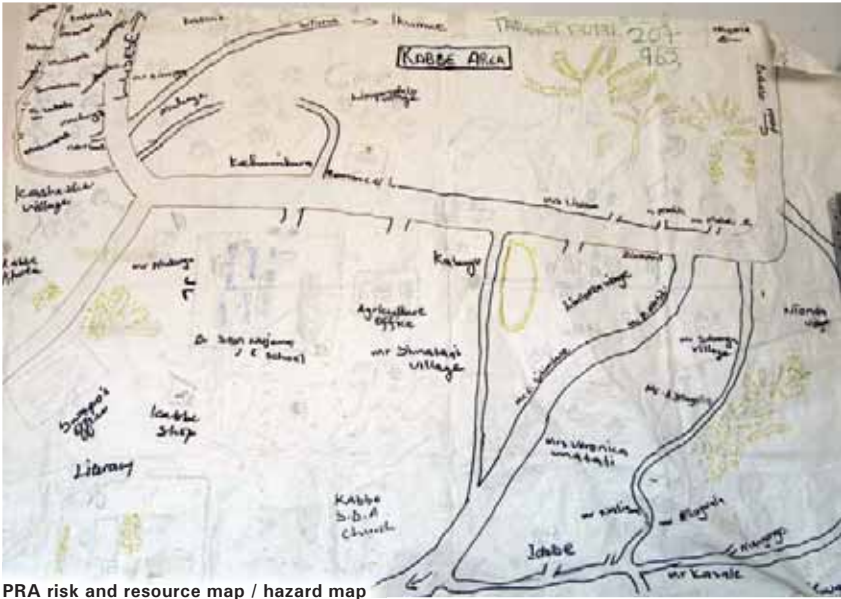
Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is a method used for documenting local knowledge and interpretation of risk. It is an opportunity for synthesising local understanding with outside approaches and perceptions. It is a technique used for identifying, mapping and monitoring hazards, vulnerability and coping capacity, and for ranking risks according to perceptions and qualitative measures.

A **risk and resource map**, or **hazard map** (see next page), shows the places where a hazard may occur, the community's vulnerabilities, and the risks and resources in the community, including capacities such as health posts, the homes of health practitioners, and warning spots. The first steps in preparing such a map are to understand and map the different hazards and the related vulnerabilities and coping capacities.

Hazard analysis includes identifying, studying and monitoring any hazard to determine its origin and characteristics, and the frequency and magnitude of occurrence. It involves collecting and analysing data that can be quantitative or qualitative.

One way to present qualitative data is a hazard map which shows the areas in and around the community that could be affected by a particular hazard, clearly marking dangerous and safe zones and escape routes. For example, the map would show unstable buildings that might be destroyed, roads that might be blocked, buildings that might be difficult to escape from, and rivers that may be impossible to cross. Areas where there is high grass in which wild animals would be an unseen danger can also be included.

These maps should be updated annually because community circumstances change constantly.



Site hazard and vulnerability assessment ●●●

A site hazard analysis generates the basis on which a Contingency Plan will be developed. It also provides for (a) an analysis of natural, technological and security hazards which are likely to occur in the area, and (b) an assessment of facilities and available resources, both material and human.

Following is a list of steps to be taken in conducting a hazard assessment.

STEPS FOR A SITE HAZARD AND VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT

1. Begin with a building and site assessment. Examine the grounds and identify potential hazards such as old foundations, slopes or embankments that could cave in or slide, and areas exposed to risk, such as low-lying and flood-prone areas.
2. Check neighbouring areas for hazardous vegetation, buildings or activities.
3. Get data and information on hazards due to earthquakes, floods, landslides, fires, windstorms, etc. from government agencies and research centres which deal with weather, geology, environment or housing.
4. Research the history of natural, technological and security hazards in the area. This information may be found at local historical clubs, libraries and emergency service agencies, and in newspaper archives.
5. Ask community members about past events (e.g. flooding) in the area. The community elders can provide an oral history of the area.
6. Perform a site hazard assessment with the assistance of the local government and experts such as geologists, seismologists, engineers and hydrologists.
7. Determine the vulnerability of people, property and the environment to the various hazards.
8. Identify which of the site's assets (i.e. people, specific facilities, buildings and other types of property) are at risk, and implement risk-reduction measures.

An assessment of vulnerabilities and coping capacity begins with conducting baseline or situational assessments of target populations to identify their knowledge, attitudes and behaviour. The data gathered should be broken down by gender, age and marginalised groups. If this assessment is being carried out for a school, then the data should emphasise the impacts on the learners at that school.

Useful information can be collected from a variety of sources. Examples of questions that should be asked are provided in the box on the next page.

QUESTIONS THAT SHOULD BE ASKED FOR ASSESSING VULNERABILITIES AND COPING CAPACITY

- **What types of disaster occur in the country, and how frequently?**
- **Which areas of the country tend to be affected by these disasters, and how frequently?**
- **Which areas have the potential to be hit by a type of disaster which they have not yet experienced?**
- **In the geographic areas identified as a risk:**
 1. Which groups of people have historically been affected or are vulnerable to disasters? Why?
 2. How many learners are there?
 3. How many learners are in schools and where are the schools?
 4. Are there learners with special needs (disabilities, learners living on the streets or migrant learners)?
 5. Are there learners who do not attend school?
 6. Are there learners living in institutions?
 7. Are there disaster preparedness or response plans for the area?
 8. Do these plans include learners and address issues that affect them?
 9. How familiar is the local community, including learners, with these plans?
- **What does the existing data on mortality, illness and injury show, and is it disaggregated by gender and age?**
- **What are the existing gaps in the policy and legislation on DRR regarding learners? Reach out to the community and other schools to identify what should be included in the policy and legislation, and how you will demonstrate this and to whom.**

Source: <http://www.savethechildren.org>

If the assessment is for a school, community commitment and involvement is essential; this is work that learners cannot undertake alone, but they can be involved in it. They can clearly identify the hazards and vulnerabilities when doing their community mapping work. They can participate in community meetings and share their knowledge and suggestions for mitigating the risks.

Training learners to undertake community assessments requires confident knowledge and skills on the part of the facilitators. The facilitators have to be able to inspire the learners and lead them to develop their own confidence to undertake thorough community research.⁸

FACILITATING AN UNDERSTANDING OF RISK ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNERS

Situation: We hear our parents discussing the weather.

The risk: After overhearing our parents' discussion, we learn that there may be heavy rain in Botswana. (*This is risk identification.*)

Will there be a great impact? Why? Yes, because we know that soon after it rains in the east, the rivers swell and flow faster. (*This is the risk assessment.*)

How likely is the risk? Why? The risk of flood is very likely because our parents have discussed the effects of rain in the east a lot.

What should we do? Leave early for school before the river comes down, take extra food in case we cannot return this evening, and look after the younger learners when we cross the river. (*This is risk management.*)

Risk assessments should be done for each relevant hazard, because risks and resources will differ depending on the hazard. For example, a building a few kilometres from the sea shore or the river bank and a few feet up the side of a hill could be a safe house in a flood, but a risk in a mudslide. In some communities it may be that the hazards are sufficiently similar for the same escape routes, resources, dangerous areas and vulnerabilities to be identified and detailed in a single risk resource map.

Risk and response mapping is the main tool used to conduct community risk assessments. The risk and resource community maps to be developed are an unusual kind of community map. The following steps can be taken to complete the map. (Note that risk maps produced with youth groups show that learners understand and can respond constructively to and communicate effectively about the risks that they recognise.)

⁸ <http://www.savethechildren.org>

STEPS FOR COMPLETING A COMMUNITY MAP

1. Draw a baseline map or community map showing basic information such as the locations of houses, public places and hazardous zones.
2. Divide the participants into groups and allocate tasks.
3. Analyse the community's previous experiences of hazards and disasters.
4. Survey the community to assess its risks and resources.
5. Discuss and analyse the information obtained, especially information on risks and resources.
6. Draw the findings onto a map of the community.
7. Cross-check the accuracy of the mapped information with experts in the community.
8. Present the map in public places in the community.
9. Use the map as a guideline for developing a preparedness plan or contingency/evacuation plan.



If a school is producing the community map, it must also do disaster risk mapping within the school campus, and the school map must cater for learners with disabilities. The map can be displayed in a prominent place within the campus for information dissemination to all learners in the school. Risk mapping is not a one-time activity. A map is best updated every six months, but at least once per year. The mapping and updating can be initiated and led by learners in the community, with 30-40% of the adults involved. Active members of women's groups, members of Constituency and Village Development Committees, local leaders, elders and others can be included in this activity.

Risk perceptions differ for each community, and each will carry out risk reduction for the hazards it prioritises. Communities in flood-prone areas, for example, might prioritise means to protect roads from flooding.



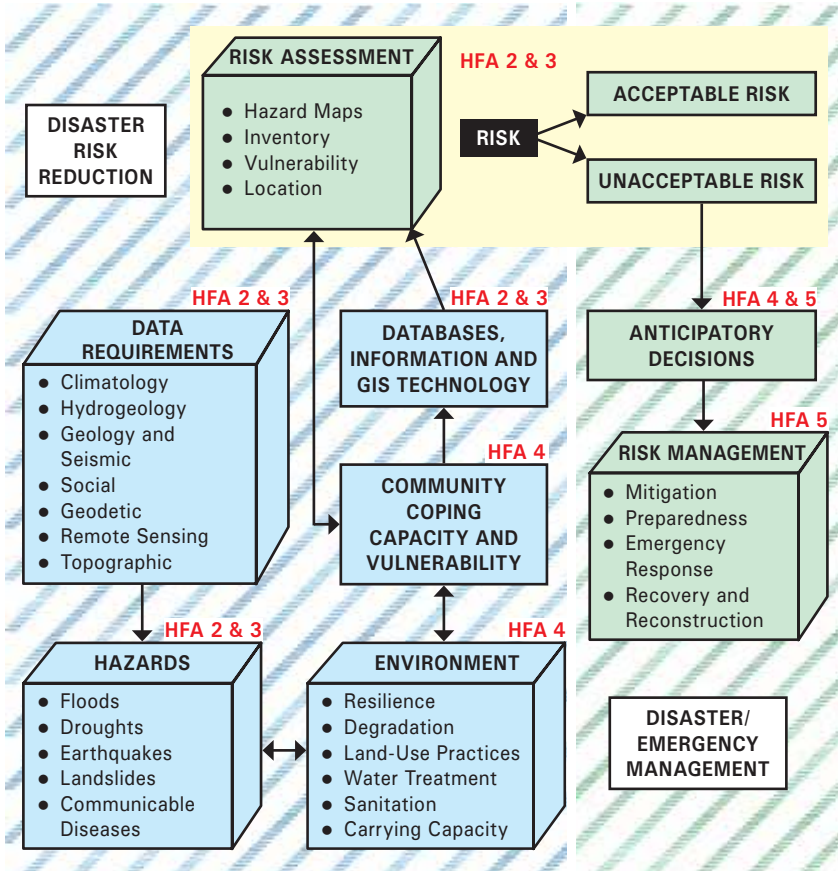
SCHOOL RISK ASSESSMENTS

A school risk assessment is more likely to reap success if the following elements are included:

- Organising a team for assessing vulnerabilities and risks, and for planning for safe and protected facilities, can bring a variety of perspectives to the assessment process.
- Ensuring that all potential hazards which might affect the school and the surrounding community are considered (e.g. areas where there is travel to and from the school and the hospital).
- Having a set of applicable assessment guidelines or checklists, performance criteria and steps for the protection of facilities and services.
- Understanding and making available an inventory of the existing resources and capabilities to prevent or mitigate the impact of a hazard.
- Surveying areas which could be affected by hazards (i.e. within the school grounds or hospital grounds and facilities).
- Surveying the population and community on their awareness and knowledge of potential hazards and vulnerabilities.
- Reporting on the findings identified in the assessment, developing corrective actions and accountabilities, and using the findings to inform and update emergency management plans.

Source: www.unesco-ipred.org/gtfdc/news/1MSSH_DRRGuide_18Mar2010-v4.pdf

Figure 2: Disaster risk reduction process



Information is crucial for disaster risk reduction.



Food gardens provide for resilience and coping.

2.4 Early warning



The development of an Early Warning System (EWS) for schools and communities in areas prone to disasters (floods, drought and famine) is particularly important. These schools and communities need to be especially responsive to early warning signals.

Once knowledge of risk has been built through mapping a hazard, vulnerability and risk, there are three key steps in developing an EWS at community level:

1. **Forecast and prediction:** Just as it is possible to predict the weather by collecting information about the atmosphere on an ongoing basis, it is possible to predict most slow-onset and rapid-onset disasters by collecting and monitoring information gathered from the environment.
2. **Using and announcing the warning:** Community leaders notify their community, the neighbouring communities and if necessary the regional government about the possible consequences of the risk identified. In the case of a slow-onset event, appropriate changes in community practices need to be considered and implemented.
3. **Reaction:** For communities to act efficiently, they need to be sufficiently impressed by the information they receive. Community leaders and the rest of the community, having been forewarned and understanding the situation they face, can implement necessary prevention or protective measures.⁹

The framework on which EWSs operate is shown in Figure 3 on the next page. Advance warning of an impending disaster gives the community time to act quickly and appropriately, for example evacuating to higher ground in the case of imminent floods. Early warning of slow-onset disasters (drought and famine) is equally important as it gives the community time to find ways to counteract the threat and introduce community support measures.¹⁰

⁹ UNISDR, "Land Use, Disaster Risks and Rewards: A Community Leader's Guide", *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2004.

¹⁰ UNISDR, "Land Use, Disaster Risks and Rewards: A School Leader's Guide", *UNISDR Africa Educational Series*, Volume 1, Issue 4, 2004.

Figure 3: Early warning systems framework



The expression “people-centred” early warning emphasises that the EWS has to recognise human needs and human behaviour, and must be developed with the participation of local women and men, schools and learners. Assessing capacity to provide the four elements of early warning is the first step in identifying areas of weakness and measures needed to fill gaps. Strategies to develop or strengthen the EWS should ensure that *all* of the elements are effective, because weakness in one element can cause the entire system to fail. There are four elements of people-centred early warning, shown on the right.

Learners play an important role in early warning. Young people can act as informants within unofficial communication networks. In communities with high poverty levels, learners already play a major role as interpreters and disseminators of messages to their own families and community. They are able to convey messages with a meaning shared by their families and friends. Message recipients generally trust information coming from children.



Children are trusted bearers of information.

THE FOUR ELEMENTS OF PEOPLE-CENTRED EARLY WARNING

RISK KNOWLEDGE

Systematically collect data and undertake risk assessments.

- Are the hazards and the vulnerabilities well known?
- What are the patterns and trends in these factors?
- Are risk maps and data widely available?

MONITORING AND WARNING SERVICE

Develop hazard monitoring and early warning services.

- Are the right parameters being monitored?
- Is there a sound scientific basis for making forecasts?
- Can accurate and timely warnings be generated?

DISSEMINATION AND COMMUNICATION

Communicate risk information and early warnings.

- Do warnings reach all of those at risk?
- Are the risks and the warnings well understood?
- Is the warning information clear and usable?

RESPONSE CAPABILITY

Build national and community response capabilities.

- Are response plans up to date and tested?
- Are the local capacities and knowledge utilised?
- Are people prepared and ready to react to warnings?

HOW TO INVOLVE LEARNERS IN EARLY WARNING SYSTEMS

It is valuable to explore the local knowledge in each community. Learners should be educated about the possible disasters and the early warning signs, and should be able to warn others both before and during a disaster. Learners could be involved as part of a more systematised process of early warning.

Learners can form an early warning group, a rescue and evacuation group, a first-aid group, etc., with training provided on the different groups' roles and responsibilities. These groups will help the other learners when disaster occurs while at school. If this idea is taken to the community, adults should be involved in these groups for better delivery of services, with the ultimate aim of reducing disaster risk within the school and within the community.

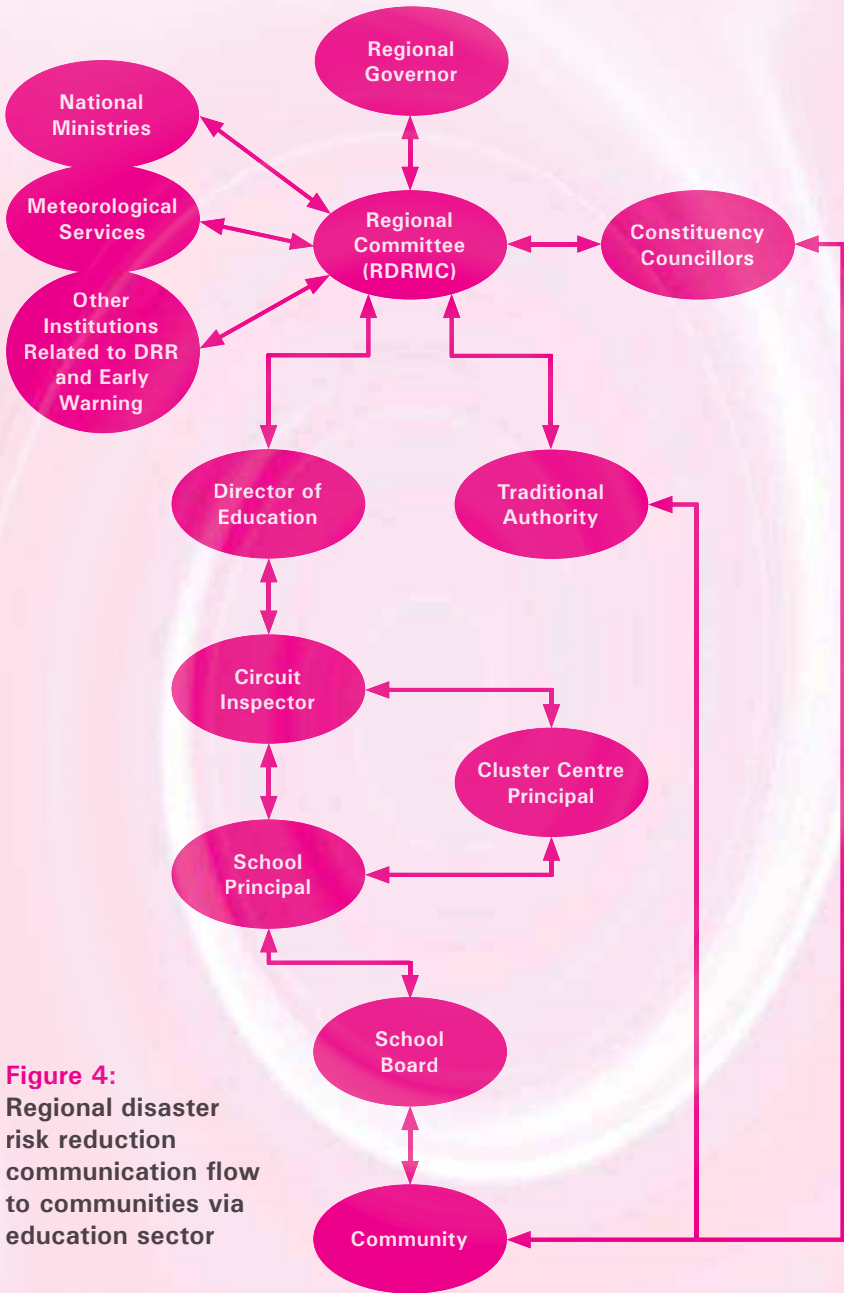


Figure 4:
 Regional disaster risk reduction communication flow to communities via education sector

Chapter 3

EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE



3.1 Overview

The task of communicating risk information relies on effective risk assessment and analysis. This task is closely linked with activities such as:

- assessing capacities;
- developing a programme to raise awareness;
- improving the dissemination of information; and
- strengthening early warning systems and the appropriate responses.

Emergency preparedness comprises all of these activities, and specifically the preparedness for response in the event of an emergency. This involves initiating activities that will help a school and community to be ready for taking appropriate actions to avoid unnecessary impacts, or the worst impacts, of a hazard. What emergencies one prepares for depends on which risks are perceived or measured to be the most frequent and/or the highest. This is often (not always) based on the results of hazard and risk mapping.

Emergency preparedness helps communities to reduce the likelihood or the severity of impact of certain disasters, particularly slow-onset disasters (e.g. drought, land degradation and consequent food scarcity and famine). Dealing proactively with identified risks results in increased community resilience and a capacity to overcome impacts on the household, school or community.

Once the political will and institutional capacity are in place, it is possible to initiate preparedness activities. For example, a low-level early warning for a flood might require packing necessary provisions for possible departure from low-lying sites, whereas a high alert of immediate impact is likely to require moving immediately to higher ground and sending requests for more boats and relief assistance.

Effective emergency response depends on the extent to which everyone prepares and cooperates in a coordinated and timely manner, avoiding duplication of effort and optimising available resources.

3.2 Contingency planning

An important element of preparedness for an emergency is the preparation of a detailed contingency plan for each level of early warning and for the actual emergency event. **A contingency plan is a document which sets out an organised and coordinated course of action to be followed in the event of a hazard, identifying who does what, how and when.** The plan should also reflect how immediate and longer-term hazards (often experienced as secondary and tertiary impacts) will be dealt with after an emergency, such as sickness due to contaminated water or food shortages escalating into famine. During an emergency, time pressure is one of the most acute problems. Having a contingency plan means that anticipated problems can be dealt with before the onset of a crisis. It provides an opportunity for identifying constraints and for focusing on operational issues before a disaster occurs.

The Namibia National Education Contingency Plan, developed by the MoE in January 2009, forms part of the National Contingency Plan for all sectors. The objectives of the MoE Contingency Plan, and the activities to prepare for an emergency under this plan, are summarised in the following two boxes.

OBJECTIVES OF THE NAMIBIA NATIONAL EDUCATION CONTINGENCY PLAN

- Ensure the safety, security, physical and psychosocial wellbeing of all learners and teachers before, during and after the emergency.
- Ensure the safety of physical infrastructure (schools, access roads, etc.).
- Minimise disruption of learning activities due to disaster.
- Ensure access to schools (education).
- Protect learning materials.

ACTIVITIES TO PREPARE FOR AN EMERGENCY UNDER THE NAMIBIA NATIONAL EDUCATION CONTINGENCY PLAN

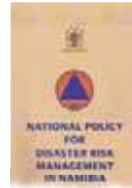
1. Risk mapping for schools and qualitative analysis of physical infrastructure
2. Simulation exercises
3. Pre-positioning of learning and emergency materials
4. Community and teacher sensitisation on early warning
5. Establishment of coordination structures for education and with other sectors and clear communication channels
6. Dissemination of the Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies
7. Development of a school manual on emergency preparedness and response
8. Development of guidelines on camping at schools



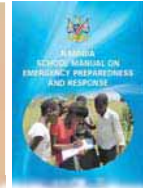
Learning materials protected



Temporary learning space set up



Policies and guidelines in place



The school boards and parent-teacher committees are the governance and management mechanisms through which the linkage and accountability to the community are manifested. They can do the following:

- Mobilise parents, learners, the local community and education staff to champion school safety.
- Prepare and implement school safety plans including measures to be taken both on the school premises and in the immediate neighbourhood. This must include regular safety drills.
- Promote active dialogue and exchange between schools and local leaders including police, civil defence, fire safety, search and rescue, medical and other emergency service providers.

School boards can also assist overburdened teachers in a number of ways, many of which can be considered in contingency planning, some examples of which are given in Table 3 on the next page.

Table 2: What school boards can do to help solve problems

PROBLEM	WHAT SCHOOL BOARDS CAN DO
Learners not attending school	Raise community awareness about the importance of education to ensure that children are enrolled in school, and raise this awareness among authorities to ensure sufficient provision of quality education facilities in rural areas.
Increase in dropouts	Raise community awareness about the importance of education, and provide support to enable families to send their children to school. One means of support is provision of scholarships for tertiary education, especially targeting vulnerable groups, to help ensure that learners enter tertiary education and complete their degree/diploma.
Insufficient number of teachers	Identify persons in the community who could act as teaching assistants for the available teachers, and advocate for the authorities to appoint additional and substitute teachers.
Not enough materials/ teaching aids	Organise the community to produce teaching aids from local materials, and to raise money for buying materials.
Traumatised learners	Train community members to identify and address trauma among learners, and to organise recreational activities and offer support to individuals.
Overburdened teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Take some responsibility for playground supervision, cleaning and maintenance of the school premises, financial management or fundraising, keeping duty rosters, collecting administrative data, conducting needs assessments, etc.• Organise field visits and excursions and help to supervise these.
Insufficient recreation and/ or co-curricular activities	Organise and supervise a range of recreational and co-curricular activities for girls and boys.
Lack of career advice and further study advice for students	Invite speakers from various professions and universities, and organise seminars and meetings with the learners.

FUNCTIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF A SCHOOL EMERGENCY AND DISASTER PREPAREDNESS COMMITTEE

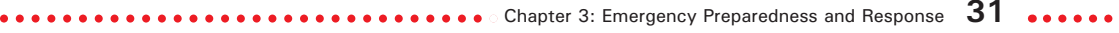
1. Develop, review and implement a School Emergency and Disaster Preparedness Plan.
2. Organise emergency brigades (fire, first aid, evacuation, etc.) and assign responsibilities to teachers and administrative staff based on individual capacities for each anticipated emergency situation. *Do not assign dangerous activities to learners.*
3. Plan, organise and conduct emergency preparedness training and drills for all learners and staff, including persons with disabilities.
4. Put in place an emergency warning system that will inform the school population of the actual or impending danger.
5. Coordinate and communicate with local authorities (police, fire station, hospital, etc.) and the parents or guardians of learners in crisis situations.
6. Integrate emergency preparedness into the curriculum.
7. Provide for procuring, storing and maintaining emergency supplies and equipment as well as programme instructional materials.
8. Provide procedures for regular maintenance.
9. Engage proactively with the local community.

Incorporating learners



The work done by learners for community assessment, awareness campaigns and identification of potential mitigation actions has to be factored into the community and local authority contingency plans. This requires opportunities to share (e.g. community meetings, visits to local authority offices and local area meetings). The benefits of bringing together the different perspectives and experiences of learners and government officials can only be for the good of the community.

Once aware of the risks, learners can be role models for their peers and take necessary precautionary measures (e.g. advising younger learners to cross a stream only if it is clear and shallow during daylight hours, organising buddy systems for crossing the river to and from school, and organising swimming clubs and sessions to raise awareness about the dangers of rivers).



A learner contingency plan is made by the learners of the school and village with the support of the teachers and community. The plan should be created in such a way that every learner is involved in preparing it and everyone can follow it. Taking into consideration the current situation and previous disasters, the plan should mitigate the impacts of and/or prevent future disasters, and it should be revised according to changes that occur. A learner contingency plan is produced in five stages, as set out in the box below.

THE FIVE STAGES OF PRODUCTION OF A LEARNER CONTINGENCY PLAN

1. Discuss what happened in the school and/or the village during the last disaster.
2. Produce a description of the school and/or the village.
3. List the things that caused damage in the disaster, and where the damage occurred.
4. Assess who is at risk and what is at risk.
5. Decide how to reduce risk.
6. Practise being prepared.

3.3 Emergency management

In the hours following a disaster, search and rescue and the provision of immediate assistance to the injured and homeless are carried out almost entirely by family members, relatives and neighbours. In the case of small-scale events, communities may be left entirely to their own devices, as there may be no external assistance available at all.

Even the most vulnerable communities possess skills, knowledge, resources and capacities. These assets are often overlooked and under-utilised, and in some cases even undermined by external actors. Therefore, it is crucial that at-risk communities are actively involved and participate directly in the design, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of emergency management activities.

Education response in emergencies is focused on meeting the actual needs of the affected population, as well as on formal schooling. The needs depend on the phases and the situation, as described in the following box.

THE THREE EMERGENCY RESPONSE PHASES AND NEEDS

1. **RESPONSE or the acute flight/displacement phase:** Crucial information/messages, warning people of risks (health, environmental, etc.), with emphasis on psychosocial and recreational elements.
2. **RECOVERY or the chronic or coping phase:** Formal and informal organised learning (i.e. if displaced, this includes messages and topics to prepare for return, and for the future, education on risk elements, peace-building and human rights).
3. **REHABILITATION or the return, reintegration and rehabilitation phase:** Rebuilding and upgrading the whole school system. Without disregarding the devastation that may have been caused to the education system, this phase should make use of the positive opportunities that may follow in the aftermath of an emergency.

The response to a natural disaster must be immediate and comprehensive, and it must demonstrate clear lines of command, with no uncertainty as to what activities should be undertaken.

In the grip of a disaster, many of the stricken communities will be in a state of shock, too weak or too hungry to think beyond their immediate needs. A community which has discussed the problem in advance will know what it needs and how to respond. It will also know when it should call for outside assistance and how to effectively manage this assistance. In slow-onset disasters, such as land degradation, the timing of assistance is often critical. Without this preparedness and the associated resilience, disaster relief can entrench dependence on international relief agencies.



MoE training on disaster risk management



Post-disaster assistance from UNICEF

WHAT TO EXPECT AND WHAT TO DO WHEN A DISASTER STRIKES A SCHOOL

- Expect to be surprised, and expect confusion.
- Assess the situation and choose the appropriate response (quickly and carefully).
- Notify appropriate emergency responders and the school crisis team.
- Evacuate and lock down the school as appropriate.
- Assess injuries and provide emergency first aid to those who need it, starting with those most urgently in need of first aid (i.e. *triage* the injuries).
- Keep supplies nearby and organised at all times.
- Trust the leadership-designated command structure.
- Communicate accurate and appropriate information.
- Activate the learner release system.
- Allow for flexibility in implementing the plan.
- Produce documentation (of financial expenditure, incidents, etc.).

Securing learners and learning space ● ● ● ● ●

The most important part of response from an educational point of view is to secure the safety of learners as per the contingency planning, and to initiate the setting up of temporary learning spaces.

The steps to be taken are as follows.



Education sector emergency response priorities: safe learners and space for learning

Coordination

- Coordinate with local education authorities, other education partners and the WASH and protection sectors (and if necessary, camp management and shelter sectors).
- If appropriate, meet with parents, leaders and the community to determine location and issues of safety.
- Coordinate with appropriate partners to ensure that learners' nutritional needs are addressed in the temporary learning spaces.

Selection of physical space

- Ensure that the site is:
 - cleared of harmful objects (e.g explosives, sharp metals and glass);
 - shaded and protected against wind, rain and dust;
 - away from main roads and distribution points;
 - away from stagnant water and polluted drainage sites;
 - away from military zones; and
 - close to the majority of learners – particularly girls and learners with disabilities.
- Provide access to sanitation and safe water services.
- Ensure storage space for school supplies and food (if a school feeding programme).
- Ensure awareness of climatic and geographical constraints (regarding reconstruction logistics).
- Ensure safe access to learning spaces if learners need to travel from home to reach them.

Provision of tents and other structures

- If no suitable structures or buildings are available, consider tents or other materials to create temporary structures. This essentially involves the supplies and logistics division, and considerations such as local procurement and staff to install tents versus external expertise.
- Advantages of 'tent schools' are that they can be stockpiled and re-used. They can also be set up quickly. Only the minimum necessary time, effort and resources should be committed to temporary emergency learning spaces.
- Use local materials or materials that can be retrieved from damaged buildings.
- If needed, ensure heating and adequate lighting.
- Demarcate a safety boundary with locally available materials.

Supplies

- Determine essential education and recreation supplies.
- Organise and start activities as soon as possible.
- Ensure that all materials are culturally appropriate and relevant to boys and girls.

Staff, preparation and support

- Recruit volunteers and provide training in play, recreation, psychosocial classroom activities and aspects of learner rights.
- Ensure that communication channels are established and accessible.
- Provide a security briefing to staff and ensure that staff know and adhere to a code of conduct.

Provision of child-friendly activities

- Conduct a variety of programmes for learners. These must be properly planned, locally appropriate, and gender and age appropriate. They should cater for all age groups, and should allow for girls and boys to play separately and together.
- Ensure a reasonable ratio of learners to facilitator. Implement double shifts, if necessary, to reduce the ratio. If possible, aim for 1 facilitator to 20 or 30 learners (or 40-50 learners if necessary). Add more facilitators for younger age groups.
- Design a structured daily schedule with a variety of activities – games, arts, other recreational activities and learning activities. Ensure that active play and quiet time are scheduled.
- If appropriate, organise separate activity stations to facilitate the variety of experiences. Learners can engage in self-directed learning and play activities. Ensure that the activities meet the learners' psychosocial needs.



A variety of activities promotes recovery.

Programming for adolescents

- Ensure access to safe spaces for adolescent activities.
- Recruit and train adolescents to supervise and lead recreational and learning activities.
- Facilitate the formation of youth clubs for sports, health, safety, music and drama activities.
- Coordinate adolescent activities with education authorities.

Recovery and rehabilitation

The emergency response does not end with the event, but continues through the cleanup and resettlement stages. The long-term economic and social implications of a disaster become evident in the post-disaster period. In this period, people will want to know what assistance will be made available, who is responsible, and how to go about finding that assistance. Disasters are an opportunity to *Build Back Better*, and there are various means for doing this (see the box below). Here we focus on psychosocial support for learners.

HOW TO *BUILD BACK BETTER*

- Bring back learners and enrol out-of-school learners, encouraging them to stay.
- Ensure equal access for all (for example, learners with disabilities, orphans, girls and boys).
- Provide psychosocial support.
- Employ teaching and learning methods for learners to express themselves.
- Ensure quality education, including disaster prevention.
- Develop disaster-resistant, safe and accessible schools.
- Enhance the capacities of education planners and managers.

Teachers cannot be psychologists, but they can play a critical role in the trauma healing process and in the emotional adjustment of the learners. It is important to preserve and promote the mental health of the learners during and after an emergency.

During a disaster and when recovering from it, teachers and other adults are needed to help deal with learners' stress while also dealing with their own stress. This is not an easy role to play. There is a risk of increasing learners' trauma, especially when learners see teachers/adults responding in a disorganised, confused or anxious manner. If a teacher/adult feels overwhelmed or irritable, it is best to simply help the child to understand why. It is important, however, for teachers/adults to take care of themselves and seek assistance if needed.

After a disaster, a number of learners may require specialised intervention due to loss, trauma or unresolved grief. Teachers and other adults must be

able to recognise the most vulnerable learners, and refer them for special help (e.g. to a medical doctor, traditional healer, mental health professional or other appropriate service provider.) These learners should, however, be included in the structured, normalising activities and education opportunities.

The most vulnerable groups are learners with special needs, disabilities or health impairments; those affected by abuse, discrimination or exploitation; orphans and those affected by HIV and AIDS; minority learners; those in remote, rural areas or urban slums; and girls. Learners who face a combination of these factors are at an even higher risk of discrimination, physical and psychological violence, exploitation and abuse. It has been statistically proven that learners who are not in the care of their parents or other responsible adults are more vulnerable and less protected against criminal actions, especially sex-based violence.

Learners may experience one or more stress symptoms during emergencies, depending on their age group. Table 4 outlines some of these symptoms.

Table 3: Stress symptoms of learners in emergencies

AGE	POSSIBLE SYMPTOMS
Very young (0-5 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anxious clinging to caregivers • Temper tantrums • Fear of going to sleep • Nightmares and night terrors • Excessive fear of real or imagined things (e.g. thunder or monsters)
Young (6-12 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor concentration, restlessness or bad behaviour at school • Anxious behaviour (e.g. hyperactivity, stuttering or eating problems) • Psychosomatic complaints (e.g. headaches or stomach pains) • Behavioural change (e.g. becoming aggressive or withdrawn and passive) • Sleeping problems • Regression (i.e. acting like a younger child)
Adolescent (13-16 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-destructiveness and rebelliousness (e.g. drug-taking or stealing) • Withdrawal (e.g. being cautious of others and fearful of the future) • Anxiety and nervousness • Psychosomatic complaints (e.g. headaches or stomach pains)

Psychosocial interventions should:

- reconnect learners with their family members, friends and neighbours;
- foster social connection and interaction;
- normalise daily life;
- promote a sense of competence and restore the learner's control over his or her life; and
- allow for expression of grief within a trusted environment, when the learner is ready to express grief and follow-up is guaranteed.

It is important to observe learners closely for symptoms of stress and signs of re-enactment (play, drawing). Interrupt any activities which are upsetting or traumatising for learners. Learners need reassurance that they are cared for and given choices in order to maintain a sense of control.

There are age-specific activities that can be used to engage learners following stressful events. For pre-schoolers and elementary school learners, drawing pictures and telling upbeat stories are important tools, and play or creating a play (e.g. a puppet show about a disaster with a happy ending), and games about recovery or community service projects, also work well. Middle-school students (Grades 6-12) respond well to activities such as art, music, dance, essays, poetry and making videos. Group discussions about the future and school and community projects are also effective for the latter two age groups.

Other ways to help learners to cope with disaster include talking, providing age-appropriate information, listening and making them feel that they are heard by discussing their thoughts and feelings, thereby reducing confusion and anxiety. Also, routine gives learners a sense of security. Regular exercise and play help to relieve tension, especially in younger learners who may more easily share their feelings through non-verbal activities.



Psychosocial interventions should relieve tension and foster interaction and connectedness.

Table 4: Learners' needs after a disaster

NEEDS	POSSIBLE INTERVENTIONS
A sense of belonging	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Establish an education structure where learners feel included.• Promote the restoration of cultural/traditional practices of learner care whenever possible.
Relationships with peers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provide a dependable, interactive routine through school or other organised educational activity.• Offer group and team activities (sports, drama, etc.) which require cooperation and dependence on one another.
Personal attachments	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Enlist teachers who can form appropriate caring relationships with learners.• Provide opportunities for social integration and unity by teaching and showing respect for all cultural values, regardless of differing backgrounds.
Intellectual stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Enhance learner development by providing a variety of educational experiences.

Minimum standards for education ● ● ● ● ● ●

After a disaster, food and water insecurity, malnutrition, parasitic infections, unhygienic surroundings, poverty, etc. can wreak havoc on a learner's right to attend and complete school.

The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) is a global network of over 100 organisations working to ensure the right to education in emergencies and post-crisis reconstruction. For this, they have devised the *INEE Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies* (INEE MS).

Standards particularly relevant for disasters include the following:

- Emergency-affected community members actively participate in assessing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the education programme.
- A timely education assessment of the emergency situation is conducted in a holistic and participatory manner.
- All relevant stakeholders regularly monitor the activities of the education response and the evolving education needs of the affected population.

Table 6 shows the four INEE minimum standards. Common to all categories is the utilisation of local resources when applying the standards.

Table 5: Four INEE minimum standard categories

CATEGORIES	STANDARDS
Learning Environment	Partnerships to promote access to learning opportunities as well as inter-sectoral linkages with health, water and sanitation, food aid and shelter, to enhance security and physical, cognitive and psychological wellbeing.
Teaching and Learning	Critical elements that promote effective teaching and learning: 1. Curriculum 2. Training 3. Instruction 4. Assessment Culturally, socially and linguistically relevant curricula provide formal and non-formal education, as appropriate to the particular emergency situation.
Teachers and Other Educational Personnel	Administration and managing human resources in the field of education. This includes recruitment and selection of staff, their conditions of service, supervision and support.
Education and Policy Coordination	Policy formulation and enactment, planning and implementation, and coordination.





Appendix A

INTERNATIONAL GUIDELINES



Yokohama Guiding Principles

The Yokohama Guiding Principles can be found on page 65 of the *Namibia School Manual on Emergency Preparedness and Response*.

Millennium Development Goals

An overview of the MDGs and Indicators can be found on pages 66-68 of the “School Manual”.

Hyogo Framework for Action

A summary of the HFA can be found on pages 69-70 of the “School Manual”.



Appendix B

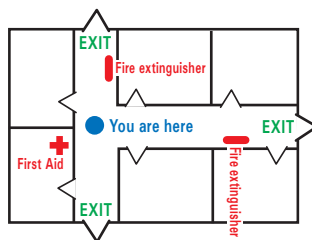
KEY PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE GUIDELINES



B.1 Emergency evacuation plan

Identifying the evacuation assembly area and the evacuation route is critical in a School Emergency and Disaster Preparedness Plan.

An **Evacuation Route Map** showing the site and neighbourhood with identified evacuation routes and locations should be posted in strategic and conspicuous places – preferably in each room with the room marked on the map.



- Depending on the hazard, the school should identify safe evacuation areas:
 - Open areas for earthquake and fire.
 - Shelter for windstorms, typhoons and cyclones.
 - Higher ground for tsunami and flood.
- Evacuation routes should avoid potentially hazardous conditions and elements:
 - Avoid routes where objects (e.g. toppled cabinets, broken glass, fallen trees or cut electrical wires) may fall and obstruct passage.
 - Avoid flooded areas.
 - Avoid storage areas of combustible or hazardous chemicals.
- Simple rules for building evacuation:
 - Do not push.
 - Do not run.
 - Do not talk.
 - Do not go back.

B.2 Checklist for basic safety requirements

SAFETY FEATURES	✓	✗
Water suitable for food preparation, drinking, personal hygiene and cleaning is available.		
Adequate lighting in all areas of the building and surroundings is provided.		
A manual fire alarm system is in place.		
Fire extinguishers are found in corridors and exit routes.		
Fire extinguishers are found at the entrances of high-risk rooms such as laboratories.		
Floors are clean and non-slippery.		
Floors are without splinters and holes.		
Corridors are wide and spacious.		
Corridors are free from obstructions, especially in an emergency.		
Roofing materials are completely and securely fastened and leak-proof.		
Room doors can always be opened from the inside for emergency exit purposes.		
Stairways have safe and adequately secured railings.		
Electrical wires and cables are properly fastened and secured.		
Doors are securely attached to jambs.		
There are secured entrance and exit points.		
Combustible and hazardous chemicals and gases are safely and appropriately located.		
Hazardous materials/chemicals are properly segregated and stored.		
Functional electrical and emergency lights with battery backup are located in all critical areas.		
Regular emergency drills (e.g. fire and earthquake drills) are conducted.		
Proper exit markings are provided to assist people who are not familiar with the locations of exits or emergency exits.		
Emergency evacuation maps are posted in critical areas.		
Periodic inspection, repair and maintenance of facilities and surroundings are done.		

B.3 First-aid kit

A well-stocked first-aid kit is a handy thing to have. To be prepared for an emergency, keep a first-aid kit ready always. Whether you buy one or put one together yourself, make sure it has all the items you might need, such as medications, emergency phone numbers, and other items which your healthcare provider may suggest – but also ensure that it is light enough for to carry should you need to evacuate. Check the kit regularly. Make sure that the flashlight batteries work. Check expiration dates and replace any used or out-of-date contents. *Remember to take the kit with you if you have to evacuate.*

B.4 Emergency drills and exercises

- Emergency drills and exercises should be conducted regularly in schools to develop the learners' capacity to respond to a disaster, and to raise the learners' and staff members' awareness of disaster mitigation. Drills offer the opportunity to identify training needs, establish new reflexes, and teach through action and repetition.
- Various drills can be conducted in schools, depending on the hazard. After each drill, an evaluation should be made to determine any lapses in the drill. Following is a list of drills which are appropriate for both sudden disasters (e.g. earthquake, tsunami) and early warning situations:
 - Drop, cover and hold (for earthquake).
 - Building evacuation and evacuation assembly (for fire or earthquake).
 - Reading maps showing emergency exits and evacuation routes.
 - Putting on life jackets and practising water safety (for flood or tsunami).
 - Moving to higher ground (for flood).
 - Taking shelter (for windstorm).
 - Using the fire extinguisher and extinguishing small fires.
 - Stop, drop and roll (when on fire).
 - Shelter-in-place (for some hazardous materials release and violence).
 - Administering mass casualty non-medical triage and first aid.
 - Protocols for learner release.
 - Emergency communications.
 - Assisting the disabled during emergencies.
 - Public relations, communications and documentation.
 - Relief operations.
 - Conducting light search and rescue.

Appendix C

TEACHER SUPPORT MATERIAL



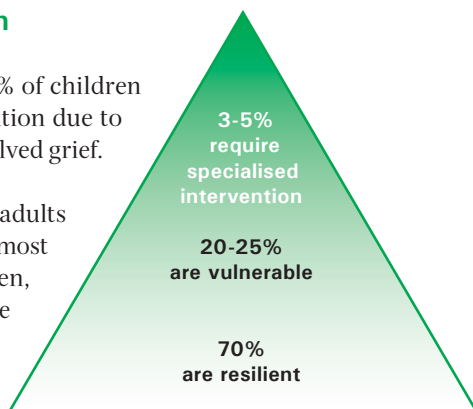
C.1 Psychosocial support needs, strategies and activities for children and teachers following stressful events

Helping vulnerable children

Background: Approximately 3-5% of children may require specialised intervention due to suffering losses, trauma or unresolved grief.

What to do? Teachers and other adults need to know how to recognise the most vulnerable (least resilient) children, and refer them for special assistance (i.e. to medical doctors, traditional healers, mental health professionals or other appropriate service providers.) As much

as possible, these children should be included in all structured, normalising activities and education opportunities organised for the other children.



Ways for teachers to cope with stress

“You will never become so good at taking care of yourself that you lead a stress-free life. However, there is much you can do to help alleviate stress reactions. No single technique will relieve all your stress, but paying attention to the following three areas of self-care may build up your hardiness (your ability to handle more stress with less distress) and your resilience (your ability to ‘bounce back’ after particularly stressful or traumatic events).”

– Headington Institute

PHYSICAL	EMOTIONAL AND RELATIONAL	SPIRITUAL
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regular exercise • Sufficient sleep • Healthy eating • Drinking enough water • Humour and laughter • Limited alcohol consumption • Pilates or yoga • Relaxation techniques (e.g. progressive muscle relaxation, diaphragmatic breathing, visualisation and meditation) • Massage, whirlpool, sauna • Repetitive activities (e.g. cross-stitching, walking, quilting, drawing, cooking) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurturing relationships • Contact with home/ friends through email, phone, tapes • Talking • Humour • Ongoing support group • Reflection (e.g. journaling, writing, meditating, poetry) • Creative activity (e.g. drawing, sculpting, cooking, painting, photography) • Movies, books, music • Having balanced priorities • Understanding traumatic stress and having realistic expectations • Counselling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowing your values: where do you tend to find meaning and purpose in life? • Participating in a community of meaning and purpose • Regular times of prayer, reading and meditation • Spiritually meaningful conversations • Singing or listening to meaningful music • Contact with religious leaders or inspiring individuals • Time with art, nature or music • Solitude

C.2 Core principles for psychosocial support

Human rights and equity

Humanitarian actors should promote the human rights of all affected persons, and protect individuals and groups who are at heightened risk of human rights violations. Humanitarian actors should also promote equity and non-discrimination.

Participation

Humanitarian action should maximise the participation of local affected populations in the humanitarian response. In most emergency situations, significant numbers of people exhibit sufficient resilience to participate in relief and reconstruction efforts.

Do no harm

Work on mental health and psychosocial support has the potential to cause harm because it deals with highly sensitive issues. Humanitarian actors may reduce the risk of harm in various ways, such as:

- participating in coordination groups to learn from others and to minimise duplication and gaps in response;
- designing interventions on the basis of sufficient information;
- committing to evaluation, openness to scrutiny and external review;
- developing cultural sensitivity and competence in the areas in which they intervene/work; and
- developing an understanding of, and consistently reflecting on, universal human rights, power relations between outsiders and emergency-affected people, and the value of participatory approaches.

Building on available resources and capacities

All affected groups have assets or resources that support mental health and psychosocial wellbeing. A key principle, even in the early stages of an emergency, is building local capacities, supporting self-help and strengthening the resources already present. Externally driven and implemented programmes often lead to inappropriate mental health and psychosocial support, and frequently have limited sustainability. Where possible, it is important to build both government and civil society capacities.

Integrated support systems

Activities and programming should be integrated as far as possible. The proliferation of stand-alone services, such as those dealing only with rape survivors or only with people with a specific diagnosis, can create a highly fragmented care system.

Multi-layered support

In emergencies, people are affected in different ways and require different kinds of support. A key to organising mental health and psychosocial support is to develop a layered system of complementary kinds of support that meets the needs of different groups.

Source: www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/content/products

C.3 Ways to help children cope with disasters

Talk

Provide children with age-appropriate information. Honesty and openness will help the child to develop trust.

Listen

Listening – while being careful not to avoid or over-react – and providing comfort will have a critical and long-lasting positive effect on the child.

Discuss

Encourage children to speak with you and with one another. This helps to reduce their confusion and anxiety related to the trauma. Respond to questions in terms which they can comprehend.

Provide a consistent, predictable pattern as much as possible

It is helpful to try to keep regular schedules for activities in school as well as for eating, playing and going to bed, to help restore a sense of security and normalcy for children. Make sure that the child knows the pattern. When the day includes new or different activities, tell the child beforehand and explain why this day's pattern is different.

Provide play experiences to help relieve tension

Younger children in particular may find it easier to share their ideas and feelings about the event through non-verbal activities such as drawing.

Physical exercise

Physical exercise helps to maintain a sort of psycho-physical balance. Exercise tones both the nervous system and the muscular system. The chemical reactions that take place in the body after physical exercise act as a “happy drug”. Physical exercise helps to lift the spirits during times of grieving and sadness.

Protect

Do not hesitate to interrupt or stop activities which are upsetting or traumatising for the child. If you observe increased symptoms in a child that occur in a certain situation or following exposure to certain activities and so forth, avoid these activities. Try to restructure or limit activities that cause an escalation of symptoms in the traumatised child.

Support

Reassure children repeatedly that you care about them and that you understand their fears and concerns. Give the children choices and some sense of control. Providing hugs is important – in an appropriate context.

Observe

Watch children closely for signs of re-enactment (e.g. in play, drawing or behaviours), avoidance (e.g. being withdrawn, daydreaming or avoiding other children) and physiological hyper-reactivity (e.g. anxiety, sleep problems or impulsivity). Try to comfort and be tolerant of the child’s emotional and behavioural problems (which will probably wax and wane, sometimes for no apparent reason). Try to identify patterns in the behaviour. By identifying triggers, you may be able to help the child to develop self-soothing abilities.

Take care of yourself

By remembering to take care of yourself, you will be better equipped to help your loved ones, and they will learn from and be comforted by your example. This is not an act of selfishness, especially if it enables you to continue to love and care for your family in healthy, positive ways.

C.4 Age-specific activities for children following stressful events

PRESCHOOLERS	ELEMENTARY (Grades K-5)	MIDDLE/JUNIOR HIGH TO HIGH SCHOOL (Grades 6-12)
Draw a picture.	Draw a picture.	Art, music, dance
Tell a story.	Tell a story.	Stories, essays, poetry
Colouring books about disaster and loss	Books about friendship, families, animals – upbeat and joyful stories.	Books (including poetry) about friendship and adventure.
Doll, toy play	Create a play or puppet show about a disaster – but if it has a sad ending, <u>never</u> let the child leave without further discussions, and always end on a positive note.	Create a play or puppet show – but if it has a sad ending, <u>never</u> let the child leave without further discussions, and always end on a positive note.
Group games	Create a game about disaster recovery or disaster preparedness and partnerships.	Group discussions about disaster preparedness or disaster recovery and partnerships
Talks about disaster safety and self-protection	School study or community service projects	School projects on health or natural and social sciences; and community service projects
Colouring books about happy family times	Ask the children to create a play or puppet show about positive outcomes after a disaster – or simply “happy times” with friends and family.	Group discussions about what the learners would like to do/be when they grow up

C.5 Incident monitoring

The aim of incident monitoring is to record an incident or an event to enable effective and timely protection intervention, referral and follow-up, ideally with the help of an adequate case management system. Incident monitoring can also facilitate the tracking of protection incidents, assist in the oversight and evaluation of protection interventions and responses, and generate some statistical data for reporting and advocacy (providing that nominative data is not released). Incident monitoring is relatively time and resource intensive, and requires a high level of protection and information technology skills. The table below shows the minimum information that should be gathered for incident monitoring.

THEME	DATA NEEDED
General	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Date, location and filing/reference number (GPS coordinates, if possible). • Information about the organisation/individual conducting the assessment (coded)
Victim	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information about the victim (name, contact details, <u>consent for intervention</u>)
Witnesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information about the witnesses (name, contact details, consent)
Perpetrator(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information about the alleged perpetrator(s), including both identity and affiliation
Incident	Includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legal classification of incident (what legal provisions may have been violated) • Short narrative summary (for sharing) • Detailed narrative account (confidential)
Response	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consent of the victim/survivor and his/her family, as appropriate • Intervention strategy • Intervention type (legal, mediation, advocacy, referral, etc.) • Documentation and tracking of interventions and subsequent follow-up
Status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status of the case

What would be required in Namibia for incident monitoring?

- Consider developing tools, including forms and software, with high privacy, confidentiality and security features.
- Consider developing guidelines on methodology and standard operating procedures, including guidelines on topics such as interviewing privacy and confidentiality, victim/witness protection, data security, storage and sharing, and adequate intervention, referral and response.
- Consider compatibility with Namibian laws on protection of personal data.

Source: UNHCR Guidance Note on Protection Monitoring (accessed at <http://www.humanitarianreform.org>).

C.6 Checklist of school disaster reduction and readiness

ACTION STEPS	
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Convene a local school safety committee representing the school management and staff, the learners and their parents, and the local community. 2. Study the school safety planning and action steps below together. 3. As needed, assign sub-groups or individuals to be responsible for investigating and making recommendations for each task. 4. Create a plan based on task-group recommendations. 5. Implement the plan, involving the whole school community, setting milestones and taking action steps to achieve risk reduction and response preparedness. 6. Communicate and coordinate as needed with education authorities using the resources and support available, and advising them of resource and support needs. 7. Review and revise the plan as necessary, at least annually. 8. Be sure to keep all staff, parents/guardians and learners advised about the plan.
✓/X	ASSESSMENT AND PLANNING
	An ongoing school safety committee has been established to lead disaster risk reduction and disaster response planning in our school. We hold regular meetings (including staff, parents/guardians, learners and local community leaders) to develop and review our mitigation, preparedness and response plans.
	We have learnt about local resources and assets (first-aid kits fire extinguishers, people with response skills, ladders, search and rescue equipment, etc.) available in the community from nearby private and public sources, and we have discussed the shared use of post-disaster resources.
	We have researched and considered all of the different hazards that could affect us. We are aware of the needs of vulnerable groups or individuals such as young children, learners with disabilities, and language minorities, as well as the concerns of staff, learners, parents/guardians and the community.

Table continues ►

	We have site and neighbourhood maps, and we have identified alternative staging and evacuation locations.
	We have assessed and are addressing physical risks posed by buildings, building non-structural elements and building contents, and hazards in our neighbourhood.
	We have evacuation plans, including safe assembly areas, evacuation routes, safe havens and alternatives, and a buddy system. Learner transportation systems include plans to take learners to the nearest safe school in case of a disaster during learner commute. Parents/guardians are informed of the locations of all possible safe havens for reunification. The evacuation plans have been shared with all of the necessary and nearest emergency officials, and we have established communication and understanding in advance of emergency situations.
	We have established a communication system for emergencies, including a warning system wherever appropriate. All necessary contact information is available for emergency response and family reunification.
	We have established learner release procedures to ensure that children are released only to adults approved by parents/guardians.
	If needed, we have planned to provide emergency shelter for our local community.
	We have a plan for educational continuity for our learners, including alternative locations for continuing classes, alternative schedules and methods of instruction as needed, and secure backup of educational records.
	We have plans and regular contact with local news media (e.g. radio and newspapers) to communicate planning and emergency messages to families, and to use our school-based activities to promote risk reduction community-wide.
	We provide significant practical local disaster risk awareness and reduction activity at all age levels, through school-based activities and projects and/or through the formal curriculum.
	We encourage staff and learners to prepare for disasters at home, and provide support materials for doing so.

✓/X	PHYSICAL PROTECTION
	Our building is designed and built according to current building codes/safety standards for disaster safety, and is inspected by someone knowledgeable on building structure.
	If accessible, the building has been checked by the local fire department for fire safety.
	If our school required repair or retrofit, this was completed with minimal disruption to education.
	We practise preventative maintenance on our buildings, protecting them from damp and other damage, and repairing damage when it occurs.
	Earthquake, windstorm: We have fastened tall and heavy furniture, and secured hazardous materials, supplies, propane gas tanks, water tanks, lighting fixtures, roof elements, railings and parapets, heating and cooling devices, storage tanks and other items that could kill, injure, or impair educational continuity. We have put latches on cabinets, and hung pictures securely on closed hooks to protect ourselves from injury and losses.
	Flood, storm, tornado: We know about early warning systems in use in our community, and have plans to respond to these in order to move people and assets to safety.
	We have all necessary equipment for fire preparedness and prevention (e.g. smoke detectors, fire alarms, fire hoses, fire extinguishers and automatic emergency lighting). Equipment is also maintained. Our building exit routes are marked.
	We have limited, isolated and secured any hazardous materials to prevent spill or release.
	We have off-site backup of critical information, including learner emergency contacts and release permissions.
	If available, school transportation is inspected for safety and drivers and learners are trained in respective safety skills. Transportation safety measures are advocated and promoted (e.g. seat belts, helmets).

✓/X	RESPONSE CAPACITY – SUPPLIES AND SKILLS
	<p>We have guidelines for and we hold post-disaster drills to practice safety skills with all staff and Learners at least twice a year. We have a buddy system for those needing help. We follow basic building evacuation rules: “Don’t talk. Don’t run. Don’t push. Don’t go back.” We hold simulation exercises at least once a year where teams practise response organisation and other necessary emergency procedures (e.g. skills in damage assessment, information-sharing, light search and rescue, first aid, fire suppression and family reunification). We discuss and improve on our practice.</p>
	<p>We have skills and practise building evacuation drills twice yearly, and applicable drills for the threats faced (e.g. first-aid skills for life safety, drop, cover, and hold for earthquakes, water safety and swimming skills for floods, and shelter-in-place for violent threats).</p>
	<p>We have access to reliable external information sources on disasters, and to an internal communication system. We have practised receiving updates on emergency situations, warning our community and informing the relevant authorities.</p>
	<p>School staff and older learners have learnt response skills, including first aid, mass casualty triage, light search and rescue, fire suppression, cellphone communication, psychological first aid, emergency power operation, learner release procedures, shelter, nutrition and sanitation skills.</p>
	<p>School staff know how to turn off our electricity, water and gas.</p>
	<p>We have a standard organisational system and know the principles for organising post-disaster self-help.</p>
	<p>We have identified resources for psychosocial support if needed.</p>
	<p>We have plans to use our resources for mutual aid and to support local community response.</p>

Appendix D

EMERGENCY EQUIPMENT AND CONTACT LISTS



Each emergency responder should keep a personal up-to-date inventory of available emergency equipment and a list of emergency contacts. The following tables provide guidance for compiling these important lists. (If you want, you can fill in these tables so that you have this information at hand in your field Booklet.)

EMERGENCY EQUIPMENT	✓/X	LOCATION / CONTACT
Communications equipment (radio, telephone, cellphone)		
First-aid supplies		
Firefighting equipment		
Lighting (torch, paraffin lamp, hurricane lamp, etc.)		
Classroom emergency kits		
Food stocks		
Water supplies		
Blankets		
Maintenance supplies		
Tools		

CONTACTS	NAME	PHONE/FAX/EMAIL
Community Contacts		
Traditional Leadership		
School		
School Emergency Committee Member		
Chair of School Board		
Namibian Police		
Community Development Committee		
Local Clinic/Hospital		
Regional Contacts		
Regional Governor / Chief Regional Officer		
Regional Emergency Management Unit		
Constituency Office		
Circuit Inspector		
Teacher Resource Centre		
Cluster Principal		
Health Services		
School Contacts		
Chair of School Board		
Chair of Emergency Committee		
Principal		
Assistant Principal		
Heads of Department		
School Nurse		
Parents / Learners		



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