Analysis of Peru's Education Policy for Internally Displaced Persons

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

APRODEH	Association for Human Rights in Perú
CR	Reparations Council
CMAN	High Level Multisectoral Commission
CNDDHH	National Coordinator for Human Rights
CONAVIP	National Coordinator for Organization of Victims of Political Violence in Perú
INEI	National Institute of Statistics and Information
INADE	National Institute for Development
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Center
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICTJ	International Center for Transitional Justice
IBE	Intercultural Bilingual Education
LAC	Latin American and Caribbean
MIMP	Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations
MINEDU	Peruvian Ministry of Education
MIMDES	Ministry of Women and Social Development
MENANDES	National Committee for the Displaced
MRTA	Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation
PAR	Program for the Support of Repopulation
PIR	Comprehensive Reparations Program
RADI	National Register for Displaced Persons
RUV	Unique Registry of Victims
RND	National Registry for Displaced Persons
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
SRAIDP	System of Registration and Accreditation of Internally Displaced Persons
SICRECE	Consultation System of Testing Results
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Note: Cover photo adapted from the Ministry of Education, 2016

Statistics-at-a-Glance

295,000	Internally displaced persons
95%	IDPs living in rural areas
20 years	Average duration of displacement
72.9%	Rural students enrolled in secondary school
11.2%	Rural students in primary school reach satisfactory readings skills
12.1%	Rural students in primary school reach satisfactory math skills
2.0%	Rural students in secondary school reach satisfactory reading skills
2.5%	Rural students in secondary school reach satisfactory math skills
6 %	Students in public school achieve satisfactory reading skills
24 %	Students in private school achieve satisfactory reading skills
< 20%	Public schools in good condition
23, 256	Out-of-school children
1,342, 343	Illiterate population of age 15+
3.92%	GDP spent on education

Source: ECE 2016;UNESCO 2015, 2016; World Bank 2016; OECD 2017

INTRODUCTION

Nearly two decades have passed since the formal end of the warfare between the Peruvian government and insurgency groups such as Shining Path and the Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement (MRTA). However, the effects of displacement on rural and indigenous communities remain salient to date. Throughout the years, the Peruvian government has adopted international standards on internal displacement and has introduced a plethora of preventative and restorative laws that help victims and protect vulnerable populations. Yet, reports indicate that these policies have hitherto produced substandard results in terms of education quality, living conditions and economic growth. In part due to the lack of pedagogy and psychosocial support, but also due to a lack of accountability, protracted poverty and child labor.

Purpose of the Policy Study

In February of 2017, Peru experienced a series of heavy rain, landslides and floods that affected 1,718,331 people, more than 400,000 of whom were children, by mid-May (United Nations, cited in Reliefweb, 2018). Despite the various efforts by international actors and national bodies, these events displaced 295,000 people—marking the worst wave of displacement since the guerilla warfare (GRID, 2018). In light of recent events, it is imperative that we revisit government efforts put forth to aid internally displaced persons (IDPs).

In particular, we should examine education policy for internally displaced persons as provisions have proven vital in paving a path forward for affected communities. Indeed,

Text Box 1: Definition

Internally Displaced Person: Person(s) forced to flee their homes to "avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border."

Source: UN's Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement

education in emergencies is considered a lifeline during and after displacement (UNICEF 2009, 2011). Education not only provides stability and structure, but also psychosocial support and soft and technical training (Dryden-Peterson, 2011). In turn, these teachings present and inspire a path toward sustainable development.

Therefore, this report examines education policy for internally displaced persons, the extent to which these were effective—considering access to education and literacy rates—and any social and institutional barriers that obstruct learning.

Methodology and Organization of the Report

To inform my study, I've conducted desktop research and an extensive literature review from publicly available sources. I've gathered both qualitative and quantitative data on internal displacement and incorporated findings from the Ministry of Education in Peru, the Norwegian Refugee Council, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Center, and the World Bank among other primary and secondary sources. I've also translated legal documents that were not be available in English, and have included summarized versions in Appendices A through C.

The report will follow a standard format of narration albeit divided into two parts. The first section describes the history of displacement in Peru and provides a synthesis of victim demographic, key figures and the effects of displacement. I introduce international standards on internal displacement and delineate related national policy and state programmes. The second part of the report provides an overview of the education system in Peru, highlights discrepancies in literacy rates between rural and urban populations and describes two education programs pertinent to internally displaced persons (i.e. TVET and IBE). This section presents unique statistics only available through the Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations (MIMP) in Peru. It examines social and systemic barriers for teachers and students and institutional norms that attenuate and obstruct learning. Finally, the section explores targeted policy options, provides a rendering of pros and cons and concludes with a disclaimer on research limitations.

PART I: BACKGROUND

1. Brief History of Internal Displacement

Sociopolitical tensions date back to the 1960's when indigenous and rural communities were exploited and treated as second-class citizens (Garcia, 2005). This led to the coup d'état of 1968, when acting general Juan Velasco raided the office of the president and declared martial law (ibid). Shortly after, Velasco introduced language, education and agriculture reforms that turned the tide in favor of non-urban communities. In 1975, however, Morales Bermudez deposed Velasco out of office and ostensibly returned power to civilian rule. He also restored the partisan dogma and social hierarchy of the years prior to the Velasco administration (Correa, 2013). Moreover, Bermudez abated environmental standards and introduced radical land reforms limiting the property rights of rural, peasant and indigenous communities (Amnesty International, 2018). These events precipitated the rise of Maoist[1] insurgents throughout the highland and the Amazons. The internal upheaval carried through to the 1990's, when Alberto Fujimori entered the presidency and, via executive decree, countered the threat with a "death squads" maneuver, an act later condemned as an egregious violation of human rights (Correa, 2013, p.3). In 1993, the government captured the head of Shining Path[2], Abimael Guzmán, which halted the warfare and discouraged continued disruption (Garcia, 2010).

a. Victim Demographic

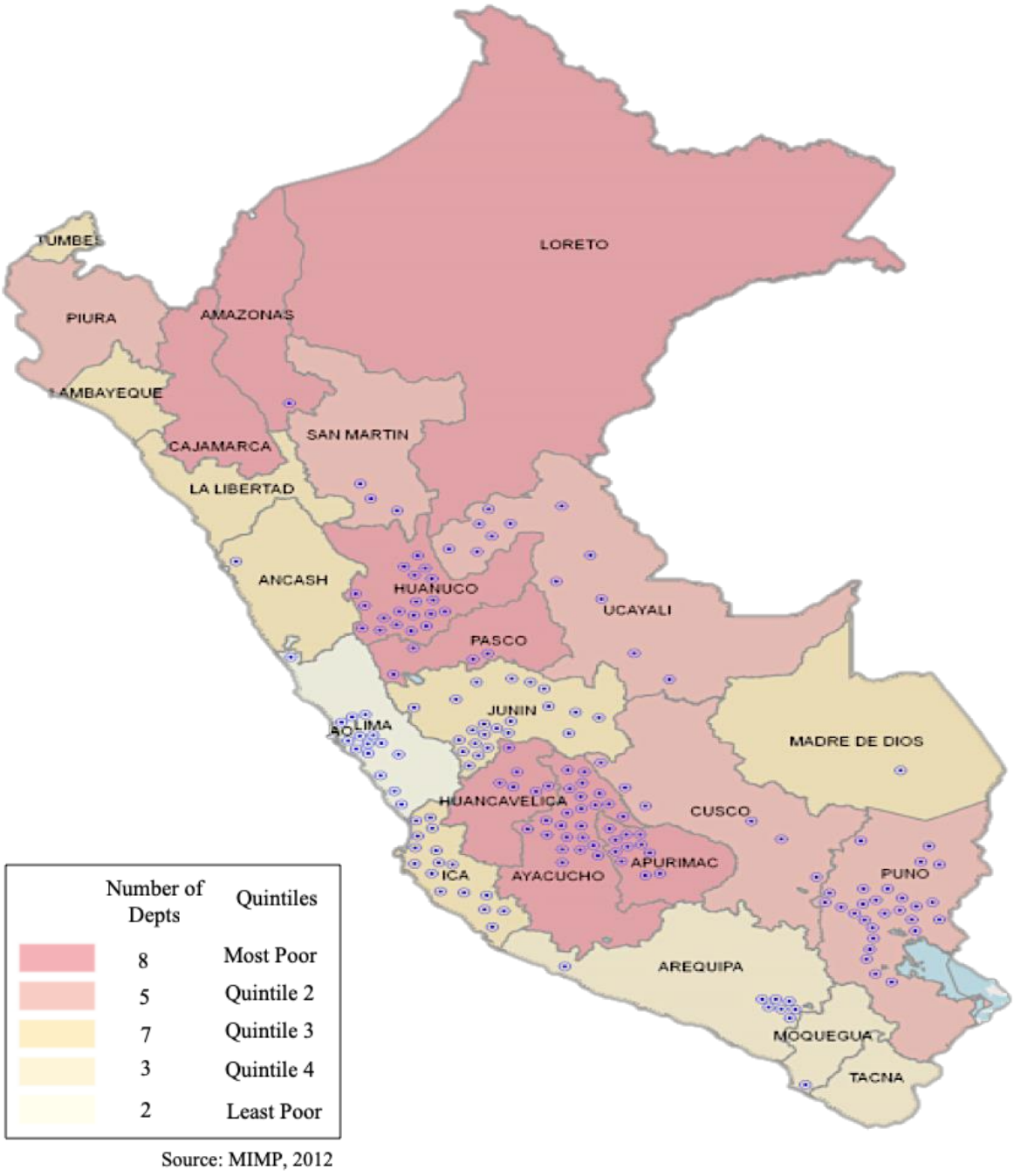
It is estimated that more than a million people were displaced over the years, 70% of whom were rural, indigenous and ethnolinguistic minorities (ICTJ, 2012). In fact, the majority of internally displaced persons (IDPs) spoke either Quechua or Ashaninka instead of Spanish, the widely spoken lingua franca (MIMP, 2012). Further, the Norwegian Refuge Council reports that communities fled primarily due to "loss of family member (approximately 69,000 casualties), fear and

[1] Influenced by Marxism, Mao Zedong led China's communist revolution in 1949 which purportedly propelled economic growth and social development (Stuart Schram, n.d.). Maoism became a renowned philosophy that views peasants "not as a class incapable of achieving political consciousness, but one with a dormant but tappable source of revolutionary energy" (ibid, para 3)

[2] Shining Path (or *Sendero Luminoso*) was "a Maoist faction of the Peruvian Communist Party that began its armed struggle against the Peruvian government in 1980" (Blake, 2017, para 1)

threat, forced resettlement, and general insecurity" (NRC, 2004, p.19-20). The majority sought shelter and resettled in rural areas ranked as the 'most poor' in the country (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Zones of Resettlement



Source: MIMP, 2012

By 2001, “54.8% of the (affected) population lived in poverty, and 24.4% in extreme poverty” (NRC, 2004, p.51). In 2004, "17 years after displacement…one third of the IDPs that settled in Lima (about 200,000)…still lived in shacks" (ibid, p. 53-54). While in Loreto, "between 50-60% of the residents of the Belen community had no access to water and sanitation services, as a result infant mortality rate was 4.9%" (ibid, p. 52). Moreover, IDPs often lacked electricity, access to services and proper documentation (NRC, 2004). In May of 2012, the National Register for Displaced Persons (RADI) reported that ‘45,000 heads of family’ requested accreditation of displaced status in order to claim government benefits (MIMP, 2012). The majority of applicants ranged from 37 to 64 years old (ibid).

The same year, MIMP published an analysis of the linguistic differences within the displaced community; they accounted for 113,226 people in total, a figure that included heads of family, relatives and children (MIMP, 2012, p.10). Finally, without a clear description of the age range between the additional 68,226 displaced persons, we're left to presume that among them were school-aged children and adolescent

- ## The Special Case of Women

Women played a pivotal role after displacement, often serving as the sole providers of emotional and economic support in their families. That is, the internal conflict left many women without husbands and fathers, either by death or disappearance, which abruptly forced them to take charge (MIMP, 2012). Many of these women were victims of sexual assault and rape, and some even bore children as a result (ibid). Despite these horrific experiences, women were active members in the reparations process and their efforts culminated into the creation of the Ministry of Women and Social Development (MIMDES), a government agency tasked with social inclusion programming (The World Bank, 2013).

In 2012, MIMP published a report on the status of internally displaced women. The document reveals that:

- 62.6% of the affected population were women
- 68.5% of these women requested psychological support
- 41.1% of women completed primary education
- 22.2% of women were uneducated
- More than 30% of the women worked in agriculture, and 53.8% were involved in peddling (working as sellers) or had undefined jobs.
- 54% of women's housing was made from clay (i.e. adobe) and ‘tapia’
- 38.7% of women do not have access to tap water at home; they use truck water, wells and rivers
- 65.9% don't have access to hygiene services at home; and
- 31.7% don't have electricity at home

b. Effects of Displacements

Displaced persons experienced a myriad of challenges during and after displacement. In an immersive study by Alejandro Diaz, he found that at the individual level, people experienced "psychological trauma, culture shock, unstable legal status, discrimination and abuse, deprivation (of resources), loss and deterioration of goods and capital" (Diaz, as cited in ICTJ, 2012, p.13). At the collective level, communities experienced "destruction of public infrastructure, destabilization and disappearance of traditional government structures and leadership, internal conflict within townships…(and) deterioration of cultural heritage" (ibid p.13-14).

In 2003, the Program for the Support of Repopulation (PAR) carried out workshops in various resettlement districts to get an

impression of what affected communities needed. Many revealed feeling "traumatized" and needing psychological support (PAR, as cited in ICTJ, 2012, p.13). Others demanded justice, pleading for the incarceration of Shining Path leaders. For the most part, parents requested economic support, and access to clean water and sanitation (ibid). In terms of education, ICTJ/Brookings writes:

> "Insofar as their children had often not been able to receive a good education (because rural education services are poor, there is no infrastructure, and teachers are not properly trained), participants requested full scholarships or exemption from college and university tuition fees." (ibid, p.14)

These remarks are notable for our discussion of educational provisions and literacy rates among the displaced in later sections. Moreover, they confirm our earlier assumption that children of primary, secondary, and/or tertiary age were included in the bulk number of displaced persons provided by MIMP.

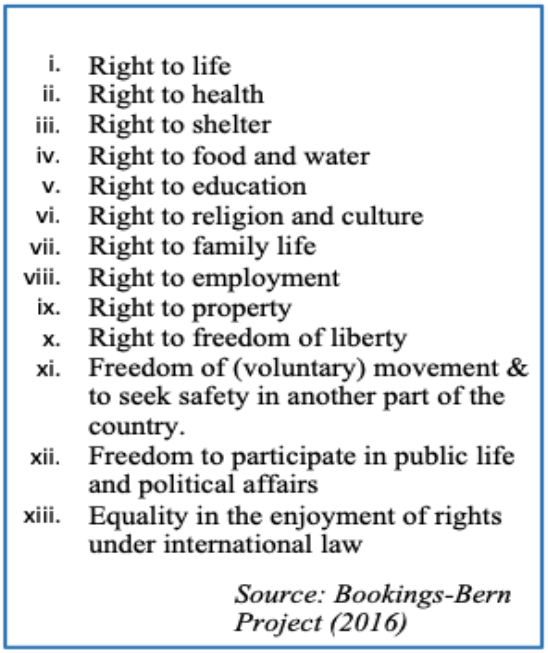
2. International Standards

In 1948, the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), a historic document outlining a person's basic human rights. Although the document was not legally binding, it inspired specific international treaties and covenants which shaped the humanitarian standards and legal code of civility around the world.

As years went by, the global trends shifted—the number of internally displaced persons reached a new record high. Specifically, UNHCR reports that as of 2017, there were 25.4 million refugees around the world and 40 million internally displaced persons (UNHCR, 2017). With the rise of IDPs worldwide, the United Nations drafted a booklet to elucidate the rights allotted to persons displaced within their own country. The document, titled the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement,* has been referenced in various national and international legal instruments since its publication in 1988 (Forced Migration Review, 2008).

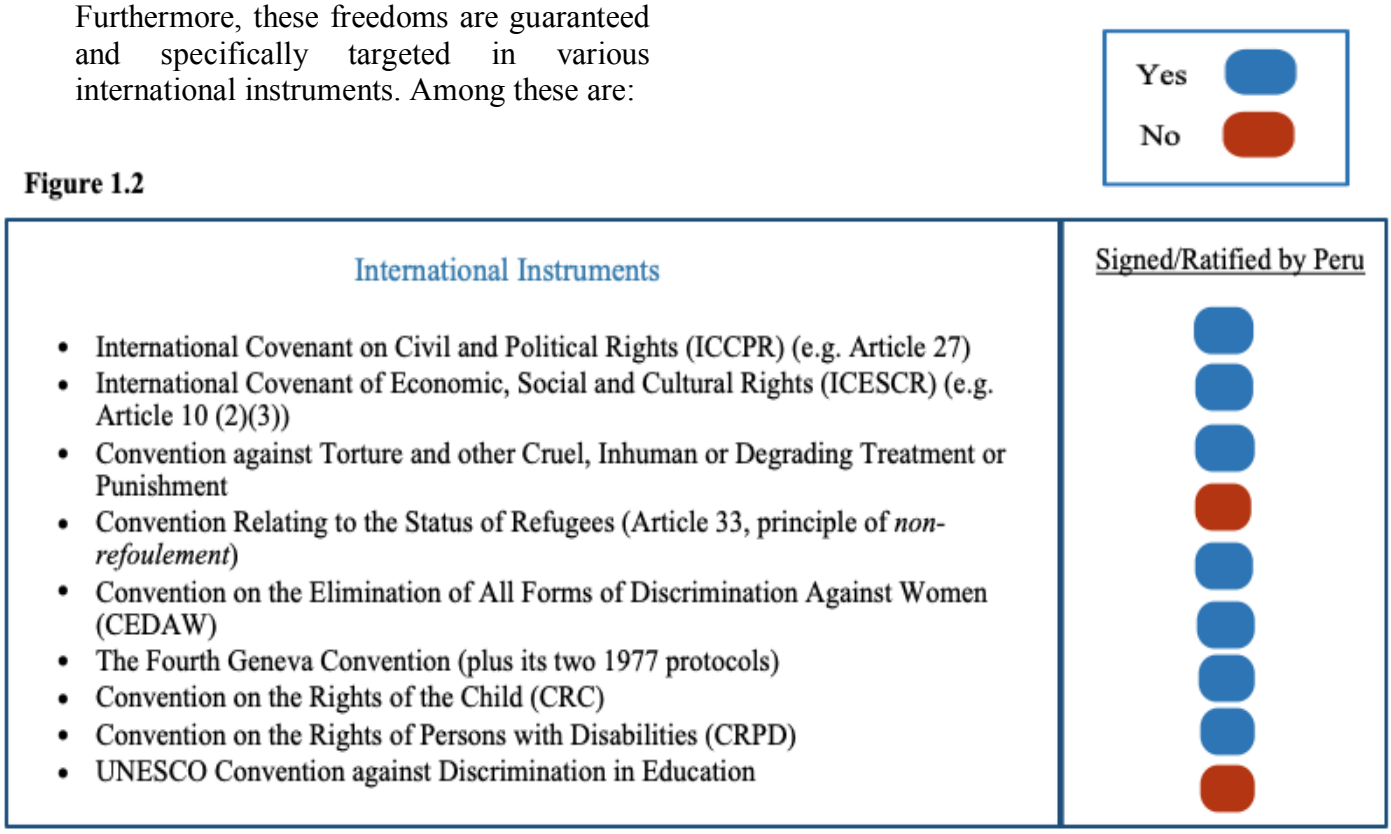
In an effort to consolidate the rights ascribed by the instruments aforementioned, I've adapted essential freedoms mentioned in chapter two of the 2016 report by Bookings-Bern project on internal displacement. Figure 1.1 underscores some of the basic human rights of internally displaced persons:

Figure 1.1



Furthermore, these freedoms are guaranteed and specifically targeted in various international instruments. Among these are:

Figure 1.2



The treaties mentioned in Figure 1.2 affirm the rights of IDPs irrespective of "race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status." (ICCPR, cited in Bookings-Bern Project, 2016, p.14). That is, they posit that all persons are equal before the law and are thus entitled to equal legal protection.

3. National Policy

As a member of the United Nations, Peru has voluntarily signed and ratified *some* of the international conventions into national law (as shown above). The government has also opted from signing certain treaties out of fear that they challenge or undermine the sovereignty of the state (Granda, 2000). In 2004, president Alejandro Toledo adopted the UN guiding principles on internal displacement and officially recognized the special status of internally displaced persons in terms of legal status, education rights, housing conditions and access to services (NRC, 2004). The law also reflects principles from the United Nations' Human Rights Commissions and from the Economic and Social Council's Governing Principles Concerning Internal Displacement (Refworld, 2004).

Figure 1.3 presents key articles from *Law 28223: Concerning Internal Displacement*, signed by the president of Peru in 2004.

Figure 1.3: Law 28223-Law Concerning Internal Displacement

Article 1: Official Recognition of displaced status and their rights during and after displacement. **Article 2**: Adapted the UN's definition of internal displacement, which underscores forced displacement due to conflict or natural disasters. **Article 3:** Displaced persons are allotted the same rights recognized by international and national law as other citizens, and they're not to be discriminated against. **Article 4**: National authorities are obliged to provide humanitarian assistant to IDPs; the State must request help from international organizations when needed.	**Article 5:** Right to equality, without distinction of race, color, sex, age, ability, religion or political opinion. **Article 7:** Right to protection against arbitrary displacement, such as in cases of large scale projects which are not justified by a higher public interest. **Article 9:** The state is obliged to protect Andean indigenous people, ethnic minorities and other groups that have a dependency to their land. **Article 10:** Humanitarian assistance is administered without discrimination, and for up to 6 months. MIMDES is in charge of authorizing and supervising humanitarian aid.	**Article 13:** Authorities shall create spaces for dialogue, negotiation and support, favoring civil society. **Article 14:** Authorities are obliged to provide conditions conducive to the safe and voluntary return or resettlement of IDPs, and to involve them in the planning and execution when possible. **Article 15:** Organized return should include selection of returnees, set up of a health program prior, provide psychological aid prior, promotion of human rights, continuation of education, technical assistance for agriculture, and integration of development programs **Article 16:** Rapid and unimpeded access to international actors providing support to IDPs	**Article 17:** IDPs have a right to all public services; state entities are obliged to assist IDPs recuperate lost assets when possible. **Article 18:** The national police and armed forces must guarantee security to IDPs during and after displacement. Persons with disabilities are considered on a priority basis. **Article 21**: MIMDES shall advise, train and care for the displaced, according to their budget and with the cooperation of other state entities; it may charge one of its internal offices or decentralized public agencies with these functions. **Article 23**: MIMDES will create a consolidated registry of the displaced which provide services to the displaced. The authorities in charge of collecting this data include the Regional Government, the Municipalities, and the Office of the Public Defender.

Source: Adapted from Refworld, 2004

Related laws

Law 28592: Creates the Integral Reparations Plan (PIR)

- The law creates the norms of PIR, a reparations programs for victims of the violence that occurred from May 1980 to November 2000 in compliance with the conclusions and recommendations of TRC.

Source: Ley 28592, 2006 [My translation]

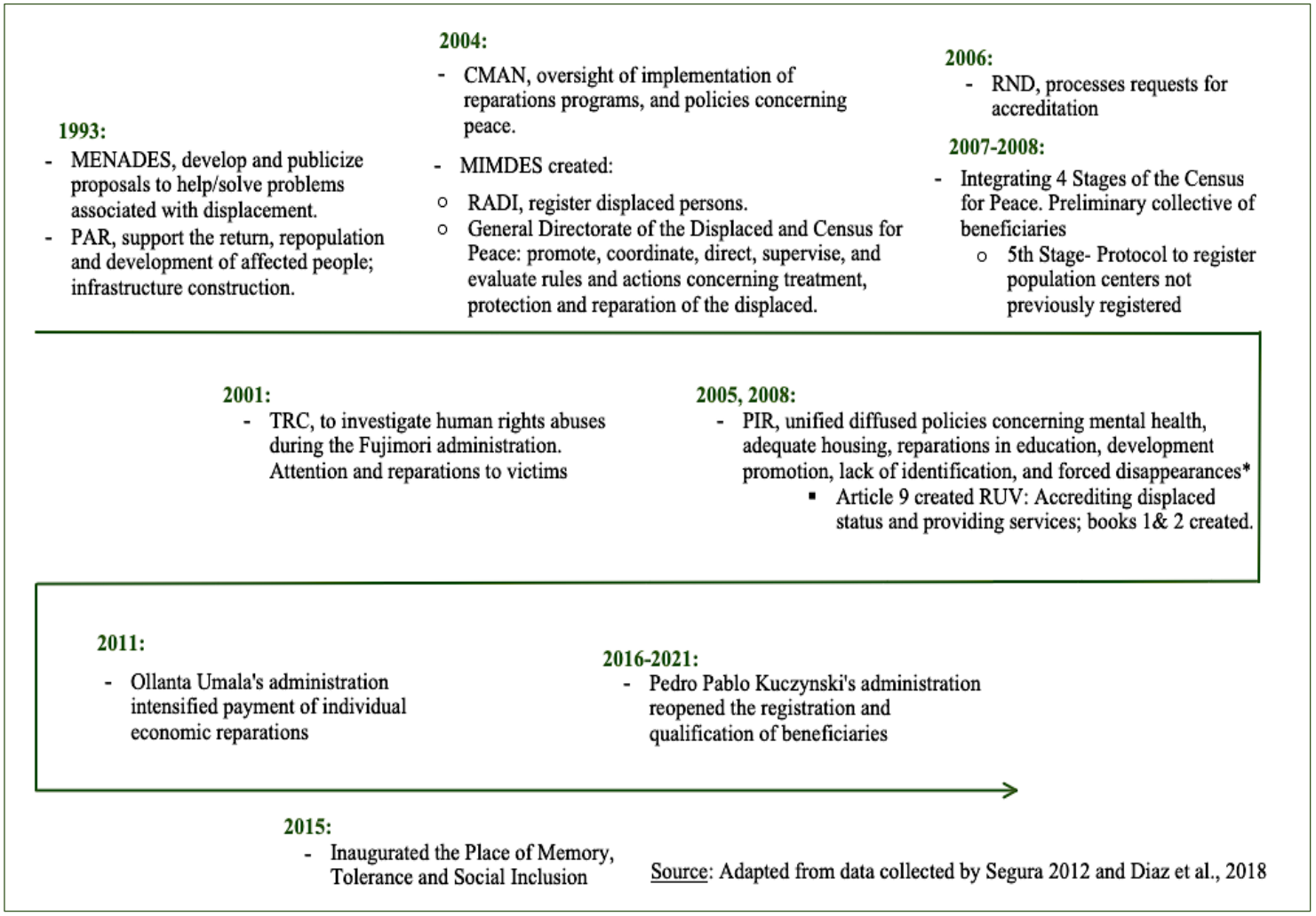
Law 28413: Regulates the Absence Caused by Forced Separation during the period of 1980-2000

- The law enables relatives of absent persons (persons that disappeared as a result of forced displacement) and persons with legitimate interests the necessary tools to access the recognition of their rights (i.e. related benefits)

Source: Ley 28413, 2004 [My translation]

a. State Programs

These laws have been applied over the years and have been amended to reflect developments discovered through trial and error. Below, I draw out a timeline of the actions taken by the state to address internal displacement. I start from 1993, the capture of the insurgent's leader, and continue until the current term of the Kuczynski administration in Peru.



b. Registration

The Reparations Council (CR) was an institution created to register all victims of violence, which included victims of forced displacement—a form of violence regarded as a human rights violation by the state (ICTJ, 2012). However, since the adoption of the Law on Internal Displacement, various programs have been put forth to categorically create a database of displaced persons, such as RADI, RUV and the Census for Peace, and by various actors, including CR, PIR, MIMDES and the Ombudsman (ibid).

Moreover, each registry used different indicators of forced displacement; for instance, some accepted lack of documentation, testimonials and relocation as valid indicators, while others rendered the status to victims of death and sexual assault (ibid). As a result, the data showed vast disparities, subsequently delaying the allocation of resources and hindering necessary reparations. Today, RADI is the sole entity in charge of registering families while CR solely "registers individuals;" the collected information is ultimately handed over to the RUV (ibid, p.11).

As mentioned, the Comprehensive Reparations Program (PIR) under law 28592 was created to unify diffused government policies on internal displacement. However, studies show minimal improvement in both living and learning conditions for IDPs. Primarily because of a lack of implementation, which is often ensued by "delays in the process, fluctuations in the budget, the clear lack of political will to carry out such spending, among other issues" (ICTJ, 2012, p.12). Additionally, the initial data collected by the various registries continue to negatively impact the compensation process. That is, before an IDP can receive government benefits, she must submit to a lengthy circulation process, where the various registries provide all relevant information for a final verdict to be made.

Figure 1.4

Persons Registered and Accredited
Period 2008-2012

Years	Women	Men	Persons Accredited
2008	2,579	1,450	4,029
2009	2,480	1,520	4,000
2010	3,057	1,955	5,012
2011	9,182	5,165	14,347
2012	11,808	7,300	19,108
TOTAL	29,106	17,390	46,496

Source: RADI, 2012; MIMP 2012 [My translation]

The process consists of four steps: Registration → Qualification → Validation → Accreditation (MIMP, 2012). Once the person's approved, the ruling is sent to the High Level Multisectoral Commission (CMAN) in order to integrate the decision into the RUV.

As shown in Figure 1.4, the total number of persons accredited the status of displaced in 2012 were 46,496. Notably, the majority of applicants were women, roughly "62.6%" (MIMP, 2012, p. 8).

Summary:

This section examined the history of internal displacement in Peru—starting with the sociopolitical tensions that precipitated the rise of insurgents, through to the capture of Abimael Guzmán in 1993. It presented data on the diaspora and demographics of displaced communities, and underscored the pivotal role that women took during and after displacement. The section also provides a synthesis of international instruments and national policy in place to protect and assist victims of forced displacement. The section ends by delineating the process through which victims receive 'displaced' status.

The following section will provide a general overview of the education system in Peru, examine student performance in rural and urban areas and explore the efficacy of two education programmes with special significance to internally displaced persons. Further, the section provides a detailed analysis of reparations in education and the extent to which 'benefits' were applicable to displaced persons. The section then explores the social and systemic barriers for teachers and students and the institutional norms that challenge and attenuate the efficacy of policy implementation. The section concludes with a listing of consequential and targeted policy options.

PART II: ANALYSIS OF EDUCATION POLICY

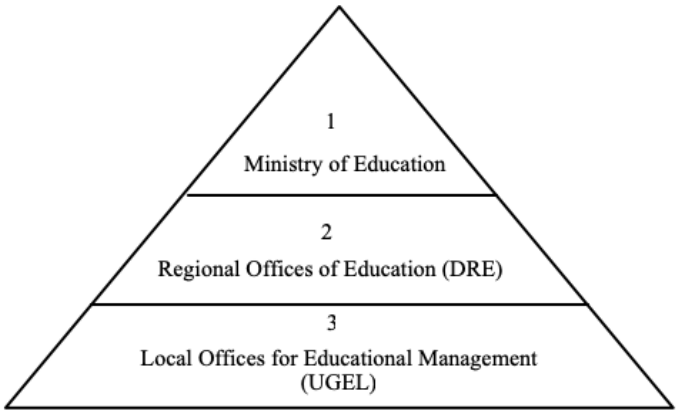
1. Education Development

Peruvian law reflects egalitarian values of international law concerning education and guarantees access to and quality of education to all of its citizens. For a detailed outline of international instruments that influenced national policy on education, see appendix A. For a succinct account of isolated national policies on education, intercultural education, bilingual education, and articles concerning sex, gender and race in education, see appendices B and C.

For the sake of simplicity, however, we'll focus on the two major legal instruments that virtually govern the education system in Peru, namely, the constitution and the 2003 General Law of Education, which make education compulsory from ages 6-16 (UNESCO, 2018). As shown in Figure 2, there are three main bodies of educational authority in Peru, albeit the Ministry of Education is the sole author of national education policy and related programming (ibid). Further, the state provides a diverse range of educational provisions to meet the generational and ethnolinguistic diversity of the student population, services which are free of charge (public) or share a regulatory fee (private) (ibid). In general, the education track consists of pre-primary (3-5), primary (6-11), and secondary (12-16) education; however, after two years of secondary education, students chooses either an academic or a technical track (UNICEF, 2012).

Peru participates in both national and international testing, such as ECE, LLECE, ICCS and PISA, to monitor student

Figure 2: Actors in Education



improvement and better allocate funding. Comprehensive studies show that over the years, more and more children and adolescents are registering for school (UNESCO, 2018). In fact, the 2017 net enrollment rate for preschool was 89%, primary school, 95%, and secondary school, 81% (World Bank, 2017; UNESCO, 2019). According to OECD, part of the spike in pre-primary education enrollment can be attributed to the introduction of formal centers,"*Centros de Educacion Inicial* (CEIs)," but most of the credit goes to non-formal education programs such as "*Programas No Escolarizados de Educacion Inicial* (PRONOEIs)…which serve [historically neglected] rural and marginal urban areas" (OECD, 2015, p. 59).

Indeed, registration and access to education has improved; however, the quality of education and the percentage of students that reach satisfactory literacy and numeracy levels remains alarmingly low (SICRECE, 2016). Table 1 shows the 2016 results (in percentages) from the national *Census Student Assessment* of students that reached satisfactory levels for reading and

mathematics in primary and secondary education.[3]

Table 1: Reach Satisfactory Level

	Reading	Mathematics
Primary:	38.9%	29.7%
Secondary:	14.3%	11.5%

At the international level, Peru also shows discouraging results—consistently scoring below its regional peers and below the OECD average (Danko, 2017). In fact, in the 2015 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Peru placed 64th out of 70 participating countries (OECD, 2015). Further, the percentage of students that scored **below** level 3, the OECD average[4], were: 86.4% in science, 81.2% in reading literacy, and 87.1% in mathematics (NCES, 2015).

a. The Rural Discrepancy

On the one hand, widened access to education has reduced levels of extreme poverty and proliferated the middle class: "From 2001 to 2013, national poverty rates fell by half and…extreme poverty dropped from a quarter of the population to around 5%. At the same time, the country's middle class (urban populace) grew to include nearly one out of every two citizens" (OECD 2015, summarized in McCarthy and Musset, 2016, p.84). On the other hand, the inertia of rural poverty has remained, with the monthly income per capita for rural and ethnolinguistic minorities averaging less than 400 soles, a stark contrast to the urban average of over 900 soles or the national average of slightly below 800 soles (McCarthy and Musset, 2016). These income disparities parallel the educational attainment of rural and urban populations. According to ESCALE (2016), urban populations of age 25-34 had "on average, four more years of formal schooling than the average rural resident of the same age" (ibid, p.85).

Furthermore, the rise in unilateral economic growth has also favored the urban population and excluded rural and indigenous communities (Central Intelligence Agency, n.d.). As a result, the majority of families in the capital and among the major cities are able to pursue private education, arguably a better provider of education across all levels, "in Lima, for example, 43% of schools are currently private ones" (Alcazar, 2015, para 2). One such instance is seen in the increased registration rates for Innova Schools by urban students, a commercial company which by 2020, will "cater for up to 70,000 students" (ibid, para 1).

These schools offer teacher-centered and student-centered education; faculty undergo a rigorous training program to develop effective "communication skills and confidence" while students receive academic support and digital education, further developing their "autonomy, focus and

[3] The primary education percentage is obtained by averaging the reported percentages of the second and fourth grades of primary school. MINEDU (2016) reported 46.4% and 34.1% in reading and mathematics, respectively, for the second grade of secondary education and 31.4% and 25.2% for reading and mathematics, respectively, for the fourth grade of secondary education (MINEDU-UMC, reported in SICRECE, 2016). The secondary education rate reflects the reported satisfactory rate of achievement for the second grade of secondary education (ibid).

[4] The OECD averaged 493 in Science, 493 in Reading and 490 in Math, which falls within level 3 on the PISA scale "a score greater than 484.14 and less than or equal to 558.73." The percentages are constructed by adding the percentages of student-scores which fell within the following spectrum: below level 1, level 1 and level 2.

responsibility for their learning" (ibid, para 4).

A similar urban-rural differential is apparent in the contrasting literacy rates between rural and urban students. Tables 2[5] and 3[6] show the 2016 results (in percentages) from the national *Census Student Assessment* of rural and urban students that reached satisfactory levels in reading and mathematics for primary and secondary education.

Table 2: Rural Reach Satisfactory Level

	Reading	Mathematics
Primary:	13.9%	14.7%
Secondary:	2.0%	2.5%

Table 3: Urban Reach Satisfactory Level

	Reading	Mathematics
Primary:	42.7%	31.9%
Secondary:	15.8%	12.7%

In light of these discrepancies, Peru has committed to providing an equitable and inclusive public education. Their *BECA 18* program offers scholarships to youth from impoverished areas and the *Jovenes Productivos y Doble Oportunidad* initiative provides reintegration services to early school drop-outs (McCarthy and Musset, 2016). Nevertheless, similar efforts have often been short-lived and limited in scope, ultimately benefiting but a small percentage of the population in need.

b. TVET and IBE

In order to meet the demand of its diverse population, the government provides a variety of educational services apart from the conventional K-12 track (see Figure 2.1). Among these provisions, the most reputable and tangential for internally displaced persons (most of whom identify as rural and/or indigenous) are Technical

Figure 2.1:

Types of Education

a. Regular
b. Special (for students with disabilities)
c. Alternative (for adults or returnees)
d. Bilingual Intercultural Education
e. Advanced (for overachieving students)
f. Technical Education (CETPRO)
g. Non-formal Education (e.g. PRONOEIs)

Adapted from UNESCO, 2018

[5] The primary education percentage is obtained by averaging the reported percentages of the second and fourth grades of primary school. MINEDU (2016) reported 16.5% and 17.3% in reading and mathematics, respectively, for the second grade of secondary education and 11.2% and 12.1% for reading and mathematics, respectively, for the fourth grade of secondary education (MINEDU-UMC, reported in SICRECE, 2016). The secondary education rate reflects the reported satisfactory rate of achievement for the second grade of secondary education (ibid).

[6] The primary education percentage is obtained by averaging the reported percentages of the second and fourth grades of primary school. MINEDU (2016) reported 50.9% and 36.6% in reading and mathematics, respectively, for the second grade of secondary education and 34.4% and 27.1% for reading and mathematics, respectively, for the fourth grade of secondary education (MINEDU-UMC, reported in SICRECE, 2016). The secondary education rate reflects the reported satisfactory rate of achievement for the second grade of secondary education (ibid).

and Bilingual Intercultural Education, otherwise known as TVET, and IBE, respectively. In part because of the value placed on human capital and marketable skills in a growing economy, and in part because of the desire to preserve culture and linguistic diversity of indigenous persons. Given the pertinence of these programs, I examine their specific provisions below.

i. Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)

Peru provides Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as a common source of secondary education. In fact, over "700…*(*Institutes*)* provide two-three year programmes leading to…qualifications as "Technicians" and "Professional Technicians" and 1800 [educational centers]…deliver short cycle training leading to…qualifications as "Assistant Technician"" (McCarthy and Musset, 2016, p.10). Additionally, a number of industry sectors offer educational courses in "construction, manufacturing, mining, banking, and tourism," which, in conjunction with state programmes, serve a total of 600,000 students (ibid).

Despite the growth of technical education, TVET has yet to address significant challenges that hinder its effectiveness, especially in non-urban areas. Among these are:

- Misalignment between program focus and the needs of the labor market:

  - "The system is under-supplying graduates from science, math, and engineering fields and oversupplying graduates in fields like accounting and administration, and many students in these fields work in jobs that are low skilled and do not require technical expertise" (OECD, 2015; McCathy and Musset, 2016). For example, out of the "nearly 2 million Peruvians with technician level degrees, only 15% work as technicians" (SINEACE 2015, cited in McCarthy and Musset, 2016). Moreover, technology-based skills are high in demand.

- A few VET programmes operate in rural areas and most charge tuition cost; such limit the access to quality VET for local, rural communities unable to cover the associated fees (ibid, p. 14).
- The majority of students have limited "exposure to the world of work and careers during the course of their studies" (ibid, p.13)
- Programmes need "clear pathways from technical education to higher education" as the majority currently limit students' ability to "advance academically and earn a university degree" (ibid, 13). In essence, if a student chooses a technical track, it is extremely difficult for him to return to academia should he find himself in a position where his technical training is not in high demand in the labor market.
- Students need career guidance in education to choose fields that will yield a high return on investment (ibid).
- Peru relies heavily in commodity exports which ultimately create a complacent economy, the "middle-income trap" as economists call it signal the "prolonged slow growth" of latent middle class countries (ibid, p.23)

These challenges foreshadow the high rates of informal occupation in non-urban areas. The jobs that current TVET graduates attain are less soft-skills based and limit the ability for workers to transition into the formal, modern economy. These limitations not only

affect job-seekers but also employers who struggle to find skilled workers. In fact, in 2014, "69 % of employers…(reported) difficulties finding the right workers" (ibid. p.25). To address some of these challenges, the Ministry of Education has tried policies aimed at ameliorating not only enrollment, but also retention and graduation of low-income students.

Among these are policies on outcome-based funding which provide monetary compensation to schools with greater rates of graduation. However, there's speculation that schools could 'artificially make programmes easier to improve graduation rates' (ibid, 43). Efforts to improve access and quality of education has resulted in the creation of the *Pontencarrera* database, a depository of information that records program costs and student earnings after graduation (ibid). However, the data remains incomplete as schools struggle to collect tangible data, especially earning wages after graduation. Thus, there are still hurdles to overcome before Peru can feel comfortable in the quality and efficiency of its (T)VET education.

ii. Intercultural Bilingual Education (IBE)

Since a large portion of the internally displaced community identify as indigenous[7] and speak an aboriginal language (MIMP, 2012), it is important to understand the state of bilingual education, its origins and the level of commitment by the government to standardize IBE through national policy. Peru has a long history of IBE policy, dating back to the Incan Empire and the widespread use of Quechua as an official language. Over the years, politicians and Presidents have appropriated indigenous language rhetoric in their national discourse on education, individual rights and property rights. Today, Peru is home to 47 indigenous languages, albeit it only recognizes Quechua and Aymara as co-equal with Spanish (Garcia, 2010; Ministry of Culture, 2017). As time passed, the Republic developed a "standardized corpus and orthography" of the native languages in an effort to sustain, revitalize and normalize their formal usage (Congress of the Republic, 1975; Lattimore, 2017, p. 26).

With each new president, however, ideologies and priorities changed, often retrieving interest and commitment to the development of bilingual education. In 1991, Alberto Fujimori rose to power in part because of his preferential stance toward indigenous languages, and he later passed a National Policy of Intercultural Bilingual Education (Garcia, 2005; 2010). These efforts culminated into the creation of the National Plan of Intercultural Bilingual Education 2016-2021, which recognized the incremental changes from "2011-2015 in regards to indigenous student access to IBE, development of a relevant curriculum, the initial and in-service training of IBE teachers, and the decentralisation and social participation of IBE management" (Ministry of Education, 2016; Lattimore, 2017, p. 38.). By 2017, there were 24,951 IBE institutions in Peru (Ministry of Culture, 2017). These advancements are admirable, although they're less apparent if you view the statistical improvement of student performance alone.

First, we should clarify its learning objectives. IBE programmes "ensure that children can learn in their own language with

[7] "In accordance with previous literature, we define a child as Indigenous if his or her mother speaks an Indigenous language" (Hynsjö and Damon, 2016, p.124)

Spanish" (UNESCO, n.d.). Second, we should ask if it has hitherto been effective. UNESCO reports:

> "By grade 4, only 1 in 10 Quechua speakers in bilingual programmes, and 1 in 20 speakers of other indigenous languages, reach a satisfactory level in their own language. Their achievement in Spanish is similarly weak…One study found that half of teachers in bilingual education schools in southern Peru could not speak the local indigenous language" (p.1)

Additionally, not enough teachers are prepared to teach in another language and some suspect that a lot of the bilingual education, when it is taught, serves as a transitional program for non-Spanish speakers rather than an immersion opportunity to equally improve one's native tongue (Ruiz, 1984; Hornberger, 1987). These findings underscore the poor efficacy of IBE. With that said, the government's implementation of 'IBE 2016-2021' has yet to reach full force, and the general interest does signal a commitment to uphold linguistic diversity as a resource and a national asset.

2. Reparations and Beneficiaries

To better understand the education clause in law concerning internally displaced persons, we'll examine *Law 28592* further. This law creates the Integral Reparations Plan (PIR), a program that amalgamates diffused policies to provide a variety of reparation services such as housing, health and education. The law recognizes the intersectionality of certain needs and the difficulty of accessing scattered resources.

As such, PIR offers a plethora of reparations to internally displaced persons. These are best summarized in article 2:

Law 28592:

Article 2: PIR offers:

- Program for the restitution of human rights
- Program for the reparations in education
- Program for the reparations in health
- Program for collective reparations
- Program for symbolic reparations
- Program for the promotion and facilitation of housing access
- Other programs that CMAN approves of

Source: Ley 28592, 2006, p.1-2 [My translation]

For our purposes, we'll only examine the program for the reparations in education. According to the article, the beneficiaries are entitled to the following educational modalities:

Article 19: Education benefits for affected persons

- Reserved sitting to take the admissions exam for public, technical education and higher education.
- Exoneration of matriculation fees; right to pensions, right to take admission exams, right to receive grades and academic titles, right to pursue a certificate of study. Beneficiaries are entitled to food services and housing, when appropriate, in addition to admission into public education institutions of levels: regular, technical, and higher education
- Grants and scholarships
- Priority access to adult education and technical training; and
- Priority access to adequate and qualifying work opportunities

Source: Consejo de Reparaciones, 2016, p.1-2 [My translation]

Given the extensive coverage of these benefits, concern was raised about the possibility of non-IDPs exploiting limited benefits. Thus, the government refined their definition of eligible candidates to clarify who's eligible.

Article 18 elucidates the candidacy for government benefits:

Article 18: Beneficiaries of Reparations in Education

- Individual victims whose studies were interrupted due to violence
- The child(ren) of victims that disappeared or died due to violence
- The child(ren) of sexual assault victims that were born as a result of such assault.

Source: Secretaria Técnica del Consejo de Reparaciones, 2016, p.1 [My translation]

However, despite the bona fide intentions of Peruvian law, these educational provisions were no longer tangible to many of the child victims from the 1980s-2000's guerrilla warfare. Primarily because many of these victims were no longer children by the time the legislation was passed, with the majority passing over the age of 30—the limit to access educational benefits for minors (Secretaria Técnica del Consejo de Reparaciones, 2016).

Recognizing the age discrepancy, in 2016, the government passed the Supreme Decree N 001-2016-JUS which established that beneficiaries of the reparations in education, recognized in Article 18 of Law 28592, could "transfer their rights once and to one family member who is a direct descendant in the lineage, up to the second degree of consanguinity (i.e. son/daughter, grandson/granddaughter)" (ibid, p.2 [my translation]). However, the law posited one significant caveat, a deadline of December 31, 2017, for the transfer of benefits (and a timeframe of five years for the new beneficiary to claim any corresponding modalities) (ibid).

Many of the victims were unhappy with the deadline and urged CMAN to publicly denounce the controversial condition. As such, in a formal letter to the Ministry of Education, CMAN rebuked the deadline and argued that it 'denaturalized' the transfer of rights and created difficulty in the general access of benefits. Moreover, 'given the permanent status of the RUV (i.e. long-lasting) and the fact that some of the current beneficiaries were unable to redeem their benefits by the 2017 deadline, if left as is, the program would fail to achieve its primary objective of inclusivity and equity in reparation efforts (Decreto Supremo N008, 2017, p.24-25 [my translation]).

Fortunately, after some deliberation, the following protocol was passed by Congress: "The transfer of educational rights can occur at any point by the beneficiary so long as their status in the Unique Registry of Victims (RUV) remains valid" (ibid, p.25. [my translation]). In May of 2012, RADI reported on the state of education for internally displaced persons. By this point, it had been more than a decade since the displacement occurred, and a few years since the start of reparations in education. Table 4 displays RADI's findings, showing that less than half of the internally displaced population completed primary levels of education and at most 2-3% completed technical and vocational education or attended University.

These results foreshadow the job readiness and technical skill levels of displaced persons in current Peru.

Table 4:

Education Level of Family Members						
EDUCATION LEVEL	**SEX**				**TOTAL**	
	Men	%	Women	%	Number	%
No Schooling	3,598	6.9	13,583	22.2	17,181	15.2
Preprimary	292	0.6	429	0.7	721	0.6
Primary	21,126	40.6	25,127	41.1	46,253	40.9
Secondary	21,910	42.1	17,543	28.7	39,453	34.8
Technical	1,392	2.7	1,441	2.4	2,833	2.0
Advanced, no University	1,876	3.6	1,769	2.9	3,645	3.2
University	1,786	3.4	1,178	1.9	2,964	2.6
Other	89	0.2	87	0.1	176	0.2
TOTAL	**52,069**	**100%**	**61,157**	**100%**	**113,226**	**100%**

Source: Adapted from RADI 2012, cited in MIMP 2012

3. Barriers for Teachers and Students

There are several social and systemic barriers that affect both students and teachers in rural areas. These barriers dilute the effects of education policy and programming as they inhibit students from fully experiencing quality education. Similarly, educators also face systemic barriers albeit regarding poor management and scarce resources. As a result, teachers are unable to provide tangible and foundational education to already vulnerable populations. To better understand said barriers, Fundacion Codespa (FC) delineates the most prominent challenges in the Wise Initiative (2019) website. These are:

i. Family labor responsibilities
ii. Having to walk several hours to get to school—highlighting the scarcity of brick-and-mortar education facilities in non-urban areas.
iii. Limited support restrict the school's ability to "educate students at different levels"
iv. "Students of all ages sit in one classroom"
v. Most rural students don't know Spanish, but Quechua or Aymara
vi. Teachers are contracted on a yearly basis
vii. “Teachers often don't know if they're teaching until a week before the start of school”

viii. Teachers fear being fired and receive little payment
ix. Schools lack relevant content
x. Scarcity of school supplies
xi. Standard academic cycles ignore agricultural calendars, thereby forcing students to choose between a source of income and attending school.
xii. Inadequate school management.
xiii. Failure to include the local community in decision-making
xiv. Lack of sanitary services (e.g. toilet paper, adequate sewage)
xv. Significant level of job dissatisfaction by teachers.

These hurdles reflect the six factors that Guigale (2007) argued result in a Peru that "is very well schooled but poorly educated" (p. 21), alluding to the protracted low-quality of education despite the boost in student enrollment. In his analysis, Guigale maintained that a lack of "standards, where the country stands vis-à-vis those standards, and accountability for the results" drive the procurement of low student performance across the country (p. 22, emphasis added). Moreover, these standards need also be un-ambiguous, that is, clearly defined and advanced at all levels of the government. To take case in point, Guigale cites the nebulous learning objective for second graders purported by the Ministry of Education, "…(students should) reflect the linguistic functioning of the texts, and systematize their findings to improve their reading and text production strategies." (p. 25). Such obscure language not only fails to assure the attainment of critical competencies by a certain age, but they also allow greater leeway for educators and administrators to claim that their students are in fact meeting quality standards.

As a result, parents feel comfortable with the schools and the education dogma remains substandard. Regarding educators, studies show that "on average, the teaching staff serving indigenous communities have significantly lower levels of education and fewer years of instructional experience" (Hernandez-Zavala et al., 2006, cited in World Bank, 2008, p.10). Instructors often lack pedagogical practice and have 'low mastery of…didactics,' they're unpunctual and at times absent, and school principals are "appointed without a competitive selection," resulting in appointees with inadequate management skills (World Bank, 2012, p.55). substandard.

As such, it is no wonder that intercultural education in rural zones often does not "go beyond the primary level" (Vasquez, 2007; cited in World Bank, 2008, p. 10) Fortunately, to offset some of these challenges, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as Fundacion Codespa have advanced and implemented an *Alternative Education for Rural Development* project, which promotes the "alternation between rural work and school life to ensure a well-rounded education" (Wise Initiative, 2019). Thus far, FC alone has helped nearly 3000 rural students throughout 40 schools in 11 regions and has increased the retention rate of secondary and tertiary education enrollment (ibid). FC offers "integral training based on three dimensions: academic, human and technical-productive" (Edutopia, 2015).

This multifaceted education allows students to develop their cognitive, socio-emotional and technical competencies, whilst involving parents in the process.

4. Challenges to Policy Implementation

Thus far, we've covered education policy and reparation practices sanctioned under

Peruvian law for internally displaced persons. Admittedly, the government offers a plethora of *normas legales* that reflect its commitment to improve the living and learning conditions of rural, indigenous and displaced communities. In fact, it's even created entities in charge of oversight, aid-distribution, and the monitoring of progress. However, as mentioned above, the results do not reflect the government's enthusiasm and lofty aspirations for quality education in non-urban areas. Instead, we notice alarming literacy rates and ineffective programs.

In this section, we examine the institutional factors that thwart the rendition and retention of progress in non-urban areas. That is, the challenges to policy implementation:

Lack of Pedagogy: In an ethnographic study of bilingual teachers in Peruvian rural schools, Laura Valdiviezo (2009) finds that IBE policy offers a vague definition of intercultural practice without mention of pedagogy. Valdiviezo describes the process as a "top-down, horizontal dialogue" which merely connects interculturality with understanding ("harmony"), and acknowledges the "ethnic diversity of the country"(p. 67-68). It is not surprising, then, that teachers lack clarity on how to teach bilingual education. In fact, the lack of pedagogy speaks to a greater lack of descriptive content not just for the primary level but for k-12 grades. Without proper training, Valdiviezo finds that teachers introduce Quechua haphazardly, often neglecting the cultural importance of the language and others simply stick to monolingual instruction and teaching (ibid).

Jobs Prioritize Spanish: Garcia (2010) studied indigenous parent's perception of bilingual education in terms of economic worth. She finds that parents reproach bilingual education and worry that their children will be academically 'delayed' if their studies are divided into two languages. Moreover, Garcia finds that knowing Quechua does little for economic prosperity as sustainable jobs prioritize Spanish (ibid), and more recently, English (ICEF Monitor, 2016). In other words, in a world where human capital dictates wealth, indigenous parents are willing to have their children learn in the dominant language if doing so allows them to compete in the job market. It's clear that redolent western ideals permeate even the rural parts of South America, where displaced indigenous children are encouraged to assimilate and forget their cultural roots.

Child Labor: Another obstacle is the lack of financial resources for displaced students which translates to a spike in child labor. For example, Garcia (2005) finds that children of primary school age skip school or drop out altogether to work for basic resources (e.g. food, medicine). These children are often orphans of war and/or feel responsible for the care of a sick relative. What this means in light of purported governmental reparation efforts, services providing food and housing are poorly executed and the identification process (which is how these services are distributed) is faulty. In fact, PAR describes data recorded by RADI as "vastly inaccurate" (cited in Garcia, 2005, p.8).

Overcrowding in Rural Schools: In a longitudinal study of various primary schools in the Andes mountains, Giugale et al., (2007) discovered a common issue was overcrowding. In contrast with other regions in Peru affected by displacement, at least in the Andean region, students actively seek out education. Parents recognize the economic value of education and encourage their children to attend. Unfortunately, there are only a few primary schools in the Andean region which results in a swift state of

"overcrowding." Admittedly, part of the reason that children are eager to attend school can be attributed to the provisions of shelter, food and social interaction.

Lack of Accountability: Peru has a history of neglect in terms of upholding policy. Research showed that in 1960, Peru supposedly ratified conventions 107 and 169, respectively: "recognising the collective property rights of Indigenous, Tribal and Semi-Tribal Populations...[and committing] to respect the cultural importance of the collective relation of indigenous populations to their territories and their right not to be displaced" (NRC, 2004, p. 27). Yet, none of these were applied before, during or after the civil war. The literature suggest that neglect on the part of the state is often due to a lack of accountability and inclusion of a special council to sanction government agencies (US. Dept of Child Welfare, 2010). In Peru, lack of accountability discouraged adequate and consistent implementation of social services and resources for the internally displaced.

Lack of Psychosocial Support: In *Los desplazados en Peru*, Alejandro Diaz reports that IDPs frequently requested psychosocial support. He writes, " people felt traumatized...bad emotionally... [and] experienced feelings of resentment, rage, sadness, lack of motivation and had family problems" (cited in NRC, 2004, p.13-14). Additionally, Diaz mentions that IDP women, apart from experiencing the economic, social and cultural effects of displacement, were particularly vulnerable to being raped and many had children as a result. Considering the acute challenges and threats that displaced persons experienced, psychosocial services is not inconsequential. Yet, the government has yet to put in place a systematic structure that provides ongoing emotional and psychological support for IDPs (ibid). Without a proper mental health system, displaced indigenous students will not be receptive in school and will most likely fail or drop out early on.

Poverty: As of 2001, "54,8% of the [displaced] population lived in poverty, and 24,4% in extreme poverty" (NRC, 2004, p.51). In 2002, 200,000 people were living in shacks and lacked access to clean water and sanitation (which also increased infant mortality rate to 4.9%) (ibid, p.52). Additionally, displaced persons lacked access to electricity, to roads and to documentation/credentials (ibid, p.60) which prohibited them from receiving government assistance. Another factor tangential to poverty is that rural youth often have non-transferable agricultural skills which inevitably hinder their employability prospects from one community to another (Florez et al., 2016). Finally, the notion of poverty is often associated with rural and indigenous persons, and such creates a stigma that negatively impacts the prospects of displaced persons to move up the social latter in non-urban and urban areas

5. Policy Options

In the previous subsections, we explored the state of education for internally displaced persons and noticed a clear literacy divide among urban and rural populations. We discussed two education programs with special significance to displaced persons, TVET and IBE, and learned that their efficacy is often thwarted by poor management, misaligned program focus, lack of tangible content and more. We then examined Law 28592 which creates the Integral Reparations Plan for affected persons and focused on article 19, the education benefits. These benefits (e.g. exempt from matriculation fees, priority seating for college admissions exam) were

limited to public education—which isn't as effective or conducive to success as private schooling. Further, such reparations were not in effect until eleven years after the civic warfare, by 2004 when IDPs were first recognized, at which point many had outgrown student status and accrued greater immediate responsibilities.

We then examined the social and systemic barriers for students and teachers in rural areas. Among these were: students have to walk several hours to get to school, standard academic cycles ignore agricultural calendars, schools lack sanitary services, teachers are contracted on a yearly basis, receive little pay and fear being fired. Further, these challenges are exacerbated by institutional norms such as lack of accountability and psychosocial support, poor mastery of didactics and culturally relevant pedagogy, child labor and the linguistic authority of Spanish in the work force.

These findings underscore the reality on the ground and some of the challenges that vulnerable populations face. They also present areas for improvement and much needed intervention. As such, in this section we discuss policy options that could alleviate and ameliorate the current state of affairs. We segment considerations into two categories—education and management—and provide a rendering of pros and cons.

Education:

1. Clear literacy standards.

2. Utilize Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to assist teaching and facilitate interagency and inter-professoriate communication. For instance, using free mobile applications such as WhatsApp.

3. Introduce a performance-based incentive program for educators (e.g. funds are given to schools whose students perform close to or above the OECD average in mathematics, science and reading)

4. Provide legal training for parents and students. A lot of non-urban communities are not clear on what their rights are.

5. Host evidence-based pedagogy training for professors.

6. Provide curricula for emotional literacy. Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) content provides foundational skills such as self-control and emotional and appraisal regulation for young learners. In addition, it provides transferrable soft-skills (e.g. team work) which are vital for students entering the modern workforce.

7. Provide curricula for entrepreneurial literacy. Business management and start-up workshops can teach locals about action-learning and strategic thinking. Doing so can enable people to use their land and access to crops profitably, to manage overhead costs and ultimately retain a high return on investment. One suggestion mentioned in the literacy was to create a channeling service where people grow and import citrus products and produce to the capital.

Pros: These resources provide students with quality education and enables them to create a path toward sustainable development. They optimize interagency communication for educators and create a benchmark (i.e. standards) to ensure student development. Further, they equip teachers with tangible and evidence-based skills to effectively teach students.

Cons: These will likely require more funding than the current GDP spent on education. They may also divert focus from immediate needs such as food, clean water and housing. Beta testing will need to occur to ensure that efforts are effective thus furthering the divide of resources given to non-urban communities. Finally, these policies will not produce immediate results but will likely take an extended period of time to metastasize and fully benefit vulnerable populations.

Management:

1. Provide work opportunities and programs that run in indigenous languages. Local Offices for Educational Management can train and hire displaced adults to teach younger students.
2. Ensure that schools have proper food, medical and sanitation services and assistance programmes. Additionally, improve local infrastructure and roads in rural areas.
3. Include parents in decisions concerning funds allocation, school schedule and the like. Create a routine-based daycare center to enable young mothers to attend school.
4. Provide timely rendering of school resources including decisions on staffing. Carefully vet candidates for official positions such as school counselor, principle, and teacher. MIMP can also host registration workshops to teach locals how to gather and relay accurate and updated data on displaced persons.
5. Create a virtual credentials system where people can use facial recognition and thumb print technology to verify their identity and their titles anywhere in the country.

Pros: These will enable students to fully experience education and not have to worry about exogenous factors. They ensure that vulnerable communities both learn and have access to jobs after graduation. They abate the hegemonic authority of Spanish over the work force and ease the ability of indigenous persons to grow economically. Further, they provide greater security for teachers and enable displaced persons to identify themselves virtually and to verify their credentials anywhere in the country.

Cons: These efforts will be costly as they require the creation and maintenance of new roles and physical institutions (e.g. daycare center). They require the creation of an inventory list to ensure that resources are properly distributed. They're also time-consuming and will likely need to undergo trial and error to perform as intended.

PART III: CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

Finally, Peru has come a long way since the wave of displacement from the 1980-2000's. It has introduced national law with a focus on reparations and provisions for affected communities. Through trial and error, it has refined its strategy and optimized its response. It's one of the few Latin American countries with an explicit commitment to helping disadvantaged communities and persons affected by violence or natural disaster. However, there's still work to be made in the areas of education and work opportunities specifically as they relate to internally displaced persons. It is not news that education is often a lifeline in emergency contexts, but it is worth repeating that it's equally pertinent once the chaos has subsided, specially to ensure survival, stability and personal and collective growth. In light of the recent wave of displacement, it is ever more imperative to revisit what works and what doesn't to ensure the swift, humane and effective reparation of affected communities.

This policy report can help politicians, researchers and governmental and non-governmental entities review the history of internal displacement and make informed decisions to effectively assist vulnerable populations.

Disclaimer: The study is limited to the information publicly available online and through University access. Some of the challenges involved in the making of this document include: lack of updated data, translation from Spanish to English, and minimal but noticeable discrepancies in the statistics reported by government officials versus international agents.

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Appendix A:

Convention on the Right of the Child

Article 28: "States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular: (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all; (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need…(e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates." (OHCHR, 1990; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

Article 10: "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women: (a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training" (OHCHR, 1981; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention

Article 26: "Measures shall be taken to ensure that members of the peoples concerned have the opportunity to acquire education at all levels on at least an equal footing with the rest of the national community." (International Labour Organization, 1991; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Article 29: "The imparting of general knowledge and skills that will help children belonging to the peoples concerned to participate fully and on an equal footing in their own community and in the national community shall be an aim of education for these peoples." (ibid)

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

Article 3: "The States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights set forth in the present Covenant." (OHCHR, 1976; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (Convention of Belém do Pará)

Article 6: "The right of every woman to be free from violence includes, among others: b. The right of women to be valued and educated free of stereotyped patterns of behavior and social and cultural practices based on concepts of inferiority or subordination" (Organization of American States, n.d.; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Article 8: "The States Parties agree to undertake progressively specific measures, including programs: b. To modify social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, including the development of formal and informal educational programs appropriate to every level of the educational process, to counteract prejudices, customs and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or superiority of either of the sexes or on the stereotyped roles for men and women which legitimize or exacerbate violence against women" (ibid)

The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women B. Education and Training of Women Beijing, China - September 1995

B.1. Ensure equal access to education. Actions to be taken by Governments:

a. "Advance the goal of equal access to education by taking measures to eliminate discrimination in education at all levels on the basis of gender, race, language, religion, national origin, age or disability, or any other form of discrimination and, as appropriate, consider establishing procedures to address grievances;

h. Improve the quality of education and equal opportunities for women and men in terms of access in order to ensure that women of all ages can acquire the knowledge, capacities, aptitudes, skills and ethical values needed to develop and to participate fully under equal conditions in the process of social, economic and political development"

B.3. Improve women's access to vocational training, science and technology, and continuing education.

b. "Provide recognition to non-formal educational opportunities for girls and women in the educational system"

L. The Girl-child

L.1. Eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl child. Actions to be taken by Governments:

f. "Develop and implement comprehensive policies, plans of action and programmes for the survival, protection, development and advancement of the girl child to promote and protect the full enjoyment of her human rights and to ensure equal opportunities for girls; these plans should form an integral part of the total development process;"

L.4. Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training. Actions to be taken by Governments:

a. "Ensure universal and equal access to and completion of primary education by all children and eliminate the existing gap between girls and boys, as stipulated in article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child; [11] similarly, ensure equal access to secondary education by the year 2005 and equal access to higher education, including vocational and technical education, for all girls and boys, including the disadvantaged and gifted"

(UN Women, 1995; Movimiento Manuela Ramos and Care Peru, 2001)

Appendix B:

General Education Law: N28044

(MINEDU, n.d.)

Article 3: "Education is a fundamental right of the person and of society. The State guarantees the exercise of the right to an integral and quality education for all and the universalization of Basic Education. Society has the responsibility to contribute to education and the right to participate in its development"

Article 4: "Education is a public service; when it is provided by the State, it is free at all levels and modalities, in accordance with the provisions of Political Constitution and in the present law. Initial and Primary Education are obligatorily complemented with food and health programs and with educational materials."

Article 10: "To achieve universalization, quality and equity in education, an intercultural approach is adopted and a decentralized, intersectoral, preventive, compensatory and recovery action is taken that contributes to equalizing the opportunities of integral development of the students and to achieve satisfactory results in their learning."

Article 17: "To compensate for the inequalities derived from economic factors, geographical, social or any other nature that affect the equality of opportunities in the exercise of the right to education, the State takes measures that favor social segments that are in a situation of abandonment or risk to attend them preferably."

Article18: "In order to ensure equity in education, the education authorities, within the scope of their respective competencies: a) Execute compensatory policies of positive action to compensate the inequalities of those sectors of the population that need it. b) Develop and execute educational projects that include objectives, strategies, actions and resources tending to revert situations of inequality and/or inequality by reason of origin, ethnicity, gender, language, religion, opinion, economic condition, age or any other kind."

Article 19: "In accordance with the provisions of international treaties on the matter, the Political Constitution and this law, the State recognizes and guarantees the right of indigenous peoples to an education in good conditions of equality with the rest of the national community. To this end, the state establishes special programs that guarantee equal opportunities and equity of gender in rural areas and where relevant."

Intercultural Bilingual Education: Law N 27818

(El Peruano, 2002)

Article 2: "The National Plan of Intercultural Bilingual Education shall incorporate the indigenous vision and knowledge. Education for indigenous peoples must be equal in quality, efficiency, accessibility and in all other aspects foreseen for the population in general. The State guarantees the right of indigenous peoples to participate in the administration of state systems and institutions of intercultural bilingual education, as well as in centers and programs for the preparation of bilingual intercultural teachers."

Article 4: "It is the duty of the Ministry of Education to promote in educational institutions for indigenous peoples the incorporation, by appointment or contract, of indigenous teaching staff speaking the language of the place where they will exercise a teaching function, for an effective process of learning and preservation of indigenous languages and cultures, defining the profile of the Intercultural Bilingual Education teacher and authorize the centers trained to provide such education. Teachers of Intercultural Bilingual Education must master both the native language of the area where they work and Castilian."

Article 5: "It is the duty of the Ministry of Education to promote the elaboration and application of study plans and curricular contents that reflect the ethnic and cultural plurality of the nation in all educational levels. Particular attention will be paid to the needs, interests and aspirations of indigenous peoples in their respective areas."

Resolution N 629-2016-MINEDU — National Plan of Intercultural Bilingual Education for 2021.

(El Peruano, 2016)

Article 1: "Approve the Sectoral Education Policy Intercultural and Intercultural Bilingual Education…as the main guiding instrument of Education in sectoral and institutional plans, programs, projects and other activities related to the implementation of Intercultural Education and Intercultural Bilingual Education."

Article 2: "The Sectoral Policy of Intercultural Education and Intercultural Bilingual Education is mandatory for all entities of the education sector, at all levels of government, within the framework of their competences."

Article 4: "The actions carried out within the framework of the Sectoral Policy on Intercultural Education and Intercultural Bilingual Education, are financed by the institutional budgets of the involved bidding documents, in accordance with the Annual Budget Laws of the Public Sector, without demanding additional resources from the Public Treasury and within the framework of current legal regulations."

Appendix C:

National Agreement

(Source: MINEDU)

Promotion of Equality of Opportunities without Discrimination (...) the State:

"(a) will combat all forms of discrimination, promoting equal opportunities; (e) develop systems that protect children, adolescents, (...) and (f) promote and protect the rights of members of discriminated ethnic communities, promoting social development programs that fully benefit them."

Universal Access to an Education Free Public and of Quality and Promotion and Defense of Culture and Sport (...) the State:

"(b) will eliminate the quality gaps between public education and private as well as between rural and urban education, to promote equity in access to opportunities; (d) will strengthen the basic education of quality, relevant and appropriate for children, adolescents and adolescents, respecting the freedom of opinion and belief."

Political Constitution

Article 17: "The State guarantees the eradication of illiteracy. It also encourages bilingual and intercultural education according to the characteristics of each area. It preserves the diverse cultural and linguistic manifestations of the country."

Code of Children and Adolescents: Law N 2733710

Article 14: "To education, culture, sports and recreation The child and the adolescent have the right to education (...)."

Law of Equality of Opportunities Between Women and Men: Law N 2898312

(Source: MINEDU, n.d.)

Article 3.2: "The State promotes equality of opportunities between women and men, considering the following principles: a) The recognition of gender equality, banishing practices, conceptions and languages that justify the superiority of any of the sexes, as well as all types of discrimination and sexual or social exclusion. b) The prevalence of human rights, in its integral conception, highlighting the rights of women throughout their life cycle. c) Respect for pluricultural, multilingual and multi-ethnic reality, promoting social inclusion, interculturality, and dialogue and exchange in conditions of equity, democracy and mutual enrichment. d) Recognition and respect for children, adolescents, young people, (...) or age groups most affected by discrimination."

Article 4: "Promote and guarantee equality of opportunities between women and men, adopting all the necessary measures to remove the obstacles that prevent the full exercise of this right, in order to eradicate all forms of discrimination. 2. Adopt measures of positive action of a temporary nature, aimed at accelerating de facto equality between women and men, which will not be considered discriminatory. 3. Incorporate and promote the use of inclusive language in all written communications and documents produced in all instances and levels of government."

Article 6: "The Executive Power, regional governments and local governments, in all sectors adopt policies, plans and programs, integrating the principles of this Law in a transversal manner. To this end, there are guidelines: k) Guarantee access to public education and permanence in all stages of the education system, in conditions of equality between women and men, especially in rural areas, promoting respect and appreciation of identities cultural l) Promote the full and equitable development of all children and adolescents, assuring them a comprehensive sexual education of scientific and ethical quality."

Law to Promote Education of Girls and Rural Teenagers: Law N 27558

(Source: United Nations Commissioner for Refugees, 2008)

Article 8: "Rural schools shall foster equity and eradicate discrimination practices against girls and adolescents, for reasons related to race, inadequate knowledge of the official language, and overage. b) Girls and adolescents can achieve timely learning about the process of personal transformations that occur during the period of puberty and the meaning and value of such changes in female development. c) In an environment of equity for all students, personalized and respectful treatment from teachers to girls and adolescents shall become a dominant and daily practice."

Article 6: "a) Guarantees all children and adolescents in rural schools objectives and strategies that allow them equity in the access and quality of the educational service they receive . b) According to specific needs and interests, it establishes precise objectives for rural girls and adolescents in initial, primary and secondary education. c) It guarantees curricular diversification in accordance with the sociocultural reality."

Article 7: "To achieve equal opportunities in the enrollment coverage of rural girls and adolescents…the following objectives are established: a) Universal enrollment in educational levels of initial, primary and secondary. b) Timely entry to school and permanence until the completion of secondary education. c) Access to programs that articulate school and out-of-school programs for those who reside in remote areas or who have time limitations that prevent them from attending school regularly."

Article 9: "To achieve equity in the quality of education, the following objective are in place: a) Generalization of educational programs that also allow girls and adolescents to achieve learning that is meaningful and relevant to their grades of physical, emotional and social development, attending to their specific requirements and that serve for them to perform fluently in rural and urban areas. b) That in the rural schools the nutrition and integral health requirements are comprehensively attended and that it is disseminated and makes effective use of the Free School Insurance guaranteeing also the access of all the rural girls and adolescents. c) Have quality intercultural bilingual education programs that offer the opportunity to communicate in two languages and appropriate the most valuable aspects of each culture, enriching personal identity and cognizant of factors that discriminate against rural girls and adolescents."

Article 12: "Create the editorial fund on gender equity and rural education, which will publish specialized literature on family, sexuality, gender security, reproduction and other issues that are part of a differentiated model of education for the female educational segment, respecting the cultural tradition of indigenous peoples, improving the quality of teaching and promoting changes in behavior patterns for the appropriate development of girls and adolescents"