



Report

Strengthening coordinated education planning and response in crises

Ethiopia case study

Joseph Wales, Amina Khan and Susan Nicolai

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Acronyms

ARRA	Agency for Refugee and Returnee Affairs
BSRP	Building Self-Reliance Programme
CLA	Cluster Lead Agency
CRRF	Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DAG	Development Assistance Group
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DICAC	Development and Inter-Church Aid Commission
ECCD	Early childhood care and development
ECCE	early childhood care and education
ECW	Education Cannot Wait
EEC	Ethiopia Education Cluster
EiE	education in emergencies
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EPRDF	Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESWG	Education Sector Working Group
FGD	focus group discussion
FTS	financial tracking service
GEC	Global Education Cluster
GER	gross enrolment ratio
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
GPI	gender parity index
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
IDA	International Development Association
IDP	internally displaced person
IMO	information management officer
INEE	Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IP	implementing partner
KII	key informant interview
LoU	letter of understanding
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoFEC	Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation

MoU	memorandum of understanding
NCO	National Coordination Office
NCRRS	National Comprehensive Refugee Response Strategy
NDRMC	National Disaster Risk Management Commission
NER	net enrolment ratio
NGO	non-governmental organisation
ODA	official development assistance
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PTA	parent–teacher association
RDPP	European Regional Development and Protection Programme
REB	Regional Education Bureau
REWG	Refugee Education Working Group
SCI	Save the Children International
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SNNPR	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples’ Region
TC	technical committee
TVET	technical and vocational education and training
UNHCR	The UN Refugee Agency
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
WASH	water, sanitation and hygiene
WEO	Woreda Education Office

Executive summary

This case study examines how, in Ethiopia, humanitarian and development actors can more effectively coordinate planning and response to strengthen education outcomes for children and young people affected by crises. The research looks at the ‘who’, the ‘how’ and the ‘so what’ of coordination of education in emergencies (EiE) and protracted crises for internally displaced persons (IDPs), refugees and other communities affected by crises, resulting in recommendations for action that can be taken by different types of stakeholders, including the Government of Ethiopia (GoE) and key donors.

Ethiopia confronts multi-faceted challenges in ensuring that education is provided to all children affected by crises. The country is host to the second largest refugee population in Africa, with almost a million registered refugees and asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2018a), while close to three million Ethiopian citizens are internally displaced due to conflict and protracted drought (GoE et al., 2018). Ethiopia is also a pioneer of approaches to improve coordination and was one of the first countries to set out pledges following the 2016 Summit on Refugees and Migrants hosted by the UN General Assembly, with education featuring prominently. It was subsequently selected as a roll-out country for the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) in 2017.

Who coordinates country-level education in emergencies and protracted crises?

Two coordination structures for EiE exist in Ethiopia. The first covers IDPs and local communities affected by crises and disasters, while the second covers the refugee community. The Ministry of Education (MoE) leads coordination for the former system, and delivery is largely through the national education system, with

support from the Education Cluster (chaired by the MoE and co-led by the United Nations Children’s Fund Ethiopia and Save the Children International), as well as from non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and development partners. The latter system is coordinated by the Ethiopian Agency for Refugee and Returnee Affairs (ARRA), supported by UNHCR, the UN Refugee Agency, and the Refugee Education Working Group, with delivery of refugee education by both ARRA and NGO partners, supported by the MoE and Regional Education Bureaus (REBs).

How can coordination of education planning and response be made more effective?

This study looked carefully at three types of coordination of education response in Ethiopia: coordination of education for IDPs and affected communities, for refugees, and integration with the national system.

Coordination of education for IDPs and affected communities was found to be significantly weak. While the MoE has clear formal mandate and responsibility, there is no dedicated directorate for coordination and full-time coordination staff and expertise across the MoE and REBs. Similar issues affect the Education Cluster, its regional clusters and Cluster Lead Agencies (CLAs), all of which have suffered from staffing shortages for extended periods. Incentives for engaging with coordination mechanisms have also been lacking due to an absence of significant funding.

In contrast, education for refugees is found to be generally well coordinated in terms of avoiding duplication of delivery and service provision, with weaknesses in more detailed areas shaping education quality (e.g. teacher training and pay). The strengths of coordination mechanisms can be attributed to: clarity of

mandates of both ARRA and UNHCR, their long history of cooperation and close working relationship; the presence of strong tools and incentives, including financial resources, for implementers engaging with the coordination mechanisms; and high levels of overall staffing.

Further, the study found that provision across the national education system and integration of refugee education is perceived as weak even though there are good examples in specific areas, as well as long-term aspirations towards integration of these systems under the CRRF roll-out process. A key challenge is the absence of a formal body responsible across the MoE, REBs and ARRA, with coordination relying on a few ad hoc mechanisms and incentives created by international funding. While there are initiatives to improve the clarity of mandates, roles and responsibilities – including a memorandum of understanding (MoU) between the MoE and ARRA, and the integration of systems under the CRRF, progress has been slow on both processes and there is a lack of clarity over how these will operate in practice.

So what does coordinated education planning and response contribute?

While this research cannot empirically demonstrate a link between coordination practices and education outcomes, anecdotal and other existing evidence – examined through the five Education Cannot Wait (ECW) outcomes framework (equity and gender equality, access, continuity, protection and quality) – points to the following.

- First, *gender inequalities* in education access for refugees have not narrowed in recent years, despite increased coordination efforts.
- Second, in terms of *access*, there has been a considerable expansion in the number and share of refugee children enrolled in education at all levels, and across both boys and girls. The expansion of funding appears to be a major driver here.
- Third, mechanisms for accrediting refugee children and allowing them access to national schools appear to be improving *continuity* of education. However, similar progress is lacking for IDPs where limited funding and

focus on the provision of education to IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters is associated with significant gaps between the need for temporary learning spaces and the number of children that are being reached at present.

- Fourth, in terms of *protection* and broader outcomes, the education response to the IDP crisis does appear to have been highly successful in terms of implementing school feeding mechanisms reaching large numbers of displaced and crisis-affected children. However, this success is not replicated in other protection outcomes, such as psychosocial support to children.
- Finally, in terms of *quality*, coordination across the national and refugee education systems – supported by international financing – appears to have a positive effect on many intermediate inputs and indicators that could be expected to improve learning outcomes.

Recommendations

To strengthen education outcomes for children and young people in Ethiopia affected by crises, humanitarian and development actors should more effectively coordinate planning and response. This study recommends that the Ethiopian Government and donors commit to:

1. Support efforts to clarify mandates and roles across ARRA, the MoE and REBs.
2. Make greater use of the potential of international funding to encourage collaboration between REBs and ARRA to improve the quality of refugee education.
3. Support the establishment of dedicated coordination units and personnel for emergency response within the MoE and REBs in consistently crisis-affected regions.
4. Improve the presence of permanent and dedicated coordination staff for the Ethiopia Education Cluster and regional clusters.
5. Prioritise investing in data as a key part of the education response.
6. Encourage high-profile goals on learning outcomes for refugee and IDP education.
7. Consider education as a pathfinder for inclusion and integration of refugees and IDPs.

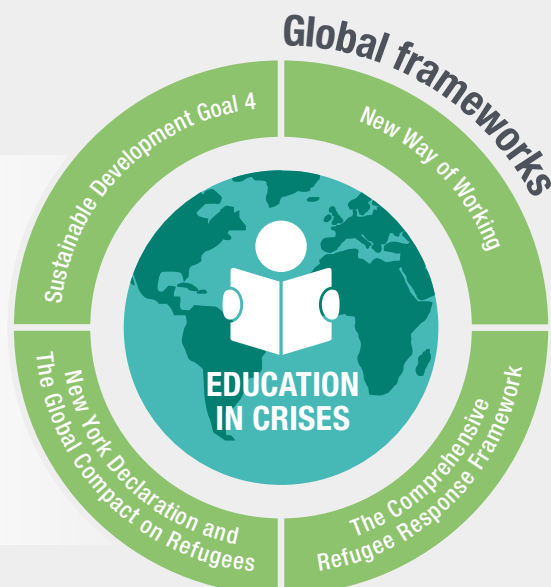
Conceptual framework: Ethiopia

Key features that shape education coordination outcomes

Country context



Protracted crisis due to regional conflicts, recurrent drought, and political instability linked to reforms. Home to second largest refugee population in Africa, with a million registered refugees and asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2018a) – of this, South Sudanese are largest (47%), followed by Somalis (28%). Internal displacement of 2.6 million people.



Who: Coordination approaches

The main actors coordinating leadership for education planning and response, their responsibilities, as well as the type of group(s) present.

For IDPs and local communities affected by crises:

- **The Ministry of Education (MoE)** coordinates education planning and response, supported by the Ethiopia Education Cluster, chaired by the MoE and co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children, with NGOs and development partners participating.

For refugees:

- **The Ethiopian government's ARRA** coordinates education planning and response with support from UNHCR and the Refugee Education Working Group, involving the MoE, Regional Education Bureaus (REBs) and NGO partners.



How: Ways of working

The critical processes and tools that shape the experience of education planning and response throughout programme/project cycles.

The 'Faerman factors' analysis on predisposition, incentives, leadership, and equity reveals:

- For refugee education coordination, ARRA and UNHCR have clear mandates, strong financial resources and high staffing levels.
- But, a key challenge to refugee education coordination and integration with the national education system is the absence of a formal body responsible for coordinating across the MoE, REBs and ARRA.
- For IDPs and local communities affected by crises, there is no dedicated directorate for coordination and expertise across the MoE and REBs. The Ethiopia Education Cluster, its regional clusters and Cluster Lead Agencies (CLAs) suffer from staffing shortages and underfunding.



So what: Evidence of impact

The collective education outcomes of coordinated education planning and response as linked to coordination quality measures.

- **Gender** inequalities in education access for refugees remain a challenge.
- **Access** has increased amongst refugee children at all levels of education due to increased funding.
- **Continuity** of education improved for refugee children due to accreditation mechanisms and access to national schools, however similar progress is lacking for IDPs.
- **Protection** has improved for IDPs due to school feeding mechanisms but has not extended to broader protection outcomes, such as psychological support.
- **Quality** expected to improve as coordination across the national and refugee education systems focuses on many intermediate inputs and indicators relating to learning outcomes.



1 Introduction

Ethiopia faces a multi-faceted challenge to ensure that education is provided to all children affected by crisis. The country is host to the second largest refugee population in Africa, with almost a million registered refugees and asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2018a), while 2.6 million Ethiopian citizens are internally displaced due to conflict and protracted drought (GoE et al., 2018). Beyond this, an education response is also needed to assist the many non-displaced Ethiopian citizens who face recurrent natural disasters linked to the long-term impacts of climate change. Both the Government of Ethiopia (GoE) and its international partners are also increasingly interested in the potential for synergies in education provision for the communities hosting refugee populations. This is particularly the case in Ethiopia's underdeveloped regions (referred to nationally as 'emerging' regions), where refugee populations are concentrated and where education access and retention remains a particular challenge.¹ The main focus of this study is on education provision for internally displaced persons (IDPs), refugees and other local communities affected by crises and conflict.

The education response in Ethiopia must therefore meet a range of different needs. It takes place in the broader context of an education system that aims to meet the needs of over 42 million under-18-year-olds (FDRE, 2015), who speak 88 different languages (Simons and Fenning, 2018) and are spread across a federal system that includes nine regions and two City Administrations. This range of challenges is also unlikely to be simplified in the near future.

In particular, the protracted nature of conflicts in South Sudan and Somalia makes it unlikely that refugees will return en masse in the short or medium term. At the same time, internal displacement and disruption is likely to continue due to short-term instability linked to Ethiopia's ongoing political reform efforts, and the long-term impact of climate change.

Ensuring connections and synergies across different types of education providers is crucial for an effective education response that can overcome these challenges. This is particularly the case in Ethiopia, where there is a wide range of coordination bodies and education providers involved in different parts of the response. At the national level, the education response framework includes an Education Cluster (co-led by the Ministry of Education (MoE), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and Save the Children International (SCI)), an Education Sector Working Group (co-led by the MoE and an elected donor representative, currently the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and Finland) and a Refugee Education Working Group (REWG) (co-led by the Agency for Refugee & Returnee Affairs (ARRA)² and UNHCR, the UN Refugee Agency). The Education Cluster and REWG structures are then replicated at the regional level and involve a wide range of national and international NGOs, creating a considerable group of actors to coordinate on education issues.

Ethiopia is of particular interest as an early pioneer of approaches to improve coordination. Ethiopia was one of the first countries to set out pledges following the 2016 Summit on Refugees

1 The proportion of out-of-school-children is significantly higher in several of the emerging regions compared to the national average. As of 2016, 24% of primary-school age children were out-of-school across Ethiopia. This compares to 42% in Somali and 25% in Afar. In contrast, the figures for Benishangul-Gumuz and Gambella were 20% and 9% respectively (WIDE, 2016).

2 Formerly the Administration for Refugee and Returnee Affairs.

and Migrants hosted by the United Nations General Assembly, with education featuring prominently, and was subsequently selected as a roll-out country for the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) in November 2017. The CRRF aims to be a vehicle to implement the pledges of the GoE by bringing together humanitarian and development actors and enacting systemic reforms that can support both refugees and host communities. The CRRF and associated processes are explained in greater detail in the following sections. Ethiopia is also one of the first countries to be a recipient of an Education Cannot Wait (ECW) grant – aimed at supporting education for both host and refugee communities and facilitating integration across these two systems.

All these elements make Ethiopia an important case study for the coordination of EiE and protracted crises, in terms of the range of challenges, actors and mechanisms at work – and provide the chance to draw lessons from the functioning of existing structures and the experience of developing and implementing the newly created bodies and approaches.

The structure of this report is as follows:

- Chapter 2 gives the background to the research and sets out the case study methodology.
- Chapter 3 sets out key information on the Ethiopian context and the current state of the education response for refugees and IDPs.
- Chapter 4 deals with the ‘who’ of coordination in Ethiopia, giving an overview of the main coordination systems for EiE and the roles of different coordination bodies and key actors.
- Chapter 5 focuses on the ‘how’ of coordination within and across the different coordination systems, bodies and actors.
- Chapter 6 explores the ‘so what’ of coordination in Ethiopia (i.e. the implications and impacts of coordination arrangements).
- Chapter 7 sets out the conclusions of the analysis.
- Chapter 8 provides a set of key recommendations on how to improve coordination, planning and response for EiE in Ethiopia to strengthen education outcomes for children and young people affected by crises.

2 Research framework and case study methodology

This chapter sets out the overall framework for the research, including its main questions and aims, and explains how the Ethiopia case study relates to the broader research project. It then sets out the case study methodology in detail.

2.1 Framing the research

Recognising the need for strengthened coordination, planning and response for education in crisis-affected contexts, the ECW is supporting the Global Partners' Project, a strategic partnership between the Global Education Cluster (GEC), UNHCR and the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), which aims to undertake a comprehensive review of joint coordination, planning and response structures for EiE. The project will document existing practices and challenges in coordination at the country level and identify lessons across a range of contexts to support improved programming.

As part of the partnership, the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) is delivering research to examine how humanitarian and development actors can more effectively coordinate planning and responses to strengthen education outcomes for children and young people affected by crises. This research will look at the 'who', the 'how' and the 'so what' of coordination of EiE and protracted crises, resulting in recommendations for action that can be taken by different types of stakeholders across different contexts, including the ECW Fund and key partners.

The Ethiopia country case study is a pilot for a further five country case studies that are part of this

broader research. It also includes a global analysis framework report and a final synthesis report.

The central research question of the study for the Global Partners' Project is: *'How can humanitarian and development actors more effectively coordinate planning and response to strengthen education outcomes for children and young people affected by crises?'* Answering this question will involve looking more closely at the 'who', the 'how' and the 'so what' of coordinated education planning and response in IDP, refugee and mixed response coordination.

The primary aim of the Global Partners' Project is to deliver an evidence base on approaches for effective coordination of planning and response in education across national governments, sub-national and local responders. It will particularly look into cooperation across the humanitarian-development nexus, to explore how humanitarian and development actors can more effectively coordinate on issues of education in crisis – both in terms of how humanitarian actors can assist in long-term system development and how development actors can foster systems that are resilient to crises and able to respond effectively to them. The research will look at crises caused by natural disasters and conflict, as well as refugees and IDPs. It will assess barriers to effective coordination, identify examples of harmonised approaches to deliver education interventions in crisis contexts, and document transferable lessons.

The overall evidence base is intended to contribute to: EiE and development practitioners at global, national and local levels having an enhanced knowledge of, and capacity for, improved approaches to coordination

of education planning and response; and EiE and development partners' operational collaboration at global, national and local levels being strengthened to support effective and harmonised approaches to coordination of education planning and response. These aims apply particularly to national and sub-national education authorities. The evidence base should also inform policy discussions on humanitarian-development coherence at global, national and local levels, and specifically the strategic approach and ways of working of the ECW Fund and key partners.

This case study is intended to begin the process of creating country-level evidence bases, which can then be synthesised to develop a stronger global evidence base on what works across and within particular contexts. In order to do so, the case study design will examine each of the three sub-questions of the overall research question in the Ethiopian context, looking more closely at the 'who', the 'how' and the 'so what' of coordination of EiE and protracted crises.

The sub-research questions are:

Q1: *Who* are the main stakeholders contributing to country-level education coordination in emergencies and protracted crises, and how can their roles be optimised?

Q2: *How* can coordination of education planning and response be made more effective?

Q3: *So what* does coordinated education planning and response contribute to better education and other collective outcomes for children and young people affected by crises?

2.2 Case study methodology

The case study approach is based on four main steps, as illustrated in the diagram and set out in detail below.

1. An initial literature review and stakeholder mapping.
2. In-country research in two sites: in Addis Ababa to gather responses at the federal level, and in the Gambella region³ to gather responses from a regional and refugee-hosting perspective.

3. Analysis of collected data.
4. Validation of findings with key stakeholders.

2.2.1 Literature review and stakeholder mapping

The literature review and stakeholder mapping involved a review of existing grey literature on the country context, education system, crisis and response. This was augmented by phone interviews with key informants involved in the humanitarian response and coordination efforts prior to the in-country research. It gathered information on: the nature, scale and impact of the crisis (i.e. the types of disaster, numbers of children affected, the types of groups affected, ways in which the education sector has been affected, etc.); the nature of preparedness and response efforts (i.e. the focus of education preparedness and response), actors involved, funding levels/gaps, coordination mechanisms involved, new initiatives present, such as the CRRF; key stakeholders, their roles and the obstacles they face (including national and international actors, national and sub-national government departments and agencies, development and humanitarian organisations, national and international NGOs, etc.); the national education system and plans (i.e. formal and informal structures, extent of planning for education and crisis issues, assessments of national capacity, national coordination structures and mechanisms for providing education to IDPs, refugees, etc.); existing obstacles to effective coordination; and examples of effective coordination that have led to greater agility, the connections between and the speed of planning and response.

The analysis of this information was then used to develop the focus of the in-country research, shape specific research questions and target specific stakeholders for key informant interviews (KIIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs).

2.2.2 In-country research – Addis Ababa and Gambella region

In-country research took place over a period of 10 days from 13–24 August 2018 in Addis Ababa and the Gambella region. The research team

3 Gambella is the largest refugee-hosting region in Ethiopia and home to 425,468 South Sudanese refugees (UNHCR, 2018b).

conducted over 30 KIIs and four FGDs with key stakeholders involved in the education system, and particularly education for IDPs and refugees.^{4,5} The Gambella region was selected following consultation with the Global Partners and host organisations in Ethiopia, and was considered a particularly important area for research given that the region hosts a significant proportion of Ethiopia's refugee population and faces a range of challenges around the delivery, integration and coordination of education for both refugees and host communities. ECW has also supported a number of education programmes in Gambella focused on these groups and issues.

In Addis Ababa, the research team held interviews with the MoE, ARRA, UNHCR, UNICEF, SCI and a range of bilateral donors and NGOs that are involved in education programming or the provision and financing of education for IDPs, refugees and communities affected by crises and disasters. FGDs were also conducted with the national Education Cluster and the REWG, and the research team attended briefings hosted by a number of agencies.

In Gambella, the research team held interviews in and near Gambella Town with officials in the regional government, the Regional Education Bureau (REB), the zonal ARRA, UNHCR, UNICEF and various NGOs involved in the education response in the region. Interviews were also conducted in two refugee camps – Nguenyiel (the largest camp in Ethiopia hosting 99,651 refugees as of July 2018) and Kule (which hosts 54,373 refugees) (UNHCR, 2018b). These involved officials in Woreda Education Offices (WEOs) and camp-level ARRA offices, as well as school principals, early childhood care and education (ECCD) Officers, and representatives of parent-teacher associations (PTAs) within the refugee camps. FGDs were also conducted with the regional Education Cluster and the REWG.

A full list of interviewees, FGDs, briefings and events can be found in Annex 1.

The research in Addis Ababa and Gambella region focused on gathering additional information on, and deepening the researchers' understanding of, processes and issues beyond those identified in the literature, gathering up-to-date information on existing and emerging coordination approaches and emerging issues and investigating examples of coherent practices in detail. The process also identified and gathered further documents for review. The aim was to identify the underlying causes of persistent obstacles to effective coordination; the impact that different approaches to coordination are having; the enabling factors behind effective coordination approaches; and the role of different stakeholders at the national and implementation level.

The KIIs and FGDs were conducted in a semi-structured manner. They drew on a list of questions based on the global analysis framework report, the country-specific literature review and analysis from the initial KIIs. The questions also allowed interviewees (and interviewers) the space to outline and explore other relevant issues and emerging topics.

Interviewees were selected initially based on the stakeholder mapping conducted in the literature review phase as well as constructive feedback from UNICEF and UNHCR country offices in Addis Ababa and regional sub-offices in Gambella.

2.2.3 Analysis

The analysis stage drew together the information collected during the in-country research, triangulated this across multiple interviews and data sources and involved additional document reviews to close gaps in the information. This process has drawn out key themes in terms of our research questions on the 'who', 'how' and 'so what' of coordination in the Ethiopian context.

4 During the in-country research, the ODI research team was joined by representatives from a project support team created for the Global Partners' Project. Some of the KIIs and FGDs were held in their presence, but their role was to observe but not actively participate in those. The rationale for their inclusion in some of the research was to identify specific country-relevant actions they could support.

5 UNICEF and UNHCR hosted the research team during this period and took responsibility for setting up KIIs and FGDs, as well as providing transport and securing research permissions. UNICEF performed these roles for the research in Addis Ababa (with some assistance from UNHCR), while UNHCR was responsible for facilitating the research in Gambella.

Analysis of ‘who’ is addressed by mapping the formal role of different actors in the literature and sector planning documents, augmented with information on informal practices and roles derived from the KIIs and FGDs.

The analysis process for the ‘how’ of coordination – specifically looking at enabling factors and constraints – is aligned with that used for the global analysis framework report. This draws on a framework derived from organisational science, which aims to understand the behaviour of different organisations across diverse contexts that involve numerous entities, often in competition or with a history of conflicts; who are interdependent and would collectively gain from cooperating rather than competing; who fall under different governance systems but who try to design rules and principles to collectively govern their behaviour (Faerman et al., 2001).

Faerman et al. (2001) identified four factors that appear in organisational research relating to the success or failure of inter-organisational coordinated efforts, and which we use in our analysis to understand the enabling factors and constraints for coordination in Ethiopia: predisposition; incentives; leadership; and equity.

This frame was applied by Nolte et al. (2012) to analyse the collaborative networks that operated during the disaster response in Haiti in 2010.

Analysis of the ‘so what’ of education coordination in Ethiopia was structured according to the ECW outcomes framework and conducted through a review of trends in existing data on outcomes against the evolution

of coordination mechanisms, as well as mapping the anecdotal evidence on outcomes gathered through the interview process. We acknowledge that there are significant limitations to this process and that we are not in a position to demonstrate empirically that improved coordination results in improvements in education outcomes. This is partly due to the absence of quantitative metrics for the level or quality of coordination, but also to issues with data access and the practical scope of this study.

The findings from this research will then be used by the Global Partners in collaboration with country-level international and national actors to produce a set of practical recommendations that can form an action plan to be taken up and used at country level. These will focus on how existing stakeholders, structures and resources can be organised to close gaps in the response and improve its effectiveness. This action plan goes beyond the research process described here and is not included as a part of this report.

2.2.4 Validation

The validation stage involved sharing the case study report with country experts for their review and comments, as well as a Global Reference Group of experts on humanitarian and education coordination issues. The case study was then revised and finalised based on these inputs.

The comments were also discussed at a meeting with the Global Partners to identify where changes may be needed in the approach to subsequent desk-based and in-country case studies.

Conceptual framework

Key features that shape education coordination outcomes

Country contexts



Country situation: the geographic, political, legal, social and economic context of the country, as well as existing capacity of national and/or regional authorities to respond to the crisis



Type of crisis: violence and conflict, environmental, health, complex emergencies, and whether displacement produces either internal displacement or refugee situations, and the scale of displacement, disasters or mixed situations



Phase of crisis: Sudden onset emergency and/or protracted situation



Who: Coordination approaches

The main actors coordinating leadership for education planning and response, their responsibilities, as well as the type of group(s) present.

- **Ministry of Education**, and/or other national ministries, often in a lead or co-lead role for all coordination groups listed below
- Regional or local **government bodies** overseeing education and/or emergency response
- IASC **Humanitarian cluster coordination approach**, with the Global Education Cluster co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children, and country level cluster leadership varied
- **Refugee Coordination Model** led by UNHCR
- **Development coordination**, through Local Education Groups, typically co-led by multi- and bilateral donors
- Mixed, regional and other **hybrid approaches**



How: Ways of working

The critical processes and tools that shape the experience of education planning and response throughout programme/project cycles.

- **Coordination across the humanitarian programme cycle (HCP) and refugee response planning cycle:** needs assessment and analysis, strategic response planning, resource mobilisation, implementation and monitoring, operational review and evaluation
- **INEE Minimum Standards:** a global tool that articulates the minimum level of educational quality and access in emergencies through to recovery
- **The Faerman Factors:** predisposition, incentives, leadership and equity highlighting the softer side of coordination



So what: Evidence of impact

The collective education outcomes of coordinated education planning and response as linked to coordination quality measures.

- **Collective education outcomes set out in Education Cannot Wait strategy:** access, equity and gender equality, protection, quality and continuity
- **Coordination quality measured by OECD DAC criteria:** coverage, relevance/appropriateness, coherence, accountability and participation, effectiveness, complementarity, sufficiency, efficiency, connectedness and impact



3 The Ethiopian context and education response

This chapter provides a brief background to Ethiopia's current political set-up and decentralised structure of government. It also outlines the refugee and IDP situation: in 2018 in particular the number of people affected, the estimates of current education needs for both refugees and IDPs, as well as achievements against the GoE pledges on refugee education set out in the CRRF road map.

3.1 Country background

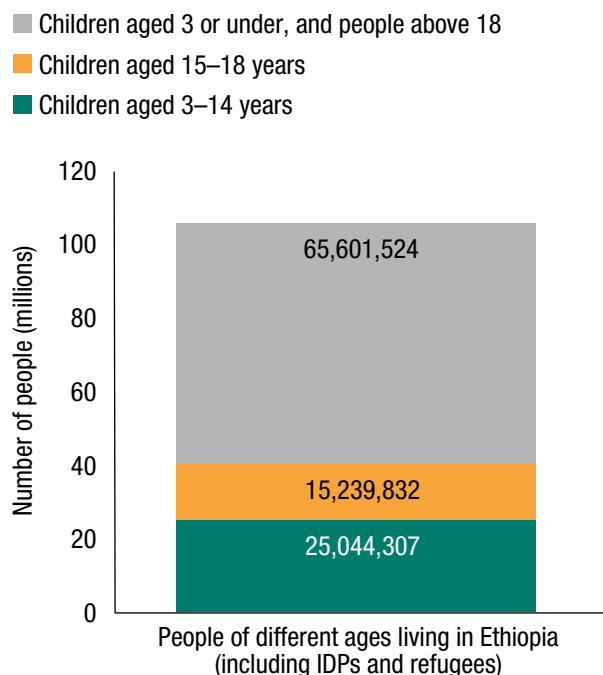
Ethiopia is one of the fastest-growing countries in East Africa, averaging growth of 10.3% a year between 2006/07 and 2016/17 (against a regional average of 5.4%) and has ambitions to achieve Middle Income Country status by 2025. Although it is growing rapidly, and this growth is helping to drive improvement in social sectors, Ethiopia remains one of the poorest countries in Africa in terms of per capita income and faces a range of challenges in reducing poverty and ensuring all its citizens are able to access good quality public services (World Bank, 2018). The country has seen significant political changes in recent years, as well as a major programme of political reform. In 2018, Ethiopia saw the resignation of Hailemariam Desalegn from the post of Prime Minister and his replacement by Abiy Ahmed at the head of the ruling Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) coalition. Just two months after his induction, Prime Minister Ahmed was able to ease long-standing tensions with neighbouring Eritrea by declaring that the state of war between the countries was over (BBC, 2019). The new Prime Minister has introduced a range of reforms in different areas and begun restructuring the Federal

Government – including in the education sector – but at the same time Ethiopia has faced a wave of protests and outbreaks of violence, some of which are linked to ethnic tensions.

Ethiopia has a unique ethnic federalist system with devolved political, fiscal and administrative powers to nine regions based on ethnicity. As the country emerged from civil conflict in the 1990s and power was consolidated by the opposition forces to the former Derg dictatorship, the 1995 Constitution introduced this decentralised system. It has sought to bring decision-making power on social and economic affairs to local areas though, like any transition to a more decentralised system, it has not been evenly rolled out. There are concerns that the system does not devolve enough power to the *woreda* (district) level, particularly in terms of fiscal powers, and the EPRDF maintains considerable political authority (Lenhardt et al., 2015). Overall, however, Ethiopia has fared quite well with its decentralisation 'experiment' compared to other countries (Dickovick and Riedl, 2010). Lenhardt et al. (2015) note that one purpose of maintaining central power is to ensure that the broader national objective of poverty reduction filters through all levels of government.

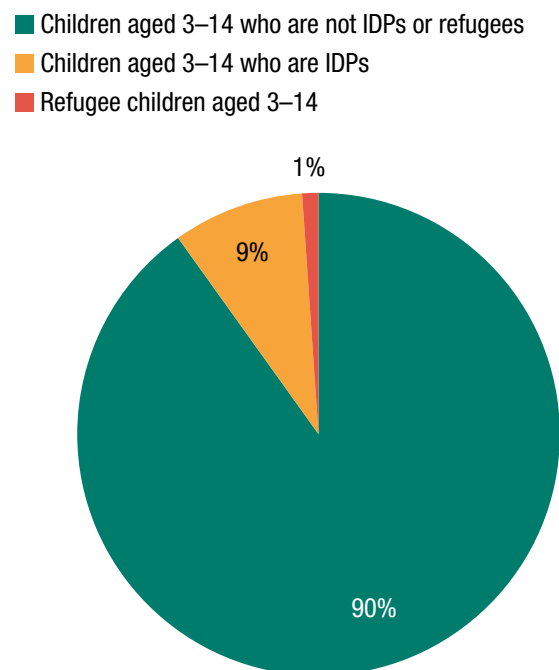
There are nearly 106 million people living in Ethiopia, including IDPs and refugees (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, n.d.). Of those, 25 million are aged three to 14, 15.2 million are aged 15 to 18, and 65.6 million are below three years old or above 18 (see Figure 1). Of the 25 million children aged three to 14, 2.2 million (9%) are IDPs or otherwise affected by crises and disasters, 1% are refugees, and the overwhelming majority – 90% – are children who are neither IDPs nor refugees (Figure 2).

Figure 1 Number of people of different ages living in Ethiopia



Source: Authors' calculations based on UNHCR (2018a), GoE et al. (2018) and UNESCO Institute of Statistics (n.d.).

Figure 2 Children in Ethiopia aged 3–14 who are refugees, IDPs or otherwise affected by crises and disasters



Source: Authors' calculations based on UNHCR (2018a), GoE et al. (2018) and UNESCO Institute of Statistics (n.d.).

3.2 Outline of the IDP situation

Ethiopia is dealing with multiple internal crises that include protracted drought and conflicts that have displaced 2.6 million people (GoE et al., 2018). Roughly 80% of total internal displacement has been due to conflict (UNICEF, 2018a)⁶ along the Oromia/Somali regional borders and along the border of the Oromia region and the Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples' Region (SNNPR), in particular in the Gedeo and West Guji zones.

Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of IDPs in Ethiopia.

3.2.1 Estimates of education needs for IDPs

The UNICEF Humanitarian Situation Report covering the period from January to June 2018 states an estimated 2.2 million children

in Ethiopia need assistance to continue their education. Most of these children are in the regions of Somali, Oromia and SNNPR (UNICEF, 2018b). In terms of education access issues for IDPs, as of October 2018, some 25% of IDP sites lacked access to formal primary education, only 30% had more than half of IDP children enrolled in school and less than 5% had gender parity in school enrolment (IOM, 2018).

The needs of these children vary due to the differing nature of the crises affecting them. Drought issues linked to climate change, for example, are creating significant needs in terms of school feeding and livelihoods support.⁷ In contrast, conflict and flooding have resulted in damage to infrastructure and significant internal displacement. As of August 2018, 12 schools in Gedeo are reported as damaged (four of which are destroyed) and 81 schools are currently occupied and being

⁶ The information is collected through the IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) tool.

⁷ Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) interventions – including water trucking and drilling boreholes – have been an important part of the broader humanitarian approach, but do not appear to have been school-based (UNICEF, 2018a).

used as shelters by the IDPs (UNICEF, 2018a). If damaged schools are not rehabilitated and the IDPs relocated, 93,322 enrolled students and 234,152 IDP school-age children in SNNPR region will not be able to attend school at the beginning of the new academic year in September 2018 (ibid.). In Oromia, 16 schools are reported as damaged (three completely destroyed) as a result of the conflict, while 14 schools are occupied by IDPs. This in turn affects another 22,805 students already enrolled in Oromia region. Moreover, the 80,000 school-age children displaced in 2017 by flooding along the Somali and Oromia border are still in need of support, with the UNICEF-led response focusing on accelerated and innovative education service delivery approaches (UNICEF, 2018a).

The MoE and the REBs have responded to these crises by providing school meals to approximately 1.6 million school-age children across the affected regions over the course of 2018. Further, through the pivoting of funds from within the education pooled sector programme, the MoE procured paper and writing materials for students across

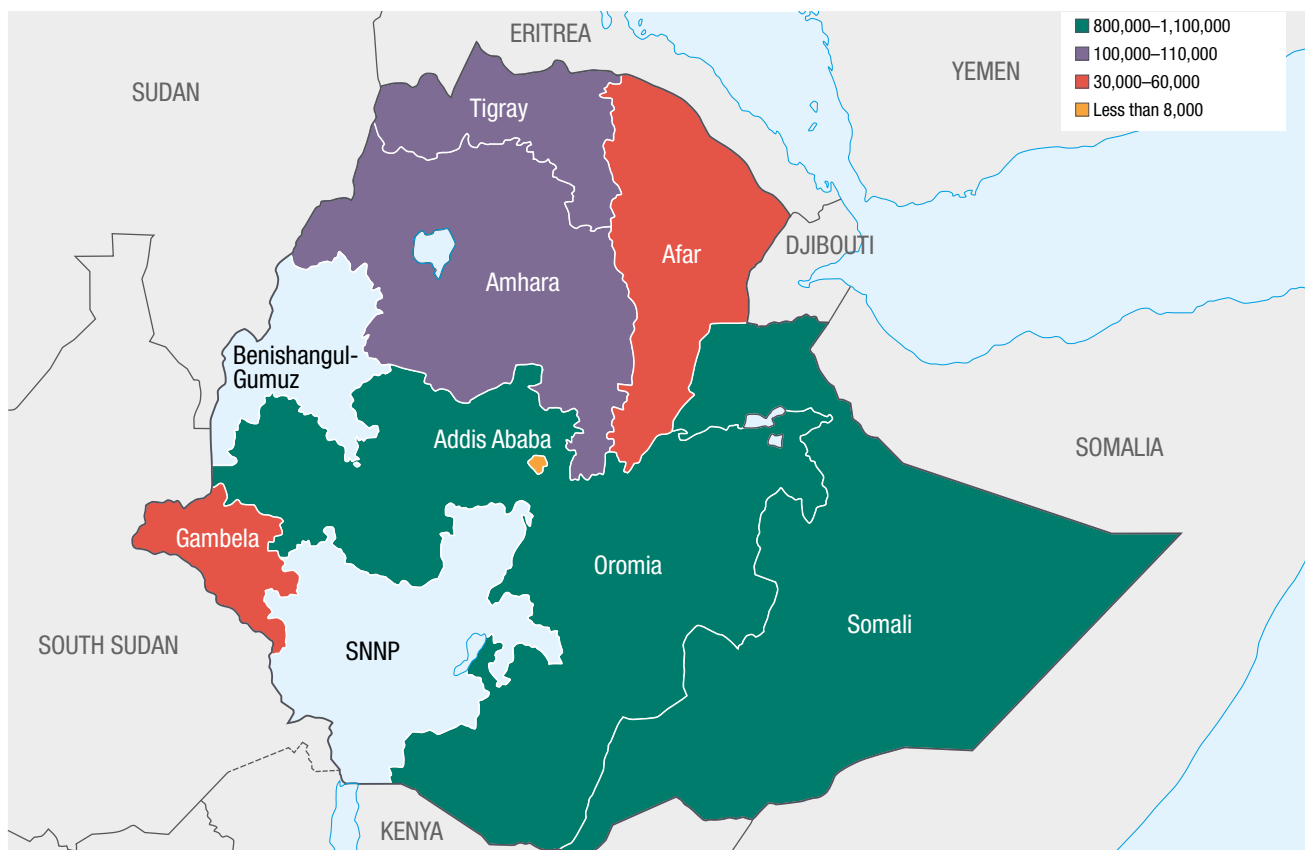
the three regions. However, there are significant challenges in funding the response. For examples, in May 2018, the Ethiopia Humanitarian Fund allocated only \$1 million to partners for the delivery of EiE programmes to reach an estimated 30,000 children displaced by outbreaks of internal conflict along the border between the Oromia and Somali regions (UNICEF, 2018b; 2018c).

3.2.2 Evolution of the IDP situation in recent years

Internal displacement in Ethiopia is multi-causal and complex, making it difficult to distinguish between the numerous drivers of displacement. The interaction between high levels of existing vulnerability in rural populations exposed to severe drought, heavy rains and floods, ongoing political and resource-based conflict, coupled with overstretched government capacity, create a high-risk environment in which new displacements are likely to continue (IDMC, 2018).

Of the country's workforce, 85% depends on agriculture and pastoralism, so weather-related

Figure 3 Internal displacement in Ethiopia



Source: IOM Ethiopia (2019).

hazards such as drought and floods regularly force many people to leave their homes in search of a livelihood and food, water and pasture for their livestock. The movement of pastoralists, although a normal part of life, has caused resource-based conflict, as grazing pastures become increasingly scarce due to drought. In the Somali region, tensions over access to resources have shifted to conflict over resource ownership.

Other important drivers of conflict in Ethiopia are the proliferation of arms and political exploitation of ethnic and cultural differences that fuel local struggles (IDMC, 2018). In 2017, the border dispute between the regions of Oromia and Somali flared up again and led to significant new internal displacements.

Displacement from drought and conflict can escalate quickly in Ethiopia. Within just 18 months

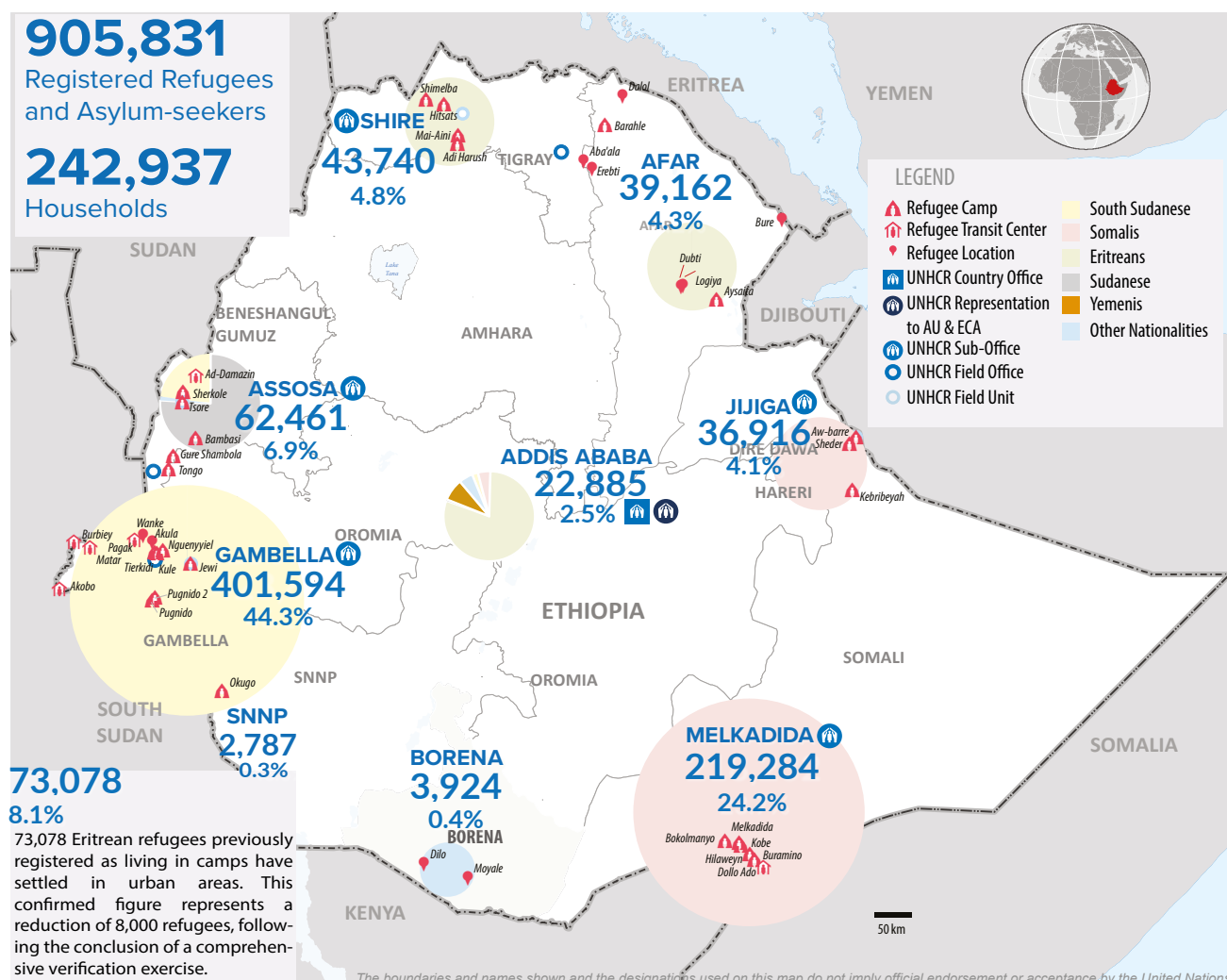
(between January 2017 and July 2018), the country saw the number of conflict and climate-related IDPs rise from 0.6 million to 2.6 million, an increase of 330% (UNICEF, 2018b).

3.3 Outline of the refugee situation

As of August 2018, Ethiopia hosts 905,831 registered refugees and asylum seekers (UNHCR, 2018f). Of these, South Sudanese represent the largest share at 47% (over 422,000 people in absolute terms), followed by Somalis (28%) (around 257,000 people), Eritreans (18%) (around 174,000 people), Sudanese (5%) (around 45,000 people). Yemenis and other nationalities represent less than 1%, or roughly 7,800 people (ibid.).

Figure 4 illustrates the geographic spread of the refugee population. A great majority

Figure 4 Refugee population distribution in Ethiopia



Source: Operational Portal Refugee Situations (2018)

of refugees are located in camp settings. The Gambella region hosts the largest share at 44%, equivalent to 401,594 people, with the Melkadida camps in Somali region hosting 24% or 219,284 people (Operational Portal Refugee Situations, 2018). As stated in previous sections, the Gambella region was selected as an additional research site for this study.

3.3.1 Overview of refugee education provision

Ethiopia has a long history of hosting refugees. It is a party to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, as well as the 1967 Protocol and the 1969 Refugee Convention of the Organization of African Unity. Ethiopia continues to maintain an open-door asylum policy, giving humanitarian access and protection to those seeking refuge in its territory.

Education for refugees is coordinated by the GoE's ARRA, with the support of UNHCR – which holds the sole mandate for the protection and assistance of refugee populations, and the assistance of the REWG, the MoE and REBs.

Refugee education is being provided at four levels by a range of providers, from early childhood care and education (ECCE) to tertiary education and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) (see Figure 5).

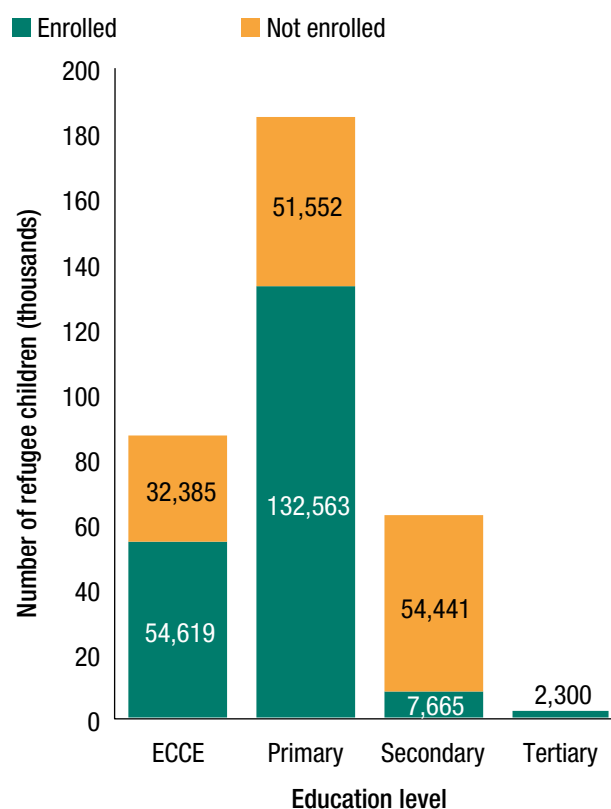
ECCE: Of the 87,004 refugee children aged 3–6 years, 63% (54,619 children) were supported in 80 ECCE centres within the refugee camps, and 150 private and public kindergartens in Addis Ababa in 2018 (UNHCR, 2018c). The Government has exceeded its pledge target set out in the CRRF road map of increasing pre-school enrolment of refugee children to 60%. ECCE for refugees in camp contexts is delivered by a number of NGOs.

Primary education: Of the 184,115 refugee children between the ages of seven and 14, 72% (132,563 children) are enrolled in 58 primary schools and 20 Alternative Basic Education centres in the camps, together with 166 schools in urban areas (UNHCR, 2018c). This 72% enrolment rate brings Ethiopia close to the Government's pledge target of 75% set out in the CRRF road map. ARRA is the main provider of primary education for refugees, as well as the overall coordinating body for education for refugees.

Secondary education: Unlike the higher enrolment rates seen at primary and ECCE level, the enrolment rate at secondary level for school-age children between the ages of 15 and 18 is low. The latest figures show that of the 62,106 secondary school-age refugee children, only 12% (7,665 children) are enrolled. They are distributed across nine camp-based secondary schools run by NGOs, 10 government-run schools near the refugee camps and 43 government and private-owned secondary schools in urban areas (UNHCR, 2018c; UNICEF, 2018d). There exists a considerable gap between the secondary school enrolment rate and the GoE pledge target of 25% set out in the CRRF road map.

Tertiary education: 2,300 refugees are enrolled in tertiary education, which is provided as part of the national education system (UNHCR, 2018c). This is close to the GoE pledge target of increasing opportunities for higher education enrolment for 2,500 refugees that is set out in the CRRF road map.

Figure 5 Total numbers of refugee children enrolled in education by level



Source: UNHCR (2018c). Note absence of data on total numbers of young people not enrolled in tertiary education.

There are large gender-based differences in gross enrolment ratio (GER) and net enrolment ratio (NER) at ECCE, primary and secondary school levels (see Figure 6). For instance, GER at ECCE level is higher for boys at 57% than for girls at 53%. At primary level, GER is much higher for boys at 72% than for girls at 51%. At secondary level, GER for boys is 13% and for girls it is 5%. Gender disparities illustrated by the gender parity index (GPI) suggest the highest disparities between boys and girls are at secondary level, where for every 100 boys at secondary school there are only 39 girls. The least disparity is seen at the ECCE level, illustrated by a GPI of 0.92 (UNHCR, 2018c).

3.3.2 Estimates of quality education needs for refugees

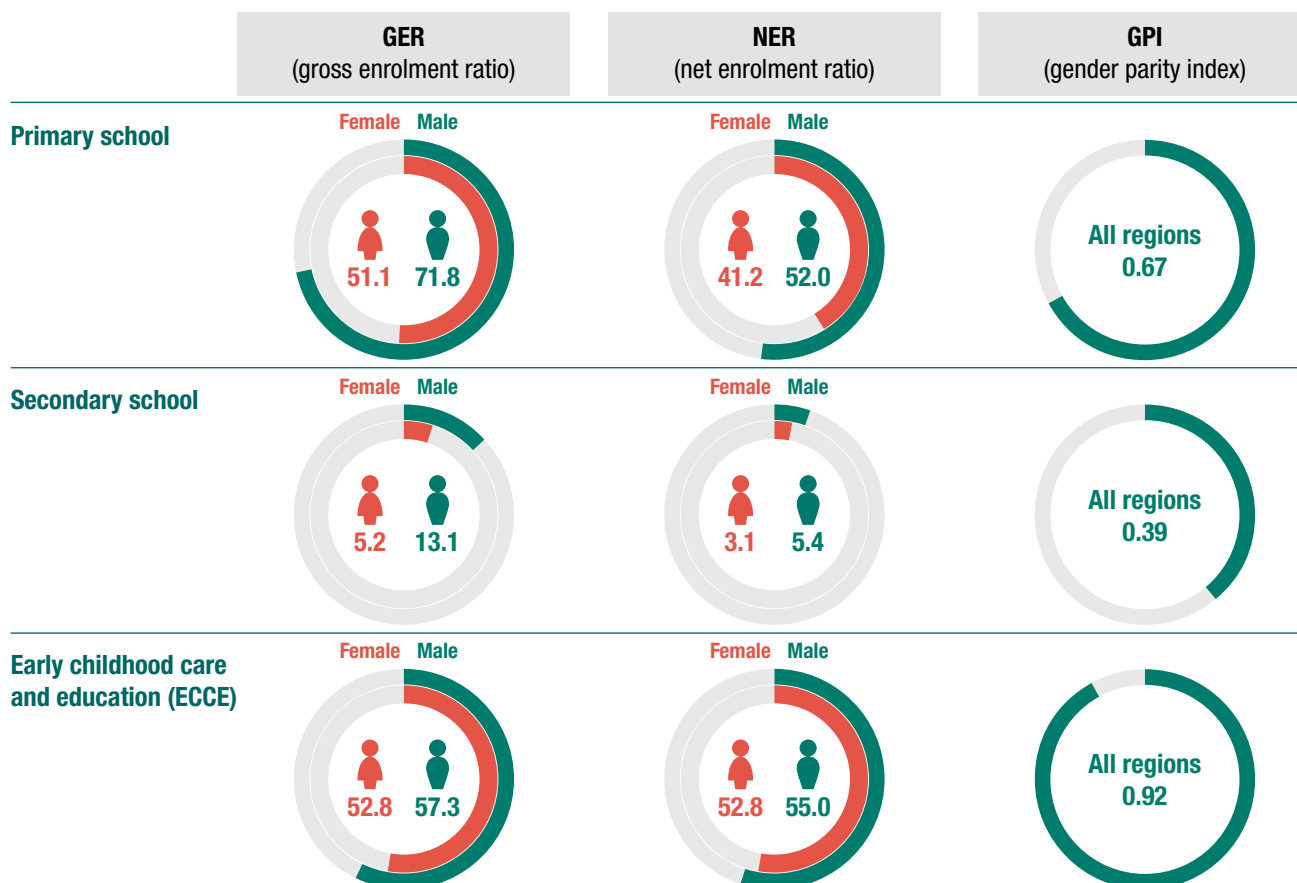
The quality of refugee education in Ethiopia is limited. There is a need for additional classroom space, adequately trained teachers and quality classroom materials, including books, scientific

implements and writing materials. Schools in most regions operate a double-shift system due to classroom shortages. The average teacher to student ratio is 1:80, and only 56% of teachers have formal qualifications to teach at primary school level (see Table 1). The enrolment of 309 refugee teachers in colleges in Gambella and Benishangul-Gumuz regions – financed by ECW – is expected to help address the shortage of qualified teachers in the two regions (UNHCR, 2018c).

Evolution of refugee situation in recent years

In 2009, following the voluntary repatriation of South Sudanese refugees, Ethiopia hosted around 90,000 refugees. By 2010 and 2011, with the influx of refugees from Somalia, Sudan and later from South Sudan, the number of refugees in Ethiopia increased dramatically (UNHCR, 2013a). The number has grown tenfold between 2009 and 2018 (the refugee population was estimated at 928,663 in July 2018 – UNHCR, 2018a). Considering the continued instability and political

Figure 6 School enrolment breakdown



Source: UNHCR (2018a).

turmoil in the region, it is likely that Ethiopia will remain a major refugee receiving country (UNHCR, 2013a; 2018a).

Ethiopia is also one of the pioneer countries for the CRRF. In September 2016, the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants (New York Declaration), was adopted unanimously by the UN General Assembly. The Declaration reaffirms the obligations of States to fully respect the rights of refugees and migrants and is intended to improve how the international community responds to large-scale movements of people, more predictably and equitably sharing responsibility for meeting the needs of refugees, migrants and host communities.

In addition to the Declaration itself, an Annex lays out the CRRF, a mechanism to strengthen partnership between donors, international organisations and host nations. The CRRF has a four-fold focus: the commitment to ease pressure on countries that host refugees; to enhance refugee self-reliance and resilience and support their inclusion into host communities from the first stages of a response; expand access to third-country solutions; and support efforts to enable refugees' voluntary and dignified return (CRRF, n.d.). The CRRF is, to all intents and purposes, part of the 'New Way of Working' on the refugee response. The core new elements include a joint operational plan and funding appeal; engagement of a wide range of stakeholders; and shared responsibility for solutions.

One day after the adoption of the New York Declaration, Ethiopia co-hosted the Leaders' Summit on Refugees in New York and set out nine pledges to improve the lives of refugees:

1. To expand the 'out-of-camp' policy to benefit 10% of the current total refugee population.
2. To provide work permits to refugees and those with permanent residence ID.
3. To provide work permits to refugees in the areas permitted for foreign workers.
4. To increase enrolment of refugee children in pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary education, without discrimination and within available resources.
5. To make 10,000 hectares of irrigable land available, to enable 20,000 refugees and host community households (100,000 people) to grow crops.
6. To allow local integration for refugees who have lived in Ethiopia for over 20 years.
7. To work with international partners to build industrial parks to employ up to 100,000 individuals, with 30% of the jobs reserved for refugees.
8. To expand and enhance basic and essential social services for refugees.
9. To provide other benefits, such as issuance of birth certificates to refugee children born in Ethiopia, and the possibility of opening bank accounts and obtaining driving licences.

Table 1 Quality of refugee education: indicators and current standards

Indicators	Refugee status	Host region status	Shared MoE, INEE and UNHCR standards ⁱ
Teacher to pupil ratio	1:80	1:46	1:40
Classroom to student ratio	1:103	1:55	1:40
Textbook to student ratio	1:15	1:4	1:1
Teacher qualification at primary level	56%	72%	100% (80% in EiE)
Female teachers	10%	37%	50%
Schools not meeting minimum standards for safe learning environment	50%	26% of primary schools rated Level 1 or lowest educational standard	0%

Notes: (i) The Ethiopia Minimum Standards for EiE sets out contextualised standards for EiE provision in Ethiopia, as agreed by the key actors (including the MoE). These are identical to the UNHCR standards for the first three indicators, but not for the fourth and fifth (i.e. they do not specify an 80% qualification ratio for EiE and do not set out a specific ratio for female teachers (INEE and EEC, 2013).

Source: UNHCR (2018a).

These represented a very high-profile commitment to integrate refugees into Ethiopia's society, economy and service delivery systems, with integration of education having a particularly prominent role. The CRRF aims to be a vehicle to implement the pledges of the GoE by bringing together humanitarian and development actors and enacting systemic reforms to improve coordination across the GoE's various ministries, bureaus and its agencies in a manner that can support both refugees and host communities. The adoption of a new Refugee Proclamation in January 2019 looked to further enable this process, replacing the earlier Refugee Proclamation 409/2004, which placed restrictions on refugee education, work and movements. The new Refugee Proclamation therefore helps to formalise the gradual reinterpretation of the 2004 Refugee Proclamation that loosened education restrictions, as explored in the following sections.

3.4 International financing for education in Ethiopia

3.4.1 Education ODA to Ethiopia

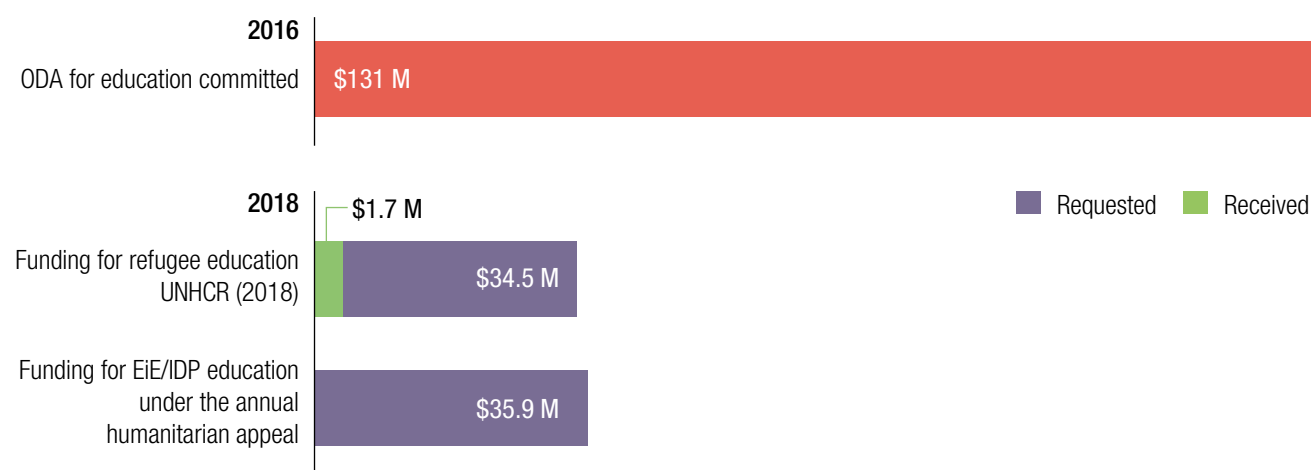
Ethiopia was among the top 10 countries receiving official development assistance

(ODA) for education from both bilateral and multilateral providers in 2016 (latest year available) (OECD DAC, n.d.).⁸ ODA for education has been significant, at \$131 million (in 2015 dollar terms) even though as a share of total aid received that year, \$4.1 billion, it was only 3.1%. The largest contributors in absolute terms were the US (\$33 million), the International Development Association (IDA) (World Bank) (\$24 million), Germany and Norway (\$8 million each), Japan (\$6 million), the UK and the Republic of Korea (\$5 million each) (ibid.).

3.4.2 Funding for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters

The funding requirement for education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters in Ethiopia in 2018 for the 2.2 million children between the ages of four and 14 targeted by the Ethiopia Education Cluster is \$34.5 million, while the overall humanitarian appeal for the year is \$1.66 billion (GoE et al., 2018). The focus of the EEC will be to respond to emergency needs of children in 150 Priority 1 *woredas*. According to OCHA's Financial Tracking Service (FTS), as of October 2018, only 11% of the education funding need (\$3.74 million) has been

Figure 7 International financing for education in Ethiopia



Source: Authors' calculations based on UNHCR (2018a), GoE et al. (2018) and UNESCO Institute of Statistics (n.d.).

⁸ There are four sub-sectors in education assistance: education policy training/research, and basic, secondary, and post-secondary education.

met.⁹ In other words, there is an 89% education funding gap (GoE et al., 2018). Of the overall appeal, only 18% of the funding requirement has been met, leaving a funding gap of 82%.

3.4.3 Funding for refugee education

The refugee education funding requirement for 2018 was \$35.9 million (UNHCR, 2018d)

out of a total requirement of \$327.8 million for refugee assistance presented by UNHCR.¹⁰ From available data, it is not possible to decipher how much of the education funding need has been met and the shortfall. The funding update from UNHCR (2018d) states only 21.3% or \$68.3 million of the total budget required has been fulfilled.¹¹

9 The FTS dataset is fed by voluntary reports on funding flows and pledges provided by donors and recipient organisations. If donors do not report financial information the FTS will underestimate the funding received. In some contexts, the FTS does not capture multi-year funding.

10 The financial requirements here include requirements for the UNHCR operation's regular programme, Central Mediterranean Route Situation, Somalia Situation, South Sudan Situation and the Yemen Situation.

11 See the breakdown of the \$68.3 million contributions by donor in the funding update (UNHCR, 2018d).

4 The ‘who’ of coordination in Ethiopia

Q1: *Who* are the main stakeholders contributing to country-level education coordination in emergencies and protracted crises, and how can their roles be optimised?

Ethiopia has two coordination structures for EiE – the first covers IDPs and local communities affected by crises and disasters, while the second covers the refugee community. The MoE leads coordination for the former system and delivery is largely through the national education system, with support from the Education Cluster, as well as NGOs and development partners. The latter system is coordinated by ARRA, supported by UNHCR and the REWG, with delivery of refugee education by both ARRA and NGO partners, supported by the MoE and REBs. Alongside these EiE structures, the national education system also has planning structures for non-emergency provision and support from the Development Assistance Group (DAG)¹² Education Sector Working Group (ESWG)¹³.

While there are currently no overarching coordination structures, the MoE sets the parameters for the national curriculum and provides support to refugee education, while the 2019 Refugee Proclamation has formalised the right of refugees to attend schools within the national education system. Plans are developing under the CRRF for a more unified system as part of the GoE’s pledges to support the integration of refugees. This section provides a general overview

of these delivery and coordination mechanisms, as well as the role of the key actors within them. These are summarised in Table 3.

4.1 The national education system

The national education system is responsible for delivering education to all Ethiopian citizens, including IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters. It also sets the curriculum and policies for all education delivery, some of which are applied to refugee education. This section describes its overall structures and functions, with the following sections specifically addressing emergency coordination structures and systems.

Ethiopia’s federal structure means that the national education system is governed by the MoE at the federal level, the REBs at the regional level and WEOs at the lowest level of the system. Some regions also have Zonal Education departments between the REBs and WEOs. The MoE is accountable to the Federal Government, and its role includes establishing policy frameworks and national strategies, curricula, qualification frameworks, minimum standards (for teachers and institutions), national examinations (Grades 10 and 12) as well as administration and management of all tertiary education. The MoE therefore sets the examinations and key policies for refugee education provision, although the latter are exempt from certain standards, as

12 The DAG – composed of 30 bilateral and multilateral partners – was established in 2001 to foster and catalyse policy dialogue and to coordinate and harmonise development partners’ support in the Ethiopian Government’s preparation, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the national development plan, known as the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) and the Millennium Development Goals. The DAG’s current project, ‘Phase V – Development Partners’ Support to the Growth and Transformation Plan implementation process in Ethiopia’ supports the implementation of the second GTP and the SDG’s agenda (DAG Ethiopia, 2018).

13 It should be noted that in ESDP V this body is described as the ‘Education Technical Working Group’.

Table 2 Overview of education delivery and coordination structures in Ethiopia

Type of education	Key coordinating bodies	Leading agencies	Main delivery partners	Overall size
National education system	Development Assistance Group (DAG) Education Sector Working Group (ESWG)	Co-chaired by Head of the Federal Planning and Resource Mobilisation Directorate at the MoE and Finland and DFID	MoE and REBs	14 agency members at the national level
Education for IDPs and crisis-affected communities (within national education system)	Ethiopia Education Cluster (EEC)	Chaired by the MoE and co-led by UNICEF Ethiopia and SCI	MoE and REBs	20 members at the national level
Education for refugees	Refugee Education Working Group (REWG)	REWG is led by ARRA and co-chaired by UNHCR	ARRA delivers primary education in camps; ECCE and secondary education are implemented by NGO partners with technical support from the MoE and REBs	16 NGO members and representatives from MoE at the national level
	Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF)	Technical Committee (TC) on Education is co-chaired by ARRA and UNHCR	As above	

Source: Authors' analysis.

explored below. REBs are responsible for the overall administration, management and financing of all education delivery at the regional level, except for tertiary education. They work within the framework of policies set by the MoE and with accountability to regional governments. Regional authorities are responsible for setting the content of the curriculum taught within their jurisdiction (within national guidelines) and the main language of instruction at the primary level, as well as regional examinations (Grade 8), all of which are also applied in refugee schools. While REBs are financially responsible for the provision of education, they receive a substantial transfer from the Federal Government to support general education, TVET training and teacher training colleges within their region. Zonal Educational Departments and WEOs then manage and provide oversight of education delivery at the zone and district levels (UNHCR, 2017a). Refugee children have been granted the right to attend schools within the national education system,¹⁴ but education in refugee schools is delivered by

ARRA and NGO partners, as explored in the following section.

The structure of the national education system encompasses formal and non-formal education. Non-formal education covers wide areas of training both for primary-school-age children and adults who have either dropped out or wish to access education for the first time as over-age learners. Though the MoE is expected to play a leading role, other ministries also get involved depending on the field of training and target of trainees. The formal education programme is divided into kindergarten, general, TVET and tertiary education programmes (FDRE, 2015; EEC, 2017) (see Table 4).

There were some shifts in the structure of the MoE as part of broader reforms in 2018, including the development of a new 2018–2030 Road Map for the sector and the creation of a new post of State Minister for Education to improve planning and accountability. However, while these may signal greater priority being allocated to the education sector,¹⁵ they have not significantly altered the structure of the system.

14 Relevant GoE documents covering this are the Refugee Proclamation 2004 and Education Circular, Ref 11/1-3456/1098/35, February 2009.

15 It was noted in peer review that the new State Minister has retained his post despite changes of leadership in other Ministries, suggesting either a higher priority placed on continuity or closer alignment with the current administration.

Table 3 Overview of Ethiopian education system by level and age

Level of education	Student age
Pre-school (ECCE)	4–6 years
Lower Primary – Grades 1–4	7–10 years
Upper Primary – Grades 5–8	11–14 years
Lower Secondary – Grade 9–10	15–16 years
Upper Secondary – Grades 11–12	17–18 years

Notes: On completing Grade 10, students can choose to enrol in the institutionally separate TVET system,ⁱ rather than pursuing preparatory (upper) secondary that can lead to academic tertiary education.ⁱⁱ

ⁱ Students can either enrol in one-, two- or three-year training programmes. Students who complete three years of TVET after completing grade 10 are eligible to access first-year college-level education.

ⁱⁱ Entry to academic tertiary education requires students to pass the Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination in Grade 12.

Sources: FDRE (2015); EEC (2017).

4.1.1 The Development Assistance Group (DAG) Education Sector Working Group (ESWG)

The DAG ESWG is co-chaired by the head of the federal Planning and Resource Mobilisation Directorate at the MoE and an elected donor representative, jointly shared by Finland and DFID (ECW, 2018). It is intended to meet monthly and is responsible for convening all donor partners in the education sector, with the aim of conducting ad hoc monitoring of the implementation of Ethiopia’s Fifth Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP V) and coordinating resource mobilisation decisions in response to performance against the plans (FDRE, 2015). ESDP V sets out plans and priorities for developing the education sector over 2015–2020, as agreed by the GoE following consultation with national stakeholders and sets out key indicators and the main commitments the GoE will make to achieve these aims. The DAG ESWG is also one of the coordination groups that ECW is engaging with in Ethiopia (ECW, 2018).

Group members participate based on their respective agencies’ experiences and use the meetings mainly to share information. In line with the integration policy under the CRRE, UNHCR is now a participant and ARRA has been invited to join (ibid).

4.2 The coordination and delivery of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters

The overall humanitarian response in Ethiopia is led by the GoE’s National Disaster Risk Management Commission (NDRMC). The NDRMC leads federal- and regional-level Disaster Risk Management Technical Working Groups across Ethiopia and hosts a series of specialised task forces that work in tandem with the clusters and sector working groups. The MoE leads the coordination of the education response and the delivery of education to IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters occurs largely through the national education system. This section sets out the key policies, actors and coordination mechanisms.

Education for IDPs and other communities affected by crises and disasters concerns Ethiopian citizens and so leadership and responsibility sit clearly with the national education system. The response focused on these groups is referred to as ‘education in emergencies’ in Ethiopian policy documents and is identified as one of seven cross-cutting challenges for the Ethiopian system in the latest ESDP. ESDP V (2015/16–2019/20) sets out a ‘full-integration approach’ that gives all implementing bodies in the education system joint responsibility for addressing them. However, it should be noted that Ethiopia has signed but not yet ratified the 2009 African Union Convention on IDPs, also referred to as the Kampala Convention; for years, the country has not had a national strategy for IDP responses.¹⁶

¹⁶ This information emerged through additional rounds of comments with in-country actors during peer review. In April 2019, Ethiopia launched the Government’s Strategic Plan to Address Internal Displacement and a costed Recovery/ Rehabilitation Plan.

The key actors in the response – within the framework of the NDRMC – are the MoE at the federal level and the corresponding REBs at the regional level. The MoE does not have a dedicated directorate or staff for managing and coordinating the education response. The leading role is therefore played by the MoE's Planning and Resource Mobilisation Directorate, with MoE and REB staff engaging in the response and coordination efforts in addition to their normal roles. Key focus areas include access to, and quality of, general education. This includes development and training in crisis response – including psychosocial support training – for school leaders and teachers in emergency-prone areas, and the distribution of copies of Ethiopia's contextualised version of the INEE minimum standards to all regional, zonal, WEO and TVET agencies (INE and EEC, 2013). Curricula, teaching and learning materials are also a focus area, with resource centres/clusters being provided with a standardised package of teaching and learning materials, so children can continue with their education (FDRE, 2015). School feeding is also a key component of the education crisis response in Ethiopia and has been a major focus of the MoE.

Coordination bodies and mechanisms aligned with this system are, by design, emergency focused and take on a joint, relatively short-term, humanitarian view. As in other parts of the world where the cluster system has been adopted, the cluster approach is applied in relation to IDPs and local populations affected by rapid onset or chronic emergencies, in agreement with governments. Responsibility for coordination of a humanitarian response in relation to refugees (both within and outside camps) remains within the mandate of the UNHCR and is not part of the cluster approach.

4.2.1 The Ethiopia Education Cluster

The Ethiopia Education Cluster (EEC) is the key coordination structure supporting the MoE in delivering education to IDPs and communities

affected by crises and disasters. The EEC is chaired by the MoE and co-led by UNICEF Ethiopia and SCI. It operates within the broader inter-sectoral humanitarian response led by the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and participates in the Inter-Cluster Coordination Group. Nine sub-national education clusters exist at regional level,¹⁷ three of which were established in 2018 in regions affected by significant internal displacement – Oromia, Ethiopia Somali and SNNPR (UNICEF, 2018d).

The EEC has lacked dedicated coordination capacity for much of its history and has had several periods of lowered activity. The EEC was first established in 2008 but had only a nominal presence with no dedicated full-time staff at the MoE. Cluster activity began to increase substantially in 2016 following increasing recognition from the GoE and development partners of the scale of recurrent EiE challenges that consistently required support from the humanitarian community in addition to the efforts of the GoE (EEC, 2017). A full-time cluster coordinator and information management officer (IMO) were appointed and employed by UNICEF and SCI, respectively, over 2016 to 2018. Both the cluster coordinator and IMO were managed and overseen by the MoE and sat within their offices as part of an approach intended to align the EEC with the MoE. The EEC has reportedly undertaken a strategic decision to recruit national Education Cluster coordinators, rather than international staff, as they are better placed to play an integral role in MoE crisis response. Support was also provided by the GEC Rapid Response Team, which conducted four deployments over 2016–2017. However, during fieldwork, there was no dedicated national cluster coordinator, with the role being filled in the interim by the IMO taking on additional responsibilities and double-hatting, following a gap.¹⁸ Within the co-chairing agencies, UNICEF has only recently appointed an EiE focal point whereas SCI has had an EiE focal point with limited coordination responsibilities. Oromia,

17 These include Afar, Amhara, Oromia, Ethiopia Somalia, SNNPR, Tigray, Harari, Dire-Dewa and Benishangul-Gumuz.

18 Double-hatting refers to the practice of UN staff having multiple official roles and dividing their time between them.

Ethiopia Somali and SNNP have MoE and SCI focal points, but attempts to recruit full-time cluster coordinators for each of these have not been successful, and only the Ethiopia Somali post has been filled so far.

As of 2018, the EEC has around 20 members at the national level and is mandated to perform the key coordination functions linking the government with development, humanitarian and implementing civil society partners to respond to EiE. Its role includes supporting service delivery, informing the government and Ethiopian Humanitarian Coordinator/Humanitarian Country Team about EiE priorities for strategic decision-making, planning and implementing the EiE Strategy, monitoring and evaluating performance, building national capacity in preparedness and contingency planning in the education sector, and supporting advocacy for education within the broader humanitarian funding system (EEC, 2017).

4.3 The coordination and delivery system for refugee education

The delivery of refugee education in relation to the national education system has been described as ‘one system, two administrative bodies’ (UNHCR, 2017a: 30). ARRA has overall responsibility for the administration of education for refugees and is both a coordinating body and the main implementing partner (IP) for primary education for refugees. Refugee schools use the curriculum and language of instruction that have been established by the MoE and REBs for national government schools, but they follow a different set of standards and regulations, and are not bound by those for national government schools.

ARRA is a federal agency with designated authority and responsibility for all matters related to refugees and returnees. In terms of structure, it has a federal headquarters and sub-offices at the zone and camp level. In practice, zonal sub-offices are generally located in the regional capitals (with the exception of Tigray) and so their presence aligns with that of REBs.

However, they lack the level of decentralised authority of REBs and are also not aligned in terms of camp-*woreda* levels. Historically, ARRA has sat within the Ethiopian National Intelligence and Security Service. However, in late 2018, following fieldwork for this research, a restructuring of ministries at the federal level resulted in ARRA being renamed and placed within the new Ministry of Peace, which will be responsible for internal security.

While ARRA is the main IP for primary education, ECCE and secondary education for refugees are implemented by NGO partners under ARRA’s overall supervision and coordination, while at the tertiary level refugees are fully integrated into the national education system. Refugee children are allowed to attend national schools under existing laws and, in practice, refugees do access national schools in both camp settings (host community schools) and urban areas, particularly at the secondary level. Host community children can also access refugee schools (UNHCR, 2017a). However, many refugee sites are in remote areas that are underserved by the education system, creating practical challenges for refugees in accessing national schools.

The role of the MoE and REBs is therefore to recommend the policy framework and curriculum to be followed in refugee schools and to respond to ARRA’s requests for specific types of support to the refugee education system.¹⁹ Refugee students therefore sit the same examinations as non-refugee students and receive the same accreditation. It should be noted, however, that refugee schools are not bound by national standards and regulations in areas, such as teacher qualifications and remuneration.

Interviews highlighted a need to clarify roles and responsibilities over refugee education between the mandate of ARRA – holding responsibility for all refugee matters – and that of the MoE – holding responsibility for all education in Ethiopia. There are a number of ongoing processes to streamline the relationship between ARRA and the MoE, and

19 A 2013 circular from the MoE set out guidelines for REBs to provide technical support to ARRA in a number of areas – including school supervision, teacher training and learning materials, as well as administering national assessments and examinations for refugee students, and providing them with opportunities for accreditation.

to improve technical collaboration between these organisations. These include a formal MoU between ARRA and the MoE, and the more long-term process under the CRRF which is looking into how to integrate the refugee and national education systems on a more permanent basis. We will explore these further in later sections and highlight some of the challenges and opportunities arising from them in terms of improving coordination. UNHCR has a global mandate for protecting and assisting refugees and asylum seekers,²⁰ holding responsibility for the international refugee response system, including the coordination function (UNHCR, 2013b; 2014). This role cannot be transferred or delegated – so the mandate sits solely with UNHCR, although UNHCR may invite other agencies to co-operate where necessary to fulfil its mandate (*ibid.*).

Thus, while ARRA is the main coordination body for both refugees and the delivery of refugee education, UNHCR is mandated to support them and ensure that the rights of refugees are respected. They are therefore ARRA's most important international partner and play a key role in shaping the coordination of refugee education provision, being closely integrated at all stages of the process.

Coordination bodies and mechanisms aligned with the refugee education system are by design refugee-focused and are increasingly merging a short-term humanitarian view with a long-term development one. This is due to the large and long-term presence of refugees in the country and the need to integrate refugees within a wider national education system.

Two key bodies and mechanisms in place for refugee education coordination include the REWG, led by ARRA and co-chaired by UNHCR, and the more recently established structure under the CRRF (comprising a Steering Committee led by ARRA and co-chaired by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation and UNHCR), the National Coordination Office (NCO) also led by ARRA, and Technical Committee (TC) on education (led by the MoE and co-chaired by UNHCR). We discuss each of these in turn.

4.3.1 The Refugee Education Working Group

The REWG is co-chaired by ARRA and UNHCR, with 16 active NGOs. The MoE has also recently become a member. The REWG is a sub-component of the national Refugee Taskforce and advises the broader Taskforce on education issues. In terms of coordination, it is a venue for information exchange – including mapping of current needs, active programmes and available resources – and is closely involved in discussions on education response plans and drawing up joint plans of action (UNHCR, 2018e).

REWGs have been established at national, regional (sub-office) and camp levels that should meet on a monthly basis or weekly during refugee influxes and emergencies. At the camp level there are regular meetings of all service providers across sectors (UNHCR, 2018e). However, while education coordination mechanisms are present in most regions, they are not considered to be strongly institutionalised (UNHCR, 2017a). Interviews for this study also indicated that the regularity of these meetings varies and that, at a national level, meetings have become less regular – roughly every two months – and more poorly attended as the CRRF process has become more prominent.

4.3.2 Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework

Much of the work in relation to the CRRF roll-out has been focused to-date on establishing the CRRF administrative architecture at the federal level (RCG, 2018).

Following the launch of the CRRF, a Refugee Coordination Group was established to convene on a quarterly basis. This would allow for discussions with partners around priorities and inter-sectoral issues, joint planning, analysis of data and identification of data gaps, common standards, and implementation (RCG, 2018).

Under the CRRF, the government is keen to foster the expansion of partnerships with diverse stakeholders, including UN agencies, traditional and non-traditional donors from the humanitarian and development sectors, private-sector organisations and foundations,

20 This includes both camp and non-camp refugee populations, as well as emergency and non-emergency situations, and situations where there is mixed displacement (i.e. both IDPs and refugees).

international and national NGOs, and refugees and host communities. This multi-stakeholder approach will seek to expand opportunities and ensure a more effective response to the developmental needs and aspiration of refugees and host communities through a ‘whole of society’ approach (UNHCR, 2018e).

A CRRF facilitation mechanism has been established, in collaboration with UNHCR, which includes a National Steering Committee comprising line ministries, federal agencies, development actors, NGOs and donors, to drive the practical implementation of the New York Declaration commitments, as well as an NCO to provide support to the Steering Committee and TCs through advocacy, research, strengthening capacity and building partnerships, and monitoring and evaluation (UNHCR, 2018e). However, under the National Comprehensive Refugee Response Strategy (NCRRS) drafted in August 2018, the NCO led by ARRA is likely to see a stronger coordination role to enhance the operationalisation of the strategy (Government of Ethiopia, 2018).

The Steering Committee held its first meeting in December 2017, with subsequent meetings to be held monthly (UNHCR, 2018e), but these have not happened as regularly as planned and have not been attended by senior government representatives (KIIs, 2018).

Ethiopia’s CRRF coordination also included workshops which took place with a view to establishing six TCs grouped around the pledges to take forward their implementation (out-of-camp, education, work and livelihoods, documentation, other social and basic services, and integration). The first two workshops on Education and Basic and Social Services took place in February and March 2018 (UNHCR, 2018e).

The TC on Education has not yet been established, but draft terms of reference have been drafted by a core of experts, including ARRA, the MoE, UNHCR and UNICEF, and are pending endorsement by the CRRF Steering Committee. However, it is not clear when this endorsement will be received or when the TC will begin work, as the Steering Committee has not met since May 2018. The mandate of the TC on education is therefore

Box 1 Major ongoing initiatives for EiE in Ethiopia

Building Self-Reliance Programme (BSRP)

The ‘Building self-reliance for refugees and vulnerable host communities by improved sustainable basic social service delivery’ programme, or BSRP, is funded by the UK’s DFID, with UNICEF as the leading organisation. UNICEF has partnered with UNHCR, the MoE and ARRA, as well as civil society organisations to implement activities in education. The work is built on the self-reliance approach whereby refugees and host communities can enjoy improved educational services together (UNICEF, 2018e).

General Education Quality Improvement Programme for Equity (GEQIP-E)

GEQIP-E is a sector pool fund led by the MoE and overseen by the ESWG. It focuses on primary and secondary education provision and teacher training (authors’ analysis based on OECD development finance data (OECD DAC, n.d.). It currently focuses on the national education system but will include an IDA replenishment refugee education investment of around \$60m to be disbursed through the MoE over 2019–2021. This will support education for both refugees and host communities.

EU Regional Development and Protection Programme (RDPP)

The RDPP was established in 2015 and includes Ethiopia, Sudan and Kenya, as they host large numbers of refugees. It is a multi-sectoral fund that works on education as well as a range of other sectors. It has four pillars, including capacity building, protection, integrated services and socioeconomic development with an overarching aim to provide improved prospects for refugees as well as host communities. RDPP efforts in Ethiopia are focused on the Tigray, Afar and Somali regions.

not clear at this stage. However, interviews suggest agreement that it will be chaired by the MoE and co-chaired by UNHCR, and that the NCRRS envisages it will be responsible for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of refugee education. Its role would include supporting the design and implementation of action plans, guidelines, administrative procedures,

and implementation arrangements at all levels, and facilitate collaboration, coordination and communication with all stakeholders, including refugees and host communities (GoE, 2018). Once mandates and roles are agreed, the federal level structure for the Steering Committee, the NCO and TCs – including that on education – will be replicated at regional and *woreda* levels (ibid.).

Box 2 Education Cannot Wait in Ethiopia

In March 2017, ECW approved a two-year investment of \$13.5m in Ethiopia to reach 68,000 refugee children and support the implementation of the GoE's education pledges under the CRRF. Key partners in this process include the MoE, REBs, WEOs, ARRA, UNHCR, SCI, UNICEF, REWG members, ESWG members and Education Cluster members.

The ECW grant has three goals:

1. Increase enrolment in primary and secondary education in refugee and host communities, including providing new primary classrooms, renovating existing ones, creating model refugee-inclusive secondary schools, and introducing accelerated school readiness initiatives and schools grants for refugee-hosting schools, etc.
2. Greater integration of host and refugee education systems at the regional, local and facility levels, mainly through the development of an MoU between the MoE and ARRA, the establishment of MoE–ARRA coordination mechanisms to support planning at the federal, regional and *woreda* levels, the development of refugee-inclusive sector plans at all levels and the collection of refugee school data that can be integrated into the national EMIS.
3. Improve capacity in the education sector to respond to refugee and host community educational needs through training of education staff in conflict-sensitive and risk-informed education planning and management, recruitment and deployment of teachers to newly built primary and secondary facilities for refugees, etc.

Increase the participation in education by host and refugee communities, teachers, parents and children through community mobilisation activities in refugee camps and host communities, strengthening school-based management bodies in refugee primary schools and refugee-hosting secondary schools, as well as the development and implementation of participatory school improvement plans. Interviewees particularly noted ECW as an example of where international funding had helped to encourage collaboration and coordination across refugee education provision and the national education system. This was the case in Gambella, where ARRA, UNHCR and UNICEF worked together closely on the ECW proposal in a highly consensual and consultative process. This helped promote detailed discussions and acceptable compromises on a number of issues, including education and teacher quality, as well as how greater integration could be leveraged to improve these.

Source: ECW (2017; 2018) and key informant interviews

5 The ‘how’ of coordination in Ethiopia

Q2: How can coordination of education planning and response be made more effective?

This section examines the ‘how’ of coordination in terms of: education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters; education for refugees; and coordination between the key actors in administering the national education system and refugee education. It looks particularly at the enabling and constraining factors for coordination, as well as providing details on specific tools and mechanisms where appropriate. The analysis is framed by four factors that have been found to contribute to the success or failure of inter-organisation coordination efforts, specifically: predisposition, incentives, leadership and equity (Faerman et al., 2001). Each section is followed by a brief analysis of the key conclusions as to how coordination can be improved for education provision for the populations and actors in question. The analysis conducted here draws heavily on KIIs, briefings and FGDs with a range of participants across the various actors and coordination mechanisms (see Annex 1).

5.1 Coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters

Interviews highlighted a range of challenges in the coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters. These were underpinned by low prioritisation overall and a range of factors relating to the mandates of different organisations, differing incentives for coordination and the broader Ethiopian context.

5.1.1 Predisposition

Coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters is

particularly shaped by issues of mandates and focus among the coordinating organisations.

Mandates

Coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters has historically been a low priority for the GoE and most international actors, particularly in contrast to education for refugees. Until recently the GoE was reluctant to acknowledge political instability and ethnic tensions, and the displacement they resulted in. At present there was no national strategy for IDP response, with official efforts at enumeration being fairly recent. In interviews, actors tended to put a much stronger emphasis on the refugee element of the system – even in discussions focused on non-refugee issues. Despite IDP children representing a larger caseload overall, these groups receive much less attention and fewer resources, contributing to greater coordination challenges.

The MoE acknowledges the challenge of delivering education to these groups and the ESDP V sets out an approach to EiE. The ‘full-integration approach’ advocated in ESDP V was developed following challenges in the approach under ESDP IV, where EiE was included as one of several priority programme areas, but received little focus in practice as those implementing projects focused on other issues – which were generally better funded and on a larger scale (FDRE, 2015). This shift suggests some degree of priority for emergency response, as effort has gone into understanding and rectifying past mistakes.

Despite the GoE’s prominent role in the coordination process and stated policy positions, interviews highlighted a perception that the GoE does not place a high priority on education as an

element of its emergency response, focusing more on areas such as nutrition and WASH. It should also be borne in mind that the MoE is tasked with delivering education to all of Ethiopia's 26 million young people and has been strongly focused on expanding and maintaining access to the system overall, working from a relatively low base. The establishment of school feeding programmes has been given priority as a major strand of the MoE emergency response efforts and appears to have been a success in terms of overall disaster management. However, it is less appropriate in crises that are caused by conflict and where the main barriers to learning are an absence of schools, teachers and learning materials.

Interviewees also noted that other stakeholders also place a low priority on education provision for these groups, including donors and the inter-cluster coordination mechanisms. These issues with prioritisation are reflected in challenges with leadership roles and capacity, as we will explore below.

The type of national and international focus that is seen on refugee education is notably absent when it comes to education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters. It is not seen as a high priority for future planning and so, unless this changes, coordination gaps are likely to persist. The EEC published an Education in Emergency Strategic Response Plan in 2017 (EEC, 2017), but it was not widely referenced in interviews and does not appear to have been updated in 2018 despite significant changes in the IDP situation. Preliminary discussions on a new long-term plan for developing the education system took place in the summer of 2018, but do not seem to have prominently featured EiE or IDP education issues. However, interviews highlighted a group within the MoE that is pushing for these issues to be addressed substantively, and so could create space for reform.

5.1.2 Incentives

Interviews highlighted that a lack of funding and limited resources being channelled through the EEC creates challenges in terms of incentivising NGOs and other potential IPs to engage strongly with the coordination structures for education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters.

Funding challenges

Interviews with the MoE in particular highlighted frustration at the low level of humanitarian funding that is channelled to the education sector, and the limits this imposes on the response. These interviewees, and others, attributed the funding gap partly to the low priority generally given to EiE in humanitarian funding and to a perception that Ethiopia has strong capacity and so is not a priority for support. However, interviewees argued that, in reality, both the EEC and MoE face capacity challenges related to their ability to effectively gather the data necessary to meet the needs of the humanitarian appeals process or take advantage of opportunities for funding.

Funding challenges appear to be resulting in a self-perpetuating cycle, with weak data collection by the cluster system contributing to poor advocacy for resources. This then leads to a lack of incentives for NGOs to engage substantively, with the result that they cannot develop and sustain the necessary capacity to submit high-quality proposals. Interviews and FGDs highlighted a perception that funding and prioritisation is far weaker in these areas compared to education for refugees, which has a far stronger profile.

5.1.3 Leadership

Coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters has clear leadership in terms of organisations, but efforts are hampered by considerable weaknesses in terms of specific leadership personnel and resourcing for them.

Clarity of leadership roles

The fact that much of the response architecture sits within the MoE and its REBs, which are also the main providers of education, is a potential enabling factor for the response. Relatively few NGOs are directly engaged, in contrast to many other sectors in Ethiopia, and so this may limit coordination issues. Interviewees noted that the GoE wants to be able to lead the response strongly and on its own terms, with other agencies – such as the Education Cluster system, UNICEF and SCI – having clear roles that focus on supporting the government-led response.

While the MoE is clearly the lead organisation in the response, there are major leadership challenges related to the absence of dedicated bodies and personnel for coordination within the MoE and REBs. Currently, all coordination leads have other responsibilities, with emergency coordination being the more minor element of their role and not one that they were evaluated on or held to account for.

Interviews also highlighted a range of capacity challenges related to knowledge and experience. Education officials at the regional level did not seem to have a strong awareness of their mandate and responsibilities in relation to EiE responses, and there is a particularly acute gap in terms of capacity to plan for – and respond to – conflict-related disruption. Conflict-related disruption is often hard to predict and can escalate quickly, and so poses significant challenges for staff that are trained to deliver and coordinate the education response to climate-related displacement. Capacity gaps also contribute to data gathering issues, which can reinforce challenges in coordination. Interviewees noted that in the most recent crisis there was good information in Ethiopia Somali and Oromia, but limited data on SNNP and on Gedeo and West Guji zones.

Resourcing leadership

These weaknesses in capacity and resourcing are also reflected in the challenges facing international coordination mechanisms for education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters. Staffing challenges – both within the Cluster and in its co-chairing agencies – have been marked in recent years and have created coordination challenges for both the national and sub-national education clusters.

During fieldwork, there was no national cluster coordinator, with the role being filled in the interim by double-hatting staff, following a gap. The IMO is therefore the only staff member dedicated to the cluster at the national level. Within the co-chairing agencies, UNICEF has only recently appointed a staff member for these issues, while SCI has had a focal point with

limited coordination responsibilities. This appears to be the result of broader skills gaps, with two recruitment rounds having failed to find a suitable candidate. These challenges are paralleled at the regional level. Oromia, Ethiopia Somali and SNNP have all recently set up clusters and have MoE and SCI focal points. However, attempts to recruit full-time cluster coordinators for each of these have not been successful and only the Ethiopia Somali post has been filled so far.

5.1.4 Equity

The main equity issue for coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters is a lack of strong coordination capacity – and overall capacity – among many of the NGOs involved in the response.

Capacity of coordination partners

During recent crises there appear to have been too few NGOs with the necessary skills and capacity to contribute substantively to the response, with many already overstretched by the demands placed on them. Interviewees noted that these problems were acute and argued that it was unlikely that improvements in coordination or short-term surges in funding would be able to improve the response substantially. These capacity challenges are also reflected in the regional education clusters, which perform quite unevenly and have particular challenges in terms of gathering data. Two emergency assessments are supposed to be carried out every year, but a lack of resources has led to a lack of consistency in terms of timely and reliable data. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) Displacement Tracking Matrix is used by some actors, as it is conducted every three months across Ethiopia (with the exception of SNNP) and contains a number of indicators on education for IDPs.

A range of efforts to improve coordination and provision were noted by interviewees, including a range of training for local actors and the creation of a number of plans to improve the coordination of the response.²¹ Efforts have also been made to construct a 5W Matrix on ‘Who does What,

21 These included Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Party (EPRP) documents, emergency sectoral plans, contingency plans and drought emergency contingency planning.

Where and for Whom’ to map available actors and resources and has the support of the government, which is looking to pull in resources from humanitarian agencies. However, these efforts have also suffered low levels of engagement, limited personnel and a lack of standardisation and coordination in data collection.

5.1.5 How can coordination be improved?

There are several closely linked and self-reinforcing areas where coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters could be improved. The interlinked nature of these issues means it is hard to prioritise among them but also creates the potential for specific improvements to have a catalytic impact on the quality of coordination. Key areas include those listed below.

- Raising the profile of education for IDPs and taking steps to engage more effectively in resource mobilisation, focusing particularly on how funding from non-humanitarian donors can provide greater long-term support. Conducting a comprehensive needs assessment would be a useful starting point for raising visibility and gathering data on the scale of needs.
- Improving data gathering and dissemination mechanisms to give the MoE and EEC the information necessary to coordinate provision and make effective funding proposals.
- Ensuring that the formal mandates and responsibilities of the MoE and REBs for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters are given sufficient priority and dedicated resources. The creation of a dedicated coordination unit and personnel at the MoE and crisis-affected REBs would ensure a core group that held the primary responsibility and could engage in long-term planning and capacity building, as well as crisis-mobilisation of actors.
- Moving the focus of coordination away from a more reactive focus on immediate challenges and needs to a more long-term focus on building resilience and putting in place necessary expertise and surge capacity within the MoE and REB. Success has been achieved with school feeding initiatives, but greater focus

and priority should also be given to ensuring sustained learning and minimised disruption to the provision of quality education.

- Strengthening the presence of leadership capacity at both the EEC and CLAs, by ensuring that the former has a full-time cluster coordinator and that the CLAs have well-resourced focal points. There is also a need to strengthen the subnational clusters to ensure notable attention is paid to the delivery of education to IDPs and host communities. This would increase the capacity to respond and enhance data availability.
- Improving multi-sectoral and inter-cluster coordination will ensure more holistic positive education outcomes.

5.2 Coordinating education for refugees

Overall, interviews suggest a broad consensus that education for refugees is well coordinated in Ethiopia in terms of avoiding duplication of delivery and service provision. However, there are weaknesses in coordination in terms of duplication of efforts around teacher training and a lack of coherence and alignment in terms of more detailed issues, such as teacher pay and resource provision (e.g. free uniforms and school feeding) across different providers and schools. A range of factors underpin these trends in coordination, relating to the strategies used by the coordinating agencies, but also the Ethiopian context and the context of broader global political developments. These are set out below in terms of the Faerman factors.

5.2.1 Predisposition

In the refugee education system, we see the predisposition of actors towards coordination being shaped by a combination of mandates, advance agreements and past experience.

Mandates

Coordination in the refugee education system is significantly boosted by the close working relationship between ARRA and UNHCR, as well as the alignment of their mandates in terms of sharing a focus on ensuring education service delivery to refugees.

This alignment of organisational mandates is reinforced by significant domestic and international focus on refugee education in Ethiopia, which helps ARRA and UNHCR align on specific priorities. The high-profile commitment of the GoE to the CRRF process and its nine pledges, as well as the prominence of the education pledge,²² were seen as important elements. Interviews highlighted a perception that the former Prime Minister saw the refugee issue as a priority and that this gave a strong emphasis to attempts to reform the sector and improve provision, assisted by the influence and resources of the Prime Minister's Office. Some interviews highlighted a renewal of coordination efforts and focus that began in 2017 with the appointment of staff to vacant coordination positions and the establishment of regular coordination meetings. This then helped to reinforce ARRA's mandate on refugee education and the need to work in coordination with other actors in order to achieve the GoE pledges set out in the CRRF road map.

UNHCR's mandate on refugee education – and the domestic political focus in Ethiopia – was also incentivised and reinforced by the broader global context. Ethiopia was one of the first countries to apply the CRRF in February 2017 and the country is seen as an important part of efforts to reduce migration to Europe from sub-Saharan Africa (BBC, 2016). This has led to significant international resources being channelled to Ethiopia and has created significant international interest in the CRRF and the achievement of the nine pledges which contribute to the priority given to education by both ARRA and UNHCR.

However, the role of the CRRF in shaping the priorities of ARRA and UNHCR also highlights some of the ongoing challenges for the refugee education system and coordination bodies. The main GoE pledge and associated targets

in the CRRF road map are focused strongly on increased refugee enrolment rates. This has contributed to a major focus of ARRA and the GoE's programming and coordination efforts on how to maximise enrolment to meet these ambitious targets.²³ While there are ongoing initiatives to improve the quality of education, interviews highlighted a sense that this has not been given such a high priority as expanding access, and so may explain some of the ongoing challenges in terms of education quality. This focus on expanding access – often at impressive rates to meet national targets – with quality being given a lesser priority (and possibly falling due to the pace of expansion) is also mirrored in the experience of the national Ethiopian education system (Engel and Rose, 2011; Young Lives, 2017).

The mandates of these bodies are therefore well aligned, particularly at present and in terms of expanding access to refugee education. They are then able to use a range of mechanisms to improve coordination across other providers – particularly national and international NGOs – within the refugee education system.

Examples of advance agreements – the accountability matrix, MoUs and LoUs

Coordination of refugee education provision is managed in part through clear delineations of responsibilities between different actors that are underpinned by legal agreements between the provider, ARRA and UNHCR.

A key mechanism is the accountability matrix, which is jointly organised by UNHCR and ARRA. The matrix sets out the responsibilities of different NGO partners at camp level, including which implementing agencies are responsible for which types of services in which refugee camps. In the case of education, this covers ECCE, primary, secondary, tertiary and non-formal/adult education, and school feeding programmes.

22 'Increase of enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education to all qualified refugees without discrimination and within the available resources.'

23 GoE pledges in the CRRF road map specifically committed to: (1) increasing enrolment of pre-school age refugee children from 46,276 (44%) to 63,040 (60%); (2) increasing enrolment of primary-school age children from 96,700 (54%) to 137,000 (75%); (3) increasing enrolment of secondary school age refugees from 3,785 (9%) to 10,300 (25%); and (4) increasing opportunities for higher education enrolment from 1,600 to 2,500 students.

The matrix is signed off at the national level and then adopted as a working document for the coordination of refugee education, with regular updates as necessary. It aims to avoid duplication and increase efficient use of resources, as well as ensuring that all partners are held accountable for their responsibilities. NGOs interviewed for this study were broadly positive about its effectiveness as a mechanism for coordination.

The matrix is also reinforced and enabled by other elements of the coordination system. The REWGs assist in gathering the data for the matrix, in terms of who is working where on what and with what resources, but a key component is a series of selection mechanisms and legal agreements that allow UNHCR and ARRA to plan service provision in detail.

UNHCR reviews NGO project proposals to ensure that they address the needs of refugee populations and avoid duplicating work being done by agencies. This occurs for projects directly funded by UNHCR and for most proposals submitted to other major donors, who generally require successful project proposals to be endorsed by UNHCR and ARRA. Where there are multiple NGOs proposing similar projects for similar populations, UNHCR will lead in setting out a comprehensive assessment of the needs of refugees – including gaps that have not been addressed – and engaging with these actors. This then allows UNHCR to actively guide NGOs and enable further discussion and negotiation with partners to reduce duplication and ensure that needs are not neglected. UNHCR also aims to create an awareness of refugee needs among donors and encourage them to both accept proposals that meet these and to engage with the UNHCR–ARRA endorsement process.

UNHCR is therefore in a strong position to exercise its mandate and to ensure an effective response mechanism that avoids duplication of provision. This is particularly the case in terms of the establishment of programmes or initiatives to provide services to refugees, as these require clear endorsement from the UNHCR–ARRA process in most cases.

UNHCR and ARRA further coordinate refugee service provision operations through joint legal agreements with organisations involved in service delivery to refugees. There are two main types of arrangements with organisations that are selected to implement services for refugees.²⁴

- Where UNHCR fund projects directly, the international or national NGOs in question are referred to as implementing partners (IPs) and agree to a tripartite project partnership agreement with ARRA and UNHCR. This is usually a standard formal agreement that includes project description, timeline, the log frame, performance indicators on what to achieve and when, etc.
- Where projects are funded by donors, the international or national NGOs in question are referred to as operational partners and sign tripartite letters of understanding (LoUs) with ARRA and UNHCR.

UNHCR conducts joint monitoring missions with both operational partners and IPs, as well as annual assessments of their performance and the level and type of needs within the refugee camps. UNHCR and ARRA both have partnership selection/retention committees to decide whether partners should be retained or selected, based on the performance of the partners, as well as the extent to which they are meeting the changing needs of the refugee population in question. These committees review partners independently, with differences in conclusions being resolved through a process of negotiation and realignment.

Examples of partners being phased out include cases where donors failed to deliver on agreed funds and so the NGO could not deliver the work, and cases where several NGOs were working on the same issues and locations. However, interviews also acknowledged challenges related to NGOs' capacity to deliver.

These processes help to ensure that the roles of different providers are clearly aligned and that all the bodies involved in implementing services to refugees are known and can be mapped out to avoid

24 For further information, see <https://arra.et/our-partners/>

duplication, backed with clear legal agreements that provide accountability and the additional level of physical control exercised by ARRA.

While these processes promote coordination overall, interviewees noted that the process of sign-off for LoUs is slow in some cases and that this has a practical impact on project delivery and the effectiveness of coordination. One focus group participant noted experiencing a delay of six to eight months in attempts to secure an LoU, meaning that all funds allocated for a year-long project needed to be disbursed in only four months.

Past experience

While formal coordination structures for refugee education (e.g. the REWG) are more recent developments, UNHCR and ARRA have a long history of engagement and close working relationships at all levels. Interviews highlighted that UNHCR is in constant communication with ARRA and plays a key role in the coordination structures – including as co-chair of the REWG at the federal level and its counterparts at the regional and sub-office level.

It is also notable that a number of NGOs have been active in Ethiopia for an extended period, with the Development and Inter-Church Aid Commission (DICAC) being a notable example of an organisation that has been providing secondary education in Ethiopia for over 50 years.

5.2.2 Incentives

Within the Ethiopian refugee education system, funding opportunities and mechanisms are major factors in shaping the extent of coordination and the priorities within it.

Funding – opportunities and challenges

UNHCR's mandate for mobilising resources for refugee education and its role as a major channel for these resources helps to strengthen their coordination efforts. They are able to exercise an effective planning and coordination role through calls for proposals and selection of service delivery partners, as well as creating additional incentives for engaging with the REWGs. Greater partner engagement in turn facilitates coordination and information sharing and allows a more effective mapping of available resources.

The fact that UNHCR is a major source of financial resources for the refugee response creates an additional incentive for ARRA to engage closely with UNHCR, amplifying the effect of shared mandates and areas of focus. UNHCR's relationship with ARRA – as well as its international mandate regarding refugees – then creates further incentives for other development actors to channel money through UNHCR or engage in close consultation with it when planning their own projects.

Focus groups and interviews highlighted a common concern that the lack of reliable, long-term funding is a major barrier to the agreement of long-term planning and coordination for refugee education, with some suggesting that this is a more important issue than coordination structures in the Ethiopian context. This is a common issue for delivering services with humanitarian funding in many contexts, and the planned transition to more predictable and multi-year funding under the Global Compact and CRRF should begin to resolve some of these issues, as will current programmes with multi-year funding approaches, such as BSRP. However, it is clear that these are still important barriers for the current Ethiopian refugee response, which is notably protracted.

5.2.3 Leadership

In the refugee education sector, we see coordination being assisted by the clarity of leadership roles within the sector and the resourcing of these roles overall. However, there are persistent questions regarding the capacity of some of the actors involved in leadership and oversight in the sector.

Clarity of leadership roles

The strength of the Ethiopian state – and specifically the effectiveness of ARRA in its role – is seen as a major enabling factor for coordination. ARRA's mandate over refugee education is well understood among providers and it is useful that their hierarchy has clear decision-making levels, down to the camp level where they can exercise close control over who is able to access the refugee camps and implement programmes inside them. FGDs highlighted that much of the coordination work that

implementing agencies engage in involves basic engagement with ARRA.

UNHCR also has a very clear mandate, responsibilities and roles as set out above. The accountability matrix is also a useful mechanism in terms of establishing clear leads on particular types of education provision and programmes in different regions and refugee camps.

It is important to note that while there is clarity in terms of current coordination structures, there is considerable uncertainty as to the role that ARRA (and other national actors) will play under the inclusion policy of the CRRF, which is intended to integrate refugee education provision and the national education system. While the CRRF is a relatively new introduction to Ethiopia and should provide clarity on this, at present actors at all levels within the system voiced uncertainties as to the long-term shape of the sector and what this will mean for coordination.

Resourcing leadership

Education staffing within ARRA appears to be strong overall, with dedicated coordination positions at both the national and regional levels. The vast majority of these are reported to be filled at present, with roles mirrored between UNHCR and ARRA, resulting in strong numerical capacity. This appears to be aiding coordination overall and stands in contrast to the Education Cluster and its counterparts at the regional level.

Despite the strength of staffing overall, ARRA lacks education specialists and expertise, making technical collaboration and support from REBs – and the development of integrated education provision – vital to improving access and standards. ARRA's ability to effectively coordinate education provision is therefore concentrated at the proposal and review stages of programmes, with more effective coordination on broad provision issues (e.g. avoiding duplicated providers and tracking attendance and construction), but less effective coordination in more detailed areas of implementation, such as teacher training, teacher pay and resource provision (e.g. free uniforms and school feeding) across different providers and schools. FGDs with NGOs also highlighted that coordination

was sometimes undermined by issues with staff turnover and regional weaknesses in terms of continuous engagement.

These issues may explain some of the continuing challenges in terms of issues related to education quality. Interviews highlighted, for example, challenges with the duplication of teacher training projects, which were covering similar themes with the same staff. Others noted that the absence of coordination in terms of school feeding and provision of free uniforms across different types of provision and projects meant that some refugee children were enrolling in Accelerated Learning Programmes to get the free uniform and then attending primary school to access school feeding programmes. Improved coordination of delivery at this detailed level would help better meet refugee needs and improve understanding of them.

There is also an ongoing challenge related to the lack of a harmonised salary scale for teachers employed by NGOs in refugee secondary schools. While minimum standards are in place, the lack of a harmonised scale contributes to challenges with teacher turnover and retention, and undermines the incentives for NGOs giving teacher training, as teachers will often move between different providers to take advantage of salary competition – particularly if they have just received valuable training. It is also a source of friction with the national education system, as higher salaries in some refugee schools can lead to competition over a limited number of well-trained teachers.

5.2.4 Equity

Equity issues in relation to coordination were largely framed negatively in terms of their impact on coordination, particularly in terms of differences in the quality of engagement between national, sub-national and local levels of coordination and information sharing across them.

National, sub-national and local coordination

While interviewees highlighted a strong level of engagement at the national REWG, there were concerns that this was falling as the CRRF process had become more prominent, while the regional equivalent in Gambella had been

largely ad hoc until early 2017, when dedicated coordination personnel were appointed. Participation in camp-level coordination processes were characterised by some as being particularly poor, with interviewees highlighting that some organisations sent representatives that were not decision-makers and so were not able to commit to plans. The primacy of the REWG's (and its sub-national equivalents') information-sharing and group discussions was a common theme, with interviewees noting that this did not result in a common plan so much as every organisation having its own plan informed by the REWG.

Interviews also highlighted a broad consensus that the overall level of information sharing and transparency among REWG members was good, but that there are a number of challenges relating to poor information sharing from the federal to regional to local level and vice versa. These issues may then create a hindrance to coordination if information is conveyed unclearly or in a partial manner.

5.2.5 How can coordination be improved?

There are a number of areas where coordination of education for refugees can be improved, with a particular emphasis on how to ensure that the impressive expansion of access is reflected in sustained improvements in learning outcomes. Key areas include the following.

- A clearer focus on mandates improving learning outcomes for refugee children and aligning these with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4.
- A greater focus on more detailed areas of education that are closely related to learning outcomes. Broadening the accountability matrix to cover elements such as short-term teacher training initiatives and the specific resources of schools in more detail could help to map these more effectively and allow improved monitoring of implementation. This would help avoid duplication and highlight specific gaps in training or student needs.
- Expansion of existing multi-year funding opportunities.
- Expansion of MoE and REB capacity to provide technical collaboration and support,

so as to improve leadership resourcing in terms of the availability of personnel with education skills, experience and focus.

- Improving data sharing across different levels of the coordination system.

5.3 Coordinating across the national education system and provision of refugee education

The current level of coordination across these systems is perceived as fairly weak, but there are a number of initiatives to improve it – particularly associated with the CRRF roll-out process that aims for full integration over a 10-year period. The main factors driving this coordination – and the challenges surrounding it – are outlined below in terms of the Faerman factors.

5.3.1 Predisposition

Coordination across these two systems faces a number of challenges related to conflicting mandates and structures. However, there are attempts to address these through the use of various agreements, as well as a degree of practical integration that is occurring at the local level.

Mandates

A key challenge for coordination is the absence of a responsible body for coordination across refugee education provision and the national education system. There are also a number of institutional factors that create barriers to coordination, with ARRA and the MoE having different cultures, structures and financing arrangements. Underlying tensions between the mandates of the MoE and ARRA, and uncertainty over how these will evolve as part of the CRRF process, are also a barrier to effective coordination, although their impact is more long-term rather than day-to-day.

Cultural differences are partly related to the fact that the MoE is aligned with the development system and focuses on service delivery to all Ethiopian children, including IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters, while ARRA is more aligned with the needs of refugees. Historically, ARRA has sat within the Ethiopian security and intelligence

agencies and is considered to be less open to scrutiny and collaboration as a result.²⁵ A significant proportion of donors are also unwilling to channel money through ARRA due to its status as a security agency. This creates further challenges in terms of joint financing and programming across these agencies.

In terms of structures, ARRA is a federal agency with sub-offices at the zone and camp levels, while the national education system follows a decentralised, federal structure (MoE, REBs, WEOs, etc.). While ARRA's zonal offices are usually located in regional capitals, they lack the decentralised authority of REBs and there are no common oversight bodies and connecting points at the regional level. These differences in structure also contribute to variations in institutional strength and relationships across the levels of the system and different regions. At the federal level, the MoE is much larger than ARRA, but refugee education constitutes only one small element of its overall work. However, in regions such as Gambella, ARRA's relatively strong capacity and the size of the refugee population mean that it arguably wields greater influence than the REB.

These institutional differences are compounded by differing funding models and financing systems. While REBs and their sub-offices are part of the regional government budget, ARRA – as a federal agency – is financed through a wholly separate mechanism. The two organisations also have different fiscal years and different time horizons. The national education system operates on multi-year budgets aligned with sector plans, while ARRA operates largely on annual funding cycles, as with many agencies in the humanitarian sector. This creates opportunities for complementarities, but also difficulties in terms of joint programming and joint financing.

As noted in the previous section, interviews also highlighted the existence of some friction concerning who is ultimately responsible for refugee education between the mandate of ARRA

– holding responsibility for all refugee matters – and that of the MoE – holding responsibility for all education in Ethiopia. This does not appear to have too severe an impact on day-to-day coordination in agreed areas but is a barrier to agreeing more long-term approaches on how to improve refugee education and how the integration of refugee education will take place in practice. These issues are explored further below.

MoUs and other advance agreements

Interviewees highlighted numerous examples of where the mandate for REBs to provide ARRA with technical support and collaboration on specific issues was being well implemented and had resulted in improvements in the functioning of the refugee education system. Alongside this, there were ongoing attempts to agree an MoU between ARRA and the MoE, with interviews highlighting a perception that this would improve coordination by clarifying roles and responsibilities. However, this was facing a range of challenges in being agreed upon and approved, issues which are examined in further detail below.

Coordination efforts are assisted by a close working relationship between UNICEF and UNHCR at the national level. While UNHCR holds the mandate and responsibility for refugee protection and assistance, UNICEF is also active on refugee issues,²⁶ and so is in a position to assist UNHCR in performing its mandate, as well as to provide links to the MoE. Interviews suggest that UNICEF and UNHCR are working together closely on advocacy to encourage greater engagement between ARRA and the MoE, as well as to achieve progress on issues such as the CRRF. An LoU has been issued to officially sanction and shape this relationship and the division of labour involved. However, it is also underpinned by regular engagement and the personalities involved. It is also probably related to the recognition of the importance of the CRRF process and the high level of resources flowing through the refugee sector in Ethiopia.

25 In late 2018, following fieldwork for this research, a restructuring of ministries at the federal level resulted in ARRA being placed within the new Ministry of Peace, which will be responsible for internal security.

26 UNICEF has a number of dedicated staff members working on refugee issues, membership of the REWG and a dedicated staff member, hosted by ARRA, to manage UNICEF–ARRA coordination.

In any case, this appears to be having a positive effect on coordination overall and may have the potential to positively influence the evolution of the CRRF process.

Previous experience

There is some overlap between provision for refugees and the national education system as a result of the actions of children and parents. Refugees do access national schools in both camp settings (host community schools) and urban areas, particularly at the secondary level. Host community children also can (and do) access refugee schools in some places (UNHCR, 2017a). Tertiary education for refugees also largely takes place beyond the camps. In addition, the MoE and REBs are mandated to manage education within Ethiopia and are the main repository for the skills and knowledge necessary to do so. Various interviews also highlighted examples of ad hoc cooperation at a very local level where ARRA and REB officials have been able to come to mutually beneficial arrangements and these ongoing interactions create the connecting points that may assist in future coordination.

5.3.2 Incentives

Coordination across the two systems is being facilitated in part by the presence of international support for coordination across host and refugee populations. However, the differing interests of major agencies is creating challenges in terms of smooth coordination.

Funding – opportunities and challenges

International support appears to have played an important role in enabling the mandate of REBs to be put into action, as well as supporting broader collaboration. Interviewees highlighted that REBs have limited resources and capacity, and would have been unlikely to be able to engage in extensive support without international resources. Similarly, many of the examples of effective coordination that were highlighted in the interviews were associated with major international initiatives. This is particularly the case in Gambella. The ECW planning process for

Gambella was noted as having had considerable initial momentum, with ARRA, UNHCR and UNICEF being quick to agree a proposal, and that it was a highly consensual and consultative process that reached acceptable compromises on a number of important issues. Similarly, UNICEF's BSRP – a major DFID-funded programme – is supporting both host and refugee education systems. The integration of refugee data into the national Education Management Information System (EMIS) is also a key example of cooperation across these systems that should help to improve future coordination and was financed largely by UNICEF. Officials highlighted that calls for proposals were increasingly asking for how programmes would support both host and refugee communities – encouraging greater engagement across these systems.

Resource limitations were also consistently highlighted as a barrier to REBs providing additional support to ARRA and refugee education. Interviews with ARRA officials highlighted the fact that REBs were generally willing to provide support 'as far as they were able', but that they faced severe capacity constraints – particularly in the 'emerging regions' where refugee populations are concentrated. This limits their ability to engage in inspections, provide teacher training and additional learning materials, etc. In Gambella, there are also challenges related to differentials in resourcing, with ARRA being far better funded and equipped than the REB, with the disparities creating a degree of resentment.

Coordination as give and take

Coordination of provision is hampered by uncertainty over how the mandates of the MoE and ARRA will evolve as part of the CRRF process to integrate refugee education into the national education system. Interviews noted a perception that this uncertainty was resulting in a more conservative approach to coordination and a degree of defensiveness in implementing current mandates.²⁷ The need to clarify mandates to enable improved coordination was repeatedly emphasised in interviews.

27 Examples given included issues such as limiting REB access to camps for unannounced school inspections and an unwillingness to change practices at the camp and zonal level without clearance from ARRA at the federal level.

At the highest level, these challenges were evident in both the process of agreeing an MoU between the MoE and ARRA, and issues around the CRRF process. On the former, efforts to agree an MoU that would clearly set out the responsibilities and roles of both organisations had been under negotiation for almost two years, with several drafts being produced and rewritten. While interviews highlighted a perception that this document would help to resolve many coordination issues, there was also considerable frustration at the slow process and frequent delays, and the fact that the document had still not been agreed, let alone signed off.

On the CRRF, several interviews highlighted a perception that there had been a significant decline in high-level political focus on the process following changes in political leadership and the emergence of a range of other urgent priorities.²⁸ This shift had created a power vacuum in the CRRF process, leading to a loss of momentum and allowing the interests of particular parts of the bureaucracy to dominate decision-making. This was particularly felt in the education sector, which had been one of the most advanced working groups within the process before progress slowed.

5.3.3 Leadership

Leadership over coordination across these different provision mechanisms and administrative bodies is currently lacking in terms of both clarity and resourcing – particularly in terms of the GoE and its ministries, bureaus and agencies, but also in terms of an absence of dedicated bodies for coordinating international actors involved in the different responses. However, there are hopes that the CRRF process and MoU between the MoE and ARRA will begin to resolve some of these issues.

Clarity of leadership roles

A major challenge for coordination is that there is currently no official mechanism whose role it is to coordinate across the refugee and national

education systems, as well as an absence of individuals or positions to fulfil this function. At present it appears to occur largely on an ad hoc basis with particular officials doing it as part of a coordination role related to one of the systems.

A degree of structure is provided by the MoE communications mandating REBs to assist ARRA on specific technical issues and the Ethiopia Refugee Education Strategy (2015–2018) (UNHCR, 2015), which was drafted in consultation with ARRA and UNICEF, among other education stakeholders. However, these fall short of creating a formal framework for allocating roles and responsibilities across agencies in a manner that enables collaboration and coordination. A framework of this sort may emerge from the MoU between ARRA and the MoE, and the CRRF process, which is intended to set up the mechanisms necessary to integrate refugees into Ethiopian society and national service provision.

Interviews highlighted a sense at many levels that the ongoing uncertainty was a barrier to collaboration and coordination, as actors at the regional level were referring issues to their national counterparts to ensure that they are not exceeding their mandates or allowing other agencies to set a precedent in terms of their responsibilities.

Resourcing leadership

The lack of official structures and positions means that coordination is particularly vulnerable to changes in personnel. Interviews highlighted the fact that high staff turnover can act as a hindrance to coordination across agencies, for international agencies and for the MoE at the federal level, with ARRA also being noted for rotating staff between different regions. This, combined with a lack of defined coordination mechanisms and cross-system focal points, makes it challenging to build and maintain functional cooperation and coordination across the different actors and provision mechanisms.

28 Ethiopia has seen a range of challenges in the last year – including economic problems and political instability, with a change in the high-level leadership following widespread protests. These crises have meant that less attention has been given to refugee issues, which the new Prime Minister also appears less focused on.

5.3.4 How can coordination be improved?

There are a number of areas where coordination across the national education system and provision of education refugee coordination can be improved. Key areas include the following.

- The clarification of mandates, roles and responsibilities across ARRA, the MoE and REBs, with the agreement of an MoU and clarity on long-term arrangements under the CRRF and integration policy being key priorities here. Greater high-level political focus is likely to be needed to help reach agreement on key issues and push the process forward. However, Ethiopia's ongoing political instability may create challenges in achieving this.
- Greater use of international funding to encourage joint working and collaboration across the different actors, and to enable the MoE and REBs to provide support to refugee education provision. There are a number of existing examples that illustrate how international funding has been used to promote improved coordination at the regional level, and so this is a particularly important area to explore under the MOU and CRRF process.²⁹
- Improved leadership capacity – in terms of education expertise – could be provided by enabling greater use of MoE and REB education expertise within refugee education contexts. This would require further improvements in capacity, particularly in emerging regions, and would be enabled by improved resourcing, as well as clearer delineation of roles and responsibilities.

29 During the final review of this study in December 2019, ECW staff mentioned how coordination between ARRA and the MoE improved as a result of ECW's Initial Investment since it focused on ensuring the MoE was key to the delivery of education in refugee contexts (aligned to the Refugee Proclamation). This led to the signing of the MoU between ARRA and the MoE. The Investment contributed to reducing the siloed ways of working in the different coordination structures. Coordination was further improved by the ECW Multi-year Resilience Programme development process in early 2019, in which UNHCR represented the Refugee Coordination Group in the cluster mechanism.

6 The ‘so what’ of coordination in Ethiopia

Q3: *So what* does coordinated education planning and response contribute to better education and other collective outcomes for children and young people affected by crises?

This section examines the ‘so what’ of coordination in Ethiopia, reflecting on the outcomes and impacts of the coordination mechanisms and dynamics we have outlined in previous sections. There is a significant challenge, in that we are not in a position to demonstrate empirically that improved coordination results in improvements in education outcomes. This is partly due to the absence of quantitative metrics for the level or quality of coordination, but also to issues with data access and the practical scope of this study. Our analysis is therefore based on a review of existing data on outcomes and our interview process. This allows us to speak in broad terms of how coordination processes and education outcomes have evolved in parallel, and to draw out anecdotal evidence of improvements. However, it should be emphasised that we lack a strong empirical evidence base to demonstrate attribution and there are a range of other important factors, including the capacity and priorities of the agencies that are engaged in coordination.

The global analysis report (ODI, 2020) accompanying this case study notes two specific frameworks for analysing the effectiveness and impact of coordination – the OECD DAC outcomes and the ECW outcomes. The OECD

DAC outcomes are focused primarily on the quality of coordination itself, and so are largely covered in the ‘how’ section.³⁰ The ECW outcomes are focused on concrete educational outcomes – specifically, equity and gender equality, access, continuity, protection and quality – and so this section is organised to align with them.

6.1 Equity and gender equality

Education for refugees is characterised by large gender-based differences in GER and NER at ECCE, primary and secondary school levels (see Figure 6; UNHCR, 2018g). Gender disparities illustrated by the GPI suggest the highest disparities between boys and girls at secondary level. The least disparity is seen at the ECCE level (ibid.).

Looking at trends over time suggests that gender equality – as measured by enrolment rates – has actually fallen over recent years. While ECCE and primary enrolment rates have risen for both boys and girls, the pace of expansion has been faster for boys, resulting in a widening gender gap over 2015–2018.³¹ In contrast, there have been only marginal increases in female enrolment rates for secondary education, with the expansion in male enrolment thus resulting in an expanding gender gap over the same period.³²

It is notable that while gender gaps persist in the national education system, they are narrower at all levels of education than is found for refugee

30 The OECD DAC outcomes include: relevance/appropriateness, coverage, complementarity, sufficiency, efficiency, connectedness, coherence, accountability/participation, effectiveness and impact.

31 The gender gap for ECCE has widened from 1% GER in 2015 to 4% in 2018. The gender gap for primary education has widened from 18.8% GER in 2015 to 21% in 2018. Data is from UNHCR (2018g) and the Ethiopia Refugee Education Strategy 2015–2018 (UNHCR, 2015).

32 The gap has widened from 5.6% GER in 2015 to 8% in 2018 (UNHCR, 2018g).

provision. For instance, GER at ECCE level is lower overall for the national education system, but more equitable at 31% for boys and 30% for females. At primary level, GER is far higher in the national education system and while imbalances exist, they are narrower than for refugee education at 107% for boys and 97% for girls. The experience at secondary level is also similar, with GER at 36% for boys and 34% for girls (GEM, 2017). It is also notable that at national level the gender gaps in both out-of-school and completion rates have consistently narrowed over the last two decades at national level at both primary and secondary levels (World Inequality Database on Education).

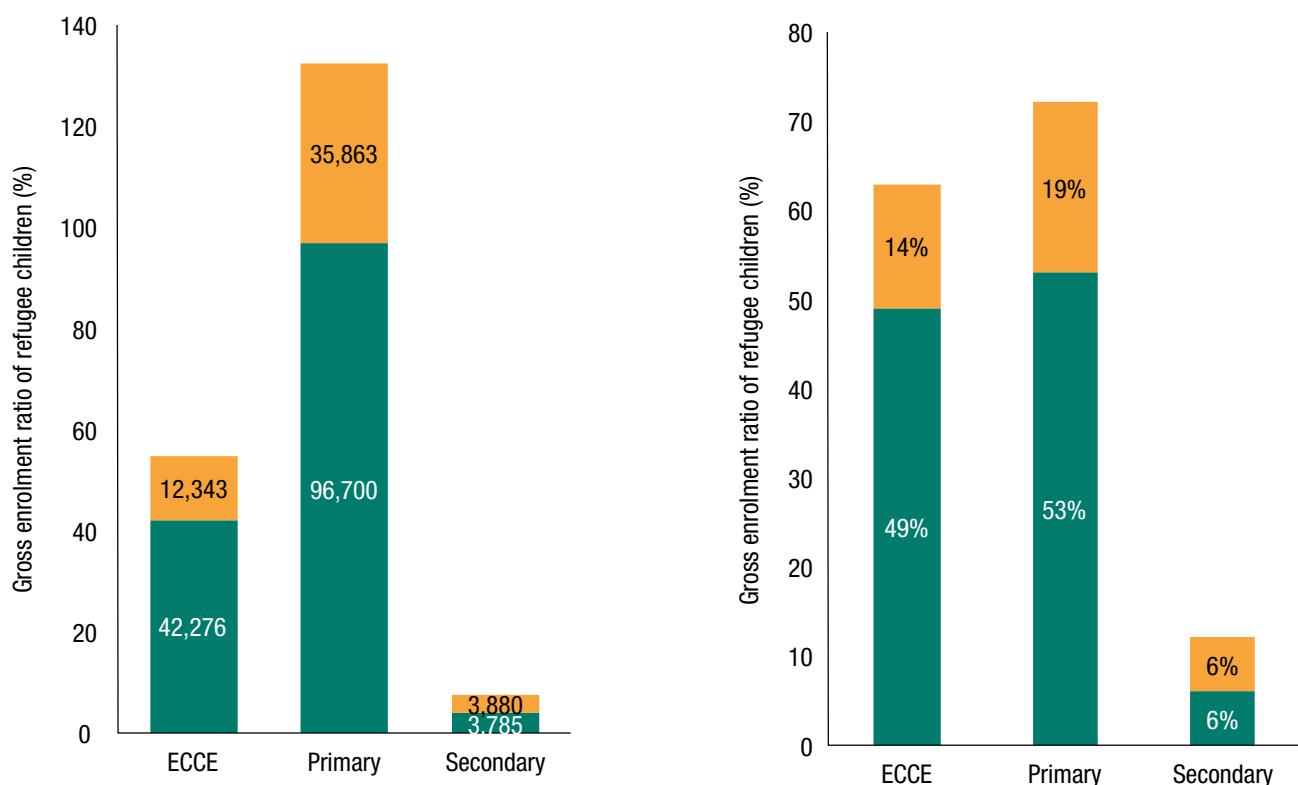
The expansion of the refugee education system is benefiting more girls than before, and it is possible that current coordination efforts have been able to limit the expansion of the gender gap in enrolment. However, this cannot be demonstrated in the absence of a clear counterfactual.

6.2 Access to education

There has been a marked increase in enrolment rates among refugees over the last two years, in line with the GoE's pledges for the CRRF process. As can be seen in Figure 7, there has been a marked increase in the total numbers of children enrolled and GERs across all levels of the education system, although considerable gaps remain. CRRF targets for GER have been achieved and exceeded for ECCE (62% enrolment against a target of 60%) and almost achieved for primary (72% enrolment against a target of 75%). Secondary education enrolment rates still lag, however, both in absolute terms and against CRRF targets (12% enrolment against a target of 25%). Although not shown here, the total number of refugee students at tertiary level also rose over this timeframe, increasing by 700 from 1,600 to 2,300 – nearing the GoE pledge in the CRRF road map of 2,500 refugees enrolled at tertiary level.

Figure 8 Education enrolment amongst refugees

■ 2015/16 ■ Increase over 2016/17 and 2017/18



Source: Based on UNHCR (2018g) and UNHCR data awaiting formal validation by MoE (CRRF Global Digital Portal, n.d.).

Coordination efforts are likely to be a contributory factor in terms of the CRRF goals acting as a focus for different actors and the joint efforts of ARRA and UNHCR in mapping and coordinating resources to avoid duplication. However, the significant increase in funding for refugee education is a significant driver for this expansion – with coordination efforts providing mechanisms for channelling funding in an effective manner, making an incremental rather than transformative difference.

Coordination issues in terms of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters are likely to have contributed to ongoing access challenges. As of October 2018, some 25% of IDP sites lacked access to formal primary education, only 30% had more than half of IDP children enrolled in school and less than 5% had gender parity in school enrolment (IOM, 2018).

6.3 Continuity of education

Coordination efforts appear to be producing quite different impacts on continuity of education across provision for refugees and provision for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters, with the latter being largely a question of how rapidly children return to learning following a crisis and the former also being a result of refugee accreditation processes that allow them access to appropriate levels of education.

The mechanisms for enabling refugees to be accredited for their education and to access national government schools where necessary appear to have had a positive effect on continuity of education for refugee children. Interviews suggested that REBs were generally efficient in running accreditation processes for children lacking formal evidence of their schooling – opening up opportunities for their continuing access to appropriate education. Refugee students also attend government schools in a number of areas, particularly at secondary level, suggesting that the efforts to remove barriers to access are functioning and allowing refugees to continue their education in the absence of dedicated refugee provision. Efforts over 2016 and 2017 to integrate refugee enrolment data into the national EMIS are also expected to have a positive impact on this system by improving the mapping of

where refugee students are and allowing national schools with refugee students to be funded accordingly. However, it is clear that these mechanisms are far from resolving the challenges in refugee enrolment at the secondary level.

Education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters appears to be facing far greater challenges in terms of ensuring continuity of education. In 2018, UNICEF set a target of 303,000 school-age children, including adolescents, accessing quality education. However, as of August 2018 only 14,789 children had been reached, with the majority of them receiving schooling through the construction of temporary learning spaces, especially in the Oromia, Somali and Gambella regions. Figures from the EEC also demonstrate a considerable shortfall, with a target of 2.19 million children with only 1.6 million reached in practice – a figure that includes the results of the School Feeding Programme by GoE, which has reached 1,595,966 children in all regions. There is therefore a severe shortfall in terms of emergency education provision that can be largely attributed to critical funding shortages, particularly for out-of-school children affected by crises and disasters (UNICEF, 2018f).

While the lack of funding and shortfalls should not be attributed to the weaknesses in the coordination system noted in previous sections, it should be noted that they are likely to be a contributing factor in terms of the lack of capacity to produce high-quality proposals for appeals funding and the relatively low profile of education for IDPs.

6.4 Protection

Protection outcomes in terms of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters also appear to be suffering from similar funding shortfalls. As of August 2018, UNICEF had reached a total of 28,533 children with psychological support against a target of 58,300 children. Similarly, the cluster target of reaching 30,000 children fell short with only 15,632 being reached (UNICEF, 2018b).

The clearest success in terms of the coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters appears to be the considerable

number of children that have been reached by the GoE's school feeding programmes. During 2018 this reached almost 1.6 million children across Ethiopia's regions, probably providing considerable relief for regions suffering from climate-related disasters that have created food supply issues. However, while the theoretical linkages between school feeding and education outcomes such as school attendance and learning outcomes are clear, there is a lack of empirical data to underpin this in the Ethiopian context.

As noted above, funding shortfalls are not the direct result of poor coordination but are likely to be a significant contributing factor. The relative success of the GoE school feeding programme suggests that there is significant potential to improve outcomes in a range of other outcome areas if sufficient priority, leadership and capacity is allocated to them.

Reducing siloes in coordination – backed by funding modalities like the Multi-year Resilience Programme which addresses the education needs of both IDPs and refugees – is also a key enabler for improving outcomes.³³

6.5 Education quality

There are numerous anecdotal examples of how coordination has begun to improve intermediate inputs that could be expected to improve learning and skills outcomes, including REB support to train refugee teachers, provide learning materials for refugee schools and conduct regular monitoring and inspection visits that map support needs. However, it is important to note that the researchers were unable to conduct rigorous empirical analyses of these links and did not come across any examples of relevant existing research or analysis.

The anecdotal evidence focuses particularly on elements of cooperation between the national and refugee education systems, with REBs providing support to ARRA and refugee education providers in several areas. These efforts appear to have been financed at least partly by international donors and programmes. The inclusion of some refugee teachers in teacher training programmes run by REBs and the MoE is likely to improve teacher skills in refugee schools and hence the learning outcomes of refugee students. However, a considerable expansion of these training opportunities is necessary for them to achieve a systemic improvement in learning outcomes.

REB efforts to monitor and conduct supervision for refugee schools, as well as administering national assessments for refugee students, are seen as providing useful information on the current standard of these schools and where improvements could be made. However, the impact of these efforts on actual learning outcomes depends on school authorities having the capacity, knowledge and resources to respond to their comments and suggestions. Similarly, REB and MoE collaboration with refugee schools on access to learning materials and textbooks helps put in place the building blocks for quality education but does not guarantee that they will be used effectively given current teacher skill levels and class sizes.

These examples demonstrate the potential for coordination to support improved learning outcomes, but also highlight the need for efforts to be significantly expanded – in terms of the degree of teacher training and capacity to respond to evaluations emerging from monitoring and supervision processes – if they are to achieve more than incremental change.

33 The final review of the study by ECW staff in December 2019 emphasised how reducing silos in coordination improves outcomes through better delivery of education. It equally enables best practices in gender inclusion and protection to be better factored into the response.

7 Conclusion

Ethiopia has two coordination structures for EiE – the first covers IDPs and local communities affected by crises and disasters, while the second covers the refugee community. The MoE leads coordination for the former system and delivery is largely through the national education system, with support from the Education Cluster, as well as NGOs and development partners. The latter system is coordinated by ARRA, supported by UNHCR and the REWG, with delivery of refugee education by both ARRA and NGO partners, supported by the MoE and REBs. There are also some tensions related to overlapping mandates between the MoE and ARRA regarding final authority over refugee education. Alongside these EiE structures, the national education system also has planning structures for non-emergency provision and support from the DAG ESWG.

Coordination of education for IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters is generally considered to have significant weaknesses. While the MoE has a clear formal mandate and responsibility for this coordination, there is no dedicated directorate for coordination and no full-time coordination staff and expertise across the MoE and REBs. Similar issues affect the Education Cluster, sub-national clusters and CLAs, all of which have suffered from staffing shortages for extended periods, which could be improved. Incentives for engaging with coordination mechanisms have also been lacking due to an absence of significant funding coordinated through the Education Cluster. This creates a cycle of poor capacity and coordination, leading to an inability to put forward high-quality proposals for the appeals process and so a continued lack of funding and priority. The range of weaknesses creates challenges in terms of improving coordination overall, but there is also potential for specific improvements to have a catalytic impact on the quality of coordination.

Coordination of education for refugees is generally considered to be well coordinated in terms of avoiding duplication of delivery and service provision but has significant weaknesses in terms of more detailed areas of implementation that may shape education quality (e.g. teacher training and pay). The strengths of coordination mechanisms can be attributed to clarity of mandates in terms of both ARRA and UNHCR, as well as their long history of cooperation and close working relationship; the presence of strong tools and incentives for implementers engaging with the coordination mechanisms (particularly in terms of financial resources); and high levels of overall staffing. Particular weaknesses that need addressing in order to improve coordination include a strong set of objectives on expanding access for refugees, but the absence of a similar set of targets for learning outcomes; a lack of data collection tools that could capture and coordinate issues such as teacher training and school-level resources and needs; a shortage of multi-year funding; a need for expanded MoE and REB capacity to provide technical collaboration and support; and gaps in data sharing across different levels of the coordination system.

Coordination of provision across the national education system and provision of refugee education is perceived as fairly weak, but there are a number of examples of good coordination in specific areas, as well as long-term aspirations towards integration of these systems under the CRRF roll-out process. A key challenge is the absence of a formal body responsible for coordinating across the MoE, REBs and ARRA, with coordination relying on a number of ad hoc mechanisms, incentives created by international funding that requires and enables joint working, and practical overlaps between education provision for refugees and provision by the national education system. There are initiatives to improve the clarity of mandates, roles and

responsibilities – including an MoU between the MoE and ARRA, and the integration of systems under the CRRF. However, progress has been slow on both processes.

While this research cannot empirically demonstrate a link between changes in coordination practices and education outcomes, there are a number of broad associations and anecdotal evidence that suggest a link between improvements (and challenges) in coordination and education outcomes for children and young people affected by crises.

Examining these in terms of the ECW outcomes framework,³⁴ we see that gender inequalities in education access for refugees have not narrowed in recent years, despite increased coordination efforts, and are consistently wider than for the national education system. In terms of access, there has been a considerable expansion in the number and share of refugee children enrolled in education at all levels, and for both boys and girls.

Mechanisms for accrediting refugee children and allowing them access to national schools appear to be improving continuity of education.

However, similar progress is lacking for IDPs, for whom a lack of funding and focus on the provision of education to IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters is associated with significant gaps between the need for temporary learning spaces and the number of children being reached.

In terms of protection and broader outcomes, the education response to the IDP crisis does appear to have been highly successful in terms of implementing school feeding programmes that reach large numbers of displaced and crisis-affected children. However, this success is not replicated in other protection outcomes (e.g. psychological support to children).

Coordination across the national and refugee education systems – supported by international financing – appears to be having a positive effect on many intermediate inputs and indicators that we would expect to improve learning outcomes (e.g. teacher skills, access to learning materials, data on enrolment and standards), but these appear to be fairly small-scale efforts, and there is currently no clear empirical evidence linking them to improved learning outcomes.

34 This includes equity and gender equality, access, continuity, protection and quality.

8 Recommendations

To strengthen education outcomes for children and young people in Ethiopia affected by crises, humanitarian and development actors should more effectively coordinate planning and response. This study recommends that the Ethiopian Government and donors commit to the following.

1. Support efforts to clarify mandates and roles across ARRA, the MoE and REBs

The research process has highlighted ongoing challenges in terms of delineating the mandates and roles of ARRA, the MoE and REBs in terms of the coordination and administration of refugee education. While these have not prevented a considerable expansion of access to education for refugees, they present an ongoing barrier to improving the quality of refugee education, as well as a source of tension between the MoE and ARRA that must be resolved if Ethiopia is to successfully implement a policy of inclusion and integration for refugee education and the national education system. This process should ultimately help produce a coordination and delivery system for education that can reach all refugees, IDPs and communities affected by crises and disasters.

Major education donors and development partners of the GoE (including DFID, ECW, UNICEF, UNHCR and the World Bank) should therefore advocate at the highest level for sustained political engagement from the Prime Minister's Office to implement the MoU between ARRA and the MoE, and to push for a consensus on what an integrated education system, effectively coordinated within a functioning CRRF process and NCRRS, will look like. High-level political engagement is vital to push the different actors towards a common approach, but will involve challenges and trade-offs. While the greatest impact will be long term, there should also be short-term benefits from reducing the uncertainty

that is blocking collaboration and damaging relations across communities and institutions.

There may be opportunities emerging following the reorganisation of ARRA and the arrival of new management that may create space for more constructive engagement and compromise. Emphasis should be placed on the importance of breaking this deadlock to improving education quality in emerging regions and fulfilling the GoE pledges to refugees, as well as commitments to the Ethiopian people.

2. Make greater use of the potential of international funding to encourage collaboration between REBs and ARRA to improve the quality of refugee education

While Ethiopia has made significant progress in expanding access to education for refugees, there are still major challenges in terms of ensuring improvements in learning outcomes and education quality. REBs are mandated to provide support to the refugee education system to this end, but the extent to which they are able to do so is limited by issues of funding and capacity.

Interviews highlighted that international funding that required engagement from ARRA, the MoE and REBs – including ECW resources – has been a major enabling factor in successful examples of collaboration between these bodies. Encouraging donor agencies to provide dedicated resources to enable greater REB support to refugee education, as well as direct support to local-level problem solving across refugee and host community education, could have a positive impact on overall outcomes.

This would be particularly effective if it was combined with efforts to encourage or require ongoing engagement from both ARRA and the REBs, including mutual attendance at regional

Education Cluster and REWG meetings. This shift would also have the benefit of allowing the refugee education system to move away from a reliance on short-term humanitarian funding and to access more long-term development programming – a shift that could improve education provision and allow more long-term investments in raising education quality.

3. Support the establishment of dedicated coordination units and personnel for emergency response within the MoE and REBs in consistently crisis-affected regions

A key gap highlighted in the analysis was the absence of adequate leadership capacity for the coordination of the education response for IDPs and communities affected by crisis and disasters. The establishment of dedicated coordination units with personnel focused only on EiE would generate significant additional coordination capacity – enabling the response to be less reactive and to invest more time in forward planning, training, data collection and engaging with international agencies and IPs. This would in turn have the potential to improve funding for the education response by closing existing gaps in appeals data and enabling closer relationships to be developed across funding and implementing agencies.

4. Improve the presence of permanent and dedicated coordination staff for the Ethiopia Education Cluster and regional clusters

Ethiopia faces recurrent challenges in terms of displacement and populations affected by crises and disasters. Despite this, the education response for these populations has been hampered by the EEC either not being formally activated or operating with only part-time personnel for extended periods. Ensuring a full-time cluster coordinator and dedicated

counterparts at the regional level (for regions facing repeated crises) should therefore be a priority and could sit alongside efforts to improve leadership capacity within the MoE and REBs, as well as renewed efforts from the CLAs to ensure they have focal points for coordination and are in a position to fulfil their roles. Similar outcomes would be expected as with efforts within the MoE and REBs, but the Cluster would also then be in a better position to mobilise funds and coordinate IPs than at present.

5. Prioritise investing in data as a key part of the education response

Displacement from drought and conflict can escalate quickly in Ethiopia and good data (that is credible and timely) is a crucial part of the response. As seen in the study, within just a year and a half (between January 2017 and July 2018), the country saw the number of conflict and climate-related IDPs rise from 0.6 million to 2.6 million, an increase of 330%. This estimate excluded most of SNNP, one of the main regions experiencing the displacement, and therefore the response was inadequate (mainly political reasons restricted access for displacement tracking and it was difficult to reach areas that had been particularly hard hit).

To respond to escalating displacement in the months to come, key stakeholders involved in the response need to prioritise investing in data, including improving coordinating the collection and sharing of data. While the systems currently in place to track IDPs and refugees allow for a reasonable level of both coordination and response (with mainly OCHA, IOM, UNHCR and UNICEF monitoring and reporting humanitarian situations closely), greater investment in data is needed, especially by the government, to be able to respond adequately and quickly to the education needs of displaced and refugee children. Priority should particularly be given to reinforce existing systems of data collection, including the national EMIS and capacity within REBs.

6. Encourage the establishment of high-profile goals on learning outcomes for refugee and IDP education

As noted above, Ethiopia's success in improving refugee access to education has not been matched by improvements in education quality, with a similar gap in learning outcomes perceived for IDP education. The creation of additional goals focused on learning outcomes and aligned with the aspirations of SDG 4 could therefore provide an important additional incentive for giving these issues greater priority. In the case of refugee education, the goal could be added to the GoE pledges or ongoing CRRF plans, and reinforced by a broadening of the accountability matrix to cover elements such as short-term teacher training initiatives and the specific resources of schools. These would enable them to be mapped more effectively – avoiding duplication and highlighting specific gaps in training or student needs. This could be done at the camp or regional level to avoid creating too many additional layers of bureaucracy and would need to be accompanied by measures to improve capacity in terms of the education knowledge of coordinators, etc. In the case of IDP education, the goal could be included in the workplans of the MoE and REBs, as well as high-level policy documents such as the ESDP.

7. Consider education as a pathfinder for inclusion and integration of refugees and forcibly displaced IDPs

Research highlighted that the aspirations of the GoE in terms of integrating refugees as part of the CRRF process has created concerns, as well as optimism, particularly in regions such as Gambella where there are significant refugee populations, with host and refugee community status also aligning along ethnic lines and creating additional tensions. Interviewees noted that improved clarity on what was meant by integration and how it would proceed would help to alleviate these concerns, but also that education was considered one of the least contentious areas for integration among Ethiopian citizens – particularly compared to issues such as land, water and access to other resources. These types of tensions may also arise in terms of mass movements of forcibly displaced IDPs, so similar approaches may be necessary to address them.

Education funding could also be provided more equitably to ensure that host populations benefit from education funding from international donors, in addition to refugees and IDPs, so demonstrating potential benefits to host communities. Education therefore can act as a pathfinder for the integration process – demonstrating how it can bring benefits to host communities, refugees and IDPs, in line with the Global Compact on Refugees, as well as providing a platform for different communities to mix and integrate socially.

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Annex 1 List of key informant interviews, focus group discussions and other events

Key informant interviews were conducted with 49 interviewees from the following organisations:

Abol Woreda, Gambella

ARRA

ARRA Gambella

ARRA Gambella Zonal office

DFID

DICAC Gambella

DG-ECHO

Gambella BoFED

Gambella REB

ECCD Officer in Kule Refugee Camp Kule Refugee Camp, Gambella

MoE

MoFEC

ECCD Officer Nguenyyiel Refugee Camp, Gambella

OCHA

Plan International Ethiopia (Gambella)

Save the Children International

UNCHR

UNICEF

USAID

World Bank

Annex 2 High-level interview questions

1. Who are the main stakeholders and what are the main mechanisms involved in country-level education coordination in Ethiopia? What are the different roles that the main stakeholders play?
2. What are the main obstacles and constraints for the coordination and delivery of the education response in Ethiopia?
3. What are the main strengths of how the education response is coordinated in Ethiopia? Are there particular mechanisms or initiatives that have helped overcome coordination challenges?
4. What would help improve coordination or allow coordination challenges to be more effectively overcome?



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ODI
203 Blackfriars Road
London SE1 8NJ

+44 (0)20 7922 0300
info@odi.org

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